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INTERNATIONAL COMPARISONS AND INTRA-NATIONAL HETEROGENEITY OF YOUNG-ADULT CONSUMER CHARACTERISTICS IN CHINA

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

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POVZETEK

Doktorska disertacija je sestavljena iz zbirke več objavljenih in objavljivih prispevkov, z glavnim ciljem preučiti značilnosti kitajskih mladih odraslih potrošnikov z mednarodnega vidika ter regijskih razlik znotraj Kitajske same. Disertacija je razdeljena na dva vsebinska dela. Prvi del predstavlja prispevek z naslovom "Mednarodna primerjava značilnosti mladih odraslih potrošnikov: razumevanje inovativnosti mladih odraslih potrošnikov in vloge regionalizma v Srednji in Vzhodni Evropi ter Vzhodni Aziji". Poglavje zajema preučevanje vpliva različnih slogov odločanja potrošnikov (ang. *Consumer decision-making styles* oz. CDMS), etnocentrizma potrošnikov (ang. *Consumer ethnocentrism* oz. CET) ter vpliva državnega oz. regionalnega ozadja na inovativnost potrošnikov (ang. *Consumer innovativeness* oz. CIN). Empirični kontekst zajema primerjavo mladih odraslih potrošnikov iz Kitajske z mladimi odraslimi potrošniki na Japonskem, v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem. Gre za edinstveno primerjavo znotraj dveh regij (dveh držav znotraj Vzhodne Azije in dveh držav znotraj Srednje ter Vzhodne Evrope), kot tudi med regijami (med Vzhodno Azijo ter Srednjo in Vzhodno Evropo). Ugotovitve kažejo, da etnocentrizem potrošnikov (CET) nima statistično značilenga vpliva na inovativnost potrošnikov (CIN) v primeru izdelkov vsakdanje rabe (ang. *Fast Moving Consumer Goods* oz. FMCG). Tri dimenzije od izbranih štirih slogov potrošniškega odločanja (CDMS) (pomen kakovosti, uporaba informacij in cenovna ozaveščenost) imajo statistično značilen vpliv na inovativnost potrošnikov (CIN). Poleg tega, pa so razlike v vedenju potrošnikov med regijama večje od razlik med državami.

Drugi del predstavlja prispevek z naslovom "Mednarodna primerjava značilnosti mladih odraslih potrošnikov - osebne kulturne značilnosti in odnos do tujih izdelkov: medsektorska in medregijska analiza potrošnikov". V prispevku preizkusim vpliv osebnih kulturnih značilnosti (neodvisnost, izogibanje negotovosti/dvoumnosti, tradicija in preudarnost) na etnocentrizem mladih odraslih potrošnikov (CET) ter svetovljanstva (kozmopolitanske naravnanosti) potrošnikov (ang. *Consumer cosmopolitanism* oz. COS). Poleg tega v prispevku preizkušam tudi vpliv države izvora (ang. *Country of origin*), etnocentrizma potrošnikov (CET) in svetovljanstva (kozmopolitanske naravnanosti) kitajskih mladih odraslih potrošnikov na njihovo pripravljenost kupiti tuje izdelke z bodisi nizko ali visoko vpletenostjo iz štirih izbranih držav/regij (Avstralija, Japonska, Rusija in države Srednje in Vzhodne Evrope). Prispevek obravnava tudi zmerno vlogo inovativnosti potrošnikov (CIN) v odnosu med etnocentrizmom potrošnikov (CET) in svetovljanstvom (kozmopolitansko naravnanostjo) potrošnikov (COS) na eni strani ter pripravljenostjo potrošnikov za nakupe omenjenih vrst tujih izdelkov na drugi strani.

Jedro drugega prispevka predstavlja obsežna primerjava potrošniških značilnosti v treh različnih regijah znotraj Kitajske ter na treh ravneh mest (mesta prvega, drugega in tretjega reda) znotraj vsake regije (skupno 9 mest znotraj 3 regij Kitajske). Rezultati raziskave kažejo, da osebni kulturni značilnosti tradicije in preudarnosti vplivata tako na etnocentrizem potrošnikov (CET), kot tudi na svetovljanskost (kozmopolitansko naravnanost) mladih odraslih potrošnikov na Kitajskem. V skladu s prejšnjimi raziskavami, kitajski mladi odrasli

potrošniki kažejo relativno nizko raven etnocentrizma (CET), relativno visoko raven svetovljanstva (kozmopolitanske naravananosti) in dokaj visoko raven potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN). Poleg tega pa etnocentrizem potrošnikov (CET) vpliva negativno na pripravljenost potrošnikov za nakup tujih izdelkov. Zanimivo je, da je vpliv svetovljanstva (kozmopolitanske naravnanosti) kitajskih mladih odraslih potrošnikov na nakupno namero do tujih izdelkov veljaven le, če kitajski trg gledamo kot kombinacijo heterogenih segmentov. Svetovljanstvo (kozmopolitanska naravnanost) ima na primer, pozitiven vpliv na pripravljenost za nakup tujih izdelkov v mestih drugega reda, medtem ko je v drugih mestih vpliv odvisen od države izvora izdelka. Glede vpliva odnosa potrošnikov do tujine na njihovo nakupno namero so rezultati precej mešani. V štirih izbranih državah je povezava med odnosom do Japonske in pripravljenostjo za nakup japonskih izdelkov najmočnejša.

Disertacija razkriva spreminjanje (pozitivnega) odnosa kitajskih mladih odraslih potrošnikov do Japonske in japonskih izdelkov, ki je precej drugačen v primerjavi s prejšnjimi študijami (npr. Klein et al., 1998). Zanimivo je, da odnos do Avstralije ne vpliva na nakupno namero potrošnikov do avstralskih izdelkov. Obstaja tudi zmerna vloga potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN), ki se kaže tudi v odnosu med etnocentrizmom potrošnikov (CET) in pripravljenostjo za nakup tujih izdelkov z visoko vpletenostjo v nakup. Kar zadeva primerjave med ravnmi in medregionalno primerjavo značilnosti kitajskih mladih odraslih potrošnikov, rezultati kažejo različne ravni etnocentrizma potrošnikov (CET) in potrošniške inovatovnosti (CIN) na vseh treh omenjenih ravneh (v mestih od prvega do tretjega reda), izjema je edino na ravni svetovljanstva oz. kozmopolitanske naravnanosti potrošnikov. Velja tudi izpostaviti, da obstajajo relativno velike medregijske razlike na ravni osebne kulturne značilnosti preudarnosti. Poleg tega, pa rezultati podpirajo razlike med ravnmi in medregionalne razlike glede vzročne zveze med osebnimi kulturnimi značilnostmi (tradicija, preudarnost) ter etnocentrizmom potrošnikov (CET) in svetovljanstvom (kozmopolitansko naravnanostjo), razmerjem med etnocentrizmom (CET) in svetovljanstvom (kozmopolitansko naravnanostjo) ter pripravljenostjo za nakup tujih izdelkov, ter zmerno vlogo potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN) v razmerju med potrošniško inovativnostjo (CIN) in svetovljanstvom (kozmopolitansko naravnanostjo) (COS) ter pripravljenostjo za nakup tujih izdelkov.

Ključne besede: mladi odrasli potrošniki, potrošniški slogi odločanja, potrošniški etnocentrizem, svetovljanstvo potrošnikov, potrošniška inovativnost, odnos do držav, primerjava med ravnmi, medregionalna primerjava

SUMMARY

This thesis is a collection of publishable papers, with the main goal to to look into Chinese young-adult consumers' characteristics from both international and intra-national perspectives. For better organization of the thesis, I organize the thesis in the format of two chapters. The first chapter "The international comparison of young-adult consumers characteristics: understanding drivers of young-adult consumer innovativeness and the role of regionalism in Eastern Europe and East Asia" aims to test the impact of specific consumer decision making styles (CDMS), consumer ethnocentrism (CET) and country/regional backgrounds as determinants of innate (personal) consumer innovativeness (CIN) by comparing consumers from China and Japan (East Asian) with Slovenia and Croatia (Eastern Europe). The findings show that CET does not have any impact on CIN in the case of fast moving consumer goods (FMCG). Yet, 3 dimensions from selected four CDMS (quality consciousness, information utilization, and price consciousness) do have a significant impact on CIN. Further, the regional differences on consumer behaviors are larger than differences between countries. The second chapter "Intra-national comparison of young-adult consumer characteristics - Personal cultural dispositions towards foreign products: a cross-tier and inter-regional consumer analysis" aims to test the antecedent role of personal cultural orientations (independence, ambiguity intolerance, tradition, and prudence) to CET and consumer cosmopolitanism (COS). In addition, it also aims to test the impact of CET, COS and Chinese young-adult consumer's country attitudes on their willingness to buy foreign high- and low-involvement products from four selected countries/region (Australia, Japan, Russia and CEE countries). Apart from that, the second chapter also looks into the moderation role of CIN in the relationship between CET/COS and consumer's willingness to buy foreign products. The focal point of the second chapter also lies in the comparison of consumer characteristics across three tiers and three regions (9 cities clustered in 3 regions). The findings revealed that tradition and prudence do have impact on CET and COS. In line with previous research, Chinese young-adult consumers display a low level of CET, relative high level of COS and CIN. Further, CET has negative impact on consumer's willingness to buy foreign products. However, the impact of COS on young-adult consumers' purchase intention towards foreign products is only valid when looking Chinese market as combination of heterogeneous segments. For instance, COS has positive impact on willingness to buy foreign products in Tier 2 cities, while in other tiered cities, this positive impact is dependent on the country of origin of the product. In terms of the impact of consumer's attitudes toward foreign countries on their purchase intention, the results are quite mixed. Within the selected four countries, the link between attitudes towards Japan and willingness to buy Japanese products are strongest. This thesis reveals changing (positive) attitudes of Chinese young-adult consumers towards Japan and Japanese products, which is quite different in comparison of previous studies (e.g. Klein et al., 1998). Interestingly, the attitudes towards Australia do not have any impact on consumer's purchase intention towards Australian products. CIN's moderation role is found in the relationship between CET and willingness to buy high-involvement foreign products. Concerning the cross-tier

and inter-regional comparison on Chinese young-adult consumers' characteristics, Chinese young-adult consumers display different level on CET and CIN across three tiers, except for COS. There are inter-regional differences on the level of prudence. In addition, the results support the cross-tier and inter-regional differences on the causal relationship between personal cultural orientations (tradition, prudence) and CET/COS, relationship between CET/COS and willingness to buy foreign products, and CIN's moderation role in the relationship between CIN/COS and willingness to buy foreign products.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

i

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF APPENDICES

INTRODUCTION

Globalization has caused consumer behavior to transcend country borders (Levitt, 1993) as culture flows from one to another in the global landscape (Craig & Douglas, 2006). The literature on sociology of globalization suggests an emergence of global consumer generations who hold homogeneous demands (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 2008; Cleveland & Bartsch, 2019). Yet, at the meanwhile, local culture still plays a significant role shaping consumer's characteristics and behaviors (Kipnis, Kubacki, Broderick, Siemieniako, & Pisarenko, 2012; Srivastava, Gupta, & Rana, 2021), and consumption of local goods still remains resilient as it helps to reflect consumers' different socio-cultural and social-economic background (Rambocas & Mahabir, 2021; Riefler, Diamantopoulos, & Siguaw, 2012). Against this background, scholars have catagorized consumers into three consumer culture groups, namely consumers who carry global consumer culture, consumers who are embedded in local consumer culture and consumers who share *glocal* consumer culture[1] (Merz, He, & Alden, 2008; Steenkamp, 2019).

According to the psychology of globalization literature, globalization processes differently impact various generational cohorts (Arnett, 2002). **Young-adult (in their early 20s)[2]** are viewed as a specific cohort who are susceptible to globalization and consumer acculturation processes (Arnett, 2002; Berry, 2008; Cleveland, 2018; Nguyen & Pham, 2021). They are nicknamed as "citizens of the world" (Strizhakova, Coulter, & Price, 2012). However, at the same time, they are also local embedded. Therefore, they are actually a cohort who carry **unique *glocal* cultural** and consumer identities (Ding, Vuchkovski, Žabkar, Hirose, & Rašković, 2018; Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006; Strizhakova *et al.*, 2012). They are also becoming a key consumer segment in international marketing (Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006; Strizhakova *et al.*, 2012). Existing empirical literature shows that in general young-adult consumers display higher level of consumer innovativeness and consumer cosmopolitanism but lower level of consumer ethnocentrism cohorts (Cannon & Yaprak, 2001; Ronald E. Goldsmith & Hofacker, 1991; C. M. Han& Nam, 2019; Raskovic, Ding, Hirose, Zabkar, & Fam, 2020). However, compared to other cohorts young-adult consumers and their consumer characteristics are still under researched (Rašković, Ding, Škare, Ozretić Došen, & Žabkar, 2016). In literature of consumer studies against the background of

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[1] Glocal consumer culture is a hybridized mix of global and local consumer culture, which indicates that a glocal consumer would carry the global homogeneous consumer characteristics as well as its own local culture embedded characteristics (Mertz et al., 2008).

[2] Sometimes popularly called as Millennials

globalization, Cleveland and Laroche (2007) and Taras, Steel, and Kirkman (2016) pointed out that globalization actually caused **larger within-market consumer differences and between-market consumer similarities**. However, their empirical research was country based. Further, Lamour and De La Robertie (2016) pointed out that though globalization may have blurred the differences between markets, **regional variations still exist in consumer behavior**. This is reflected also in practice that the **international marketing activities** are usually **region based**, e.g. European market, Latin American Market, Southern Asian market etc. A typical example could be McDonald's burger, which symbolize a global fast-paced urban lifestyle. However, In North American region, it is advertised just as a simple meal while in Eastern Asia it is advertised as a western lifestyle (Merz *et al.*, 2008). In addition, the tasts of burger is also adapted to the local demands so as to convey the message of its local belongingness. This is in line with Samuel, Douglas, and Craig (2011)'s call for MNCs' semiglobal marketing strategies, which on one hand "continue to develop globally or regionally integrated marketing strategies" in more developed and matured markets, and on the other hand "develop new and innovative strategies based on deep understanding of local market conditions and priorities" (p. 97).

However, research on globalization of the consumer culture **is dominated by Westernization or Americanization** (Boso, Debrah, & Amankwah-Amoah, 2018; Chelekis & Figueiredo, 2015) and there is very limited research on between-regions market comparison of consumer's characterstics and behaviors (Chelekis & Figueiredo, 2015), particularly in **non-western countries and regions**, as well as very **limited** research on **within-country comparison** of consumer's characteristics and behaviors. Further, what we discussed above **brings the question to young-adult consumer's cohort. Is "between-market similarities vs. within-market differences" the case for this specific cohort since they share glocal identy?** This question is critical for young-adult consumer culture theory on identifying their consumer characteristics and behaviors as well as their consumer identity against the background of anti-globalization and rising nationalism (Meyer, 2017). The frequent geo-political conflicts, e.g. China-India boarder issues, US-China escalated trade war, Russia-Ukraine war, have caused consumer's boycotting of the products from the "rival" countries/political groups (Heinberg, 2017; Mainolfi, 2022; Verma, 2022). Therefore, answering this question is also beneficial for international marketers to segment young-adult consumers scientifically and cost efficiently so as to balance the standardization and adaptation of the products/services and marketing activities to the market. Further, "within-country and between-country" studies are also facing methodological insufficiency in terms

2

of the unit of analysis. Existing literature on studying young-adult consumer's characteristics are taking country as analyzing unit particularly when it comes to cross-country comparisons (Ding, Vuchkovski, Zabkar, Hirose, & Raskovic, 2018; Jin *et al.*, 2015; Raskovic *et al.*, 2020). The usual approach is to take samples from one or two cities from each country to represent the whole cohort (Han& Nam, 2019). For single-country based studies on young-adult consumer's characteristics, the samples are usually collected from one region or from relative developed cities (Q. Ding, 2017; Eom, Seock, & Hunt-Hurst, 2019). Albeit there are exceptional studies taking samples from the national wide (Aljukhadar, Boeuf, & Senecal, 2021), they usually take a "single homogeneous market" as an unspoken hidden premise.

Hence, to answer the research question on the "between-country and within country" issue and address the methodological insufficiency in international marketing studies, this doctoral dissertation aims to look into young-adult consumer's characteristics from both perspectives**: between-country/region comparison and within-country comparison**. They will be structured **in two chapters** with the first chapter focusing on the between country/region comparison and second chapter focusing on the within-country comparison.

The **first chapter** "The international comparison of young-adult consumers characteristics: understanding drivers of young-adult consumer innovativeness and the role of regionalism in Eastern Europe and East Asia" aims to test the impact of specific consumer decision-making styles (CDMS), consumer ethnocentrism (CET) and country/regional backgrounds as determinants of innate (personal) consumer innovativeness (CIN) (Bartels & Reinders, 2011) for fast moving consumer goods (FMCGs) among young-adult consumers (in their 20 s) (the conceptual model can be seen in Figure 1). In addition, it also aims to figure out **whether there are bigger within-region differences than between region differences** by comparing consumer's characteristics between the selected four non-western countries located in two regions: China and Japan (Eastern Asia) and Slovenia and Croatia (Eastern Europe).

CIN is defined as "the predisposition to buy new and different products and brands rather than remain with previous choices and consumption patterns" (Steenkamp, Hofstede, & Wedel, 1999, p. 56). It is a key important criterion for international marketers to segment consumers and helps firms understand factors determining success of innovations and/or new types of products (Eryigit, 2020; Kaushik & Rahman, 2014). Young-adults are believed to be in the forefront of innovativeness as they are more acquainted to the fast pace of technological advancement and adapted to the newness (Jürgensen & Guesalaga, 2018).

Rapid technological advancement, shorter product life cycles and overall market saturation put growing supply-side "pressures" on young-adult consumers and their decision making. They are increasingly under "pressure" to adopt new types of products and technology, or simply switch between products and/or brands (Tellis, Yin, & Bell, 2009). There lacks research on the mechanism on the factors that influence on consumer's decision on the new products adoption. According to Mishra (2015) specific consumer decision making styles (such as brand-consciousness and quality consciousness) play as underlying mechanism evaluating the differences between the products holistically (Jürgensen & Guesalaga, 2018).

Figure 1: Conceptual Model Of Chapter 1: The International Comparison Of Young-Adult Consumers Characteristics: Understanding Drivers Of Young-Adult Consumer Innovativeness And The Role Of Regionalism In Eastern Europe And East Asia
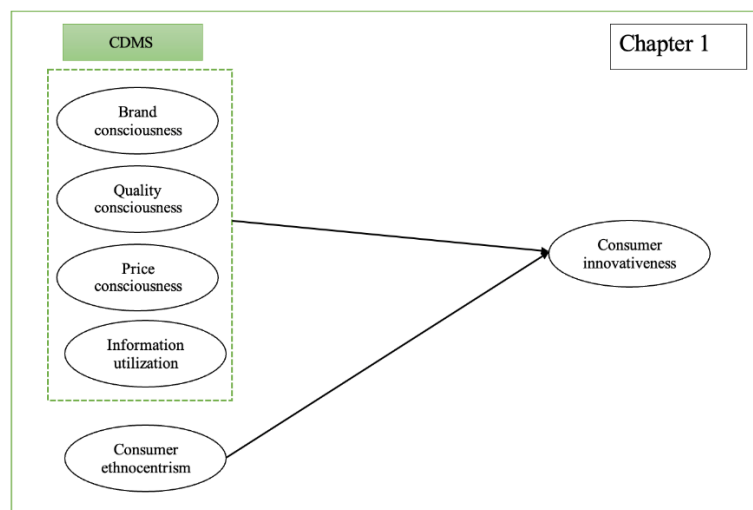
Note: CDMS=consumer decision-making styles/factors.

Source: Own work.

In terms of the causal relationship between CET and CIN, the social identidy theory suggests a negative relationship between CET and CIN (Tajfel & Turner, 1978). Shimp & Sharma (1987) pointed out that CET is psychological process that carries consumer's sense of belongingess to a group, which leads to a positive in-group biased consumer behavior. Therefore, ethnocentric consumers tend to favor the domectic products and see foreign products and competiton as threats to domestic economy (Čutura, 2020; Myers & Twenge, 2019; Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015). While CIN is a psychological trait that capture's consumer's predisposition towards novelty either by obtaining new knowledge/consumption experience on products or by adoption of new products (Hartman, Gehrt, & Watchravesringkan, 2004; Jürgensen & Guesalaga, 2018; Raskovic *et al.*, 2020).

Ethnocentric consumers would limit their comsumpiton behavior to the domestic territory while innovative consumers do not set boundary for their innovative comsumption behaviors.

The data was collected through web-based questionairs with a matched sampling approach (Minkov, 2012) at four leading business schools in Ljubljana, Croatia, Shanghai and Tokyo. Concerning the impact of unblanced gender distribution in Japanese sample on the weighted composite variable --- CET between the two genders, we appropriately weighted the composite variable pertaining to CET in the case of Japanese sample. All the constructs are drawn from existing establised scales and were measured on 7-point ordinal Likert-type scales. The invariance analysis (J.-B. E. Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998) was conducted so as to ensure the further multi-group comparison. Based on invariance testing and factor analysis, weighted composite variables were constructed from factor loadings for each country. The composite reliability was tested by calculating the square roots of Average Variance Extracted. The cross-country comparison (Eastern Europe and East Asia) of weighted composite construsts was performed through ANOVA mean test, while the cross-regional companrison was conducted through a simple independent t-test mean comparison. Further, the causal relationships between consturcts were performed with OLS regressions with gender, country dummies and interregional dummy corresponding to Eastern Europe or East Asia under further consideration. The main questions in chapter 1 would be: what the relationship between CET is and CIN; How do slected consumer decision-making styles affect consumer behavior when it comes to consumer innovativeness; and do young-adult consumer display a larger regional difference than country differences in consumer behaviors. Therefore, chapter 1 extends not just the empirical, but also the theoretical work of Rašković et al. (2016). Empirically, it provides a more balance within- and between region data sets by comparing China and Japan (East Asia) with Slovenia and Croatia (Eastern Europe). While Rašković et al. (2016) focused primarily on country-level differences, which they connected to national culture characteristics. This research focuses on within- and between-region differences. Lastly, while Rašković et al. (2016) employed simple descriptive analysis of mean scores and looked at quartile distributions, the analyses in this paper test mean score differences with ANOVA and further test the impact of specific determinants of consumer innovativeness with OLS regression; thus, testing causality.

The **second chapter** "Intra-national comparison of young-adult consumer characteristics - Personal cultural dispositions towards foreign products: a cross-tier and inter-regional consumer analysis" focuses on the **within-country comparison** on young-adult consumer characteristics across nine cities located in three regions within China. With its huge

population, rapid socio-economic development, growing domestic market and increasing consumerism, China has become one of the most attractive environments for international marketers (Cui & Liu, 2000; Davies & Raskovic, 2017; Sun, Su, & Huang, 2013; Zhou, Arnold, Pereira, & Yu, 2010). In addition, rapid and large scale of urbanization since late 1970s has brought a large outpour of rural population into urban areas (Hu & Chen, 2015). This has created a unique urban-rural divide in China (B. Hu & Chen, 2015) and unbalanced regional development (Cui & Liu, 2000; K. Liu, Lu, & Zhang, 2020; Zhang, Yan, Cai, Li, & Shen, 2017), which shaped distinct consumer characteristics across regions and cities (Frank, Abulaiti, & Enkawa, 2014; Xing, Liu, & Li, 2020; Zhou *et al.*, 2010). Considering the **heterogeneity** of China's natural environment and its multi-ethnic composition, which also carries marketing implications (Davies & Raskovic, 2017; Cui & Liu, 2000), it is as relevant to address **within-country variability** in Chinese consumer characteristics as to compare it cross-nationally (Craig & Douglas, 2011). However, there is a lack of studies specifically **addressing consumer's within-country differences** in China from either a **regional and/or city tier perspective**. Existing research on Chinese consumers are conducted by taking samples from one or two cities. This is inappropriate and insufficient as it cannot offer a comprehensive understanding of the complexity of consumer characteristics across the heterogeneous, complex and social-economic disparate urban landscapes, nor act as an appropriate input for formulation of effective marketing strategies (Davies & Raskovic, 2017; Li & Hou, 2002).

As the most privileged generation of single-child "little emperors", Chinese young-adult consumers (accounting for more than 17% of the whole population) are becoming a key source of future economic growth within a changing Chinese economic development model, emphasizing domestic consumption as a key driver of growth (Davies & Raskovic, 2017). According to statistics, Chinese young-adult consumers contribute to 69% of the total consumption in 2021 and more than 40% of the luxury consumption (Ma, 2021). CET, consumer cosmopolitanism (COS) and CIN are important identity-based concepts in international marketing and consumer studies as they are predictors of consumer's predisposition towards foreign products (Gineikiene, Schlegelmilch, & Auruskeviciene, 2017; Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015). Existing research shows that Chinese young-adult consumers in general display low level of CET (Ding, 2017; He & Wang, 2015), and high level of consumer cosmopolitanism (Han, Wang, & Nam, 2021; Han & Won, 2018) as well as relatively high level of CIN (Rašković *et al.*, 2016). However, these studies on young-adult consumer's behaviors are taking China as a single market, which neglects the impact

of regional differences and unbalanced urbanization level on consumer behaviors (Lin *et al.*, 2018; Wang & Rickman, 2017; Zhou *et al.*, 2010). Further, "globalization comes and goes" (Meyer, 2017, p. 79). The consecutive crises in recent years, starting from US-China trade war to Covid-19 to Russia-Ukraine war and following energy crisis, are catalyzing the process of de-globalization and lead to political and ideological confrontation between countries. **Consumers' attitudes toward foreign countries are changing.** Their changing attitudes would result in their judgement towards foreign products as well as their purchase intention (Heinberg, 2017; Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015). Take an example from US-China trade war, since the ban of Huawei and the following custody of Huawei's CFO Wanzhou Meng by US government, many Chinese consumers who were used to be Apple users have shifted their purchase intention to domestic brands (Yu, 2019). Chinese domestic brands, particularly those incorporate elements of Chinese heritage and origin, are getting momentum in recent years (Ho, Roh, Zhou, & Zipser, 2019). Yet, consumers' preferences towards domestic brands differ across city tiers in terms of the category of the products. Therefore, against this background, it is high time to re-study young-adult consumer's attitudes towards foreign countries and foreign products so as to offer international marketers adjusted marketing strategies that meet the needs of the market.

Culture plays an important role in shaping consumer's characteristics (de Mooij, 2015; Hofstede, 1994). There has been a plethora of studies on the **impact of culture on consumer characteristic**s against the background of **globalization** at the country level (Beugelsdijk, Kostova, & Roth, 2016; Cleveland, Rojas-Méndez, Laroche, & Papadopoulos, 2016; Steenkamp, 2001). However, researchers have pointed out that globalization actually caused cultural deterritorialization, which means culture transcends across borders (Craig & Douglas, 2006; Demangeot, Catherine Demangeot, Broderick, & Craig, 2015). Therefore, the same individual's culture orientation can be "variously global, local, and creole" (Cleveland, 2018, p. 263). It would be inappropriate to test the impact of culture on consumer's characteristics at national level (de Mooij, 2015; Taras, Steel, & Kirkman, 2016), and understanding the "conjoined trajectories of culture and selfhood" **requires greater sensitivity to individual-level socio-cultural determinants** of consumer behaviour and the supporting psychological mechanisms (Reese, Rosenmann, & Cameron, 2019).

Therefore, by addressing the abovementioned concerns on young-adult consumers' characteristics: impact of cultural of young-adult consumer's behaviors at individual level, **within-country homogeneity and heterogeneity of young-adult** consumers behavior and impact of changing attitudes on consumer's purchase intention towards foreign products, the

main purpose of chapter 2 is to test the antecedent role of personal culture orientations (Piyush Sharma, 2009; Sharma, Wu, & Su, 2016) on CET (Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015) and consumer cosmopolitanism (COS) (Riefler *et al.*, 2012). According to social psychology, consumer with high level of independence are embracing a strong sense of freedom and self-concept. They tend to focus on the personal achievement and love to make autonomous decision. They tend to fulfil personal demands (e.g. better products) and pursue hedonism by encouraging the domestic competition with foreign products (Sharma *et al.*, 2016; Yoo & Donthu, 2005). Consumers with high level of ambiguity intolerance would be reluctant to purchase foreign products, as they are not sure of the quality and features of the products (Sharma *et al.*, 2016). Consumers who value tradition are usually group oriented and view foreign products as a threat to national economy (Prince et al., 2020), while consumers who are prudent are usually long-term oriented, pragmatic future oriented (Nguyen & Pham, 2021) and like the diversities of products (Sharma, 2010). In addition, chapter 2 also aims to test the impact of CET, COS and young-adult consumers' attitudes (Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015) towards foreign countries on their willingness to buy foreign high- and low-involvement products (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998) from four selected countries/region (Australia, Japan, Russia and CEE countries). According to social identity theory, ethnocentric consumers are pro-in-group biased (Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015) as they believe purchasing foreign products would harm the domestic economy. They would sacrifice their own interests to favor the domestic products so as to achieve the sense of belongingness (Bizumic, 2019). While cosmopolitan consumers are open-minded towards the new and exotic products/experiences (Riefler *et al.*, 2012; Terasaki, 2016). Further, this chapter also looks at to what degree consumer innovativeness (CIN) (Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 1996) moderate the impact of CET/COS on their willingness to buy specific foreign products. Innovative consumers build their social identity by seeking for newness and novelty. In order to fulfil the needs of hedonism of possessing new products, they would take the risk to "harm" the domestic economy (Eryigit, 2020; Hirunyawipada & Paswan, 2006). They do not set boundaries for purchasing new products/services. Last but not least, the focal point of the second chapter also lies in the comparison of consumer characteristics across three tiers and three regions (9 cities clustered in 3 regions). The conceptual model of Chapter 2 can be seen Figure 2.

The data was collected through a paper-based questionnaire with matched samples in 9 cities located in three regions (3 tiered cities in each region). All the constructs are operationalized from the previously established and validated scales, with four dimensions of personal

cultural orientations measured in 5-point Likert scale and all other constructs measured in 7-point Likert scale. The data was operationalized firstly with the multi-group measurement invariance as well as metric invariance tests by using AMOS 26 for both datasets of tiers and regions. For the dataset of tiers, both configural invariance and full metric invariance were established. However, for the dataset of regions, the configural invariances can only be established between Eastern Coastal region and Northern coastal region. Further, the composite reliability, AVE, correlations between constructs and discriminant validity were performed. The comparison of weighted mean scored constructs across tiers and regions were conducted by one-way ANOVA with Turkey post hoc multiple comparison. Finally, the structural equation model was established to test the causal relationships between constructs according to the framework displayed in Figure 2. In terms of the tier and regional comparison, owing to the complex of the dataset and the framework, 8 models were established for cross-tier comparison and the other 8 models for inter-regional comparison.

Figure 2: Conceptual Model Of Chapter 2: Intra-National Comparison Of Young-Adult Consumer Characteristics - Personal Cultural Dispositions Towards Foreign Products: A Cross-Tier And Inter-Regional Consumer Analysis
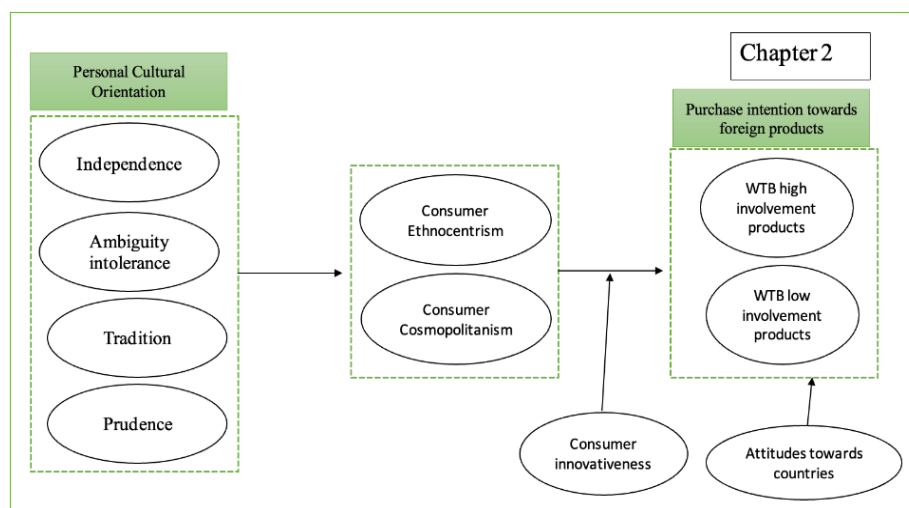
Note: WTB=willingness to buy

Source: Own work.

Therefore, the main questions in chapter 2 are as follows: 1) how does selected personal cultural orientations affect consumer behaviors, specifically, consumer ethnocentrism and consumer cosmopolitanism. 2) How do CET, COS and consumer's attitudes towards selected countries affect on young-adult consumer's willingness to buy high- and low-involvement products from selected four countries. 3) How does CIN moderates the

relationship between CET/COS and consumer's willingness to buy foreign products. 4) Does there exist significant cross-tier as well as inter-regional differences in consumer characteristics?

Therefore, by studying *urban* **young-adult consumer population** from both **between-market and within-market angles,** this thesis will contribute to the consumer culture theory, particularly young-adult consumer's culture identity (Cleveland *et al.*, 2016; Steenkamp, 2019). It will answer the question "to what extend that young-adult consumers carry the global or local identity" (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019) between markets and within a market. Driven by the social identity theory, this thesis will contribute to the literature on the relationships between CET and CIN, which has not been touched in the existing literature yet. Further, by studying the impact of specific CDMS on CET, this thesis will contribute to the literature on how does consumer's sensory evaluation process drives consumer's innate innovativeness (Mishra, 2015). By looking at the regional differences from between-markets (Eastern Asia and Eastern Europe) and within market perspectives (3 regions in China), this thesis will contribute to the literature on regionalism (Chelekis & Figueiredo, 2015), how does the region/territory play a role in demarcation of consumer characteristics and behaviors (Cheetham, McEachern, & Warnaby, 2018). This will bring important managerial implications to international marketers on taking advantage of (geographic/cultural/social-historical) boundaries to form effective marketing strategies in two levels—between markets vs. within-market (Cheetham *et al.*, 2018; Chelekis & Figueiredo, 2015; Taras *et al.*, 2016). By studying young-adult consumer's characteristics from perspective of city-tiers with different level of economy development and regions with social-historical background in China, this thesis brings implications on the relationship between urbanization/modernization and consumer behaviors (Han *et al.*, 2021; Talhelm *et al.*, 2014). This is not only relevant for scholars and marketers, but for policy makers as well, particularly on how to develop the city and regional business development plan so as to motivate young-adult consumer's private consumption, driving the economy development (Lan, 2021).

1 THE INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON OF YOUNG-ADULT CONSUMERS CHARACTERISTICS: UNDERSTANDING DRIVERS OF YOUNG-ADULT CONSUMER INNOVATIVENESS AND THE ROLE OF REGIONALISM IN EASTERN EUROPE AND EAST ASIA3

1.1 Introduction

Globalization has caused consumer behavior to transcend country borders (Levitt, 1993), leading to often larger within-market consumer differences between-market consumer differences (Steenkamp *et al.*, 1999; Taras *et al.*, 2016). Within the consumer-product nexus, this calls on international business and particularly marketers to switch more towards customer-centric approaches within international business (Riefler *et al.*, 2012). Within international marketing, such approaches offer possibilities for more effective segmentation and to target specific supra-national consumer segments (J.-B. E. Steenkamp & Ter Hofstede, 2002). While the literature on sociology of globalization suggests the emergence of so-called global consumer generations transcending country boundaries (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 2008), the question remains if such transnational consumer segments are still regionally bound? Empirical evidence from the consumer behavior literature (Douglas & Craig, 2011), international business (Rašković *et al.*, 2016), psychology and sociology (McCrae *et al.*, 2010) seems to suggest this, even in the face of ever increasing global convergence and industry transnationalism.

According to the psychology of globalization literature, globalization processes differently impact various generational cohorts (Arnett, 2002). As a specific generational cohort, young adults (which in our study include people in their 20s) are a particularly susceptible consumer group to globalization and consumer acculturation processes (Arnett, 2002; Berry, 2008). This is due to their exposure to popular culture, media and a common world language, as well as personal intercultural contact (Cleveland *et al.*, 2016). It is because of this young adults have been often nicknamed "citizens of the world" (Strizhakova *et al.*, 2012).

Rapid technological advancement, shorter product life cycles and overall market saturation put growing supply-side "pressures" on consumers and their decision making. They are increasingly under "pressure" to adopt new types of products and technology, or simply

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switch between products and/or brands (Tellis *et al.*, 2009). Others might simply want to "spice up" their lives by pursuing variety seeking behavior (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982), or express their creativity (Hirschman, 1980). Young adults in particular engage in greater degree of consumer experimentation, as part of social learning and social identity building (Gentina, Butori, Rose, & Bakir, 2014). This links with the concept of consumer innovativeness, defined as "the predisposition to buy new and different products and brands rather than remain with previous choices and consumption patterns" (Steenkamp *et al.*, 1999, p. 56). But why is it such an important segmentation criterion? It helps international firms understand factors determining success of innovations and/or new types of products (Kaushik & Rahman, 2014). These might be new to a specific market (relevant for international business and international marketing), or generally new to the market (relevant for marketers and developers).

Young-adult consumers display higher levels of consumer innovativeness than other consumer demographic cohorts (Steenkamp *et al.*, 1999), yet consumer innovativeness in this cohort has not been adequately measured (Hartman *et al.*, 2004). However, is age really the universal determinant of young-adult consumer innovativeness across markets? Steenkamp et al. (1999) make an explicit link between consumer innovativeness and consumption patterns in their definition. Douglas and Craig's (2011) seminal work on glocal consumer identities – calling for semi-global marketing strategies and regional variations in consumer cultures (Merz *et al.*, 2008) – further provides compelling arguments. While globalization may have blurred the differences between markets, regional variations may still exist in consumer behavior; particularly between Europe and Asia (Corinne Lamour, Kotzab, Christop, & De La Robertie, 2016). Some recent evidence on young-adult consumers in Europe and Asia seems to suggest this (Rašković *et al.*, 2016).

The purpose of this chapter is to test the impact of specific consumer decision-making styles (CDMS), consumer ethnocentrism and country/regional backgrounds as determinants of innate (personal) consumer innovativeness (Bartels & Reinders, 2011) for fast moving consumer goods (FMCGs) among young-adult consumers (in their 20 s). Using matched university student samples from Slovenia and Croatia (Eastern Europe) and China and Japan (East Asia), we test these determinants within and across two specific regional contexts. Such studies are rare (Rašković *et al.*, 2016), but are becoming increasingly relevant with exponential growth in trade between East Asia and Eastern Europe (seen as untapped potential).

Our research extends not just the empirical, but also the theoretical work of Rašković et al. (2016). Empirically, it provides a more balance within- and between region data sets by comparing China and Japan (East Asia) with Slovenia and Croatia (Eastern Europe). While Rašković et al. (2016) focused primarily on country-level differences, which they connected to national culture characteristics. This research focuses on within- and between-region differences. Lastly, while Rašković et al. (2016) employed simple descriptive analysis of mean scores and looked at quartile distributions, the analyses in this paper test mean score differences with ANOVA and further test the impact of specific determinants of consumer innovativeness with OLS regression; thus, testing causality.

This study contributes to a better understanding of young-adult consumer behavior across regional contexts, which has important implications for the development of so-called semi-global business and marketing strategies (Douglas & Craig, 2011). By focusing on the determinants of consumer innovativeness across countries (Tellis *et al.*, 2009), we aim to provide international managers information for more effective business strategies, in particular better segmentation and more effective marketing strategies (Riefler *et al.*, 2012). Understanding the factors influencing young-adult consumers' propensity to try out different products and/or brands, thus altering their consumption patterns, has important implications also for economic policy makers and market regulation. In all four countries, the share of final consumption is well over 50% of their respective GDPs. Young-adults are a particularly important consumer cohort, since they are still developing their (consumer) identities and engage in social learning (Carpenter, Moore, Doherty, & Alexander, 2012). Yet, they have an important influence on their entire households' consumption patterns (Grant & Waite, 2003), particularly on high-technology products (Hartman *et al.*, 2004). China and Croatia can be considered as catch-up markets. Our research thus provides insight into young-adult consumer behavior from emerging markets which is lacking (Strizhakova *et al.*, 2012). Our research makes also an empirical contribution in terms of studying young-adult consumer behavior in non-Western markets (Strizhakova *et al.*, 2012), as well as linking micro-level and macro-level research in emerging markets (Puślecki, Trąpczyński, & Staszków, 2016).

1.2   Theoretical framework

1.2.1   Consumer ethnocentrism and consumer innovativeness

The negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer innovativeness can be explained from the perspective of social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1978). Shimp and Sharma (1987) was the first researchers that link the definition of consumer

ethnocentrism to the psychological process under social context, precisely, the affiliation and sense of belongingness to a group which result in positive in-group bias (Čutura, 2020; Myers & Twenge, 2019; Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015), as stated in their seminal work "consumer ethnocentrism gives the individual a sense of identity, feelings of belongingness, and, most important for our purposes, an understanding of what purchase behavior is acceptable or unacceptable to the ingroup". Ethnocentric consumers tend to categorize "us" (ingroup) by taking the national country as the boundary. They share a common in-group favoritism towards domestic products and brands, while seeing foreign products and competition as threats to domestic economy (Čutura, 2020). Purchasing domestic products enable ethnocentric consumers to establish a superior and positive ingroup identity (Čutura, 2020; Myers & Twenge, 2019). Consumer innovativeness is a psychological trait that capture's consumer's predisposition towards novelty either by obtaining new knowledge/consumption experience on products or by adoption of new products (Hartman *et al.*, 2004). Innovative consumers categorize and differ themselves from "outgroup" either through innate innovativeness (Mishra, 2015), vicarious innovativeness (Hartman *et al.*, 2004) or domain-specific innovativeness (Ronald E. Goldsmith, 2001; Kim, Di Benedetto, & Hunt, 2017). The sequent innovative consumption behaviors (e.g. as early adopters of certain products or pioneers of certain consumption experience) help them the express their unique identity over the "outgroup" in a particular social setting (Grewal, Mehta, & Kardes, 2000). Existing research has shown that consumers may be more innovative in one domain of products, but not in another domain of products. The most researched domain are high-technology, green consumption and sustainability related (Eryigit, 2020). On the contrary to consumer ethnocentrism, the border territory does not serve as a boundary for innovative consumer's consumption behavior. Therefore, we deduce the negative impact of consumer ethnocentrism on consumer innovativeness. Consumers who are ethnocentric would limit the boundary of innovative consumption behavior to only domestic territory.

Further, in a study of over 3,280 consumers in 11 EU countries Steenkamp *et al.* (1999, p. 59) established a "basic incompatibility between [consumer] ethnocentrism and innovativeness" which is further amplified by the level of collectivism as a cultural dimension. They explain the underlying mechanism behind this incompatibility through Appadurai (1990)'s five paths of global diffusion, where ethnocentrism limits the inflow of people, technologies, finance, ideas and/or media from abroad. The negative relationship between the two has also been established indirectly through the mechanisms of nostalgia and cosmopolitanism. Nostalgia implies greater orientation towards the past and anxiety

towards the future, becoming more uncertain with changes (Holbrook, 1993). Cosmopolitanism includes not only a cultural openness, but also willingness to try unfamiliar products (Bartsch, Riefler, & Diamantopoulos, 2016). In addition, the negative relationship between consumer innovativeness and ethnocentrism has also been implicitly introduced through the role of various consumer demographic characteristics – namely a negative connection between consumer innovativeness and age (Bartels & Reinders, 2011; Kaushik & Rahman, 2014; Steenkamp *et al.*, 1999; Tellis *et al.*, 2009; Ter Hofstede, Steenkamp, & Wedel, 1999). Consumer ethnocentrism on the other hand, is believed to be positively connected to age; particularly via nostalgia and risk taking (Cleveland, Laroche, & Papadopoulos, 2009; Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Therefore, we hypothesize:

Research hypothesis 1: Consumer ethnocentrism has a negative impact on consumer innovativeness.

1.2.2   Consumer decision-making styles and consumer innovativeness

Consumer decision making style (CDMS) was a consumer personality, which was defined by G. B. Sproles and Kendall (1986) as "a mental orientation characterizing a consumer's approach to making choices" (p. 286). It captures consumer's characteristics from both cognitive and effective perspectives (Sproles & Kendall, 1986). Sproles and Kendall (1986)'s original CSI typology[4] itself provides a link between CDMS and consumer innovativeness. Quality conscious consumers would carefully and systematically search for the very best quality of products from different kind of means such as comparison; price conscious consumers are aimed to get "the best value for money"; brand conscious consumer are seeking for specialty stores where they can get the more expensive and most advertised brands as they believe that "higher price means better quality" (Sproles & Kendall, 1986). Such consumers are in the process searching for something new/specific which could meet their expectation on quality, brand, and/or price of the products. Information utilization tests whether consumers could utilize all existing information and choices that available (Fan & Xiao, 1996). Consumers who are able to utilize the explosive information and choices are more innovative, and whose who do not know what to do about the information would feel

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[4] Sproles and Kendall (1986) decision-making inventory includes 8 fundamental characteristics of consumer decision-making, which are as follows: 1) perfectionism or high-quality consciousness; 2) brand consciousness; 3) novelty-fashion consciousness; 4) recreational, hedonistic shopping consciousness; 5) price and "value for money" shopping consciousness; 6) impulsiveness; 7) confusion from over choice; and 8) habitual, brand-loyal orientation toward consumption.

swamped, and as a result cannot make proper purchasing decision (Fan & Xiao. 1996). A further more implicit link has also been made in Rogers (2003)'s conceptualization of innovation diffusion, albeit in a broader social context where such context shapes market acceptance among consumers. In addition, the link between CDMS and consumer innovativeness can be established by understanding the concept of consumer innovativeness itself. Steenkamp et al. (1999, p.56) do not just link it to product and/or brand switching predispositions, but also as departure from "previous choices and consumption patterns". Further, the most explicit link between CDMS and consumer innovativeness has been made by Mishra (2015), focusing on the so-called sensory aspects of consumer innovativeness. This is based on previous work by Hirschman (1984) on experience seeking, and the link between consumer innovativeness and shopping styles by Park, Yu, and Zhou (2010). According to Mishra (2015, p.38) "sensory innovators have a predisposition to make decisions based on their holistic evaluations of the differences between products" where specific CDMS come into play as underlying mechanisms of such evaluations (E. K. Sproles & Sproles, 1990).

Therefore, we hypothesize:

Research hypothesis 2: CDMS will have an impact on consumer innovativeness.

Given that our focus was not so much on the effects of specific CDMS on consumer innovativeness per se, but rather on cross-country and regional differences as determinants of consumer innovativeness, we have deliberately refrained from making any explicit hypotheses related to the impact of specific CDMS on consumer innovativeness (as is very socio-culturally specific)[5].

1.2.3   Country vs. regional differences

This last research hypothesis is the broadest and focuses on country vs. regional differences in all of our captured consumer behavior, not just in terms of determinants of consumer innovativeness. It is most generally based on the existence of specific regionally-based cultural clusters in cultural research and typologies carried out by, for example, Hofstede and Hofstede (1984), Schwartz (1994) and House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta (2004). The selected four countries --- China, Japan (East Asia), Slovenia and Croatia (Eastern Europe) match the purpose for inter-regional and between countries comparison for

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[5] We have also not done this, because we did not capture national culture dimension or personal culture orientations in this inter-national study.

non-western countries. From cultural-historical perspective, China and Japan are neighboring countries located in the Eastern Asia culture group (e.g. Confucianism cultural zone) (Fang, 2003), while Slovenia and Croatia are neighboring countries from orthodox Eastern Europe culture group ("GLOBE 2020 "; Welzel, 2013), embedded in the common Slavic-based culture and history. Further, by looking at the results of GLOBE project, we see that China and Japan scores much closer in majority of the cultural dimensions (e.g. performance orientation, Assertiveness, Human orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, Power distance) than Slovenia (See Appendix 2: Comparison of GLOBE cultural dimensions between China, Japan and Slovenia). On the other hand, when we look at these countries from economic and development related perspectives, Japan and Slovenia are more advanced in the level of economy development (GNP per capita) and have better performance in human development as well as corruption compared to China and Croatia (see Appendix 3: comparison of economic indicators between China, Japan, Slovenia and Croatia). Therefore, comparing the young-adult consumers' characteristics from the selected four non-western countries would meet the purpose of this doctoral dissertation to test whether culture or level of economy development plays more important role shaping young-adult consumers' behaviors. In addition, the direct link between regional cultural differences and economic behavior has further been made within the so-called geonomics literature, which has clearly established larger differences in consumer behavior across regions than within regions (Merz *et al.*, 2008). This in turn leads to various glocal consumer identities (Cleveland *et al.*, 2016) reinforced through semi-global and glocal marketing strategies (Douglas & Craig, 2011). In international marketing, comparing East Asian with non-East Asian consumers has been captured under the umbrella of so-called "chopsticks marketing" philosophy[6] looking at the formation of business relationships and ethical decision making (Fam, Yang, & Hyman, 2009).

The most direct link between regionalism and differences in CDMS has been probably established by Corinne Lamour *et al.* (2016), who found differences in shopping prescriptions between France and China, which they connected to regional cultural differences. It is also supported by a multi-country study of CDMS by Srinivas Durvasula and Lysonski (2016), finding not only cross-country differences, but also differences in the

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[6] Closely related to Douglas and Craig's (2011) semi-global marketing strategies, the concept of "chopsticks marketing' relates to the analogy of eating with a pair of chopsticks, where one chopstick rests still in the hand (standardization) and the other one moves (adaptation).

applicability of Sproles and Kendall's (1986) CSI in emerging markets (India, Greece) compared to developed markets (USA, New Zealand).

We believe, however, that all this can be also grounded in much broader economic sociology literature on the various types of embeddedness of consumer behavior (Zelizer, 2010). While such behavior increasingly transcends national levels (Beck/Beck-Gernsheim 2009), the question remains how regionally bounded it is. Therefore:

Research hypothesis 3: There will be larger regional differences than country differences in consumer behavior of young-adult consumers.

1.3 Data & methodology

1.3.1 Data

Data collection took place through web-based questionnaires carried out at leading business schools in Ljubljana (Slovenia), Croatia (Zagreb), Shanghai (China) and Tokyo (Japan). We believe the use of business students to be justified, given the focus on young-adult consumers (Xu/Shimitz/Lotz/Almeida 2004). It also allows comparability with previous cross-country research of this demographic cohort (Anić, Ciunova-Shuleska, Piri Rajh, Rajh, & Bevanda, 2016; Rašković *et al.*, 2016).

In terms of consumer innovativeness, the respondents were specifically asked to focus on the category of FMCGs, excluding food items (more subject to culturally-based tastes). Several examples of possible FMCG categories were provided for illustration (i.e. cosmetics, toiletries and soft drinks).

We used a matched sampling approach typically employed in such cross-cultural studies (Minkov, 2012). Such sampling has also been used in consumer behavior studies and studies focusing on young adult consumer comparisons across countries (Peterson & Merunka, 2014), or cross-cultural organizational studies (Čater, Lang, & Szabo, 2013). Table 1 summarizes key characteristics of the four-country matched samples.

The majority of respondents in Slovenia, Croatia and China were female (on average 70%), while the majority of respondents in the Japanese sample were male (66.4%). Taking this into account, we ran an independent t-test of the weighted mean scores of constructs in the case of the Japanese sample to see if there were any statistically significant differences across our weighted composite variables between the two genders (see also Table 2). Only

consumer ethnocentrism came out to statistically significantly differ between male and female respondents in Japan, with the average level being much higher for males (3.03) than females (2.44) (t-test: p=0.000). Keeping this in mind, we appropriately weighted the composite variable pertaining to consumer ethnocentrism in the case of the Japanese sample[7]. This newly gender-weighted composite score for consumer ethnocentrism in Japan was then employed in subsequent regression analysis.

Table 1: Sample descriptive statistics across the four country samples

	Slovenia	**Croatia**	**China**	**Japan**
Sample size (n)	246	243	208	233
% of female respondents	77%	79%	69%	33.6%*
Age (year of birth)	23-24 yrs. (6.5)	23-24 yrs. (2.0)	21-22 yrs. (1.9)	19-20 yrs. (5.4)
% of undergraduates	80%	71%	82%	78%
% of urban	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note: *Keeping this in mind, the average composite score for consumer ethnocentrism in the Japanese sample was further gender-weighted to account for the gender structure "mismatch" compared to the other country samples.

Source: own work.

Table 2: Gender differences and consumer behavior characteristics at different geographic levels

	Country-level	**Region-level**	**Overall**
Consumer innovativeness	NO (China†)	No (East Asia*)	YES*
Consumer ethnocentrism	MIXED (Japan***, Croatia†)	NO (East Europe†)	YES**
Brand consciousness	NO (Slovenia*)	NO (East Asia†)	NO
Quality consciousness	NO	YES*	NO
Price consciousness	NO	NO (East Europe†)	NO
Information utilization	MIXED (Croatia**, China†)	YES	NO

Notes: † p < 0.1, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p = 0.000

Source: Own work.

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[7] If the original average weighted score for consumer ethnocentrism in the case of the Japanese sample was 2.84 (as shown in Table 3), the newly calculated gender-weighted average composite score corresponds to 2.60 (assuming 70% female respondents in the sample).

1.3.2 Methodology

In terms of our construct operationalization, we draw on established scales from the marketing literature. Consumer innovativeness has been operationalized using a 7-item reduced scale from Baumgartner andSteenkamp (1996). CDMS have been operationalized by using an adapted version of Fan and Xiao (1998)'s scale (for young-adults in China), itself based on an adaptation from Sproles and Kendall (1986)'s Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI). In the process of invariance analysis, time consciousness has been excluded from analysis (validity issues); thus, we only included four CDMS in our analysis: brand consciousness, price consciousness, quality consciousness and information utilization. Consumer ethnocentrism was operationalized using Shimp and Sharma (1987)'s 10-item scale. All constructs were measured on 7-point ordinal Likert-type scales.

All questionnaires were subjected to a comprehensive translation-back translation procedures by native speakers. Given the multi-country nature of our research, invariance analysis was performed, as suggested by J.-B. E. Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998). Appendix 4 shows factor loadings from factor analysis and omitted items based on results from invariance analysis. Since the constructs were measured as reflective constructs, omission of specific items should not be problematic. Based on invariance testing and factor analysis, weighted composite variables were constructed from factor loadings for each country. These were then used as inputs for OLS regression analysis with consumer innovativeness as the dependent variable.

Table 3 summarizes the key operationalization details for our variables used in OLS regression, corresponding descriptive statistics, ANOVA mean testing results and reliability statistics. Multicollinearity diagnostics were also performed (VIF values were below critical values – in fact all below 2.0). Appendix 5 also shows Pearson's pair-wise correlation coefficients between the composite variables for each country with square roots of Average Variance Extracted (AVE) on the diagonals to address validity. We also tested for common method bias effects using Harman's single-factor approach, which did not indicate any problems across the four country samples.

Table 3: Final construct operationalization, descriptive statistics, and reliability

	#Items	ANOVA		Slovenia		Croatia		China		Japan	
		F	Sig.	*Mean*	*α*	*Mean*	*α*	*Mean*	*α*	*Mean*	*α*
Consumer innovativeness	6	3.210	0.022	**4.51** (1.25)	0.80	**4.71** (1.23)	0.84	**4.70** (1.18)	0.87	**4.43** (0.97)	0.66
Consumer ethnocentrism	8	5.012	0.002	**2.76** (1.40)	0.93	**2.90** (1.34)	0.91	**2.43** (1.30)	0.94	**2.84/2.65***(1.25)	0.93
Brand consciousness	5	8.359	0.000	**3.59** (1.10)	0.72	**3.93** (1.02)	0.73	**4.03** (1.15)	0.81	**4.00** (1.03)	0.77
Quality consciousness	5	12.422	0.000	**4.56** (1.19)	0.82	**4.90** (0.99)	0.75	**4.97** (1.08)	0.80	**4.46** (0.95)	0.68
Price consciousness	5	9.066	0.000	**4.60** (1.08)	0.66	**5.07** (1.02)	0.73	**4.69** (1.12)	0.79	**4.85** (1.01)	0.51
Information utilization	4	40.137	0.000	**3.27** (1.35)	0.73	**3.42** (1.42)	0.83	**4.42** (1.24)	0.81	**4.14** (1.24)	0.73

Notes: Average scores based on a 7-point Ordinal Likert-type scale calculated as a weighted average from factor loadings (see Appendix 4). Standard deviations shown in brackets. *The score corresponds to a gender-weighted average composite score to take into account statistically significant differences between male and female consumer ethnocentrism in the Japanese sample and the gender structure "mismatch" within the Japanese sample compared to the other three country samples.

Source: Own work.

1.4 Results

Table 4 presents the results of our OLS regression model, where innate consumer innovativeness pertaining to FMCGs was taken as the dependent composite variable, with the following composite variables included as independent variables: consumer ethnocentrism, brand consciousness, quality consciousness, price consciousness and information utilization. We further included gender, country dummies and an inter-regional dummy corresponding to Eastern Europe or East Asia (Region). We did not include any other demographic variables, as our samples were matched.

Dependent variable:	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	Std. b	Std. err.	*Std. b*	Std. err.	*Std. b*	Std. err.
consumer innovativeness		0.254		0.256		0.264
Consumer ethnocentrism	0.050	0.027	0.034	0.028	0.033	0.027
Brand consciousness	0.018	0.035	0.029	0.035	0.028	0.035
Quality consciousness	0.274***	0.035	0.266***	0.036	0.269***	0.035
Price consciousness	0.140***	0.035	0.133***	0.035	0.131***	0.035
Information utilization	0.202***	0.027	0.226***	0.029	0.227***	0.028
Gender (dummy)			-0.046	0.083	-0.051	0.080
CRO_dummy			-0.003	0.102		
CHN_dummy			-0.056	0.111		
JAP_dummy			-0.078	0.111		
EEregion (dummy)					0.076*	0.082
Adj. R-square	0.157		0.163		0.165	
df	871		867		869	
F-statistic	33.679		19.997		25.714	
Std. error of estimate	1.074		1.070		1.069	

Notes: OLS regression, based on ENTER method.

† $p < 0.1$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p = 0.000$

Source: Own work.

Model 1 includes only the main consumer behavior variables. It shows that consumer ethnocentrism does not have an impact on consumer innovativeness in our sample. This is supported by pair-wise correlation coefficients between the two variables, as shown in Appendix 5. Thus, hypothesis 1 cannot be confirmed. With regards to CDMS, quality consciousness has the strongest impact (b=0.274, p=0.000), followed by information utilization (b=0.202, p=0.000) and price consciousness (b=0.140, p=0.000), while brand consciousness does not have a significant impact on consumer innovativeness. Thus, hypothesis 2 can be confirmed.

Including gender and country dummies, we can observe that both control variables do not have a significant impact on consumer innovativeness, as shown in Model 2. However, replacing individual country dummies with a regional dummy (Eastern Europe vs. East Asia) changes this, as shown in Model 3. The regional dummy does have a significant impact on consumer innovativeness (b=0.076, p<0.05). Thus, hypothesis 3 can be confirmed.

Based on the results in Model 3, we further compared the differences in consumer innovativeness, consumer ethnocentrism and CDMS between the two regions, shown in

Table 5. Please note that this was just a simple independent t-test mean comparison and thus differs to the results of our regression analysis shown in Table 4 testing for causality.

Table 5: Regional differences in young-adult consumer characteristics

	Eastern Europe	**East Asia**	**t-test significance**
Consumer innovativeness	4.61	4.55	NO
Consumer ethnocentrism	2.83	2.52	YES: EE > EA**
Brand consciousness	3.76	4.01	YES: EA > EE***
Quality consciousness	4.73	4.71	NO
Price consciousness	4.84	4.78	NO
Information utilization	3.35	4.27	YES: EA > EE***

Notes: † $p < 0.1$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p = 0.000$

Source: Own work.

We can observe an interesting pattern which complements our regression results (Model 3). The biggest difference can be observed with regards to information utilization, where young-adult consumers in East Asia display a much higher score. Looking at the original statements (Appendix 4) we can see that East Asian young-adult consumers are much more confused by all the product information and market choice, displaying a greater degree of information oversaturation and market choice confusion. A highly significant difference can also be observed when it comes to brand consciousness, where East Asian young-adult consumers appear to be much more status-oriented and pay greater attention to brands. A significant difference can also be observed for consumer ethnocentrism, with East European young-adult consumers displaying relatively higher degree of consumer ethnocentrism; albeit this is generally quite low across all country samples and does not impact consumer innovativeness in the regression.

1.5   Implications

1.5.1   Theoretical implications

This research contributes to theoretically linking the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer innovativeness from the perspective of social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982). We argue that ethnocentric consumers are setting boundaries of country of origin of products to domestic products so as to be in-group biased orientated and protect the domestic economy (Myers & Twenge, 2019). While for the innovative consumers, their identity of social belongingness comes from the "out-group" bias, and they do not set any geographic boundaries to products for purchasing (Grewal *et al.*, 2000). The negative

relationship between these two concepts are also theorized indirectly through the concept of nostalgia (Holbrook, 1993), consumer cosmopolitanism (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2009) as well as other demographic factors such as age (Kaushik & Rahman, 2014). Nostalgia is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism and negatively related to consumer cosmopolitanism (Holbrook, 1993). Nostalgic consumers are past orientated and they are anxious towards the future as there lies uncertainty. However, cosmopolitan consumers are open towards the newness and novelty, they are willing to try new products (Bartsch *et al.*, 2016). Hence, consumer cosmopolitanism is positively related to consumer innovativeness. In addition, we argue that age is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism but negatively related to consumer cosmopolitanism (Kaushik & Rahman, 2014). However, the results show that the postulated negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer innovativeness may be true across different consumer demographic cohorts, but not when it comes to young-adult consumers. Further, looking at the impact of CDMS on consumer innovativeness, the evidence supports Mishra (2015)'s position on sensory aspects of consumer innovativeness and Hirschman (1984)'s link between CDMS and consumer innovativeness through experience seeking (especially relevant for young-adult consumers). CDMSs do serve as a predisposition for a holistic evaluation on the new products. This is believed to be especially important among young adults (Hirschman, 1980). More specifically, looking at different CDMS, it appears that quality-related evaluations and information utilization/processing seem to have the strongest impact on consumer innovativeness. We believe this shows that while young-adult consumers do seek the excitement of trying out new products and/or brands and pursue social learning, they do this within a surprisingly functionalistic consumer mindset (taking into account both quality and price aspects). This might be a result of a limited budget, yet autonomous consumer behavior and an inclination to express themselves and show group belongingness through consumption (Gentina *et al.*, 2014). A strong importance of information utilization/processing on the other hand supports both the importance of social learning (Carpenter *et al.*, 2012), as well as the role information plays in consumer innovativeness (Clark & Goldsmith, 2006).

In terms of country vs. regional differences, our research shows a mixed impact of CDMS on consumer innovativeness inter-regionally. While further research is needed, this may be a result of some CDMS having a universal functionalistic impact on consumer innovativeness (quality and price consciousness), while other CDMS seem to be more regionally contingent (**brand consciousness** and **information utilization**). Our results thus

provide a partial support on Beck and Beck-Gernsheim (2008)'s conceptualization of global consumer generations, which are more in line with glocal consumer generations (Douglas & Craig, 2011).

Our results also complement previous work by Corinne Lamour *et al.* (2016) and Lysonski, Durvasula, and Zotos (1996), which emphasized the importance of only country-level differences. While our results may appear to negate previous cross-cultural work by Steenkamp *et al.* (1999) and Tellis *et al.* (2009), which established the importance of national culture, we believe they in fact complement it, since both studies surveyed various demographic cohorts of consumers, while ours focuses only on young-adult consumers.

What surprised us more is the role gender starts playing at the regional level. Our results suggest that while among young-adult consumers gender does not have an impact on consumer innovativeness drivers, and is not particularly important in terms of CDMS differences at the individual country level, specific patterns of gender-CDMS archetypes seems to influence consumer innovativeness at the regional level in our study. This shows a strong social embeddedness of consumer behavior which draw more on the sociology literature.

1.5.2   Managerial implications

Our research shows that when it comes to young-adult consumers the level of consumer innovativeness is an important segmentation criterion (Riefler *et al.*, 2012), since consumer-behavior characteristics matter more than country-based characteristics when it comes to young adults. While we did not measure national culture dimensions or personal culture orientations, our results do show that consumer innovativeness is determined by regional backgrounds, not country.

This is to an extent logical, given that young-adult consumers display a high propensity towards global consumer acculturation (Carpenter *et al.*, 2012) and citizenship (Strizhakova *et al.*, 2012), and can also be treated as a sort of global consumer generation (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 2008). In terms of the link between consumer innovativeness and specific CDMS, our results show that **quality consciousness** and **information utilization** play a much more important role than price consciousness in driving consumer innovativeness. Brand consciousness becomes an issue only at the regional level, with East Asian young-adult consumers displaying a much stronger tendency to pursue brand-driven status consumption. Thus, **stronger branding and status-driven marketing should be more**

strongly pursued in East Asia. Lastly, looking at the role of gender, while gender is much less an issue at the level of individual countries, it becomes more important across the regions, as shown in Table 2. Thus, in developing regionally-based semi-global marketing strategies, international marketers need to take into consideration both differences in CDMS and gender.

When it comes to marketing to young-adult consumers, international marketers need to follow a two-step segmentation process – regional segmentation, followed by consumer segmentation based on a relevant set of criteria (i.e. consumer innovativeness). For a FMCG giants like, i.e. Procter & Gamble, or Unilever this means that while it makes sense to distinguish between Europe and the Middle East, however, for a further segmentation within the region, the country boundary cannot serve as an effective segmentation tool for young-adult consumers. Instead, consumer characteristics, such as consumer innovativeness, can be used to further segment of young-adult consumers.

Looking at the results from Tables 3, 4 and 5, we can see that while consumer behavior generally does not differ that much between countries within a region, it does much more when it comes to across the regions. This has important implications for the international standardization-adaptation nexus, which effects in the end the firms' bottom line. This does not carry only marketing strategy implications, but also market entry implications (i.e. where and how to enter) and international management implications (i.e. strategic planning, organizational structures, processes and HRM).

Our results support regionally-focused international business strategies (at least when it comes to young-adult consumers and their consumer innovativeness), which are aligned with a "chopsticks" business perspective of so-called regical business logic (regional and local, not global and local). Addressing young-adult consumers an important driver of market demand, our results show how companies (large or small) operating in international markets need to re-think their strategies, structures and processes. For example, in connection to Bartlett and Ghoshal (2002)'s multinational enterprise (MNE) typology, the *regical* logic introduces perhaps at a hybrid MNE form. Such a form might incorporate aspects of the global, multinational and international type of MNE which is not transnational, but "*regiotional*". For smaller international firms faced with resource constraints, the chopstick logic calls on them to re-think which resources are needed and should be fostered in terms of adaptive business strategies, as well as which consumer cohorts can offer opportunities for entry into new foreign markets.

1.6 Conclusion

In terms of our research hypotheses, we cannot support the first hypothesis regarding the negative impact of consumer ethnocentrism on consumer innovativeness. However, we believe this stems from the nature of young-adult consumers as a glocal consumer generation. Further, this study confirmed other two hypotheses. Specific CDMS determine consumer innovativeness, which also differ between the two regions. Overall, while country-level differences are not significant in terms of determinants of young-adult consumer innovativeness, regional-level differences are.

Levitt (1993)'s utopia of complete global convergence has not happened, even when one looks at young-adult consumer behavior, which seems to be at the forefront of globalization (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 2008). While globalization and acculturation may have blurred the lines and importance of individual country contexts, regions still matter and call on international business to develop appropriate "chopstick" strategies. In marketing for example, this relates to understanding glocal consumer identities and developing effective semi-global marketing strategies. Consumer innovativeness is a particularly important international segmentation criterion, both for young-adult consumers and across demographic consumer cohorts. CDMS play an important role in determining consumer innovativeness, as do regional backgrounds, where specific gender archetypes of consumer behavior also seem to matter. This shows a specific degree of regional context richness which international marketers need to effectively address. If this is apparent among young-adult consumers, which are believed to be particularly homogenous, it should hold even more strongly for other demographic consumer cohorts providing strong support for Douglas and Craig (2011)'s seminal work on semi-global marketing strategies.

1.7 Limitations of the research and future research

Our research is subject to all the limitations of cross-sectional and non-probability samples. However, we would like to point out that the main aim of our research was comparative research between the countries and the two regions. Every effort has been made to ensure appropriate translations into local languages (using several rounds of translation-back translation in the case of the Chinese and Japanese samples). While we have tried to have the highest possible level of matching across the country samples, the gender structure in the Japanese sample included an overwhelming share male respondents (contrary to the other three samples). We tried to accommodate for this "mismatch" by testing for gender mean score differences across all of our composite variables within the Japanese sample. As a

statistically significant difference was established only in the case of consumer ethnocentrism, the composite score for this construct was further weighted to accommodate this gender structure "mismatch".

We are also aware of the latent and reflective nature of our constructs, which implies that our model could be tested as a structural equation model. However, given the complexity of the model, its many reflective indicators and the limited size of our country samples, we decided to use OLS regression instead. Despite this, we did run appropriate invariance analysis. Lastly, given the strong Confucian influence in China and Japan, it would also be useful to have tested for social desirability effects among Chinese and Japanese students, as these students might be more prone to "please their teachers" in completing surveys. Future research should keep this in mind.

Extending our research to include cultural dimensions would also be a logical research move, which would complement the current inter-regional focus of this study. However, as our research did not specifically directly measure either national dimensions or personal culture orientations (respondent burden), we did not to result to making oversimplified deductive guesses from secondary national culture scores like, for example, Hofstede's scores. Future research should remedy this to also measure personal cultural orientations of the respondents.

In terms of the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer innovativeness, our evidence suggests that cosmopolitanism (Riefler *et al.*, 2012), social learning (Carpenter *et al.*, 2012) and social belongingness (Gentina *et al.*, 2014) may play a much more important role. Future research on consumer ethnocentrism and consumer innovativeness may shed light on the roles of these factors.

2 INTRA-NATIONAL COMPARISON OF YOUNG-ADULT CONSUMER CHARACTERISTICS - PERSONAL CULTURAL DISPOSITIONS TOWARDS FOREIGN PRODUCTS: A CROSS-TIER AND INTER-REGIONAL CONSUMER ANALYSIS[8]

2.1 Introduction

Research on consumer behaviors in international business (IB) has long took place under the assumed background of globalization-based convergence (C. Min. Han & Won, 2018; Jin*et al.*, 2015; Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015), which also shapes global consumer culture (Cleveland, 2018; S. Durvasula & Lysonski, 2015). Acculturated and influenced by global consumer culture, consumers are displaying increasingly homogeneous behaviours across boundaries (Cleveland, Laroche, Takahashi, & Erdoğan, 2014), particularly young adults (in their early 20s)[9] (Carpenter *et al.*, 2012). Research has shown that young-adults generally display low levels of consumer ethnocentrism (Rašković, et al., 2016), high levels of consumer cosmopolitanism (Carpenter *et al.*, 2012) and high level of consumer innovativeness (Steenkamp *et al.*, 1999) compared to other demographic cohorts. They are believed to be at the forefront of globalization (Rašković *et al.*, 2016). Yet, "globalization comes and goes" (Meyer, 2017, p. 79) and we seem to have entered a new anti-globalization era in the aftermath of the last global financial crisis (Meyer, 2017). The Covid-19 further catalyses the process of de-globalization/slowbalization (Meyer, 2017) and the rising nationalism/patriotism within politics, economics and trade. Consumer's attitudes toward foreign countries are reshaping, which further affect their judgement on domestic products vs. foreign products. These changing attitudes eventually results in their changing purchase intention (Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015). There are many cases to evidence this changing phenomenon. For instance, the recent D&G's racist marketing campaign (Cristoferi, 2019) has resulted in boycotting the brand and a fanaticism on domestic brands in China; US-China trade war, particularly the ban of Huawei initiated by US President has caused many Chinese consumers to shift their purchase intention from Apple to Huawei and other domestic brands (Yu, 2019). Therefore, it is a high time to re-study Chinese young-adult consumer's country

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[8] Papers "Impact of Personal Cultural Orientation on Consumer Ethnocentrism and Cosmopolitanism: Interregional and Cross city-tiers comparison" and "Personal culture dispositions towards foreign products: a Chinese multi-tier urban consumer analysis" based on Chapter 2 have been presented in Copenhagen AIB2019 and Miami AIB2020 online respectively. Paper "Inter-regional comparison of urban Chinese young-adult consumers' characteristics" has been accepted by AIB 2022 Miami conference in competitive session.

[9] Sometimes popularly called as Millennials, or generation Y.

attitudes, consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp & Sharma, 1987), consumer cosmopolitanism (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2009) and their impact on young adult's willingness to buy foreign products against the changing political-economical environment, as well as to offer international marketers re-examined insights on Chinese urban consumers so as to adjust their marketing strategies. In addition, studying a particular generational cohort of consumers as the forefront of globalization can thus offer an important theoretical contribution to the growing discourse on the social psychology of globalization and its consumer dimensions (Reese *et al.*, 2019).

Our understanding of the two-way interactions between "globalness" and "locality" has evolved substantially within consumer culture theory (CCT) over the recent years (Cleveland & Bartsch, 2019; Steenkamp, 2019), often transcending marketing and international business. Culture plays an important role in shaping consumer's behavior (Craig & Douglas, 2006) through the mechanism of value systems, social norms and identities (Cleveland, 2018). It has been a common practice to take country as unit of analysis in cross-cultural comparison studies (Ding *et al.*, 2018; C. Min. Han & Won, 2018; Steenkamp *et al.*, 1999). Yet, Taras *et al.* (2016) argued that the variation of culture values lies within the country due to the increasing migration fostered by globalization and urbanization (Cleveland, 2018). Consumers within a country display greater heterogeneities than across the countries (Cleveland, 2018; Cleveland, Erdoğan, Arıkan, & Poyraz, 2011). Therefore, consumers' cultural orientation should be studied at individual level as "the same individual consumer could be variously global, local, and creole" (Cleveland, 2018, p. 263). Yet, our understanding of the various social and psychological motivations and mechanisms behind consumer culture and its behavioural aspects still remains quite limited (Prince *et al.*, 2020). Understanding the "conjoined trajectories of culture and selfhood" requires greater sensitivity to individual-level socio-cultural determinants of consumer behaviour and the supporting psychological mechanisms – many of which are identity based (Reese *et al.*, 2019, p. 24). Consumer ethnocentrism, consumer cosmopolitanism and consumer innovativeness should be seen as cornerstone concepts within this discourse (Ding *et al.*, 2018; Rašković *et al.*, 2016).

Large cities are the carriers of cultural flows, from economically dominant cities to surrounding periphery cities/regions owing to its mechanism of 3-Ms: markets with mass of people, money for consumption and media for communication with the world (Cleveland, 2018). Cities under different socio-economic development stage shape consumer behaviors distinctly (C. Min. Han & Won, 2018; Jin *et al.*, 2015; Sun *et al.*, 2013). There has been the

tendency that the core of cultural flows is shifting from Western countries to Asian countries, particularly China, owning to its rapid and complex process of urbanization (Cleveland, 2018; B. Hu & Chen, 2015). Yet, compared to developed countries in the West, Chinese urbanization displays disparate characteristics. In the west, no matter the size across cities, the discrepancies on social welfare system, level of infrastructure etc. are very limited. Farmers can easily get citizenship from any certain city with registration (Long, 2013). While in China, there are huge disparities in the level of social welfare system, particularly the resources allocation between cities. The cities have been classified into five categorizations, which is known as five tiers (L. Kang, 2014), predominantly according to the size of population. In addition, the level of the tier is also associated with the level of economy development as Chinese urbanization is characterized by the driving of economic reforms. The city tiers display a pyramid structure, with 4 cities fall in tier 1 category, 34 cities fall in tier 2 category, 249 cities fall in Tier 3 category, etc. Shanghai, Beijing, Guangzhou and Shenzhen are tier 1 cities, as they meet the criteria with more than 15 million permanent residence and their size of GDP is larger than 300 billion USD. Provincial capital cities such as Nanjing (capital city of Jiangsu Province), Ji'nan (capital city of Shandong province), Chengdu (capital city of Sichuan province) and other economic developed cities in eastern coastal region are tier 2 cities with 3 to 15 million residence and 68 to 299 billion USD dollars GDP. Tire 3 cities are mainly prefecture capital cities with 0.15 to 3 million population and 18-67 billion USD dollars GDP (SouthChinaMorningPost, 2016). The higher tier city means the better welfare and economic resources. Only citizens with registered "hukou" (identity under a registered household) under certain tiered city could enjoy the equivalent level of welfare benefits (for instance: medical insurance, education of kids, pension etc.) (C. Wang, Shen, & Liu, 2021). Albeit there have been constant policy reforms on hukou, there still lies barriers and difficulties for farmers to convert their rural hukou into urban hukou (Candelaria, Daly, & Hale, 2015; C. Wang *et al.*, 2021). Disparities in the level of economic development determines the uneven disposable income between consumers from different tiers (Lan, 2021). In result, consumers from different tiers display different level of purchasing power as well as their consumption patterns (Lan, 2021).

Scholars such as Chelekis and Figueiredo (2015) and Rithmire (2013) have pointed out the importance of taking regions as an unit for analysis in marketing and consumer research, so as to avoid the pitfall of over-generalized national culture (Chelekis & Figueiredo, 2015; Taras *et al.*, 2016). Consumers from a specific region share common historical imprints and social-cultural background, which differ them from the consumers from other regions

(Chelekis & Figueiredo, 2015). Therefore, they display distinct regional consumer characteristics (Frank *et al.*, 2014; Zhang *et al.*, 2017), which can be reflected in their regional languages, regional customs, religious beliefs as well certain level of disposable income (Candelaria *et al.*, 2015; Frank *et al.*, 2014; Xu, Xu, Tang, & Zhu, 2019). China has been naturally divided into several geographic regions according to heterogeneous natural conditions and climate. On this basis, Chinese government further divided geographic regions into sub-regions so as to reflect the diverse cultures, climate, administration belongings and economy level along the history. In this chapter, we take the latest regional division, published by 中国国家统计局[NBS] (2011), as it not only reflects social and economic development statues of each region, but is also suitable for analysis of regional development as well as regional policies (S. Li & Hou, 2002). Under this division, China is in total divided into 4 regions, namely, Eastern region with following sub-regions (Northern coastal area, Eastern coastal area, Southern coastal area), Central region with sub-regions (the middle reaches of the Yellow River and the middle reaches of the Yangtze River), Western region with following sub-regions (Southwest region and Great Northwest region) and northeast region [10] (Li & Hou, 2002). The current situation of regional economic development in China displays the following feature: Eastern region is the most developed region, followed by the Central inland and Northeast region, and the Western region the relatively least developed region (Candelaria *et al.*, 2015; Fan & Sun, 2013; Lin *et al.*, 2018; Wang & Rickman, 2017).

The unbalanced regional development is mainly caused by the nature of the geographic location, which determines its connectedness and openness to the outside of the world. In result, it leads to different regional industrial composition as well as different level of education sources across regions (Guan, Lin, & Gu, 2006; Wang & Rickman, 2017). For instance, the top universities in China are concentrated in the Eastern coastal region, where high technology companies and better finance resources are located. While the West region is much lagging behind due to the hostile natural environment and less natural and financial resources (Lan, 2021). There has been plethora research conducted on measuring the

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10 The East region includes: a) Northern coastal area: Beijing, Tianjin, Hebei, Shandong; b) Eastern coastal area: Shanghai, Jiangsu, Zhejiang; c) Southern coastal area: Fujian, Guangdong and Hainan.

Central region inclues: a) middle reaches of the Yellow River: Shanxi, Henan, b) the middle reaches of the Yangtze River Anhui, Jiangxi, Hubei and Hunan.

Western region includes: a) Southwest region: Guangxi, Chongqing, Sichuan, Guizhou, Yunnan, Tibet, Shaanxi, b) Great northwest region: Gansu, Qinghai, Ningxia and Xinjiang, Inner Mongolia.

Northeast region: Liaoning, Jilin and Heilongjiang.

regional differences, ranging from culture and value differences (Xu *et al.*, 2019) to inter-regional economic disparities (Candelaria *et al.*, 2015; Lin *et al.*, 2018), as well as the impact of such regional differences on consumer behavior in China. With regards to the impact of regional culture on consumer behavior, Talhelm *et al.* (2014) found out that Chinese consumers from southern rice agriculture display stronger collectivist traits than consumers from northern wheat agriculture. When it comes to the impact of level of economy on consumer culture and behaviors, Cho, Jin, and Cho (2010) found out that consumers from different regions hold different level of openness, which leaded to different actual purchase of foreign branded apparels. Jin *et al.* (2015) further noted that the stage of economic development predetermines consumers' purchasing power, which shapes consumer behaviour. This is consistent with Zhang *et al.* (2017)'s recent finding that the level of disposable income in different regions determines the level of cultural consumption. According to Guan *et al.* (2006)'s chronological panel data analysis, such inter-regional disparity and its profound impact on consumer culture will be persistent in China for a long period since the peak in 90s (Candelaria *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, it is important for marketers to study the regional consumer culture so as develop local-embedded and fine-tuned marketing strategies, which responds to the call from Frank *et al.* (2014) to take regional marketing segmentation as an attractive marketing strategy in China.

Against this background, this chapter focuses on studying urban **young-adult consumers (in their 20s)** from 9 cities clustered in 3 regions within China against the background of current "new normal" socio-economic landscape, where domestic consumption is emphasized by the government as the key driver of the economy (Davies & Raskovic, 2017). The aim of this chapter is to **test the personal culture orientations**, specifically *independence*, *ambiguity intolerance*, *tradition* and p*rudence,* **as antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism (CET) and consumer cosmopolitanism (COS)**. Further, we aim to test the **impact of CET, COS and consumer's country attitudes on their purchasing intention towards high- and low-involvement[11] foreign products** from selected countries/region (Australia, Japan, Russia and CEE countries) at individual level. In addition, we also aim to **test the moderation role of consumer innovativeness in the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism/consumer cosmopolitanism and consumer's purchase**

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[11] In this study, we choose fridge as high-involvement product and shower gel as low-involvement product as they are familiar to our respondents. In addition, comparing to food, high-technology products or luxury apparals, these two products are relatively less effected by consumer's personal preferences. Considering the same reason, we delibrately avoid a specific brand of the products.

intention towards high- and low-involvement domestic products (refer to conceptual model Figure 2). Finally yet importantly, the main purpose of this chapter also puts emphasize in the **comparison of consumer characteristics across tiers as well as regions**. Therefore, from the **theoretical point of view**, this chapter would **firstly** contribute to the existing literature on understanding how consumer socio-psychographic characteristics shape young-adult consumer behaviors (Gentina *et al.*, 2014; Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006). **Secondly**, it would also contribute to the literature of young-adult consumer's glocal identity (Akturan, Tezcan, & Vignolles, 2011) as well as acculturation to global consumer culture (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007) by addressing the urban hierarchy as well as inter-regional heterogeneity within one country, as studies on this topic are limited in the comparison between countries rather than within a country, particularly in emerging countries, where cities and regions have heterogeneous level of economic development. **Empirically,** this paper responds to the call from Taras *et al.* (2016) looking at the sub-national-culture differences at individual level, but also responds to the call from Kardes (2016) to look for urban market potential in emerging markets through tier-based and inter-regional analysis. It is also a test on Frank *et al.* (2014)'s hypothesis that the level of economy development shapes different consumer behavior with comprehensive tier-based and region-based data. In addition, this chapter has relevance to **international marketers**. It would help them to understand young-adult urban consumers' glocal identifies from the perspective of urban hierarchies and inter-regional disparities (Seidenfuss, Melewar, Kathawala, & Dinnie, 2013), and shift the country-centric strategies to consumer-focused strategies in marketing (Riefler *et al.*, 2012), so as to develop semi-global marketing strategies (Douglas & Craig, 2011). Further, by studying the young-adult consumer cohort, this chapter will bring new perspective to international marketers on age structuring[12] (Settersten Jr & Mayer, 1997), which comes from sociology, and link it to marketing. It will also help international marketers on standardization and adaptation of products based on further understanding of young-adult's glocal identity (Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006). From the perspective of policy makers, this study offers recommendations on the education program relating to young-adult consumers behaviour in the field of international business and marketing.

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[12] Age structuring refers to the fact "that every society uses age in important ways, and the experiences, roles, and statuses of individuals are often tied to age" (Settersten Jr & Mayer, 1997, p. 234). Formal age structuring focuses at the level of social structure and social institutions, for instance, the relationships between "cohorts, roles and age strata and economic, political and other social systems" (p. 235). The informal age structuring pays attention only at the individual behaviors in different segment of life course. (p. 236).

The structure of this chapter is as follows. We first present theoretical framework on the discussed constructs and reason hypotheses with research model presented in the Figure 2. Followed, we test the multigroup models by comparing young consumers across city tiers and across regions irrespectively with results to be presented. The following section is the discussion on theoretical and managerial contribution based on our findings. The last section is conclusion and limitation of this research.

2.2 Theoretical framework

2.2.1 Consumer ethnocentrism (CET) and willingness to buy foreign products

Developed on the foundation of social-psychological theory of ethnocentrism, Shimp and Sharma (1987) first defined consumer ethnocentrism (hereinafter: CET) "the beliefs held by consumer about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products" (p. 280). An enduring personality trait focuses on the economic causes of the pro-in-group and anti-out-group biases (Siamagka, 2015; Zeugner-Roth, et al., 2015). Consumers who are ethnocentric believe that purchasing foreign product would harm domestic economy and cause the unemployment of domestic people. Further, ethnocentric consumers would even sacrifice their own interests to favor domestic products. Therefore, ethnocentric consumers are pro-in-group biased (Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015). Comparing low and high involvement products, high-involvement products are more expensive than low involvement products. Therefore, ethnocentric consumers theoretically would perceive the harm to domestic economy bigger if they purchase high-involvement foreign products than low-involvement products (Wong, Polonsky, & Garma, 2008). Vice versa, purchasing high-involvement domestic products would project domestic economy in larger extent.

Research Hypothesis 1a: CET has a negative impact on willingness of purchasing foreign products.

Research Hypothesis 1b: The negative impact of CET on willingness of purchasing foreign products is stronger for high involvement products than low involvement products.

2.2.2 Consumer Cosmopolitanism (COS) and willingness to buy foreign products

Globalization has contributed to the increasing numbers of cosmopolitan oriented consumers (Terasaki, 2016), particularly than ks to the free access to media and global flow of information (Appadurai, 1990). Cosmopolitan consumers are open-minded and proactive towards enculturation (Cannon & Yaprak, 2001; Terasaki, 2016). They take an initiative

seeking for something new, exotic and beyond the local community (Cannon & Yaprak, 2001; Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Terasaki, 2016). In addition, they "appreciate diversity including trying products and services from a variety of countries" (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2009: 415). Therefore, cosmopolitan consumers tend to search for new foreign and exotic products and experiences so as to explore and embrace cultural diversity (Terasaki, 2016). What is worthy to note is that cosmopolitanism is a dynamic and transitional process. Riefler *et al.* (2012) suggested to view COS as an enduring personal orientation, and pure cosmopolitans rarely exist (Cannon & Yaprak, 2001; Terasaki, 2016). Existing research in different culture context have cross-validated cosmopolitan consumer's positive disposition towards foreign products and services (Riefler *et al.*, 2012). In other words, the higher level of consumer cosmopolitanism, the higher tendency to purchase foreign products and services (Cleveland *et al.*, 2014; Parts & Vida, 2011; Riefler *et al.*, 2012; Srivastava *et al.*, 2021).

Further, Riefler *et al.* (2012, p. 287) noted that cosmopolitan consumers hold "consumption orientation transcend any particular culture, locality or community". This means that consumers who are cosmopolitan oriented would also embrace the authentic local brands and products (Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Terasaki, 2016) as they aim to relinquish culture biases. In another words, being a cosmopolitan consumer does not imply the dislike of local community and products (Makrides, Kvasova, Thrassou, Hadjielias, & Ferraris, 2021). Cannon and Yaprak (2002) have early suggested that we should take consumer cosmopolitanism as a dynamic and evolutionary progress. Consumers could be cosmopolitan at only one category of products/services (e.g. Music) with strong attachment to local culture and people, and gradually move to the highest level of cosmopolitan (global cosmopolitan) by the diffusion of technology, competition, global communications, consumer experience and saturation of lower-level needs (Cannon & Yaprak, 2002, p. 38). In addition, culture (e.g. collectivist vs. individualistic culture) (Cannon & Yaprak, 2002), level of economy development (Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Jin*et al.*, 2015), consumer's psychographic characteristics (e.g. openness to change) (Makrides *et al.*, 2021), consumption-related experiences (e.g. gravel experience) as well as product category (e.g. high technology products vs. FMCGs) (Makrides *et al.*, 2021) all play important roles on determining the level of consumer cosmopolitan. The core of cosmopolitan consumer's characteristic lies in their constant pursuit of higher quality products, seeking for authenticity in products and services, as well as building up their cosmopolitan values (Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Grinstein & Riefler, 2015). However, there has not been any research shed light on the direct

link between COS and consumer's purchase intention towards domestic products and services (Srivastava *et al.*, 2021; Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015). Only in Srivastava *et al.* (2021)'s recent study, they found both indirect positive and negative impact of COS on purchase intention towards domestic products through a double serial mediation, where different brand perceptions on domestic products played a key mediated role.

The high involvement product in our research is a durable product, which does not contain cultural diversity (Srivastava *et al.*, 2021). It is functionally identical across cultures. However, the low involvement products such as shower gel and shampoo can easily contain rich diversity, ranging from different local raw materials to different fragrances to different beauty concept etc. Upon what discussed above we hypothesize:

Research Hypothesis 2a: COS has positive impact on willingness of purchasing foreign products.

Research Hypothesis 2b: The positive impact of COS on willingness of purchasing foreign products is stronger in low-involvement products compared to high-involvement products.

2.2.3 Consumer innovativeness (CIN) and its moderate role on the impact of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer cosmopolitanism and consumer purchasing disposition

Consumer innovativeness (CIN) is a concept derived from psychology studies, studying consumer's innovative behavior as well as personal trait. It has been studied for decades in consumer studies, predicting consumer's tendency on adopting new products/services (Kim *et al.*, 2017) (behavioral aspect), or testing individual consumer's inclination to try new products/services/experiences (Steenkamp *et al.*, 1999). However, there has not been consensus on the definition of CIN, neither on the consistence of predicting power of innovative behavior (Araujo, Ladeira, Santini, & Sampaio, 2016; Roehrich, 2004; Steenkamp *et al.*, 1999; Tellis *et al.*, 2009). In this chapter we follow Steenkamp *et al.* (1999)'s definition by taking CIN as a personality trait (Pearson, 1970) that it is "the disposition to buy new and different products and brands rather than remain with previous choices and consumption patterns". According to Baumgartner and Steenkamp (1996) and Hirunyawipada and Paswan (2006) innovative consumers are seekers of novelty and newness, and they are risk takers to trade off the hedonism of possessing new products/services. Therefore, innovative consumers would risk to "harm" domestic economy by purchasing foreign products. In addition, Terasaki in 2016 noted that cosmopolitan

consumers are usually more innovative and are seeking for varieties of products (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2009), no matter from abroad or home country. Yet, the local cosmopolitans pay more attention on COO cues of the foreign products compared to global cosmopolitans (Terasaki, 2016). Innovative consumers would risk trying out any foreign products regardless its country of origin as long as the products are in their favor of novelty and newness. Therefore,

Research Hypothesis 3a: consumer innovativeness negatively moderates CET and consumer's willingness of purchasing foreign product. The negative effect of consumer ethnocentrism on willingness of purchasing foreign products will be weaker when the level of consumer innovativeness is higher.

Research Hypothesis 3b: consumer innovativeness positively moderates COS and consumer's willingness of purchasing foreign product. The positive effect of COS on willingness of purchasing foreign products will be stronger when the level of consumer innovativeness is higher.

2.2.4   Personal cultural orientations and its impact on CET and COS

Personal cultural orientations are personal values which learned from and shaped by the societal interactions with environment (Yoo & Donthu, 2005). Compared to relatively stable national culture, personal culture orientation looks into individual's psychological characteristics in a dynamic way and allow heterogeneity between individuals (Yoo & Donthu, 2005). We take Sharma (2009)'s framework and focus on four dimensions of personal cultural orientation, namely, independence, ambiguity intolerance, tradition and prudence to explore their impacts on consumer ethnocentrism and consumer cosmopolitanism. These four dimensions mirror Hofstede's national cultural dimensions--- individualism (independence), uncertainty avoidance (ambiguity intolerance) and long-tern orientation (tradition and prudence) irrespectively. We on purposefully skipped the dimension related to masculinity/femininity as there is lack of theoretical support by linking it to consumer behaviors, specifically, consumer ethnocentrism and consumer cosmopolitanism.

Independence is derived from (Hofstede, 1994)'s national cultural typology collectivism vs. individualism. Independent consumers value their personal identity, enjoy autonomy of decision-making. In addition, independent consumers do not feel belongingness to any group, they value personal freedom rather than in-group interests (Yoo & Donthu, 2005). R. E.

Goldsmith and Clark (2012) pointed out that independent consumers are self-sufficient and self-confident. They are searching for uniqueness, thus the consumption should help to exemplify their personal unique identity. In addition, they do not pay attention to other's opinions and views. Under this context, independent consumers encourage competitive domestic market with full accessibility of foreign products so as to fulfil personal demands and pursue individual hedonism (Yoo & Donthu, 2005). They do not view purchasing foreign products as hurting domestic economy. Further, they believe that such values are "valid for the whole world" (de Mooij & Hofstede, 2010, p. 89).

Research Hypothesis 4a: Independence is related negatively to CET.

Research Hypothesis 4b: Independence is related positively to COS.

Ambiguity intolerance is another personality trait, which measures the level of individual's intolerance on uncertain situations and information (Wang, Wang, Yang, Wang, & Li, 2018). When it comes to consumers, ambiguity intolerance measures products/services/experiences featured with complexity, unfamiliarity and inconsistency (e.g. consumers are not familiar with the quality of a product; consumers get inconsistent information on one product) (Sharma, 2009; Sharma *et al.*, 2016; Wang *et al.*, 2018). Consumers with high level of ambiguity intolerance would view foreign products unfavorably. On one hand, there are ambiguous signals on the foreign product on their quality and functionality (Sharma *et al.*, 2016). On the other hand, they cannot tolerate the unpredictable economy in future by allowing the domestic products to compete with imported foreign products (Yoo & Donthu, 2005). Hence, consumers with low level of ambiguity tolerance prefer to stay identical with the in-group interests and refuse to try foreign products (Yoo & Donthu, 2005). In addition, they prefer to stay in the routine and are reluctant to try new things and make new changes (Lim & Park, 2013). Therefore, accessibility to diversities of foreign products is not necessary for them. However, consumers with low level of ambiguity intolerance are more open and feel relaxed towards unfamiliar and complex situations (Hoque, Abul Bashar, & Akhter, 2021). Therefore, we hypothesize:

Research Hypothesis 4c: Ambiguity intolerance is related positively to CET.

Research Hypothesis 4d: Ambiguity intolerance is related negatively on COS.

Tradition and prudence are two dimensions derived from the classical national culture dimension "long-term orientation" (Hofstede, 2001). Tradition represents "hardworking,

benevolent, social conscious and non-materialistic, morality and respect for one's heritage" and prudence represents "planning, perseverance, thrift, and future orientation" (Sharma, 2010, p. 792). According to the definition of "long-term orientation" along the evolution, tradition and prudence are positively correlated (Bearden, 2006), which is presented differently in Sharma (2009)'s work. There has not been much research on the impact of long-term orientation on consumer behaviors. By the positive link between tradition, conservation and collectivism (Prince *et al.*, 2020), consumers value tradition high are in-group oriented and view foreign products as a threat to national economy (Prince *et al.*, 2020). They would not purchase foreign products to reflect his/her social status as they have high level of morality to protect domestic economy and workers. However, prudent consumers with long-term orientation are pragmatic future oriented (Nguyen & Pham, 2021) and they are open to change (Prince *et al.*, 2020). They are dynamic in thinking, and look forward to having long-term relationship with international brands and products (Yoo & Donthu, 2005). They embrace the diversities products (Sharma, 2009). Thus, we hypothesize that:

Research Hypothesis 4e: Tradition is positively related to CET.

Research Hypothesis 4f: Tradition is negatively related to COS.

Research Hypothesis 4g: Prudence is negatively related to CET.

Research Hypothesis 4h: Prudence is positively related to COS.

2.2.5 Consumer attitudes towards foreign countries and consumer purchasing disposition towards foreign products

According to attitude-behavior theory in social psychology, our attitudes, together with perceived social norms and feelings of control determine our behavioral intention, which in result guide his/her behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005). In addition, potent and specific attitudes, such as consumer's attitudes towards a certain country will be a good predictor for a specific related behavior, for instance, intention on purchasing products from that country (Conner, Godin, Sheeran, & Germain, 2013; Myers & Twenge, 2019; Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015). As pointed out by Klein *et al.* (1998), consumer's attitudes towards a certain country could be influenced by many social, political, economic and historical conflicts. Generally speaking, the positive effective attitudes would accelerate consumer's likability to foreign products from that country. Likewise, consumer's positive cognitive country attitudes (e.g. positive country reputation) would also help consumers form a positive disposition towards

foreign products (Kang & Yang, 2010) through information processing (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005). In terms of high and low involvement products, Henderson and Hoque (2010) noted that consumer would pay much more attention carefully scrutinizing the possible information of high-involvement products through the core route attitude formation (Ajzen, 1991; Henderson & Hoque, 2010), while they pay much less careful attitudes for low-involvement products. Therefore, consumer's cognitive attitudes towards products would have much more impact on purchasing high involvement products than low involvement products.

Research Hypothesis 5a: Consumer's country attitude would have positive impact on their willingness of purchasing foreign products.

Research Hypothesis 5b: The positive impact of country attitude on consumer's willingness of purchasing foreign products would be stronger when it comes to high involvement products.

Chinese attitude toward Japan. World War II has left Chinese, particularly those from regions where their elders or ancestors had suffered massacre (e.g. Nanjing, Lvshun) or military occupation by Japanese, a collectivist traumatic memory as victim and the humiliated of the invasion by Japanese (He, 2007). As a matter of fact, such military conflicts coupled with many other political frictions (e.g. Taiwan issue, Diaoyu Islands issue etc.) between China and Japan have led to public Chinese pervasive and rising nationalism, and on the other side hostile political attitude towards Japan (He, 2007; Klein *et al.*, 1998; Wang, He, & Li, 2013). As a result, Chinese political hostile attitudes and war animosity towards Japan, to some extent, led to their economic animosity towards Japanese products (Cheah, Phau, Kea, & Huang, 2016; Klein *et al.*, 1998). This can be evidenced by many consumer's boycotting movements towards Japanese products (He, 2007; Wang *et al.*, 2013). However, on the economic side, Japan and China are heavily interdependent. They are each other's biggest trade partners. China ranks as Japan's the largest export partner (Daisuke, 2021) while Japan ranks as China's fourth largest export partner (N. B. o. Statistics, 2021). There has been large existence of Japanese MNCs in Shanghai since 90s, with the largest number of 14.4 thousand companies in 2012 (Statista, 2019). Most Japanese companies are located in Shanghai, Dalian (Liaoning province) and Suzhou (Jiangsu province). It is also common to see the Japanese cultural and economic legacy in these cities (for instance, KTV with Japanese songs and Japanese restaurants everywhere in Shanghai, Japanese architectures in Dalian). Young-adult consumers from Shanghai and above-mentioned cities are growing up

in such environment. They are used to Japanese companies as well as culture. Therefore, they usually hold neutral or friendlier attitudes towards Japanese than other regions. According to Stokes (2016)'s research on Sino-Japanese attitudes towards each other, both Chinese and Japanese still hold negative stereotypes on each other, albeit young-adult generations are less biased than older generations. Chinese attitudes towards Japan are also complicated. More than 70% of Chinese associate Japanese with violence and arrogance. Half of Chinese view Japanese as modern, which decreased from 68% in 2006. However, less Chinese view Japanese nationalistic in 2016 compared to the year 2006 (Stokes, 2016).

Chinese attitudes towards Russia. Compared to Japan, Russia comes to under the radar of our research interests by the fact that although it is geographically the closest neighbor, yet unlike Japan, Russia is culturally and psychically distant. There has not been much noted in research on Chinese consumer's attitude toward Russia. Yet, we could still trace Chinese multiplicative attitudes towards Russia from Sino-Russian historical, political and economic interactions (Lo, 2010). On one hand, China see Russia as a great power and a threat since Tsarist times, when Russia invaded China and took more than half a million territory from China with unequal treaties (Lo, 2010). However, on the other side, in the contemporary history, particularly in the period of socialism practice, there the so-called Sino-Soviet "unbreakable friendship" was established but also ruptured (Lo, 2010). However, Such "friendship" still function as a catalyst for Sino-Russian deeper strategic economic partnership (Grigorenko, Klyuchnikov, Gridchina, Litvinenko, & Kolpak, 2016). Although governments of two countries play as strategic partners in the international stage, ordinary people have very different perspective towards Russia. According to Lo (2010)'s research, Chinese traders and laborers view Russia as "corrupt, racist and violent" (p. 19), while Chinese young-adults see Russia as "a factor of no relevance to their lives" (p. 21).

Chinese's attitudes toward CEE countries. Chinese older generation hold affinity attitudes towards ex-Yugoslavian countries and Russia owing to economic cooperation in contemporary history and common socialism background. However, for young adults, their knowledge on CEE countries are very limited but has been increased due to the One Belt One Road initiative (Z. Liu, 2019). We purposefully include CEE countries considering the following reasons. On one hand, Russia and CEE countries are more geographically and culturally close when compared to China, with many of them were under Soviet-Union territory. On the other hand, many countries in CEE regions are in the similar economic transition stage as China, for instance, Poland, Croatia etc. According to Li, Fu, and Murray (1998), when consumers are not familiar with the products from certain country, they would

judge the quality of products from their stereotypes of country image, which is consumer's overall attitudes/beliefs towards host country's politics, economy and technology.

Chinese attitudes toward Australia. Australia is plays important and strategic role in Asia and Pacific region. It ranks as a developed country like Japan. However, compared to Japan, there is very limited research/reports on Chinese attitudes Australia. According to statistics, China is the largest service export market (represented by tourism and education industry) (A. B. o. Statistics, 2020), On the contrary, Australian anti-China sentiment has been rising and such attitudes are ubiquitous over multimedia. Australian negative attitude toward China can be indirectly evidenced by Strokes findings in 2016 that Australians hold more favorable attitudes towards Japan than China. Australia's rising anti-China sentiment, in return, cools Chinese super positive attitudes towards Australia (Hu, 2021). According to the first ever public poll on Chinese attitudes towards Australia in 2021, more public Chinese view Australia as "more of a political or ideological threat to China". However, when it comes to education, tourism, migration and quality of life, Chinese still hold very positive attitudes toward Australia.

Therefore, based on Chinese familiarity and their general attitudes towards above mentioned countries, we would like to hypothesize:

Research Hypothesis 5c: Generally speaking, the impact of young adult consumer's country attitudes on willingness of purchasing foreign product would be strongest when it comes to Japanese products, followed by Russian products. The impact would be less strong when it comes to Australian products and products from CEE countries.

Research Hypothesis 5d: The impact of CET and COS on willingness of purchasing foreign products would be stronger when it comes to Japanese products.

2.2.6   Chinese multi-tier system and young-adult consumer characteristics

The urbanization in China started in 1970s, along with the reform and opening policy. The urbanization rate has reached from 18% in 1978 to 59.58% in 2018 (Ni & Li, 2019). Large flow of rural population was sprung into urban areas, which contributed to the miracle of Chinese double-digit economic growth for more than three decades (Hu & Chen, 2015; Smith, 2019). Yet, neither the United Nation's standard on city-size classification nor China's old standard could scientifically reflect central place theory and rank-size rule of urbanization (Qi, Liu, & Jin, 2016). In result, the state council in 2014 launched a new standard to classify cities. Based on the new classification, there are five categories and seven

subcategories of cities across the country, popularly known as five tiers and seven sub tiers. Tier 1 cities are megacities with population bigger than 10 million, tier 2 cities between 5 to 10 million, tier 3 cities between 1 to 5 million, tier 4 cities between 0.5 to 1 million, and tier 5 less than 0.5 million (Kang, 2014). With the new standard, the tier system is characterized with a pyramid structure. Small numbers of tier 1 cities and larger numbers of lower tiered cities (Qi *et al.*, 2016). In addition, the tier system also well reflected the administrative level and level of economic development, infrastructure, and allocation of social resources of cities. For instance, the tier 1 cities (Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Chongqing) are municipalities or leading provincial cities with GDP over $300 billion US dollars. They have absolute advantages on the quantity and quality of educational, medical sources, city pivotability and commercial resources compared to lower tiered cities (Ni *et al.*, 2017). In addition, Tier 1 cities are the most open towards foreign direct investments and exposure the most to foreign products as well as culture (Jin, Chen, & Zhang, 2019). Further, they are taking the leading roles on innovation projects and have spill-over effects to the surrounding cities. Tier 2 cities (34 cities) are mostly leading provincial cities or economically important cities with GDP between $68 to $299 billion US dollars. They are taking important roles in agglomeration effects of city clusters. Tier 3 cities (249 cities) are prefecture capital cities with GDP between $18 to $67 billion US dollars.

Chinese young-adult consumers were born in the globalization era against the background of rapid economy development and large scale of speedy urbanization (Han, 2017). They are more familiar with international brands compare to older cohorts (Cannon & Yaprak, 2001). To them, hybrid products are seen as norms (Wong, Polonsky, & Garma, 2008). With the increase of personal disposable income, they become the main force of domestic and abroad tourism. This is in line with Cleveland *et al.* (2009)'s finding that the wealthier consumers are, the more cosmopolitan they will be. Existing literature shows that Chinese young-adult urban consumers, in general, display low level of CET (Ding, 2017), low level of CIN (Han, 2017; Rašković *et al.*, 2016), higher level of COS (Han, 2017; Terasaki, 2016). Yet, studies on young-adult consumer behavior from tier perspective remain scarce in the literature.

According to Schuh's theoretical framework on the relationship between the stage of economy development and consumers' behavior (in Shankarmahesh, 2006), consumer's preferences towards foreign products is associated with the stage of economy development. At the early stage of market economy development with very limited international trade, consumers prefer western products because of the quality and novelty of the products. In addition, by doing so, it helps to meet their needs for materialism and conspicuity (Karoui

& Khemakhem, 2019; Podoshen, Li, & Zhang, 2011), which helps to reflect their social status (Das & Mukherjee, 2019; Podoshen *et al.*, 2011). Consumers in the economy under the transitional stage would tend to prefer domestic products along with their rising sense of nationalism. They believe that purchasing domestic products would help with the improvement of domestic economy. Consumers from developed economies are more open towards foreign products as they are exposed to MNCs and large inward of FDI, their level of consumer ethnocentrism would drop again as at this stage. If we analogize this theory to tiers in China, Chinese Tier 1 cities are most economically developed and saturated with MNCs. Consumers from tier 1 cities enjoy highest disposable income, having accessibility to both domestic and foreign products in the market. They own more premium products compared to consumers from lower tiered cities (iResearch, 2019). In addition, as young adult consumers are living with and immersed in foreign brands in tier 1 cities, they do not reckon purchasing foreign products would do harm to domestic economy. Chinese Tier 2 cities are under the stage of economy transition. Young-adult consumers are exposed to certain number of MNCs and they care culturally local embedded. Consumers on average have substantial disposable income. Driving by the motives of rejuvenation of the country, young-adult consumers from tier 2 cities are motivated to contribute to national economy (Zhang, Li, & Liu, 2018) by purchasing domestic products (Ding, 2017). On the contrast, consumer from tier 3 cities have very limited interaction with foreign investment. It is no doubt that their accessibility to various foreign products in the market are very limited as well. Yet, they believe that foreign products are of better quality and conspicuous consumption could help them to reflect social status and display social public superiority. This could be evidenced by the over popularity of Pizza hut or online foreign luxury purchasing in Chinese tier 3 cities (OC&C, 2018).

Prolific literature has shed light on comparison of consumers' different level of ethnocentrism by taking the stage of economy development into account (Cheng & Chen, 2004; Jin*et al.*, 2015; Ma, Yang, & Yoo, 2020). However, majority were focused on the comparison of CET between developing countries and developed countries (Jin *et al.*, 2015). Nevertheless, the results converged that consumers from developing/transitional/less-developed countries prefer foreign products over domestic ones (Han & Won, 2018). They display low level of CET (Bi *et al.*, 2012). While consumers from developed countries would view products from domestic countries outperformed than foreign products (Cheng & Chen, 2004; Srinivas Durvasula, Andrews, & Netemeyer, 1997). Considering China as a whole is reckoned in the developing stage, but the economy entity of some provinces has reached to

the level of developed countries (for instance, GDP of Jiangsu province ranks 14th largest in the world, which surpasses Australia and Spain) (Lan, 2021). Existing research on measuring Chinese young-adult consumer's CET all showed that Chinese display low level of CET (Bi *et al.*, 2012; Ding, 2017; Han *et al.*, 2021; Wong *et al.*, 2008). Further, in Ding (2017)'s recent finding, they found that consumers from tier 1 cities are less ethnocentric than those from lower tiered cities. Hence, taking what we discussed above in a holistic considering, we reason the following hypotheses:

Research Hypothesis 6a: Young-adult consumers from higher tiered cities display lower level of consumer ethnocentrism than those from lower tiered cities.

Research Hypothesis 6b: There would be cross-tier differences in the relationship between personal cultural orientations and CET.

Research Hypothesis 6c: The impact of CET on willingness of purchasing foreign products would differ across three tiers.

Research hypothesis 6d: There would be cross-tier differences in the CIN's moderation role on the relationship between CET and willingness of purchasing foreign products.

Sevincer, Varnum, and Kitayama (2017) defined cosmopolitan cities as "urban areas that provide manifold economic opportunities and whose culture emphasize diversity, creativity, and egalitarianism". A high cosmopolitan city is accompanied with abundant non-traditional industries, such as high-technology industries, acting as global financial harbor and well-connected entrepreneurial networks (Sevincer *et al.*, 2017). In addition, it is more tolerant towards people from different cultures and ethnic groups. In the other words, cosmopolitan cities embrace talents of pool regardless of their nationality and ethnicity. In addition, a cosmopolitan city is open to new ideas and culture diversity, and it provides people with fair and equal treatment (Leung, Koh, & Tam, 2015; Sevincer *et al.*, 2017). On the other hand, economy in less cosmopolitan cities is dominated by traditional production mode, for instance, heavy manufacturing and agriculture (Sevincer *et al.*, 2017). In addition, less cosmopolitan cities are more ethnic homogeneous. There are less immigrants from other culture backgrounds or ethnic groups. Further, in less cosmopolitan cities, the entrepreneurial networks are local-based (Sevincer *et al.*, 2017).

Sevincer *et al.* (2017) and Leung *et al.* (2015)'s theory on the cosmopolitan cities is applicable to Chinese tier system. Chinese tier 1 cities such as Shanghai and Shenzhen are

indeed global financial center, with Shanghai ranked as top 3 and Shenzhen top 8 in 2021 GFCI 29 Rank (Longfinance, 2021). In addition, tier 1 cities are also harbor of high-technology companies, with 25,000 companies in Beijing, 14,400 in Shenzhen 1,1000 in Guangzhou and 9206 in Shanghai. In addition, according to the statistics, all listed artificial intelligence companies are concentrated in tier 1 and new tier 1 cities (Statista, 2020). Governments in tier 1 cities have been launching numerous policies so as to attract both domestic and oversea talents, and creating an environment of fair competition for them (Lan, 2021). Tier 2 cities in China are in momentous of upgrading the industrial structure. There are less high-technology companies compare to tier 1 cities (Forward, 2020, p. 32). Tier 3 cities in general are less economically developed. The proportion of agricultural and industrial industries are still relatively high. The newly economic development mode would be still heavily agricultural and husbandry related, for instance, the combination of e-commerce and agriculture, or combination of tourism and agriculture etc. (Wu, 2018). In terms of the openness towards foreign investments, majority of the foreign investment has poured to tier 1 cities and partially tier 2 cities owing to the support of business-related infrastructure, government policies (Gu, Zhang, Chen, & Chang, 2016; Lan, 2021) as well as the accessibility to high quality talents (Cheng, Lin, & Simmons, 2017). Therefore, young-adult consumers from Tier 1 cities are growing up with international brands as there is full accessibility to the diverse foreign products. However, when it comes to tier 2 and tier 3 cities, the accessibility to foreign products offline becomes rarer. According to consumer research by PwC in 2019, consumers from tier 2 and tier 3 are more willing to try new premium brands compare to counterparts from tier 1 cities. In addition, due to limited accessibility to luxury and foreign products in the market, consumers from tier 3 cities are the largest cohort of online shoppers for luxuries (OC&C, 2018). It is worthy to put out that albeit they are not the ones spend the most time on internet, they are the largest cohort follow live streaming platforms and make impulse purchase (Graziani, 2019). Further, both Cleveland *et al.* (2009) and Yoon, Cannon, and Yaprak (1996) suggested that the level of economy development and the level of consumer's disposable income is positively related to the level of COS. The more developed economy brings higher level of openness towards outside and foreignness (Han, 2017). As noted above, Chinese tier 1 cities are the most economy developed with highest average disposable income, followed by tier 2 cities and tier 3 cities.

Hence, having said all above, we hypothesize that:

Research Hypothesis 7a: Chinese young-adult consumers from higher tiered cities would be more cosmopolitan than those from lower tiered cities.

Research Hypothesis 7b: Consumers from lower tiered cities would be more innovative in trying new and more premium products.

Research Hypothesis 7b: There would be cross-tier differences on the relationship between personal cultural orientations and COS.

Research Hypothesis 7c: The impact of COS on consumers' willingness of purchasing foreign products would differ across three tiers.

Research hypothesis 7d: There would be cross-tier differences in the CIN's moderation role on the relationship between COS and willingness of purchasing foreign products.

2.2.7 Inter-regional differences and young-adult consumer characteristics in China

China, with one of the largest size of territory and 56 ethnics, is a country with diverse sub-cultures (Elliott & Tam, 2014; Minkov, 2012; Redfern & Crawford, 2008). Among all the criteria that distinguish subcultures, the geographic criterion (region) serves as one of the crucial as it offers people sense of group belongingness and affiliation (Lenartowicz, Johnson, & White, 2003). Regional culture, as one of the culture layers (Hofstede, 1994), conveys the shared values, habits and identities within a particular geography. Jialu Xu pointed that regional cultures are distinct to each other in three hierarchical dimensions which are reflected by consumers' aggregated behaviors. The first dimension of regional culture lies in material formats, e.g. regional-/di-lect[13], food and architecture etc (see Zhang, 2008). For instance, there are 10 official regionlects which consist more than 80 dialects in total, belonging to 5 different language families (Education, 2021). Further, Zhang, Yue, Zhou, Ma, and Zhang (2019) recently revealed that the geographic boundary/proximity is the predominant factor leading to distinct regional cuisine preference and dietary habits. The

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[13] There are 10 regional dialects across China. They are "Mandarin dialect, Jin dialect, Wu dialect, Min dialect, Hakka dialect, Cantonese dialect, Hunan dialect, Gan dialect, Hui dialect, and Pinghua dialect". Yet, under each regional dialect there are sub-dialects, for instance: under Mandarin dialect, there are following sub-dialects: "Northeast Mandarin, Beijing Mandarin, Jilu Mandarin, Jiaoliao Mandarin, Lanyin Mandarin, Jianghuai Mandarin, and Southwest Mandarin" (Ministry of education, 2021). It happens that people from the same dialect region do not understand each other if they do not speak the same sub-dialect.

second dimension comes with institutional dimension, e.g. customs, rituals, institutions, laws, religions and art etc. (see Zhang, 2008) . In terms of institutional dimension, ethnic groups who inhabit in compact communities scattering across China have their own particular customs and rituals, for instance, Torch festival belongs only to Yi people, while Songkran Festival is recognized as one of the most important festivals for Dai people in China. In addition, the distribution of religions also reflects regional differences. According to Lu (2014)'s finding the most popular region for Islam is concentrated in Gansu (Northwest region), while Christian is more concentrated in Henan province (North region) and Liaoning province (Northeast region). The third dimension, also the highest level of culture, is philosophical dimension, e.g. values, group personality, aesthetic taste (see Zhang, 2008). Redfern and Crawford (2008) pointed out that the level of modernization, marketization and industrialization have impact on individual values and behaviors by the interaction with national culture. Huo and Randall (1991) found that Chinese consumers from more industrialized areas such as WuHan are more individualistic and masculine than in Beijing. This is in line with Welzel (2013)'s finding that modernization elevates individualistic values. Han *et al.* (2021) in their recent research also confirmed that Chinese young-adult urban consumers are getting more and more individualistic and materialistic. With regards to the value differences across regions in China, Schwartz (1994) already noted that there lie huge differences on personal values between Shanghai (East region) and Guangzhou (South region). Therefore, from all above, we could see that inter-regional differences in all dimensions do exist pervasively.

Economists argue that regional culture shapes the unique local economic culture (Obschonka, Zhou, Zhou, Zhang, & Silbereisen, 2018), as well as consumer culture (Zhou *et al.*, 2010). In this research, we focus on the comparison of urban consumers from three regions, namely eastern coastal region (represented by Shanghai, Nanjing and Nantong), northern coastal region (represented by Beijing, Ji'nan and Taian) and southwest region (represented by Chongqing, Chengdu and Leshan). Comparing the selected three regions, Eastern coastal region is the most developed region and the most exposed to westernization (Lin *et al.*, 2018). Owing to its excellent infrastructure as well as high quality of labor force, it has been always the region that attracts the most of inward FDI (Fu, Wang, & Chen, 2021) and ranks highest on the actual usage of foreign investment, particularly in Shanghai, Jiangsu and Zhejiang provinces. Southern coastal region and Northern coastal region (centered by Beijing) follows. Comparing to the other two regions, Southwest region has weaker labor supply, slower population growth (Wang & Rickman, 2017), as well as less adequate infrastructure, e.g.,

lower level of connectivity with other regions and lower level of main road density (Lin *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, it is the least developed among the selected three regions and the least exposed to foreign investment. In terms of the culture and values, Elliott and Tam (2014) found that people from Shanghai (Eastern Coastal region) scores significantly lower in power distance and long-term orientation, but significantly higher in uncertainty avoidance compare to the people from Chongqing (Southwest region). It implies that people from Eastern coastal region are more pragmatic and paying less attention to formality, and they do not tent to take risks to do business. This attributes to the long-term acculturation to western products as well as business culture (Schwartz, Unger, Zamboanga, & Szapocznik, 2010). Therefore, driving by their individualistic values and materialistic demands, they do not feel guilty to purchase foreign products (Han *et al.*, 2021). When it comes to Northern coastal region, it's culture is overwhelmingly dominated and influenced by Confucianism (Obschonka *et al.*, 2018), as Confucius was born and Confucianism was originated (Shandong province) there. People from this region are more embracing traditional values, such as hierarchy, "face", renqing (reciprocal relationship), formalities and social statues (Cho *et al.*, 2010). These factors are hindering the development of market economy (Lu, 2004), as Obschonka *et al.* (2018) noted that "regions relying more on Confucian values and norms……show a less strong entrepreneurial culture" (p.976). The author personally experienced the red-tapes and bureaucratic obstacles when collecting data for this research in universities particularly in Northern coastal region and Southwest region. Therefore, compare to Eastern coastal region, tradition focused Northern coastal region is relatively less open towards the foreignness. Considering the main economy driving factors are still agriculture as well as heavy industry, and their social entrepreneur networks are relatively local based, we assume consumers from Northern coastal region are less cosmopolitan. However, noted by Notar (2008), although Southwest region suffers less developed economy, people, particularly those who are working in tourism industry, from this region are still open-minded and have "willingness to engage with other" (p. 618). This attributes to the booming tourism industry in Southwest region. People from this region could continuously interact with people from other regions and foreign countries without going out of their territory. They are local cosmopolitan-oriented (Notar, 2008; Riefler *et al.*, 2012).

Given what discussed above, we hypothesize (refer to Table 6):

Research Hypothesis 8a: Young-adult consumers from Eastern coastal region would score higher in Independence than those from the other two regions.

Research Hypothesis 8b: Young-adult consumers from Northern coastal region would score higher in Tradition than those from the other two regions.

Research Hypothesis 8c: Young-adult consumers from Eastern coastal region would score lower in Prudence than those from the other two regions.

Research Hypothesis 8d: Young-adult consumers from Eastern coastal region would score higher in Ambiguity intolerance than those from Southwest region.

Research Hypothesis 8e: Young-adult consumers from Eastern coastal region would be the most cosmopolitan compared to those from other two regions.

Research Hypothesis 8f: Young-adult consumers from Eastern coastal region would be the least ethnocentric than those from other two regions.

Research Hypothesis 8g: There would be regional differences when it comes to the relationship between personal cultural orientations and CET.

Research Hypothesis 8h: There would be regional differences when it comes to the relationship between personal cultural orientations and COS.

Research Hypothesis 8i: There would be inter-regional differences in the impact of CET on young-adult consumer's willingness to buy foreign products.

Research Hypothesis 8j: There would be inter-regional differences in the impact of COS on young-adult consumer's willingness to buy foreign products.

Research hypothesis 8k: There would be inter-regional differences in the CIN's moderation role on the relationship between CET and willingness of purchasing foreign products.

Research hypothesis 8l: There would be inter-regional differences in the CIN's moderation role on the relationship between COS and willingness of purchasing foreign products.

Table 6: Hypotheses on inter-regional comparison of Chinese young-adult consumer characteristics

Hypothesis	Northern coastal region	Eastern coastal region	Southwestern region
8a: independence		Higher level	
8b: tradition	Higher level		
8c: prudence		Lower level	
8d: ambiguity intolerance		Higher level	
8e: cosmopolitanism		Most cosmopolitan	
8f: ethnocentrism		Least ethnocentric	
8g: PCOs → CET	Inter-regional differences		
8h: PCOs → COS	Inter-regional differences		
8i: CET → WTB	Inter-regional differences		
8j: COS → WTB	Inter-regional differences		
8k: CIN*CET→ WTB	Inter-regional differences		
8l: CIN*COS→ WTB	Inter-regional differences		

Source: Own work.

2.3   Data & Methodology

2.3.1   Sample and data collection

The data was collected through a paper-based questionnaire with matched samples in 9 cities balancedly located in three regions (3 tiered cities in each region), as matched samples are typical practice for cross-cultural comparative studies (Minkov, 2012; Taras *et al.*, 2016). The questionnaire was translated into Chinese and back-translated into English in order to achieve content equivalence. Since we focused on young-adult consumers in 3 tiered cities across 3 regions, university students were judged as good representatives of this population (Ding *et al.*, 2018). Additional descriptive statistics can be found in Table 7 and Table 8.

Table 7: Sample descriptive statistics across tiers (3*3 matrix)

China	City	Region	Sample size	% of female respondents	Age (year of birth)
Tier1	Beijing	North	209	58.9%	22~23 yrs (3.2)
	Shanghai	East	205	63.4%	19~20 yrs (1.1)
	Chongqing	Southwest	212	44.5%	22~23 yrs (1.9)
Tier2	Jinan	North	215	47.2%	22~23 yrs (1.9)
	Nanjing	East	215	47.2%	22~23 yrs (1.9)
	Chengdu	Southwest	196s	61.9%	20~21 yrs (1.5)
Tier3	Tai'an	North	226	59.1%	22~23 yrs (1.8)
	Nantong	East	198	61.9%	20~21 yrs (1.5)
	Leshan	Southwest	153	51%	20~21 yrs (1.7)

Notes: Numbers in brackets are standard deviation of age

Source: Own work.

Table 8: Sample descriptive statistics across regions (3*3 matrix)

China	City	Sample size		Age (year of birth)
Northern coastal region	Beijing	209	N=650	22~23 yrs (3.2)
	Jinan	215		22~23 yrs (1.9)
	Tai'an	226		22~23 yrs (1.8)
Eastern coastal region	Shanghai	205	N=618	19~20 yrs (1.1)
	Nanjing	215		22~23 yrs (1.9)
	Nantong	198		20~21 yrs (1.5)
Southwest region	Chengdu	196	N=561	20~21 yrs (1.5)
	Chongqing	212		22~23 yrs (1.9)
	Leshan	153		20~21 yrs (1.7)

Notes: Numbers in brackets are standard deviation of age

Source: Own work.

2.3.2 Methodology

In terms of construct operationalization, all the construct measures are adapted from previously established and validated scales. The four dimensions of personal cultural orientation were adapted from Sharma (2009), which had been developed originally with Chinese samples. CET and country attitudes toward country were adapted from shortened scale of Zeugner-Roth *et al.* (2015)'s operationalization. COS was draw on Riefler and

Diamantopoulos (2009)'s 3-dimensional C-COSMO scale as it was currently the most reasonable scale for studying consumption-domain (Terasaki, 2016). CIN was adapted from Baumgartner andSteenkamp (1996)'s scale. Finally yet importantly, willingness of purchasing foreign products was adapted from Klein *et al.* (1998)'s scale, which were originally tested with Chinese consumers. Apart from cultural orientation dimensions were measured with 5-point Likert-type scales, all other constructs were measured in 7-point Likert scale. The different Likert scales were purposefully employed to avoid common method bias.

Concerning the measurement model, the multi-group measurement invariance test was firstly operationalized by using AMOS 26 for both datasets of tiers and regions. Items from specific constructs were deleted in order to establish the measurement equivalence across three groups for further analysis (refer to Appendix 6). Analysis established configural invariance (χ^2=994.8, df=337, RMSEA=0.03, CFI=0.97, PCFI=0.8) for all constructs, full metric invariance (with p value of χ^2 diference > 0.06 across four samples) and structural covariance invariance for tier comparison (see table 9).

Table 9: Goodness-of-fit statistics for Tests of Multigroup Invariance (tiers)

	Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta \chi^2$	Δdf	statistical significance	CFI
Australia	Configural model	44.78	34				0.953
	Measurement model	48.62	38	3.85	4	0.43	0.953
	Structural model	105.16	76	101.31	72	p<0.05	0.953
	Structural covariance model	112.42	78	11.10	6	0.09	0.951
CEE countries	Configural model	47.49	34			0.06	0.957
	Measurement model	49.88	38	2.39	4	0.66	0.956
	Structural model	130.44	75	128.04	71	p<0.05	0.957
	Structural covariance model	139.23	77	11.18	6	0.08	0.953
Japan	Configural model	47.07	34			0.07	0.951
	Measurement model	50.35	38	3.28	4	0.51	0.95
	Structural model	104.16	76	100.88	72	p<0.05	0.95
	Structural covariance model	111.87	78	10.99	6	0.09	0.949
Russia	Configural model	47	34			0.07	0.951
	Measurement model	49.33	38	2.35	4	0.67	0.95
	Structural model	115.87	76	113.52	72	p<0.05	0.95
	Structural covariance model	124.51	78	10.99	6	0.09	0.948

Notes: due to the complex of the model, we test the measurement invariance in four separate data set according to the attitudes towards four studies countries.

Source: Own work.

Regarding the regional comparison dataset, configural invariance and partial metric invariance for all constructs across all 3 regions were found only for the purchase of products from Russia when the items "It is not right to purchase foreign products, because this puts

Chinese people out of jobs" and "We should purchase products manufactured in China, instead of letting other countries get rich off us" are relaxed in Southwest region, and the item "I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world" is relaxed in all three regions. When it comes to willingness of purchasing products from the four foreign countries/regions, the configural invariance can only established between the Eastern Coastal Region and the Northern Coastal Region, and full metric invariance is established for further regional comparisons (see Table 10).

Table 10: Goodness-of-fit statistics for Tests of Multigroup Invariance (regions)

	Model	$\chi2$	df	$\Delta \chi2$	Δdf	statistical significance	CFI
Australia	Configural model	13.82	13			0.39	0.974
	measurement model	14.32	15	0.50	2	0.78	0.974
	structural model	59.19	30	58.69	28	$p<0.05$	0.975
	structural covariance model	70.72	31	12.03	3	$p<0.05$	0.971
CEE countries	Configural model	16.5	13			0.22	0.975
	measurement model	17.02	15	0.52	2	0.77	0.974
	structural model	41.18	30	40.65	28	0.06	0.974
	structural covariance model	52.3	31	11.64	3	$p<0.05$	0.973
Japan	Configural model	13.33	14			0.5	0.967
	measurement model	14.04	16	0.71	2	0.7	0.967
	structural model	54.72	38	54	36	$p<0.05$	0.967
	structural covariance model	66.1	39	12.10	3	$p<0.05$	0.965
Russia	Configural model	35.37	24			0.063	0.969
	measurement model	36.33	28	0.96	4	0.92	0.968
	structural model	94.96	76	93.99	72	$p<0.05$	0.968
	structural covariance model	107.75	78	13.75	6	$p<0.05$	0.967

Notes: due to the complex of the model, we test the measurement invariance in four separate data set according to the attitudes towards four studies countries.

Source: Own work.

Further, we calculated composite reliabilities, all of which except the affective attitudes towards foreign countries were above the recommended threshold value of .60 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1989). The average variance extracted (AVE) values were at or above .50 (with the exception of Ambiguity Avoidance at 0.46 and COS at 0.496, and affective attitude towards foreign countries 0.357). Therefore, the construct **"affective attitudes towards foreign countries" is deleted** for further structural equation modeling test. In addition, we assessed discriminant validity among constructs by comparing the shared construct variances with the respective AVEs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All AVEs exceeded the squared correlations between the constructs, providing support for adequate discriminant validity (see Table 11).

Further, we conducted oneway ANOVA with Turkey post-hoc multiple comparison to test for cross-tiers and inter-regional variances of the weighted means (Hair Jr, Black, Babin, &

Anderson, 2010). Finally, we created a structural equation model using the full dataset to test the overall causal relationship between the constructs in accordance with the research hypotheses (Hypothesis 1a through Hypothesis 5d). Due to the complexity of the data set and framework, 8 models were created for the cross-tier comparison and the other 8 models were created for the inter-regional comparison. For instance: model for cross-tier comparison when it comes to willingness to buy Japanese products with high involvement products; model for cross-tier comparison when it comes to willingness to buy Japanese products with low involvement products, etc. The moderation effect of CIN on the relationship between CET, COS, and willingness to buy foreign products was analyzed using PROCESS in SPSS Statistics 26.

Table 11: Composite reliability, AVE, correlations between constructs and discriminant validity

	CR	AVE	Indep	Amb	Trad	CIN	COS	CET	Prud	AtCog
Independence	0.677	0.512	0.716							
Ambiguity	0.711	0.465	0.014	0.682						
Tradition	0.691	0.528	0.106**	0.081*	0.727					
CIN	0.786	0.554	0.081*	0.177***	0.074*	0.744				
COS	0.743	0.496	0.119***	0.036	0.039	-0.124***	0.704			
CET	0.899	0.693	0.012	0.048†	0.202***	0.213***	-0.221***	0.833		
Prudence	0.7	0.544	0.359***	0.102**	0.290***	0.018	0.270***	-0.022	0.737	
AtCog	0.811	0.682	0.113***	-0.021	0.078*	0.008	0.083**	-0.008	0.099**	0.826

Notes: data on the diagonal is the shared construct variances with the respective AVEs.

CIN=consumer innovativeness, COS=consumer cosmopolitanism, CET=consumer ethnocentrism, and AtCog=cognitive attitudes towards foreign countries

Source: Own work.

2.4   Results

2.4.1   Results of Structural Equation modeling on the relationships between personal cultural orientations, CET/COS, and willingness to buy foreign products

Table 12 shows the results of structural equation modeling on the relationship between selected personal cultural orientations, CET/COS, and willingness to buy foreign products. With regards to the impact of personal cultural orientations on CET and COS, independence and tolerance of ambiguity do not have significant impact on CET and COS. Therefore,

research hypotheses 4a, 4b, 4c and 4d cannot be supported by our empirical test. However, tradition has significant positive impact on CET, but significant negative impact on COS. Therefore, hypotheses 4e and 4f are supported. In addition, significant negative impact of prudence on CET but positive impact on COS is also supported in this studHence, hypotheses 4g and 4h are supported as well (refer to Table 13).

In terms of the causal relationship between CET, COS and willingness to buy foreign products, our results supported hypothesis 1a that CET has significant negative impact on young-adult consumers' willingness of purchasing foreign products. The positive impact of COS on young-adult consumers' willingness of purchasing foreign products is conditional. Such positive impact is only significant on willingness of purchasing Japanese low involvement product. Thus, hypothesis 2a can not be supported (refer to Table 13).

Table 12: Results of Structural Equation Modeling on the relationships between personal cultural orientations, CET/COS, and willingness to buy foreign products (full dataset)

Hypotheses relationships	Australia		Japan		Russia		CEE Countries	
Independence → CET	0.05		0.03		0.03		0.03	
Ambiguity intolerance → CET	0.04		0.04		0.04		0.04	
Tradition → CET	0.25***		0.27***		0.23***		0.23***	
Prudence → CET	-0.15***		-0.14***		-0.12***		-0.12***	
Independence → COS	0.00		0.01		0.02		0.02	
Ambiguity intolerance → COS	0.00		0.01		0.01		0.01	
Tradition → COS	-0.09**		-0.09***		-0.06*		-0.07*	
Prudence → COS	0.32***		0.31***		0.29***		0.29***	
	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)
CET → WTB	-0.16***	-0.23***	-0.1***	-0.15***	-0.17***	-0.22***	-0.17***	-0.21***
COS → WTB	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.06**	0.01	0.04	0.01	0.02
Cognitive attitude → WTB	-0.04	0.00	0.07	0.12***	-0.06**	-0.02	0.07***	-0.01
Goodness of Fit Statistics (H)	Df = 271; χ2() =1322; p < .000; CFI = 0.94; IFI = 0.94; RMSEA =0.046		Df = 271; χ2() =1375; p < .000; CFI = 0.93; IFI = 0.93; RMSEA =0.047		Df = 271; χ2() =1255; p < .000; CFI = 0.94; IFI = 0.94; RMSEA =0.045		Df = 271; χ2() =1224; p < .000; CFI = 0.94; IFI = 0.94; RMSEA =0.044	
Goodness of Fit Statistics (L)	Df = 271; χ2() =1319; p < .000; CFI = 0.94; IFI = 0.94; RMSEA =0.046		Df = 271; χ2() =1374; p < .000; CFI = 0.94; IFI = 0.94; RMSEA =0.047		Df = 271; χ2() =1276; p < .000; CFI = 0.94; IFI = 0.94; RMSEA =0.045		Df = 271; χ2() =1253; p < .000; CFI = 0.94; IFI = 0.94; RMSEA =0.045	

Notes: *$p < 0.1$, **$p < 0.05$, ***$p < 0.01$; H means high-involvement products, L means low-involvement product

Source: Own work.

Table 13: Results of hypotheses on the relationship between personal cultural orientations, CET/COS, and willingness to buy foreign products, as well as the relationship between attitudes towards selected foreign countries and willingness to buy selected foreign products

Hypotheses	Results	Notes
1a: CET→WTB (-)	Supported	
1b: CET→WTB (-) H>L	Rejected	L>H
2a: COS→WTB (+)	Rejected	except low-involvement Japanese products
2b: COS→WTB (+) L > H	Rejected	
3a: CIN→CET*WTB (-)	Supported	only for high involvement products
3b: CIN→COS*WTB (+)	Rejected	
4a: Independence→CET (-)	Rejected	
4b: Independence→COS (+)	Rejected	
4c: Ambiguity intolerance→CET (+)	Rejected	
4d: Ambiguity intolerance→COS (-)	Rejected	
4e: Tradition→CET (+)	Supported	
4f: Tradition→COS (-)	Supported	
4g: Prudence→CET (-)	Supported	
4h: Prudence→COS (+)	Supported	
5a: Country attitudes→WTB (+)	MIXED	Negative impact towards Russian high-involvement products; positive towards low-involvement Japanese products, and positive on high-involvement CEE products
5b: Country attitudes→WTB (+) H>L	Rejected	
5c: Country attitudes→WTB, Japan > Russia> Australia, CEE countries	MIXED,	strongest towards Japanese products
5d: CET→WTB (-) Japan > others	Rejected	
COS→WTB(+) Japan> others	Supported	only for low-involvement products

Notes: CET=Consumer ethnocentrism, COS=Consumer cosmopolitanism, WTB=Willingness to buy, L=Low involvement product, H=High involvement product.

Source: Own work.

With regards to the impact of CET and COS on willingness to buy foreign high- and low-involvement products, our results do not support hypotheses 1b and 2b. Instead, the negative impact of CET on willingness to buy foreign products is stronger in low-involvement products compared to high-involvement products. In another words, the more ethnocentric young-adult consumers is, the stronger unwillingness to buy foreign low-involvement products. Our results in general does not support the relationship between COS and willingness of purchasing foreign products. The exception happens only when purchasing Japanese low-involvement products. In other words, the more cosmopolitan consumers are, the more willingness to buy Japanese low-involvement products (see Table 12). Further, in terms of the relationship between consumer's cognitive attitudes and willingness to buy foreign products, the results are mixed and complex. The results show a negative relationship

between attitudes towards Russia and willingness to buy Russian high-involvement products. However, consumer's attitudes towards Japan have positive impact on willingness to buy Japanese low-involvement products. In addition, consumer's attitudes toward CEE countries have positive impact on purchasing high-involvement products from CEE countries. Further, consumer's attitudes towards Australia does not have any impact on their willingness to buy Australian products. Therefore, hypothesis 5a and 5b can not be supported. In general, the impact of country attitudes on purchase intention towards foreign products is strongest when it comes to Japanese products, followed by Russia products and products from CEE countries. Therefore, hypothesis 5c can not be fully supported either (refer to Table 13).

Table 14 presents the results of CIN's moderating role on the relationship between CET, COS and willingness to buy foreign products from selected four countries. We can see that CIN negatively moderates the impact of CET on consumer's willingness to buy high involvement foreign products (Japan:b=-0.07, t(1824)=-1.71, p=0.02; Australia: b=-0.08, t(1824)=-3.59, p<0.01; Russia: b=-0.07, t(1824)=-3.17, p<0.01; CEE countries: b=-0.07, t(1824)=-3.32, p<0.01). In another words, the more innovative consumers are, the negative impact of CET on consumer's willingness to buy high involvement foreign products will be weaker. However, such moderation effect can not be found in low-involvement products, no matter what the country of origin of the foreign products are. Therefore, hypothesis 3a is supported for only high-involvement products. Unfortunately, the empirical test can not find the moderating effect of CIN on the relationship between COS and consumer's willingness to buy foreign products, no matter for high-involvement products nor for low-involvement products. Therefore, hypothesis 3b can not be supported in our research (see Table 13 and table 14).

Table 14: Results of moderation role of CIN on the relationship between CET, COS and willingness to buy foreign products (Cont.)

	Japan	Australia
CIN*CET→WTB (H)	F(3, 1824)=74.14, p<.001, R2=0.11; CET b= -0.82, t(1824)=6.14, p=0.00; CIN b= -0.07, t(1824)=1.04, p=0.30; CET*CIN b=-0.07, t(1824)=-1.71, p=0.02	F(3, 1824)=102.93, p<.001, R2=0.14; CET b= -0.79, t(1824)=9.09, p=0.00 CIN b= -0.12, t(1824)=2.26, p=0.02; CET*CIN b=-0.08, t(1824)=-3.59, p<0.01
CIN*CET→WTB (L)	F(3, 1824)=91.93, p<.001, R2=0.13; CET b= -0.69, t(1824)=5.40, p=0.00; CIN b= -0.00, t(1824)=-0.01, p=0.99; CET*CIN b=-0.03, t(1824)=-0.97, p=0.33	F(3, 1824)=133.56, p<.001, R2=0.18; CET b= -0.61, t(1824)=6.43, p=0.00; CIN b= -0.02, t(1824)=0.42, p=0.68; CET*CIN b=-0.02, t(1824)=-1/11, p=0.27
CIN*COS→WTB (H)	F(3, 1824)=6.12, p<.001, R2=0.01; COS b=0.18, t(1824)=-1.17, p=0.24; CIN b=-0.02, t(1824)=0.12, p=0.91; COS*CIN b=-0.01, t(1824)=-0.15, p=0.88	F(3, 1824)=7.44, p<.001, R2=0.01; COS b=0.23, t(1824)=-2.04, p=0.04; CIN b=0.09, t(1824)=-0.60, p=0.55; COS*CIN b=0.02, t(1824)=0.64, p=0.52
CIN*COS→WTB (L)	F(3, 1824)=10.87, p<.001, R2=0.02; COS b=0.17, t(1824)=-1.14, p=0.26; CIN b=-0.12, t(1824)=0.66, p=0.51; COS*CIN b=-0.02, t(1824)=-0.63, p=0.53	F(3, 1824)=12.10, p<.001, R2=0.02; COS b=0.33, t(1824)=-2.88, p=0.00; CIN b=0.13, t(1824)=-0.96, p=0.34; COS*CIN b=0.03, t(1824)=1.20, p=0.23

(table continues)

	Russia	CEE countries
CIN*CET→WTB (H)	$F_{(3, 1824)}=105$, $p<.001$, $R^2=0.15$; CET b= -0.74, $t_{(1824)}=7.75$, p=0.00; CIN b= -0.10, $t_{(1824)}=1.98$, p=0.05; CET*CIN b=-0.07, $t_{(1824)}=-3.17$, $p<0.01$	$F_{(3, 1824)}=109.89$, $p<.001$, $R^2=0.15$; CET b= -0.76, $t_{(1824)}=8.00$, p=0.00; CIN b= -0.10, $t_{(1824)}=1.99$, p=0.05; CET*CIN b=-0.07, $t_{(1824)}=-3.32$, $p<0.01$
CIN*CET→WTB (L)	$F_{(3, 1824)}=128.6$, $p<.001$, $R^2=0.17$; CET b= -0.55, $t_{(1824)}=5.89$, p=0.00; CIN b= 0.01, $t_{(1824)}=-0.21$, p=0.83; CET*CIN b=-0.01, $t_{(1824)}=-0.64$, p=0.52	$F_{(3, 1824)}=124.90$, $p<.001$, $R^2=0.17$; CET b=-0.57, $t_{(1824)}=6.09$, p=0.00; CIN b=0.00, $t_{(1824)}=-0.04$, p=0.97; CET*CIN b=-0.02, $t_{(1824)}=-0.92$, p=0.36
CIN*COS→WTB (H)	$F_{(3, 1824)}=1.52$, $p<.001$, $R^2=0.01$; COS b=0.22, $t_{(1824)}=-1.93$, p=0.05; CIN b= 0.12, $t_{(1824)}=-0.87$, p=0.38; COS*CIN b=0.03, $t_{(1824)}=0.97$, p=0.33	$F_{(3, 1824)}=1.52$, $p<.001$, $R^2=0.01$; COS b=0.24, $t_{(1824)}=-2.10$, p=0.04; CIN b= 0.14, $t_{(1824)}=-0.97$, p=0.33; COS*CIN b=0.03, $t_{(1824)}=1.04$, p=0.30
CIN*COS→WTB (L)	$F_{(3, 1824)}=7.73$, $p<.001$, $R^2=0.01$; COS b=0.24, $t_{(1824)}=-2.24$, p=0.03; CIN b=0.10, $t_{(1824)}=-0.70$, p=0.48; COS*CIN b=0.03, $t_{(1824)}=0.88$, p=0.38	$F_{(3, 1824)}=7.45$, $p<.001$, $R^2=0.01$; COS b=0.24, $t_{(1824)}=-2.20$, p=0.03; CIN b=0.10, $t_{(1824)}=-0.71$, p=0.48; COS*CIN b=0.02, $t_{(1824)}=0.84$, p=0.40

Notes: CIN=Consumer innovativeness, COS=Consumer cosmopolitanism, WTB=Willingness to buy, L=Low involvement product, H=High involvement product.

Source: Own work.

2.4.1   Results of cross-tier comparison

Table 15 shows that Chinese young-adult consumers in general display low level of CET (2.39), high level of COS (5.16) and relatively high level of CIN (4.09). One way ANOVA mean comparison with Turkey HSD post hoc analysis shows that there are differences on CET and CIN across three tiers. Yong adult consumers from tier 1 cities are least ethnocentric, and those from tier 3 cities are the most ethnocentric. This supports hypothesis 6a. With regards to CIN, young-adult consumers from tier 1 and tier 2 cities are significantly more innovative than consumers from tier 3. However, our empirical test cannot support hypothesis 7a as there are no differences on the level of COS across three tiers.

Table 15: Cross-tier differences in young-adult consumer characteristics

	Mean	Std.	ANOVA		Tier 1 (N=626)		Tier 2 (N=626)		Tier 3 (N=576)	
			F	Sig.	*Mean*	Std.D	*Mean*	Std.D	*Mean*	Std. D
Consumer innovativeness	4.09	1.23	9.56	0.00	4.22	1.21	4.12	1.19	3.92*	1.26
Consumer ethnocentrism	2.39	1.05	18.30	0.00	2.22*	0.97	2.39*	1.06	2.59*	1.09
Consumer cosmopolitanism	5.16	0.83	2.53	0.08	5.19	0.84	5.18	0.80	5.16	0.83

Notes: Average scores based on a 7-point Ordinal Likert-type scale calculated as a weighted average from the invariance test (see Table 9).

*The group which is significantly different from the other group(s).

Source: Own work.

In terms of the cross-tier comparison, there are cross-tiers differences when it comes to the impact of personal cultural orientations on CET and COS. As we can see from Table 16, Independence has significant positive impact on CET only in tier 3 cities. Tradition has positive impact on CET across all three tiers, and the impact is strongest in tier 2 cities, followed by tier 1 cities and tier 3 cities. Prudence has significant negative impact on CET across all three tiers, and the impact is strongest in tier 3 cities, followed by tier 1 and tier 2 cities. Therefore, hypothesis 6b is supported. In addition, cross-tier differences in the impact of personal cultural orientations on COS is also supported. For instance, the tradition has significant negative impact on COS only in higher tiered cities. It does not have any impact on COS in tier 3 cities. Prudence has significant positive impact on COS across three tiers and the impact is strongest in tier 3 cities (Table 16). Thus, hypothesis 7b is supported. The results of hypotheses on the cross-tier comparion on relationship between personal cultural orientations and CET/COS are summarized in Table 19.

In terms of the impact of CET and COS on Chinese young-adult consumers' willingness to buy foreign products across the tiers, we can see the cross-tiers differences from Table 16. CET, in general, has significant negative impact on consumer's willingness to buy foreign products from all four selected countries. Such negative impact is stronger in higher tiered

cities. This supports hypothesis 6c. However, the impact of COS on consumer's willingness to buy foreign products not only varies across tiers, but also differs on the product's country of origin. It is consistent that COS has significant positive impact on consumer's willingness to buy foreign products in tier 2 cities, regardless which country do these foreign products come from. However, in tier 1 cities, COS only has significant positive impact towards willingness of purchasing Japanese products; while in tier 3 cities, the positive impact only works for purchasing Russian products and products from CEE countries. Therefore, hypothesis 7c is also supported. The results of hypotheses on the cross-tier comparison on relationship between CET/COS and willingness to buy foreign products are summarized in Table 19.

Table 16: Results of Cross-Tier comparison in the relationship between personal cultural orientations, CET/COS and willingness to buy foreign product, as well as the relationship between country attitudes and willingness to buy foreign products

Japan	Tier 1		Tier2		Tier 3	
Hypotheses relationships	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)
Independence → CET	0.04		0.00		0.15**	
Ambiguity intolerance → CET	0.04		0.02		0.04	
Tradition → CET	0.26***		0.33***		0.24***	
Prudence → CET	-0.14***		-0.12**		-0.25***	
Independence → COS	0.01		-0.01		-0.07	
Ambiguity intolerance → COS	0.01		-0.04		-0.03	
Tradition → COS	-0.09**		-0.15**		-0.11	
Prudence → COS	0.31***		0.3***		0.48***	
CET → WTB	-0.23***	-0.28***	-0.27***	-0.32***	-0.17***	-0.26***
COS → WTB	0.09**	0.11***	0.15**	0.18***	0.12*	0.04
Cognitive attitude → WTB	0.32***	0.37***	0.36***	0.41***	0.35***	0.43***
Goodness of Fit Statistics (H)	Df = 810; χ^2_0 =2077; $p < .000$; CFI = 0.95; IFI = 0.95; RMSEA =0.02					
Goodness of Fit Statistics (L)	Df = 810; χ^2_0 =2086; $p < .000$; CFI = 0.95; IFI = 0.95; RMSEA =0.02					
Australia	Tier 1		Tier2		Tier 3	
Hypotheses relationships	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)
Independence → CET	0.01		-0.02		0.16**	
Ambiguity intolerance → CET	0.10**		0.02		0.04	
Tradition → CET	0.16***		0.32***		0.23***	
Prudence → CET	-0.09*		-0.13**		-0.25***	
Independence → COS	0.06		-0.01		-0.08	
Ambiguity intolerance → COS	0.07		-0.04		-0.02	
Tradition → COS	0.01		-0.13**		-0.09	
Prudence → COS	0.20***		0.29***		0.49***	
CET → WTB	-0.20***	-0.22***	-0.17***	-0.23***	-0.13***	-0.22***

(table continues)

(continued)

Australia	Tier 1		Tier2		Tier 3	
Hypotheses relationships	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)
COS → WTB	-0.07	-0.07	0.14***	0.12**	0.00	0.06
Cognitive attitude → WTB	-0.049	0.01	-0.05	-0.02	0.01	0.02
Goodness of Fit Statistics (H)	Df = 813; χ2₀ =1964; p < .000; CFI = 0.93; IFI = 0.93; RMSEA =0.03					
Goodness of Fit Statistics (L)	Df = 814; χ2₀ =1972; p < .000; CFI = 0.93; IFI = 0.93; RMSEA =0.03					
CEE countries	**Tier 1**		**Tier2**		**Tier 3**	
Hypotheses relationships	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)
Independence → CET	0.01		-0.01		0.12*	
Ambiguity intolerance → CET	0.10**		0.02		0.03	
Tradition → CET	0.15***		0.3***		0.21***	
Prudence → CET	-0.08		-0.10*		-0.21***	
Independence → COS	0.06		0.005		-0.05	
Ambiguity intolerance → COS	0.07		-0.04		-0.02	
Tradition → COS	0.02		-0.12*		-0.08	
Prudence → COS	0.19***		0.27***		0.45***	
CET → WTB	-0.61*	-0.56***	-0.55***	-0.53***	-0.43***	-0.46***
COS → WTB	-0.08	0.01	0.12**	0.26***	0.22**	0.16**
Cognitive attitude → WTB	0.14**	0.00	0.04	0.07	0.06	0.03
Goodness of Fit Statistics (H)	Df = 811; χ2₀ =1579; p < .000; CFI = 0.96; IFI = 0.96; RMSEA =0.02					
Goodness of Fit Statistics (L)	Df = 811; χ2₀ =1600; p < .000; CFI = 0.95; IFI = 0.95; RMSEA =0.02					
Russia	**Tier 1**		**Tier2**		**Tier 3**	
Hypotheses relationships	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)
Independence → CET	0.01		-0.02		0.11*	
Ambiguity intolerance → CET	0.1**		0.02		0.04	
Tradition → CET	0.15**		0.29***		0.24***	
Prudence → CET	-0.08		-0.09*		-0.23***	
Independence → COS	0.06		0.00		-0.05	
Ambiguity intolerance → COS	0.06		-0.04		-0.02	
Tradition → COS	0.03		-0.11*		-0.1	
Prudence → COS	0.2***		0.26***		0.47***	
CET → WTB	-0.57***	-0.55***	-0.53***	-0.55***	-0.4***	-0.47***
COS → WTB	-0.06	0.02	0.15**	0.22***	0.16**	0.15**
Cognitive attitude → WTB	0.1*	0.06	0.11*	-0.01	0.05	0.04
Goodness of Fit Statistics (H)	Df = 810; χ2₀ =1620; p < .000; CFI = 0.95; IFI = 0.95; RMSEA =0.02					
Goodness of Fit Statistics (L)	Df = 810; χ2₀ =1633; p < .000; CFI = 0.95; IFI = 0.95; RMSEA =0.02					

Note: *p < 0.1, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01; CET=Consumer ethnocentrism, COS=Consumer cosmopolitanism, WTB=Willingness to buy, L=Low involvement product, H=High involvement product.

Source: Own work.

With regards to the cross-tier comparison on the relationship between country attitudes and willingness to buy foreign products, the results show the cross-tier differences when it comes to purchase products from different countries. When facing products from Japan, the positive impact of **attitudes towards Japan** on willingness to buy Japanese products are **stronger in lower tiered cities**. However, the attitudes towards **Australia does not have any impact** on consumer's willingness to buy Australian products. Consumer's attitudes towards **CEE countries** has positive impact only on their willingness to buy **high-involvement** products from CEE countries in **tier 1 cities**. Further, Chinese young-adult consumer attitude towards **Russia** has significant positive impact **only in higher tiered cities** on high-involvement products. Apart from what mentioned above, we could also indirectly see that the impact of consumer's country attitudes on their willingness to buy foreign products is much stronger when it comes to willingness to buy Japanese products across all three tiers (see Table 16).
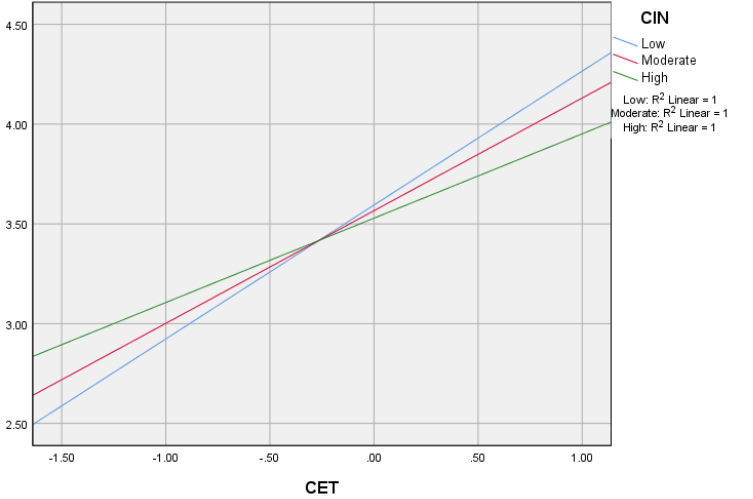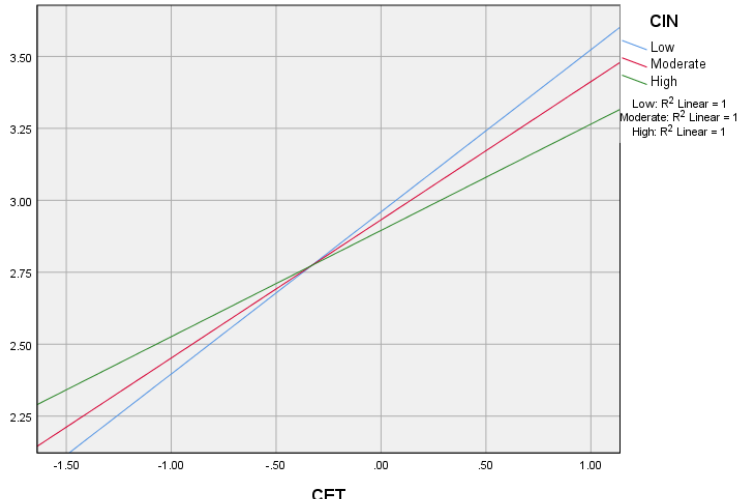
Further, the results also show the cross-tier differences in CIN's moderating effect on the relationship between CET and willingness of purchasing foreign products (See table 17. In general, CIN negatively moderates the negative relationship between CET and willingness to buy **high-involvement products** in Tier 2 cities for products from all selected countries (Japan: CET*CIN b=-0.11, $t(622)$=-2.24, p=0.02; Australia: CET*CIN b=-0.09, $t(622)$=-2.59, p=0.01; Russia: CET*CIN b=-0.08, $t(622)$=-2.42, p=0.02; CEE countries: CET*CIN b=-0.10, $t(622)$=-2.92, p<0.01). In addition, for **low-involvement products**, such moderation effect only applies **to Australian products** in tier 2 cities (CET*CIN b=-0.05, $t(622)$=-1.71, p=0.08). In tier 1 cities, CIN's moderating role works only when it comes to willingness to buy Japanese high-involvement products (CET*CIN b=-0.1, $t(622)$=-1.71, p=0.08). However, when it comes to **tier 3 cities**, CIN's moderates the relationship between CET and willingness to buy **high-involvement products** from Australia and CEE countries (Australia: CET*CIN b=-.07, $t(622)$=-1.84, p=0.06; CEE countries: CET*CIN b=-.06, $t(622)$=-1.65, p<0.1). Considering such various and complex moderation impact of CIN on the relationship between CET and willingness to buy foreign products, hypothesis 6d is supported. In terms of CIN's moderating role in the relationship between COS and consumer's willingness of purchasing foreign products, the empirical evidence is only found in **tier 3 cities** when **purchasing Japanese products** (High-involvement products: COS*CIN b=-0.18, $t(572)$=-2.76, p<0.01; Low-involvement products: COS*CIN b=-0.15, $t(572)$=-2.32, p=0.02) (refer to Table 18). Therefore, hypothesis 7d is also supported. The results of hypotheses on the cross-tier comparison on CIN's role as a moderator can been seen from Table 19.

Table 17: Results of moderation effect of CIN on relationship between CET and willingness to buy foreign products (Tiers)

Tier 1	**Japan H**	 F(3, 622)=28.50, p<.001, R2=0.12 CET b=-0.64, t(622)=9.19, p=0.00 CIN b= .09, t(622)=-1.65, p<0.1 CET*CIN b=-0.1, t(622)=-1.71, p=0.08	**Russia H**	F(3, 622)=31.9, p<.001, R2=0.13 CET b=-0.46, t(622)=9.6, p=0.00 CIN b=0.03, t(622)=-.91, p=0.35 CET*CIN b=-0.04, t(622)=0.98, p=0.33
	Japan L	F(3, 622)=26.29, p<.001, R2=0.11 CET b=-0.57, t(622)=8.71, p=0.00 CIN b= 0.10, t(622)=-1.91, p=0.06 CET*CIN b=-0.06, t(622)=-1.02, p=0.31	**Rissia L**	F(3, 622)=37.64, p<.001, R2=0.15 CET b=-0.47, t(622)=10.17, p=0.00 CIN b=0.05, t(622)=-1.50, p=0.13 CET*CIN b=-0.00, t(622)=0.03, p=0.97
	Austra-lia H	F(3, 622)=30.05, p<.001, R2=0.13 CET b=-0.47, t(622)=9.39, p=0.00 CIN b=0.05, t(622)=-1.25, p=0.21 CET*CIN b=-.06, t(622)=-1.33, p=0.18	**CEE H**	F(3, 622)=32.06, p<.001, R2=0.13 CET b=-0.46, t(622)=9.60, p=0.00 CIN b=0.05, t(622)=-1.38, p=0.17 CET*CIN b=-0.06, t(622)=-1.02, p=0.31
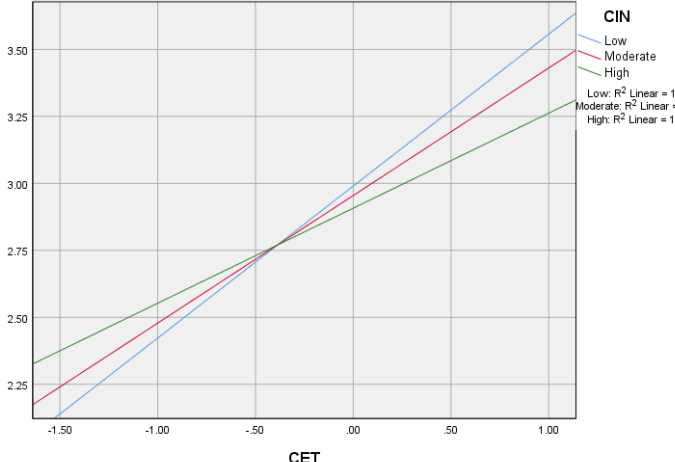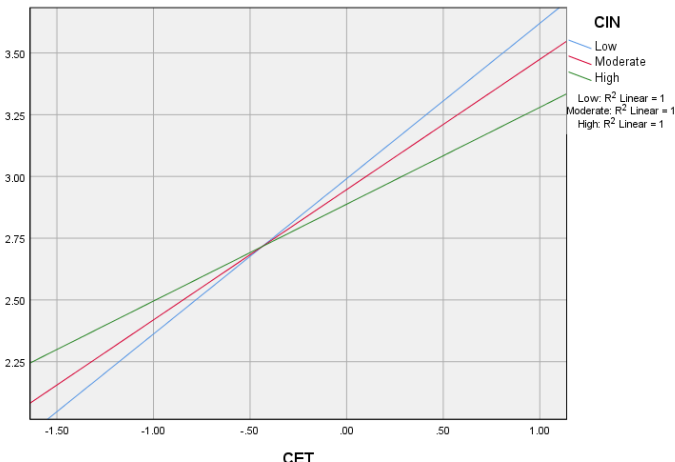
(table continues)

(continued)

Tier 1	Austra-lia L	F(3, 622)=35.66, p<.001, R2=0.15 CET b=-0.48, t(622)=9.91, p=0.00 CIN b=0.04, t(622)=-1.01, p=0.31 CET*CIN b=-0.00, t(622)=0.02, p=0.99	CEE L	F(3, 622)=39.88, p<.001, R2=0.16 CET b=-0.49, t(622)=10.47, p=0.00 CIN b=0.05, t(622)=-1.43, p=0.15 CET*CIN b=-0.00, t(622)=0.02, p=0.97
Tier 2	Japan H	 F(3, 622)=26.89, p<.001, R2=0.12 CET b=-0.55, t(622)=8.82, p=0.00 CIN b= 0.03, t(622)=-.52, p=0.60 CET*CIN b=-0.11, t(622)=-2.24, p=0.02	Russia H	 F(3, 622)=37.32, p<.001, R2=0.15 CET b=-0.47, t(622)=10.41, p=0.00 CIN b=0.03, t(622)=-0.7, p=0.48 CET*CIN b=-0.08, t(622)=-2.42, p=0.02
	Japan L	F(3, 622)=31.34, p<.001, R2=0.13 CET b=-0.54, t(622)=9.38, p=0.00 CIN b= 0.00, t(622)=-0.03, p=0.97 CET*CIN b=-0.06, t(622)=-1.3, p=0.19	Rissia L	F(3, 622)=43.00, p<.001, R2=0.17 CET b=-0.48, t(622)=10.92, p=0.00 CIN b=-0.02, t(622)=0.07, p=0.94 CET*CIN b=-0.04, t(622)=-1.05, p=0.29

(table continues)

67
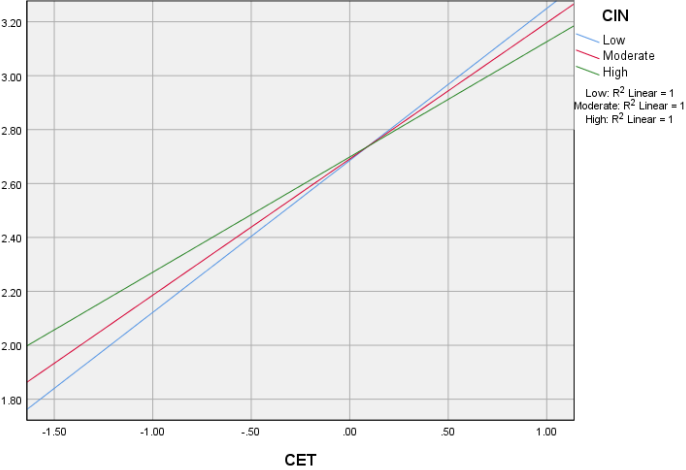
Tier 2	Austra-lia H	 F(3, 622)=34.50, p<.001, R2=0.14 CET b=-0.46, t(622)=10.04, p=0.00 CIN b= 0.04, t(622)=-0.87, p=0.38 CET*CIN b=-0.09, t(622)=-2.59, p=0.01	CEE H	 F(3, 622)=43.32, p<.001, R2=0.17 CET b=-0.52, t(622)=11.27, p=0.00 CIN b=0.04, t(622)=-1.11, p=0.26 CET*CIN b=-0.10, t(622)=-2.92, p<0.01
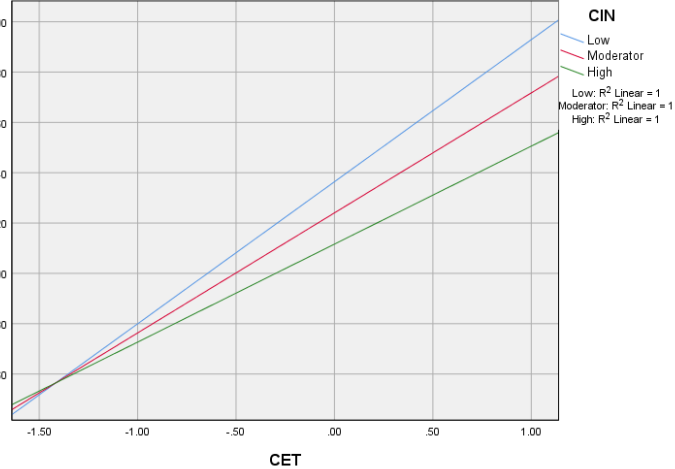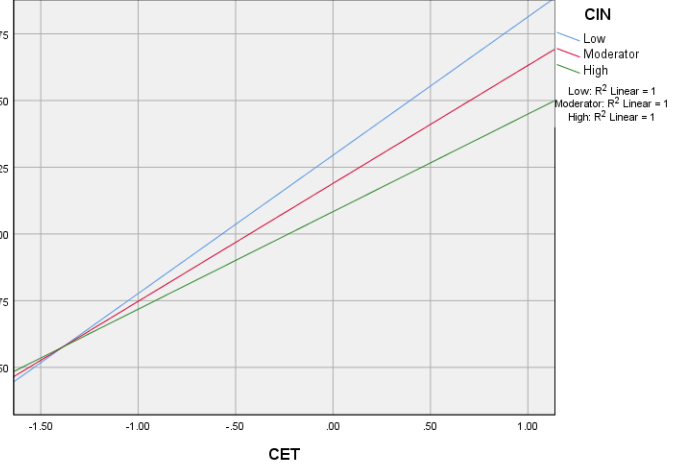
Tier 2	Austra-lia L	F(3, 622)=44.22, p<.001, R2=0.18 CET b=-0.50, t(622)=11.11, p=0.00 CIN b=-0.05, t(622)=0.13, p=0.89 CET*CIN b=-0.05, t(622)=-1.71, p=0.08	CEE L	F(3, 622)=41.41, p<.001, R2=0.17 CET b=-0.48, t(622)=10.84, p=0.00 CIN b=0.01, t(622)=-0.32, p=0.75 CET*CIN b=-0.05, t(622)=-1.45, p=0.15
Tier 3	Japan H	F(3, 622)=16.96, p<.001, R2=0.08 CET b=-0.45, t(622)=6.87, p=0.00 CIN b= 0.10, t(622)=-1.73, p=0.08 CET*CIN b=-0.00, t(622)=-0.01, p=0.99	Russia H	F(3, 622)=30.94, p<.001, R2=0.14 CET b=-0.46, t(622)=9.58, p=0.00 CIN b=0.09, t(622)=-2.20, p=0.03 CET*CIN b=-.06, t(622)=-1.61, p=0.11
	Japan L	F(3, 622)=28.50, p<.001, R2=0.13 CET b=-0.55, t(622)=8.67, p=0.00 CIN b= 0.05, t(622)=-1.91, p=0.36 CET*CIN b=0.03, t(622)=0.67, p=0.50	Rissia L	F(3, 622)=39.30, p<.001, R2=0.17 CET b=-0.48, t(622)=10.36, p=0.00 CIN b=0.04, t(622)=-0.91, p=0.36 CET*CIN b=-.01, t(622)=0.17, p=0.86

(table continues)

Austra -lia H	 F(3, 622)=33.41, p<.001, R2=0.15 CET b=-0.48, t(622)=9.97, p=0.00 CIN b= 0.09, t(622)=-2.27, p=0.02 CET*CIN b=-.07, t(622)=-1.84, p=0.06	**CEE H**	 F(3, 622)=30.48, p<.001, R2=0.13 CET b=-0.45, t(622)=9.52, p=0.00 CIN b=0.08, t(622)=-1.99, p<0.05 CET*CIN b=-.06, t(622)=-1.65, p<0.1
Austra -lia L	F(3, 622)=46.12, p<.001, R2=0.19 CET b=-0.53, t(622)=11.21, p=0.00 CIN b=0.03, t(622)=-0.84, p=0.40 CET*CIN b=-.01, t(622)=0.16, p=0.87	**CEE L**	F(3, 622)=35.93, p<.001, R2=0.16 CET b=-0.47, t(622)=9.95, p=0.00 CIN b=0.04, t(622)=-1.03, p=0.30 CET*CIN b=0.00, t(622)=0.04, p=0.97

Notes: CET=consumer ethnocentrism; CIN=consumer ethnocentrism.
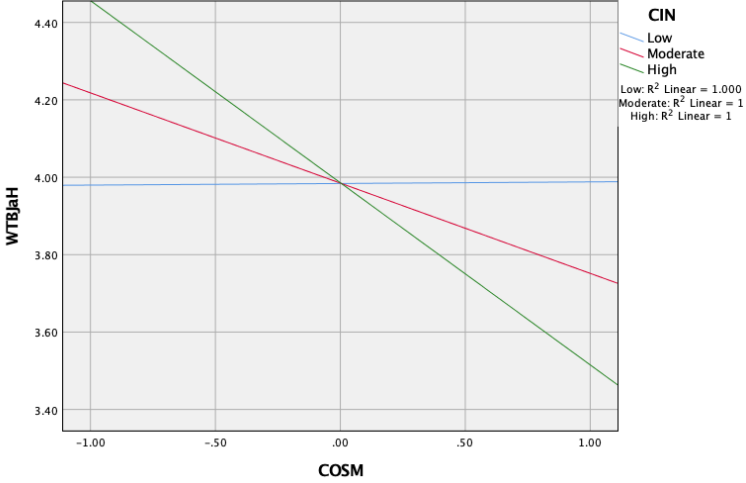
Source: Own work.

Table 18: Results of moderation impact of CIN on relationship between COS and willingness to buy foreign products (Tiers)

Tier 1	**Japan H**	F(3, 622)=0.25, p=0.84, R2=0.00	**Russia H**	F(3, 622)=0.44, p=0.73, R2=0.00
	Japan L	F(3, 622)=1.52, p=0.21, R2=0.01	**Rissia L**	F(3, 622)=0.17, p=0.92, R2=0.00
	Austra-lia H	F(3, 622)=0.08, p=0.97, R2=0.00	**CEE H**	F(3, 622)=0.31, p=0.82, R2=0.00
	Austra-lia L	F(3, 622)=0.43, p=0.73, R2=0.00	**CEE L**	F(3, 622)=0.15, p=0.93, R2=0.00
Tier 2	**Japan H**	F(3, 622)=6.87, p<.001, R2=0.03 COS b=-0.33, t(622)=-3.93, p<0.01 CIN b=0.06, t(622)=1.10, p=0.27 COS*CIN b=0.08, t(622)=1.19, p=0.24	**Russia H**	F(3, 622)=6.35, p<.001, R2=0.03 COS b=-0.23, t(622)=-3.72, p<0.01 CIN b=0.05, t(622)=1.28, p=0.20 COS*CIN b=0.05, t(622)=1.07, p=0.28
	Japan L	F(3, 622)=9.48, p<.001, R2=0.04 COS b=-0.36, t(622)=-4.68, p<0.01 CIN b=0.08, t(622)=1.55, p=0.12 COS*CIN b=0.06, t(622)=0.92, p=0.36	**Rissia L**	F(3, 622)=8.12, p<.001, R2=0.04 COS b=-0.25, t(622)=-4.07, p<0.01 CIN b=0.08, t(622)=1.96, p=0.05 COS*CIN b=0.04, t(622)=0.88, p=0.38
	Austra-lia H	F(3, 622)=8.12, p<.001, R2=0.04 COS b=-0.28, t(622)=-4.46, p<0.01 CIN b=0.04, t(622)=0.99, p=0.32 COS*CIN b=0.05, t(622)=0.97, p=0.33	**CEE H**	F(3, 622)=5.51, p<.001, R2=0.03 COS b=-0.22, t(622)=-3.47, p<0.01 CIN b=0.05, t(622)=1.11, p=0.27 COS*CIN b=0.05, t(622)=1.07, p=0.28
	Austra-lia L	F(3, 622)=9.61, p<.001, R2=0.04 COS b=-0.28, t(622)=-4.51, p<0.01 CIN b=0.09, t(622)=2.09, p=0.04 COS*CIN b=0.04, t(622)=0.78, p=0.44	**CEE L**	F(3, 622)=7.86, p<.001, R2=0.04 COS b=-0.26, t(622)=-4.25, p<0.01 CIN b=0.07, t(622)=1.61, p=0.11 COS*CIN b=0.03, t(622)=0.58, p=0.56

(table continues)

Tier 3	**Japan H**	F(3, 572)=5.07, p =0.002, R2=0.03 COS b=-0.22, t(572)=-2.69, p<0.01 CIN b=0.00, t(572)=0.01, p=0.99 COS*CIN b=-0.18, t(572)=-2.76, p<0.01	**Russia H**	F(3, 572)=2.74, p=0.04, R2=0.01 COS b=-0.16, t(572)=-2.70, p<0.01 CIN b=0.00, t(572)=0.05, p=0.96 COS*CIN b=-0.04, t(572)=-0.91, p=0.36

Tier 3	**Japan L**	F(3, 572)=5.63, p<.01, R2=0.03 COS b=-0.26, t(572)=-3.28, p<0.01 CIN b=0.06, t(572)=1.03, p=0.30 COS*CIN b=-0.15, t(572)=-2.32, p=0.02	**Rissia L**	F(3, 572)=4.09, p<.01, R2=0.02 COS b=-0.2, t(572)=-3.31, p<0.01 CIN b=0.04, t(572)=1.13, p=0.25 COS*CIN b=-0.02, t(572)=-0.33, p=0.74
	Austra-lia H	F(3, 572)=4.40, p<.01, R2=0.02 COS b=-0.21, t(572)=-3.44, p<0.01 CIN b=0.01, t(572)=0.11, p=0.91 COS*CIN b=-0.05, t(572)=-1.10, p=0.27	**CEE H**	F(3, 572)=3.86, p<.01, R2=0.02 COS b=-0.2, t(572)=-3.28, p<0.01 CIN b=0.01, t(572)=0.23, p=0.81 COS*CIN b=-0.04, t(572)=-0.84, p=0.40
	Austra-lia L	F(3, 572)=6.48, p<.01, R2=0.03 COS b=-0.26, t(572)=-4.22, p<0.01 CIN b=0.06, t(572)=1.30, p=0.19 COS*CIN b=-0.00, t(572)=0.03, p=0.97	**CEE L**	F(3, 572)=3.67, p=0.01, R2=0.02 COS b=-0.2, t(572)=-3.17, p<0.01 CIN b=0.04, t(572)=0.96, p=0.33 COS*CIN b=-0.02, t(572)=-0.33, p=0.74

Notes: COS=consumer cosmopolitanism; CIN=consumer innovativeness.

Source: Own work.

Table 19: Research hypotheses and results on cross-tier comparison

Hypothesis		Results	Notes
6a: CET	Higher tiered cities, lower level of CET	Supported	
6b: PCOs→CET	Cross-tier differences	Supported	Independence→CET only significant tier 3 cities; Ambiguity intolerance→CET significant in tier 1 cities; Tradition→CET strongest impact in tier 2 cities; Prudence→CET strongest in tier 3 cities, significant in tier 1 only when it comes to purchasing Japanese and Australian products.
6c: CET→WTB	Cross-tier differences	Supported	The impact is stronger in higher tiered cities
6d: CIN*CET→WTB	Cross-tier differences	Supported	Constant in tier 2 cities for high involvement products, in other cities it is conditioned to country of origin of the products
7a: COS	Higher tiered cities, higher level of COS	Rejected	There is no differences in the level of COS across three tiers
7b: PCOs→COS	Cross-tier differences	Supported	Tradition→COS, only significant in tier 2 cities, for tier 1 cities only significant when it comes to purchase japanese products; Prudence→COS, strongest impact in tier 3 cities
7c: COS→WTB	Cross-tier differences	Supported	Constant in tier 2 cities; in other two-tiered cities, it is country of origin specific
7d: CIN*COS→WTB	Cross-tier differences	Supported	The moderation impact only works for the Japanese products in Tier 3 cities.

Notes: CET=consumer ethnocentrism, COS=consumer cosmopolitanism, CIN=consumer innovativeness, WTB=willingess to buy foreign products, H=high-involvement products, L=low-involvement products, "+" positive relationship, "-"=negative relationship

Source: Own work.

2.4.2 Results of inter-regional comparison on the relationship between personal cultural orientations, CET/COS and willingness to buy foreign products, as well as the relationship between country attitudes and willingness to buy foreign products.

The results of One-way ANOVA inter-regional mean comparison with Turkey HSD post (Table 20) show that there are inter-regional differences on Personal cultural orientations, specifically the dimensions Independence and Prudence, as well as inter-regional differences on CET and COS. In general, young-adult consumers from Eastern coastal region are less prudent than consumers from the other two regions (Southwest and Northern coastal regions). This supports hypothesis 8c. In addition, compared to Northern coastal region, consumers from Eastern coastal region are less independent. This contrasts the hypothesis 8a. Hypotheses 8b and 8d cannot be supported in this empirical test. With regards to the comparison on the level of CET and COS across three regions, the results show that there is

significant difference on CET between Northern coastal region and Eastern coastal region. Young-adult consumers from Northern coastal region are less consumer ethnocentric compared to their peers from Eastern coastal region. This goes exactly on the contrary to hypothesis 8f. Further, the differences also lie on COS when it comes to the comparison between Southwestern region and Northern coastal region. Consumers from Southwestern region are less cosmopolitan than consumers from Northern coastal region. This doesn't support hypothesis 8e that consumers from Eastern coastal region are the most cosmopolitan. In terms of the inter-regional comparison on the level of CIN, there are no differences across selected three regions. The results of hypotheses on the inter-regional comparison on the level of personal cultural orientations, CET and COS are displayed in Table 24.

Table 20: One-way ANOVA mean comparison of inter-regional differences in young-adult consumer characteristics

			ANOVA		North region (N=649)		East region (N=618)		Southwest region (N=561)	
	Mean	Std.	F	Sig.	*Mean*	Std.D	*Mean*	Std.D	*Mean*	Std. D
Independence	3.92	0.72	5.06	<0.01	3.98**	0.72	3.85**	0.73	3.92	0.71
Ambiguity intolerance	3.56	0.70	0.39	0.68	3.54	0.73	3.56	0.68	3.58	0.67
Tradition	3.83	0.75	0.95	0.39	3.79	0.78	3.84	0.73	3.85	0.73
Prudence	4.40	0.66	8.4	0.00	4.05	0.66	3.91*	0.68	4.03	0.64
Consumer innovativeness	4.09	1.22	2.17	0.11	4.01	1.24	4.14	1.23	4.12	1.20
Consumer ethnocentrism	2.39	1.05	4.67	<0.01	2.31**	1.04	2.49**	1.06	2.38	1.04
Consumer cosmopolitanism	5.16	0.83	4.01	0.02	5.22**	0.83	5.13	0.82	5.10**	0.84

Notes: The average scores of personal cultural orientations are based on 5-point ordinal Likert-type scale calculated as weighted average from the invariance test. The average scores of consumer innovativeness, consumer ethnocentrism and consumer cosmopolitanism are based on a 7-point Ordinal Likert-type scale calculated as a weighted average from the invariance test (see Table 10). *The group that is significantly different from the other group(s); **the groups that are significantly different from each other.

Source: Own work.

In terms of the inter-regional comparison on SEM causal relationships between personal cultural orientations, CET/COS and willingness to buy foreign products, as well as the causal relationship between country attitudes and purchase intention towards foreign products, Southwestern region was deleted owing to the failure on establishing metric invariances across all three regions when it comes to willingness to buy products from Japan, Australia and CEE countries. The full metric invariance was established across three regions only in the model of willingness to buy Russian products. This may be due to the heterogeneous quality of the data across three-regions. Nevertheless, we can see from Table 21 that the impact of personal cultural orientations on CET and COS differs across regions. Tradition has positive impact on CET in Eastern coastal region regardless the country of origin of the

products. Yet in Northern coastal region tradition has positive impact on CET only when consumers are about to purchase products from Australia and CEE countries. In terms of the inter-regional comparison on the causal relationship between personal cultural orientations and COS, independence has negative impact on COS only in Eastern coastal region. Prudence has positive impact on COS in Eastern coastal region, yet in **Northern** coastal region its impact on COS is conditioned to the country of origin of the foreign products as the significance holds only when products are from Australia and CEE countries. Therefore, hypothesis 8g and 8h are supported. Table 24 illustrates the results of hypotheses on the inter-regional comparison on the impact of personal cultural orientations on CET and COS.

Table 21: Results of inter-regional comparison in SEM

Japan	Northern coastal region		Eastern coastal region	
Hypotheses relationships	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)
Independence → CET	-0.02		0.09	
Ambiguity intolerance → CET	0.03		0.07	
Tradition → CET	0.21		0.15***	
Prudence → CET	-0.1		-0.04	
Independence → COS	0.04		-0.11*	
Ambiguity intolerance → COS	-0.07		0.07	
Tradition → COS	0.02		-0.02	
Prudence → COS	0.32		0.17**	
CET → WTB	-0.28***	-0.32***	-0.23***	-0.27***
COS → WTB	0.12**	0.14***	0.1*	0.11**
Cognitive attitude → WTB	0.29***	0.35***	0.36***	0.38***
Goodness of Fit Statistics (H)	Df = 448; $\chi 2_0$ =895; p < .000; CFI = 0.96; IFI = 0.96; RMSEA =0.03; GFI=0.94			
Goodness of Fit Statistics (L)	Df = 448; $\chi 2_0$ =894; p < .000; CFI = 0.96; IFI = 0.96; RMSEA =0.03; GFI=0.94			
Australia	Northern coastal region		Eastern coastal region	
Hypotheses relationships	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)
Independence → CET	-0.02		0.1*	
Ambiguity intolerance → CET	0.03		0.07	
Tradition → CET	0.2***		0.13**	
Prudence → CET	-0.11*		-0.04	
Independence → COS	0.04		-0.13**	
Ambiguity intolerance → COS	-0.07		0.07	
Tradition → COS	0.02		-0.01	
Prudence → COS	0.33***		0.19***	
CET → WTB	-0.48***	-0.52***	-0.42***	-0.47***
COS → WTB	0.13**	0.17**	0.15**	0.16**
Cognitive attitude → WTB	0.13**	0.09*	0.17***	0.12*
Goodness of Fit Statistics (H)	Df = 448; $\chi 2_0$ =859; p < .000; CFI = 0.96; IFI = 0.96; RMSEA =0.03; GFI=0.95			
Goodness of Fit Statistics (L)	Df = 448; $\chi 2_0$ =859; p < .000; CFI = 0.96; IFI = 0.96; RMSEA =0.03; GFI=0.95			

(table continues)

(continued)

CEE countries	Northern coastal region		Eastern coastal region	
Hypotheses relationships	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)
Independence → CET	-0.01		0.09	
Ambiguity intolerance → CET	0.03		0.07	
Tradition → CET	0.19***		0.13***	
Prudence → CET	-0.09*		-0.03	
Independence → COS	0.04		-0.12*	
Ambiguity intolerance → COS	-0.07		0.07	
Tradition → COS	0.03		0.00	
Prudence → COS	0.31***		0.17***	
CET → WTB	-0.55***	-0.55***	-0.5***	-0.48***
COS →WTB	0.06	0.15**	0.21***	0.17***
Cognitive attitude → WTB	0.05	-0.00	0.16***	0.12***
Goodness of Fit Statistics (H)	Df = 448; $\chi2_0$ =781; p < .000; CFI = 0.97; IFI = 0.97; RMSEA =0.02; GFI=0.95			
Goodness of Fit Statistics (L)	Df = 448; $\chi2_0$ =793; p < .000; CFI = 0.97; IFI = 0.97; RMSEA =0.03; GFI=0.95			

Russia	Northern coastal region		Eastern coastal region		Southwest region	
Hypotheses relationships	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)	Coefficient (H)	Coefficient (L)
Independence → CET	-0.02		0.09*		0.06	
Ambiguity intolerance → CET	0.03		0.07		0.05	
Tradition → CET	0.19		0.13**		0.14**	
Prudence → CET	-0.09		-0.03		-0.19***	
Independence → COS	0.04		-0.12**		0.09	
Ambiguity intolerance → COS	-0.07		0.07		0.02	
Tradition → COS	0.04		0.00		-0.13**	
Prudence → COS	0.32		0.18*		0.35***	
CET → WTB	-0.51***	-0.56***	-0.46***	-0.5***	-0.59***	-0.54***
COS → WTB	0.11*	0.16**	0.18***	0.19***	0.03	0.11*
Cognitive attitude → WTB	0.09*	0.02	0.07	0.01	0.09	0.00
Goodness of Fit Statistics (H)	Df = 672; $\chi2_0$ =1189; p < .000; CFI = 0.96; IFI = 0.96; RMSEA =0.02; GFI=0.95					
Goodness of Fit Statistics (L)	Df = 672; $\chi2_0$ =1192; p < .000; CFI = 0.96; IFI = 0.96; RMSEA =0.02; GFI=0.95					

Notes: *p < 0.1, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01, CET=consumer ethnocentrism, COS=consumer cosmopolitanism, WTB=willingess to buy foreign products, H=high-involvement products, L=low-involvement products.

Source: Own work.

With regards to the inter-regional comparison on the impact of CET on willingness to buy foreign products, in general, CET has significant negative impact on willingness of purchasing foreign products in both Northern and Eastern coastal regions. Yet, the negative impact is stronger in Northern coastal region than in Eastern coastal region when the products are from Japan, Australia, and CEE countries. In the case of willingness to buy Russian products, the negative impact of CET on willingness to buy Russian products is least in Eastern coastal region in comparison to other two regions (see Table 21). In terms of the inter-regional comparison on the impact of COS on willingness to buy foreign products, no matter the country of origin of the products, COS has consistent significant
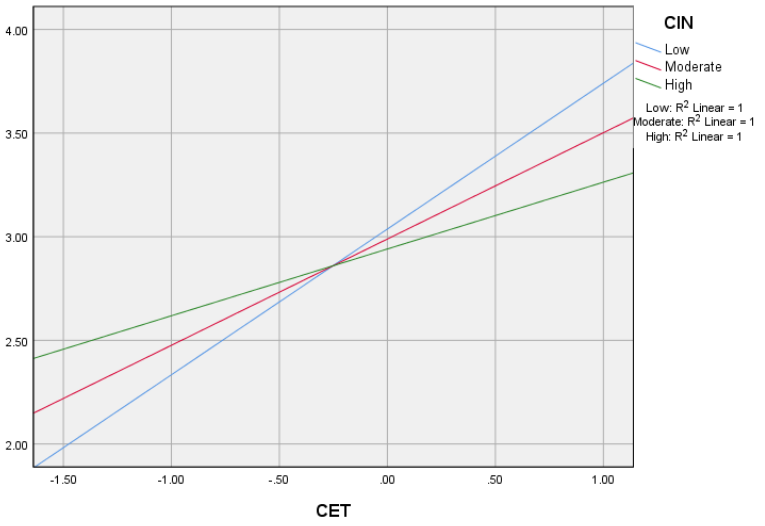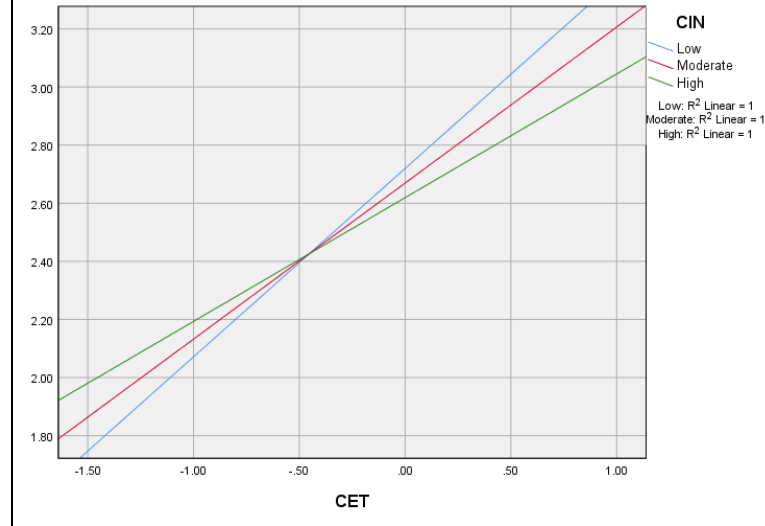
positive impact on consumer's willingness to buy foreign products in Eastern coastal region. Yet, when it comes to Northern coastal region, such positive impact is "country of origin" conditioned. For instance, COS has positive impact only towards the willingness of purchasing low involvement products from CEE countries. Therefore, hypotheses 8i and 8j on the inter-regional differences of the relationship between CET/COS and willingness to buy foreign products are supported. Table 24 illustrates the results of hypotheses on the inter-regional comparison on the causal relationships between CET/COS and willingness to buy foreign products.

In addition, the results of the inter-regional comparison on the causal relationship between country attitudes and willingness to buy foreign products (Table 21) shows inter-regional differences. In Eastern coastal region, the attitude towards Japan, Australia, and CEE countries has positive impact on purchasing products from that particular country. However, in Northern coastal region, only the attitudes toward Japan, Australia has positive impact on willingness to buy products from these two countries. Further, in Northern coastal region, the attitude toward CEE countries does not have any impact on purchasing products from this region. This may owe to consumers' unfamiliarity towards CEE countries in general in Northern coastal regions. While consumers from Eastern coastal region have relatively more knowledge on CEE countries as the leading institutions for China-CEE national cooperation platforms are mainly based in Eastern coastal region. Consumers from Eastern coastal region are exposed in increasingly frequent China-CEE business and trade activities, such as Central and Eastern Europe Featured Products Exhibition since 2014, Central and Eastern Europe Expo etc. In 2020, the total trade volume between Ningbo and Central and Eastern European countries will be close to 30 billion yuan, accounting for more than 4% of the national total (Commerce, 2021). Further, in Northern coastal region, the attitudes toward Russia has positive impact only on willingness to buy high-involvement products. In addition, the results (Table 21) again indirectly supports hypothesis 5c that the positive impact of country attitude towards willingness of purchasing foreign products is strongest when it comes to Japanese product.

Last but not least, the results support the regional differences on CIN's moderation role on the relationship between CET and purchase intention towards foreign products. Table 22 shows that CIN negatively moderates the negative impact of CET on willingness to buy products from Australia, Russia, and CEE countries in Northern coastal region (Australia high-involvement products: CET*CIN b=-0.14, t(645)=-4.08, p<0.01; Australia low-involvement products: CET*CIN b=-0.08, t(645)=-2.47, p=0.01; Russian high-involvement

products: CET*CIN b=-0.13, t(645)=-3.79, p<0.01; Russian low-involvement products: CET*CIN b=-0.06, t(645)=-2.11, p=0.04; high-involvement products from CEE countries: CET*CIN b=-0.14, t(645)=-3.96, p<0.01; low-involvement products from CEE countries: CET*CIN b=-0.06, t(645)=-1.91, p=0.06). In another words, for young-adult consumers living in Northern coastal region, the more consumer innovative they are, the negative impact of CET on their willingness to buy foreign products will be weaker. However, such moderating effect can not be found in Eastern coastal region. Therefore, hypothesis 8k is supported, In terms of the moderating role of CIN on the relationship between COS and purchase intention towards foreign products, we cannot have any findings in this empirical study to support this hypothesis (see Table 23). Therefore, hypothesis 8l can not be supported. The results of the hypotheses on CIN's moderation role could be found in Table 24.

Table 22: Results of moderation impact of CIN on relationship between CET and willingness to buy foreign products (regions)

Northern coastal region	Japan H	$F_{(3, 645)}=31.07$, $p<.01$, $R^2=0.12$ CET b=-0.62, t(645)=9.64, p<0.01 CIN b=0.07, t(645)=-1.29, p=0.20 CET*CIN b=-0.07, t(645)=-1.46, p=0.15	Japan L	$F_{(3, 645)}=38.39$, $p<.01$, $R^2=0.15$ CET b=-0.63, t(645)=10.71, p<0.01 CIN b=0.09, t(645)=-1.89, p=0.06 CET*CIN b=-0.06, t(645)=-1.38, p=0.17
	Austra-lia H	F_{(3, 645)}=41.80, p<.01, R^2=0.16 CET b=-0.51, t(645)=10.96, p<0.01 CIN b=0.04, t(645)=-0.95, p=0.34 CET*CIN b=-0.14, t(645)=-4.08, p<0.01	Austra-lia L	F_{(3, 645)}=47.75, p<.01, R^2=0.18 CET b=-0.54, t(645)=11.91, p<0.01 CIN b=0.04, t(645)=-1.03, p=0.30 CET*CIN b=-0.08, t(645)=-2.47, p=0.01

(table continues)

Norther n coastal region	Rissia H	F(3, 645)=37.64, p<.01, R²=0.15 CET b=-0.48, t(645)=10.44, p<0.01 CIN b=0.04, t(645)=-1.09, p=0.28 CET*CIN b=-0.13, t(645)=-3.79, p<0.01	Russia L	F(3, 645)=45.53, p<.01, R²=0.17 CET b=-0.52, t(645)=11.66, p<0.01 CIN b=0.05, t(645)=-1.4, p=0.16 CET*CIN b=-0.06, t(645)=-2.11, p=0.04

Left figure caption text:

$F_{(3, 645)}=37.64$, $p<.01$, $R^2=0.15$
CET b=-0.48, t(645)=10.44, $p<0.01$
CIN b=0.04, t(645)=-1.09, p=0.28
CET*CIN b=-0.13, t(645)=-3.79, $p<0.01$

Right figure caption text:

$F_{(3, 645)}=45.53$, $p<.01$, $R^2=0.17$
CET b=-0.52, t(645)=11.66, $p<0.01$
CIN b=0.05, t(645)=-1.4, p=0.16
CET*CIN b=-0.06, t(645)=-2.11, p=0.04
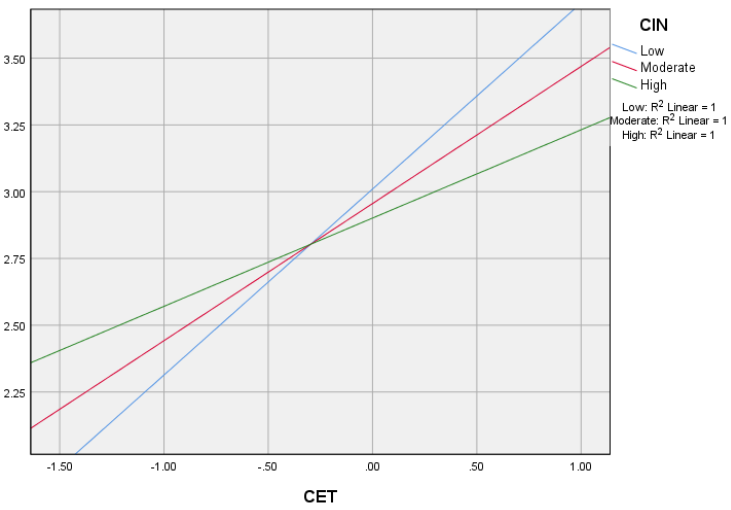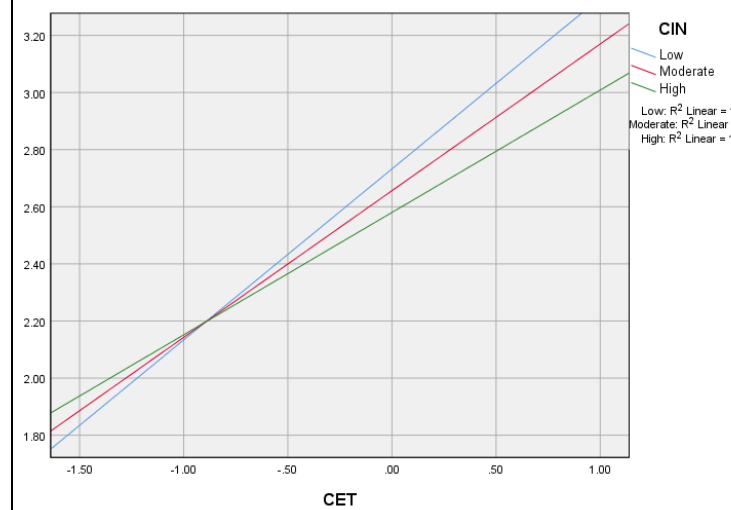
Northern coastal region	**CEE H**	 $F(3, 645)=42.51$, p<.01, $R^2=0.17$ CET b=-0.51, t(645)=11.10, p<0.01 CIN b=0.04, t(645)=-1.1, p=0.28 CET*CIN b=-0.14, t(645)=-3.96, p<0.01	**CEE L**	 $F(3, 645)=44.32$, p<.01, $R^2=0.17$ CET b=-0.51, t(645)=11.51, p<0.01 CIN b=0.06, t(645)=-1.58, p=0.11 CET*CIN b=-0.06, t(645)=-1.91, p=0.06
Eastern coastal region	**Japan H**	$F(3, 614)=20.60$, p<.001, $R^2=0.09$ CET b=-0.48, t(614)=7.30, p=0.00 CIN b= 0.15, t(614)=-2.83, p=0.00 CET*CIN b=-0.01, t(614)=-0.31, p=0.76	**Japan L**	$F(3, 614)=22.53$, p<.001, $R^2=0.10$ CET b=-0.46, t(614)=7.46, p=0.00 CIN b=0.07, t(614)=-1.44, p=0.15 CET*CIN b=0.02, t(614)=0.51, p=0.61
	Austra-lia H	$F(3, 614)=28.72$, p<.001, $R^2=0.12$ CET b=-0.40, t(614)=8.27, p=0.00 CIN b= 0.14, t(614)=-3.45, p=0.00 CET*CIN b=0.02, t(614)=0.44, p=0.65	**Austra-lia L**	$F(3, 614)=35.71$, p<.001, $R^2=0.15$ CET b=-0.43, t(614)=9.13, p=0.00 CIN b=0.04, t(614)=-1.09, p=0.27 CET*CIN b=0.04, t(614)=1.23, p=0.22
	Rissia H	$F(3, 614)=28.53$, p<.001, $R^2=0.12$ CET b= -0.40, t(614)=8.43, p=0.00 CIN b= 0.11, t(614)=-2.82, p=0.01 CET*CIN b=0.01, t(614)=0.27, p=0.79	Russia L	$F(3, 614)=37.96$, p<.001, $R^2=0.16$ CET b=-0.43, t(614)=9.36, p=0.00 CIN b=0.04, t(614)=-1.04, p=0.30 CET*CIN b=0.05, t(614)=1.36, p=0.17

(table continues)

82

(continued)

| Eastern coastal region | CEE H | F(3, 614)=26.71, p<.001, R²=0.12
CET b=-0.38, t(614)=8.03, p=0.00
CIN b=0.12, t(614)=-3.11, p=0.00
CET*CIN b=0.01, t(614)=0.41, p=0.68 | CEE L | F(3, 614)=32.89, p<.001, R²=0.14
CET b=-0.41, t(614)=8.83, p=0.00
CIN b= 0.06, t(614)=-1.55, p=0.12
CET*CIN b=0.03, t(614)=1.05, p=0.29 |

Notes: CET=consumer ethnocentrism, CIN=consumer innovativeness.

Source: Own work.

Table 23: Results of moderation impact of CIN on relationship between COS and willingness to buy foreign products (regions)

	Northern Coastal Region	**Eastern Coastal Region**
Japan-High involvement products	F(3, 645)=2.06, p=0.10, R²=0.01; COS b=0.12, t(645)=-1.53, p=0.12; CIN b=-0.02, t(645)=0.42, p=0.67; COS*CIN b=-0.11, t(645)=-1.85, p=0.06	F(3, 614)=2.11, p=0.09, R²=0.01; COS b=0.17, t(614)=-2.00, p=0.03; CIN b=0.07, t(614)=-1.41, p=0.16; COS*CIN b=-0.0, t(614)=-0.04, p=0.97
Japan-Low involvement products	F(3, 645)=2.88, p=0.04, R²=0.01; COS b=0.19, t(645)=-2.57, p=0.01; CIN b=0.01, t(645)=-0.14, p=0.87; COS*CIN b=-0.07, t(645)=-1.30, p=0.19	F(3, 614)=4.64, p<.01, R²=0.02; COS b=0.28, t(614)=-3.7, p<0.01; CIN b=0.01, t(614)=-0.11, p=0.91; COS*CIN b=0.01, t(614)=0.22, p=0.82
Australia-High involvement products	F(3, 645)=1.97, p=0.12, R²=0.01	F(3, 614)=3.59, p=0.01, R²=0.02; COS b=0.15, t(614)=-2.61, p<0.01; CIN b=0.08, t(614)=-1.93, p=0.05; COS*CIN b=0.01, t(614)=0.30, p=0.77
Australia-Low involvement products	F(3, 645)=3.16, p=0.02, R²=0.01; COS b=0.17, t(645)=-2.90, p<0.01; CIN b=-0.03, t(645)=0.72, p=0.47; COS*CIN b=0.01, t(645)=0.19, p=0.85	F(3, 614)=3.24, p=0.03, R²=0.02; COS b=0.17, t(614)=-2.89, p<0.01; CIN b=-0.02, t(614)=0.41, p=0.68; COS*CIN b=0.04, t(614)=0.90, p=0.37
Russia-High involvement products	F(3, 645)=1.17, p=0.32, R²=0.01	F(3, 614)=3.08, p=0.03, R²=0.01; COS b=0.15, t(614)=-2.54, p=0.01; CIN b=0.05, t(614)=-1.28, p=0.20; COS*CIN b=0.04, t(614)=0.94, p=0.35
Russia-Low involvement products	F(3, 645)=1.76, p=0.15, R²=0.01	F(3, 614)=4.11, p<.01, R²=0.02; COS b=0.19, t(614)=-3.24, p<0.01; CIN b=-0.02, t(614)=0.47, p=0.64; COS*CIN b=0.04, t(614)=1.05, p=0.29
CEE countries-High involvement products	F(3, 645)=1.03, p=0.38, R²=0.00	F(3, 614)=2.93, p=0.03, R²=0.01; COS b=0.14, t(614)=-2.36, p=0.02; CIN b=0.07, t(614)=-1.65, p=0.1; COS*CIN b=0.02, t(614)=0.60, p=0.55
CEE countries-Low involvement products	F(3, 645)=2.11, p=0.30, R²=0.01	F(3, 614)=3.11, p=0.03, R²=0.02; COS b=0.16, t(614)=-2.82, p<0.01; CIN b=0.00, t(614)=-0.07, p=0.95; COS*CIN b=0.04, t(614)=0.99, p=0.32

Notes: COS=consumer cosmopolitanism, CIN=consumer innovativeness.

Source: Own work.

Table 24: Research hypotheses and results on inter-regional comparison

Hypothesis	Northern coastal region	Eastern coastal region	Southwestern region	Results	Notes
8a: independence		Higher level		Rejected	Northern region has highest level
8b: tradition	Higher level			Rejected	There is no difference across three regions
8c: prudence		Lower level		Supported	
8d: ambiguity intolerance		Higher level		Rejected	
8e: cosmopolitanism		Most cosmopolitan		Rejected	Northern region is more cosmopolitan than Southwest region
8f: ethnocentrism		Least ethnocentric		Rejected	Northern region less ethnocentric than Eastern region
8g: PCOs → CET	Inter-regional differences		Dismissed three for inter-regional comparison due to statistical insufficiency	Supported	Tradition→CET is significant only in eastern coastal region;
8h: PCOs → COS	Inter-regional differences			Supported	Tradition→COS and Prudence→COS are only significant in eastern coastal region
8i: CET → WTB	Inter-regional differences			Supported	The impact is stronger in Northern coastal region
8j: COS → WTB	Inter-regional differences			Supported	The impact is stronger in Eastern coastal region
8k: CIN*CET → WTB	Inter-regional differences			Supported	
8l: CIN*COS → WTB	Inter-regional differences			Rejected	There is no moderation effect of CIN in the relationship between COS and WTB

Notes: PCO=Personal cultural orientation, CET=consumer ethnocentrism, COS=consumer cosmopolitanism, CIN=consumer innovativeness, WTB=willingess to buy foreign products, H=high-involvement products, L=low-involvement products, "+" positive relationship, "-"=negative relationship

Source: Own work.

2.5   Implications

2.5.1   Theoretical and empirical implications

First of all, to the author's knowledge this is the very first research that look at young-adult consumers' characteristics at individual and sub-culture level through cross-tier and inter-regional comparison angle, which not only contributes to the literature on intra-national study (Lenartowicz *et al.*, 2003) but also responds to Taras, et al. (2016)'s call for a better boundary, e.g. social-economic factors, of sub-culture study. In addition, this study also contributes to Kardes (2016)'s work on exploration of urban marketing potential in emerging markets. In addition, by rechecking their global, local, glocal and isolated identities (Bartsch, et al., 2016), it further contributes to the literature on young-adult consumers' identities against the background of anti-globalization/slowbalization. The slowing down of international trade resulted in rising nationalism as well as consumer protectionism (Bakas, 2015; Meyer, 2017). This research suggests that it is not appropriate to take China as one market when studying consumers' characteristics. By doing so, it would mislead international marketers and result in failures (Frank *et al.*, 2014).

By looking at the personal cultural orientations and their explanation power to young-adult consumers' consumer characteristics, namely CET and COS, this study not only riches existing consumer culture theory on understanding how does culture at individual level impact consumer behavior (Fischer, Vauclair, Fontaine, & Schwartz, 2010), but also answers Makrides *et al.* (2021)'s call for filling the theoretical gap by studying the psychographic antecedents of COS and CET. In addition, it extends Yoo and Donthu (2005)'s study on the impact of personal cultural orientations on consumer behavior (CET) to a new dimension by further exploring the impact of personal cultural orientations on COS. We found out tradition has negative impact on COS, while prudence has positive impact on COS. This indirectly brings the new question to the definition on the following two cultural orientations, namely tradition and prudence, that Sharma (2009) theorized. The definitions of tradition and prudence are not consistent in Sharma (2009) and Bearden (2006)'s work. In Sharma (2010)'s work, it stated that tradition and prudence are positively correlated. However, our empirical test by using Sharma (2010)'s scale suggested a negative relationship between these two constructs. This seems in consistent with Hofstede's definition that tradition (short-term) and prudence (future orientation) are two poles of "Confucian Dynamism" (Hofstede & Bond, 1988; Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). However, as put forward by Fang (2003), the concept of long-term orientation was initially designed in Chinese culture context but with methodological and philosophical flaws. The long-term orientation and short-term orientation are supposed to be two opposing and contrasting poles, yet, in Chinese culture,

looking forward to the future and valuing the past/history/one's ancestors are not in contradiction. As a matter of fact, the Chinese culture/Asian culture emphasize that the past and future is connected in a reciprocal causation relationship (Fang, 2003), which is not linear relationship as stated in Hofstede's "long-term orientation" dimension. As later on pointed by Minkov and Hofstede (2010), that the dimension of "long-term orientation" is only aimed for cross-culture comparison at national level rather than at individual level, we also suggested that for future research on consumer studies at individual level in Chinese context, it would be good to have instruments imbedded in Chinese cultural context, for instance, Chinese Value Survey ((Bond, 1988) or as Minkov and Hofstede (2010) replicated the "long-term orientation dimension" by using indicators from WVS. In general, Hofstede's broadly defined cultural dimensions gave space for arbitrary interpretation in successors' research/definition on personal cultural orientations (Bearden, 2006; Sharma, 2009). Further, this also leaves freedom on the theorization of the relationship between personal cultural orientations and CET/COS. For instance, Yoo and Donthu (2005) and Kumar, Fairhurst, and Kim (2013)'s research found the positive impact of collectivism on CET. While in our research the linkage between independence and CET only established in Tier 3 cities and Eastern coastal region (conditioned to the situation when purchasing Australian products). But when look China as only one single market such relationship was not supported in our research. Further, in line with Yoo and Donthu (2005)'s finding, we found that independence positively related to CET but negatively impacts COS (only established in Eastern coastal region). Such contradictory findings may attribute to the different perspectives that researchers draw on Hofstede's national cultural dimension. Noted by Sharma (2014) independence is a general personality trait, which emphasize being independent and different from others. Being different from others does not mean any affective reaction, cognitive bias and behavioral preference towards domestic products (Sharma, 2014). The same situation comes to the relationship between prudence and CET (see Table 13 and 17). These findings signal the necessity of further and comprehensive integration of the literature and theory on personal cultural orientations so as to hypothesize their relationship with consumer behavior constructs.

Further, by comparing the young-adult consumer characteristics cross three tiers, the results support the theory that level of modernization and urbanization (in this study it is reflected as rank of city tiers) do shape consumer's behaviors (Han & Nam, 2019). Consumers from more developed cities display lower level of CET, which is in consistent with existing literature (Ding, 2017; Han, 2017). Further, the level of economy of cities do matter when it comes to the impact on personal cultural orientations on consumer behaviors (CET/COS) and its sequential impact on consumer's purchase intention towards foreign products. In

addition, our research also shed light on the potential link between economic level and consumer innovativeness, which has not been studied in the existing literature yet. The more economic developed the city is, the more innovative young-adult consumers are. Thus, there is potential in future study to study the social-economic impact on CIN.

However, when it comes to regional comparison, we found that young-adult consumers from North coastal region are as a matter of fact more independent than consumers from Eastern coastal region, which is quite contrary to the assumptions on independence. In addition, contrary to existing literature, our study found that there is no difference in the consumer cosmopolitanism between consumers from Eastern and Northern coastal regions. This indicates that there might be tendency of changing regional culture (Cho *et al.*, 2010) against the backdrop of rapid modernization in China. Eastern and Northern coastal regions are both categorized under Eastern region, which has been the earliest region opening to foreign investment compared to other regions, such as Southwest region. Taking economic level as a cue for predicting the level of COS, it makes sense that Southwest region in our study displays the lower level of cosmopolitanism than Eastern and Northern coastal regions. However, this social-economic cue does not apply to the inter-regional comparison on CET, where we found that Northern coastal region is less ethnocentric than Eastern coastal region. This is not correspondent to Zhou *et al.* (2010) 's observation and assumption back in 2010, where they assumed that consumers from Eastern region are more openminded and less ethnocentric. Hence, there is a need in the future research to explore the drives of the regional differences on consumer characteristics.

The empirical results on personal culture orientations in our research implied a need for modification on the measurements of some constructs so as to improve the discriminant validity (e.g. ambiguity intolerance) as well as construct validity (e.g. independence). In addition, we not only responded to the call from Terasaki (2016) for more replication of the scale of COS but also filled in the gap in examining the discriminant validity of COS (Terasaki, 2016), instead only calculating the AVE of each dimension (Riefler *et al.*, 2012). As a result, the AVE of COS is 0.496, which is close to the minimum threshold 0.5 (Diamantopoulos, Siguaw, & Siguaw, 2000; Hair Jr, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

Further, we tested the impact of CET/COS on consumer's willingness to buy both low- and high involvement foreign products by taking China as one market, as well as across tiers and regions. In general, the results of the impact on CET are in consistent with previous studies that the more ethnocentric consumers are, the higher unwillingness they tend to purchase foreign products (Parts & Vida, 2013; Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015). Further, the impact of CET on purchasing low-involvement products is stronger than the high-involvement

products. However, this is not consistent with what Wong *et al.* (2008)'s findings. They found that CET does not have any impact on high-involvement products. This may owe to the fact that the high-involvement products they researched were hybrid products, which Chinese consumers view as norms (Wong *et al.*, 2008). While in in our research we made respondents to perceive the "*fridge*" as a authentic durable and home-necessity product (not in bybrid forms) from selected countries. In addition, there lies interesting findings in terms of cross-tier comparison on the relationship between CET and consumer's willingness to buy foreign products. Although consumers from higher tiered cities display lower level of CET, yet the impact of CET on their willingness of purchasing foreign products are much stronger than in tier 3 cities. Further, our research also implies that ethnocentric consumers from higher tier cities view products from cultural/psychic distant countries (Russia and CEE courtiers) a more threat to domestic economy. This is in line with Watson and Wright (2000)'s theory on role of cultural similarity on the relationship between CET and consumers' evaluation of foreign products.

With regards to the linkage of COS and purchase intention, our empirical results suggest that when take China as one homogeneous market COS does not have impact on young-adult consumers' purchase intention towards foreign products, except its rather weak positive impact towards willingness of purchasing Japanese low-involvement products. However, the relation between COS and purchase intention towards foreign products becomes salient if we take tiers or regions as market boundary. COS plays significant positive role in willingness of purchasing foreign products in tier 2 cities. While in tier 3 cities, the psychic distance plays a salient role as the results show that COS has significant impact on purchasing products from only Russia and CEE countries (psychic distant cultures). This may imply that cosmopolitan consumers from less economic developed cities would favor products from cultural and geographic distant countries. Further, cosmopolitan consumer from Tier 1 cities only tend to purchase products from Japan. When take the region as market boundary, COS has positive impact on consumer willingness to buy foreign products in Eastern coastal region, as well as Northern coastal region (but except high-involvement products from CEE countries). Therefore, the results are in line with existing empirical findings that cosmopolitan consumers tend to embrace foreign products and would love to purchase foreign products only when we take China as a market consisted of many heterogenous "small" markets (Han *et al.*, 2021; Parts & Vida, 2011; Srivastava *et al.*, 2021; Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015).

In addition, this research suggests that consumers' cognitive attitudes towards a certain country do matter on influencing young-adults' willingness to buy products from that

country. For instance, within the selected four countries, consumer cognitive attitudes towards Japan have positive impact on young-adult consumers' willingness to buy Japanese products across all three tiers and studied regions. This is in line with Han *et al.* (2021)'s finding that Chinese young-adults are changing their attitudes towards Japan. They do not hold hostile attitudes towards Japan anymore compared to Klein *et al.* (1998)'s findings 20 years ago. This indicates that consumer economic animosity and war animosity does not influence on young-adult consumers' judgement on Japanese products. This has been pointed out by Klein *et al.* (1998) that Chinese consumers view Japanese products from a holistic perspective. While the country attitudes towards Russia and CEE countries have significant impact on high-involvement products, particularly consumers from Tier 1 cities. However, Chinese young-adult consumers' attitude towards Australia does not have any impact on their purchasing intention towards Australian products across all three tiers. This is correspondent to the fact that albeit the increasing dissatisfaction and negative attitudes towards Australia in political sense, Australia is still ranked as one of the top touristic destination for Chinese consumers (Hu, 2021). Yet, country attitudes towards willingness to buy foreign products are quite mixed when it comes to cross-regional comparison. Country attitudes towards Japan and Australia do have significant positive impact on purchase intention towards selected products from these two countries in both Northern and Eastern coast regions. This implies that consumers from these two regions do not avoid purchasing Japanese and Australian products. However, attitudes towards CEE countries would only motivate consumers from Eastern coastal region to purchase CEE products, and attitudes toward Russia would only motivate consumers from Northern coastal region to purchase Russian high-involvement products. This may attribute to the geographic closeness between Russia and North region. As a result, consumers from Northern coastal area have closer and more frequent contacts and trade with Russia. While consumers from Eastern region are more knowledgeable on CEE countries than peers from other regions owing to the increasing business, culture and trade interactions in recent years (Commerce, 2021). Against the background current political polarization (e.g. the political disputes between US and Russia, and US-China), the study on consumer's attitudes also links to the necessity of study consumer animosity, which is also country specific (Heinberg, 2017; Klein *et al.*, 1998). Heinberg (2017) argued and empirically tested that situational animosity (outbreak of animosity caused by a particular economic, political or military incident, for instance, Russia-Ukraine war, US-China trade war, US-China disputes on Taiwan etc) would increase consumer's willingness to buy and pay more for local brands rather than foreign products. Living in current global political turbulences, it would be interesting to see how would Chinese consumer's animosity against west (Heinberg, 2017), their attitudes toward foreign countries impact consumer's purchasing behavior.

Lastly, this research also suggests the importance of CIN in moderating the relationship between CET and willingness to buy high involvement foreign products if we take China as one homogeneous market. However, when we look at the market in a further micro-perspective, we could find that such moderation impact on high involvement products is only consistent in Tier 2 cities. While for Tier 1 and Tier 3 cities, CIN's moderation effect varies from country of origin of the products. Interestingly, when look at CIN's moderation effect on the relationship between CET and purchase intention from regional level, it is significant only in Northern coastal region on purchasing both high- and low- involvement products from Australia, Russia and CEE countries (not Japanese products). However, the moderation effect of CIN on the relationship between COS and purchasing intention is quite minor. It is only found effective in tier 3 cities when purchasing Japanese products.

2.5.2 Managerial implications

First of all, if take China as a homogeneous market, our study suggests that CET and CIN could serve as proper tools for marketing segmentation in Chinese market. In general, young adult consumers in China display low level of CET and high level of CIN. Young-adult consumers who are ethnocentric are tradition oriented and they are less prudent. For ethnocentric consumers, international marketers shall purposefully avoid emphasizing the country of origin of the foreign products. Instead, it would be smart to emphasize the feature of newness and creativity of the products. This could motivate ethnocentric yet innovative consumers to try out the foreign products. In addition, this study suggests international markers to constantly pay attention to young-adult consumer's attitude towards foreign countries as their attitudes change over the time, which leads to different results on their purchase intention towards foreign products (e.g. attitudes towards Japan and Russia). History, geo-political relations between countries, closeness in international trades between countries do matter for contributing to Chinese consumer's attitudes towards foreign countries.

Nevertheless, our study suggests international marketers better not to take China as a homogeneous market (Frank *et al.*, 2014). Instead, it is a very heterogenous and fragmented market considering the unbalanced economic development level either vertically or horizontally across the vast land (Lan, 2021), specific regional histories and culture diversities as well as distinct consumer characteristics. Albeit existing numerous studies on Chinese market and Chinese consumer studies (Bi *et al.*, 2012; Ding, 2017; Khairullah, 2013; Zhou *et al.*, 2010), this study offers international marketers two main approaches to segment young-adult consumers precisely so as to launch effective marketing strategies accordingly.

International marketers could use economic development level of cities as a criterion to segment young-adult consumers. Young-adult consumers from higher tiered cities are less ethnocentric but more innovative. Therefore, higher tiered cities (tier 1 and tier 2 cities) are proper markets for them to launch new brands and products. In addition, considering the impacts of CET on consumer's willingness to buy foreign products are stronger in higher tiered cities, it would be wise that international marketers would less emphasize the country of origin of the products in these two-tiered cities, particularly the low-involvement products and the products from psychic distant countries. Further, for high-involvement products, it would be wise for international marketers to emphasize the novelty feature of the foreign products so as to mitigate ethnocentric consumer's unwillingness to buy foreign products, particularly in tier 2 cities. For ethnocentric consumers from tier 1 and tier 3 cities, using CIN in marketing strategies would be less salient, as in tier 1 cities CIN's moderation role only works for the Japanese high-involvement products, while in tier 3 cities it works on for high-involvement products from Australia and CEE countries. Concerning cosmopolitanism positively affects consumers' purchase intention on foreign products significantly only in tier 2 cities, international marketers shall emphasize the international/global traits of the products so as to increase young-adult consumer's purchase intention. In addition, our research suggests that Tier 2 cities could be the most ideal market to enter when launching new products as not consumer's innovativeness would mitigate the impact of consumer ethnocentrism on their purchasing intention, but also COS would boost young-adult's purchasing intention towards foreign products.

In addition to city tiers, our study suggests that region can also serve as a proper market boundary (Taras *et al.*, 2016) for international marketers to enter Chinese market. First of all, the relationship between tradition, prudence and CET in Northern coastal region suggests that international marketers shall focus on consumers who value traditional values less important but embrace the modernity and future orientated, as they are less ethnocentric. Considering consumers from Northern coastal region display lower level of CET but higher level of COS, yet the impact of CET on consumer's purchase intention is stronger than in Eastern coastal region, international marketers shall less emphasize the country of origin of the products, particularly the low-involvement products and products from psychic distant countries in Northern coastal region. In addition, for consumers from Eastern coastal region, it would be wise for international marketers to emphasize the symbolic cosmopolitan traits that products carry considering the positive relationship between COS and purchase intention only establishes in Eastern coastal region.

2.6   Conclusion

Chapter 2 looked into the antecedent role of Sharma (2010)'s selected personal cultural orientation on two types of consumer behaviors (namely, CET and COS). We found that taking China as one homogeneous market, tradition and prudence significantly impact on consumer's behavior. However, if we look at their relationship from a cracked city-tier and inter-regional perspective, more interesting yet complex causal relationships between the concepts are revealed. For instance, independence is also a significant antecedent to CET, but only valid in Tier 3 cities. Ambiguity intolerance positively impact CET in Tier 1 cities except when purchasing Japanese products. The impact of tradition on COS is only consistent in tier 2 cities. Unfortunately, we did not find the relationship between ambiguity intolerance and COS in our research.

In terms of the relationship between CET, COS and young-adult consumer's willingness to buy foreign products, if we take China as one holistic market, CET has negative impact on young-adult consumer's willingness to buy foreign products, and the impact is stronger on low-involvement products. While COS has a subtle positive impact only on willingness of purchasing low-involvement products from Japan. Yet, if we take China consisted by heterogeneous markets, the results become more dynamic. For instance, CET has stronger impact on consumer's purchase intention in higher tiered cities and Northern coastal region. In addition, the impact is stronger if the products are from cultural/psychic distant countries.

Our research also found the young-adult consumer's changing attitudes toward Japan and Japanese products. Chinese young adults no longer hold hostile attitudes towards Japan, they view Japan as a modern and respected country. Such positive attitudes toward Japan mitigates the unwillingness to buy Japanese products. In addition, this research also draw attention on CIN's negative moderation role on the relationship between CET and purchase intention, particularly when it comes to high-involvement products in Tier 2 cities and Northern coastal region.

2.7   Limitations of research and future research

There are a few limitations in this intra-national study, which may offer opportunities for future research. First, although we employed the established scales with translation and back-translation so as to ensure linguistic equivalence as well as metric equivalence, yet there is still "lost in translation" (Peña, 2007) particularly in the four cultural constructs. This resulted in low correlations for some items with the rest items across all datasets. Albeit this is a common issue in cross-cultural research, it would be better to develop a local cultural embedded scale for intra-national studies so as to achieve higher level of psychometric

equivalence (Peña, 2007). Nevertheless, we have tried our best to have the matched samples in the highest level (Ding *et al.*, 2018). Majority of the data are collected in 211 and 985 universities, or leading universities in that city. Except certain tier 3 cities where highly ranked universities do not exist, for instance, data from LesHan (tier 3 city in Southwest region) was collected from a private university by then[14]. Yet, we filtered the extremely unqualified questionnaires out since the first coding step so as to ensure the following statistical analysis.

Secondly, the focus of this chapter is to look into the intra-national differences of young-adult consumers' behaviors by cross-tier and inter-regional comparison. Owing to the heterogeneous quality of the data collected in Southwest region, the metric invariance of the structural model could not be established when it came to the purchasing intention towards Japan, Australia, and CEE countries across all three regions. Yet, for the structural equation model testing the willingness to buy Russian products, the metric invariance was established across three regions. Although the comparison of structural equation modeling across three regions was conditioned in our study, we still managed to compare inter-regional differences in the level of concepts.

The results showed salient cross-tier and inter-regional differences of consumer characteristics, yet there is much to be explored in future research on what caused these differences. For instance, tradition has significant positive impact on COS only for consumers from tier 2 cities while independence has positive impact only for consumers from Eastern coastal regions. It would be valuable to find out what are the driving forces behind such findings so as to offer both domestic and international marketers precise brand positioning (Iyer, Davari, Zolfagharian, & Paswan, 2019) and marketing strategies against the local consumer culture (Steenkamp, 2019). In addition, limited not only by the length of the questionnaire but also the complex of the research itself, this research only explored the antecedent role of selected personal cultural orientations on CET and COS, future research can build on our findings to extend the antecedents into a wider range on social economic and cultural related concepts so as to further explain different consumer characteristics across tiers and regions. Further, the results of the impact of country attitudes on consumers' purchasing intention towards foreign products, brings more directions for future study to look into, for instance, the Country of origin cues of the foreign products (Vida & Damjan, 2000) and consumer animosity (Yang, Ramsaran, & Wibowo, 2021), which is subject to

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[14] In Chinese tertiary education system, public universities are usually better than private universities, which could be reflected in the different sources of students (students' performance in the University Entrance Exam) and sources of research fund and other supports etc.

both consumers' personal values (materialism) and social influences (normative influence) (Wang *et al.*, 2013).

Our findings show This may owe to the inconsistency between the measurements and concepts. The measurements in the structure equation modeling emphasize the ability to complete a task by oneself (Sharma, 2009) ("I would rather depend on myself than others." and "I rely on myself most of the time, rarely on others."), which is different than the concept "independence" emphasizing on the unique self-identity and being different from the others (R. E. Goldsmith & Clark, 2012).

Further, due to the complexity and length of the questionnaire, we did not control for the effects of social desirability bias (Fisher, 2000), which includes 33 items, on the characteristics of young-adult consumers. Young-adult consumers are characterized by the trait "staying true to oneself" tested by Larson (2019). Larson (2019)'s study shows that the social desirability bias does not affect consumers younger than 55 years old. In addition, to mitigate the tendency for respondents to answer the questions in a socially and politically correct manner (see Zimbardo, Jonson, & McCann, 2016), we also attempted to follow Larson (2019)'s suggestion and reduced the bias by anonymizing respondents and designing the questionnaire with neutralized response options (5-point Likert scale and 7-point Likert scale).

Finally yet importantly, like all other research focuses only on one particular cohort, there is limitation on the generalization of the findings to the whole population. Therefore, we would like to recommend the future research to extend the respondents to a more general populations so as to have a full and holistic picture on intra-national consumers characteristics among different cohorts. In addition, we would like to recommend the replication of this study in other countries and different social-cultural contexts, so as to have a better understanding on the role of inter-regional consumer culture (Chelekis & Figueiredo, 2015), the culture of cities (Sevincer *et al.*, 2017) as well as local consumer culture (Steenkamp, 2019) in international marketing

GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter gives a general discussion and conclusion on the main findings of the doctoral dissertation. The structure of this chapter is as follows: firstly, there would be a summary of the main findings of previous chapters with a systematic overview. Then it follows with the theoretical and managerial contributions of this doctoral dissertation. Lastly, there would be the conclusion of the dissertation.

Summary of the main findings

The first chapter focused on studying young-adult consumer characteristics/behaviors **between-markets** by conducting the cross-country and inter-regional (East Asia vs. Eastern Europe) comparison on CDMS, CET and CIN. The results showed that young-adult consumers do **display a significant consumer behavior across regions** rather than **within the region**. For instance, young-adult consumers from Eastern Europe are more ethnocentric than peers from East Asia. While young-adult consumers from East Asia are more brand conscious and more easily confused by overflow of the information. In addition, chapter 1 tested the relationship between CET and CIN, as well as the role of CDMS on CIN. In terms of the causal relationships between CET, consumer decision-making styles and CIN, the results revealed that with our sampled data the CET does not have an impact on CIN, and we argue that this may owing to the specific cohort we are studying, further research shall take the whole population for sampling. Further, the results of the impact of consumer decision-making styles on CIN are mixed. The results showed that quality consciousness, information utilization and price consciousness all have significant positive impact on CIN, yet brand consciousness does not have any impact on CIN.

The second chapter gave rise **to within-market analysis** of young-adult consumer's characteristics and behaviors from two perspectives: 1) taking the whole country (China) as a single market; 2) viewing the country as a heterogenous market from two angles: city-tier perspective which focuses on the influence of different level of economy development on consumer characteristics and regional perspective which addresses the impact of social-historical and social-economic factors on consumer characteristics. **When take China as a single market,** in terms of the impact of personal cultural orientations on CET and COS, with our sample, we found the significant positive impact of "tradition" on CET and significant negative impact on COS. On the other hand, "prudence" has negative impact on CET but positive impact on COS. Further, the results showed that CET negatively impact consumer's purchase intention towards foreign products, and the negative impact is stronger for low-involvement products. COS does not have impact on consumer's purchase intention towards foreign products except for Japanese low-involvement products. The impact of country attitudes towards foreign country on consumer's purchase attention of products from that particular country is mixed. For instance, consumer's attitudes towards Russia has negative impact on willingness to buy Russian high-involvement products. However, consumer's attitudes towards Japan has positive impact on willingness to buy Japanese low-involvement products. Consumer's attitudes towards CEE countries has positive impact on willingness to buy high-involvement products from CEE countries. The results did not find

any impact of country attitudes towards Australia on Australian products. Concerning the moderation effect, CIN only moderates the relationship between CET and purchase intention towards high involvement products (See Table 25).

Table 25: Main Results on the relationship between Personal cultural orientations, CET, COS, country attitudes and willingness to buy foreign products, as well as the moderation effect of CIN on the relationship between CET/COS and willingness to buy foreign products

Impact of personal cultural orientations on CET and COS	Results	Notes
Independence→CET (-)	Rejected	
Ambiguity intolerance→CET (+)	Rejected	
Tradition→CET (+)	Supported	
Prudence→CET (-)	Supported	
Independence→COS (+)	Rejected	
Ambiguity intolerance→COS (-)	Rejected	
Tradition→COS (-)	Supported	
Prudence→COS (+)	Supported	
Impact of CET/COS on WTB	Results	Notes
CET→WTB (-)	Supported	L>H
COS→WTB (+)	Rejected	except low-involvement Japanese products
Impact of country attitudes on WTB	Results	Notes
Country attitudes→WTB (+)	MIXED	Negative impact towards Russian high-involvement products; positive impact towards Japanese low-involvement products, and positive impact on high-involvement products from CEE countries; In general, the country attitudes towards Japanese products are strongest.
CIN's moderation role on the relationship between CET/COS and WTB	Results	Notes
CIN*CET→WTB (-)	Supported (only for high involvement products)	
CIN*COS→WTB (+)	Rejected	

Notes: CET=consumer ethnocentrism, COS=consumer cosmopolitanism, CIN=consumer innovativeness, WTB=willingness to buy foreign products, H=high-involvement products, L=low-involvement products, "+" positive relationship, "-"=negative relationship

Source: Own work.

Table 26: Main results of the intra-national (cross-tier and inter-regional) comparison of Chinese young-adult consumer characteristics

Dimensions of cross-tier comparison	Results	Notes
PCOs→CET	Supported	Independence→CET only significant tier 3 cities; Ambiguity intolerance→CET significant in tier 1 cities; Tradition→CET strongest impact in tier 2 cities; Prudence→CET strongest in tier 3 cities, significant in tier 1 only when it comes to purchasing Japanese and Australian products.
PCOs→COS	Supported	Tradition→COS, only significant in tier 2 cities, for tier 1 cities only significant when it comes to purchase Japanese products; Prudence→COS, strongest impact in tier 3 cities
CET	Supported	Higher tiered cities, lower level of CET
CET→WTB	Supported	The impact is stronger in higher tiered cities
COS	Rejected	There is no differences in the level of COS across three tiers
COS→WTB	Supported	Constant in tier 2 cities; in other two-tiered cities, it is country of origin specific
CIN*CET→WTB	Supported	Constant in tier 2 cities for high involvement products, in other cities it is conditioned to country of origin of the products
CIN*COS→WTB	Supported	The moderation impact only works for the Japanese products in Tier 3 cities.
Dimensions of inter-regional comparison	Results	Notes
independence	Supported	North region has higher level than East region
tradition	Rejected	There is no difference across three regions
prudence	Supported	Eastern coastal has lower level than the other two regions
ambiguity intolerance	Rejected	There is no difference across three regions
cosmopolitanism	Supported	Northern region is more cosmopolitan than Southwest region
ethnocentrism	Supported	Northern region less ethnocentric than Eastern region
PCOs → CET*	Supported	Tradition→CET is significant only in eastern coastal region;
PCOs → COS*	Supported	Tradition→COS and Prudence→COS are only significant in eastern coastal region
CET → WTB*	Supported	The impact is stronger in Northern coastal region
COS → WTB*	Supported	The impact is stronger in Eastern coastal region
CIN*CET → WTB*	Supported	
CIN*COS → WTB*	Rejected	There is no moderation effect of CIN in the relationship between COS and WTB

Notes: PCO=Personal cultural orientation, CET=consumer ethnocentrism, COS=consumer cosmopolitanism, CIN=consumer innovativeness, WTB=willingess to buy foreign products, H=high-involvement products, L=low-involvement products, "+" positive relationship, "-"=negative relationship. Southwest region is dismissed in the inter-regional SEM comparison due to the metric invariance issues.

Source: Own work.

However, when take **China as a heterogenous market,** the results of young-adult consumer's characteristics are much more nuanced. When compare consumer's characteristics from the city-tier perspective, as displayed in Table 26, we could see significant cross-tier differences of young-adult consumer characteristics in different levels. The impact of Personal cultural orientations on CET and COS varies across city tiers. For instance, the positive impact of independence on CET is only established in tier 3 cities,

while the positive impact of ambiguity intolerance on CET is only established in tier 1 cities. **Such causal relationship was not established when take China as a single market.** The negative impact of tradition on COS is significant only in tier 2 cities, and significant in tier 1 cities **when conditioned to purchase Japanese products**. Further, the results showed that the more economic developed cities are, the lower level of consumer ethnocentrism young-adult consumers display. However, the negative impact of CET on the willingness to purchase foreign products is stronger in more developed cities. In addition, there is no difference on the level of COS across three tiers; however, the positive impact of COS on purchase intention towards foreign products is only constant in tier 2 cities, no matter what is the country of origin of the products. Lastly, the results showed the cross-tier differences on CIN's moderation effect on the relationship between CET/COS and willingness to buy foreign products as well.

When look at the within-market differences of consumer characteristics from perspective of **regions**, the results showed inter-regional differences at the level of independence, prudence, CET and COS. Consumers from North region display higher level of independence than consumers from East Region while consumers from East region display lower level of prudence than consumers from other two regions. Consumers from North region are more cosmopolitan than consumers from Southwest region and are less ethnocentric than consumers from East region. In addition, the results showed the inter-regional differences on the impact of personal cultural orientations on CET/COS. The positive impact of tradition on CET is only established in East region. Likewise, the negative impact of tradition on COS but positive impact of prudence on COS are established also only in East region. Further, the negative impact of CET on consumer's willingness to buy foreign products is stronger in North region while the positive impact of COS on consumer's willingness to buy foreign products is stronger in East region. Lastly, the results also showed the regional differences when it comes to CIN's moderation effect on the relationship between CET and willingness to buy foreign products. The moderation effect was only established when it comes to products from Australia, Russia and CEE countries in East region.

Theoretical and Managerial Contributions

First of all, this doctoral dissertation contributes to the social-psychology literature on young-adult consumers from emerging countries in international marketing, particularly on the young-adult consumer's *glocal* identity (Bartsch *et al.*, 2016; Merz *et al.*, 2008; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019), which is supported by our two studies. In Chapter 1, our findings show that on one hand young-adult consumers display low level consumer

ethnocentrism and relatively high level of consumer ethnocentrism globally (in this study across all four countries). However, on the other hand, the level of consumer ethnocentrism is significantly different between two regions (Eastern Asia vs. Eastern Europe) rather than between countries within the region, which contributes to their specific local characteristics (Steenkamp, 2019). It is the same case with brand consciousness as well as information utilization across the two regions. This confirms that young-adult consumer's *glocal* **identity** is **region based** (Chelekis & Figueiredo, 2015; C. Lamour & De La Robertie, 2016), although globalization transcends consumer culture from one place to another. Chapter 2 looks at young-adult consumer's *glocal* identity from **within-market** perspective. Young adult consumers from China display relatively high level of consumer innovativeness, low level of consumer ethnocentrism and moderately high level of consumer cosmopolitanism, which is in line with the findings in existing literature in other countries (Han, 2017; Han *et al.*, 2021; Raskovic *et al.*, 2020). However, there exists **within-market heterogeneity** of Chinese young-adult consumer characteristics/behaviors, which is supported by our findings of cross-tier differences and inter-regional differences.

Secondly, this doctoral thesis contributes to the role of regionalism in consumer culture studies (Cheetham *et al.*, 2018; Chelekis & Figueiredo, 2015). This doctoral dissertation takes regionalism to a further step by not only look at consumers characteristics at the world regional level in Chapter 1 (Chelekis & Figueiredo, 2015), but also in a level below the nation in Chapter 2. This respond to Chelekis and Figueiredo (2015)'s call for a "flexible regional approach" (p.323) and fills in the gap of regionalism approach of studying consumer characteristics in emerging countries. This is, by the author's knowledge, the very first study to look at consumer's characteristics from critical regional perspective (Chelekis & Figueiredo, 2015) below the level of a nation, which takes geographic boundary, social-historical factors, social-economic and social-cultural factors in the consideration. Our findings supported Cleveland and Laroche (2007)'s assertion that "Increasing globalization is reducing the homogeneity of consumer behaviors within countries", but does not fully support the second half of the sentence "while increasing communalities across countries" (p. 249) as our findings find commonalities lies **in a world regional level (Eastern Asia vs. Eastern Europe).** When looking at young-adult consumer's characteristics within a single market (China), our results show a variation of culture values lies within the country due to the increasing culture interpenetration, deterritorialization, hybridization fostered by globalization and urbanization (Cleveland, 2018; Craig & Douglas, 2006; Taras *et al.*, 2016).

Further, the doctoral dissertation also provides implication on the relationship between urbanization/modernization and consumer characteristics by comparing young-adult

consumers across three city tiers (Han & Won, 2018; Karoui & Khemakhem, 2019; Shankarmahesh, 2006), which deepens the existing research scope as existing research looked at the relationships between economic development and consumer behaviors at national level (Han, 2017). Our findings support that consumers from more developed cities display lower level of CET, this is in line with existing findings in the literature (Jin *et al.*, 2015; Shankarmahesh, 2006). In addition, our results also find out that consumer innovativeness is positively associated with the level of economic development, which can be reflected from the lower level of CIN in tier 3 cities. However, our findings did not find any differences on COS across city tiers, which indicates that cosmopolitan is a personality trait that is not necessarily associated with economic development. In addition, this suggests that the level of city-cosmopolitanism does not correspond to the level of cosmopolitanism of consumers (Leung *et al.*, 2015; Sevincer *et al.*, 2017). This seems to contradict Cleveland *et al.* (2009)'s finding that the wealthier consumers are, the more cosmopolitan they are. The explanation for this discrepancy may lie with the respondents in our study. Since we focus on college students in China, most of them receive allowances from their parents, which does not result in drastic differences in disposable income. Further, the different level of economic development leads to different degrees of the impact of personal cultural orientations on consumer behaviors (CET/COS) and various sequential impact on consumer's purchase intention towards foreign products. However, the results are quite mixed, we shall look into each causal relationship individually in different city tiers. For instance, the moderation role of CIN on the relationship between CET and willingness to purchase foreign high-involvement products is consistent only in Tier 2 cities.

When we look into the specific theoretical contributions in each chapter, Chapter 1 contributes to consumer behavior theory by linking CET to CIN from the perspective of social identity theory (Eryigit, 2020; Jin *et al.*, 2015; Tajfel, 1982; Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015), which fills in the gap in the literature of these two consumer related concepts. Yet, the results implied that the theoretical indicated negative relationship between CET on CIN does not hold when it comes to young-adult consumers. The future research can extent the examination to the other demographic cohorts. In addition, by looking at the impact of CDMS on CIN in Chapter 1, the results supported both Mishra (2015)'s position on the sensory aspects of CIN and Hirschman (1984)'s position on the experiencing seeking perspective of CIN. Further, the results showed that quality consciousness and information utilization have the strongest impact on CIN. This implies that young-adult consumers do seek for new and exciting experience when trying out new products/brands, but meanwhile they are also paying attention on the function criteria of the products (quality conscious), as well as on social learning (information process).

In terms of the specific theoretical contribution of chapter 2, it filled the gap on studying the psychographic antecedents of consumer behavior (Makrides *et al.*, 2021) by studying the impact of personal cultural orientations on consumer behaviors (CET and COS) at individual level. In terms of the relationship between personal cultural orientations and CET, the results in chapter 2 were not fully in line with existing empirical results. For instance, the results in chapter 2 found the positive relationship between independence and CET, which is contrary to Yoo and Donthu (2005)'s findings of the relationship between collectivism and CET. It is the first time in the literature to explore personal culture orientations as psychographic antecedents to COS. The results showed that tradition is negatively related to COS while prudence is positively related to COS. This supports Prince *et al.* (2020)'s opinion that consumers embrace tradition values view foreign products as a threat to national economy, while consumers who are future oriented are open to change and more pragmatic (Nguyen & Pham, 2021; Prince *et al.*, 2020; Sharma, 2009).

Further, chapter 2 looked into the sequential impact of personal cultural orientation on consumer's purchase intention towards products from selected four countries/region through CET/COS. In line with the existing studies, we found the negative relation between CET and consumer's willingness to buy foreign products (Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015). However, on contrary to Wong *et al.* (2008)'s results, our empirical results also showed the negative correlation between CET and purchase intention towards high-involvement products. This suggested for future work on exploring the relationship between CET and purchase intention of domain specific products. Further, this study also support Watson and Wright (2000)'s theory on ethnocentric consumer's purchase preference on cultural/psychic closer countries. This contributes to the social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982) in consumer behavior, whereby ethnocentric consumers from more economically developed cities view products from culturally/psychic distant countries as a greater threat (outgroup) to the domestic economy than products from culturally/psychic close countries (Han *et al.*, 2021).

By studying the impact of consumer's attitudes towards a certain country on their purchase intention of the products from that country, this doctoral dissertation contributes to the literature on social psychology in consumer studies (Myers & Twenge, 2019). Young-adult consumer's changing attitudes towards Japan and its sequential positive impact on purchase intention suggested that consumer's cognitive attitudes towards a country do matter on influencing their purchase intention on products from that country (Klein *et al.*, 1998; Myers & Twenge, 2019). In addition, young-adult consumers attitudes toward a certain country depend on many socio-historical factors. For example, attitudes toward the CEE countries have a significant impact on consumers willingness to buy products from the CEE countries

only in the Eastern coastal region. This could be due to the fact that CEE countries have a strong presence in Eastern coastal region (e.g., Ningbo and Shanghai) and that business and trade between CEE countries and the Eastern coastal region have been increasing since the One Road and One Belt policy initiative (Commerce, 2021; Z. Liu, 2019). Economic animosity does not have impact on consumers willingness to purchase foreign products, as young-adult consumers evaluate products from a holistic perspective (A. Klein & Sharma, 2022; Klein *et al.*, 1998).

In terms of managerial implications, this doctoral dissertation would suggest international marketers to develop marketing strategies/capability in **two levels: inter-nations vs. intra-nation/within-country level**, which in general follows Douglas and Craig (2011)'s semiglobal marketing strategies, given young-adult consumer's *glocal* identity (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019). The international marketers can start the international marketing with a **regional segmentation** (e.g. Eastern Asia and Eastern Europe). At the regional level (between nations/inter-nations), the marketing strategies can pursue a standardization strategy at regional level (Merz *et al.*, 2008; Steenkamp, 2019). For instance, when marketing to young-adult consumers in Eastern Asian countries, branding and status-driven marketing shall be heavily applied. This can be followed with a further segmentation based on a relevant set of criteria (e.g. consumer innovativeness) when it comes to the **within-region marketing**.

When it comes **to intra-national/within-country marketing**, this doctoral dissertation suggests to extend the semiglobal marketing strategies to the national level, which can be operationalized into two steps. From the **"global" perspective**, considering the Chinese young-adult consumers are in general display low level of CET and relative high level on CIN, international marketers shall purposefully emphasize the feature of newness and creativity of the products. Further, CET is negatively related to consumer's willingness to buy foreign high-involvement products. However, given that CIN negatively moderates relationship between CET and willingness to buy foreign products, for ethnocentric consumers, international marketers could emphasize on the creative features of the products so as to mitigate the negative impact of CET on their purchase intention towards foreign products. The second step comes to **further segment** young-adult consumer in China. Our findings suggest two approaches to segment young-adult consumers: 1) segement young-adult consumers **from city-tier perspective** and 2) segement young-acult consumers **by taking region as cultural boundary** (Boso *et al.*, 2018). Our findings suggest that no matter which approach international marketers are applying, they have to look into consumers' characteristics specifically in each city tier or each region. **Localization strategy** shall be

employed accordingly in that particular city tier or region. If international marketers are **taking city tiers as a criterion** to segment young-adult consumers, our findings suggest that higher tiered cities (tier 1 and tier 2 cities) are proper markets for international companies launching new brands and products, considering young-adult consumers from higher tiered cities are less ethnocentric and more innovative. However, to ethnocentric consumers in higher tiered cities, international markets shall **avoid emphasizing the foreign origin of the products**, **particularly the low-involvement products**, as the impact of CET on consumer's purchase intention is stronger in higher tiered cities for low-involvement products. Further, the results on cross-tier comparison implied **that Tier 2 cities would be the most proper market to enter with newly launched products** as firstly COS only drives consumer's purchase intention of foreign products in Tier 2 cities and secondly CIN also mitigates the negative impact of CET on consumer's purchase intention of foreign products. If international marketers take region as segmentation criterion, in **Northern coastal** region, international marketers shall purposefully **less emphasize the foreign origin of the low-involvement products** when marketing to ethnocentric consumers, particularly if the low-involvement products are from **psychic distant countries**. However, in **Eastern coastal region**, it would be recommended to **promote the symbolic cosmopolitan traits of the products** as COS positively drives consumer's purchase intention only in Eastern coastal region. Our results show that taking China as a homogeneous market would lead to marketing failure as well as entry failure (Frank *et al.*, 2014), as young-adult consumers display different characteristics across city tiers as well as inter-regionally. This supports Taras *et al.* (2016)'s argumentation that country is a poor proxy to study consumer culture is inappropriate.

Conclusion

Young- adult consumers are an important cohort for international marketers (Raskovic et al., 2020) owning to their great consumption power (199IT, 2021; Centre, 2017). This owes to their more susceptibility to globalization and faster consumer acculturation process (Cleveland, 2018). However, research on the identity and characteristics of young adults remains understudied (Rašković, Ding, Škare, Ozretić Došen, & Žabkar, 2016). There have been debates on young adult consumers' global, local, and *glocal* identity (Merz, He, & Alden, 2008; Strizhakova, Coulter, & Price, 2012). To fill in the gap of the existing research on young-adult consumers, which is country-based (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019; Strizhakova et al., 2012), this dissertation aims to explore young-adult consumer identity in a more comprehensive approach by going beyond the national level to below the national level. The findings of both studies provide evidence that young-adult consumers have a

"*glocal*" identity (Cleveland, Rojas-Méndez, Laroche, & Papadopoulos, 2016; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019).

Given the *glocal* identity of young adult consumers, this dissertation proposes a two-level marketing approach to international marketers, relating to Douglas and Craig (2011)'s semiglobal marketing strategies. The first level is international marketing at regions(Chelekis & Figueiredo, 2015). The findings of the dissertation show that international marketers can adopt a standardization strategy at the regional level (e.g., Eastern Europe vs. East Asia). For example, consumers from East Asia are more brand conscious than consumers from Eastern Europe, therefore, marketing strategies in East Asia could be more brand and social status driven. However, when it comes to marketing within the region, the strategy needs to be adapted to the specific characteristics of consumers from that particular country. The second level would be marketing in a specific country (in this case, we refer to countries such as China, India, etc. with a large territory, cultural differences, and unbalanced economic development). The findings provide international marketers with two approaches to segment consumers (Chelekis & Figueiredo, 2015; Taras, Steel, & Kirkman, 2016). The first approach is to take the level of economic development (Jin et al., 2015) as a "reflective boundary" to segment young adult consumers, and the second approach is to take the geographic/administrative region as the boundary. Standardization of marketing strategies can be done at the national level, taking the common characteristics of Chinese young-adult consumers into account. For example, the findings of this doctoral dissertation show that Chinese consumers are displaying low level of CET and relatively high level of CIN and COS. In addition, CET has negative impact on consumer's willingness to buy foreign products across the whole country. However, adaptation of marketing strategies shall be applied at below national level, according to the specific characteristics of consumers in each region or city. In summary, by examining the characteristics of young adult consumers through inter- and intra-national comparisons, this dissertation explores young-adult consumers' "similarities across markets and differences within markets" (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Lamour & De La Robertie, 2016; Taras et al., 2016) in the context of globalization and ongoing de-globalization (Meyer, 2017) in non-Western countries. Our results show that there are more similarities across markets and more differences within markets across regions at the international level. The contribution of this dissertation is to further disaggregate a market at the below country level. The results show that young-adult consumers carry distinct characteristics and behave differently across the city tiers/inter-regionally within a country. It would be a tragic end if international marketers view the country (e.g., China) as a homogeneous market (Frank, Abulaiti, & Enkawa, 2014). Instead, international marketers should consider the socioeconomic (e.g., level of

development of the economy), sociohistorical (e.g., regional culture and values), and other social contexts (e.g., political conflict) of a particular city tier/region in order to conduct successful marketing (Čutura, 2020; Myers & Twenge, 2019).

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Summary in Slovenian language / Daljši povzetek disertacije v slovenskem jeziku

Kitajska je s svojo ogromno populacijo, hitrim družbeno-ekonomskim razvojem, rastočim domačim trgom in vse večjim potrošništvom postala eno najbolj privlačnih okolij za mednarodne tržnike (Cui & Liu, 2000; Davies & Raskovic, 2017; Sun *et al.*, 2013; Zhou *et al.*, 2010). Poleg tega je hitra in obsežna urbanizacija od poznih sedemdesetih let prejšnjega stoletja prinesla velik premik podeželskega prebivalstva v urbana območja (Hu & Chen, 2015). To je ustvarilo edinstveno ločnico med mestom in podeželjem na Kitajskem (Hu & Chen, 2015) in prispevalo k neuravnoteženemu regionalnemu razvoju Kitajske (Cui & Liu, 2000), ki je oblikoval različne značilnosti potrošnikov v posameznih regijah (Frank *et al.*, 2014; Zhou *et al.*, 2010). V tej luči tako obstaja velik primanjkljaj raziskav, ki bi posebej obravnavale razlike med potrošniki na Kitajskem z regionalnega in/ali vidika mest različnega reda, saj ima Kitajska izredno hiearhično urbano ureditev, kjer se mesta delijo na mesta prvega, drugega in tretjega reda. Zato je teoretično in empirično neprimerno in nezadostno, da se raziskave potrošnikov na Kitajskem izvajajo samo v enem ali dveh mestih, kot je to storila večina obstoječih raziskav. Tovrsten pristop je empirično pomanjkljiv ter teoretsko neprimeren. Ne more ponuditi celovitega razumevanja kompleksnosti značilnosti potrošnikov v heterogenih urbanih in regionalnih okoljih Kitajske ter zajeti vseh družbeno-ekonomskih razlik kitajske urbane krajine, kar posledično vpliva tudi na oblikovanje in uspešnost trženjskih strategij na Kitajskem (Davies & Raskovic, 2017).

Mladi odrasli (v zgodnjih 20-ih leti) [15] postajajo ključni segment potrošnikov v mednarodnem trženju (Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006). Njihove edinstvene *glokalne* (globalne in lokalne) kulturne in potrošniške identitete (Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006; Strizhakova *et al.*, 2012) zahtevajo več raziskav o njihovih potrošniških značilnostih in slogih potrošniškega odločanja (Rašković *et al.*, 2016). Obstoječe raziskave o značilnostih potrošnikov so bile opravljene v domnevnem ozadju globalizacije, vendar kot ugotavlja Meyer (2017), vstopamo v drugo antiglobalizacijsko obdobje, ki ga predstavljajo brexit, naraščajoči protekcionizem in nacionalizem ter trgovinska vojna med ZDA in Kitajsko. Potrošniki se zaradi oligopolne tržne strukture z manj izbire in številnimi drugimi vzroki počutijo bolj nemočne (Meyer, 2017), kar prinaša potrebo po preučevanju njihovega spreminjajočega se odnosa in vedenja do (anti)globalizacije, zlasti glede potrošniškega kozmopolizma (Riefler *et al.*, 2012), potrošniškega etnocentrizma (Shimp & Sharma, 1987) in potrošniške inovativnosti (Zhonghui. Ding *et al.*, 2018; Rašković *et al.*, 2016). Kot najbolj privilegirana generacija "malih cesarjev" z enim otrokom postajajo kitajski mladi odrasli

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[15] Včasih popularno imenovani Millennials

potrošniki ključni vir prihodnje gospodarske rasti v okviru spreminjajočega se kitajskega gospodarskega razvoja, ki vse bolj poudarja domačo porabo kot ključno gonilo rasti kitajskega gospodarstva (Davies & Raskovic, 2017). Mladi odrasli izkazujejo hibridne *glokalne* potrošniške značilnosti (Rašković *et al.*, 2016) in večjo dovzetnost za globalno potrošniško kulturo (Carpenter *et al.*, 2012) v primerjavi z drugimi generacijskimi skupinami. Čeprav jih je sooblikovala globalizacija (Carpenter *et al.*, 2012; Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2009), so omenjeni potrošniki hkrati tudi močno vpeti v lokalno okolje (Douglas & Craig, 2011; Strizhakova *et al.*, 2012). Za mednarodna podjetja na Kitajskem to pomeni razvoj napol globalnih trženjskih strategij (Rašković et al., 2016; Douglas & Craig, 2011), ki po eni strani »še naprej razvijajo globalno ali regionalno integrirane trženjske strategije« na bolj razvitih in zrelih trgih, po drugi strani pa » razvijajo nove in inovativne strategije, ki temeljijo na globokem razumevanju razmer in prednostnih nalog na lokalnem trgu« (str. 97).

Disertacija se osredotoča na **kitajsko *urbano* mlado-odraslo potrošniško populacijo, ki jo »upravlja« kompleksna večplastna urbana hierarhija**, ki pomembno vpliva na značilnosti potrošnikov in njihovo vedenje. S seboj prinaša številne trženjske posledice (Davies & Raskovic, 2017), ki presegajo regionalne razlike v potrošniških kulturah (Sun *et al.*, 2013) in bistveno vplivajo na samo naravo značilnosti potrošnikov (Frank *et al.*, 2014; Zhou *et al.*, 2010). Poleg tega pa moja raziskava ni pomembna samo za raziskovalce in tržnike, ampak tudi za oblikovalce politik. Douglas in Craig (2011) pri obravnavi vprašanja glokalizacije potrošnikov napol globalnih trženjskih strategij opozarjata na vrzel v razumevanju vedenja mladih odraslih potrošnikov, zlasti na trgih v razvoju, kot je na primer Kitajska (Fan & Xiao, 1998; Rašković et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2013). Generacija mladih odraslih je hkrati najbolj privilegirana in najmanj razumljena s strani podjetij, delodajalcev in oblikovalcev politike, kar se kaže na številnih področjih.

Obstajajo številne študije o **vplivu nacionalne kulture na značilnosti potrošnikov** v ozadju **globalizacije** na ravni države (Steenkamp, 2001). Vendar to implicitno predpostavlja veliko »enotnost znotraj države in razlike med državami« (Steenkamp, 2001, str. 36), kar je v resnici zaradi tako imenovane kulturnega razkroja in polarizacije (Craig & Douglas, 2006) nerealno. Tako »posamezna kultura ni več opredeljena izključno glede na določeno geografsko lokacijo« (str. 330), saj se kultura v globalni krajini pretaka iz ene v drugo in lokalno prilagaja, zlasti v vedenju potrošnikov (Cui & Liu, 2000). Številni potrošniki raje uporabljajo lokalne izdelke, ki odražajo njihovo različno družbeno-kulturno in socialno-ekonomsko ozadje. Kulturna deteritorializacija in potrošniška lokalizacija sta še posebej razširjeni v velikih in etnično raznolikih državah. Kot sta poudarila Cleveland and Laroche (2007) »Naraščajoča globalizacija zmanjšuje homogenost potrošniškega vedenja znotraj

2

držav, hkrati pa povečuje skupnosti med državami« (p. 249). Glede na **heterogenost** naravnega okolja Kitajske in njeno večetnično sestavo, ki ima tudi tržne posledice (Davies & Raskovic, 2017; Cui & Liu, 2000), je obravnavanje **znotraj nacionalne raznolikosti** značilnosti kitajskih potrošnikov enako pomembno kot je njihova primerjava mednarodno (Craig & Douglas, 2011). Zato je, z obravnavanjem zgoraj omenjenih teoretičnih, empiričnih in praktičnih pomislekov glede preučevanja značilnosti mladih odraslih potrošnikov (npr. vpliv kulture vedenja mladih odraslih potrošnikov na individualni ravni, vedenja mladih odraslih potrošnikov po regijah in večstopenjskih mestih), zlasti v državah v razvoju, glavni namen te doktorske disertacije, raziskati značilnosti kitajskih mladih odraslih potrošnikov. Pri tem pa se osredotočam tako na njihovo mednarodno primerjavo z drugimi državami v regiji Vzhodne Azije in širše, kot tudi znotraj države.

Prvo del moje doktorske disertacije »Mednarodna primerjava značilnosti mladih odraslih potrošnikov: razumevanje inovativnosti mladih odraslih potrošnikov in vloge regionalizma v Srednji in Vzhodni Evropi ter Vzhodni Aziji« se osredotoča na mednarodno primerjavo značilnosti kitajskih mladih odraslih potrošnikov prek primerjave slogov odločanja potrošnikov (CDMS) (Fan & Xiao, 1998), potrošniškega etnocentrizma (CET) (Shimp & Sharma, 1987) in potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN) (Baumgartner &Steenkamp, 1996) v štirih državah od katerih sta dve v Vzhodni Aziji (Kitajska in Japonska) in dve v Srednji in Vzhodni Evropi (Slovenija in Hrvaška). Poleg tega sem želela preizkusiti tudi vzročno zvezo med slogi potrošniškega odločanja (CDMS), potrošniškim etnocentrizmom (CET) in potrošniško inovativnostjo (CIN), kar prikazuje moj konceptualni model na Sliki 1. Eden izmed glavnih ciljev prvega dela disertacije je bila tudi ocena stopnje univerzalnosti/specifičnosti potrošniških značilnosti mladih odraslih v štirih proučevanih državah, tako z medregionalnega kot vidika znotraj posamezne regije (npr. znotraj Vzhodne Azije).

Podatki so bili zbrani s pomočjo spletnih vprašalnikov na podlagi ujemajočih se vzorcev (ang. *Matched sampling*) (Minkov, 2012) na štirih vodilnih poslovnih šolah v Ljubljani, na Hrvaškem, v Šanghaju in v Tokiu. Glede vpliva neuravnotežene spolne porazdelitve v japonskem vzorcu na tehtano sestavljeno spremenljivko potrošniškega etnocentrizma (CET), sem v primeru japonskega vzorca ustrezno uravnotežila (ponderirala) sestavljeno spremenljivko. Vsi konstrukti so vzeti iz obstoječih uveljavljenih lestvic in so bili izmerjeni na 7-točkovnih ordinalnih lestvicah Likertovega tipa. Glede na medkulturne primerjave, sem uporabila tudi analizo variance (J.-B. E. Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998), ki je bila izvedena, da bi zagotovili nadaljnjo večskupinsko primerjavo. Na podlagi testiranja invariantnosti in faktorske analize so bile oblikovane tehtane sestavljene spremenljivke iz

faktorskih uteži za vsako državo. Skupna sestavljena zanesljivost je bila preizkušena z izračunom kvadratnih korenov izločene povprečne variance. Primerjava med državami za utežene sestavljene konstrukte je bila izvedena s pomočjo testa ANOVA na arimetičnih sredinah, medtem ko je bila medregionalna primerjava izvedena s preprosto neodvisno primerjavo povprečne vrednosti s pomočjo t-testa. Vzročne zveze med konstrukti so bile preizkušene s pomočjo OLS regresijske analize z upoštevanjem spola ter posebne (lažne) spremenljivke za državo in regijo.

Slika 1: Konceptualni model prvega: Mednarodna primerjava značilnosti mladih odraslih potrošnikov: razumevanje inovativnosti mladih odraslih potrošnikov in vloge regionalizma v vzhodni Evropi in vzhodni Aziji
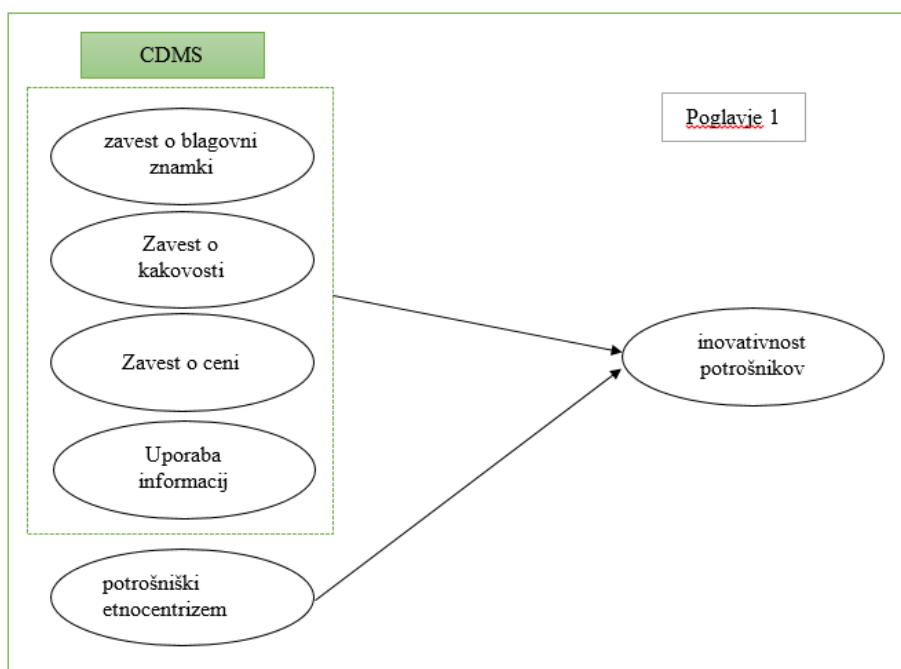
Opombe: CDMS= slogi/dejavniki odločanja potrošnikov.

Vir: Lastno delo.

Rezultati kažejo, da potrošniški etnocentrizem (CET) nima vpliva na potrošniško inovativnost (CIN) v primeru izdelkov vsakdanje rabe (FMCG). Vendar pa je bil vpliv načinov odločanja potrošnikov na potrošniško inovativnost (CIN) mešan. Rezultati so pokazali, da imajo ozaveščenost o kakovosti, izkoriščenost informacij in ozaveščenost o ceni pomemben pozitiven vpliv na potrošniško inovativnost (CIN). Istočasno pa ozaveščenost o blagovni znamki nima vpliva na potrošniško inovativnost (CIN). Poleg vzročne zveze med izbranimi konstrukti je prvi del disertacije odgovoril tudi na vprašanje o primerjavi vedenja mladih odraslih potrošnikov med državami in med regijami (vzhodna Azija proti Srednji in

4

Vzhodni Evropi). Rezultati so pokazali, da mladi odrasli potrošniki kažejo značilno potrošniško vedenje na ravni regij in ne na ravni držav. Na primer, mladi odrasli potrošniki iz Srednje in Vzhodne Evrope so na splošno bolj etnocentrični kot njihovi vrstniki iz Vzhodne Azije, medtem ko so mladi odrasli potrošniki iz Vzhodne Azije bolj pozorni na blagovno znamko in jih je zaradi pretoka informacij lažje zmesti.

V smislu teoretičnega in empiričnega prispevka sem v prvem delu disertacije preverila odnos med potrošniškim etnocentrizmom (CET) in potrošniško inovativnostjo (CIN) skozi perspektivo teorije družbene identitete. Vendar pa rezultati kažejo, da teoretično nakazano negativno razmerje med potrošniškim etnocentrizmom (CET) in potrošniško inovativnostjo (CIN) ne drži ko gre za mlade odrasle potrošnike. Prihodnje raziskave lahko razširijo pregled na druge demografske skupine. Rezultati so s preučevanjem vpliva potrošniških slogov odločanja (CDMS) na potrošniško inovativnost (CIN) podprli stališče Mishra (2015) o senzoričnih vidikih potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN), kot tudi stališče Hirschman (1984) o vlogi perspektive pri doživljanju potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN). Poleg tega so rezultati še pokazali, da imata potrošnikova ozaveščenost o kakovosti in uporaba informacij najmočnejši vpliv na potrošniško inovativnost (CIN). To pomeni, da mladi odrasli potrošniki iščejo nove in vznemirljive izkušnje pri preizkušanju izdelkov/blagovnih znamk, hkrati pa so pozorni tudi na merila delovanja izdelkov (ozaveščenost o kakovosti), pa tudi na družbeno učenje (informacijski proces). Še več, prve del disertacije prispeva k literaturi o preučevanju značilnosti potrošnikov, kjer za enoto analize vzamemo posamezno državo (Srinivas Durvasula *et al.*, 1997; Steenkamp, 2001) in primerjalno enoto premaknemo na višjo raven (medregionalna/celinska primerjava). Empirični rezultati so pokazali, da so razlike v značilnostih mladih odraslih potrošnikov večje med regijami kot znotraj regij (npr. mladi odrasli potrošniki iz Srednje in Zahodne Evrope so bolj etnocentrični kot njihovi vrstniki iz Zahodne Azije).

V smislu praktičnih implikacij je prvi del disertacije pokazala, da bi lahko raven potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN) služila kot pomembno merilo za segmentacijo mladih odraslih potrošnikov, saj so rezultati pokazali, da raven potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN) določa regionalno ozadje in ne država. Povezava med specifičnimi slogi potrošniškega odločanja (CDMS) in potrošniško inovativnostjo (CIN) je hkrati pokazala, da ozaveščenost o kakovosti in uporaba informacij igrata pomembnejšo vlogo pri spodbujanju inovativnosti potrošnikov kot pa cenovna ozaveščenost potrošnikov. Poleg tega, glede na to, da mladi odrasli potrošniki iz Vzhodne Azije kažejo močnejšo težnjo k statusni potrošnji, ki jo vodijo blagovne znamke, morajo mednarodni tržniki uporabiti trženjske strategije oblikovane okoli blagovnih znamk in družbenega statusa. V povezavi z rezultati, da je več razlik v vedenju

mladih odraslih potrošnikov na ravni regij kot pa znotraj regije, naj bi mednarodni tržniki segmentirali mlade odrasle potrošnike na regionalni ravni, čemur sledi nadaljnja segmentacija na podlagi značilnih meril vedenja potrošnikov (npr. inovativnost potrošnikov). To ima pomembne posledice za odnos med standardizacijo in adaptacijo na mednarodni trgih, pa tudi za vstop na trg in posledice tržne strategije.

Drugo del doktorske disertacije z naslovom »Znotraj nacionalna primerjava značilnosti potrošnikov mladih odraslih - Osebne kulturne značilnosti in odnos do tujih izdelkov: medstopenjska in medregionalna potrošniška analiza« se osredotoča na primerjavo značilnosti potrošnikov mladih odraslih znotraj Kitajske v devetih mestih, ki se nahajajo v treh različnih regijah (pokrajinah) na Kitajskem. Glavni namen tega drugega dela, je bil preizkusiti predhodno vlogo osebnih kulturnih značilnosti (Sharma, 2009) na potrošniški etnocentrizem (CET)(Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015) in svetovljanstvo potrošnikov oz. potrošniški kozmopolizem (COS) (Riefler *et al.*, 2012). V drugem delu sem želela preizkusiti vpliv potrošniškega etnocentrizma (CET), potrošniške kozmopolitskosti (COS) mladih odraslih potrošnikov (Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015) in odnosa do tujih držav na njihovo pripravljenost za nakup tujih izdelkov z visoko ali nizko vključenostjo v nakup (Klein *et al.*, 1998) iz štirih izbranih držav/regije (Avstralija, Japonska, Rusija in CEE države). Poleg tega sem preučevala tudi, v kolikšni meri potrošniška inovativnost (CIN) (Baumgartner &Steenkamp, 1996) vpliva na njihovo pripravljenost za nakup določenih tujih izdelkov. Nenazadnje je osrednja točka drugega poglavja tudi v primerjavi potrošniških lastnosti na treh ravneh in v treh regijah (9 mest, združenih v 3 regije), torej na različnih dimenzijah znotraj nacionalne heterogenosti. Konceptualni model drugega dela si lahko ogledate na Sliki 2.

Slika 2: Konceptualni model drugega dela: Znotraj nacionalna primerjava značilnosti mladih odraslih potrošnikov - Osebne kulturne značilnosti in odnos do tujih izdelkov: medstopenjska in medregionalna potrošniška analiza slogov potrošniškega odločanja
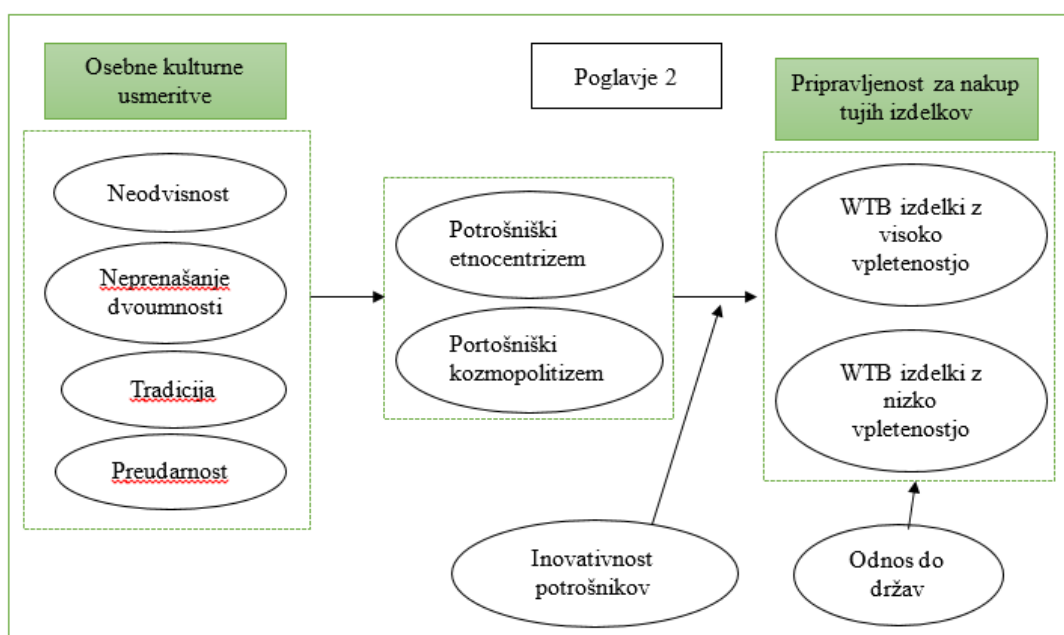
Opombe:WTB= pripravljenost za nakup

Vir: Lastno delo.

Podatki sem zbrala s pomočjo papirnatega vprašalnika z ujemajočimi se vzorci v 9 mestih, ki se nahajajo v treh regijah (3 ravni v vsaki regiji). Vsi konstrukti so bili operacionalizirani s pomočjo uveljavljenih in predhodno preizkušenih merskih lestvic, ki so zajemale: štiri dimenzije osebnih kulturnih značilnosti, merjenih na 5-stopenjski Likertovi lestvici. Vsi ostali konstrukti so bili merjeni na 7-stopenjskih lestvicah Likertovega tipa. Podatke sem naprej predhodno analizirala s pomočjo več skupinske analize invariance, kot tudi s testi metrične invariance z uporabo AMOS 26 za nabore podatkov stopenj in regij. Za nabor podatkov stopenj sta bili vzpostavljeni tako konfiguracijska invariantnost kot popolna metrična invariantnost. Vendar pa je za nabor podatkov regij mogoče konfiguracijske invariance določiti le med vzhodno obalno regijo in severno obalno regijo. Nadalje so bile izmerjene stopnje kompozitne zanesljivosti (AVE), korelacije med konstrukti in diskriminantna veljavnost. Primerjava tehtanih povprečno ocenjenih konstruktov po ravneh in regijah je bila izvedena z enosmernim ANOVA postopkom z večkratnim post-hoc pregledom. Nazadnje sem testirala strukturni model, ki testira vzročne povezave med konstrukti v skladu z konceptualnim modelom na Sliki 2. Glede na primerjavo ravni in

regionalno primerjavo, je bilo zaradi kompleksnosti podatkovnega niza in raziskovalnega okvira vzpostavljenih 8 modelov za mednivojsko primerjavo in ostalih 8 modelov za medregionalno primerjavo.

Rezultati so pokazali, da določene osebne kulturne značilnosti vplivajo na potrošniški etnocentrizem (CET) in potrošniško inovativnost (CIN). Pri našem vzorcu smo ugotovili pomemben pozitiven vpliv osebne kulturne značilnosti »tradicije« na potrošniški etnocentrizem (CET) in pomemben negativen vpliv na kozmopolitanskost potrošnikov (COS). Po drugi strani, pa ima »previdnost« negativen vpliv na potrošniški etnocentrizem (CET), a hkrati pozitiven vpliv na kozmopolitskost potrošnikov (COS). Nadalje so rezultati pokazali, da potrošniški etnocentrizem (CET) negativno vpliva na nakupno namero potrošnikov do tujih izdelkov, negativni vpliv pa je močnejši pri izdelkih z nizko vključenostjo. Kozmopolitskost potrošnikov (COS) nima vpliva na nakupne namere potrošnikov do tujih izdelkov, razen za japonske izdelke z nizko vpletenostjo v nakup, če se Kitajska obravnava kot homogen trg. Če pa kitajski trg pogledamo kot kombinacijo heterogenih segmentov, so rezultati bolj zanimivi. Kozmopolitskost potrošnikov (COS) ima na primer pozitiven vpliv na pripravljenost za nakup tujih izdelkov v mestih drugega reda, medtem ko je v drugih mestih ta vpliv odvisen od države izvora izdelka.

Glede vpliva odnosa potrošnikov do tujih držav na nakupno namero so rezultati precej mešani. Vpliv odnosa do tuje države na kupčevo pozornost izdelkov iz te posamezne države je mešan. Na primer, odnos potrošnikov do Rusije negativno vpliva na pripravljenost za nakup ruskih izdelkov z visoko stopnjo vpletenosti. Toda, odnos potrošnikov do Japonske pozitivno vpliva na pripravljenost za nakup japonskih izdelkov z nizko vpletenostjo. Ta spreminjajoči se (pozitivni) odnos do Japonske in njegov pozitiven vpliv na pripravljenost za nakup japonskih izdelkov je precej drugačen v primerjavi s prejšnjimi študijami (npr. Klein et al., 1998). Odnos potrošnikov do držav Srednje in Vzhodne Evrope pozitivno vpliva na pripravljenost za nakup visoko vključenih izdelkov iz držav Srednje in Vzhodne Evrope. Rezultati ne kažejo nobenega vpliva odnosa do Avstralije na pripravljenost za nakup avstralskih izdelkov.

Z vidika zmerne vloge potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN) v odnosu med potrošniškim etnocentrizmom (CET), kozmopolitskostjo potrošnikov (COS) in nakupno namero do izbranih tujih izdelkov, je zmerna vloga potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN) prisotna v odnosu med etnocentrizmom (CET) in pripravljenostjo za nakup visoko vpletenih tujih izdelkov (glej Tabelo 1).

Tabela 1: Glavni rezultati o razmerju med osebnimi kulturnimi značilnostmi, potrošniškim etnocentrizmom (CET), kozmopolitskostjo potrošnikov (COS), odnosom države in pripravljenostjo za nakup tujih izdelkov ter zmernim učinkom potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN) na razmerje med etnocentrizmom (CET) in kozmopolitskostjo potrošnikov (COS) in pripravljenostjo za nakup tujih izdelkov (se nadaljuje)

Vpliv osebnih kulturnih usmeritev na CET in COS	Rezultati	Opombe
Neodvisnost→CET (-)	Zavrnjeno	
Dvoumnost→CET (+)	Zavrnjeno	
Tradicija→CET (+)	Potrjeno	
Preudarnost→CET (-)	Potrjeno	
Neodvisnost→COS (+)	Zavrnjeno	
Dvoumnost →COS (-)	Zavrnjeno	
Tradicija→COS (-)	Potrjeno	
Preudarnost→COS (+)	Potrjeno	
Vpliv CET/COS na WTB	Rezultati	Opombe
CET→WTB (-)	Potrjeno	L>H
COS→WTB (+)	Zavrnjeno	razen japonskih izdelkov z malo vključenostjo
Vpliv stališč držav na WTB	Rezultati	Opombe
države →WTB (+)	MEŠANO	Negativen vpliv na ruske izdelke z veliko vključenostjo; pozitiven vpliv na japonske izdelke z nizko vključenostjo in pozitiven učinek na izdelke z visoko vpetostjo iz držav srednje in vzhodne Evrope; Na splošno je odnos države do japonskih izdelkov najmočnejši.
Moderatorska vloga CIN pri odnosu med CET/COS in WTB	Rezultati	Opombe
CIN*CET→WTB (-)	Potrjeno (samo za izdelke z veliko vključenostjo)	
CIN*COS→WTB (+)	Zavrnjeno	

Opombe: CET=Potrošniški etnocentrizem, COS=Potrošniški kozmopolitizem, CIN=Inovativnost potrošnikov,

WTB= pripravljenost za nakup

Vir: lastno delo.

Pomemben poudarek drugega deka je tudi mednarodna primerjava značilnosti urbanih kitajskih mladih odraslih potrošnikov, tako z vidika različnih redov mest (npr. mesta prvega, drugega ali tretjega reda), kot tudi z vidika posameznih regij. Kot je prikazano v Tabeli 2, smo lahko na različnih ravneh opazili pomembne razlike v značilnostih mladih odraslih potrošnikov na Kitajskem. Vpliv osebnih kulturnih značilnosti na potrošniški etnocentrizem (CET) in kozmopolitskost potrošnikov (COS) se razlikuje med različnimi nivoji oz. redi

mest. Na primer, pozitiven vpliv neodvisnosti na etnocentrizem (CET) je prisoten le v mestih tretjega reda, medtem ko je pozitiven vpliv nestrpnosti do dvoumnosti na etnocentrizem (CET) prisoten le v mestih prvega reda. Negativni vpliv tradicije na kozmopolitskost potrošnikov (COS) je prisoten samo v mestih drugega reda in mestih prvega reda, ko gre za japonske izdelke. Poleg tega so rezultati pokazali, da bolj kot so mesta gospodarsko razvita, manjšo stopnjo potrošniškega etnocentrizma (CET) kažejo mladi odrasli potrošniki. Vendar pa je negativni vpliv potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN) na nakupovalne namere tujih izdelkov močnejši v bolj razvitih mestih. Poleg tega pa tudi ni razlik na ravni kozmopolitskosti potrošnikov (COS) ne glede na red mesta, a je hkrati vpliv kozmopolitskosti potrošnikov (COS) na nakupno namero do tujih izdelkov stalen le v mestih drugega reda (ne glede na državo izvora izdelkov). Nazadnje so rezultati pokazali večstopenjske razlike v učinku zmerne potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN) na razmerje med etnocentrizmom (CET) oz. kozmopolitskostjo potrošnikov (COS) na pripravljenost kupiti tuje izdelke.

Tabela 2: Glavni rezultati znotrajnacionalbe (medstopenjske in medregionalne) primerjave značilnosti kitajskih mladih odraslih potrošnikov

Razsežnosti medstopenjske primerjave	Rezultati	Opombe
PCO → CET	Potrjeno	Neodvisnost→CET samo pomembna mesta tretjega reda; Nestrpnost do dvoumnosti → pomembno CET v mestih prvega reda; Tradicija→CET najmočnejši vpliv v mestih drugega reda; Preudarnost→CET najmočnejši vpliv v mestih tretjega reda, pomemben v mestih prvega reda le, ko gre za nakup japonskih.
PCO → COS	Potrjeno	Tradicija→COS , pomembna le v mestih drugega reda, za mesta prvega reda pomembna le, ko gre za nakup japonskih izdelkov; Preudarnost→COS, najmočnejši vpliv v mestih tretjega reda.
CET	Potrjeno	Mesta višjega reda, nižja raven CET
CET→WTB	Potrjeno	Vpliv je močnejši v mestih višjega reda
COS	Zavrnjeno	V treh ravneh ni razlik v ravni COS
COS→WTB	Potrjeno	Konstantno v mestih drugega reda; v drugih mestih drugega reda je specifična za državo izvora

(tabela se nadaljuje)

(nadaljevano)

CIN*CET→WTB	Potrjeno	Konstantno v mestih drugega reda za izdelke z visoko vključenostjo, v drugih mestih je pogojeno z državo izvora izdelkov
CIN*C OS→WTB	Potrjeno	Učinek zmernosti deluje samo za japonske izdelke v mestih tretjega reda
Razsežnosti medregionalne primerjave	Rezultati	Opombe
Neodvisnost	Potrjeno	Severna regija ima višjo raven kot vzhodna regija
Tradicijo	Zavrnjeno	V treh regijah ni razlike
Preudarnost	Potrjeno	Vzhodna obala ima nižjo raven kot drugi dve regiji

nestrpnost do dvoumnosti	Zavrnjeno	V treh regijah ni razlike
kozmopolitizem	Potrjeno	Severna regija je bolj svetovljanska kot jugozahodna regija
etnocentrizem	Potrjeno	Severna regija je manj etnocentrična kot vzhodna regija
PCO → CET*	Potrjeno	Tradicija→CET je pomembna le v vzhodni obalni regiji;
PCO → COS*	Potrjeno	Tradicija→COS in Preudarnost→COS sta pomembna le v vzhodni obalni regiji
CET → WTB*	Potrjeno	Vpliv je močnejši v severni obalni regiji
COS → WTB*	Potrjeno	Vpliv je močnejši v vzhodni obalni regiji
CIN*CET → WTB*	Potrjeno	
CIN*COS → WTB*	Potrjeno	V razmerju med COS in WTB ni zmernega učinka CIN

Opomba: CET=Potrošniški etnocentrizem, COS=Potrošniški kozmopolitizem, CIN=Inovativnost potrošnikov, WTB= pripravljenost za nakup, *jugo-zahodna regija je izključena zaradi težav z metrično invariantnostjo

Vir: lastno delo.

Glede na medregionalno primerjavo so rezultati pokazali, da obstajajo značilne medregionalne razlike na ravni neodvisnosti, preudarnosti, etnocentrizma in kozmopolitskosti potrošnikov (COS). Potrošniki iz severne regije kažejo višjo stopnjo neodvisnosti, kot potrošniki iz vzhodne regije, medtem ko potrošniki iz vzhodne regije kažejo nižjo stopnjo neodvisnosti. Potrošniki iz severne regije so bolj svetovljanski od potrošnikov iz jugozahodne regije in so tudi manj etnocentrični od potrošnikov iz vzhodne regije. Poleg tega, so rezultati pokazali medregionalne razlike glede vpliva osebnih kulturnih značilnosti na etnocentrizem (CET) in kozmopolitskost potrošnikov (COS). Pozitiven vpliv tradicije na etnocentrizem (CET) je prisoten le v vzhodni regiji. Prav tako sta negativni vpliv tradicije in pozitiven vpliv preudarnosti na kozmopolitskost potrošnikov (COS) prisotna le v vzhodni regiji. Poleg tega je negativni vpliv etnocentrizma potrošnikov (CET) na pripravljenost potrošnikov za nakup tujih izdelkov močnejši v severni regiji, medtem ko je pozitiven vpliv kozmopolitskosti potrošnikov (COS) na pripravljenost potrošnikov za nakup tujih izdelkov močnejši v vzhodni regiji. Nazadnje so rezultati pokazali tudi regionalne razlike, ko gre za zmerni učinek potrošniške inovativnosti (CIN) na razmerje med etnocentrizmom (CET) in pripravljenostjo za nakup tujih izdelkov. Učinek zmernosti je bil ugotovljen le, ko gre za izdelke iz Avstralije, Rusije in držav Srednje in Vzhodne Evrope.

Glede na teoretične in empirične prispevke, je drug del disertacije preučeval značilnosti mladih odraslih potrošnikov na individualni in subkulturni ravni, kar je obogatilo obstoječo literaturo o teoriji potrošniške kulture (Fischer *et al.*, 2010). Poleg tega, pa je drugi del disertacije s preučevanjem vpliva osebnih kulturnih značilnosti na vedenje potrošnikov (CET in COS) na individualni ravni tudi pomagalo zapolniti vrzel pri preučevanju

11

psihografskih predhodnikov vedenja potrošnikov (Makrides *et al.*, 2021). Nadalje, drugi del disertacije predstavlja tudi prvo študijo, ki jo povezuje osebne kulturne značilnosti s kozmopolitskostjo potrošnikov (COS), kjer sem ugotovila, da je tradicija negativno povezana s COS, preudarnost pa pozitivno povezana s COS. To je razširilo raziskavo Yoo in Donthu (2005) o vplivu osebnih kulturnih značilnosti na vedenje potrošnikov. Glede na razmerje med osebnimi kulturnimi značilnostmi in etnocentrizmom (CET), rezultati drugega dela disertacije niso povsem v skladu z obstoječimi empiričnimi rezultati. Rezultati so na primer ugotovili pozitiven odnos med neodvisnostjo in etnocentrizmom (CET), kar je v nasprotju z ugotovitvami Yoo and Donthu (2005) o odnosu med kolektivizmom in etnocentrizmom (CET). Moja doktorska disertacija je s primerjavo potrošniških značilnosti mladih odraslih na različnih ravneh mest, podprla teorijo o razmerju med stopnjo urbanizacije in modernizacijo mest ter vedenjem potrošnikov (Frank *et al.*, 2014; Han & Nam, 2019). Potrošniki iz bolj razvitih mest izkazujejo na splošno nižje ravni etnocentrizma (CET). Nadalje sem postavila in preizkusila tudi pozitivno korelacijo med stopnjo razvoja gospodarstva in potrošniško inovativnostjo (CIN). Poleg tega, pa različna stopnja gospodarskega razvoja vodi do različnih stopenj vpliva osebnih kulturnih značilnosti na vedenje potrošnikov (CET/COS) in različnih zaporednih vplivov na nakupne namere potrošnikov do tujih izdelkov. Vendar pa je medregionalna primerjava potrošniških značilnosti prinesla potrebo po teoretiziranju razmerja med osebnimi kulturnimi značilnostmi, stopnjo razvoja gospodarstva in vedenjem potrošnikov. Ni dosledno, da imata osebna kultura ali stopnja razvoja gospodarstva odločilno vlogo pri oblikovanju različnih vedenj potrošnikov (npr. CET ali COS) medregionalno.

Nadalje sem v drugem delu disertacije preučevala zaporedni vpliv osebne kulturne usmerjenosti na nakupno namero potrošnika do izdelkov iz izbranih štirih držav/regij prek CET/COS. V skladu z obstoječimi študijami, smo ugotovili negativno povezavo med CET in pripravljenostjo potrošnikov za nakup tujih izdelkov (Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015). Vendar pa so v nasprotju z Wong *et al.* (2008), naši empirični rezultati pokazali tudi negativno korelacijo med CET in nakupno namero do visoko vpletenih izdelkov. To je predlog za prihodnje delo pri raziskovanju razmerja med CET in namenom nakupa domensko specifičnih izdelkov. Ta študija podpira tudi teorijo Watson and Wright (2000), o nakupni preferenci etnocentričnih potrošnikov v kulturnih/psihičnih bližjih državah. To prispeva k teoriji družbene identitete (Tajfel, 1982) v potrošniškem vedenju, da etnocentrični potrošniki iz gospodarsko razvitih mest, vidijo izdelke iz kulturno/psihično oddaljenih držav, kot večjo grožnjo (zunanjo skupino) domačemu gospodarstvu, kot izdelke iz kulturno/psihično bližnjih držav. Ta raziskava je pokazala, da je država slab zastopnik, ko gre za preizkušanje razmerja med COS in nakupnimi namerami potrošnika. To je v skladu s Taras *et al.* (2016)

argumentacijo, da je država slab predstavnik za merjenje kulture. V tej doktorski disertaciji, je povezava med COS in nakupno namero mladih odraslih potrošnikov, najdena le v mestih drugega reda ali v vzhodni obalni regiji.

Ta doktorska disertacija, s preučevanjem vpliva stališč potrošnikov, do določene države na njihov nakupovalni namen izdelkov iz te države, prispeva k literaturi o socialni psihologiji v potrošniških študijah (Myers & Twenge, 2019). Spreminjajoči se odnos mladih odraslih potrošnikov do Japonske in njegov zaporedni pozitiven vpliv na nakupno namero kažejo, da je kognitivni odnos potrošnika do države, pomemben pri vplivanju na njihovo nakupno namero na izdelke iz te države. Poleg tega, spremenjeni odnosi vodijo do spreminjanja vedenja potrošnikov. Nadalje je drugi del obravnavalo moderacijsko vlogo CIN-a, razmerje med CET/COS in pripravljenostjo za nakup tujih izdelkov s socialno-psihološkega vidika, kar je obogatilo obstoječo literaturo o študijah vedenja potrošnikov (Terasaki, 2016).

V smislu vodstvenih implikacij, so rezultati v drugem delu pokazali, da bi lahko CET in CIN služila kot ustrezni značilnosti vedenja potrošnikov pri segmentiranju mladih in odraslih potrošnikov na kitajskem trgu. Glede na to, da kitajski mladi odrasli potrošniki na splošno kažejo nizko raven CET in relativno visoko raven na CIN, morajo mednarodni tržniki namenoma poudarjati značilnost novosti in ustvarjalnosti izdelkov. CET je negativno povezan s pripravljenostjo potrošnikov za nakup tujih izdelkov. Glede na to, da CIN negativno vpliva na razmerje med CET in pripravljenostjo za nakup tujih izdelkov, bi lahko za etnocentrične potrošnike, mednarodni tržniki poudarili kreativne lastnosti izdelkov, da bi omilili negativni vpliv CET, na njihovo nakupno namero do tujih izdelkov. Poleg tega je drugi del, s primerjavo značilnosti potrošnikov po ravneh in regijah razkrilo, da bi upoštevanje Kitajske, kot homogenega trga, vodilo do tržnega neuspeha in neuspeha pri vstopu, saj mladi odrasli potrošniki kažejo različne značilnosti v različnih mestih in medregionalno. Primerjava med nivoji je nakazovala, da so mesta z višjimi stopnjami (mesta prvega in drugega reda) pravi trgi za mednarodna podjetja, ki lansirajo nove blagovne znamke in izdelke, glede na to, da so mladi odrasli potrošniki iz mest z višjimi stopnjami, manj etnocentrični in bolj inovativni. Vendar pa se za etnocentrične potrošnike v mestih z višjimi stopnjami, mednarodni trgi izogibajo poudarjanju tujega porekla izdelkov, zlasti izdelkov z nizko vključenostjo, saj je vpliv CET na nakupno namero potrošnika, močnejši v mestih z višjimi stopnjami za izdelke z nizko vključenostjo. Poleg tega so rezultati medstopenjske primerjave nakazovali, da bi bila mesta drugega reda, najprimernejši trg za vstop z na novimi izdelki, saj prvič COS spodbuja samo potrošnikovo namero za nakup tujih izdelkov v mestih drugega reda, drugič pa CIN tudi blaži negativni vpliv CET o nameri potrošnika za nakup tujih izdelkov. Medregionalna primerjava značilnosti potrošnikov

mladih in odraslih je pokazala, da bi regija lahko služila kot ustrezna tržna meja za mednarodne tržnike, ko vstopijo na kitajski trg. V severni obalni regiji, morajo mednarodni tržniki namerno manj poudarjati tuje poreklo izdelkov z nizko vpletenostjo, pri trženju etnocentričnim potrošnikom, zlasti če so izdelki z nizko vpletenostjo iz psihično oddaljenih držav. Vendar bi bilo v vzhodni obalni regiji priporočljivo promovirati simbolne svetovljanske lastnosti izdelkov, saj COS pozitivno vpliva na nakupno namero potrošnika le v vzhodni obalni regiji.

Skratka, mladi odrasli potrošniki postajajo glavna sila, ki prispeva k rasti prihodnjega gospodarstva. So tudi ključni segment za mednarodne tržnike, vendar glede na antiglobalizacijo, v obstoječi literaturi ni veliko raziskanih značilnosti mladih odraslih potrošnikov. Zato ta doktorska disertacija na splošno prispeva k socialno-psihološki literaturi o mladih odraslih potrošnikih iz držav v vzponu v mednarodnem trženju. Še več, s preučevanjem globalne, lokalne, globalne in izolirane identitete mladega odraslega potrošnika, ta disertacija prispeva k literaturi o identiteti mladega odraslega potrošnika (Bartsch *et al.*, 2016). Nadalje, s primerjavo značilnosti kitajskih potrošnikov mladih odraslih, tako z mednarodnega, kot znotrajnacionalnega vidika, ta disertacija empirično prispeva k Douglas and Craig (2011).

Doktorska disertacija, obravnava značilnosti kitajskih mladih in odraslih potrošnikov, tako z mednarodnega kot znotrajnacionalnega vidika. Glede na mednarodno primerjavo, je ta doktorska disertacija ugotovila, da specifični CDMS določajo inovativnost potrošnikov (npr. zavest o blagovni znamki, izkoriščenost informacij) in se razlikujejo med regijami (vzhodna Azija in vzhodna Evropa). Poleg tega so medregionalne razlike bolj izrazite, kot znotrajregionalne razlike (med državami). To kaže, da tako imenovano »globalno državljanstvo« mladih odraslih še ni v celoti doseženo, bolj si delijo glokalno identiteto, kar daje mednarodnim tržnikom posledice na polglobalne trženjske strategije pri ciljanju na segment mladih odraslih potrošnikov (Douglas & Craig, 2011).

V zvezi z internacionalno primerjavo je ta doktorska disertacija potrdila Frank *et al.* (2014), ki meni da bi upoštevanje Kitajske, kot homogenega trga vodilo do tržne nepopolnosti. Obstajajo pomembne medstopenjske in medregionalne razlike v značilnostih potrošnikov. Poleg tega, nekatere osebne kulturne usmeritve vplivajo na vedenje potrošnikov (CET in COS). Vzročne zveze med osebnimi kulturnimi usmeritvami in vedenjem potrošnikov je treba obravnavati tako, da Kitajsko vzamemo kot kombinacijo heterogenih trgov, bodisi z večstopenjskega ali medregionalnega vidika. Poleg tega odnosi med CET/COS in pripravljenostjo za nakup tujih izdelkov kažejo tudi izrazite medstopenjske in medregionalne razlike. Na primer, negativni vpliv CET na pripravljenost za nakup tujih izdelkov, je

močnejši v mestih z višjimi stopnjami in tudi v severni obalni regiji. Takšen negativni vpliv je močnejši tudi, če so izdelki iz kulturno/psihično oddaljenih držav (Rusija in države CEE). Nenazadnje, je ta doktorska disertacija prinesla pomen preučevanju razmerja med odnosom potrošnika do tuje države in namenom nakupa izdelkov iz te države. Tuji izdelki ne izražajo le njegove funkcionalne značilnosti, temveč tudi stališča potrošnikov do države izvora. Kitajski mladi odrasli potrošniki, imajo do izbranih držav različno stališče (npr. odnos do Rusije je drugačen od Japonske), kar vpliva na njihovo nakupno namero do izdelkov iz te države. Izjema pa je bil vpliv odnosa do Avstralije na njihovo nakupno namero do avstralskih izdelkov. Omeniti velja, da kitajski mladi odrasli potrošniki spreminjajo svoj odnos do Japonske v primerjavi s starejšo generacijo, ki so jo preučevali v Klein *et al.* (1998) raziskave.

Appendix 2: Comparison of GLOBE cultural dimensions between China, Japan and Slovenia and Hofestede culture dimensions between Slovenia and Croatia

Comparison of GLOBE cultural dimensions between China, Japan and Slovenia

		China	Japan	Slovenia
Performance orientation	Practice score	4.45	4.22	3.66
	Value score	5.67	5.17	6.41
Assertiveness	Practice score	3.76	3.59	4
	Value score	5.44	5.56	4.59
Future orientation	Practice score	3.75	4.29	3.59
	Value score	4.73	5.25	5.42
Humane orientation	Practice score	4.36	4.3	3.79
	Value score	5.32	5.41	5.25
Institutional collectivism	Practice score	4.77	5.19	4.13
	Value score	4.56	3.99	4.38
In-group collectivism	Practice score	5.8	4.63	5.43
	Value score	5.09	5.26	5.71
Gender egalitarianism	Practice score	3.05	3.19	3.96
	Value score	3.68	4.33	4.83
Power distance	Practice score	5.04	5.11	5.33
	Value score	3.1	2.86	2.57
Uncertainty avoidance	Practice score	4.94	4.07	3.78
	Value score	5.28	4.33	4.99

Source: aggregated from globeproject.com.

Comparison of Hofestede culture dimensions between Slovenian and Croatia

	Slovenia	Croatia
Power distance	73	71
Individualism	33	27
Masculinity	40	19
Uncertainty avoidance	80	88
Long term orientation	58	49
Indulgence	33	48

Source: aggregated from Hofstede-insights.com.

Appendix 3: Comparison of economic indicators between China, Japan, Slovenia and Croatia

	GNP per capita	Human development index	Corruption index
China	11,887 USD	0.761	45
Japan	42,623	0.919	73
Croatia	17,152	0.851	47
Slovenia	28,238	0.917	57

Source: The data of GNP is aggregated from the world bank, the Human development index is obtained from the Human development report 2020, and the corruption index is sourced from transparancy.org

Appendix 4: Omitted items due to invariance issues and factor analyses results in Chapter 1

	Slovenia	Croatia	China	Japan
Consumer innovativeness				
If I like a brand, I rarely switch from it just to try something new.	0.697	0.815	0.769	0.601
I would rather stick with a brand I usually buy than try something I am not very sure of.	0.829	0.866	0.821	0.724
I think of myself as a brand-loyal consumer.	0.802	0.805	0.760	0.270
I am very cautious in trying new and different products.	0.670	0.739	0.829	0.664
When I go to a restaurant, I feel it is safer to order dishes I am familiar with.	0.590	0.526	0.719	0.633
I rarely buy brands about which I am uncertain how they will perform.	0.704	0.722	0.763	0.684
*When I see a new brand on the shelf, I am not afraid of giving it a try.**	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
Consumer ethnocentrism				
*Only those products unavailable in [country] should be imported.**	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
*[Country] products: first, last, and foremost!**	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
Purchasing foreign-made products is anti-[country].	0.825	0.790	0.834	0.790
It is not right to purchase foreign-made products, because it puts [country] people out of jobs.	0.903	0.847	0.910	0.886
A real [country] should always buy [country] products.	0.894	0.829	0.871	0.863
We should purchase products manufactured in [country] instead of letting other countries get rich from us.	0.853	0.821	0.851	0.847
[Country] should not buy foreign products, because this hurts [country] business and causes unemployment.	0.884	0.877	0.921	0.893
It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to buy [country]-made products.	0.721	0.651	0.701	0.620
[Country] consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow [country] people out of work.	0.783	0.803	0.895	0.822

(table continues)

Consumer ethnocentrism				
We should buy from foreign countries only those products which we cannot obtain within our own country.	0.722	0.697	0.798	0.797
Brand consciousness				
Highly advertised brands are usually very good.	0.787	0.708	0.730	0.798
A brand recommended in a consumer magazine is an excellent choice for me.	0.761	0.748	0.738	0.825
The most well-known national brands are the best for me.	0.519	0.610	0.839	0.720
The more recognizable the brand, the better the quality of the product.	0.781	0.792	0.776	0.771
I usually compare advertisements when buying fashionable products.*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
Expensive brands are usually the best.	0.607	0.625	0.687	0.517
All brands are the same in overall quality.*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
I usually choose the most expensive brands.*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
Quality consciousness				
My standards and expectations for products I buy are very high.	0.794	0.729	0.839	0.749
I make a special effort to choose high quality products.	0.846	0.801	0.832	0.749
I usually buy well-known, national, or designer brands.	0.782	0.668	0.595	0.567
When it comes to purchasing products, I try to get the very best or perfect choice.	0.638	0.692	0.754	0.645
It is fun to buy something new and exciting.*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
I should plan my shopping more carefully than I do.*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
I buy high quality products, since they last longer.	0.738	0.640	0.716	0.600
I accept that top quality products are much more expensive than regular quality products.*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
Price consciousness				
I carefully watch how much money I spend.	0.607	0.604	0.789	0.674
I consider price first, when making purchases.	0.784	0.772	0.793	0.781
I usually chose lower price products.	0.605	0.712	0.746	0.726
I usually compare at least three brands before choosing.	0.622	0.702	0.588	0.216
The most expensive brands are usually my preferred choice.*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
I always make my purchases by comparing the price to the quality of the product.*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
I am prone to buying items on sale or in special deals.	0.645	0.689	0.754	0.416
I take part in loyalty programs to get discounts and special deals.*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
Information utilization				
All the information I get on different products confuses me.	0.722	0.684	0.849	0.798
There are too many brands to choose from so I often feel confused.	0.859	0.903	0.876	0.859
Sometimes it's hard to choose at which stores to shop.	0.745	0.806	0.813	0.783
I often make careless purchases that I later regret.	0.649	0.661	0.646	0.590

(table continues)

(continued)

Information utilization				
*I like to gather as much information about a new/unfamiliar product before buying it.**	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
*I get most of the information about products online.**	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*
*I like to consult with friends and family before purchasing a product.**	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*	N/A*

Note: * Denotes items that have been omitted due to invariance issues and were not included in factor analysis.

Source: Own work.

Appendix 5: Composite variable pair-wise correlation coefficients for each country sample in Chapter 1

Slovenia						
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
1-Consumer innovativeness	*0.720*					
2-Consumer ethnocentrism	0.184	*0.849*				
3-Brand consciousness	0.154	0.203	*0.699*			
4-Quality consciousness	0.272	0.115	0.117	*0.763*		
5-Price consciousness	0.091	0.026	0.094	-0.188	*0.656*	
6-Information utilization	0.247	0.182	0.213	0.041	0.095	*0.748*
Croatia						
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
1-Consumer innovativeness	*0.746*					
2-Consumer ethnocentrism	0.025	*0.792*				
3-Brand consciousness	0.103	0.066	*0.700*			
4-Quality consciousness	0.209	-0.131	0.283	*0.709*		
5-Price consciousness	0.001	0.019	-0.119	-0.114	*0.698*	
6-Information utilization	0.176	0.139	-0.095	-0.127	0.153	*0.769*
China						
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
1-Consumer innovativeness	*0.778*					
2-Consumer ethnocentrism	-0.109	*0.851*				
3-Brand consciousness	0.194	0.036	*0.756*			
4-Quality consciousness	0.457	-0.119	0.388	*0.752*		
5-Price consciousness	0.416	-0.001	0.305	0.241	*0.738*	
6-Information utilization	0.373	-0.001	0.212	0.242	0.396	*0.801*
Japan						
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
1-Consumer innovativeness	*0.615*					
2-Consumer ethnocentrism	0.078	*0.819*				
3-Brand consciousness	0.107	0.005	*0.735*			
4-Quality consciousness	0.183	-0.153	0.249	*0.666*		
5-Price consciousness	0.291	0.063	0.112	0.192	*0.602*	
6-Information utilization	0.327	0.091	0.244	0.143	0.149	*0.764*

Note: Square roots of Average Variance Extracted (AVE) on the diagonal.

Source: Own work.

Appendix 6: Measurement scales with omitted items due to measurement equivalance and configural invariance issues in Chapter 2

Personal cultural Orientations (Sharma, 2009) 5-Likert scale

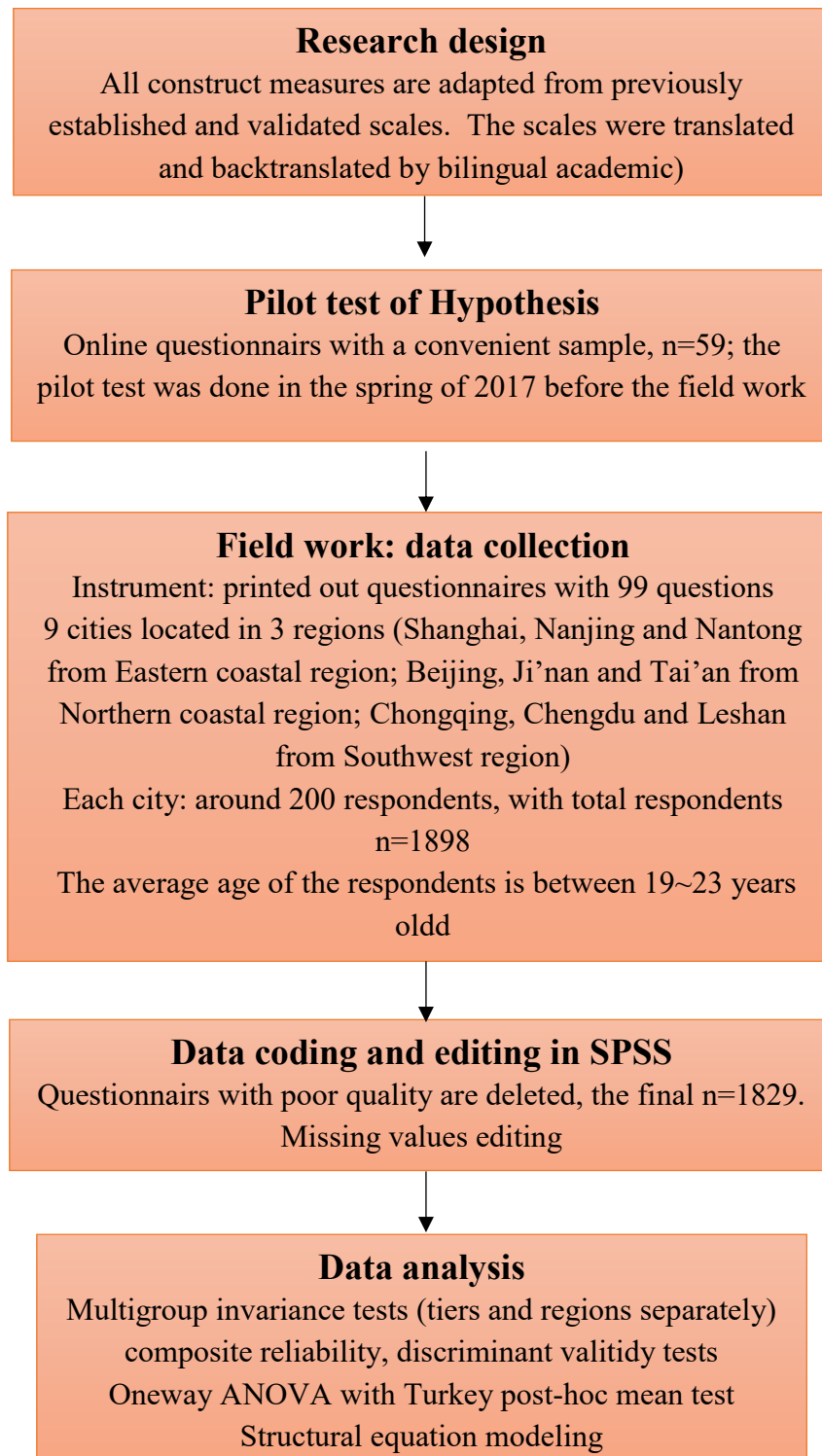| |
|---|
| **Independence** |
| 1.I would rather depend on myself than others. |
| 2.My personal identity, independent of others, is important to me. |
| 3.I rely on myself most of the time, rarely on others. |
| ~~4. It is important that I do my job better than others.*~~ |
| ~~5. I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.*~~ |
| ~~6. I often do "my own thing".*~~ |
| **Ambiguity intolerance** |
| ~~1.I find it difficult to function without clear directions and instructions.*~~ |
| 2.I prefer specific instructions to broad guidelines. |
| 3.I tend to get anxious easily when I don't know an outcome. |
| 4.I feel stressful when I cannot predict consequences. |
| ~~5.I feel safe when I am in my familiar surroundings.*~~ |
| 6.I get confused easily when dealing with complex problems. |
| **Tradition** |
| ~~1.I am proud of my culture.*~~ |
| 2.Respect for tradition is important for me. |
| ~~3.I value a strong link to my past. *~~ |
| 4.Tradition values are important for me. |
| 5.I care a lot about my family history. |
| 6.I always protect my family heritage |
| **Prudence** |
| 1.I believe in planning for the long term |
| 2.I work hard for success in the future |
| 3.I am willing to give up today's fun for success in the future |
| 4.I do not give up easily even if I do not succeed on my first attempt |
| 5.I plan everything carefully |
| 6.I consider many alternatives before making any decision |
| **Consumer Cosmopolitanism** (Riefler *et al.*, 2012) 7-Likert scale |
| **Open mindedness** |
| 1.When travelling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions. |
| 2.I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries. |
| 3.I like to have contact with people from different cultures. |
| 4.I have got a real interest in other countries. |
| **Diversity appreciation** |
| 1.Having access to products coming from many different countries is valuable to me. |
| 2.The availability of foreign products in the domestic market provides valuable diversity (to consumers). |
| 3.I enjoy being offered a wide range of products coming from various countries. |
| 4.Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time. |

(table continues)

Consumption transcending borders
1.I like watching movies from different countries.
2.I like listening to music of other cultures.
3.I like trying original dishes from other countries.
4.I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world.

Consumer innovativeness (Steenkamp *et al.*, 1999) 7-Likert scale
1.If I like a brand, I rarely switch from it just to try something new.
2.I would rather stick with a brand I usually buy than try something I am not very sure of.
3.I think of myself as a brand-loyal consumer.
4.I am very cautious in trying new and different products. *
5.When I go to a restaurant, I feel it is safer to order dishes I am familiar with. *
6.I rarely buy brands about which I am uncertain how they will perform. *

Consumer Ethnocentrism (Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015) 7-Likert scale
1.Chinese people should not buy foreign products; this hurts domestic business and causes unemployment.
2.It is not right to purchase foreign products, because this puts Chinese people out of jobs.
3.A real Chinese should always buy domestic products.
4.I always prefer domestic products over foreign ones.*
5.We should purchase products manufactured in China, instead of letting other countries get rich off us.

Willingness to buy….. (Klein *et al.*, 1998)   7-Likert scale
1. The extent that I would feel guilty if i bought a fridge/shower gel from……is……   (R)
2. The likelihood that i will a buy an/a…..fridge/shower gel is……
3. If two fridges were equal in quality, but one was from…… and one was from China, the likelihood i would pay 10% more for the fridge from China is … (R)

Attitudes towards other countries (Zeugner-Roth *et al.*, 2015) 7-Likert scale
1. The extent i like……is……
2. The extent that I see…… are/is respected internationally is…
3. The extent that I believe…… is a successful region/country is…
4. The extent that I see…… as a friendly region/country is…

Notes: R stands for the items that were reversed coded in the analysis. Items with strikethrough lines are deleted due to the multi-group measurement equivalence issues.

Source: Own work.

Appendix 7: Flow chart and table of methodology of Chapter 2

Flow chat of methodology applied in Chapter 2

Research design
All construct measures are adapted from previously established and validated scales. The scales were translated and backtranslated by bilingual academic)

↓

Pilot test of Hypothesis
Online questionnairs with a convenient sample, n=59; the pilot test was done in the spring of 2017 before the field work

↓

Field work: data collection
Instrument: printed out questionnaires with 99 questions
9 cities located in 3 regions (Shanghai, Nanjing and Nantong from Eastern coastal region; Beijing, Ji'nan and Tai'an from Northern coastal region; Chongqing, Chengdu and Leshan from Southwest region)
Each city: around 200 respondents, with total respondents n=1898
The average age of the respondents is between 19~23 years oldd

↓

Data coding and editing in SPSS
Questionnairs with poor quality are deleted, the final n=1829. Missing values editing

↓

Data analysis
Multigroup invariance tests (tiers and regions separately) composite reliability, discriminant valitidy tests
Oneway ANOVA with Turkey post-hoc mean test
Structural equation modeling

Source: Own work.

Table of the methodology steps and results of Chapter 2

Operationalization activities	Results
Multi-group measurement invariance test for tiers	Configural invariance, full metric invariance and structural covariance invariance was established across all three tiers
Multi-group measurement invariance test for regions	Configural invariance and *partial* metric invariance was established were established for purchasing ***Russian products***; Configural invariance and *full* metric invariance can be established between Eastern Coastal region and Northern coastal region.
Composite reliability test	"Affective attitudes towards foreign countries" was *deleted* due to low AVE value (0.36)
Discriminant validity test	All AVEs exceeded the squared correlations between the constructs
One-way ANOVA test	Results could be referred to Table 15 (tiers) and Table 20 (Region)
Structural Equation modeling	*Due to the complexity of the model, there have been 8 models for cross-tier comparison and 8 models for inter-regional comparison

Source: own work.