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On What Do Consumer Product Preferences Depend? Determining Domestic versus Foreign Product Preferences in an Emerging Economy Market

Audra I. Mockaitis
Laura Salciuviene
Pervez N. Ghauri

ABSTRACT. This study investigates consumer preferences for domestic products in an emerging economy market. We argue that consumer preferences are contingent on the level of consumer ethnocentrism, preferences for different product categories from specific country clusters and those of importers, and consumers' previous experience with products. The findings suggest that there are significant variations in consumer evaluations of products across specific product categories, country-of-origin, and other multicues. We also find a significant influence of consumer ethnocentrism on preferences for different product categories from specific country clusters when controlling for background variables. Implications for theory and practice and suggestions for future research are discussed.

KEYWORDS. Domestic country bias, consumer ethnocentrism, country of origin, country clusters, emerging economy market

Consumer preference patterns regarding domestic versus foreign products have received much attention in the international marketing literature (Bhaskaran and Sukumaran 2007; Gao and Knight 2007; Pharr 2005; Shankarmahesh 2006; Usunier 2006). However, the importance of consumer ethnocentrism (CE) has changed over recent years as a consequence of the increasing complexity of the global marketplace and multinational production; the proliferation of products that are designed in one country and manufactured and/or assembled in others

has raised questions about “made in” labels and stressed the importance of the country origin of brands. Yet, recent findings indicate that consumer knowledge about the country of origin (CO) of brands is still relatively low (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2008; Kinra 2006; Liefeld 2004; Samiee 2010; Samiee, Shimp and Sharma 2005).

This article responds to a call by Usunier (2006) for studies that do not simply focus on ethnocentrism but examine its predictive ability on consumer preferences in conjunction with

Audra I. Mockaitis is Associate Professor in International Business in the Department of Management, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia. Laura Salciuviene is Lecturer in Marketing at Lancaster University Management School, Lancaster, United Kingdom. Pervez N. Ghauri is Professor of International Management at King's College London, London, United Kingdom.

Address correspondence to Dr. Laura Salciuviene, Lancaster University Management School, Lancaster, LA1 4YX, United Kingdom. E-mail: l.salciuviene@lancaster.ac.uk

other variables. Among these is the consumer's familiarity and experience with products. Our premise is that domestic product bias is contingent on the combination of a number of situational and personal characteristics (demographics) of consumers. Building on the previous work of Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004), this study examines the integrative relationship between CE, previous experience with products, and various product attributes in determining consumer preferences for domestic products in an emerging economy market. In doing so, this study contributes to the literature in a number of ways. Previous studies have argued that consumers generally prefer domestic products or products from neighboring countries to foreign ones (e.g., Ahmed and d'Astous 2010; Bilkey and Nes 1982; Cleveland, Laroche, and Papadopoulos 2009; Poon, Evangelista and Albaum 2010; Usunier 2006). We posit that a preference for domestic products is context specific; that is, in an emerging economy such as Lithuania, where shortages and poor product quality were the norm until the 1990s and product cues had little meaning for consumers as Western products were obtainable only by the privileged, domestic product preferences may be contingent upon a multitude of factors. In the context of this study, domestic product bias is evaluated by assessing the explanatory power of consumer ethnocentrism relative to other product-, consumer- and country-specific aspects. In this way, this study addresses the ongoing theoretical debate in the literature that focuses on variations in consumer preferences for local versus foreign products (Ahmed and d'Astous 2007; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004) and consumer ethnocentricity and sensitivity to country of origin/manufacturer (Lotz and Hu 2001; Usunier 2006).

From a methodological perspective, the study is conducted in the context of an emerging economy that has been neglected in the literature. Although few previous studies in Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) were conducted during the period of major economic reforms, when consumer experience with foreign products, product choice, and income levels were much more limited, it is doubtful whether the results are still a reflection of consumer behavior today

(Vida and Reardon 2008). International business is dependent on cross-national deviations in consumer preferences for and attitudes toward domestic versus foreign products. Such integrative relationships cannot be fully understood without testing them across a variety of contexts (Bhaskaran and Sukumaran 2007; Leonidou, Palihawadana, and Talias 2007). An "attribute-specific approach" within related product categories, as suggested by Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004), is adopted, and consumer preferences for numerous product categories and various product attributes (CO and five additional attributes) are assessed. Previous studies have generally included fewer attributes and product categories and have not tested the variability of CO across product categories; this study offers a more rigorous assessment of the explanatory power of CE and CO on consumer preferences for domestic versus foreign products. While much of the prior research included only a limited number of countries and product categories (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004; Bandyopadhyai, Wongtada, and Rice 2011; Bi et al. 2012; Leonidou et al. 2007; Usunier 2006), this study focuses on a large set of product categories and countries and includes both developed economies and emerging markets to represent CO, allowing for comparison of domestic product preferences against various countries and regions. Product attributes/cues that reflect what consumers most value in specific product categories are assessed. The salience of consumer ethnocentrism is assessed relative to other variables.

This study provides managers and practitioners with guidelines for developing international positioning strategies by offering clues about the circumstances under which a stress on foreign or local product CO would be most appropriate.

The article is structured as follows. The theoretical background and hypotheses are presented in the following section, in which we briefly overview the literature on consumer ethnocentrism, country-of-origin and domestic country bias, with a focus on the emerging economy market context. The conceptual framework of the study is presented in this section as well. The methods and results of the study are presented next. The article ends with the conclusions,

implications for marketing, and suggestions for future research.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

Thorough reviews and critiques of the prior studies on ethnocentrism (Shankarmahesh 2006) and country-of-origin effects exist in the literature (see Bhaskaran and Sukumaran 2007; Bilkey and Nes 1982; Liefeld 1993; Ozsomer and Cavusgil 1991; Papadopoulos and Heslop 2002; Peterson and Jolibert 1995; Pharr 2005; Usunier 2006; Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999). Thus, in this section only a selective overview of past research is offered with the purpose of highlighting important theoretical issues and systematic deviations from accepted theory that are relevant to emerging economy markets.

Consumer Ethnocentrism Research in Emerging Economy Markets

Consumer ethnocentrism (CE) is a belief about the superiority of local products (Balabanis, Mueller, and Melewar 2002). CO perceptions and purchase intentions are influenced by CE (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004; Bandyopadhyai et al. 2011; Huddleston, Good, and Stoel 2000; Javalgi et al. 2005; Klein, Ettenson, and Krishnan 2006; Usunier 2006); ethnocentric consumers believe that purchasing foreign products is unpatriotic and negatively affects the economy (Shimp and Sharma 1987), while nonethnocentric consumers evaluate products based on multiple cues, regardless of a product's "made in" origin (CO; Watson and Wright 2000).

An important contribution to consumer research has been the development of the 17-item CETSCALE (Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies Scale) by Shimp and Sharma (1987), where consumers scoring high on this scale will tend to prefer domestic products to foreign ones. Several researchers have tested the reliability and validity of the CETSCALE across cultures. The CETSCALE has been administered to student samples from the United States, Japan, Germany,

France (Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein 1991), and the Czech Republic, Hungary, Estonia and Poland (Vida and Fairhurst 1999). Further evidence of validity has been demonstrated in research using nonstudent samples in Japan, Sweden (Hult, Keillor, and Lafferty 1999), Thailand (Bandyopadhyai et al. 2011), the Netherlands (Josiassen 2011; Ruyter, Van Birgelen, and Wetzels 1998), Pakistan (Akram, Merunka, and Akram 2011), Iran (Bahae and Pisani 2009), Vietnam (Nguyen, Nguyen, and Barrett 2008), Australia (Poon et al. 2010), Spain (Luque-Martínez, Ibáñez-Zapata, and Del Barrio-García 2000), Russia (Durvasula, Andrews, and Netemeyer 1992; Huddleston et al. 2000), Jordan (Al-Ganideh and Al-Tae 2012), Germany (Evanschitzky et al. 2008); the Czech Republic, Turkey (Balabanis et al. 2001; Kucukemiroglu 1999), and Azerbaijan (Kaynak and Kara 2002), as well as in research using both student and non-student samples in China and Russia (Klein et al. 2006).

Past research contradicts the general belief that CE is more important in emerging economy markets. Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Beracs (1990) found that Hungarians have a more favorable view of foreign-made than locally made products. Ettenson (1993) studied CO effects on televisions in Russia, Poland, and Hungary and found that consumers evaluated Western televisions more favorably than those manufactured in their home countries. Vida and Fairhurst (1999) focused on CE in the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, and Estonia. CE scores across the countries differed, with Czech and Hungarian consumers being less ethnocentric than Estonians and Poles. Good and Huddleston (1995) found that Poles were significantly more ethnocentric than Russians and that purchase intentions of Polish consumers were influenced by ethnocentrism, but this was not the case for Russians.

A possible explanation for the lack of consistency regarding CE as an explanatory variable in emerging economy markets is the lack of consensus in the literature regarding the influence of consumer characteristics. Good and Huddleston (1995) reported that ethnocentric Poles tend to be older, more likely to be female, are less educated, and have lower incomes than

nonethnocentric consumers. Vida and Fairhurst (1999), for example, did not consider the influence of income levels on CE in their young student sample. In emerging economy markets in particular, demographic variables, especially individuals' accessibility of foreign products (income) may influence their perceptions of them.

Leonidou and colleagues (1999) found CO effects for Asian products but did not compare these to foreign or local products or test for CE effects in Bulgaria. In a later study on consumer ethnocentrism in Russia, Huddleston and colleagues (2000) found that Russian consumers do make product choices based on CO but that CE does not influence attitudes toward product quality. The authors maintain that CE *does* matter in emerging economy markets and does in fact influence perceptions of product attributes (e.g., CO, quality, price) when other background variables are taken into consideration. Therefore:

- H1: When evaluated among other cues, CO will be more important for ethnocentric consumers than nonethnocentric consumers.
- H2: CE will explain a larger proportion of the variation in consumer evaluations of product attributes than demographic variables.

Consumers tend to prefer products from developed countries (Ahmed and d'Astous 2007; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004; Wang and Lamb 1983), from their own countries (Akram et al. 2011; Bandyopadhyai et al. 2011; Cleveland, Laroche, and Papadopoulos 2011; Elliott and Cameron, 1994; Evanschitzky et al. 2008; Al-Ganideh and Al-Tae 2012; Hamzaoui and Merunka 2006; Nguyen et al. 2008), or from geographically close and otherwise similar countries (Evanschitzky et al. 2008; Samiee 1994; Usunier 2006; Wall and Heslop 1986). Consumers from a wide range of countries have been found to evaluate their own home products more favorably than they do foreign ones (Akram et al. 2011; Bandyopadhyai et al. 2011; Bannister and Saunders 1978; Cleveland et al. 2011; Darling and Kraft 1977; Dickerson

1982; Evanschitzky et al. 2008; Han 1988; Huddleston et al. 2000; Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985; Nagashima 1970; Papadopoulos et al. 1990; Reiersen 1966; Usunier 2006). According to Morello (1984), it is also evident that consumers' attitudes toward imports can vary significantly from one country to another. Consumers perceive stereotypes differently across national boundaries as well, as they share similar values and a similar belief structure in their evaluations of "made in" labels (Yavas and Alpay 1986).

Supphellen and Gronhaug (2003) conducted a notable study on the composition of brand personality and the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on Russian consumer attitudes toward brands. They found that attitudes toward brands and the ways in which consumers process information about them depend on the level of ethnocentrism. Highly ethnocentric consumers tend to make more stereotype-based evaluations of brands. Consequently, they concluded that in some societies, even if consumers do display ethnocentric tendencies, they may still view foreign products more favorably than local products.

Although developed-country corporations may find it advantageous to employ manufacturing facilities in low-cost emerging economy markets, negative attitudes toward country of origin can harmfully influence the perceptions of the products made there (Lotz and Hu 2001). Past research (Ahmed and d'Astous 2007; Bi et al. 2012; Cordell 1992; Leonidou et al. 2007; Okechuku 1994; Wang and Heitmeyer 2006) has revealed that products made in less-developed countries are negatively evaluated by consumers. Hamzaoui and Merunka (2006) noted that consumers from more-developed countries might not trust the ability of an industrializing country to produce quality products devised in a developed country. We propose that:

- H3a: Ethnocentric consumers will have more positive evaluations of domestic products than nonethnocentric consumers.
- H3b: Nonethnocentric consumers will have more positive evaluations of foreign products than ethnocentric consumers.

Domestic Country Bias and CE in Emerging Economy Markets

Domestic country bias (DCB) refers to the favoritism by consumers of products from one's own country that is linked to an individual's CE (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004). Verlegh (2007, 362) describes DCB as "the social and emotional significance that consumers attach to their home country." Negative views of foreign products, for example, may also be sparked by historical political, social, or economic tensions between countries (Verlegh 2007). Research has indicated variations in preferences across product categories regardless of CE (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004). DCB may also better explain consumer preferences for products from certain countries over others than CE alone.

The authors hold that the emerging economy markets of CEE are unique in that they have shared a relatively similar institutional environment for half a century, and thus ethnocentric consumers might be more likely to "sympathize" with other institutionally similar countries. On the other hand, nonethnocentric consumers may favor developed-country products over both local and institutionally similar countries' products. Thus, the relationship between CE and domestic or foreign product preferences will not be as clear-cut. Given the historical tensions between many of the CEE countries and Russia, we expect that consumer perceptions of Russian products will be different from those of other emerging economy markets.

Research has also shown that consumer preferences and their purchase decisions are influenced by awareness of a particular CO, degree of involvement in the product category, ethnocentrism (Ahmed and d'Astous 2004; Bandyopadhyai et al. 2011; D'Astous and Ahmed 1999; Evanschitzky et al. 2008; Josiassen 2011; Reardon et al. 2005; Roth and Romeo 1992; Supphellen and Gronhaug 2003; Usunier 2006; Verlegh 2007) their experience with products, and the presence of other product attributes (Ahmed and D'Astous 1995; Baker et al. 2004; D'Astous and Ahmed 1999; Evanschitzky et al. 2008; Laroche et al. 2005). It is thus proposed that:

H4: Ethnocentric consumers will have more positive evaluations of products from other CEE countries than nonethnocentric consumers.

H5: Evaluations of products from Russia will be lower than those of other CEE countries by both ethnocentric and nonethnocentric consumers.

H6: Nonethnocentric consumers will have more positive evaluations of Western country products than ethnocentric consumers.

H7: The effect of CE in evaluating domestic and foreign CO will be modified by previous experience with products from those countries.

Thus, based on the literature, no definite conclusion has been reached as to "can ethnocentric consumer evaluations of, preferences for, foreign products be product-, origin-, or product/origin-specific" as questioned by Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004, 80) and how consumer experience influences consumer evaluations as observed by Usunier (2006). Furthermore, previous research by Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004, 92) has not examined "what exactly consumers value more in specific product categories and how they perceive different countries on these criteria." Thus, this study addresses these questions.

METHOD

In order to test our hypotheses, it is important to (1) include not only specific foreign countries but also a local country (for contrasting purposes) in the research design, (2) include a large set of different product categories and countries of origin, and (3) include specific product attributes for different product categories. As previous studies (Good and Huddleston 1995; Shimp and Sharma 1987), with the one exception of Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004), did not take into account consumer characteristics, this could explain why different results and deviations for ethnocentrism occurred in different studies conducted. In order to explain consumer ethnocentrism variation

and deviations in emerging economy markets, consumer characteristics have to be controlled for. Thus a care has been taken to overcome many of the possible reasons for inconsistencies in the literature, and we have taken consumer characteristics and prior experience with foreign products, as well as measures of CE, into consideration in the design of this study.

Sample and Data Collection

The study was based on a sample of 330 consumers throughout Lithuania. While most consumers (76.1%) resided in the two major cities of Vilnius and Kaunas, and the remaining 23.9% in other regions, geographic coverage included all the major regions of Lithuania. The sample was comprised of 33% males and 67% females, of varying levels of education, income, and of various ages (18 and over).

Data for this study were collected by means of a Lithuanian language paper and pencil questionnaire. A pretest of the questionnaire with a small group of respondents was conducted, and some minor changes were made before distributing the final version. This study utilizes the “drop off and collect” method that has been used in previous CO studies (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004; Papadopoulos et al. 1994). As many previous studies critiqued student sample surveys (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004), this study was based on a nonstudent sample of consumers in order to overcome possible bias that occurs because of student samples. All respondents were Lithuanian nationals.

MEASURES

Choice of Countries, Product Categories, and Product Attributes

International trade has been offered new opportunities with the enlargement of the EU in 2004 (Kreinin and Plummer 2007). Lithuania is a post-Socialist emerging economy market that made a rapid switch to a market-based economy (Aidis and Van Praag 2007), as it has made serious post-Soviet reforms and created an attractive environment for Western investors by opening its market and privatizing businesses

(Estrin and Meyer 2008). Sequentially, there was an increase in competition in the market to sell products and services (Svejnar 2010). Moreover, Lithuania was an independent country for more than 500 years before becoming a part of Soviet Union in 1941. Historically, this country is similar to its neighboring countries. Thus, consumer ethnocentrism patterns in this country might be generalizable to other Eastern and Central European countries (Kriauciunas and Kale 2006).

Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) did not find support for their hypothesized relationship between economic development and CE, yet their study included only economically developed countries. In order to address this limitation, 14 developed and developing economies were selected for this study. Countries from various regions were included, with an emphasis on those countries that are the main import partners of Lithuania: seven highly economically developed countries (the UK, Germany, Italy, France, USA, Denmark, and Japan), and six emerging economy markets (Russia, Poland, Estonia, Latvia, the Czech Republic, and China) (Lithuanian Department of Statistics, 2011). Lithuania was also included to demonstrate ethnocentric behavior, as previous studies (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004; Watson and Wright 2000) report that consumers must have a domestic alternative so that they are *not forced* to buy foreign products.

As this study explores what exactly consumers value more in specific product categories, brand, price, quality, design, warranty, and country of origin were selected based on previous CO studies (Bhaskaran and Sukumaran 2007; Leonidou et al. 2007). Specific product categories—consumer electronics (TVs, audio equipment, video equipment, personal computers, and household appliances), shoes, apparel, personal care products, household cleaning products, and food and beverages (fruits and vegetables, dairy, beer, wine, and soft drinks)—were selected because a domestic alternative exists for each (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004), and they were consistent with previous studies on this issue (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004; Leonidou et al. 1999, 2007; Papadopoulos et al. 1994).

Survey Instrument

As this study employs a nonstudent sample, the CETSCALE was tested on consumers. The CETSCALE is a unidimensional construct measuring the extent of the respondent's agreement to statements regarding attitudes to the purchasing foreign and locally made products, on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) (Shimp and Sharma 1987). The mean score of the CETSCALE was used as the overall measure of ethnocentrism for consumers. The scale yields a Cronbach α of 0.93. This scale test is consistent with previous studies in other emerging economy markets: Poland and Russia (Good and Huddleston 1995); Czech Republic, Turkey (Balabanis et al. 2001; Kucukemiroglu 1999); Azerbaijan (Kaynak and Kara 2002); Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, and Estonia (Vida and Fairhurst 1999); China and Russia (Klein et al. 2006). As the CETSCALE has not previously been tested in Lithuania, this study contributes to the growing body of literature that tests the validity of the scale.

It is reasonable to expect that consumer preferences for products and product attributes will be associated with their prior experiences, in addition to the respondent's level of ethnocentrism. The study controlled for *Experience* with products from a particular country by asking respondents to evaluate the ability of products from each of the 14 countries to satisfy their expectations, on a scale from 1 (*completely do not meet expectations*) to 7 (*exceed expectations*) on the five dimensions of design, quality, brand, packaging, and price, following Leonidou and colleagues (1999). Because demographic variables have been shown to be related to CE (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004) and because the consumers in this sample are not homogeneous, several demographic variables as control variables were also included: *Level of Education* (a six-level ordinal variable representing the highest level of education attained), *Age* (in years), *Gender*, and *Income Level* (a six-level ordinal variable representing different income categories).

The questionnaire consisted of four main sections, with demographic information com-

prising the first section. The second part asked respondents to evaluate the relative importance they place on different product attributes for different product categories, from 1 (*completely unimportant*) to 7 (*extremely important*). In the third part of the questionnaire a set of questions asked respondents to evaluate products of the same categories according to country of origin and express their opinions of each product by country from 1 (an extremely poor opinion about a given product from a given country) to 7 (an extremely favorable opinion about a given product from a given country). Where respondents were not familiar with products from a particular country, they were asked to indicate this. In order to explore what consumers value more in specific product categories and how they perceive different countries, we also included a group of questions asking respondents to express their opinions with regard to the ability of products from different countries to satisfy their expectations according to particular product attributes. All product-related measures utilized 7-point Likert type scales. The last group of items in the questionnaire measured consumer ethnocentrism.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Profile of the Ethnocentric Consumer

t-Tests were conducted on each of the demographic groups to test for differences between groups. Table 1 depicts that differences on gender and age were nonsignificant, while significant differences exist for level of education ($p > .05$) and income ($p > .05$), with less-educated and lower-income individuals being more ethnocentric.

The typical ethnocentric consumer in Lithuania is thus one with a lower level of education, over 35, and female. In evaluating differences in preferences of ethnocentric versus nonethnocentric consumers, we split the sample into low and high groups at the median.

CE and Other Consumer Characteristics

Hypothesis 1 predicted that CO will be more important for ethnocentric consumers. *t*-Tests

TABLE 1. Comparison of CETSCALE Averages by Consumer Demographic Characteristics

| | <i>t</i> -Tests | Mean difference | <i>SD</i> |
|---------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------|
| Overall | | 2.96 | 1.11 |
| <i>By gender</i> | -1.01 | | |
| Male | | 2.86 | 1.14 |
| Female | | 3.01 | 1.08 |
| <i>By age</i> | 1.60 | | |
| Over 35 | | 3.33 | 1.38 |
| Under 35 | | 2.92 | 1.07 |
| <i>By education</i> | -3.67*** | | |
| University degree | | 2.57 | 1.03 |
| No degree | | 3.12 | 1.10 |
| <i>By income</i> | -4.29*** | | |
| Upper (>1500 Lt) | | 2.47 | 1.06 |
| Lower (<1500 Lt) | | 3.13 | 1.07 |

Note. Mean scores are based on a scale from 1 to 7.
 *** *p* < .001.

were conducted to test for significant mean differences in consumer preferences for CO and other attributes between ethnocentric and nonethnocentric consumers (table 2).

Table 2 depicts that quality, price, and brand are all very important attributes for both ethnocentric and nonethnocentric consumers. However, *t*-tests revealed significant differences between these two groups only on two product attributes—price (*p* < .05) and CO (*p* < .01). As ethnocentric consumers have lower incomes, it comes as no surprise that the difference on price was significant. Ethnocentric consumers also give CO more importance than nonethno-

centric consumers. Ethnocentric consumers also place more importance on CO compared to the remaining cues, where it is evaluated fourth in importance for ethnocentric consumers (mean = 4.53), and last for nonethnocentric consumers (mean = 4.21). That ethnocentric consumers will more likely prefer products based on CO has also been supported by Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004), Huddleston and colleagues (2000), Leonidou and colleagues (2007), and Watson and Wright (2000). Our results support Hypothesis 1.

As regards the effect of CE, previous studies (Pharr 2005; Usunier 2006) are inconsistent. In order to look into a factual CE effect (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004), an ANOVA analysis was performed controlling for demographic variables. As seen in table 3, significant effects of ethnocentrism are found for all product attributes while controlling for demographic variables. These results lend some support to criticism of previous studies (e.g., Bilkey and Nes 1982; Han and Terpstra 1988; Leonidou et al. 2007; Usunier 2006), where the importance of CO may be overestimated when measured as the only criterion in evaluating and choosing among products. However, here the effect of CE on CO is still rather significant and stronger than on brand, design and warranty.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that CE will explain a larger proportion of the variation in evaluations of product attributes than demographic variables. A General Linear Model procedure was conducted to test the effects of CE and the

TABLE 2. Relative Importance of CO in Comparison to Other Product Attributes

| Attribute | Ethnocentric consumers | | Nonethnocentric consumers | | <i>t</i> -Tests |
|-----------|------------------------|-----------|---------------------------|-----------|-----------------|
| | Mean | <i>SD</i> | Mean | <i>SD</i> | |
| Brand | 4.64 | .98 | 4.56 | .98 | .683 |
| Price | 5.30 | .81 | 5.04 | 1.16 | 2.09** |
| Quality | 6.30 | .58 | 6.33 | .67 | -.289 |
| Design | 4.25 | .87 | 4.21 | .82 | .357 |
| Warranty | 4.30 | 1.24 | 4.24 | 1.22 | .328 |
| CO | 4.53 | 1.34 | 4.21 | 1.48 | 1.72* |

Note. Mean scores are based on a scale from 1 to 7.
 p* < .01; *p* < .05; ****p* < .001.

TABLE 3. Effect of CE on Product Attributes, Controlling for Age, Gender, Education, and Income

| Attribute | Mean | <i>SE</i> | <i>F</i> Value | Partial eta squared |
|-----------|------|-----------|----------------|---------------------|
| Brand | 4.50 | .074 | 3.006*** | .488 |
| Price | 5.26 | .068 | 4.739*** | .601 |
| Quality | 6.27 | .040 | 5.392*** | .632 |
| Design | 4.28 | .065 | 2.479*** | .442 |
| Warranty | 4.27 | .089 | 2.659*** | .459 |
| CO | 4.38 | .105 | 3.716*** | .558 |

Note. Mean scores are based on a scale from 1 to 7.
 ****p* < .001.

TABLE 4. Effect of CE and Demographic Variables on Product Attributes

| Attribute | Brand | Price | Quality | Design | Warranty | CO |
|------------------------|-------|-------|---------|--------|----------|------|
| Age | | | ** | | * | |
| Income | ** | *** | | *** | | *** |
| Gender | * | | | * | *** | |
| Education | | * | * | | ** | |
| Consumer ethnocentrism | *** | *** | *** | *** | *** | *** |
| R^2 | .521 | .613 | .646 | .506 | .556 | .578 |
| Adjusted R^2 | .359 | .483 | .525 | .338 | .404 | .424 |

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$, all two-tailed.

demographic variables on product attributes (table 4). CE does indeed have more significant effects on all of the attributes, while demographic variables each only partially explain evaluations of a few of the attributes. Not surprisingly, income has strong effects on both CO ($p < .001$) and price ($p < .001$). Our results support Hypothesis 2 regarding a strong CE effect in light of other explanatory variables.

CE and Domestic versus Foreign Products

Hypothesis 3a predicted that ethnocentric consumers will have higher evaluations of domestic products. To test this hypothesis, t -tests of ethnocentric and nonethnocentric consumer evaluations both within product categories and of their overall domestic product assessments

were conducted (table 5). Our results support Hypothesis 3a. Significant differences between ethnocentric and nonethnocentric consumers exist for all product categories, with the exception of personal computers ($p > .05$) and dairy products ($p > .05$), and ethnocentric consumers consistently have more favorable evaluations of domestic products than nonethnocentric consumers do (with only few exceptions). The differences for domestic products overall are significant as well, in favor of ethnocentric consumers ($t = 2.580$, $p < .05$). However, in considering DCB, we should further compare domestic country product rankings to those of all other countries, for both ethnocentric and nonethnocentric consumers.

Hypothesis 3b predicted more positive evaluations of foreign products by nonethnocentric

TABLE 5. Domestic Product Perceptions and CE

| Product category | Ethnocentric consumers | | Nonethnocentric consumers | | t Value |
|-----------------------|------------------------|------|---------------------------|------|---------------------|
| | Mean | SD | Mean | SD | |
| TVs | 5.10 | 1.70 | 4.18 | 1.74 | 3.463** |
| Audio equipment | 4.17 | 1.37 | 2.86 | 1.42 | 5.010*** |
| Video equipment | 3.53 | 1.55 | 2.87 | 1.51 | 2.100* |
| Personal computers | 3.80 | 2.44 | 3.60 | 1.86 | 0.469 |
| Household appliances | 4.84 | 1.38 | 3.23 | 1.59 | 6.253*** |
| Shoes | 4.78 | 1.60 | 3.84 | 1.74 | 3.826*** |
| Apparel | 5.57 | 1.18 | 4.83 | 1.49 | 3.893*** |
| Personal care | 4.82 | 1.60 | 4.05 | 1.66 | 3.128** |
| Household cleaning | 4.99 | 1.26 | 3.72 | 1.37 | 6.081*** |
| Fruits and vegetables | 6.22 | 1.27 | 6.49 | 0.91 | -1.743 [†] |
| Dairy | 6.56 | 1.17 | 6.58 | 0.83 | -0.160 |
| Beer | 6.67 | 1.06 | 6.23 | 1.31 | 2.529* |
| Wine | 3.97 | 1.47 | 3.15 | 1.80 | 2.991** |
| Soft drinks | 5.38 | 1.61 | 4.14 | 1.67 | 5.204*** |
| Overall | 4.02 | 1.39 | 3.47 | 1.03 | 2.580* |

Note. Mean scores are based on a scale from 1 to 7.

[†] $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

TABLE 6. Foreign Product Perceptions and CE

| Country | Ethnocentric consumers | | | Nonethnocentric consumers | | | <i>t</i> Value |
|------------|------------------------|-----------|------|---------------------------|-----------|------|----------------|
| | Mean | <i>SD</i> | Rank | Mean | <i>SD</i> | Rank | |
| Lithuania | 4.02 | 1.39 | 2 | 3.47 | 1.03 | 2 | 2.580* |
| China | 2.39 | 1.12 | 12 | 1.67 | 1.07 | 14 | 3.643*** |
| Czech Rep. | 2.82 | 1.60 | 8 | 2.33 | 1.67 | 10 | 1.581 |
| Denmark | 2.79 | 1.80 | 9 | 3.01 | 1.96 | 8 | -0.675 |
| Estonia | 2.30 | 1.46 | 14 | 2.36 | 1.44 | 9 | -0.185 |
| France | 3.34 | 1.75 | 5 | 3.08 | 1.71 | 5 | 0.858 |
| Germany | 4.27 | 1.68 | 1 | 3.95 | 1.80 | 1 | 1.049 |
| Italy | 3.15 | 1.68 | 6 | 3.02 | 1.53 | 7 | 0.461 |
| Japan | 3.08 | 1.35 | 7 | 3.29 | 1.39 | 4 | -0.868 |
| Latvia | 2.63 | 1.44 | 10 | 2.13 | 1.40 | 12 | 1.821† |
| Poland | 2.36 | 1.25 | 13 | 2.20 | 1.22 | 11 | 0.735 |
| Russia | 2.44 | 1.26 | 11 | 2.08 | 1.42 | 13 | 1.457 |
| UK | 3.75 | 1.72 | 3 | 3.07 | 1.88 | 6 | 2.085* |
| USA | 3.39 | 1.49 | 4 | 3.42 | 1.69 | 3 | -0.102 |

Note. Mean scores are based on a scale from 1 to 7.

† $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

consumers. Table 6 presents mean comparisons and *t*-values for both groups of consumers for all countries. The results do not support Hypothesis 3b. Significant differences were found for only three countries, and mean score differences are nonsignificant for most of the countries in the study.

Yet, when we consider the CEE countries (Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Poland, and Russia) separately, Hypothesis 4 receives partial support. Ethnocentric consumers do sympathize with neighboring or institutionally similar countries, while nonethnocentric consumers do not. Ethnocentric consumers gave slightly higher evaluations to products from the Czech Republic, Latvia, Russia, and Poland; however, only the difference for Latvia was significant ($p < .10$).

Hypothesis 5 predicted lower evaluations for Russian products than other CEE countries by both groups of consumers. If country scores are compared in table 6, one can notice that Russia is scored 11th by ethnocentric consumers and 13th by nonethnocentric consumers. Ethnocentric consumers actually have more favorable perceptions of Russian over Polish and Estonian products, while for nonethnocentric consumers Russian products score lowest of all CEE countries. Pairwise comparisons revealed that the difference in scores by ethnocentric

consumers was significantly higher for Russian products than Estonian ones ($t = 1.996$, $p < .05$). Hypothesis 5 is thus not supported by the results.

Hypothesis 6 predicted that nonethnocentric consumers will have more positive evaluation of products from Western countries. Analyzing the Western countries (UK, USA, Denmark, Germany, Italy, and France), a significant difference in mean scores is found only for the UK ($t = 2.085$, $p < .05$) and China ($t = 3.643$, $p < .001$). However, the result is the opposite of what we expected, with ethnocentric consumers rating UK products more favorably than nonethnocentric consumers. Ethnocentric consumers also gave higher ratings to German and French products, though the mean differences were not statistically significant. Hypothesis 6 was not supported.

Hypothesis 7 posited that previous experience with products is a significant predictor of consumer perceptions. Before testing this hypothesis, high evaluations of local and foreign products by ethnocentric consumers need to be examined. Thus, first, a hierarchical cluster analysis of country average scores to determine an appropriate number of country clusters, using three different algorithms, was conducted. Ward's method was applied to best uncover the natural structure of the data. The "within" and "between groups" linkage methods were also

TABLE 7. Comparison of Country Cluster Memberships by Consumer Ethnocentrism

| Country | Total | E | NE |
|----------------|-------|---|----|
| Lithuania | ▽ | ▽ | □ |
| China | ◇ | ◇ | ▽ |
| Czech Republic | ◆ | ◆ | ◇ |
| Denmark | ◆ | ◆ | ▽ |
| Estonia | ◆ | ◆ | ◆ |
| France | □ | □ | □ |
| Germany | □ | □ | □ |
| Italy | □ | □ | □ |
| Japan | ▽ | ▽ | ▽ |
| Latvia | ◆ | ◆ | ◆ |
| Poland | ◇ | ◇ | ◇ |
| Russia | ◇ | ◇ | ◇ |
| UK | □ | □ | □ |
| USA | ▽ | ▽ | □ |

Note. E = ethnocentric, NE = nonethnocentric.

applied. The decision regarding the number of clusters was based on an analysis of dendograms and agglomeration schedules. Next, respondents were divided into ethnocentric and nonethnocentric consumers, and the clustering procedure was repeated once again to determine whether any differences in country preference patterns exist between groups. Table 7 depicts overall country clusters and clusters by consumer ethnocentrism. Different symbols denote membership in different country clusters.

The results suggest that ethnocentric consumers have a different notion of local products than nonethnocentric consumers, even though the two groups score local products similarly to those from the Western countries and Japan.

However, ethnocentric consumers view Lithuanian products as similar to Japanese and U.S. products, while for nonethnocentric consumers Lithuania clusters with most of the Western European countries (UK, France, Germany, and Italy) and the USA, lending support to the findings of Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004).

The CEE countries (Czech Republic, Estonia, and Latvia) also cluster with Denmark across all groups, while Polish, Russian, and Chinese products fall into a separate cluster, as do the Western European countries (France, UK, Germany, and Italy). Appealing as well is that all Western countries (with the exception of Denmark) group into one cluster for ethnocentric consumers.

The above results suggest that ethnocentric and nonethnocentric consumers have different views of local and foreign products and that these differ by product category and country clusters. However, the explanatory power of consumer ethnocentrism in comparison to other variables is not apparent, especially as previous experience with products from a specific country can influence perceptions possibly to a greater extent than only beliefs about foreign products. To test for the influence of all *demographic variables and experience* with products and *consumer ethnocentrism* on preferences for products from specific countries a General Linear Model procedure was conducted.

The results in Table 8 support our final hypothesis, H7. The results suggest that experience is a significant predictor of consumer perceptions. Moreover, CE and experience explain the

TABLE 8. Explanatory Power of Consumer Ethnocentrism and Experience on Evaluations of Foreign and Domestic Products

| | LT | PRC | CZ | DK | EE | FR | DE | IT | JP | LV | PL | RU | UK | USA |
|-------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Control variables | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | | | | | | | * | | | | | | | |
| Income | | | | | | | | | * | | | | | |
| Gender | | | | | | ** | | | | | * | | | |
| Education | | | | | | ** | | | | | | | | |
| Experience | *** | * | *** | | | | | ** | *** | ** | | | * | |
| CE | ** | *** | ** | | * | | | | ** | ** | | * | | |
| R^2 | .783 | .774 | .789 | .726 | .770 | .639 | .603 | .698 | .744 | .768 | .647 | .730 | .642 | .637 |
| Adjusted R^2 | .546 | .519 | .513 | .311 | .416 | .224 | .168 | .337 | .433 | .480 | .234 | .400 | .218 | .183 |

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$, all two-tailed.

variation in preferences across country groups for most countries, and the explanatory power of experience is slightly greater than CE. While Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) found that CE explained only a small proportion of the variance in consumer preferences, our results show CE effects can only be fully understood relative to other variables, and vary by country.

CONCLUSIONS

This study sought to provide a comprehensive picture of the integrative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism, country of origin, and other important attributes for different product categories in determining consumer preferences for domestic products in an emerging economy market. This study contributes to the literature by providing a picture of consumer preferences for local and foreign products and consumer ethnocentrism in the context of emerging markets often neglected in the literature that focuses mainly on highly developed countries.

The results report that consumers hold different perceptions not only of different countries, but that their perceptions differ depending on the different product categories being evaluated. The results suggest that consumer ethnocentrism is a relatively good predictor of consumer preferences not only for products of local or foreign origin, but also in the importance placed on CO in comparison to other product attributes. Although quality, price, and brand were evaluated as more important than CO overall, the relative importance of CO was higher for ethnocentric consumers than for nonethnocentric consumers. Ethnocentric consumers are also more price conscious, which makes sense, considering that the typical ethnocentric consumer in Lithuania is older than 35, yet has a lower income and level of education. Nonetheless, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on CO as a product attribute was also significant. Ethnocentrism is also a better predictor of preferences for products of different origin than demographic variables. Even though consumers score local products as better than those of most other countries, they do not hold favorable views of neighboring countries. Western European (EU), U.S., and Japanese products were scored most highly, while Lithuania's

closest neighbors—Latvia, Estonia, Poland, and Russia—received the lowest ratings. The impact of consumer ethnocentrism on preferences for products from these countries was stronger than for Western EU and non-EU countries. These findings add to the existing knowledge base on consumer perceptions of products made in highly economically developed Western countries (Ahmed and d'Astous 2007; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004; Ettenson 1993) and on consumer evaluations of Japanese, U.S., German, and Russian products (Strutton, True, and Rody 1995).

Findings also provide practical implications for marketers. Marketers are recommended to bear in mind that home country is not always the first choice for both ethnocentric and nonethnocentric consumers; therefore, relying on high consumer ethnocentrism levels in a domestic country is not the best strategy. For nonethnocentric consumers emphasis on quality and price are safe positioning strategies. Companies might also consider emphasizing "region of origin" (e.g., the EU) over country of origin, especially when targeting older consumers with lower incomes, keeping in mind the price consciousness of emerging economy market consumers in general, but especially the ethnocentric consumer.

This study acknowledges limitations. It is based on consumers in one emerging economy market, and thus the results of this study have to be generalized with caution to other Eastern European countries due to cultural differences in emerging economy markets. Thus, future studies should also consider the shift in consumer values and assess their influence on consumer preferences. A longitudinal study would aid in exploring changing factors that might explain consumer choices better. Moreover, research that involves more emerging economy markets and focuses on services rather than on products is necessary, as it would guide marketers in developing adequate marketing strategies.

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