

UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA
FACULTY OF ECONOMICS

MASTER'S THESIS

**CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM AND ITS EFFECTS ON THE
FRENCH BUYING BEHAVIOUR**

Ljubljana, May 2015

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INTRODUCTION

During current globalisation process and dismissal of trade barriers as a part of trade liberalisation, many companies became interested in foreign markets. Many firms entered new markets with new brands, while they also came across large number of domestic products. Through this process, consumers gained access to a variety of products, and the competition in markets rose up considerably (Jain & Jain, 2013). Many companies faced a challenge of gaining consumer acceptance.

The phenomena of increasing globalization, stimulated researchers to explore its influence on consumers' buying behaviour. Researchers found that globalisation and internationalisation process affects consumer attitudes in different ways. On one side, uniformity of products and services exists there, due to the effects of globalisation. The uniformity influences consumer demand in a way that it becomes more homogenous across countries (Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004). On the other side, due to fear of losing national identity, ethnicity and nationalism remain strong motivations in the market (Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller, & Melewar, 2001).

International marketing literature devoted a great interest in understanding of consumers' attitudes toward foreign products and how these attitudes in turn affect consumer behaviour and purchase decisions (Luque-Martínez, Ibáñez-Zapata, & Barrio-García, 2000). In this context, consumer ethnocentrism has been examined as one of influential and persistent non-tariff trade barriers (Shankarmahesh, 2006) which despite the openness of trade policies exist in a form of protectionism and therefore complicate the consumer acceptance of products and success of doing business in foreign markets. Kucukemiroglu (1999) stated that, along with increased nationalism and a heavy emphasis on cultural and ethnic identity, the construct of consumer ethnocentrism is a powerful force in the global business environment.

The concept of consumer ethnocentrism has been around for a significant amount of time and has been described as a positive attitude toward the domestic country, which questions the appropriateness and morality of purchasing foreign made products (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Even when foreign products are superior in quality or price to domestic products, some consumers still desire to purchase domestically. Ethnocentric consumers believe that purchasing imported products harms the domestic economy, causes unemployment and is unpatriotic.

For measuring consumer ethnocentric tendencies, the authors Shimp and Sharma (1987) developed a Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies Scale (hereinafter: CETSCALE). Ethnocentric consumers show clear preferences for domestic products and are very difficult to persuade to buy products from foreign countries (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Thus, the consumer ethnocentrism concept plays an important role for international marketers. CETSCALE is useful tool when entering international markets since it indicates a level of consumer ethnocentric tendencies and thus helps to predict consumer purchasing behaviour.

In this master's thesis, we examine effects of consumer ethnocentrism in France. It is important to point out that consumer ethnocentrism is a global phenomenon; however it differentiates in intercultural and international environments in terms of its intensity and expression. Two previous studies (Javalgi, Khare & Gross, 2005; Clarke, Shankarmahesh, & Ford, 2001) measured consumer ethnocentrism in France. Both studies found French consumers not to be overly ethnocentric in comparison to other nations studied. Further, consumer ethnocentrism concept is affected by various antecedents and in turn produces various outcomes.

Thus the main **research problem** is to investigate the level of consumer ethnocentrism of French consumers with the respect to chosen antecedents, and the effects that these factors together with consumer ethnocentrism have on domestic consumption and reluctance to buy foreign products in the fast moving consumer goods sector.

The **purpose** of this master's thesis is three-fold. Firstly, we will examine existing literature of consumer ethnocentrism, its relationship with antecedents and its impact on domestic consumption and reluctance to buy foreign products. Secondly, we will develop a conceptual model and based on empirical, survey-based study provide a deeper understanding of consumer ethnocentrism in France. Finally, we will provide managerial recommendations, based on our findings. More specifically, our **objectives** are as follows:

1. To review the extant literature and provide a critical literature overview of consumer ethnocentrism.
2. To determine the level of ethnocentric tendencies among French consumers.
3. To examine the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on attitudes toward domestic products and subsequently on the domestic consumption.
4. To empirically test whether consumer ethnocentrism has an impact on French's reluctance to buy foreign products.
5. To quantify the impact of socio-psychological antecedents on consumer ethnocentric tendencies in France.
6. To examine the effects of demographic characteristics on ethnocentric feelings.
7. To identify the practical implications for marketing and international business managers.

There are two types of information available, namely primary data and secondary data. Primary data are collected to address the objectives of a specific project, while secondary data are data previously collected for some studies, other than the one at hand (Zikmund, 2003). This master's thesis begins with examination of **secondary data**, where we review the existing literature, summarize and compare the main findings and provide an insight into the constructs studied. After examination of secondary data, we proceed with method of **primary data** collection, an online questionnaire. After the data is gathered, we continue with a statistical analysis.

The master's thesis is organized as follows. In **first chapter**, we provide a detailed literature review of studied constructs. We begin with concept and definition of consumer ethnocentrism, and summarize its antecedents, mediators, moderators, and consequences. Further, we focus on the three chosen antecedents, namely cosmopolitanism, patriotism and collectivism/individualism that are described in details and tested in the empirical part of the thesis. We then focus our attention on measurement of consumer ethnocentric tendencies and provide a chronological overview of empirical consumer ethnocentrism studies. Furthermore, we investigate the significance of consumer ethnocentrism for marketing practice. The theoretical part is concluded with summary of consumer ethnocentrism studies done in Western European countries, and specifically in France.

The **second chapter** is devoted to empirical research of the previously mentioned constructs, which enables us to gain a deeper understanding of the issues studied. Based on the literature review, we present the conceptual model and research hypotheses. Further, we describe methodological aspects of the research.

The **third chapter** deals with results gathered from empirical research. We start with description of characteristic of a sample, further continue with statistical analysis of gathered data and conclude with an overview of hypotheses testing results.

In the last, **fourth chapter**, a detailed interpretation of findings and managerial implications are discussed. Finally, we conclude with contributions and limitations of our master's thesis and suggest avenues for future research.

1 LITERATURE REVIEW

The first chapter presents a review of existing literature and provides a theoretical framework for better understanding of consumer ethnocentrism. Firstly, the concept and definition of consumer ethnocentrism are presented. Since the literature suggests that all consumers do not tend to be equally ethnocentric, a general overview of antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism is analysed next. Three antecedents, namely, cosmopolitanism, patriotism and collectivism are described in more details. Following the antecedents, we turn attention to the measurement of consumer ethnocentrism with consumer ethnocentric tendencies scale. Next, we discuss the role of consumer ethnocentrism, which marketers need to understand in the present competitive markets. The chapter is concluded with description of consumer ethnocentrism in Western Europe and specifically in France.

1.1 Concept and definition of consumer ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism is a word composed of two terms "ethnic" (which means group) and "centrism" (which means focused), (Usunier & Lee, 2005). The term **consumer ethnocentrism** is adapted from general concept of **ethnocentrism** which was introduced by

Sumner in 1906 (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280) who defined it as a “view of things in which one’s own group is the centre of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it”. The author further described it as often leading to vanity, pride and superiority of one’s group and contempt of outsiders. Kwak, Jaju, and Larsen (2006, p. 368) pointed out that an ethnocentric individual strongly supports the traditions, symbols, icons, and products of one’s own culture while simultaneously contempt the traditions, symbols, icons, and products of other cultures.

Ethnocentrism was originally conceptualized as sociological concept, which distinguished between in-groups (groups with which an individual can identify) and out-groups. The concept was later recognized as psychosocial construct, relevant at both individual and social or cultural levels (LeVine & Campbell, 1972). In general, the concept of ethnocentrism refers to tendency of people who look at one’s own group as focal group and differentiate among other social groups from the perspective of their own group (Jain & Jain, 2013, p. 3). Ethnocentric persons consider their own way of life as superior in comparison to other groups, reject persons who are culturally dissimilar to them, and consequently view other groups as inferior (Sharma, Shimp & Shin, 1995). When described attitude happens in activities related to consumption, it is called consumer ethnocentrism (Jain & Jain, 2013). Jimenez-Guerrero, Gazquez-Abad and Linares-Aguera (2014) state that Shimp and Sharma (1987) proposed and developed the economic version of consumer ethnocentrism concept, with an aim to analyse the emotional implications that consumers expressed when they were buying foreign products, especially in situations where domestic economy was poor.

Shimp and Sharma (1987, p. 280) defined consumer ethnocentrism as “the belief held by consumers about the appropriateness, morality of purchasing foreign-made products” and introduced the concept to marketing literature. Ethnocentric consumers will evaluate their own country’s products differently than those manufactured in other countries (Huddleston, Good & Stoel, 2000). By examining the concept more specifically, we can see that its characteristics consist first of a concern and fear of economically harming one’s country by buying foreign products, secondly of unwillingness to purchase foreign products and lastly, of a prejudices against imports (Sharma et al., 1995, p. 27).

Ethnocentric consumers believe that it is wrong to purchase foreign products as it hurts domestic economy, causes unemployment and is unpatriotic. The consequences of consumer ethnocentrism include (1) an overestimation of the quality and value of domestic products or underestimation of imports, (2) a moral obligation to buy domestic products, and (3) an intense preference for domestic products (Sharma et al., 1995, p. 27). More particularly, ethnocentric consumers emphasise positive aspects of products coming from their own country (Jain & Jain, 2013, p. 2).

Highly ethnocentric consumers buy local products, even if they know that the foreign country is known for developing high quality products. In addition, domestic products are viewed as superior, while foreign products become evaluated negatively and its purchases get

discouraged (Auruskeviciene, Vianelli & Reardon, 2012, p. 23). Non-ethnocentric consumers, however, evaluate products based on their objective attributes, without considerations of country of origin of product (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280). The above-explained consequences are further affected by intermediate variables, which are the perceived economic threat, cultural affinities and perceived need for the product.

The concept of consumer ethnocentrism is a complex construct, involving cognitive, affective and normative orientations toward foreign made products (Shimp, 1984). Cognitive aspects are identified through perception of superiority of domestic products and inferiority of foreign products (i.e. believing that products from domestic country are better) (Sharma et al., 1987). Next, the affective dimension talks about emotions as a key role when evaluating and purchasing products (e.g. a positive affective reaction toward domestic products' value, quality, etc.). Lastly, a normative dimension considers appropriateness of purchasing products manufactured in one's own country and it questions what consumers should do with respect to their consumption practices in order to prevent adverse effects on domestic employment and the economic welfare of their country (Vida & Reardon, 2008).

Consumer ethnocentrism can also be defined as a personality trait that can affect attitudes, intentions, preferences and purchase behaviour when choices of domestic versus imported products and services are in question (Lindquist, Vida, Plank & Fairhurst, 2001). Two features suggest that consumer ethnocentrism is another element of a personality system – attitude, rather than a personality trait. First, the phenomenon is subject to constant changes, coming from external environment (Shimp et al., 1995). At the individual consumer level, ethnocentric tendencies are determined through socialization process. Even though the family unit plays a role of a primary socialization agent, peers and mass media also influence an ethnocentric orientation in the period of early childhood socialization (Shimp, 1984). Once this orientation is formed it is usually carried into adulthood, possibly with a few changes coming from the influence of socioeconomic, demographic, geographic, and regional economic factors, which play a role in accentuating ethnocentric tendencies during adulthood (Sharma & Shimp, 1987). Secondly, consumer ethnocentrism might be conceived of as an attitude because it evokes responses which focus on external objects (e.g. domestic products, domestic economy, etc.) rather than on the individual herself (Shimp & Sharma, 1987).

Despite of all written above, consumers ethnocentric tendencies are not always indicated in such a “radical” manner. In cases where the perception of the product is connected to a good country image (e.g. level of industrialization or economic development), ethnocentric consumer will still regard certain domestic products as superior, but at the same time, foreign product will be evaluated positively. Additionally, Sharma et al. (1995) state that the concept of ethnocentrism cannot be generalised on all brands and product categories equally. In case of generic products, the previous research shown that the more ethnocentric is consumer, the stronger will be the preference for domestic products and weaker for foreign products (Netemeyer, Durvasula & Lichtenstein, 1991; Sharma et al., 1995).

When dealing with particular brands, the conclusions are not unambiguous. Some authors (e.g. Nijssen & Douglas, 2004) argue that ethnocentric tendencies exist even if local brands are not available, while others conclude that a positive relationship between ethnocentric tendencies and purchase of domestic products exists, however there is nearly no relationship when it comes to foreign brands (Li & He, 2013).

Current studies in the field of consumer ethnocentrism provide a theoretical framework for empirical investigations (Kreckova, Odehnalova & Reardon, 2012, p. 272). After Shimp and Sharma's (1987) first empirical research about consumer ethnocentrism in the U.S., researchers in a number of developed countries outside the U.S. (Japan, France, Australia, etc.) applied the concept. With increasing globalization, development and emerging of new markets, and diverse consumer attitudes towards other countries, the impact of consumers' ethnocentrism became interesting also for other countries.

For example, past research shows that the concept of ethnocentrism is applicable also in developing countries (e.g. India, Russia and China) (Kreckova et al., 2012, p. 272). Some studies (e.g. Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004), conducted in developing countries have confirmed the existence of low ethnocentric tendencies of consumers or favouring of foreign products.

There is a substantial body of research dedicated to consumers' evaluation of products based on the country of origin. Shimp and Sharma (1987) argued that the concept of consumer ethnocentrism contributes to a better understanding of the country of origin studies, as the country-of-origin perceptions can influence the effect of consumer ethnocentrism. However, it is important to distinguish between country of origin studies, which focus on the image of the country, where the product was made, from consumer ethnocentrism, which does not examine whether consumers tend to believe that products made domestically are better per se, but examines consumers' purchasing tendency toward imported products (Vida & Maher, 2006).

Moreover, ethnocentric consumers are concerned about the foreignness of products in general and are less focused on the specific countries from which products originate. Herche (1992) provided an example to explain these differences by arguing that an American consumer could have a positive country-of-origin attitude towards French wine for its attributes, but might not decide to buy it for nationalistic reasons.

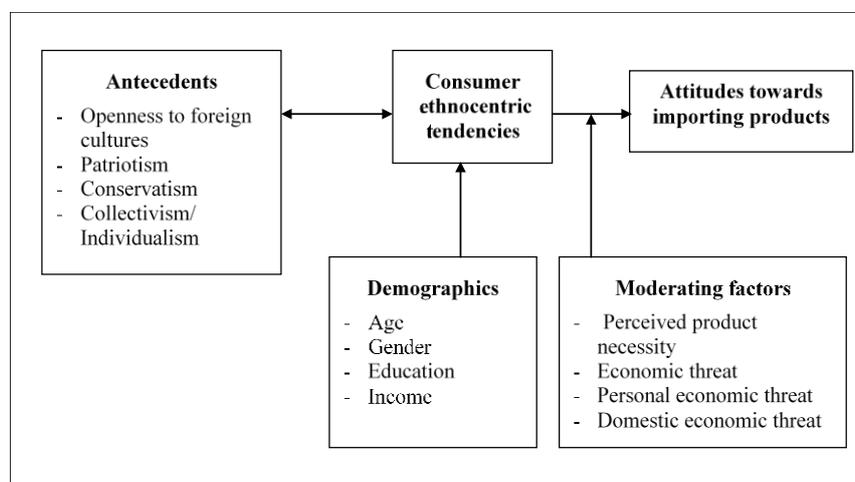
Thus, consumer ethnocentrism can be regarded as a "general tendency" to avoid buying foreign products, as opposed to a specific country-of-origin image (Shankarmahesh, 2006, p. 148). In general, the country-of-origin concept interacts with other input variables such as product knowledge, consumer and country characteristics, nationalism, patriotism, and internationalism (Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller & Melewar, 2001). These variables influence the perception of price, purchase intentions and choice of brands. In this process, the relationship is moderated by consumer ethnocentrism which affects the influence that input variables have on product brand attitudes and behaviour (Kaynak & Kara, 2001).

1.2 Antecedents, mediators, moderators, and outcomes of consumer ethnocentrism

There is a plethora of research dedicated to analysis of antecedents, mediators, moderators and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism. In this section, we describe conceptual frameworks of Sharma et al. (1995) and Shankarmahesh (2006) who placed the concept of consumer ethnocentrism in a central focus and analysed its antecedents, mediators, moderators and outcome variables. In the last part of this section, we focus on three specific antecedents, namely cosmopolitanism, patriotism and collectivism/individualism, which are described in detail and further used in empirical part of our research.

All consumers are not equally ethnocentric and differ in level of ethnocentrism due to variety of factors underlying consumer ethnocentrism. Sharma et al. (1995) developed a conceptual framework of consumer ethnocentrism, depicted in Figure 1. Since ethnocentric tendencies of consumers do not develop in isolation, but are rather a part of a collection of influences (Sharma et al., 1995, p. 27), the consumer ethnocentrism is shown as being related to demographic and social-psychological constructs. In turn, the concept is also a determinant of consumers' attitudes toward importing foreign products. There are two moderating factors (perceived product necessity and economic threat) postulated in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Conceptual model



Source: S. Sharma et al., *Consumer ethnocentrism: a test of antecedents and moderators*, 1995, p. 28.

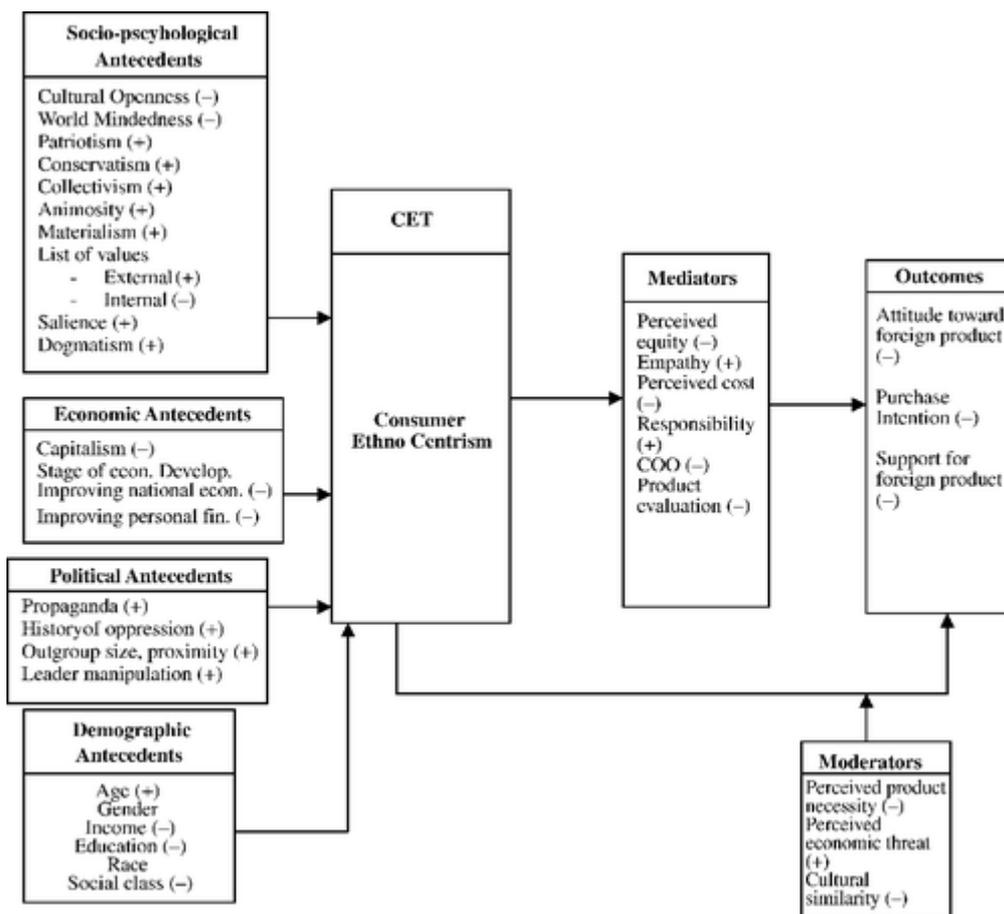
In 2006, Shankarmahesh published a paper in which he reviewed existing literature of the antecedents and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism. The author also provided an integrated graphic framework (Figure 2) of consumer ethnocentrism, its antecedents and consequences, as identified by previous studies in this field. Based on his model, all the categories are discussed and summarized in this section.

Shankarmahesh (2006), identified four broad categories of factors influencing consumer ethnocentrism:

1. socio-psychological;
2. political;
3. economic;
4. demographic.

First category encompasses antecedents from the **socio-psychological** perspective. Socio-psychological factors include consumer's openness to foreign cultures, world-mindedness, patriotism, conservatism, collectivism, animosity, materialism, etc. (Shankarmahesh, 2006). Some studies included cosmopolitanism, social desirability and lifestyle as socio-psychological variables. Although this thesis focuses on three socio-psychological factors (cosmopolitanism, patriotism and collectivism) which will be described in detail in the following sections, a few other concepts will be briefly described next.

Figure 2. Consumer ethnocentrism, its antecedents and consequences



Source: M.N. Shankarmahesh, *Consumer ethnocentrism: an integrative review of its antecedents and consequences*, 2006, p. 161.

Among the possible factors of consumer ethnocentric tendencies, consumer **animosity** appears to gain a significant attention from scholars in the last decades. Consumer animosity is related, but conceptually different construct to consumer ethnocentrism. It is defined as “remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political or economic events” (Klein, Ettenson & Morris, 1998, p. 90). The difference between consumer ethnocentrism and animosity is that consumer ethnocentrism describes unfavourable attitudes toward imports and foreign countries in general, while animosity is directed to a particular country.

The next concept is **world-mindedness** which describes people who favour a worldview on problems and whose primary reference group is humankind, rather than one’s own nation (Rawwas, Rajendran & Wuehrer, 1996; Shankarmahesh, 2006), and it is distinct to **cultural openness**, which refers to opportunities to interact with cultures other than one’s own, understanding and accepting them (Sharma et al., 1995). Studies (e.g. Rawwas et al, 1996; Shankarmahesh, 2006) found a negative relationship of both concepts with consumer ethnocentrism.

Another concept is **dogmatism**, defined as a personality characteristic to see the world in black and white (Caruana, 1996). Studies (e.g. Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Caruana, 1996) reported a significant positive relationship between dogmatism and consumer ethnocentrism, resulting in more favourable attitude toward foreign products, from less dogmatic consumers. The same result when dealing with consumer ethnocentrism happens with two other concepts: materialism and conservatism. **Materialism** tends to possess characteristics such as possessiveness, non-generosity and envy, with which consumer ethnocentrism is also associated (Shankarmahesh, 2006), while **conservatism** “shows a tendency to cherish traditions and social institutions that have survived the test of time, and to introduce changes only occasionally, reluctantly and gradually” (Sharma et al., 1995, p. 28).

The next concept is about **values** that can be categorized as internal and external. External values are positively related with consumer ethnocentrism and are somehow similar to materialism, as they represent an individual seeking fun and enjoyment in life, being a hedonist that is outward oriented and has materialistic nature (Shankarmahesh, 2006). The last concept is **salience**, which indicates the perceived threat to domestic workers or industries. Since consumer ethnocentrism itself encompasses a moral obligation of buying domestic products, the perception of threat to the in-group is positively related to it (Olsen, Granzin & Biswas, 1993). “Perceived threat” was included as a moderator in model of Sharma et al. (1995).

The next broad category of antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism belongs to the category of **political** environment. Specifically we talk about political propaganda and histories. First issue arising from political propaganda is whether consumers from democratic environment follow political propaganda less than those living in authoritarian environments and in turn show less ethnocentric tendencies. Shankarmahesh (2006) suggests that factors such as political freedom and the level of democracy should be considered as moderators for political

propaganda. The second issue is whether consumers from countries with a long history of oppression tend to be more ethnocentric than those countries that were conquerors (Shankarmahesh, 2006). Both issues deserve additional investigation, as they might vary from country to country and need to be tested in each country separately. Another two political variables worth exploring empirically are perceived proximity, size and power of “out-groups” and leader manipulation according to Rosenblatt (1946, in Shankarmahesh, 2006).

As for the next category of antecedents, we need to look at the **economic** environment. Effects on consumer ethnocentrism coming from various economies depend on the stage of economic development, market competition, and general economic situation (Kreckova et al., 2012, p. 272). The study conducted by Shankarmahesh (2006) revealed that different types of economic environments create differences in preferences toward imported goods. According to research (e.g. Good & Huddleston, 1995), when an economy transitions from state-owned to market economy, consumers in early stages prefer foreign products, because of good quality, novelty, status and curiosity motives. As an economy moves to the intermediate stage of transition, nationalistic motives become dominant. At the developed stage, an economy is characterized by the presence of MNCs, and ethnocentric tendencies tend to disappear. Another finding was the belief that personal financial situation improved due to reduced levels of consumer ethnocentric tendencies. Further Rosenblatt (1946, in Shankarmahesh, 2006) suggested a negative relationship between capitalism and ethnocentrism.

The final category of antecedents relates to **demographic** factors. The most commonly used demographics examined are age, gender, education and income (Balabanis et al. 2001). In addition, some studies also investigated other demographic factors, such as race/ethnic group and social class. By using these demographics variables, the size, distribution, and structure of population can be explained which enables marketers to segment consumers according to their favourable and unfavourable disposition to foreign products (Shankarmahesh, 2006, p. 164).

Age was found to have significant influence on ethnocentric tendencies. Balabanis et al. (2001) found an empirical support for the argument that older people will have higher consumer ethnocentric tendencies scores than younger people. This can be interpreted by an increased cosmopolitanism in recent years and its socio-cultural influence on the belief patterns of the youth, who are becoming more inclined toward imports (Shankarmahesh et al., 2006, p. 165). On the other side, for example Sharma et al. (1995) found that there is no significant relationship between age and consumer ethnocentrism. Older studies (e.g. Bannister & Saunders, 1978) found a positive relationship between age and favourable foreign product evaluation. Similar to age, studies about **gender** also exhibited different results. Some studies (e.g. Balabanis et al., 2001; Sharma et al., 1995) showed that women exhibit more ethnocentric tendencies than men do. However, there are some studies that found no significant differences between genders (Shankarmahesh et al., 2006, p. 165). Still other studies find that men are more ethnocentric than women (Bannister & Saunders, 1978).

Education and income are highly correlated and therefore have a similar effect on consumer ethnocentric behaviour. The findings regarding the relationship between **education** and consumer ethnocentrism have almost consistently pointed to a negative relationship (Balabanis et al., 2001; Klein and Ettenson, 1999). This relationship is supported because educated people tend to be less conservative and are less likely to have ethnic prejudices. On the other hand, study by Han (1988) did not find education as a significant factor in explaining consumer patriotism. **Income** tends to have a negative correlation with consumer ethnocentrism. Consumers with higher income are provided with more opportunities for travel and purchase of foreign products, which are resulting in more cosmopolitan views (Sharma et al., 1995). On the opposite, some studies (Han, 1988) found no income effects and other studies (Tan & Farley, 1987) reported a positive relationship between income and consumer ethnocentrism. Overall, the majority of previous studies regarding demographic factors of consumer ethnocentrism found that males, younger, better educated, and those with higher income tend to be less ethnocentric.

Only a few studies have measured inter-ethnic groups and social class as potential consumer ethnocentrism antecedents. In multi-cultural environments, a question exists there whether distinct inter-**ethnic groups** differ in consumer ethnocentric tendencies. Some studies (e.g. Klein & Ettenson, 1999) did not find race as a significant predictor, while others (e.g. Zarkada & Fraser, 2002) found minorities to be more favourable to foreign products than the majority ethnic group. Regarding the **social class**, studies by Han (1988) and Klein and Ettenson (1999) found that ethnocentric tendencies tend to fall as consumers move up the social ladder. Moreover, authors found social classes, such as blue-collars (Han, 1998) and working class indicating more ethnocentric tendencies than those coming from middle class. Further, those workers who belong to a union are more likely to be more ethnocentric than those who are not union members (Klein & Ettenson, 1999). In comparison, some studies (e.g. Caruana, 1996) did not find any class differences in consumer ethnocentric scores.

Figure 2 furthermore shows many **outcome variables** (negative attitude toward foreign products, lower purchase intention of foreign products and lower support for foreign products) resulting from consumer ethnocentrism. Researchers applied various constructs such as “purchase intention” (Han, 1988), “attitudes towards buying foreign products” (Sharma et al., 1995), “willingness to buy domestic products” (Olsen et al., 1993), and “willingness to buy foreign products” (Klein et al., 1998) to measure the relationship.

The primary outcome is that consumer ethnocentrism has a negative impact on purchasing foreign products (e.g., Vida & Dmitrović, 2009; Yoo & Donthu, 2005) and positive impact on purchase intention of domestic products (e.g. Han, 1988; Vida & Reardon, 2008). Granzin and Painter (2001) defined domestic purchasing behaviour as an individual’s purchase-related behaviour in support of the domestic economy. Not only did Vida and Reardon (2008) found a strong and significant effect of consumer ethnocentrism on domestic consumption, they also indicated that consumer ethnocentrism is not only a pertinent, but in comparison to cognitive and affective factors, even a dominant driver of domestic consumption.

Other studies (e.g. Klein et al., 1998) found direct negative link between consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy foreign products. A distinctive construct from willingness to buy foreign products, namely reluctance to buy foreign products was investigated by Suh and Kwon (2002). The authors found a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and reluctance to buy foreign product. Further, they found that consumer ethnocentrism plays an important role in determining the magnitude of reluctance to buy a foreign product. Moreover, the magnitude of reluctance might be stronger due to its passive form of attitude, which is relatively easier to be influenced and changed, in comparison to proactive attitude, such as willingness (Suh & Kwon, 2002).

The influence of consumer ethnocentrism on purchase behaviour was measured on different product categories: durables (e.g. Javalgi et al., 2005), necessities (e.g. Bandyopadhyay, 2012), luxury goods (e.g. Sharma et al., 1995) and services (Vida & Maher, 2006). The research evidence suggests that different product categories, coming from the same country, can produce different levels of consumer ethnocentrism. Sharma et al. (1995) indicated that the more a product is perceived as unnecessary, the greater the impact ethnocentric tendencies have on attitudes toward imports.

In terms of indirect effects, mediators and moderators influence the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and its outcomes. Mediators (such as perceived equity, empathy, cost, responsibility, country of origin, product evaluation) enable alternative paths of ethnocentrism effects, while moderators (perceived necessity, perceived economic threat and cultural similarity) soften or strengthen the results of ethnocentrism on attitudes or intentions, also for consumers who showed higher ethnocentric tendencies (Siamagka, 2009).

One of the **moderators** is perceived product **necessity**. Consumer goods can be classified into products, which have to be used on a daily basis or luxury products, which an individual only purchases on special occasions. Previous research have shown that the more necessary an item is, thus used on the regularly bases, the less impact ethnocentrism would have on attitudes (Huddleston et al., 2001; Javalgi et al., 2005). However, when products are perceived as unnecessary, consumer ethnocentrism exhibits greater impact on consumers' attitudes towards imports (Sharma, 1995).

The concept of **perceived economic threat** was used as a moderator by Sharma et al. (1987). The authors argued that two types of economic threat (personal threat and a threat to the domestic economy) might have an effect on the relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude toward imports. This means that consumer ethnocentric tendencies increased consumers' resistance to importing products, when products were perceived to be a threat for the individual or the domestic economy. Watson and Wright (2000) examined the moderating effect of **cultural similarity** and found that cultural similarity is an important consideration for highly ethnocentric consumers in the evaluation of foreign products.

When we talk about **mediators**, we have to consider **product evaluation**. The concept has been included in various studies, which confirmed positive impact of consumer ethnocentrism on domestic product evaluation (e.g., Vida & Dmitrović, 2009) and negative influence of consumer ethnocentrism on foreign product judgements (e.g. Nguyen, Nguyen & Barrett, 2008). Another important mediator, **country of origin**, received many different interpretations regarding the relationship that it forms with consumer ethnocentrism. Han (1988), for example, used country image as a mediator between consumer patriotism and purchase intention. He concluded that country image is affected by consumer patriotism, but the relationship varies depending on the importance of the product. Some argued that consumer ethnocentrism acts as an antecedent of country of origin and found that highly ethnocentric consumers negatively view the foreign country-of-origin, which is reflected in negative foreign product evaluations. The empirical results regarding the relationship between country image and purchase intention have been very inconsistent. Some studies have found no effect of country of origin on purchase intention (Han, 1988) while other studies found strong effects (Bannister & Saunders, 1978).

For the next mediator, **empathy**, Olsen et al. (1993) concluded, that it positively influences willingness to help the local workers and purchase of domestic products. Thus, consumer ethnocentrism, through feelings of empathy, affect willingness for domestic product purchase. Closely related to the concept of empathy is also **perceived equity**. According to Olsen et al. (1993), perceived equity when consumers observe local workers facing dangers from imports, increases levels of empathy and motivates consumer behaviour in a way to eliminate inequality through domestic purchase.

An overview of economic, political and demographic antecedents of ethnocentrism and its effects on outcome variables was provided in this section. A discussion of the three specific socio-psychological antecedents that have been investigated by various authors and might influence ethnocentric tendencies of consumers, will be provided in the next three subchapters. These antecedents are cosmopolitanism, patriotism and collectivism.

1.2.1 Cosmopolitanism

Marketing literature investigates attitudes toward domestic and foreign products and services and the impact of such attitudes on purchasing behaviour of consumers. The majority of literature is mainly focused on explaining preferences for domestic products or explaining reluctance to buy foreign products, by examining the impact of variables such as consumer ethnocentrism, patriotism and animosity (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2009). Studies on positive attitudes towards foreign countries have been less common. However, in recent years, continuous globalization and its effect on marketing activities forced marketers to consider cosmopolitanism construct as an absolute necessity. Cosmopolitanism gained increasing attention as it appears to be a major socio-psychological construct underlying consumer behaviour (Parts & Vida, 2011, p. 356). Managers in multinational corporations

applied the concept of cosmopolitanism to corporate strategies as they are frequently faced with, on the one side, global integration, and on the other local responsiveness (Parts, 2013). The cosmopolitanism concept was originally introduced in the field of sociology by Merton (1957) and it referred to individuals who are oriented towards the outside world ('world citizen'), rather than local setting. The cosmopolitanism concept has been further used and developed in the marketing literature, where various researchers saw it as a consumer orientation with a significant influence on marketing practice (Kreckova et al., 2012, p. 273). Hannerz (1990, p. 239) defined cosmopolitanism as "willingness to entail relationships to a plurality of cultures understood as distinctive entities" and "stance toward diversity itself, coexistence of cultures and individual experience".

Later Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2009) defined it as a construct capturing three aspects by which consumer expresses (1) an open-mindedness towards foreign countries and cultures, (2) the diversity appreciation, brought by the availability of products from different national and cultural origins, and (3) positive disposal towards consumption of foreign products.

The debate about the nature of cosmopolitanism is very rich. Some researchers implicate that the main determinant of cosmopolitanism is predisposition at birth, some think that it is a personality trait and other regard it as learnable skill (Cannon & Yaprak, 2002). Cleveland, Laroche and Papadopoulos (2009) tested how demographic factors are related to cosmopolitanism. More educated respondents turned out to be more cosmopolitan and less consumer ethnocentric, women had higher mean cosmopolitanism score than men, and age was negatively related to cosmopolitanism in Korea, Hungary and Sweden. They did not find income as a significant predictor. Cannon and Yaprak (2002) listed the pressure of competitors, changes in technology, global communications, consumer experience and saturation of low-level needs as factors driving cosmopolitanism values.

Cosmopolitanism has a lot of related constructs, such as internationalism, global mindedness, world-mindedness and cultural openness. All of these concepts have been widely described and analysed in connection to consumer ethnocentrism (Shankarmahesh, 2006). Cosmopolitanism as a construct with positive orientation towards out-groups, directly affects an individual's ethnocentric tendencies. Since cosmopolitan consumers look beyond national boundaries and do not consider foreign imports as a threat but rather as a cultural asset, the nature of cosmopolitanism concept contradicts that of a consumer ethnocentrism. Indeed empirical research (e.g. Parts, 2013) confirmed a strong negative and significant relationship between cosmopolitanism and consumer ethnocentrism. Several authors (e.g. Parts & Vida, 2011; Parts, 2013) identified direct effects of cosmopolitanism on foreign purchase behaviour.

The results showed that cosmopolitanism exhibits a positive effect on foreign purchase behaviour, suggesting that cosmopolitan consumers exhibit a tendency to buy foreign products rather than domestic ones. Both direct and indirect effects of consumer cosmopolitanism offer practical implications for marketers. Marketers can effectively adapt

marketing mix to consumers, and target appropriate segments by using cosmopolitanism as a market segmentation variable (Parts & Vida, 2011).

1.2.2 Patriotism

Among the possible sources of consumer ethnocentric tendencies is also patriotism. Patriotism is defined as a “strong feeling of attachment and loyalty to one’s own country, but without corresponding hostility towards other nations” (Balabanis et al., 2001, p. 160). Patriotic person tends to favour products coming from one’s own country, because of love and devotion to their country (Jain & Jain, 2013, p. 3), while not rejecting other countries and considering other cultures and traditions as equally legitimate to their own. Druckman (1994) suggested that patriotic attitudes develop in early phase of the socialization process and are therefore very resistant to change. Needs are deep-rooted and served by these attitudes (i.e., security, feelings of belonging, self-enhancement), which make them very persistent. In general, patriots indicate willingness to subordinate their personal interest for national ones and sacrifice for their country.

Han (1988) found that consumer choice of products depends more on patriotism than on cognitive factors (quality perception and product serviceability). The author showed a positive effect of consumer patriotism on purchasing intentions of domestic products. Patriots see buying domestic products as part of their duty to their country to protect its economy and show support for domestic producers. On the other side, patriots are likely to prevent arrival of foreign products, if they appear to be harmful to the economy of one’s own country (Han, 1988). The emotional attachment to one’s own country might lead to a reduced desire to knowing more about other countries and their products (Balabanis et al., 2001, p. 163).

Some authors (e.g. Han, 1988) suggested a negative effect of patriotism on purchase of foreign made products, however other researches (e.g. Wang & Chen, 2004) argued that patriotic consumer do not blindly reject products from other countries. Thus, consumers can be patriotic, and at the same time not indicate their preference towards domestic over foreign products. Patriotic consumers might prefer domestic product, if the quality is the same or better, in comparison to imported products. Even though the patriotism is related to ethnocentrism (Sharma et al., 1995), consumer patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism differ. Thus, when promoting domestic products using campaigns such as “Buy-domestic made product” the quality remains important for patriotic consumers (Shah, 2012). Several previous studies have addressed the cost issues associated with purchasing domestic products (e.g. Granzin & Painter, 2001).

Patriotic individuals show higher ethnocentric tendencies than those who are less patriotic, thus patriotism was found to be positively related to consumer ethnocentrism (Balabanis et al., 2001; Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Sharma et al., 1995). Some studies, however, show the contrary. For example, the study by Rawwas et al. (1996) showed that patriotic individuals can be world-minded and without ethnocentric tendencies. Due to these conflicting results,

Shankarmahesh (2006) suggested that relationships with antecedents are too simplistic to completely explain how they affect consumer ethnocentrism. Further, he argued that contradicting findings need to be explored in future research. According to Balabanis et al. (2001), patriotism indeed influence consumer ethnocentrism, but its magnitude differs depending from country to country. For example, Good and Huddleston (1995) found that people tend to have stronger patriotic emotions, if their country has a history of being oppressed or conquered. When entering a foreign market, international marketers have to address patriotism as one of the factors affecting consumers' choice for domestic products over foreign ones.

The study by Balabanis et al. (2001) holds several implications for marketing practice and show optimism for international marketers, since patriotism was not automatically translated into prejudice for foreign products in all countries. First, marketers should not be intimidated by the level of patriotic feelings of consumers and should make sure that their strategy does not facilitate the switching of patriotism into consumer ethnocentrism. Further, they have to make sure that domestic consumers understand that the consumption of foreign products is not economically harmful for one's own country. Secondly, if patriotism is the underlying factor for prejudice against imports, marketers might have to change their products' symbols to national and therefore show to consumers that a foreign product does not present a threat to country's economy.

1.2.3 Collectivism/Individualism

Another socio-psychological variable used as an antecedent to consumer ethnocentrism is collectivism/individualism. Individualism/collectivism is one of the four dimensions of the complex and multifaceted concept of culture (Hofstede et al., 2010). According to Sharma et al. (1995, p. 28), the cross-culturally validated construct of collectivism/individualism can be viewed as one of the most promising dimensions of cultural variation. Hofstede (2010), showed that most Western cultures, like the U.S., many Western European countries and Australia, are more individualistic, whereas most East Asian, African and Latin American cultures are more collectivistic.

Collectivistic cultures encompass (1) individuals that have tendency to subordinate their personal goals to the group that they belong to (2) the self that is subordinate to the group, and (3) the group that is a source of one's identity (Sharma et al., 1995, p. 28). Collectivistic people "are from birth onwards integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (Hofstede, 1991, p. 51). Extensive research has revealed that individualist cultures present the complete opposite. People from individualistic cultures behave more independently and are working towards achieving their personal goals (Hui & Triandis, 1986). Hofstede (1991, p. 51) defines individualism as "a society where the ties between individuals are loose. Everyone is expected to look after himself or his immediate family".

Collectivism is expected to be expressed in the form of consumer ethnocentrism (Yoo & Donthu, 2005). Collectivistic persons consider the effect of their behaviour on the society, feel responsible for other's social conditions and show love for a societal in-group. Consumer ethnocentrism shows concern for products made in home country. Several studies (e.g. Sharma et al., 1995; Yoo & Donthu, 2005) provided empirical support for positive relationship between collectivism and consumer ethnocentrism, which suggests that collectivistic consumers are ethnocentric. Collectivists are likely to sacrifice personal interest for a country's (country is viewed as an in-group) welfare (Yoo, Donthu & Lenartowicz, 2011), they identify themselves with one's own country, show high dependence and short emotional distance from the country (Hui & Triandis, 1986) and feel obligated to buy domestic products. Collectivists are more inclined toward domestic products and protection of home country (Yoo & Donthu, 2005).

The opposite of collectivistic consumers are individualistic consumers, who make decisions with lower consideration of a social entity that they belong to, because they are not used to making decisions with other in-group members (Wagner, 1995). Individualistic consumers act to achieve their own benefits and well-being, and are not loyal to the group. Their purchasing decision will be made on a rational judgement of characteristic of products (such as price and quality) and other aspects (such as country of origin) will have less influence on their decision. Individualistic consumers support competitive environment and are accordingly likely to encourage a market, on which domestic and foreign products compete against each other. A highly competitive market offers high quality products at lower price, which was individualistic aim at first place. Thus, individual consumers tend to achieve own welfare at the expense of national welfare (Yoo & Donthu, 2005).

Based on the literature studies marketers can extract some practical information. The first thing to consider is that countries might not be a reasonable basis for global market segmentation, as culturally distinct consumers may be found across countries, not only within the territorial boundary of one country. Therefore, individualistic consumers might be a more reasonable basis of global market segmentation. Yoo et al. (2011) developed a CVSCALE, a scale measuring Hofstede's five dimensions at the individual level for a more general context. The scale is applicable for global market segmentation, and it allows brand managers to find similar market segments across countries, based on consumers with comparable cultural orientation. Secondly, consumers with high collectivistic tendencies may not be an appropriate target segment when entering a foreign country, however, individualists seem to be more accessible. For example, when targeting individuals, advertising has to send some individualistic (versus other-focused) messages and emphasise personal success (versus harmony) and independence (versus interdependence) (Yoo & Donthu, 2005).

1.3 Measurement of consumer ethnocentrism

Until the mid-1980s, only a few instruments in the domain of consumer behaviour and marketing, existed which measured ethnocentric tendency, but were too generic to be used

(Jain & Jain, 2013, p. 3). Earlier studies on consumer ethnocentrism did not have a proper measuring scale to evaluate the level of consumer ethnocentrism. Therefore, in 1984, Shimp developed multiple criterion variables, which would measure the difference between ethnocentric consumers and non-ethnocentric ones. The criterion variables contained concepts of consumption behaviour, normative beliefs, demographic and socio-economic variables (such as social class) etc. For measuring ethnocentrism, an open-ended question was designed, which was: "Please describe your views of whether it is right and appropriate for American consumers to purchase products that are manufactured in foreign countries" (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 284). Shimp (1984) expressed concern regarding this open-ended question, as it lacked precision and was less desirable than a multi-item scale. However, such a scale was unavailable at that time.

In 1987, the measurement of consumer ethnocentrism became possible when Shimp and Sharma developed a multi-item scale called Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies Scale. The construction of a unique scale was necessary, because the classic measure of ethnocentrism, the California ethnocentrism scale (Adorno et al. 1950), is not directly relevant when studying consumer behaviour and marketing (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). The derived CETSCALE measured ethnocentric tendency of consumers on the basis of 7-point Likert scale. The highest number (7) shows highly ethnocentric consumers, while the lowest number (1) indicates low ethnocentric consumers. Thus, consumers scoring high on this scale will tend to prefer domestic goods and discourage purchasing of foreign goods (Javalgi et al., 2005), while consumers scoring low tend to evaluate goods based on their objective characteristics, without considerations of country of origin of goods (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280).

The original CETSCALE was initially developed and validated in the context of U.S. consumers. The respondents of Shimp and Sharma (1987) survey were requested to express their opinions of whether it was right and appropriate for American consumers to purchase products manufactured in foreign countries. Authors created an initial scale consisting of 225 items based on the common answers from an open-ended survey of over 800 consumers and after a thorough examination of items by academics and reducing redundant items, the initial pool was reduced to 180 items. Following the implementation of several purification techniques and confirmatory factor analysis, authors reduced redundant items and a total of seventeen items remained (Luque-Martinez et al., 2000, p. 1357). The 17-item, Likert-type questionnaire was then tested on representative samples of consumers from Detroit, Denver, Los Angeles and North and South Carolina. Respondents from Denver, Detroit, and the Carolinas exhibited higher levels of ethnocentric tendencies than respondents from Los Angeles.

After utilizing a U.S. sample and obtaining sufficient results in the reliability and validity of the scale, Shimp and Sharma (1987) pointed out that the meaning of CETSCALE was limited, as it measured only American society. Since the degree of strength and intensity of consumer ethnocentrism varies from culture or country and even from region to region, Shimp and Sharma (1987) suggested potential testing of CETSCALE in non U.S. environment and

translation of scale into other languages. However, researchers were at first cautioned to provide an estimation of scale's psychometric properties and accurate translation of the scale (Kaynak & Kara, 2001, p. 462).

Netemeyer (1991) suggested that CETSCALE has to be refined depending whether we are dealing with high or low context culture environments. In high-context cultures such as Japan, Saudi Arabia and China, context is at least as important as what is actually said. On the other hand, in low-context cultures such as the USA and Western European countries, most of the information is contained explicitly in the words. Generally speaking, members of high-context culture have higher ethnocentric tendencies than a low-context culture, nevertheless there might exist similarities between the two cultural groupings in terms of subgroups (i.e. teen market, upscale consumer market) (Kaynak & Kara, 2001, p. 461). After Netemeyer's (1991) recommended adaptation of the CETSCALE to specific country and cultural environments and its accurate translation, the scale has been widely used in several studies in different countries (Jimenez-Guerrero et al., 2014).

The CETSCALE helps to better understand, explain and predict consumers' behavioural tendencies as it measures the perception of appropriateness of buying domestic versus foreign-made products (Hult & Keillor, 1999). It is characterized as a scale measuring tendency (more general notion of dispositions to act) rather than attitudes (feelings toward an object) (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Ethnocentric tendencies do not develop in isolation, but are related with socio-psychological and demographic factors (Shimp et al., 1995). Shimp et al. (1995) argue that it is necessary to study demographic factors and other constructs, such as collectivism/individualism, patriotism, conservatism and cultural openness, which are affecting consumer's choice of domestic over foreign products, for more transparent view on concept of ethnocentrism. Identified mediators, moderators, and four broad categories of factors influencing consumer ethnocentrism were described in the previous chapter.

Even though the original CETSCALE consists of 17 items, many of researchers used shortened version of CETSCALE consisting 10 items, which was also originally proposed by Shimp and Sharma (1987) or adapted versions of CETSCALE. The adapted versions differ in the number of items (three, four, five, 11, 14 or 16 items) and in the content of items considered for measuring consumer ethnocentric tendencies (Jimenez-Guerrero et al., 2014). Nevertheless, all those studies do not modify items which were originally proposed by Shimp & Sharma (1987). As a result, all studies named their scales CETSCALE, even if many of them did not use the two original proposals (10 or 17 items) by Shimp and Sharma (1987). However, the authors Jimenez-Guerrero et al. (2014) identified two surveys that modified (beyond translation of the language) the original items developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987): the paper by Douglas and Nijssen (2003) and Altintas, Tokol and Harcar (2007).

The first study added a specific item related to the relationship formed between the Netherlands (the country where ethnocentric tendencies are analysed) and Germany (the country of origin of the foreign products under study). The second authors looked at Turkish

consumers' reluctance towards European products and replaced the term "foreign products" with "European products". Despite many other scales, which have been suggested and tested, CETSCALE became the most commonly used instrument for measuring consumer ethnocentrism (Chrysochoidis, Krystallis, & Perreas, 2007).

The authors Jimenez-Guerrero et al. (2014) in their recent study suggest re-formulation of the CETSCALE. The aspects that they considering are: first unifying the number of items the scale should contain, second allowing establishment of levels or degrees of consumer ethnocentrism and lastly allowing determination of weather behaviour is ethnocentric per se or it depends on the product category or analysed country. In their opinion, developing a scale that would include all above-mentioned aspects would allow an international comparison of results with a greater level of reliability than currently found in the existing articles.

1.4 Chronological overview of empirical consumer ethnocentrism studies

In this section, we provide a detailed chronological literature review of consumer ethnocentrism studies. Table 1 presents a review of main studies over the years from the oldest to most recent one. The pioneer study was carried out by Shimp and Sharma (1987), and established a basis for numerous studies, which followed.

The concept of ethnocentrism was examined from various perspectives which are briefly depicted in Table 1. For example, some authors focused on comparison of consumer ethnocentric tendencies between two countries (e.g. Good & Huddleston, 1995; Durvasula et al., 1997) while many authors focused on application of CETSCALE across the nations (e.g. Luque-Martinez et al., 2000). Following research by Shimp and Sharma (1987) done within the U.S. context, various authors administered CETSCALE to students' samples in other countries such as France, Japan and Germany (Netemeyer et al., 1991) where they established reliability and unidimensionality of the scale.

Table 1. Review of consumer ethnocentrism studies across countries

AUTHOR(S)	COUNTRY	PURPOSE	KEY FINDINGS
Shimp and Sharma (1987)	USA	Construction and validity of CETSCALE.	Reliability and validity of consumer ethnocentrism concept. Potential usage for marketing managers.
Netemeyer et al. (1991)	USA, Germany, France, Japan	Cross-national assessment of CETSCALE.	All four countries confirmed unidimensionality of CETSCALE. CETSCALE can be used in international environment.
Herche (1992)	USA	Validity of CETSCALE in predicting buying behaviour.	Results showed that CETSCALE is a better predictor of imports buying behaviour, than demographic variables. The effect varies
Herche (1994)	USA	Effects of consumer ethnocentrism and country of origin on purchasing behaviour and formulation of marketing strategies.	Consumer ethnocentrism influences buying behaviour towards foreign products.
Good and Huddleston (1995)	Poland, Russia	The extent of Polish and Russian consumer ethnocentrism and its impact on buying behaviour.	Poland and Russia differ, therefore marketing strategies have to be different. Demographic variables influence consumer ethnocentric tendencies but will not necessarily impact purchase intentions.

table continues

continued

AUTHOR(S)	COUNTRY	PURPOSE	KEY FINDINGS
Caruana (1996)	Malta	Effects of dogmatism and social class on consumer ethnocentric tendencies.	Dogmatism and age are positively related to consumer ethnocentrism. Consumer ethnocentric tendencies are lower, when consumers have higher level of education.
Bruning (1997)	Canada	Theoretical model, which examines national loyalty and consumer ethnocentrism.	Results showed that besides price, national loyalty plays an important role when choosing airline.
Nielsen and Spence (1997)	USA	A test of stability of the CETSCALE, during 8 week period. In this period two patriotic events take place.	When patriotic events take place, the consumer ethnocentric tendencies become higher or those who served army, than for those who did not.
Vida and Reardon (1997)	Talin, Estonia	Examine effects of consumer ethnocentrism, demographic variables and cultural openness on a sample of Baltic states.	Results showed non ethnocentric tendencies of consumers.
Marcoux et al. (1997)	Poland	The attitudes underlying preferences of young, urban and educated Polish consumers towards products made in Western	Results showed patriotism, as a dimension of consumer ethnocentrism, being related with preferences toward domestic (Polish) products.
Durvasula et al. (1997)	USA, Russia	A cross cultural comparison of consumer ethnocentrism in USA and Russia.	Consumers from USA have higher ethnocentric tendencies, while Russians have higher trust and opinion about foreign products.
Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998)	UK, Belgium, Greece	Assessing measurement invariance in cross-national consumer research.	For scientific inference it is important to have evidence of measurement equivalences, especially in cross-national research.
Witkowski & Beach (1998)	Hungary, Mexico	Determinants and predictive validity of consumer ethnocentrism in emerging markets.	Predictive validity of CETSCALE is country and product specific.
De Ruyter et al. (1998)	Netherlands	Examination of consumer ethnocentrism in international services marketing.	The concept of consumer ethnocentrism marketing management should take into account, because it allows a product or service providers to market themselves more effectively. Consumer ethnocentric tendencies are negatively related with cultural openness and positively related with patriotism, collectivism and conservatism.
Kucukemiroglu (1999)	Istanbul, Turkey	Identification of market segments, by using ethnocentrism and life style dimension.	Significant relationship between lifestyle and level of ethnocentrism. Existence of various dimensions of lifestyle, which influence buying behaviour of Turkish consumers.
Klein et al. (1999)	USA	Comparison of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity, and analysis of unique antecedents.	Consumer ethnocentrism and animosity are conceptually different concepts. Antecedents of both concepts differ.
Luque-Martinez et al. (2000)	Spain	The validity of CETSCALE among Spanish consumers.	Established CETSCALE was found to be valid and reliable method of consumer ethnocentric tendencies of Spanish.

table continues

continued

AUTHOR(S)	COUNTRY	PURPOSE	KEY FINDINGS
Watson and Wright (2000)	New Zealand	The relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer attitude towards foreign products, when a domestic alternatives are not available. Examining if individuals with high levels of consumer ethnocentrism would have more favourable attitudes toward products from culturally similar countries in comparison to products from culturally dissimilar countries.	Consumers impose greater preference for domestic products if a domestic alternative is present. Cultural similarity is an important consideration for highly ethnocentric consumers in the evaluation of foreign products.
Huddleston et al. (2001)	Russia	The relationship between consumer ethnocentrism, product necessity and product quality perceptions.	Consumer ethnocentrism does not have effect on product quality perception.
Vida et al. (2001)	Croatia, BiH, Serbia, Monte Negro	Comparison of Slovenian brands to domestic ones. Examination of effects of consumer ethnocentrism	Generally good image of Slovenian products. Decline of knowledge of brands among younger population. Lower
Clarke III (2001)	Australia, U.S., France, Mexico	Measuring consumer ethnocentrism across Australia, France, Mexico and the United States and examine country differences, materialism, and values as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism.	Significant differences were discovered among the countries regarding ethnocentric tendencies. Mexico had the highest level of consumer ethnocentrism followed by France, Australia, and the United States. A positive correlation was found between materialism and consumer ethnocentrism across the four countries.
Balabanis et al. (2001)	Turkey, Czech Republic	The influence of nationalism and patriotism on consumer ethnocentric tendencies.	The influence of nationalism and patriotism on consumer ethnocentrism varies among countries. The variation can be explained by demographic and cultural differences.
Bandyopadhyay (2001)	Island	Empirical measurement of ethnocentrism on Icelandic consumers and its impact on the evaluation of imported products.	The only factor influencing buying behaviour of imports is quality of products. Quality of product is influenced by country opinion.
Lindquist et al. (2001)	Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland	The modified Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies Scale (10-item measure of consumer ethnocentrism), was subjected to a validation test in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland.	10-item single factor model was not found to be a universally "good fit" solution in these central and eastern European countries. A good fitting five-item model was found for Hungary, a six-item scale for Poland and a seven-item solution for the Czech Republic.
Supphellen and Rittenburg (2001)	Poland	Consumer ethnocentrism impact on attitudes and beliefs of foreign and domestic products.	Highly ethnocentric consumers are willing to choose local-owned brands in order to support their own country, even when foreign products are superior.
Kaynak and Kara (2002)	Turkey	Investigate product-country images, lifestyles and ethnocentric behaviours of Turkish consumers.	Turkish consumers had significantly different perceptions of product attributes for the products coming from countries of different levels of socio-economic and technological development. There were several lifestyle dimensions apparent among the Turkish consumers, which were closely correlated with their ethnocentric biases.
Pereira et al. (2002)	China, Taiwan, India	Test of validity and reliability of CETSCALE and its effects in different countries.	Consumer ethnocentric tendencies existed in all three tested countries. Level of effect varies among countries.

table continues

continued

AUTHOR(S)	COUNTRY	PURPOSE	KEY FINDINGS
Lee et al. (2003)	USA	The influence of patriotism, nationalism, internationalism and demographic variables on consumer ethnocentrism among American consumers in the post 9/11 climate.	The nationalism and internationalism are good predictors of American consumers' ethnocentric tendencies. Male, younger, higher-income and better-educated consumers tend to be less ethnocentric. Suggestions are made to help both domestic and foreign firms to understand how the post-September 11 political climate affects American consumers' economic preferences.
Supphellen and Gronhaug (2003)	Russia	The relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and brand personality.	Consumer ethnocentrism has a strong moderating effect on brand personality.
Shoham and Brencic (2003)	Israel	Test of consumer ethnocentric tendencies in Israel, and its impact on purchase behaviour.	Consumer ethnocentric tendencies existed in Israel, and had a strong influence on purchase of local products.
Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004)	UK	Preference patterns of consumers in UK for domestic and foreign products.	Consumer ethnocentrism is linked with variability in preference patterns. Consumer ethnocentrism varies between product category and country of origin.
Wang and Chen (2004)	China	Investigating the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy domestic products in developing country settings.	The impact of ethnocentrism on consumer willingness to buy domestic products tends to be weaker when consumers judge them as being of lower quality, or when consumers hold higher conspicuous consumption values. Conspicuous consumption refers to consumers' desires to provide prominent, visible evidence of their ability to afford luxury goods (Piron, 2000).
Javalgi et al. (2005)	France	How ethnocentric consumers are French and what are the effects of their ethnocentrism on attitudes toward imports, and subsequently on purchase intentions.	French, who appear to not be overly ethnocentric, are willing to purchase products from other countries, but will be more likely to buy certain products when they are regarded as necessary.
Yoo and Donthu (2005)	USA	The effect of personal cultural orientation on consumer ethnocentrism.	Personal cultural orientation effected consumer ethnocentrism.
Klein et al. (2006)	China, Russia	Testing the validity of CETSCALE in transitional economies.	CETSCALE can be used in developed and developing countries.
Hamin and Elliott (2006)	Indonesia	The impact of consumer ethnocentrism and country of origin on Indonesian consumers' product quality perception and purchase intention.	Consumer ethnocentrism affected Indonesian consumer's product quality perceptions and purchase intention.
Kwak et al. (2006)	USA, South Korea, India	Consumer ethnocentrism offline and online and mediating role of marketing efforts and personality traits in the United States, South Korea, and India.	Consumer ethnocentrism provokes negative attitudes toward both foreign advertisements and foreign products. Consumer ethnocentrism plays a major role in online environment.
Chrysochoidis et al. (2007)	Greece	The relationship between country of origin and consumer ethnocentrism effect.	Country of origin and consumer ethnocentrism are inter-linked, a combination of effects influence consumers' evaluation on foreign and domestic products.

table continues

continued

AUTHOR(S)	COUNTRY	PURPOSE	KEY FINDINGS
Vida and Reardon (2008)	Slovenia	Consumer choice behaviour in the context of a new European Union member state by examining cognitive, affective and normative mechanisms in consumer preference formation for domestic vs imported products.	Affective and normative constructs (i.e. consumer ethnocentrism and patriotism) are stronger determinants of domestic consumption than rational considerations such as perceptions of relative product quality of domestic vs imported products. The role of patriotism and cosmopolitanism as factors fuelling ethnocentric tendencies are confirmed.
Vida et al (2008)	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Examine the effects of ethnic affiliation on ethnocentrism and domestic purchase bias, and test a model of consumer ethnocentrism antecedents and outcomes in a multi-ethnic transitional economy.	National identity and nationalism are significant predictors of consumer ethnocentrism, and ethnic affiliation has a direct effect on both consumer ethnocentrism and on domestic purchase bias. However, the antecedent nature of cultural openness in relation to consumer ethnocentrism was not confirmed.
Evanschitzky et al. (2008)	Germany	The impact of consumer ethnocentrism in German market.	There is in general a strong domestic country bias in the German market. However, it differs largely across the 14 product categories. Results indicate that consumer preference rankings can best be explained by a combination of demographic variables and country-of-origin effects.
Nguyen et al. (2008)	Vietnam	Study of consumer ethnocentrism and cultural sensitivity impact on product perceptions and purchase intentions.	Consumer ethnocentrism was negatively related to purchase intention. Cultural sensitivity has a positive relationship with imported product judgement.
Wong et al. (2008)	China	The effect of country of origin sub-components (i.e. design, assembly and parts) and as well the extent to which consumer ethnocentrism tendencies interact with COO sub-components, for young Chinese consumers with	It was found that the three COO sub-components did not influence young Chinese consumers' evaluation of product quality or purchase intentions
Cleveland et al. (2009)	Canada, Mexico, Chile, Sweden, Greece, Hungary, India, South Korea	The relationship between cosmopolitanism, consumer ethnocentrism and materialism.	Cosmopolitanism, consumer ethnocentrism and materialism's effects on consumer behaviour varies across product categories and different national groups.
Nadiri and Tumer (2010)	North Cyprus	Testing of validity and reliability of CETSCALE in North Cyprus.	CETSCALE's validity and reliability in North Cyprus were confirmed. Consumer ethnocentrism is positively related with intentions to buy domestic goods.
Jimenez and San Martin (2010)	Spain	Examine empirical evidence on the extent to which socio-psychological variables (ethnocentrism and animosity) and the reputation of firms associated to a country-of-origin (COO) are related to trust. Further, the study tests the moderating effects of familiarity.	Findings support that hostile out-group behaviour increases ethnocentrism, although the relatively low correlation between the two constructs should be noted. Research findings do not support the negative influence of reputation of firms associated to a country of origin on consumer animosity. Country of origin familiarity is a relevant moderator in the context of the proposed model.

table continues

continued

AUTHOR(S)	COUNTRY	PURPOSE	KEY FINDINGS
Poon et al. (2010)	Australia	Study of the attitudes of Asian and Western migrants and native-born in Australia toward foreign-made products and the impact of consumer ethnocentrism on attitude formation.	Consumer ethnocentrism is negatively related to attitudes toward foreign-made products for migrants and local-born Australians. Asian-born migrants had a significantly lower level of consumer ethnocentrism than the other respondents. Within the Western migrant group, males had a significantly higher level of ethnocentrism than females. For migrants, the number of years living in Australia is positively related to ethnocentrism.
Saffu et al. (2010)	Slovakia	Examine the link between consumer ethnocentrism and the attitudes of two consumer groups to a buy local campaign in a transitioning economy, Slovakia.	The government and industry play a major role in encouraging Slovaks to buy local. The nonstudent consumers are less ethnocentric than the student group.
Ben Mrad et al. (2011)	Lebanon, Tunisia	Examination of the measurement properties of the CETSCALE in The Arab Middle East market.	The reduced set of CETSCALE measures may be used in country of origin research in the Arab Middle East.
Josiassen et al. (2011)	Australia	Influence of demographic characteristics on consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy. Analysis of direct and moderating effects of consumer characteristics.	Consumer tendencies for ethnocentrism are directly influenced by characteristics of the customer. The strength of the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy is influenced by customer characteristics (age and gender).
Ramayah et al. (2011)	Malaysia	Assessing reliability and validity of CETSCALE in a multicultural context.	Analysis shows support for validity and reliability issues.
Bandyopadhyay (2012)	Iceland	Investigate the influence of ethnocentrism, country image, perceptions of product quality, value, image, availability, and promotion on Icelandic consumers' intention to buy domestic packaged food and those imported from the U.S., the U.K., Holland, and	Ethnocentrism in Icelandic consumers had a negative influence on the intention to buy food products from the United States, but did not impact the intention to buy food products from other countries on its own.
Quing et al. (2012)	China	Examine how variables related to lifestyle and ethnocentrism influence Chinese consumers' attitudes and intentions towards the purchase of domestic and imported fresh fruit.	Chinese consumers' purchase intention of imported fresh fruit is influenced by lifestyle groups, namely risk takers and traditionalists. Consumers' ethnocentrism tendencies play an important role in shaping their purchase attitudes towards domestic fresh fruit.
Jain and Jain (2013)	India	An exploratory study of consumer ethnocentrism and its antecedents in India.	Indian consumers were found to be moderately ethnocentric. Saliency was found to be the most significant.
Stoklasa et al. (2014)	Moravian-Silesian region in the Czech Republic	Examine how strong consumer ethnocentrism is in the region and how it depends on demographic factors.	Consumers in mentioned region, have high ethnocentric tendencies and therefore prefer their domestic products and have a negative attitude towards foreign products.
Jin et al. (2014)	USA, France, China, India, Malaysia, Brazil, Mauritius, South Africa, Turkey	Examination of the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism and product country image among younger generation consumers and the moderating role of country development status.	Product country image effects differ between developed country and developing country consumers. The relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and foreign product country image is stronger for developing country consumers.

Source: Adapted from J.F Jimenez-Guerrero et al., *Using standard CETSCALE and other adapted versions of the scale for measuring consumers' ethnocentric tendencies: an analysis of dimensionality*, 2014, p. 9. Validity of CETSCALE was further demonstrated in research using non-student samples in countries such as Spain (Luque-Martínez et al., 2000) and Japan and Sweden (Hult et al.,

1999). Some authors compared consumer ethnocentrism depending on the development of country (e.g. Jin et al., 2014), while others identified moderating effects of product categories on consumer ethnocentrism (e.g. Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004), additional authors examined influence of 'availability of domestic alternatives' on consumer ethnocentric tendencies (e.g. Watson & Wright, 2000), etc. The Table 1 provides key findings of each study.

Further, the Table 1 identifies several countries where consumer ethnocentrism has been examined. It can be observed that consumer ethnocentrism concept has been used in various countries and across majority of geographical areas, yet there is scarcity of literature analysing ethnocentrism in Latin America (Jimenez-Guerrero et al., 2014). The results showed that consumers from around the world exhibited different scores on the CETSCALE, depending on the country under study.

1.5 Significance of consumer ethnocentrism for marketing practice

Before describing the significance of consumer ethnocentrism for marketing practice, we have to consider how consumer ethnocentrism impacts consumers' buying process across the product categories. According to Carter (2009, p. 5), the typical consumer buying behaviour consists of four stages: the first stage is product evaluation (overall cognitive evaluation of the product), second stage is attitude towards the product (overall affective evaluation or feelings toward the product), the third stage is purchase intention ('willingness to buy' or 'reluctance to buy'), and the last stage is the actual purchase behaviour. The concept of consumer ethnocentrism has been confirmed to have relevance in consumers' purchase evaluations, it affects beliefs and attitudes (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004), purchase intentions (Vida & Reardon, 2008), and purchase behaviour (Shimp & Sharma, 1987) towards domestic products. Moreover, it affects stages of the decision making process. Marketers have to explore influence of consumer ethnocentrism on the different stages of consumer making decision process of domestic products, so they can find the most innovative strategies, further gain market share and become a market leader in domestic or global competitive environments (Shah, 2012). Since the concept of consumer ethnocentrism is positioned as a key factor affecting consumer evaluation and purchase of foreign products in international marketing literature, the concept must be in a front of mind of international marketers, next to the focus on quality, price and other objective considerations, as success in gaining consumer acceptance is not guaranteed without this component (Jain & Jain, 2013).

Consumer ethnocentrism is a phenomenon that marketing management should take into account, because it allows a product or service providers to market themselves more effectively (De Ruyter, Birgelen & Wetzels, 1998). Understanding whether level of ethnocentrism is a differentiating customer characteristic is useful as it provides marketing managers with reasoning why certain segments of consumers prefer domestic goods and why other do not care about the difference about imported and domestic products (Shimp et al. 1995, p. 34). When forming a segment, marketers should first distinguish between

ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric consumers, and then add information about demographic and lifestyle variables, which would enable to cluster consumers and predict attitudes and intentions for every segment more effectively. The concept of consumer ethnocentrism provides useful information about market characteristics for importers and exporters, and it helps them to formulate appropriate marketing positioning and strategies for selected target markets (Shimp et al., 1995, p. 35). The role of consumer ethnocentrism is also important when companies decide about the entry mode to foreign markets. If a country tends to have high ethnocentric tendencies, a local subsidiary might not be a suitable entry mode, as ethnocentric customers might find the company as being nondomestic and hence be less likely to purchase products in it. Therefore, a better entry mode would be licensing, joint ventures or strategic alliances (De Ruyter et al., 1998).

When competing against local brands, marketers might find it beneficial to convince consumers that global brands symbolize intensified self-image with brand associations like modernity, cosmopolitan, better standard of life etc. (Akram et al., 2011). On the other side, domestic managers can capitalize on ethnocentric consumers. They can stir nationalistic and patriotic feelings to induce consumers to buy products from home country. Campaigns promoting these feelings induce a sense of pride that consumers get when buying domestic product, and feeling of saving home economy against foreign competitors (Jain & Jain, 2013).

One of the possible marketing communications methods that marketers might use when dealing with ethnocentric consumers, can be achieved by influencing the emotions of consumers. For example, companies might use CETSCALE to reveal how ethnocentric consumers are and whether the use of “made-in” would be good for future campaigns (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). They can promote cultural aspects, like values and norms, which global brands may not have (Akram et al., 2011). Further marketers can establish a bond between consumers and local brands, to gain advantage over foreign entrants. Another practical implication of CETSCALE is when making a decision about store location. The results from CETSCALE would show locations where consumers appear to have high ethnocentric tendency and would buy domestic products, and locations with low ethnocentric consumers who consider other objective characteristic when buying a product or service (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 288).

The companies have to stay on track with all current changes in the marketing environment so they have to administer the CETSCALE periodically (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). By using accurate information from CETSCALE and examine the aspects related to the concept of consumer ethnocentrism discussed earlier, companies can become more competitive, improve their quality and become more consumer-oriented.

1.6 Consumer ethnocentrism studies in Western Europe and specifically in France

In first part of this section, the concept of consumer ethnocentrism will be reviewed from the perspective of Western European countries.

Further, our attention will be devoted specifically to France.

Several significant changes have occurred within the past decade that directly affect trade practices among European countries (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004). Besides a political and economic transformations of East European markets from a communist planned market system to a free market system, also the deepening and widening of the European Union created new markets, opportunities and challenges.

After two world wars in the first decades of the twentieth century, the idea of a closer cooperation among the European countries became a vision for a more peaceful and prosperous future. Since then, most of the Western European countries began to promote freer trade and open barriers to international trade. Over decades, a western European trade body evolved into European Union, where tariffs on trade were abolished completely and Europe became a political-economic union of European countries (Tatham, 2009). Despite the constant integration and harmonisation among the European Union countries and the development of a European consciousness, the majority of people in the European Union seem to hold on to their cultural heritage. For example, even though certain countries in the European Union use the same currency, each country releases its own Euro bills and coins with 'personalized' side (Javalgi et al., 2005, p. 326). As Porter (in Shankarmahesh, 2006, p. 147) stated: *"While the post-war trend toward free trade has brought tariffs down and spawned regional trade pacts, the pressures and upheavals of the new international competition have taken their toll in a new wave of protectionism. Protectionism is not only on the rise but is taking more and more subtle forms"*. Thus, despite governmental encouragement of free trade between countries, protectionism in a way of a non-tariff barrier still persist. One of the most enduring non-tariff barriers is consumer ethnocentrism (Shankarmahesh, 2006). Consumer ethnocentrism can be institutionalized as an informal government procurement policy that favours domestic companies or can be viewed as a general societal tendency (Shimp & Sharma, 1987).

Past research has provided evidence that European goods are in general favoured among Europeans, in comparison to Japanese or American goods (Schweiger, Haubl & Friederes 1995). However, that does not mean that all European countries act the same toward products, whether they are European, domestic, or from other continents. An evidence exists there which supports differences between groups of emerging countries as well as between groups of developed countries (Hult et al., 1999). Since consumer ethnocentrism appears to be significant at the individual level of countries within Europe, companies selling products to the countries within the European Union have to deal with different levels of ethnocentrism depending on the country and adapt to its specifics (Javalgi et al., 2005).

Roughly, Europe can be divided into Western and Eastern Europe. Historically, Western Europe had different political and economic system than Eastern Europe. More specifically,

by the definition of United Nations Statistic Division (2014), European Union is directionally divided into Eastern Europe, Northern Europe, Southern Europe and Western Europe. Western Europe is the region comprising the western countries of Europe and will be of primary focus in this chapter. The United Nations Statistics Division considers Western Europe to consist of nine countries: Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Monaco, Netherlands and Switzerland. Western Europe has historically enjoyed the highest living standard in the world and it applies a status of being highly developed.

Due to the differences in levels of economic and technological development, values and attitudes of consumers will be different between developed and developing countries (Wang & Chen, 2004). For example, the research by Jin et al. (2014) showed that young consumers from developing countries with high consumer ethnocentrism tendencies feel more strongly about imported goods than those from developed countries. This implies to international marketers to be sensitive when promoting products in developed or developing countries. Foreign firm from a developed country can still take advantage of favourable images toward brand origin, design origin, etc. (Witkowski, 1998), and position themselves as ‘international brand’, while demonstrate that they are committed to the local economy and societal well-being. Moreover, they provide a sense of ‘local’ belonging, which helps to overcome resistance from highly ethnocentric consumers (Jin et al., 2014).

In both developed and developing countries, there is a preference for domestic products among consumers with strong consumer ethnocentric tendencies. For consumers coming from developed countries, this may be expanded to products from countries, which have a similar cultural background (Watson & Wright, 2000). Thus, consumers exhibiting ethnocentric tendencies seem to favour foreign products, from countries, which are culturally similar. Watson and Wright (2000) discovered that the greater is the cultural similarity, the greater is a chance of product selection.

Further, in the developed countries, consumers tend to have higher perception of quality of domestic products in comparison to foreign products (Wang & Chen, 2004). This favourable perception intensifies the influence of ethnocentrism on purchasing behaviour of domestic and foreign products. While Papadopoulos et al. (1990) suggest that consumers from developed countries have unfavourable perceptions of imports from developing countries; such perceptions have changed due to the increased low-cost manufacturing in developing countries. Cosmopolitan consumers from developed markets may regard such products as domestic brands or favourably regard foreign country brands because they may carry a domestic brand name or association (Cannon & Yaprak, 2002).

There were many studies done within Western Europe. Many authors tested validity and reliability of CETSCALE. One of the authors was Netemeyer et al. (1991), who found strong support for the CETSCALE’s internal consistency and similar unidimensional factor structure in France and West Germany. The construct of CETSCALE was found to be important in large industrialized countries such as France and Germany, where similar feelings of

patriotism, national superiority and belief that domestic products are superior and of better quality have been identified. However, Douglas and Nijssen (2002) found these feelings less remarkable in smaller economies, with open borders and high levels of foreign trade, like Netherlands. Since Netherlands has no or very few domestic brands, consequently attitudes toward foreign products are more nuanced. Further, the distinction is made between appropriateness of buying when there is an absence of Dutch products and when purchasing foreign goods in general.

Other authors were Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998) who tested CETSCALE in Belgium. The research has shown that Belgium consumers have low level of consumer ethnocentric tendencies, with ethnocentric segment accounting up to 27.9%. In the research conducted in Austria, authors Lascu, Manral, Manral, Bilgin, and Wuehrer (2010) examined applicability of CETSCALE in Austria, Poland, the U.S., and Turkey and further compared relative consumer ethnocentrism across those countries. Austria was found to have higher level of ethnocentrism than the U.S., even though they are both developed countries. The level of consumer ethnocentrism in Austria was lower than in Turkey which is a typical emerging market. In a study Rawwas et al. (1996) revealed the effect of world-mindedness on product evaluation. Rawwas et al. (1996) found that highly world-minded Austrian consumers prefer products that satisfy their needs and contribute to global welfare, regardless of country of origin label. However, this pattern of effects is reversed for the low world-minded consumers.

In studies involving European consumers, Germany was frequently investigated. Evanschitzky, Wangenheim, Woisetschläger and Blut (2008) did a study that assessed domestic-country bias in the German market. They found that German market has in general a strong domestic-country bias. However, it is different across the 14 product categories that they examined. Domestic-country bias is stronger, the more ethnocentric consumers are and consequently, the predisposition to prefer domestic to foreign products is higher. In addition, Verlegh (2007) made another attempt to explain home-country bias where he acknowledges the role of consumer ethnocentrism and adds a construct of national identity. He found that the level of consumer ethnocentrism among the Dutch is positively related to their perceived quality of domestic products, however, he showed an even bigger impact of national identity on the evaluation of the quality of domestic products than consumer ethnocentrism.

France is an interesting testing ground within Western Europe, where consumer ethnocentrism can be explored. It is a country full of paradoxes, which consist of many self-contradictory concepts (Javalgi et al., 2005). For example, France is a member of European Union and has always been supportive of it, but has also shown much level of nationalism (Javalgi et al., 2005). Further, although French people have reputation of being extremely proud of their country and have traditionally exported many products and services, they have also welcomed products and services from abroad.

A study conducted by Hult et al. (2000) found French consumers open to different types of foreign products. This can be explained by the fact that French want to be up-to-date, have

global taste and have appetite for foreign products (Javalgi et al., 2005). An older contradicting study is indicating that the French consumers have a very strong preference for domestic products (Baumgartner & Jolibert, 1987). Various previous studies have addressed the issue of costs associated with buying domestic products (e.g. Granzin & Painter, 2001). Lately, the French government started to promote “Made in France” consumer goods and products. The problem however is that product made in France cost much more than foreign products. A study by two economists from the Paris-based Centre for Economic Forecasting and International Information (CEPII), suggests that consumers might need to be passionately patriotic, or pretty well-off to buy only French goods (MacGuill, 2013).

Another aspect of French consumer purchasing behaviour was investigated by Gao, Wong, House and Spreen (2014) who looked at French consumer perception, preference and willingness to pay for fresh fruit based on country of origin. Results showed that the French had the highest willingness to pay for fresh fruit from France, followed by fruit from Spain, while Chinese fruit was perceived as the lowest quality, the least safe, and the cheapest among the fruit.

Several studies (e.g. Hult et al., 2000) in the past investigated several aspects of French buying behaviour when dealing with foreign products; however, none of them put the concept of ethnocentrism in a central focus (Javalgi et al., 2005). Javalgi et al. (2005) did a survey in France, with purpose to understand what leads French consumers to ethnocentric behaviour and its consequences on attitude toward imports and on purchase intentions. The results have shown that the French do not appear to be overly ethnocentric, in comparison to other countries, which were studied, but have a strong country image perception. Patriotism, conservatism, and individualism/collectivism proved to have a significant positive relationship with ethnocentrism, while cultural openness did not appear to be significant, in affecting ethnocentric tendencies. The French are willing to buy foreign products, however, they will be more likely to buy products and brands which have a good reputation. Furthermore, ethnocentric consumers were found to have a more positive attitude toward foreign products, when they found them as necessary, as opposed to unnecessary products such as luxury items. The authors suggest the marketers do not try to ‘open up’ ethnocentric consumers, but rather try to identify with France. Since the political posture as an attribute of exporting country was found to have a positive relationship to ethnocentrism, the European Union member countries might have advantage when selling products to French ethnocentric consumers and ethnocentrism could be refocused on Europe as the nation, not just on France.

In another study Clarke et al. (2000) examined consumer ethnocentrism across Australia, France, Mexico, and the United States, where they postulated materialism, values and country differences as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism. For the country differences Clarke et al. (2000) used sources of differences in economic development and cultural dimensions among countries, which were cited, not measured. Based upon criteria of economic level and collectivistic nature, authors demonstrated that Mexican consumers are more ethnocentric than their French counterparts. Further French consumers ranked higher than Australians, due

to France's position at the crossroads of Europe, in comparison to Australia's more isolated location. A positive correlation was found between materialism and consumer ethnocentrism across all four countries, while the direction and strength of the relationship between the dimensions and consumer ethnocentrism varied across examined nations. Clarke et al. (2000) in their study wanted to demonstrate that both dimensions, internal and external, of Kahle's (1983) nine-item List of Values, are significant antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism. However, the internal dimension was not found to be a significant antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism, unlike than the List of Values external dimension.

2 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH ON CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM IN FRANCE

As the information gathered from secondary data often is not enough to solve a specific problem, it is common that researchers address the stated problem by conducting an empirical research and collect primary data.

Researchers have three basic methods at their disposal for gathering primary data: surveys, experiments and observation. The chosen method depends on the research objectives, the availability and cost of data sources and the urgency of the choice (Zikmund, 2003, p. 65). Based on the findings from examination of existing scientific literature on the topic of interest and the purpose of this study, we have chosen survey as a research method, specifically a structured questionnaire. By conducting a survey, we intent to find out if the hypotheses proposed reveal similar or different findings in comparison to previously conducted studies within the context of French consumers.

The objectives of the empirical research are the following:

1. To determine the level of ethnocentric tendencies among French consumers.
2. To examine the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on attitudes toward domestic products and subsequently on the domestic consumption.
3. To empirically test whether consumer ethnocentrism has an impact on French's reluctance to buy foreign products.
4. To quantify the impact socio-psychological antecedents on consumer ethnocentric tendencies in France.
5. To examine the effects of demographic characteristics on ethnocentric feelings.

As previously mentioned, we decided to use quantitative research, where participants receive a questionnaire and have to answer to various closed-type questions. The questionnaire consists of five parts. With the first four parts of the questionnaire, we are examining variables related to consumer ethnocentrism which were studied by numerous authors. Constructs in the questionnaire are formed with statements measured on a five-point Likert scale. The respondents will be asked to evaluate the statements on a scale from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree".

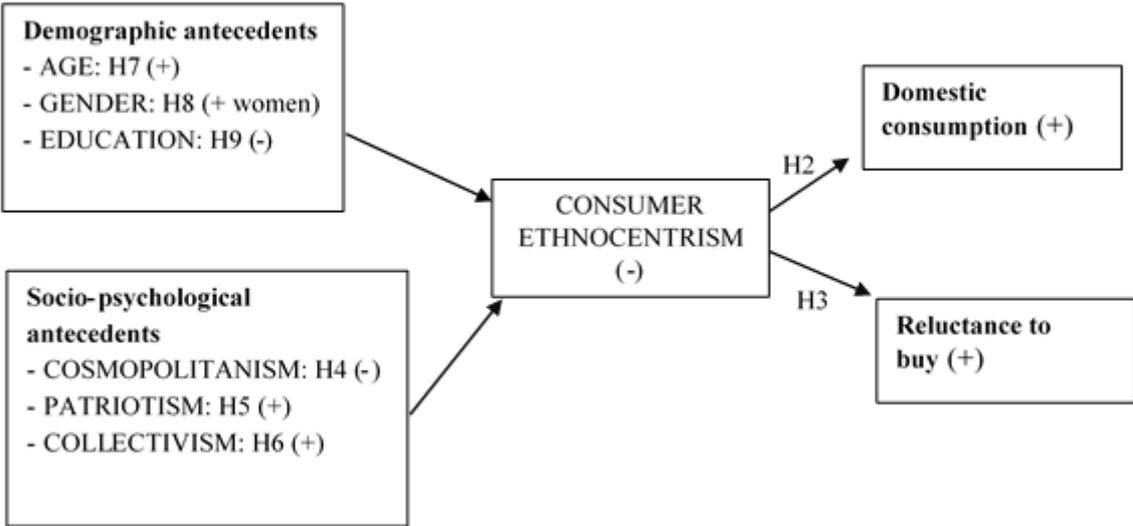
In the fifth section of questionnaire respondents provide their demographic characteristics, such as age, gender, educational and income level, work status and place of residence. On the basis of constructs measured with a questionnaire, we will examine a set of hypotheses derived from the literature review, discussed in Chapter 1. After the collection of the data, quantitative analysis will take place. Quantitative data analysis will be conducted with Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program.

2.1 Conceptual model and research hypotheses

In the following sections, based on the literature review described in Chapter 1, we develop the conceptual model for the study, The conceptual framework used in this study is based mainly on the work by Sharma et al. (1995), where the concept of consumer ethnocentrism was used as a starting point (Figure 1) and on the model from Shankarmahesh (2006), depicted in Figure 2. In comparison to Sharma et al. (1995), we have adapted the model by (1) including the attitudes of consumers toward domestic consumption, (2) excluding two socio-psychological antecedents, namely conservatism and cultural openness, which was replaced by cosmopolitanism and (3) we excluded moderating factors from the model.

The conceptual model for this study depicted in Figure 3 was developed as a guideline to investigate consumer ethnocentrism and how it could influence the attitudes of French consumers towards domestic consumption and ultimately the reluctance to buy foreign products.

Figure 3. Conceptual model and research hypotheses



A number of hypotheses were developed based on previous studies and the model depicted in Figure 3 was then developed. Next, a brief discussion of the background and development of the hypotheses proposed for this study is provided.

Within the European Union, France is an interesting country to explore consumer ethnocentric tendencies. It is a country full of paradoxes and has highly developed market. People from developed nations tend to be less ethnocentric than those from emerging markets (Sharma et al., 1995). Findings from previous research (Javalgi et al., 2005) conducted on the non-students sample of French consumers, showed that French consumers appear as not overly ethnocentric, compared to other nationalities, but tend to seriously consider country of image perception. According to previous studies, we posit:

H1: French consumers, on the average, do not exhibit high levels of consumer ethnocentrism.

In the conceptual model for this study, the relationship between domestic consumption and consumer ethnocentrism is examined. Granzin and Painter (2001) studied patterns of influences on domestic purchasing behaviour, which is defined as an individual's purchase-related behaviour in support of the domestic economy. Kaynak and Kara (2002, p. 934) suggested that "the consequences of consumer ethnocentricity include overestimation of the quality and value of domestic products and underestimation of the virtues of imports, a moral obligation to buy domestic products, and intense preference for domestic products". Thus, based on this existing body of previous research, we hypothesize:

H2: Consumer ethnocentrism will be positively correlated with domestic consumption.

In the proposed model, reluctance to buy foreign products is hypothesized to be affected by related, yet different construct, consumer ethnocentrism. Previous studies (e.g. Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Balabanis, 2001) found consumers who scored higher on CETSCALE, having negative evaluations of products made in a foreign country and in turn show greater reluctance to buy those foreign-made products. Studies found reluctance to buy foreign products as a distinctive construct to foreign country willingness to buy. Consumer ethnocentrism has been known as one of the antecedents, which negatively influence willingness to buy foreign products, while, on the other side it affects reluctance to buy foreign products in a positive way (Suh & Kwon, 2002). Having this in mind, it is expected that French consumers who score higher on CETSCALE and therefore exhibit greater ethnocentric tendencies, will be reluctant to buy foreign products. Hence, we propose the following hypothesis:

H3: Consumer ethnocentrism will be positively correlated with consumers' reluctance to buy foreign products.

In terms of socio-psychological antecedents, the original model by Sharma et al. (1995) used four constructs, namely cultural openness, patriotism, conservatism and collectivism/individualism. The model developed for this study included two of the above mentioned variables, patriotism and collectivism. In addition, another socio-psychological variable, cosmopolitanism, was added to this study. Cosmopolitanism has a lot of related

constructs, such as internationalism, global mindedness, world-mindedness and cultural openness, but has been chosen due to its increased attention, in the recent years.

The first socio-psychological antecedent, cosmopolitanism, refers to individuals who are oriented towards the outside world, rather than local setting, whose role in marketing research has been widely examined in the literature (Shankarmahesh, 2006) and despite the contradictory results, the majority of research found strong and significant negative relationship between cosmopolitanism and consumer ethnocentrism (Parts, 2013). A key characteristic of cosmopolitanism is openness toward foreign cultures, which is in France exhibited by consumers, who have accepted various products, such as textiles, electronic goods and professional services, coming from foreign countries. Further, French show a positive disposition toward products from foreign countries, even though they consider reputation of countries from which products are acquired (Javalgi et al., 2005). Moreover, many French people travel outside France (Institute de la Statistique et des Etudes Economiques, 2013), and thus gain international experience. Finally, the development of internet and globalisation facilitated a view on services and products, beyond national borders. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

H4: Cosmopolitanism and ethnocentrism are negatively related.

Another socio-psychological variable, patriotism, is defined as love for or devotion to one's country (Sharma et al., 1995), which may vary from country to country, often due to historical events (Balabanis, 2001). Because of love and devotion to their own country, patriotic consumers tend to favour their own country's products. Past studies found patriotism being positively related to consumer ethnocentrism. When focusing specifically on France, we can find French people having a reputation of being very proud of their country, because of its arts, history, wine making and fashion, architecture, and philosophy. Further, many of the French people consider France as a leading player in the world in cultural matters, such as painting, literature, music etc., which is consequently exhibited in strong patriotic tendencies (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 1993). In the research by Javalgi et al. (2005), the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and patriotism for French consumers was found to be positive, which was in line with authors expectations. Based on the previous research, we posit:

H5: Patriotism and ethnocentrism are positively related.

Another variable used as antecedent to consumer ethnocentrism is individualism/collectivism. Individualism refers to people who prefer to act as individuals rather than as members of a group, while collectivistic people prefer being closely related with groups, such as country or family and expect their group to take care of them (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998, p. 59). Since collectivists, similarly to ethnocentric consumers, find themselves to be responsible for other's social conditions and consider effect of their behaviour on the society, they tend to exhibit a higher ethnocentrism in their buying behaviour (Sharma et al., 1995). When

comparing the level of collectivism/individualism of France to other countries, we can see that France is more individualistic society than Japan, but more collectivistic than United States (Javalgi et al., 2005). Even though Hofstede (2010) found that many of Western European countries tend to be more individualistic, the French still have very collectivistic mind-set (Javalgi et al., 2005). The French tend to be strongly attached to their families and usually take other people into consideration (Kontinen, 2011). Furthermore, they have a powerful welfare support system, and expect government to do what it can, in order to help the majority (Javalgi et al., 2005). Collectivistic consumers are likely to demonstrate strong ethnocentric tendencies (Sharma et al., 1995), therefore we propose the following hypothesis:

H6: Collectivism and ethnocentrism are positively related.

Various authors noted that demographic factors influence consumer ethnocentric tendencies. The hypothesized relationships between demographic variables and consumer ethnocentrism were generally found to be consistent, but researchers have not always been able to demonstrate statistical significance. Javalgi et al. (2005, p. 328) point out that the most commonly used demographic variables in previous ethnocentrism studies were age, gender, education and income. In line with the above, the demographic antecedents in the model for this study included age, gender and education. Since a detailed description of contradicting findings regarding relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and demographic variables is presented in section 1.2, the argumentation for the proposed hypotheses will be brief.

In line with previous research, older people tend to have higher ethnocentric tendencies than younger people, because they are generally more conservative and less inclined toward imports (Balabanis et al., 2001; Javalgi et al., 2005; Shankarmahesh, 2006; Sharma et al., 1995). This is further theoretically supported by the positive relationships between age and dogmatism (Anderson & Cunningham, 1972). On the other side, younger people are more cosmopolitan, thus very attracted to foreign products and marketing formats (Sharma et al., 1995). Javalgi et al. (2005) argued that since younger consumers have not lived through domestic war, they are expected to be more accepting of foreign goods than older generations. In fact, the results from their study showed that older consumers exhibited higher ethnocentric tendencies than younger ones. Based on those findings we hypothesize:

H7: Ethnocentric tendencies vary significantly across the observed age groups.

When gender is considered, results from previous studies are contradictory. Earlier studies revealed that men exhibit higher ethnocentric tendencies than women (Bannister & Saunders, 1978). In more recent studies, researchers hypothesized and proved that women exhibited higher ethnocentric tendencies than men (Balabanis et al., 2001), probably due to females being more caring, concerned about impact of their actions on others and preserving social harmony (Sharma et al. 1995). Before the research by Javalgi et al. (2005), no study investigated the case of French female consumers. Authors' hypothesis regarding the gender and ethnocentric tendencies relationship, are therefore based on the previous studies done in

several European nations, which obtained the same results (i.e. ethnocentric tendencies of women are higher than men). Results derived from their primary data supported the proposed hypothesis and showed that in France, women exhibited higher ethnocentric tendencies than men. Similarly, we hypothesize:

H8: Ethnocentric tendencies of women are higher than men.

Level of education has also shown to be important in the perception of imported products in comparison to domestic products. Most of the studies (e.g. Balabanis et al., 2001; Watson & Wright, 2000) confirmed a negative relationship between education and consumer ethnocentrism. Javalgi et al. (2005) hypothesized that level of education and ethnocentrism are negatively related for French consumers, but found the correlation between ethnocentrism and education not statistically significant. Based on these findings, we hypothesize:

H9: Ethnocentric tendencies vary significantly across the observed education categories.

2.2 Quantitative research methodology

For the purpose of our study, we employed a questionnaire, which was developed on the basis of the findings from literature, presented in theoretical part of our study. We have chosen structured questionnaire since it is a frequently used technique of data collection, which provides an efficient way of collecting responses from a large sample (Saunders et al., 2009). In the next section, we will describe the research methodology of this study. More specifically we operationalize with all constructs in the conceptual model (Figure 3) and provide a description of questionnaire design and data collection.

2.2.1 Operationalization of variables

The concept of consumer ethnocentrism has been investigated in numerous studies, which provided various items connected with the concept. After an analysis of previous studies and variables used by various researchers, a final list of items was selected for our research. Thus, this study examines the construct of consumer ethnocentrism and its related constructs such as cosmopolitanism, patriotism, collectivism, reluctance to buy and domestic consumption (Table 2).

For measuring consumer ethnocentrism, we decided to use CETSCALE. Even though the original CETSCALE consists of 17 items (Shimp & Sharma, 1987), its shortened versions have been widely used in many researches (e.g. Vida & Reardon, 2008; Josiassen, 2011), which confirmed its validity in different settings. We decided to use a scale with four items, which were taken from original CETSCALE and modified to the Slovenian context. Next, we operationalised the construct of domestic consumption with four statements, adapted from Granzin and Painter (2001) scale of consumer helping behaviour. Respondents answered about their purchasing habits of domestic products and brands and were asked to identify retail outlets that stock them (Vida & Reardon, 2008). Next concept, reluctance to buy foreign

products was measured with five items, adapted from Nijssen et al. (2004). Finally, the socio-psychological constructs, cosmopolitanism and collectivism were measured by means of four items, while patriotism was measured by three statements, obtained from existing literature. The cosmopolitanism concept will be operationalized with four items which were obtained from Cleveland and Laroche (2007), patriotism will be operationalized with three items derived by Kosterman and Feshbach (1989) and lastly, collectivism will be operationalized with four items obtained by Yoo et al. (2011). All variable labels and items which measure the described constructs are depicted in Table 2.

Table 2. Operationalization of studied constructs

ITEM	VARIABLE LABEL	ADAPTED FROM / BASED ON
Consumer ethnocentrism We should purchase products manufactured in France instead of letting other countries get rich off us. French should not buy foreign products, because this hurts French business and causes unemployment. It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support French products. Only those products that are unavailable in France should be imported.	CET1 CET2 CET3 CET4	Shimp & Sharma (1987)
Domestic consumption Mostly I try to buy brands of domestic companies. Whenever possible, I take time to look at labels in order to knowingly buy more brands of domestic companies. I shop first at retail outlets that make special effort to offer a variety of domestic products. I shop first at retail outlets that make special effort to offer brands of domestic products.	DC1 DC2 DC3 DC4	Granzin & Painter (2001)
Reluctance to buy Whenever possible, I avoid buying foreign products. I don't like the idea of owning a product that has been manufactured abroad. If two products were equal in quality, but one was from the France and one was from abroad, I would pay 10% more for the product from the France. I would never buy a foreign product. I would feel guilty if I bought a foreign product.	REL1 REL2 REL3 REL4 REL5	Nijssen & Douglas (2004)
Socio-psychological antecedents		
Cosmopolitanism I like to observe people of other cultures, to see what I can learn from them. I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries. I enjoy exchanging ideas with people from other cultures and countries. I like to learn about other ways of life.	COS1 COS2 COS3 COS4	Cleveland & Laroche (2007)
Patriotism I love my country. I am proud to be French. Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to France always remains strong.	PAT1 PAT2 PAT3	Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)
Collectivism Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties. Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for a group. Group welfare is more important than individual reward. Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.	COL1 COL2 COL3 COL4	Yoo et al. (2011)

In the last part of questionnaire, respondents were asked about their demographic characteristics. We asked respondents' of their year of birth, which was transformed into respondents' age (AGE) and collected data measuring their gender (GENDER), highest level of education (EDUCATION) and income (INCOME), which are also most commonly used demographic in previous studies (Balabanis et al. 2001). The respondents who indicated their monthly income as an average relative to the national average, had to answer an additional question (AVE_INCOME). We also asked respondents about their place of residence (RESIDENCE) and their work status (WORK).

2.2.2 Questionnaire design and data collection

Questionnaire design is a multiple-stage process and is extremely important because it affects response rate as well as the reliability and validity of data collected. Designing of the questionnaire is complicated and it takes considerable amount of time, therefore it is suggested to follow the steps recommended by Sounders et al. (2009, p. 362): (1) carefully design questions, (2) create an attractive layout of the questionnaire, (3) unambiguously explain the purpose of the questionnaire, (4) do a pilot testing, and (5) carefully execute administration.

After consideration of the proposed recommendations, we designed a questionnaire, which contained only structured questions. The respondents had to evaluate the statements on a scale ranging from 1 representing “strongly disagree” to 5 representing “strongly agree”. In order to make questions more understandable, we carefully selected its wording and made questions clear and short. Further, we organized sequence of questions to form the coherent questionnaire. We clearly explained the response options, at the beginning of each group of statements. Moreover, we provided a brief introduction, where the names of author and institution were listed and the purpose of research was explained. During the completion of the questionnaire the respondents were informed about the approximate duration of questionnaire, and at which stage of questionnaire they are currently staying. The questionnaire was designed in such a way that respondents could not continue, unless all responses to questions had been completed, which helped to reduce item nonresponsive reaction. The online questionnaire allowed participants to answer the questions in the order in which they were presented, while still having a possibility to return to previously listed questions.

Prior to data collection, we established *face validity*. After translation of the questionnaire into French, we conducted a pilot test on a set of 10 respondents. This enabled us to check if the statements are correctly understood. Respondents did not report about any critical issues. Nevertheless, we made changes and improved the questionnaire. The English and French version of the questionnaire are presented in Appendice.

The basic measurement for this study was an online questionnaire, created with Ika survey design software. The questionnaire was distributed to the sample of respondents using web-based approach, where the respondents accessed the survey, which was available for a predetermined period of time. Each respondent was requested to click on a link that was connected to the Ika web site, where the questionnaire was hosted. This method was chosen, since it can be easily sent to a large amount of people around the world. We also administered some questionnaires by randomly distributing questionnaires to passers-by.

For this particular study, non-probability sampling technique was chosen, more specifically snowball sampling. We sent the questionnaire to a number of friends and colleagues and ask them to fill in the questionnaire and pass the link to other friends and family, via email or

share it on Facebook, in order to generate a higher rate of response. This technique has good characteristics, such as time and cost efficiency, however, it might cause problems of bias, since the respondents tend to identify other respondents who are similar to them, which leads to a homogeneous sample (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 240). As attempt to achieve more heterogeneous sample, we also distributed some questionnaires to random passers-by in shopping centre in Lille.

3 DATA ANALYSIS

In this section, the findings of empirical study of consumer ethnocentrism in France will be provided. First, we present the demographic characteristics of the sample. Further, we focus on six constructs, which were depicted in the conceptual model in Figure 3. We provide descriptive statistics, such as frequency, mean, and standard deviations and examine constructs dimensionality by conducting an exploratory factor analysis. The chapter is concluded with the analysis of hypotheses testing.

3.1 Characteristics of the sample

Primary data were collected in the period between November 4th and November 21th 2014. The majority of data collection was gathered in first phase of data collection through the online questionnaire. In the second phase, we also employed other modes of data collection. By approaching potential respondents and asking them to fill out the paper version of the questionnaire, a total number of 36 questionnaires were gathered. Upon the expiration of the time designated for online data collection, we retrieved a total of 101 questionnaires with the ‘completed’ status. However, nine questionnaires were excluded from further analysis due inadequate or missing values. Thus, our final sample consists of 128 usable questionnaires. The response rate could not be calculated, since we used a snowball sampling technique, which does not give information of the total number of people asked to fill in the questionnaire.

Before going into further analysis, it is necessary to take a closer look at the characteristics of the respondents. Thus, the purpose of this section is to explore the general characteristics of the respondents, who provided information for this study. Table 3 provides demographic profile of our sample. The first characteristic, namely age, was transformed from the year of birth into respondents’ age (AGE) which was later formed into seven categories in order to show the age distribution (AGE_GROUP). With regard to the age variable, we divided the respondents into four groups: 14-26 years old, 27-39 years old, 40-52 years old and 53-65 years old. Even though the age ranges between 14 and 62, there is no surprise that a majority of respondents are under the age of 39 since college students were the starting point of data collection. The mean age is 36.07, standard deviation was 12.78. In the sample structure there are more males (59.4%), than females (40.6%).

Table 3. Demographic characteristics of the respondents

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS		FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (%)
AGE GROUPS	14-26	38	29.7%
	27-39	42	32.8%
	40-52	29	22.7%
	53-65	19	14.8%
	Missing	0	0.0%
GENDER	Female	52	40.6%
	Male	76	59.4%
	Missing	0	0.0%
EDUCATION	Elementary school	12	9.4%
	Middle school	28	21.9%
	High school	50	39.1%
	Collegue education	38	29.7%
	Missing	0	0.0%
WORK STATUS	Work in household or on farm	0	0.0%
	Self-employed	0	0.0%
	Employed – management position	13	10.2%
	Employed - non- management position	57	44.5%
	Unemployed	1	0.8%
	Retired	0	0.0%
	Student	57	44.5%
	Missing	0	0.0%
INCOME	Below average	0	0.0%
	Slightly below average	0	0.0%
	Exactly average	44	34.4%
	Slightly above average	70	54.7%
	Above average	11	8.6%
	Missing	3	2.3%
PLACE OF RESIDENCE	City (above 100,000 inhabitants)	127	99.2%
	Town (from 10,000 to 100,000 inhabitants)	0	0.0%
	Settlement (up to 10,000 inhabitants)	0	0.0%
	Missing	1	0.8%

With regard to educational level, the majority completed at least high school education. The work status shows that the most of the respondents are students or employed in non – management positions.

The questionnaire contained two questions regarding respondents’ monthly income. The responses were merged into one variable (INCOME_NEW), formed of five income categories. More than half of the respondents indicated their monthly income as slightly above the average. Finally, the response option regarding the place of residence showed that all the respondents came from cities with more than 100.000 inhabitants, and the majority from cities such as Lille and Paris.

3.2 Statistical analysis of the constructs studied

In this section, we provide findings of reliability analyses conducted for the chosen constructs. Further, we focus some of attention to the validity of the measurement scales. In

the last part, we discuss descriptive statistics where we outline mean values of scale items, composite scale values and standard deviations.

3.2.1 Reliability and validity of the measurement scales

The chosen measurement scales that we used for consumer ethnocentrism, domestic consumption, reluctance to buy, cosmopolitanism, patriotism and collectivism are all based on previous studies, examined in the theoretical part of the thesis (Table 2). The computer program SPSS was used to perform the exploratory factor analysis for each construct, to specifically identify possible commonalities and extracting factors from the data. The Principal Component Analysis was used as the method of factor extraction. Table 4 presents the factor loadings for consumer ethnocentrism.

Table 4. Factor loadings and reliability for consumer ethnocentrism

CONSTRUCT (FACTOR)	ITEM	FACTOR LOADING	CRONBACH'S ALPHA
Consumer ethnocentrism	We should purchase products manufactured in France instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	0.722	0.811
	French should not buy foreign products, because this hurts French business and causes unemployment.	0.867	
	It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support French products.	0.829	
	Only those products that are unavailable in France should be imported.	0.792	

Table 5 shows factor loadings for domestic consumption and reluctance to buy and for socio-psychological variables of cosmopolitanism, patriotism and collectivism. For all of these constructs, factor loadings were sufficiently high and loaded fairly well onto a single factor. Therefore, only one component was extracted for each of the chosen constructs.

The next step of the data analysis process involves the examination of reliability of the variables studied. Reliability refers to an extent to which analysis procedure will yield consistent findings between multiple measurements of a given variable (Saunders, 2009, p. 156). Thus, the underlying idea of reliability is that all items used in one scale should be highly intercorrelated, suggesting that they indeed measure the same thing. Moreover, reliability analysis aims to identify items that will provide the most reliable measures. There exist numerous methods to check the reliability of a measure.

Cronbach's alpha is 0.70, although this value may decrease to 0.60 in cases where exploratory research is conducted. Leskošek and Kogovšek (1995, 157) recommended the following guidelines for coefficient alpha values: if $\alpha \geq 0,80$ the results are exemplary, if $0.70 \leq \alpha \leq 0.80$,

Table 5. Factor loadings and reliability for domestic consumption, reluctance to buy and for socio-psychological variables: cosmopolitanism, patriotism and collectivism

CONSTRUCT (FACTOR)	ITEM	FACTOR LOADING	CRONBACH'S ALPHA
Domestic consumption	Mostly I try to buy brands of domestic companies.	0.837	0.905
	Whenever possible, I take time to look at labels in order to knowingly buy more brands of domestic companies.	0.813	
	I shop first at retail outlets that make special effort to offer a variety of domestic products.	0.96	
	I shop first at retail outlets that make special effort to offer brands of domestic products.	0.946	
Reluctance to buy	Whenever possible, I avoid buying foreign products.	0.773	0.819
	I don't like the idea of owning a product that has been manufactured abroad.	0.873	
	If two products were equal in quality, but one was from the France and one was from abroad, I would pay 10% more for the product from the France.	0.757	
	I would never buy a foreign product.	0.789	
	I would feel guilty if I bought a foreign product.	0.673	
Cosmopolitanism	I like to observe people of other cultures, to see what I can learn from them.	0.702	0.844
	I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries.	0.911	
	I enjoy exchanging ideas with people from other cultures and countries.	0.888	
	I like to learn about other ways of life.	0.852	
Patriotism	I love my country.	0.853	0.82
	I am proud to be French.	0.893	
	Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to France always remains strong.	0.84	
Collectivism	Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.	0.773	0.828
	Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for a group.	0.853	
	Group welfare is more important than individual reward.	0.826	
	Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.	0.799	

the results are very good, if $0.60 \leq \alpha \leq 0.70$ the results are moderate and if $\alpha < 0.60$, the results are barely acceptable.

To measure internal consistency and therefore reliability of CETSCALE, we employed the Cronbach's Alpha coefficients. The verification of CETSCALE reliability and its Cronbach's alpha coefficients can be observed in the Table 4, where we can that alpha value is 0.81. The result for the data indicates an exemplary value of the coefficients. The Cronbach's alpha test exhibited high internal consistency of the CETSCALE, which showed that all the items within the scale provide consistent results. Further, Table 5 shows alpha value for domestic consumption and reluctance to buy; both with values are above 0.8, suggesting high internal consistency of the scale. The same goes for socio-psychological factors, namely cosmopolitanism, patriotism and collectivism, which appear to be very reliable as well (Table 5).

One of the methods is Cronbach's alpha measure of reliability, with which we will estimate the internal consistency of the items in a scale. The coefficient is expressed in a number between 0 and 1. Hair et al. (1998, p. 118) argue that the commonly agreed-upon lower boundary for

Validity, which is closely associated with the reliability of an instrument, is concerned with the extent to which a questionnaire measures what it is intended to measure (Saunders, 2009, p. 372). Different forms of validity exist there, but for the purpose of our study, we will examine content validity. Content validity is often measured by relying on the knowledge of expertise that are familiar with the construct and are asked to provide feedback on how well each question measure the construct in question. Thus, the content validity is assumed to be established when the scale has been constructed as claimed in the literature (Alegre, Lapiedra & Chiva, 2006, p. 338). The concepts measured in our study were all taken from international literature, where its reliability and validity have been widely confirmed by several studies. For example the CETSCALE, measuring level of consumer ethnocentrism, is the standard scale that has been tested and validated in many countries.

3.2.2 Descriptive statistics

In the following section we present the main findings obtained using the SPSS descriptive statistics procedures. We computed composite scales, by averaging the scale items for each construct, which are needed for the purpose of hypotheses testing.

Consumer ethnocentrism was measured with a shortened version of CETSCALE consisting of 4 items, which were adapted from 17 items scale developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987). Statements were measured on a five-point Likert scale. The respondents evaluated the statements on the scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Average scores for ethnocentrism were calculated in order to determine the level of ethnocentrism. Respondents were categorised as having high ethnocentric tendencies if they scored in the top half of CETSCALE, and vice versa. Table 6 shows mean and standard deviation for all items measuring consumer ethnocentrism construct. The average composite scale was 2.87, with the standard deviation of 1.26, indicating that respondents do not harbor highly ethnocentric

tendencies. Using a 5-point scale yields a scale range between 4 and 20, for 4-items scale. The mean score of entire CETSCALE model in our study is 11.47, which is slightly lower than theoretically expected mean score of 12. A standard deviation of 4.047 imply that consumers are not uniformly ethnocentric. Further, it can be observed that respondents agreed most with the statement (average value 3.16), that French should purchase products manufactured in France, instead of letting other countries get rich off them. The remaining three items had a mean value slightly below response option 3 (neither agree nor disagree).

Table 6. Descriptive statistics of consumer ethnocentrism items

Construct	Scale item	Mean	Standard deviation
Consumer ethnocentrism	We should purchase products manufactured in France instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	3.16	1.40
	French should not buy foreign products, because this hurts French business and causes unemployment.	2.50	1.20
	It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support French products.	2.88	1.30
	Only those products that are unavailable in France should be imported.	2.94	1.15
	Composite scale	2.87	1.26

Mean values and standard deviations of items measuring domestic consumption, reluctance to buy foreign products and of socio-psychological variables (cosmopolitanism, patriotism and collectivism) are depicted in Table 7. All of the constructs were measured on five point Likert scale, 1 meaning strongly disagree and 5 meaning strongly agree.

Domestic consumption is defined as individual purchase behaviour in support to domestic economy and it was measured by four statements. The composite scale value is fairly close to neutral point 3, scoring at 2.9. Respondents agreed most with the statement that whenever they have time, they look at labels in order to knowingly buy domestic brands (average value is 3.19). The least supported items regarding the domestic consumption are connected with making a special effort to shop at retail stores offering domestic brands and products.

The scale value of reluctance to buy, computed as the mean of scale items, is 2.06. Since higher scores represent greater reluctance to buy foreign products and vice versa, the results are suggesting that respondents rated statements regarding the reluctance toward buying foreign products fairly low.

Reluctance to buy was measured by five-item scale. Respondents expressed the biggest disagreement towards the statement “I would never buy a foreign product”. Only the statement “when product quality is the same, I would be willing to pay additional 10% for a French product”, is somewhat above the neutral point, while respondents seem to largely disagree with other three statements listed.

Table 7. Descriptive statistics of domestic consumption, reluctance to buy and socio-psychological variables: cosmopolitanism, patriotism and collectivism

Construct	Scale item	Mean	Standard deviation
Domestic consumption	Mostly I try to buy brands of domestic companies.	3.09	1.26
	Whenever possible, I take time to look at labels in order to knowingly buy more brands of domestic companies.	3.19	1.27
	I shop first at retail outlets that make special effort to offer a variety of domestic products.	2.66	1.14
	I shop first at retail outlets that make special effort to offer brands of domestic products.	2.66	1.02
	Composite scale	2.90	1.17
Reluctance to buy	Whenever possible, I avoid buying foreign products.	2.44	1.09
	I don't like the idea of owning a product that has been manufactured abroad.	1.94	0.87
	If two products were equal in quality, but one was from the France and one was from abroad, I would pay 10% more for the product from the France.	3.06	1.12
	I would never buy a foreign product.	1.38	0.65
	I would feel guilty if I bought a foreign product.	1.47	0.66
	Composite scale	2.06	0.88
Cosmopolitanism	I like to observe people of other cultures, to see what I can learn from them.	4.19	0.73
	I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries.	4.56	0.56
	I enjoy exchanging ideas with people from other cultures and countries.	4.52	0.55
	I like to learn about other ways of life.	4.59	0.54
	Composite scale	4.47	0.59
Patriotism	I love my country.	4.39	0.66
	I am proud to be French.	4.08	0.86
	Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to France always remains strong.	3.81	0.89
	Composite scale	4.09	0.80
Collectivism	Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.	4.00	0.76
	Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for a group.	3.11	0.87
	Group welfare is more important than individual reward.	3.05	0.78
	Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.	3.02	0.86
	Composite scale	3.30	0.82

When looking at socio-psychological variables, the two of the concepts studied, namely patriotism and cosmopolitanism received higher composite scale value than the third concept,

collectivism. The respondents expressed strong support for all statements measuring the cosmopolitanism concept, which was measured on a four-item scale. All those items received an average score above 4, with the average of the composite scale value of 4.47. This suggests that respondents harbor cosmopolitan tendencies, which are exhibited in strong respondents' support towards learning about other ways of life and being interested in people who live in the foreign countries.

Patriotism was measured by three statements. Similarly to the cosmopolitanism concept, patriotism also reached the average value around 4, which suggest that respondents express highly patriotic emotions. The respondents expressed the highest support toward statement "I love my country".

Once again, in comparison to cosmopolitanism and patriotism, the composite scale of collectivism recorded the lowest overall average number, scoring fairly close to the neutral point. The concept was measured on a four-item scale. Only the statement regarding individuals sticking with a group through difficulties had a value of 4, while other three items' mean value was slightly above the neutral response option 3. Despite the lowest score in comparison to other two socio-psychological constructs, respondents still harbour collectivistic tendencies.

3.3 Hypotheses testing

In this section, each of nine proposed hypotheses presented in the previous chapter, are statistically tested. For each hypothesis, we employ specific statistical test and procedure, such as one sample t-test, independent sample t-test, χ^2 - test and Pearson's correlation coefficient. Of the nine hypothesised relationships addressed in the study, all of them were empirically confirmed on the sample of French respondents. Hypotheses testing results will be discussed next.

H1: French consumers, on the average, do not exhibit high levels of consumer ethnocentrism.

For Hypothesis 1, the consumer ethnocentric tendencies of French were measured by means of four-item consumer ethnocentrism scale. As already mentioned before, the CETSCALE exhibited a high degree of internal consistency, evident from a Cronbach's alpha reliability score of 0.81. Following the confirmation of the single-factor model for the CETSCALE, we tested whether the French consumers exhibit ethnocentric tendencies or not. The construct was measured in a questionnaire with statements, measured on a five-point Likert scale. In null hypothesis we proposed that arithmetic mean is higher or the same to 3.5, which means that respondents are ethnocentric. In the alternative hypothesis, we stated that the arithmetic mean is statistically lower than 3.5, suggesting lower ethnocentric tendencies. Our test had $n-1$ degrees of freedom ($df = 127$ in our case). After conducting a one sample t-test, we reject null hypothesis and we conclude that the arithmetic mean is significantly different from 3.5

(Appendixes). Thus, we are stating that French consumers do not harbour highly ethnocentric tendencies.

H2: Consumer ethnocentrism will be positively correlated with domestic consumption.

Hypothesis 2 was tested with Pearson's correlation coefficient. The sign of the correlation coefficient determines whether the correlation is positive or negative. The magnitude of the correlation coefficient determines the strength of the correlation. The analysis for Hypothesis 2 showed a statistically significant positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and domestic consumption. The Pearson's correlation coefficient is 0.722 ($p \leq 0.01$), suggesting a high correlation between the measured concepts. Thus, based on results (Appendixes), we **support Hypothesis 2** and conclude that consumer ethnocentrism is positively correlated with domestic consumption.

H3: Consumer ethnocentrism will be positively correlated with consumers' reluctance to buy foreign products.

For testing Hypothesis 3, we used Pearson's correlation coefficient. There was a significant positive and high correlation between the two variables, consumer ethnocentrism and reluctance to buy foreign products ($r = 0.735$; $p < 0.01$). Hence, **Hypothesis 3 was supported**.

The next three hypotheses examine the effect of socio-psychological antecedents on the level of consumer ethnocentric tendencies. To examine the correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and various socio-psychological antecedents, we computed Pearson's coefficients of correlations. All the results are summarized in Table 8 and in more details in Appendixes.

H4: Cosmopolitanism and ethnocentrism are negatively related.

For the Hypothesis 4, we tested an effect of cosmopolitanism on consumer ethnocentrism. Specifically we wanted to provide an empirical support for a negative relationship between cosmopolitanism and ethnocentrism. Results showed a significant correlation between the two concepts in the hypothesized direction ($r = -0.331$; $p \leq 0.01$), resulting in **support of the Hypothesis 4**. In comparison to other two chosen antecedents, cosmopolitanism is the only one exhibiting negative relationship with consumer ethnocentrism. In other words, the higher the cosmopolitanism of respondents, the lower their levels of consumer ethnocentrism.

H5: Patriotism and ethnocentrism are positively related.

With Hypothesis 5, we tested whether patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism are positively related. Our results show significant and positive value of correlation coefficient ($r = 0.443$; $p \leq 0.01$), therefore we can **confirm Hypothesis 5**, and state that patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism are positively related. This result suggests that the more patriotic respondents

are the higher their consumer ethnocentrism. Among the chosen socio-psychological antecedents, patriotism had the highest correlation with consumer ethnocentrism (Table 8).

H6: Collectivism and ethnocentrism are positively related.

The last socio-psychological antecedent related to consumer ethnocentrism, that we tested, was collectivism. As seen from the Table 5, we can notice a significant and weak positive relationship of the two constructs, which **confirms Hypothesis 6**, stating that there is a positive relation between collectivism and ethnocentrism.

Table 8. Consumer ethnocentrism and socio-psychological antecedents: correlation coefficients

Variables	Correlation	
	coefficient	p-value
Cosmopolitanism	-0.331	0.000*
Patriotism	0.443	0.000*
Collectivism	0.247	0.005

Note: * $p \leq 0.01$

H7: Ethnocentric tendencies vary significantly across the observed age groups.

International marketing literature posits that consumers differ in their ethnocentric level across demographic characteristics (Jain & Jain, 2013). The first demographic variable that we tested was age. For testing Hypothesis 7, we employed Chi-Square (χ^2). To determine the differences between the different age groups for the high and low consumer ethnocentrism group a closer look was taken at the differences between the observed and expected frequencies. For the age groups 14-26 age, 27-39 age and 40-52 age, the majority exhibited low ethnocentric tendencies. For the 53 and above age group the results showed that 57.9% exhibited high ethnocentric tendencies. Thus it can be concluded that consumers above the age of 53 show higher levels of ethnocentric tendencies than consumers below the age of 53. Looking at the Chi-square test statistic, the results ($\chi^2 = 25.816$, $p = 0.000$) showed statistical differences between age groups, therefore we can **support Hypothesis 7** and state that consumer ethnocentric tendencies vary significantly across the observed four age groups.

H8: Ethnocentric tendencies of women are higher than men.

The second demographic variable that we tested was gender. To test whether women exhibit higher ethnocentric tendencies than men, we used independent samples t-test. The calculated p-value for the F-statistic was higher than the predetermined significance level (α), thus we accepted the null hypothesis and assumed equal variances. The result of t-test ($t = 2.336$; $p = 0.021$), indicated that we reject the null hypothesis and confirm the alternative hypothesis. There are differences between male and female respondents in terms of their ethnocentric

tendencies, specifically our study found that French women exhibit higher ethnocentric tendencies than French men, which means that we can **support Hypothesis 8**.

H9: Ethnocentric tendencies vary significantly across the observed education categories.

For testing Hypothesis 9, we employed χ^2 - test, to test whether consumers with lower level of education exhibit higher ethnocentric tendencies. The calculated value of χ^2 - test was 12.167. In our case, the calculated p-value equals 0.007, thus we reject the null hypothesis and confirm the alternative hypothesis. To determine the differences between the different education categories for the high and low consumer ethnocentrism group we observed the differences between the observed and expected frequencies. In the group where the respondents finished elementary school, 91,7% exhibited high ethnocentric tendencies. For the middle school group the results showed that 71,4% exhibited high ethnocentric tendencies. Less than 50% of respondents in group with high school and college education had high ethnocentric tendencies. Thus it can be concluded that consumer ethnocentric tendencies vary significantly across the observed education categories, therefore we **support the Hypothesis 9**.

4 DISCUSSION

In this section we intent to outline and interpret the main findings of our research. After that, we discuss managerial implications of consumer ethnocentrism in the French context. Further, we explain the main contributions of our research. The chapter concludes by noting some limitations in the study and suggest avenues for future research.

4.1 Interpretation of results

The primary objective of this study was to investigate consumer ethnocentrism and to identify factors that influence the consumer ethnocentrism in a developed country, namely France. Secondly, the possible effects of French consumers' ethnocentrism on their domestic consumption and thirdly their reluctance to purchase foreign products were investigated.

Based on consumer ethnocentrism literature, we assumed that French do not exhibit highly ethnocentric tendencies. After testing of our first hypothesis, we found that the arithmetic mean is not significantly different from 3.5 (Appendixes). However, mean value of consumer ethnocentrism was lower (with value 2.87) than the average value of 3, indicating that French consumers are, on the average, not inclined toward consumer ethnocentric feelings. Thus our results, similarly to results presented by Javalgi et al. (2005), show that French consumers do not harbour highly ethnocentric tendencies.

An empirical research regarding the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and domestic consumption has not been examined on the French ground before. Our results for Hypothesis 2 revealed that consumer ethnocentrism and domestic consumption are positively

correlated. These findings are consistent with previous studies (e.g. Kucukemiroglu, 1999). The correlation coefficients for French sample are quite high, suggesting a strong relationship between the concepts.

Consumer ethnocentrism was proved to have a significant effect in terms of reluctance to purchase foreign products, confirmed by the previous findings (e.g. Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Balabanis et al., 2001). Based on high and positive value of Pearson correlation coefficient, as a result of testing the Hypothesis 3, we can conclude that reluctance to buy foreign products is positively related with consumer ethnocentrism. These findings are in line with prior researches (e.g. Suh & Kwon, 2002; Balabanis, 2001) and seem to suggest that French with high levels of consumer ethnocentrism are associated with high scores on reluctance to buy foreign products.

Results of our study on the sample of French respondents confirmed that cosmopolitanism, patriotism, collectivism, age, gender and education could be considered as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism.

The results regarding all of the socio-psychological antecedents (cosmopolitanism, patriotism and collectivism) included in this study, show statistically significant relationship with consumer ethnocentrism. Cosmopolitanism concept was not examined in France yet, therefore we used findings of Parts (2013) as the basis for formation of Hypothesis 4. After testing, our assumption has been supported. Thus, cosmopolitanism was found to have a significant negative influence on consumer ethnocentrism, which is also consistent with previous research. On the other hand, patriotism was found to have a positive relationship with consumer ethnocentrism. It can therefore be concluded that French consumers who love and are proud of France are more ethnocentric than less patriotic French consumers are. Similarly, collectivism was found to have a positive, but weak correlation with consumer ethnocentrism, which is in line with previous studies published by authors such as Sharma et al. (1995) and Yoo and Donthu (2005). Relationship of consumer ethnocentrism with patriotism and with collectivism were in line with findings of Javalgi et al. (2005), who supported their hypotheses and showed that French consumers who are patriotic and exhibit higher collectivistic tendencies are more ethnocentric in comparison to individualistic ones.

We already explained that empirical evidence on the impact of demographic variables on consumer ethnocentrism is contradictory (section 1.2). With regard to age as a demographic antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism, our results are consistent with other studies (e.g. Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004), who found that age has an influence on consumer ethnocentrism. Further, finding that the older the French consumers are, the more ethnocentric they tend to be, is consistent with findings in the study by Javalgi et al. (2005).

Regarding gender, we discovered that women exhibit higher ethnocentric tendencies than men. Moreover, we found that gender had an impact on consumer ethnocentrism in France, which is in line with previous study (Javalgi et al., 2005) conducted in France. The χ^2 - test for

Hypothesis 9 revealed that low level of education is significantly associated with high consumer ethnocentrism of French respondents from the sample. The results suggest that less educated people exhibit higher ethnocentric tendencies and this is consistent with study conducted by Balabanis et al. (2001). However, previous research conducted in France (Javalgi et al., 2005) did not find correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and education statistically significant.

4.2 Managerial implications

Ever increasing globalisation and liberalization of trade forced many companies to seek out profitable opportunities and expand their business into foreign markets. However, companies planning to do business in foreign markets must be aware of potential risks and dangers. One of the potential risks is a non-tariff barrier, expressed through consumer ethnocentrism. International marketing managers should be aware of ethnocentric consumers and must be prepared to address them. This study provides insights for international business management, with implications for both foreign and French companies.

First thing to consider is that French companies are less able to rely on their domestic value to win over French consumers. The findings of the present study show that French consumers do not harbour highly ethnocentric tendencies. As it has been shown through other studies, consumers with low consumer ethnocentric tendencies will not tend to prefer domestic products per se. Managers of local French companies thus cannot rely solely on emphasising the French origin of products in their related marketing activities. Moderate level of consumer ethnocentrism, on the other side, does not pose a serious threat to foreign products. Furthermore, managers of foreign companies can benefit from lower ethnocentric tendencies, and hence focus on emphasising quality of their products.

Kucukemiroglu (1999) assumed that a better understanding of the concept of consumer ethnocentrism and its socio-psychological antecedents could result in more effective marketing strategies. Identifying the socio-psychological characteristics of consumers and accordingly segmenting them, is a technique that will allow more effective targeting. Thus, company's offerings could appear more appealing to different consumer segments. For example, when competing against local brands, foreign marketers might find it beneficial to convince cosmopolitan consumers with low levels of ethnocentrism, that global brands symbolize intensified self-image with brand associations like modernity, better standard of life etc. On the other side, marketers can stir patriotic feelings in ethnocentric consumers. Even though marketing managers of French companies already focus on steering ethnocentric feelings through patriotism and incorporating patriotic messages into promotional campaigns, the high domestic products' price turned out as an issue (MacGuill, 2013).

As far as demographic antecedents are concerned, it seems that marketing managers concerned with consumer ethnocentrism should pay specific attention to age, gender and education. From the sample of French respondents, the results indicated that females and younger generations seem to be less ethnocentric than males and older counterparts. Various

strategies could be developed to focus on ethnocentric female and older consumers, however, increasing the level of ethnocentrism among males and younger consumers who tend to be less ethnocentric could pose some difficulties. The segment of consumers with high level of ethnocentrism should be addressed in a different manner. One of ways is to try to avoid emphasizing the origin of products. Also depending on the product, managers could incorporate this insight into their marketing strategies.

Managerial decisions regarding market entry modes could also benefit from the analysis of consumer ethnocentrism levels. In our case, the level of consumer ethnocentrism is not high, which suggest that there is no need to consider more cooperative entry modes (such as joint ventures or strategic alliances) in order to minimise the impact of consumer ethnocentrism (De Ruyter et al., 1998). In an opposite situation, when consumer ethnocentrism is high, companies can decide to opt for joint ventures with local businesses. Further, they can adapt some of the marketing mix elements to appear more local to consumers, and to minimize the impact of consumer ethnocentrism.

4.3 Contributions of research

This master's thesis has offered both theoretical and methodological contributions. From the theoretical perspective, we investigated consumer ethnocentrism construct in France, which in relation to cosmopolitanism, domestic consumption and reluctance to buy has not been done before. Thus, we offered a new perspectives on French consumers.

From the methodological perspective, we created a framework to quantify the impact of socio-psychological antecedents and to determine the demographic characteristics of French who harbour ethnocentric feelings, for assessing the impact of consumer ethnocentrism on domestic consumption and reluctance to buy.

4.4 Limitations and avenues for future research

The present study, like most other empirical studies, is a subject to certain limitations. It is the researchers' task to identify and discuss those limitations to stimulate following research towards closing those gaps.

First of all, our study is limited in its scope since we used a non-probability sampling procedure, specifically non-probability snowball sampling. This technique can result in homogeneous sampling, moreover in sampling bias, which does not permit us to generalize findings to the population. We recommend future research to employ probability sampling approach and to use additional type of research and data collection methods. For example, studies such as in-depth interview or experiment, would allow to gain deeper insights of consumers, which was not covered by the questionnaires.

Another caveat for our study is that the current research has relatively small sample. The total sample size of 128 respondents is moderate, thus the findings of the current study have to be viewed with caution. The future research should try to replicate the study using a larger sample size. A greater sample size would increase the generalizability of the findings. Further, with no respondents in a retired class, self-employed class or work in households or on farm, the results are not comparable to the general society. Moreover, having respondents coming from cities with above 100.000 residents, and with income above the average may reduce the generalizability of the results. Thus, we would recommend to include people with lower income and coming from smaller cities.

Another limitation of the study lies in the use of a cross-sectional design. Our study is a cross-sectional in design and does at look at how ethnocentrism evolves over a period of time (Javalgi et al., 2005). The researcher only receives feedback from one point in time from a particular customer. Thus, another possible area of future research could be to replicate the current study in France at regular time periods. The results of these longitudinal studies would indicate whether consumer perceptions are staying the same or whether they are changing over time.

Next, the review of the literature on consumer ethnocentrism by Shankarmahesh (2006) revealed numerous antecedents, mediators, moderators and consequences that have not been addressed in our study. A broader variety of different elements of consumer ethnocentrism could be included in future analysis in order to get a broader perspective and providing better insights into the consumer ethnocentrism concept. For example, country-of-origin could be an antecedent worth considering in future research.

Finally, instead of only investigating products in French market, future studies could also investigate the influence of consumer ethnocentrism in a services context.

CONCLUSION

The present master's thesis is focused on consumer ethnocentrism, a belief held by consumers about the appropriateness, morality of purchasing foreign-made products. The current study investigates consumer behaviour in France, specifically the consumer ethnocentrism concept. Our main research problem was to investigate the motives that may influence the level of ethnocentrism of French consumers, and how it effects domestic consumption and reluctance to buy foreign products. We addressed consumer ethnocentrism from theoretical and practical perspectives.

In the first chapter, we reviewed an existing international literature and provided a theoretical framework for understanding consumer ethnocentrism. More specifically, we studied antecedents, mediators, moderators, and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism and further provided a review of main previous studies examining consumer ethnocentrism across countries. Furthermore, we investigate the role of consumer ethnocentrism in marketing and

lastly, we summarised the consumer ethnocentrism studies done within Western European countries, and specifically in France.

After the theoretical part, we engaged in a quantitative research. We gathered our primary data by using a questionnaire. After the quantitative data were collected, we performed a factor analysis in order to extract factors from the data.

We tested a set of hypotheses and found that based on our sample French, on the average, do not exhibit high levels of ethnocentrism, thus consumer ethnocentrism does not pose serious threat to foreign products in France. Further, we found that consumer ethnocentrism has an impact on domestic consumption, suggesting that non-ethnocentric consumers exhibit significantly more favourable beliefs, attitudes and intentions regarding foreign products in comparison to ethnocentric consumers. Likewise, consumer ethnocentrism was found to have an impact on reluctance to buy foreign products. This study concluded that reluctance to buy foreign products is positively related with consumer ethnocentrism.

Overall findings of our study found that consumer ethnocentrism is indeed influenced by socio-psychological factors (i.e. cosmopolitanism, patriotism and collectivism) examined, as well as by three demographical factors (i.e. gender, age and education). Cosmopolitan consumers were found to exhibit lower levels of consumer ethnocentrism. This certain degree of cosmopolitanism provides acceptability of ideas, norms and values of other cultures. On the other hand, patriotic and collectivistic consumers exhibited higher ethnocentric tendencies. Regarding demographic variables, we found that women, as well as less educated and older consumers exhibited higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism.

Further we briefly described the results of data collection and presented characteristics of the sample and concluded the chapter with an overview of hypotheses testing results. Finally, we provided a thorough interpretation of the results of our quantitative study; we determined managerial implications and described the contributions of our research. In the last part of the thesis, we addressed limitations of our research and suggested avenues for future research.

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APPENDIXES

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Appendix A: Questionnaire (English)

0. Are you a citizen of France? Yes/No.

1. Below is a list of tendencies about purchasing products. Please rate how much you agree or disagree with below listed statements. Evaluate each one of the facts separately on the scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

FACTS	1 STRONGLY DISAGREE	2 DISAGREE	3 NEIHTER AGREE OR DISAGREE	4 AGREE	5 STRONGLY AGREE
1. We should purchase products manufactured in France instead of letting other countries get rich off us.					
2. French should not buy foreign products, because this hurts French business and causes unemployment.					
3. It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support French products.					
4. Only those products that are unavailable in France should be imported.					

2. Consider your purchasing habits and evaluate following statements. Please rate how much you agree or disagree with these statements. Evaluate each one of the facts separately on the scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

FACTS	1 STRONGLY DISAGREE	2 DISAGREE	3 NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	4 AGREE	5 STRONGLY AGREE
Mostly I try to buy brands of domestic companies.					
Whenever possible, I take time to look at labels in order to knowingly buy more brands of domestic companies.					
I shop first at retail outlets that make special effort to offer a variety of domestic products.					
I shop first at retail outlets that make special effort to offer brands of domestic products.					

3. Evaluate following statements and rate how much you agree or disagree with these statements. Evaluate each one of the facts separately on the scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

FACTS	1 STRONGLY DISAGREE	2 DISAGREE	3 NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	4 AGREE	5 STRONGLY AGREE
Whenever possible, I avoid buying foreign products.					

I don't like the idea of owning a product that has been manufactured abroad.					
If two products were equal in quality, but one was from the France and one was from abroad, I would pay 10% more for the product from the France.					
I would never buy a foreign product.					
I would feel guilty if I bought a foreign product.					

4. Please consider following statements, and rate how much you agree or disagree with these statements. Evaluate each one of the facts separately on the scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

FACTS	1 STRONGLY DISAGREE	2 DISAGREE	3 NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE	4 AGREE	5 STRONGLY AGREE
I like to observe people of other cultures, to see what I can learn from them.					
I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries.					
I enjoy exchanging ideas with people from other cultures and countries.					
I like to learn about other ways of life.					
I love my country.					
I am proud to be French.					
Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to France always remains strong.					
Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.					
Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for a group.					
Group welfare is more important than individual reward.					
Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.					

5. Please tick or fill in questions about demographics.

Gender	<input type="radio"/> female	<input type="radio"/> male
Age	_____ years	
Level of formal education	<input type="radio"/> elementary school <input type="radio"/> middle school <input type="radio"/> high school <input type="radio"/> college education	
Current work status	Work in household or on farm Self-employed Employed – management position Employed – non-management position Unemployed Retired	

	Student
Place of residence (where you stay at least 3 days a week)	City (above 100,000 inhabitants) Town (from 10,000 to 100,000 inhabitants) Settlement (up to 10,000 inhabitants)
Which city?	
How would you estimate your household's monthly income as compared to the national average?	Below average Average Above average
If you indicated that your monthly income is average, is it...	Slightly above average? Exactly average? Slightly below average?

Appendix B: Questionnaire (French)

0. Êtes-vous citoyen français? Oui/Non.

1. Les énoncés suivants se réfèrent à la France, son économie et au sentiment d'appartenance au pays.

Veillez lire chacun d'eux soigneusement et indiquer dans quelle mesure vous êtes d'accord ou pas, sur une échelle allant de 1 (pas d'accord) à 5 (d'accord).

	1 Pas d'accord	2 Pas tout à fait d'accord	3 Pas sûr de la réponse	4 En partie d' accord	5 D' accord
1. Nous, les Français, ne pouvons pas laisser les autres pays s'enrichir sur notre dos.					
2. Les Français, qui achètent surtout des produits fabriqués à l'étranger, nuisent à l'économie et provoquent le chômage.					
3. Même si, à long terme, cela coûte plus cher, je préfère acheter des produits français.					
4. Nous ne devrions acheter auprès des pays étrangers que les produits qui ne sont pas accessibles en France.					

2. Pensez à vos habitudes d'achat afin d'évaluer les affirmations suivantes.

Veillez lire chacune d'elles soigneusement et indiquer dans quelle mesure vous êtes d'accord ou pas, sur une échelle allant de 1 (pas du tout d'accord) à 5 (tout à fait d'accord).

	1 Pas d'accord	2 Pas tout à fait d'accord	3 Pas sûr de la réponse	4 En partie d' accord	5 D' accord
J'essaye majoritairement d'acheter des produits français.					
Quand cela m'est possible, je prend le temps de regarder les étiquettes pour tenter d'acheter des marques d'entreprises domestiques.					
J'achète d'abord dans les magasins qui font l'effort d'offrir une certaine variété de produits français.					
J'achète d'abord dans les magasins qui font l'effort d'offrir une certaine variété de marques de produits français.					

3. Veuillez lire chacune d'elles soigneusement et indiquer dans quelle mesure vous êtes d'accord ou pas, sur une échelle allant de 1 (pas du tout d'accord) à 5 (tout à fait d'accord).

	1 Pas d'accord	2 Pas tout à fait d'accord	3 Pas sûr de la réponse	4 En partie d' accord	5 D' accord

Quand cela m'est possible, j'évite d'acheter des produits étrangers.					
Je n'aime pas l'idée d'avoir un produit fabriqué à l'étranger.					
Si deux produits sont de qualité similaire, l'un est produit en France, l'autre à l'étranger. Je suis prêt à payer 10% de plus pour le produit français.					
Je n'achèterai jamais de produit venant de l'étranger.					
Je me sentirai coupable si j'achetais un produit étranger.					

4. Veuillez lire chacun d'eux soigneusement et indiquer dans quelle mesure vous êtes d'accord ou pas, sur une échelle allant de 1 (pas d'accord) à 5 (d'accord).

	1 Pas d'accord	2 Pas tout à fait d'accord	3 Pas sûr de la réponse	4 En partie d'accord	5 D'accord
J'aime observer les personnes qui ont une culture différent que la mienne pour acquérir certaines touches qui leur sont spécifiques.					
Je suis interessee(e) d'apprendre autour des personnes qui vivent dans d'autres pays que les miens.					
J' aime echanger les idees avec des personnes quie appartiennent a des cultures et pays different que les miens.					
J' aime avoir des connaissances concernant le mode de vie des autres.					
J'aime mon pays.					
Je suis fier de mon pays.					
Même si je ne suis pas toujours d'accord avec la politique du gouvernement, mon engagement pour la France reste fort.					
Les individus devraient travailler en groupe même lors de difficultés.					
Les individus devraient sacrifier leurs propres intérêts pour le groupe.					
Le bien-être du groupe passe avant le bien-être personnel.					
La loyauté envers le groupe devrait être encouragée même si les buts personnels en					

souffrent.					
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5. Enfin, pourriez-vous nous fournir quelques renseignements personnels.

Sexe	<input type="radio"/> femme	<input type="radio"/> homme
Année de naissance	19__	
Le plus haut niveau de scolarité atteint?	<input type="radio"/> Primaire <input type="radio"/> CAP, BEPC <input type="radio"/> Baccalauréat <input type="radio"/> BTS Licence, Maîtrise, Doctorat	
Quelle est votre situation professionnelle actuelle?	Au foyer Travailleur indépendant, profession libérale Emploi - Poste cadres Emploi –Employé, agent de maîtrise Sans emploi Retraité Étudiant	
Votre lieu de résidence (où vous demeurez au moins 3 jours par semaine)?	Commune de plus de 100.000 habitants Commune de de 10.000 à 100.000 habitants Commune de moins 10.000 habitants	
Dans quelle ville?		
À combien estimez-vous le revenu mensuel de votre foyer par rapport à la moyenne nationale?	Inférieur à la moyenne A peu près à la moyenne Supérieur à la moyenne	
Si vous avez indiqué que votre revenu mensuel correspond à la moyenne, est-il ...	Légèrement supérieur à la moyenne? Précisément la moyenne ? Légèrement inférieur à la moyenne?	

Appendix C: Hypotheses output

H1: French consumers on the average are not perceived to be ethnocentric.

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CETSCALE	128	2,8672	1,01171	,08942

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 3.5					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
CETSCALE	-7,077	127	,000	-,63281	-,8098	-,4559

H2: Consumer ethnocentrism will be positively correlated with domestic consumption.

Correlations

		CETSCALE	DOM_CONS
CET	Pearson Correlation	1	,722**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	128	128
DC	Pearson Correlation	,722**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	128	128

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

H3: Consumer ethnocentrism will be positively correlated with consumers' reluctance to buy foreign products.

Correlations

		CETSCALE	RELUCTANCE
CET	Pearson Correlation	1	,735**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	128	128
REL	Pearson Correlation	,735**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	128	128

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

H4: Cosmopolitanism and ethnocentrism are negatively related.

Correlations

		COS	CET
COS	Pearson Correlation	1	-,331**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	128	128
CET	Pearson Correlation	-,331**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	128	128

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

H5: Patriotism and ethnocentrism are positively related.

Correlations

		PAT	CET
PAT	Pearson Correlation	1	,443**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	128	128
CET	Pearson Correlation	,443**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	128	128

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

H6: Collectivism and ethnocentrism are positively related.

Correlations

		CET	COL
CET	Pearson Correlation	1	,247**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,005
	N	128	128
COL	Pearson Correlation	,247**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,005	
	N	128	128

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

H7: Ethnocentric tendencies vary significantly across the observed age groups.

Case Processing Summary

	Cases		
	Valid	Missing	Total

	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Age_groups * CETSCALE_	128	99,2%	1	0,8%	129	100,0%

Age_groups * CETSCALE_ Crosstabulation

		CETSCALE_		Total
		low CETSCALE	high CETSCALE	
Age_groups	Count	38	0	38
	14-26 Expected Count	27,0	11,0	38,0
	% within Age_groups	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%
	Count	28	14	42
	27-39 Expected Count	29,9	12,1	42,0
	% within Age_groups	66,7%	33,3%	100,0%
	Count	17	12	29
	40-52 Expected Count	20,6	8,4	29,0
	% within Age_groups	58,6%	41,4%	100,0%
	Count	8	11	19
	53-65 Expected Count	13,5	5,5	19,0
	% within Age_groups	42,1%	57,9%	100,0%
Total	Count	91	37	128
	Expected Count	91,0	37,0	128,0
	% within Age_groups	71,1%	28,9%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	25,816 ^a	3	,000
Likelihood Ratio	35,268	3	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	23,223	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	128		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5,49.

H8: Ethnocentric tendencies of women are higher than men.

Group Statistics

	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CET	WOMEN	52	3,1154	1,04138	,14441
	MEN	76	2,6974	,96118	,11025

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	,000	,992	2,336	126	,021	,41802	,17896	,06385	,77218
Equal variances not assumed			2,301	103,800	,023	,41802	,18169	,05771	,77832

H9: Ethnocentric tendencies vary significantly across the observed education categories.

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
EDUCATION * CETSCALE_LOWHIGH	128	100,0%	0	0,0%	128	100,0%

EDUCATION * CETSCALE_LOWHIGH Crosstabulation

		CETSCALE_LOWHIGH		Total
		LOW CETSCALE	HIGH CETSCALE	
elementary school	Count	1	11	12
	% within EDUCATION	8,3%	91,7%	100,0%
middle school	Count	8	20	28
	% within EDUCATION	28,6%	71,4%	100,0%
high school	Count	26	24	50
	% within EDUCATION	52,0%	48,0%	100,0%
college education	Count	21	17	38
	% within EDUCATION	55,3%	44,7%	100,0%
Total	Count	56	72	128

% within EDUCATION	43,8%	56,2%	100,0%
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Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12,167 ^a	3	,007
Likelihood Ratio	13,561	3	,004
Linear-by-Linear Association	10,513	1	,001
N of Valid Cases	128		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5,25.