

**The Effects of Consumer Ethnocentrism on the Establishment of a
Consideration Set of Convenience Products**

By

ANDREW RONALD KAMWENDO

STUDENT NUMBER: 21241822

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Technology (M-Tech): Marketing

Department of Marketing and Retail Management

Durban University of Technology

APPROVED FOR EXAMINATION

SUPERVISORS:

Supervisor: Mrs K. M. Corbishley **Date**
(M Tech: Marketing, B Tech: Marketing, B Comm)

Co-Supervisor: Professor R.B. Mason **Date**
(PhD, MBL. BA, Dip: Mktng Res and Adv, Dip Mkt Man, PG Cert T+L (HE))

DECLARATION

I do hereby declare that the work presented in this dissertation is solely the product of the author (Andrew R. Kamwendo) and has been compiled under the supervision of the respective DUT supervisors. The study has not been submitted to any other university and all relevant authors whose work has contributed to this study have been referenced accordingly.

Signed

Date

Andrew R Kamwendo

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this research would not have been realised without the support of DUT and UKZN staff members, students from the two respective institutions and the support of family and friends. Firstly, I would like to thank God Almighty for the grace awarded me during the period, without which I would not have been able to undertake this venture.

Secondly, I would like to thank my supervisors, Prof R. B. Mason and Mrs. K. Corbishley, for their guidance throughout the research process. Their expertise proved invaluable. I would like to thank DUT staff members, chiefly from the Department of Marketing and Retail for all their support and assistance and, on that note, I specifically would like to extend my thanks to Mr. Raap and Prof Penceliah. I would also like to extend my thanks to Mr D. Singh for assisting me with his statistical expertise.

I would also like to acknowledge my family and friends, for all the encouragement and support you have given me. I am truly grateful.

Lastly, I would like to extend my thanks to all those who contributed in the research process, to the research participants and all those whose names I have not mentioned.

ABSTRACT

The establishment of choice set from which consumers identify their preferred product and/brand choices arouses some interest among researchers, specifically within the context of international marketing. This curiosity about the influence of a product's place of origin (country-of-origin: COO) on the establishment of consumer choice sets chiefly emanates from the growth of international trade and globalisation. The gap within the knowledge base surrounding consumer behaviour with respect to the purchase of foreign and domestic brands, specifically within Africa created the potential for research. As part of the evolution of COO research, this study looks into the construct of consumer ethnocentrism (CE) and its relationship with product selection and consideration.

The aim behind the study can be summed up in the following objectives: firstly, to identify the moderating effects of consumer demographic variables on ethnocentric tendencies; secondly, to determine consumer attitudes towards foreign convenience goods; and, thirdly to establish the association between consumer ethnocentrism (CE) and brand selection for a consideration set. A structural model was developed illustrating the relationships (assumed) between consideration and CE. This resulted in the developed of five hypotheses.

A cross-sectional descriptive survey was conducted within Durban. A research instrument was developed combining ethnocentrism research and the concept of consideration. Within the study, an explanation of the research methodology utilised was provided. 500 questionnaires were distributed in order to obtain primary data for

the purpose of the study. A presentation of the results obtained was provided. An analysis of the collected data was also provided using SPSS 21.0 with the aid of graphs and the appropriate inferential statistics. The research hypotheses were tested using an independent sample Kruskal-Wallis test and a Mann-Whitney U-test. A Spearman's correlation test was used to test the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and brand consideration. The chi-square test was used to test for the existence of variances within the responses provided by the respondents.

The study revealed that only race had a significant relationship with consumer ethnocentrism while other demographic characteristics did not. Ethnocentric tendencies were strongest among Black South Africans. An association was also discovered between consumer ethnocentrism and the consideration of convenience products. The study, therefore, provides a better understanding into South African consumers' selection of convenience products as influenced by consumer ethnocentrism. The theoretical and practical implications from the research findings have also been discussed within the report with the provision of suggestions regarding future research.

TABLES OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
ABSRTACT	iv
LIST OF APPENDICES	xi
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	PAGE
1.1 BACKGROUND	1
1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	4
1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	6
1.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	7
1.5 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	8
1.5.1 Research Design	8
1.5.2 Sampling	8
1.5.3 Data Collection	9
1.5.4 Analysis	11
1.5.5 Validity and Reliability	11
1.6 RATIONALE	11
1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY	12
1.7.1 Delimitations of the study	12
1.7.2 Limitations of the study	12
1.8 CONCLUSION	13

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION	14
2.2 CONSUMER DECISION MAKING PROCESS	14
2.2.1 Psychological Factors	16
2.2.2 Product Selection	18
2.3 CONSIDERATION	19
2.3.1 Consideration Construct	19
2.3.2 Set Size and Formation	22
2.3.3 Measuring Consideration	23
2.3.4 Antecedents of Consideration Set	25
2.3.4.1 Advertising	25
2.3.4.2 Country-of-Origin (COO)	25
2.3.4.3 Product Category	28
2.3.4.4 Product Involvement	29
2.3.5 Conclusion	32
2.4 PLACE OF ORIGIN	33
2.4.1 Informational Cues	33
2.4.2 Country-Of-Origin (COO) Construct	35
2.4.2.1 Country-Of-Brand Perceptions	36
2.4.2.2 Country-Of-Origin Image	38
2.4.2.3 Country-Of-Origin Effect	40
2.4.3 Conclusion	41
2.5 CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM (CE)	42
2.5.1 Development of CE	42
2.5.2 Antecedents to Ethnocentrism	45

2.5.2.1 Socio-psychological	46
2.5.2.2 Economic and Political	46
2.5.2.3 Demographics	47
a. Age	47
b. Gender	49
c. Education	50
d. Race	50
2.5.3 Effect of Consumer Ethnocentrism	51
2.5.4 Measurement of CE	53
2.6 CONCLUSION	56
 CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	
3.1 INTRODUCTION	58
3.2 DEVELOPING A RESEARCH DESIGN	58
3.3 RESEARCH POPULATION	60
3.4 RESEARCH SAMPLE	60
3.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT	62
3.5.1 Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale (CETSCALE)	63
3.5.2 Consumer attitude and Product Evaluation	65
3.6 DATA COLLECTION	65
3.7 DATA ANALYSIS	67
3.8 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY	67
3.9 CONCLUSION	68

CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION	69
4.2 SAMPLE	69
4.3 RELIABILITY STATISTICS	69
4.3.1 Factor Analysis	70
4.3.2 Biographical data (Section A)	72
4.3.2.1 Age and Gender	72
4.3.2.2 Race	74
4.3.2.3 Educational Level (Achieved)	75
4.3.3 Conclusion	77
4.4. QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS	78
4.4.1 CETSCALE (Section B)	78
4.4.2 Brand Consideration (Section C)	81
4.4.3 Inferential statistics	85
4.4.3.1 Research Hypothesis (Hypothesis testing)	89
4.4.3.2 Correlations (Inferential statistics)	91
a Questionnaire Questions (correlation)	91
b Correlation (CE and Brands Consideration)	93
4.5 CONCLUSION	93
 CHAPTER 5: DATA AND ANALYSIS DISCUSSION	
5.1 INTRODUCTION	95
5.2 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT	95
5.2.1 Consumer Ethnocentrism	96
5.2.1.1 The Moderating effect of consumer demographics on CE	98
a. Age	98

b. Race	99
c. Education	101
d. Gender	102
5.2.2 Brand Consideration	104
5.2.3 Consideration and Consumer Ethnocentrism	106
5.3 CONCLUSION	107
 CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
6.1 INTRODUCTION	109
6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY	109
6.3 RESEARCH FINDINGS	111
6.4 LIMITATIONS	114
6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS	115
6.5.1 Managerial Implications	115
6.5.2 Academic implications	116
6.5.3 Future Research	116
6.6 CONCLUSION	118
 BIBLIOGRAPHY	119

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Letter of information	155
Appendix 2 Letter of consent	157
Appendix 3 Questionnaire	159
Appendix 4 Mean responses per demographic variable per question	163
Appendix 5 Spearman's Correlation	165

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Desired Sample Size	62
Table 2 Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Questionnaire)	70
Table 3 Section B (CETSCALE Questions)	71
Table 4 Section C (Brand Consideration Questions)	71
Table 5 Biographical Data (Gender and Age group cross-tabulation)	73
Table 6 Race and Educational Statistics	77
Table 7 Chi square test results	79
Table 8 One Sample T-Test (Ethnocentrism)	81
Table 9 Chi square test results	82
Table 10 One Sample T-test (Brand Consideration)	84
Table 11 Pearson Chi Square Tests	86
Table 13 Hypothesis Testing Summary (Research Hypothesis)	90
Table 15 Brand Consideration and CE (Correlation)	93

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Consumer Ethnocentrism and Brand Selection Model	7
Figure 2 Consumer Decision Making Model	15
Figure 3 Biographical Data (Sample population by Race %)	74
Figure 4 Biographical Data (Educational level achieved)	75
Figure 5 CETSCALE Percentage Scores	80
Figure 6 Brand Consideration Scores (Section C)	83

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

The study of consumer behaviour has grown to incorporate the influences of global trade on consumer choice and selection of brands, products and services. Companies have found themselves in the proverbial rat race vying for a stake of the international market (Kaynak and Kara, 2002:928). Business operations have, therefore, been spread over multiple countries giving birth to multi-national, trans-national as well as global corporations. The number of choices available to consumers has thus increased to include not only domestic product brands but also foreign product brands. Consequently, Orth and Firbasova (2003:137) highlighted the need to delve into the factors influencing consumers' choice of foreign and domestic products.

Much interest has been placed on the concept of country-of-origin (COO) effect, after the assertion made by Dichter (1962:116) and later supported by Schooler (1965:396). Researchers have sought to unravel the construct of country-of-origin in order to fully understand its influences. Numerous studies conducted within the marketing field have revealed that consumers' product evaluations are significantly altered by their awareness of where that particular product originates (Wang and Lamb, 1983:72; Zhang, 1996:52; Cattin, Jolibert and Lohnes, 1982:132). Others have ascertained that the availability of such information will alter a consumer's brand and product choices (Manrai, Lascu and Manrai, 1998:594). Resultantly, the

availability of country-of-origin information within a consumer's selection process has thus been the subject of much interest.

The growth and emphasis on brand significance in the field of international marketing has culminated in some authors arguing that the construct of brand-origin consists of a more encompassing set of product attributes (Phau and Prendergrast, 2000:166). Together with the developments of the concept of country-of-origin, some have come to believe that it should be replaced by the concept of brand-origin (Thakor and Kohli, 1996:29).

Based on the seminal study conducted by Schooler (1965:394), the COO research has revealed a general preference for product brands from developed countries. Studies have shown that consumers from developed countries apply a higher or more positive rating to products from their own country or similarly developed countries, than to products from foreign and/or less-developed countries (Phau and Prendergast, 2000:162). Further study has also shown that there is also evidence to suggest that some consumers will continuously prefer to purchase domestically manufactured products (Hamin and Elliot, 2006:80).

Much research emphasis has been placed on developed countries with the majority being conducted in America and Europe (Hamin and Elliot, 2006:80). Although this has been the case, Dickčius and Stankevičienė (2010:109) stated that the concept of country-of-origin is becoming increasingly important to emerging economies, with a number of organisations shifting their operations from developed to less-developed nations. It, therefore, follows that further research is carried out on the effects of

country-of-origin on consumer behaviour, especially in developing and less-developed nations.

One of the key aspects to the advancement of COO research has been the notion of ethnocentrism, which has been described as a “sociological concept that refers to a tendency to regard the beliefs, standards and code of behaviour of one’s own as superior to those found in other societies” (Nadiri and Tümer, 2010:445). Ethnocentrism has been stated as a major cause of the preference for domestic products among consumers (Bandyopadhyay, 2012:308). The concept has evolved into what is now termed consumer ethnocentrism, in order to explain its presence among consumers (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:282)

The advent of multinational brands, as mentioned earlier, has caused a sizeable increase in the number of choices available to a single individual. Hulland (1999:25) stated that the correlation between COO and brand evaluation has well since been researched and established. Interest has thus sparked into the consideration of both foreign and domestic brands which will undergo evaluation within the purchasing process.

The establishment of consumer choice sets upon a given purchasing occasion has also been the subject of some debate (Simonson and Tversky, 1992:359). Consumers have been known to classify and categorize product brands into different groupings in an effort to simplify the purchasing process (Ranjbarian and Kia, 2010:63). One such grouping (set) is the consideration set, as it has come to be known. It is described as the subset of brands that a consumer intends to buy from

all brands that a consumer has knowledge (Howard, 1977:95). According to Ranjanbarian and Kia (2010:262), understanding the formulation and collection of such a set may prove to be helpful to the development of management strategies.

Especially amongst specific product types, research has shown that there is a relationship that exists between COO and specific product categories (Schooler, 1965:395). Research has covered conspicuous consumption (Wang and Chen, 2004:393), low involvement (Kraetke, 2000:2) and high involvement products (Lin and Chen, 2006:253). Variances have been found mainly in the low involvement category which is comprised mainly of convenience product brands (Lin and Chen, 2006:254). As a result, it is difficult to ascertain the impact that place-of-origin has on such products.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

International marketing research has been faced with the task of interpreting the mysteries behind consumer purchasing behaviour. Within markets, the number of foreign product brands available is now greater than before (Ger, Belk and Lascu, 1993:103). Consumers are resultantly faced with an ever-increasing number of purchasing options (Kardes, Kalyanaram, Chandrashekar, and Dornoff, 1993:64). The COO effect has been identified as a key factor in product evaluation (Ahmed, Johnson, Yang, Fatt, Teng and Boon (2004:102). It is, therefore, important for marketers to understand how consumers choose between domestic products and products of foreign origin. Ahmed *et al.* (2004:102) went on to state that the importance of country-of-origin information cannot be emphasised enough.

Studies have tried to establish whether consumers are inclined to prefer domestic brands as opposed to foreign brands (Evanschitzky, Wangenheim, Woisetschla"ger and Blut, 2008:7). Research has shown that consumers in some countries (particularly developed countries) generally assess products from their own country more favourably than products from other countries. Thus, the link between domestic brands and domestic consumers has been the subject of interest in international marketing research (Wall and Heslop, 1986:27).

One key element to this link has been consumer ethnocentrism (CE). CE has been described as the belief of the inappropriateness and immorality of foreign product purchases (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:280). Ahmed *et al.* (2004:105) hypothesised that the presence of ethnocentric tendencies revealed that COO considerations are present in product and brand evaluations. The major premise behind this belief is that the purchase of foreign products would adversely affect their domestic economy (Wall and Heslop, 1986:27).

Further studies carried out in the field of consumer behaviour have highlighted differences in consumers' cognitive processes and behaviour (Josiassen *et al.*, 2011:628). These differences are believed to be a product of differences in consumer demographics (age, gender, income, race and income) (Cooil, Keiningham, Aksoy and Hsu 2007:68; Fisher and Dubé, 2005:850; Meyers-Levy, 1989:77). In accordance with Pentz (2011:228) and Estifanos (2003:89), South African consumers exhibit ethnocentric tendencies at varying degrees. Despite the obvious impact of consumer demographics, the full extent to which they influence ethnocentric tendencies among consumers is still unclear and presents a research

gap (Pentz, 2011:118). Homburg and Giering (2001:57) concluded that gaps within researchers' understanding of the full impact of demographics in consumer behaviour inhibit the managerial relevance of studies in this area. Following studies carried out by Pentz (2011:238) and Estifanos (2003:89), it is clear that demographic variances are evident in the development of ethnocentrism in South Africa.

Laroche, Papadopoulos, Heslop and Murali (2005:96), in their study, went on to state that consumers focus only on a limited number of brands at any given purchasing occasion. These brands are believed to be derived from what is termed the 'consideration set'. The consideration set is described as a set comprised of the brands a consumer considers for purchase from all the brands he or she has knowledge of within a given category (Abougomaah, Schlacter, and Gaidis, 1987:667).

Greater understanding is needed into the effects of consumer ethnocentrism brand selection. Thus, knowledge of the consideration sets formation and composition would prove to be crucial within management decision making, especially the influence of CE and COO information on its establishment. Therefore, the problem to be addressed by this study is the knowledge gap regarding consumer ethnocentrism and consideration of convenience brands in South Africa

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The development of research objectives was based on the findings of past COO and CE studies. It is the purpose of this study to determine the influence of COO and CE

in the selection of different product brands. As a result, the following objectives were established:

- To identify the moderating effects of consumer demographic variables (age, gender, education and race) on ethnocentric tendencies;
- To determine consumer attitudes towards foreign convenience goods; and
- To establish the association between consumer ethnocentrism (CE) and brand selection for a consideration set.

1.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The research objectives have led to the development of the relationship between the variables which are reflected in figure 1.

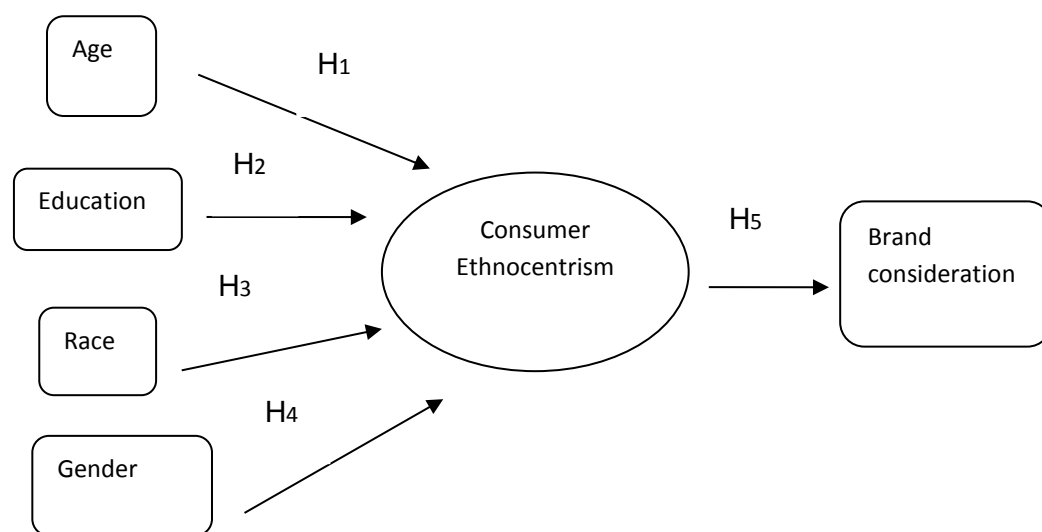


Figure 1: CE and Brand Selection Relationship Model

These relationships can be expressed as research hypotheses as follows:

H1: A positive correlation exists between age and CE;

H2: A negative correlation exists between the level of education and CE;

H3: Ethnocentric tendencies are the same amongst the different races;

H4: Females display greater ethnocentric tendencies than their male counterparts;

and

H5: Consumer ethnocentrism leads to a negative consideration of foreign convenience brands.

1.5 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

An appropriate research methodology has been used to carry out the study, based on existing literature and the objectives of the study. The research instrument is based on established scales. Statistical methods were also used to analyse the research data. In-depth analysis of the research tools will be looked at in the following sections.

1.5.1 Research Design

The study is in the form of a descriptive, cross-sectional study and it is used to survey student and staff attitudes towards brands, to establish the correlation between CE and consumer consideration within SA. This has been done to deepen understanding of the dynamics between brand nationality and consumer considerations.

1.5.2 Sampling

The population of this study comprised of students and staff members from two universities within the greater Durban area. These universities were chosen for their

convenience of access. They were also chosen to provide the full range of demographics to be studied. Thus, purposive sampling was used.

Within the study, quota sampling has been used to sample tertiary institutions and provide sample representativeness. Quota sampling criterion, which is based on the literature review, was used. Convenience sampling was used within the sample until the quota was filled. Participants were chosen in terms of age, gender, education and race until the quota was filled.

The researcher sought to obtain 480 respondents divided equally amongst younger and older participants; with 120 White, 120 Black, 120 Coloured and 120 Indians. Roscoe (1975, cited by Sekaran and Bougie 2010:296) emphasises the appropriateness of a sample size between 30 and 500. He further states that a population size of 75 000 and 1 000 000 should have a sample size between 382 and 384. For this study, a sample size of 480 was needed to ensure a minimum sample size of 30 respondents per each demographic characteristic (Table 1, Chapter 3: p 62).

1.5.3 Data Collection

Relevant scales from ethnocentrism literature were used to design the questionnaire (Parameswaran and Pisharodi, 1994:45; Shimp and Sharma 1987:281). A self-completion questionnaire was utilized to collect data. The questionnaire was divided into sections which comprised of CETSCALE questions to determine ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:282) and consumer attitudes to determine consideration.

The other sections were made up of questions based on the literature as well as participant demographics.

The study was conducted at the major universities in Durban. All participants were invited to voluntarily participate within the study. Questionnaires were administered to younger students from these universities for completion via classroom intercept until the quota was filled. The questionnaires were administered to classrooms which were chosen at the researcher's convenience until the quota was filled. Questionnaires were also administered to the UKZN Business School students via classroom intercept. All participants were required to sign a letter of informed consent before participating. The questionnaires were also administered by the researcher to different classrooms of students in the presence of an appointed university representative. Respondents were required to drop completed questionnaires into a sealed box to ensure confidentiality and anonymity.

The study was also pilot tested at DUT. Permission to conduct the pilot test was obtained from the Ethics Committee. The questionnaire and the pilot test results were checked by a qualified statistician. Permission to conduct the research was obtained from relevant authorities from all the universities. Respondents were not required to provide any personal information, thereby ensuring confidentiality. All questionnaires collected are being kept at DUT under lock and key at the department for fifteen years and will be shredded thereafter. All soft copy data will also be kept on a flash-disk under lock and key at the department for fifteen years and disposed of thereafter.

1.5.4 Analysis

Descriptive statistical methods were utilised as well as graphs and the appropriate inferential statistics. The data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0.

1.5.5 Validity and reliability

Sekaran and Bougie (2010:156) define validity as "a test of how well an instrument measures the particular concept it is intended to measure". Validity of the questionnaire was pre-tested by research supervisors and also with the help of a statistician and then pilot-tested to identify and eliminate any potential problems. Validity was also ensured using questions from previously validated research studies.

Reliability is "a test of how consistently a measuring instrument measures the particular concept it is measuring," Sekaran and Bougie (2010:156). Cronbach's alpha was used to secure reliability of estimates.

1.6 RATIONALE

Understanding consumers forms an important part of international marketing. In order to exploit the opportunities available, foreign brand marketers should clearly understand consumer value structures. The study is anticipated to widen the research available on African consumers and, therefore, broaden understanding on the effects of CE. It is also intended to improve the marketing efforts of non-traditional exporters to South Africa. The study is believed to extend research and

help broaden understanding into the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and overall brand selection.

1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study is focused on convenience product brands sold within South Africa with the intent of establishing the influence of CE in the establishment of a consideration set of such products. The study only investigates the moderating effect that the variables of education, age, gender and race have on the strength of CE among different consumers in the greater Durban area.

1.7.1 Delimitations of the study

The study is limited to the following concepts: CE, COO and product consideration. The study is also delimited to the universities within the city of Durban and is delimited to the students as well as staff members of these institutions. This study is also focused on the perceptions and attitudes of individuals from these institutions as they satisfy the requirements of the research objectives.

1.7.2 Limitation of the study

One of the limitations of the study is the time constraint within which research is conducted as it is in the form of a cross-sectional study. Another limitation was the delays experienced within the data collection process. Difficulties are likely to be experienced in obtaining permission to collect data from the institutions. Within the same context, since participation is voluntary, some respondents are likely to opt out of the research making it difficult to obtain respondents.

1.8 CONCLUSION

Within this chapter, an introduction providing the background to the study was provided on the subject of CE and its development, with particular emphasis being placed on the influence of CE on consumer behaviour. Of specific interest is the development of consumer preferences, especially when consumers are faced with domestic as well as foreign product options. From the existing literature, a model of antecedents was developed (Figure 1), illustrating possible brand consideration. In the next chapter, an in-depth review of existing literature will be conducted to provide a better understanding of the concepts under investigation.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Consumer behaviour encompasses a number of aspects. One of these aspects, which have been the subject of much interest, has been that of consumer decision making. Consumer research has been based upon the idea of developing the predictive elements of management processes. Research is driven by the belief that a better understanding of consumer decisions and the factors that influence the decision-making processes would improve the effectiveness of marketing efforts. Studies have also shown that consumer decisions are a result of a complex arrangement of conscious efforts (Foxall, Oliveira-Castro, James and Schrezenmaier, 2011:2), and that they are also a product of a consumer's unconscious psychological processes (Bargh, 2002:28).

In an attempt to further the understanding of consumer behaviour, the purpose of this chapter is to analyse the findings from past research on the subject of consumer decision making as influenced by a consumer's psychological factors and this will, in turn, help in the establishment of the correlation that exists between the research variables.

2.2 CONSUMER DECISION MAKING PROCESS

The broad concept of consumer behaviour has been the subject of much research over the years. In an effort to explain consumer behaviour, Shiffman and Kanuk (2004:554) developed a simplified model illustrating a typical consumer's decision-

making process. Within this model, three major elements were identified. The model demonstrated that, upon any given purchasing instance, the consumer decision-making process is made up of the input, process and output elements as demonstrated below in Figure 2. Emphasis has been placed on the second section which shows the 'process' element to the decision model.

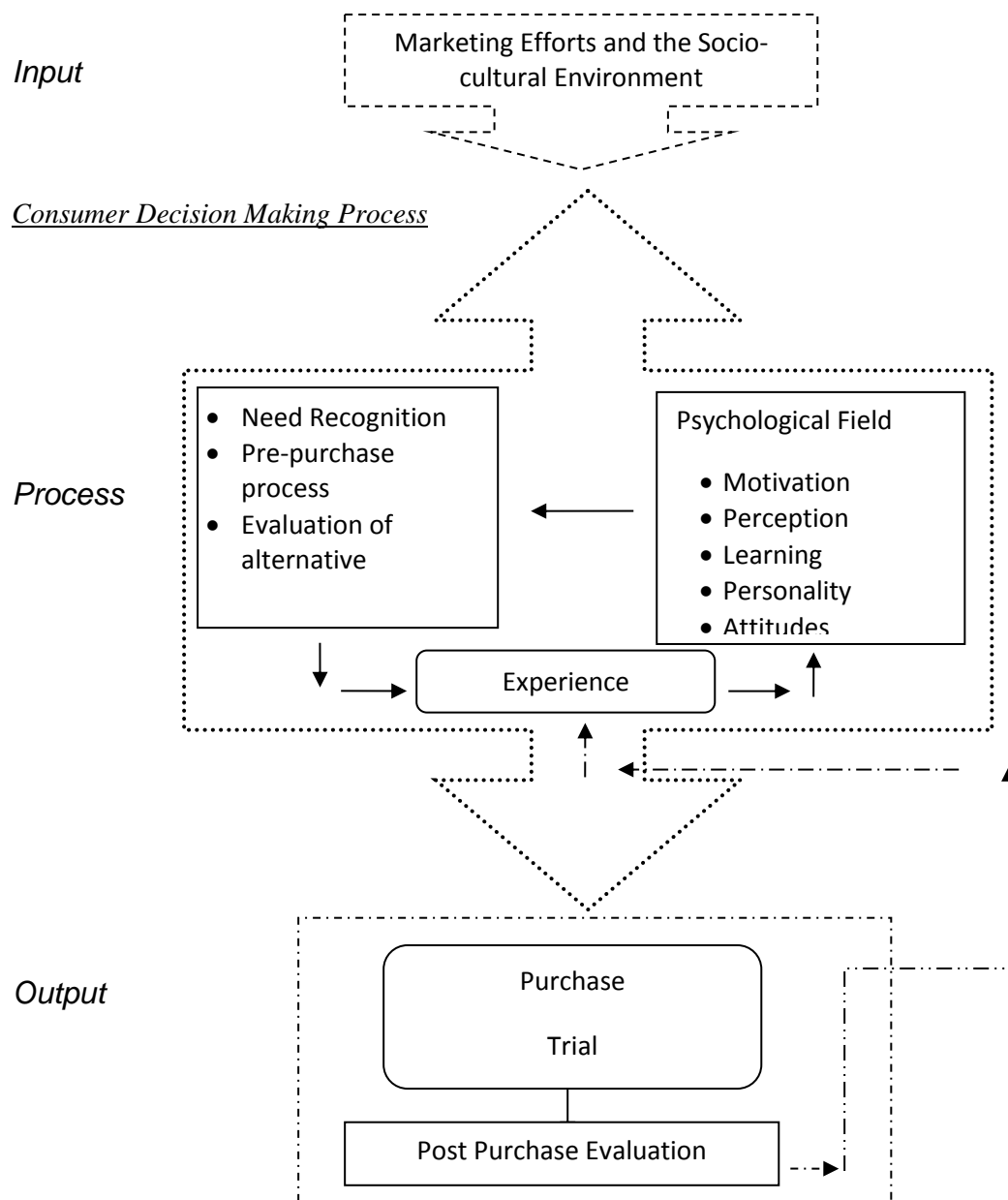


Figure 2: A simple model of Consumer Decision Making (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004:555).

2.2.1 Psychological Factors

In accordance with the model, a consumer's recognition of particular needs, his/her 'pre-purchase search' and subsequent 'evaluation' of given alternatives, to a large extent, depends on the consumer's psychological processes. According to Schiffman and Kanuk's (2004:555) model, a consumer's psychological make-up consists of five elements, namely, motivation, perception, learning, personality and lastly attitudes. Armstrong and Kotler (2011:174) stated that an individual's purchasing choices were altered by personal factors. These five elements are also believed to be subjective to each individual as they are influenced by the experiences each particular individual goes through (Foxall, Goldsmith and Brown, 1998:5).

According to Wu (2003:39), of all the psychological factors, consumer attitudes are the most prone to change. As a result, much marketing effort is focused at changing and altering consumer attitudes (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004:252). Early definitions of attitudes state that attitudes refer to "a mental or neural state of readiness organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence on an individual's response to all objects and situation to which it is related". "Attitudes are enduring systems of positive or negative evaluations, emotional feelings, and pro or con action tendencies with respect to social objects" according to Krech, Cruthfield and Ballachy (1962:139, cited by Spence and Townsend, 2008:88). They suggest that individuals dislike certain objects while taking pleasure in others. Authors like Schwarzz and Bohner (2001:2), defined attitudes as "an enduring organisation of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes to evaluate various objects that are stored in memory".

The definition provided by Schwarzz and Bohner (2001:2) seems to be based on early assertions made by Allport (1934:142) who stated that attitudes are a combination of an individual's personal beliefs, personality, values and their motives. Armstrong and Kotler (2011:179) established that organisations should create products which match consumer attitudes within their marketing efforts. Consequently, the literature reviewed in this chapter will endeavour to further understanding of the determinants of consumer attitudes.

The model by Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:554) seems to support an earlier study by Wu (2003:39) which established that a consumer's attitudes, personal beliefs and perceptions form part of the consumer's internal influences which affect his/her purchase process. In the study, Wu (2003:39) that not only is the decision process affected by a consumer's psychology but it is affected by other internal factors. He went on to divide these internal factors into two groupings. These were identified as behavioural processes (consumer psychological make-up) and background characteristics (consumer demographics) (Wu, 2003:39).

Of particular interest in international marketing is the subject of ethnocentrism among consumers. Granzin and Painter (2001:75) asserted that ethnocentrism among consumers is regarded to have a negative effect on foreign product purchases. This is based on the premise that consumers develop different perceptions and attitudes towards products from different places of origin (Han, 1989:222; Kaynak and Kara, 1996:95). Ethnocentrism can, therefore, be said to be a product of a consumer's psychological makeup.

The concept is built on the understanding that it is generally unpatriotic and depraved to acquire foreign products (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:280). The construct of ethnocentrism can, therefore, be linked to protectionist tendencies among consumers as they try to shield their domestic economies from adverse effects of import purchases (Granzin and Painter, 2001:75). This is supported by Asamoah, Chovancova, De Alwis, Kumara and Guo (2011:7) who determined that consumers are motivated by two needs, that is, the need for 'risk reduction' and the need for 'social demonstrance'. Social demonstrance refers to an individuals' need to display similar characteristics as that of the society the individual identifies with (Asamoah *et al.*, 2011:7). As a result, both motivating factors (risk reduction and social demonstrance) seem to form part of the building blocks that are necessary for the development of ethnocentrism.

2.2.2 Product Selection

As is the general understanding, consumers are believed to establish brand sets of choice products during each purchasing occasion (Simonson and Tversky, 1992:359). Consumers are believed to refine their selection processes by limiting their choices to smaller sets of brands referred to as the consideration set (Laroche *et al.*, 2005:96). These sets are believed to be made up of brands for which the consumer has a favourable attitude. Resultantly, the literature reviewed in this section will help to demonstrate the effect of CE on the establishment of such a set, analysing the existing studies on the subject of CE and try to identify any inter-linkages that exist between CE and brand consideration.

2.3 CONSIDERATION

There has been a marked increase in the number of consumer product options within most markets mainly resulting from industrial development. Consumers have found themselves faced with more products and brand options as well as additional product categories. With this set up, the complexity of each purchase process has increased. In the face of restricted cognitive capacity, only a small number of alternative choices can remain in the consumers' mind (Shocker, Akiva, Boccara and Nedungadi, 1991:181).

According to Shocker *et al.* (1991:182), a number of theories have been developed to try to explain the changes within the decision-making process. Researchers have suggested that the choice process is a two-stage model to which others have hypothesised that the number of steps depends on the complexity of each purchasing occasion (Shocker *et al.*, 1991:184). However, despite the length of the process, one thing is certain; there is a need to understand how consumers develop product sets of choice.

2.3.1 Consideration Construct

Among a wide range of studies, a common and reoccurring theme is that consumers establish 'choice sets' in any given purchasing instance (Lehmann and Pan, 1994:365; Shocker *et al.*, 1991:81; Simonson and Tversky, 1992:359). Consumers have been known to restrict themselves to a small group of brands which they seriously consider for purchase called a "consideration set" (Laroche *et al.*, 2005:96).

The idea of product consideration was first mentioned by Howard and Sheth (1969:468). According to Howard (1977:306), the consideration ('evoked') set is, "the subset of brands that a consumer considers buying out of the set of brands that he or she is aware of in a given product class". The term 'consideration' developed as a means of describing a consumer's predisposition to confine his/her choices to a given set of options. Abougomaah *et al.* (1987:667) stated that the consideration set refers to, "those few brands out of all the existing brands in a particular product category given actual purchase consideration by the consumer".

Brisoux and Laroche (1980:113) argued that, within a given group of brands that a consumer has knowledge of, not all brands within the set will be rated equally. Ideally, consumers establish groups and categorise brands in the awareness set into different subgroups (Ranjbarian and Kia, 2010:263). Firstly, Brisoux and Laroche (1980:113) hypothesised that, for brands that the consumers are unsure of, the consumers establish what they referred to as a foggy set. This set comprises all the brands that the consumer possesses inadequate knowledge of, but is aware of. These brands may not be purchased because of the insufficient knowledge that one possesses and, hence, cannot pass judgment (Ranjbarian and Kia, 2010:263).

Secondly, Brisoux and Laroche (1980:114) established what is known as the "processed set". This set comprises all brands on which the consumer has been able to evaluate and formulate an opinion. Brisoux and Laroche (1980:112) subdivided the processed set even further, developing what they termed the "evoked set," the "hold set," and the "reject set". All brands that are positively evaluated are placed within the evoked set and are seriously considered for purchase. According to

Ranjbarian and Kia (2010:263), the 'hold set' is made up of product brands that "the consumer feels neutral about". Brands within the hold set are subjected to further evaluations but may ultimately be unfit for consideration (evoked set).

Lastly, Brisoux and Laroche (1980:114) stated that the 'reject set' holds all the unsuitable brands that are rejected and not considered for purchase. Howard (1977:306) stated that the reject set includes some unfamiliar brands ('rejection set'). A number of authors seem to concur with this classification model (Laroche, Rosenblatt, and Sinclair, 1984:118).

As consumers set about establishing a set of brands for consideration, a series of options are reviewed from the "universal set" and the "retrieval set" (Lueng and Bougoure, 2008:2). Made up of all available brands, the 'universal set' is thought to be all inclusive. All brands that the consumer is able to recollect from memory find their way into the 'retrieval set'. Through the process of refined selection, the consumer remains with brands suitable for consideration. The consideration set is thus regarded as a subset of the two sets.

Two additional elements were introduced after analysing the choice sets of consumers within the industrial sector, that is, the "closed and open sets" (Heide and Weiss, 1995:34). According to them, the closed set refers to the consideration set developed from formerly used suppliers. An open set takes into account brands from additional suppliers. The openness of each set is dependent on the switching costs, the importance of the decision, and the degree of formalization. An extreme of the closed consideration set is when it has only one member. Lapersonne, Laurent and

Le Goff (1995:58) mention the situation, in which the consumer has a consideration set of one and, hence, evaluation becomes redundant and brand loyalty is achieved.

2.3.2 Set Size and Formation

According to Robert and Lattin (1997:408), the consideration set is believed to be circumstantial and dependent upon each particular purchasing incident. They went on to state that each customer determines the nature and structure of each consideration set. The structure of each set also seems to be affected by the beliefs held by the consumer, the nature of the product and the search process, among other factors (Roberts and Lattin, 1997:408).

One influential factor within the formation of the consideration set is that of the product category. Although not much research has been carried out on the subject of product category, similar products (within a category) are likely to appear within the same consideration set. Within a given product category, it has been found that brands that may be similar or dissimilar in perpetual space, but at the same utility (they perform the same function), are more likely to be included in the same set. The purpose is to avoid the loss of suitable alternatives during the product search process (Roberts and Lattin, 1997:408). This is also believed to vary from one product category to the next, for example, ready to eat cereals and durable products (Roberts and Lattin, 1991:31). Therefore, certain similar brands will be grouped together within a given product class (Lehmann and Pan, 1994:365).

There seems to be a correlation that exists between consumers and certain brands. Such relationships may alter the appearance of the consideration set. Fournier

(1998:345) came up with a number of 'consumer-brand relationships', which influenced the size and formation of the consideration set. This is based on the ability of the brand to induce feelings of trust and familiarity (Erdem and Swait, 2004:193). In their research, Leung and Bougoure (2008:2) confirmed the influence of consumer brand relationships as a determinant factor in the inclusion or exclusion of a brand from the consideration set, thereby altering the overall size of the set.

2.3.3 Measuring Consideration

Earlier studies on the subject of consideration have followed a more quantitative approach to the measurement of the concept. The use of mathematical probability in establishing the likelihood of certain brands being selected for purchase has been common among researchers (Roberts and Lattin, 1991:431; Andrews and Srinivasan, 1995:32). Andrews and Srinivasan (1995:32) made mention of the 'probabilistic consideration set formation'. The basic premise is that, under certain conditions, what is the probability that a given brand or set of brands will be considered for purchase?

Due to the link between product evaluation and consideration, consumer evaluation is believed to result in the formation of perceptions, attitude and opinions about a product (Hulland, 1999:25). A study by Carter (2009:59) shows a 7-point Likert scale used to evaluate products from different countries. The questions required respondents to indicate levels of agreement with regards to each given question, which is, ticking 1 when they strongly agree and 7 when they strongly disagree. Respondents were required to evaluate products under a number of guidelines such

as workmanship, design, durability and value for money, which could also be used to determine possible consideration.

Other authors have linked measuring attitudes to consideration sets (Roberts and Lattin, 1991:430). According to Spears and Singh (2004:55), attitudes are regarded to be evaluative in nature and are directed towards objectives. They are based on beliefs held by the consumer about the particular objects. They went on to state that these ultimately result in the development of a 'set of behavioural intentions that determine a consumer's purchasing actions towards the objects (Spears and Singh, 2004:55). Due to their predictive nature (Spears and Singh, 2004:53), attitudes can, therefore, be used to predict brand considerations.

Spears and Singh (2004:60) developed a five point-scale (unappealing/appealing, bad/good, unpleasant/pleasant, unfavourable/favourable, unlikable/likable) as a measure of consumer attitudes and (never/definitely, definitely intend not to buy/definitely intend, very low/high purchase interest and probably not/probably buy) as a measure of purchasing intent. These were based on earlier scales used to measure attitudes and purchasing interest (Batra and Ray, 1986:235; MacKenzie, Lutz, and Belch, 1986:131). Even within the context of organisational attitude, a study by Lowe, Schellenberg and Shannon (2003:391) of employee attitudes shows the use of a five point-scale in which employee attitudes were assessed. The study shows how attitude measurement can be linked to other constructs acting as a precursor to behaviour.

2.3.4 Antecedents of Consideration Set

The consideration set seems to occur as a result of a series of attributes. These attributes identified below will be looked at in-depth in order to establish their effect on the formation of each set.

2.3.4.1 Advertising

Research into the importance of information cues raises questions into the influence of advertising. Mitra (1995:82), in her, study analysed the influences of advertising on the formation of the consumer's choice sets. Results showed that the size of each choice set is affected by the availability of advertising. The size of the set is positively related to the availability of advertising (Mitra and Lynch, 1995:645). Brands that lacked adequate advertising within Mitra's (1995:91) study appeared less times within the consideration set than brands that were adequately communicated to the consumer. According to Mitra and Lynch (1995:645), advertising can raise and lower the overall size of the set, thereby emphasising the importance of product information within the purchasing process.

2.3.4.2 Country-of-Origin (COO)

The effect of COO information cannot be disputed, especially within the context of consumer behaviour. The availability of place of origin information seems to override the relevance of other extrinsic cues, particularly in the minds of consumers (Tse and Gorn, 1993:58). Consumer evaluation and product consideration seem to be closely related (Urban, Hulland and Weinberg, 1993:48). Much research has explored this area of consumer behaviour (Heslop and Papadopoulos, 1993:40; Samiee, 1994:579). Country-of-origin typecasting has been found to influence consumer

quality inferences (Hulland, 1999:27). The general consensus is that positive evaluations lead to positive product consideration (Urban *et al.*, 1993:48). The belief that evaluation and consideration are the same is built upon this premise.

The consideration and rejection sets seem to result from an unclear array of influences. The place of origin as an information cue is understood to have an effect on its formation. The relationship that exists between the country-of-brand (COB) and COO has led to the opinion that the COB information will also alter the establishment of the consideration set. Consequently, considering the influence of extrinsic cues, Özsomer and Cavusgil (1991:269) assume that the COB should also affect the consideration process. The COB is regarded as a more inclusive explanation to the country-or-origin concept. The assumption can be made that, within the evaluation process, consumers consciously try to identify a product's place of origin (Ahmed *et al.*, 2004:102).

According to Hulland (1999:30), the COB plays such an important role in product evaluation that its effect can be seen even when the COB information has not been expressly stated. Whether the information is obtained through a product's name or through other product symbols, the information seems important even when it is not mentioned (Papadopolous and Heslops, 1993:300). The strength of the COB information has been attributed with the consideration and rejection of brands (Cordell, 1992:253; Hulland, 1999:34). Its prominence seems to be based on the hypothesis that the COB information is memory based. It also seems that the COB can be used as a quality filter used by consumers to identify possible product choices.

Studies have been carried out into the variances of each consideration set relative to specific products (e.g., Narayana and Markin, 1975:2; Hauser and Birger, 1990:395). The influences of other factors such as consumer demographics and psychographic variables have also been the subject of a number of studies (e.g., Belonax and Mittelstaedt, 1978:49). Despite these studies, not much is known about COO research and brand consideration.

The effects of the COO have been linked to the perceived, “level economic-development” of the importing nation (Cordell, 1992:254; Tse and Gorn, 1993:60). Studies conducted in the past have positively linked product attributes to the degree of socio-economic growth of a particular nation. The general perception has been that developed countries produce more superior products than less-developed countries (LDCs) (Ahmed *et al.*, 1994:94)

The level of economic development is described as having two components, namely, the levels of “industrialization and market development” (Manrai *et al.*, 1998:600). Generally, consumers from developed countries or more developed countries (MNCs) evaluate their domestic products more favourably. A positive correlation exists between the evaluation process and the level of perceived socio-economic growth (Liefeld, 1993:127). Products from lower or less-developed countries are evaluated less favourably than domestic products and less favourably than products from other developed countries (Manrai *et al.*, 1998:595).

Research carried out in LDCs has shown that consumers rate products from their own countries less favourably (Granzin and Olsen, 1998:43; Jaffe and Carlos, 1995:8; Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999:615). De Run, Chan and Khalique (2012:7) discovered that, in his study, developing countries exhibited a positive preference for goods from MDCs even in the absence of distinct product differences. According to Bilkey and Nes (1982:96), these evaluations may be subject to change over time. For example, Japanese products improved through technological advancements within the country (Cai, 2002:12).

2.3.4.3 Product Category

Specific product categories seem to be related to specific places of origin (Schooler, 1965, 1971; Cordell, 1991:123; Roth and Romeo, 1992:477; Luo, 2011:25). Some countries have a good reputation for producing particular products, for example, the Chinese for their silk, the French for their wine and perfume, the Germans for their automotive machinery, and the Italians for clothing (Tse and Gorn, 1993:58; Samiee, 1994:481; Bhaskaran and Sukumaran, 2007:71). Other authors have also asserted that the significance of the place of origin appeared greater for technically complex products than for simpler products (Eroglu and Machleit, 1988:38). However, variances based on the product dimensions have been found within this line of thought (Leonidou, Hadjimarcou, Kaleka, and Stamenova, 1999:129).

Han and Terpstra (1988:243) suggested that the place of origin image was directly related to a given product's dimensions (prestige and/or workmanship). A study by Roth and Romeo (1992:477) subsequently recommended that a product to a COO match may act as an indicator of a consumer's willingness to purchase a foreign

product. A consumer will, therefore, be more willing to purchase a product from a country with a positive country image, especially if the image holds some significance to the product's characteristics (Roth and Romeo, 1992:493).

Older studies revealed that the perceived effect of a country's economic development was believed to be the same for all the product categories (Manrai *et al.*, 1998:596). Other studies have since revealed that a bias of preference against developing country products seems to rise in the luxury product class (Manrai *et al.*, 1998:598). Cordell (1991 and 1992) makes the assertion that increases in the level of perceived risk will cause consumers to reject brands from developing countries. He went on further to state that products within the luxury market suffer more rejection than products within other categories. Research findings from Giraldi and Ikeda (2009:309) and Han (2010:67) show that inconsistencies exist with regard to respondents' cultures and product categories. These variances seem to cover all product categories (shopping, specialty and convenience products). However, even though variances have been identified, a positive correlation between product durability, specialty products and the place of origin exists (Tse and Gorn, 1992:60; Zhang, 1996:55).

2.3.4.4 Product Involvement

The product evaluation process is believed to be affected by the involvement of each purchasing process (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998:160). The concept of involvement was derived from 'ego involvement' which relates to the relationship that one has with an object, message and advert, purchasing task or any particular activity (Hanzaee and Khosrozadeh, 2011:627). Therefore, it refers to the resources

employed by a consumer within his or her purchasing process (Lin and Chen, 2006:249).

Involvement classification, derived from Rothschild (1979:76), has formed the basis of most studies. Although the debate still continues, the most commonly used classifications are enduring involvement and situational involvement (Hanzaee and Khosrozadeh, 2011:627). According to Hanzaee and Khosrozadeh (2011:627), 'enduring involvement' (EI) refers to the "perceived personal relevance of an object to an individual, motivated by the degree to which the product relates to self or pleasure received from it," while 'situational involvement' "represents a mental state and has nothing to do with cognitive elements such as values and needs". They stated that situational involvement denoted a short-term interest in an object resulting from specific stimuli, for instance, perceived risk. Three other categories were also developed by Lin and Chen (2006:251). These are "purchase involvement, advertisement involvement and product involvement". According to Lin and Chen (2006:253), purchasing involvement refers to the characteristics of the product which affect product performance. Subsequent purchase involvement may alter product evaluation. The point of note is that purchase involvement differs from advertising involvement in that advertising involvement is dependent upon marketing campaigns and their effect on consumers (Lin and Chen, 2006:250).

A lot of emphasis has been placed on understanding the influences of COO on high involvement product evaluations. According to Hanzaee and Khosrozadeh (2011:628), a study carried out by Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann (1983:137) discovered that high product involvement has a higher correlation with consumer

brand attitudes and ultimately purchasing intentions. High involvement products are described as "products which are complex or expensive or new and need consumers to spend time in evaluating and purchasing" (Dahlen, Lange and Smith, 2010:295). Past research has focused primarily on high involvement product evaluations and their correlation to the COO effect (De Run *et al.*, 2012:7). Findings have shown that the COO effect's consumers' product evaluations but not in all cases (De Run *et al.*, 2012:8).

A study conducted by Josiassen, Lukas, and Whitwell (2008:424) showed that the impact of the COO effect was less for products like watches, household appliances, small electronics. On the other hand, research has shown that the COO effect does affect the decision to purchase low involvement products though the effect may be fairly weak (Ahmed *et al.*, 2004:114). The effect is lessened by the prominence of other product cues (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998:161; De Run *et al.*, 2012:8).

Low involvement products entail a very short search process. They are typically lower cost and are comprised of products such as food staples (Ahmed *et al.*, 2004:1107; Lin and Chen, 2006:254; Phau and Suntornnond, 2006:35). The purchasing choice is made almost instantaneously. The consumer is hardly concerned about not purchasing the best brand (Kraetke, 2000:3). De Run *et al.* (2012:12), in their study on Malaysian consumers' purchase of toothpaste, supported the finding of earlier research on low involvement products.

Although research results indicate that the impact of COO on product involvement does matter (Ahmed *et al.*, 2004:114), it is unclear as to what the full effect may be

on the evaluation of brands. Further study is required to fully understanding the effect of this information cue on convenience products.

2.3.5 Conclusion

The concept of consideration seems to emanate from the decision-making process whereby consumers try to simplify the process by restricting themselves to a few brands (Shocker *et al.*, 1991:181). Through this, it has been established that consumers develop choice sets from which certain brands are seriously considered for purchase while others are rejected (Simonson and Tversky, 1992:359). The development of such a set has been established to be a product of a number of antecedents. These have been identified as the place of origin of the brand (Cordell, 1992:253; Hulland, 1999:34), the advertising of the brand (Mitra and Lynch, 1995:645) and the category within which the product or/brand belongs (Lu, 2008:63).

Research has shown that COO information seems to supersede other product cues (Tse and Gorn, 1993:58). Although the formulation of the consideration set is still vague, COO information is believed to alter the consideration of brands. Based on COO research, it is assumed that brands from developed countries are likely to receive favourable consideration among consumers while foreign products are rejected because of the association between consideration and evaluation (Manrai *et al.*, 1998:595).

Studies have also revealed that products belonging to different categories require varying levels of consumer involvement (Hanzaee and Khosrozadeh, 2011:628). Certain product categories such as specialty products are regarded as high

involvement products requiring a lot of consumer participation within the purchase process (Dahlen, Lange and Smith, 2010:295). Low involvement products are regarded as products that require little information search (Dahlen, Lange and Smith, 2010:295). Much focus has been placed on understanding the consideration of high involvement products (Hanzaee and Khosrozadeh, 2011:628).

2.4 PLACE OF ORIGIN

Past studies which have been carried out on product evaluation have focused on the places from which these products originate (Hamin and Elliott, 2005:32; Chattalas, Kramer and Takada, 2008:55). The general understanding is that consumers possess varied perceptions about products and services originating from foreign countries (Kaynak and Kara, 1996:95). Such perceptions have been known to be stereotypical in nature, especially towards those products consumers perceive to be originating from foreign countries (Vida and Reardon, 2008:35).

2.4.1 Informational Cues

Contemporary research is based on the opinion that all products transmit a number of informational cues in the minds of consumers (Insch and McBride, 2004:257). Consumers have been known to make use of information as determinants of product evaluation (Ulgado and Lee, 1998: 597). These cues are believed to be expressed in two basic forms, namely, 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' cues. Intrinsic cues refer to the built in aspects of the product which make up its physical composition while extrinsic cues refer to the non-physical product attributes (Thorelli, Lim and Ye, 1989:470; Liefeld, 1993:118; Ahmed *et al.*, 1994:324).

Intrinsic cues are believed to be largely product category specific as they are related to the actual products' attributes (Acebrón and Dopico, 2000:230). Examples of intrinsic cues are the shape of the product, the raw materials that make up the product, the product's size, colour, taste and overall performance of the product (Schweiger, Otter, and Strebinger, 1997:4). Extrinsic cues come in the form of a product's brand name, its packaging, price, and even the product's country-of-origin. In their study of country-of-origin, Thorelli, Lim and Ye (1985:35) make the assertion that the country-of-origin information may also act as a precursor to a product's quality. Elliott and Cameron (1994:52) went on to state that consumers sometimes choose to rely on products' extrinsic cues as the basis of their quality evaluations.

Within the information cues' debate, some researchers have brought attention to the concept of information chunks (Schwieger, Otter and Strebinger, 1999:5). This is defined as the "pieces of information of particular importance with regard to product evaluation, which substitutes (or combines) other pieces of information" (Kroeber-Riel, 1992:281). Kroeber-Riel (1992:281) went on to state that "the consumer expects information chunks to provide crucial or even adequate information on product quality". On this principle, Kroeber-Riel (1992:281) believed consumers replace all other information sources which the consumer would have otherwise used. In accordance with Trommsdorf (1998:85), it is safe to assume that, within the consumer's mind, country or/ place of origin forms one broad 'information chunk'.

With the acquisition of more precise information, the risk of unsafe purchases is lowered significantly (Schwieger, Otter and Strebinger, 1999:5), thereby resulting in a more effective decision-making process.

2.4.2 Country-Of-Origin (COO) Construct

From as far as 1965, numerous studies analysing consumer behaviour investigated the concept of country-of-origin (COO) (Schooler, 1965:396). A number of different descriptions have been put forward referring to the place within which products are created (Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999:613). As a result, the place of origin has been represented by the place of manufacture (Räty, 2009:29). Nagashima (1977:95) defined COO as "the picture, the reputation, or the stereotype that businessmen and consumers attach to products of a specific country". Bandyopadhyay (2001:53) resolved that the growth of multinationals and the prominence of global brands render the concept of country-of-manufacture null and void as it may not be the country associated with the product.

Chao (1993:294) separated the concept of COO into two components stating that the place of origin is made up of the "country-of-assembly (COA) and country-of-design (COD)". Chao (2001:68) later added an additional classification, that is, the country-of-parts (COP). After pointing out the existence of too many discrepancies within the concept, Nebenzahl, Jaffe, and Lampert (1997:28) called for even more classifications of the concept of COO after considering its broadness. This then led to the further portioning of the country-of-origin concept. Nebenzahl *et al.* (1997:28) broadened the definition referring to it as "the country which a consumer associates with the product or brand, regardless of where the product was manufactured". Nebenzahl *et al.* (1997:29) emphasised that it is vital to distinguish between consumer-held perceptions about a brand's or products' origin and the place of actual manufacture.

2.4.2.1 Country-Of-Brand Perceptions

The evolution of the country-of-origin has led to the development of the methods with which COO information is conveyed (Pharr, 2005:34). With regards to product brands, the basic assumption has been that brands are super-imposed information cues indicative of a much larger 'chunk' of information possessing a greater meaning among consumers (Pharr, 2005:35). According to Jones (2006:20), the concept of brand nationality has grown over the last two decades.

Brands are perceived to be symbolic, social and political resources (Wang and Deng, 2010:7). Brands are comprised of "a name, term, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of these that identifies the maker or seller of a product or service" (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008:242). Brands and their identities are embedded in the political and social content of the nation from which they originate. Due to the importance of the brand over the place of origin within the marketing field, further interest has been sparked about the impact of brand names in disseminating COO information (Thakor and Lavack, 2003:396; Martin and Cerviño, 2011:532). The COO functions as a signal to product quality whereby, consumers associate place of origin images with brands from that place (Li and Wyer, 1994:189; Thakor and Katsanis, 1997:81; Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden, Steenkamp and Ramachander, 2000:84; Zeugner-Roth, Diamantopoulos and Montesinos, 2008:579).

The COO concept over the years has been subdivided into a number of constructs. These partitions are, namely, the country-of-parts (COP), the country-of-design (COD), and country-of-assembly (COA). Insch and McBride (2004:258) made the assertion that, although all three constructs are considered subdivisions of the

broader COO, they are treated as mutually exclusive. It is also believed that although all the above mentioned refer to the origins of the product and its parts, the COP is more explicit in its description of consumer responses as compared to COA and COD (Chao, 2001:68; Insch and McBride, 2004:258). The salience of these three constructs in the minds of consumers has been described as variable and dependent upon the simplicity of the purchase process (Quester, Dzever, and Chetty, 2000:481; Chao 2001:69; Insch and McBride, 2004:259).

Within the consumers' mind, it is important to note that COP, COD and COA can be combined into one (Thakor and Lavack, 2003:396). According to Phau and Prendergast (2000:166), regardless of the fact that COP and COA may not be the same, the country-of-manufacture will only be deemed as the place of production, which lessens the prominence of the COM in the minds of consumers (Ulgado, 2002:253). In support of Ulgado (2002:253), Thakor and Lavack (2003:396) argued that the COP, COD and COA held little significance when it came to quality evaluation, especially when the place of 'corporate ownership' of the brand was known.

.

Thakor and Lavack (2003:396) summed up their argument stating that the COP, COD and COA can, therefore, be regarded as antecedents of a broader country-of-brand. Therefore, the spreading of business functions across multiple nations such as the manufacture and assembly of products as well as spreading marketing campaigns can be combined into one. Johansson, Assaf and Karpen (1985:389) referred to the COO "as the country where the corporate headquarters of the company marketing the product or brand is located". In unison with the arguments

put forward by Johansson *et al.* (1985), Thakor and Lavack (2003:396) believed that all these come together to form one perceived place of origin within the minds of consumers.

2.4.2.2 Country-Of-Origin Image

With the growth of COO research, the spot-light has been placed on the images portrayed by different places of origin (Parameswaran and Pisharodi, 1994:43; Hanzaee and Khosrozadeh, 2011:625). A variety of images are thought to convey significant perceptions that improve or negatively impact consumers' purchasing choices (Parameswaran and Pisharodi, 1994:43). Papadopoulos and Heslop (2003:407) identified the place of origin as the nation with which a product is identified through its marketing campaigns.

Han (1989:222) developed a study on product evaluations within which the result was the emergence of a "halo" and "summary" effect. In his study, Han (1989:222) assumed that consumers typecast product origins using previous encounters and past experiences with related products (summary effect) or when the country's products are not known, consumers make generalisations based on the impression they get about the country (halo effect). By and large, it is assumed that individuals develop attitudes towards a brand's or/product's COO based on their personal experiences (Han, 1989:223). Particularly, when the consumer has visited the country or when they have interacted with individuals from that country, they can develop an attitude towards the country. Consequently, the knowledge obtained through such interactions assists the development of one's social and political ideas of that particular country (Sohail, 2005:29).

The COO image has been divided into three groupings. Firstly, the “overall-country image” is referred to as “the total of all descriptive, inferential, and informational beliefs that a consumer has about a particular country” (Dikčius and Stankevičienė, 2010:111). Secondly, “aggregate-product-country” image which “is the entire cognitive ‘feel’ associated with a particular country’s products or with the perceived overall quality of the products from that particular country” (Narayana, 1981:32). Thirdly, the “specific-product-country image” is defined as, “the overall perception consumer’s form of specific product categories from a particular country” (Roth and Romeo 1992, cited by Dikčius and Stankevičienė, 2010:114).

COO images can also be categorised into “macro” and “micro” images (Amonini, Keogh, and Sweeney, 1998:15; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993:6), which have been related to brand origin and are believed to affect brand equity (Pappu, Quester and Cooksey, 2007:728). Country-of-origin macro images are comprised of beliefs, cultural and country symbols, socio-economic situations and the level of industrialization (Lawrence, Marr, and Prendergast, 1992:39; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2003:407; Pappu *et al.*, 2007:731). The country-of-origin micro images are made up of category specific beliefs consumers hold about certain products produced by individual countries (Pappu *et al.*, 2007:730). Both images have varied influences on perceived product quality, which may depend on a given product category (Hugstad and Durr, 1986:156; Pappu *et al.*, 2007:730).

Hsieh, Pan and Setiono (2004:252) added that the brand image was made up of “country-image” and “corporate-image” which may be brought together to form a products’ brand-image. In conjunction with Hsieh *et al.* (2004:252), Erickson,

Johansson, and Chao (1984:95) stated that the two images are used by consumers as informational tools. As a result, consumers' perceptions may be altered by these images (Erickson, Johansson, and Jacobson 1992:26).

Country-of-origin research seems to be centred on the belief that consumer awareness of these images influences consumer habits. Hamin and Elliot (2005:32) supported this assertion declaring that there is a correlation between products produced and the country within which they are produced. The argument can be raised that, any given country possesses an image which can be transferred to the products manufactured in that country. Jeffe and Nebenzahl (2002:396) pointed out that the COO images are a consequence of subjective perceptions about a given object (product). Positive images, according to Roth and Romeo (1992:490), result in positive purchasing intentions for products from such nations with the reverse being true for negative images. As a result, positive or negative COO images influence the overall purchasing process.

2.4.2.3 Country-Of-Origin Effect

Beyond the COO construct and the perceived perceptions derived by consumers, it has become apparent that the strength of these images needs to be determined. According to Manrai *et al.*, (1998:594), COO information, in relation to a product's specific attributes, is assumed to alter product evaluations, which has come to be known as the "country-of-origin effect".

Country-of-origin effect has been defined "as the impact which generalizations and perceptions about a country have on a person's evaluation of the country's products

and/or brands” (Lampert and Jaffe, 1996:27). Other authors like Samiee (1994:50) defined the COO effect as, “any influence, positive or negative, that the country-of-manufacture might have on the consumer’s choice processes or subsequent behaviour”. The general understanding is that products from less-developed countries (LDC) have a lower-quality rating as compared to more developed countries.

2.4.3 Conclusion

COO studies have revealed that a consumer’s knowledge acts as an information cue to the quality of a product (Thorelli, Lim and Ye, 1985:35). Not only is the COO information a cue to quality, it also determines the consumer’s perception and overall attitude towards a brand (Laroche, Heslop and Marouli, 2003:97). This is primarily determined by the COO image held by the consumer about the brand’s COO (Hanazee and Khosrozadeh, 2011:625). These images and subsequent COO perceptions are likely to have an impact on a consumer’s purchasing behaviour. The effect resulting from knowledge of a brand’s place of origin is referred to as the COO effect (Samiee, 1994:482).

COO research has also unearthed a trend among consumers in which they seem to favour brands originating from more developed countries (Tse and Gorn, 1990:58). This is particularly true for consumers from more-developed countries (MDCs). On the other hand, less-developed or developing countries (LDCs) seem to favour foreign products, notably brands originating from MDCs (Granzin and Olsen, 1998:43; Jaffe and Carlos, 1995:8; De Run *et al.*, 2012:7). In conjunction with this

trend, another trend has been identified in past studies. Consumers have also been seen to favour domestic products over foreign products (Liefeld, 1993:127).

Although this has been the case in a number of studies, little is still known about the full effect of COO. The concept is still not well understood, especially among LDCs where little research has been done. Particularly, in Africa, the full effect of COO information requires a lot more research (Shenge, 2010:194).

2.5 CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM (CE)

Based on the findings of country-of-origin research, consumers are inclined to favour products produced domestically. Although these findings have not been the same throughout, it is apparent that consumers exhibit varying levels of domestic preferences conceptualised as 'consumer ethnocentrism' (Altıntaş and Tokol, 2007:308).

2.5.1 Development of CE

Ethnocentrism is a sociological idea established by Sumner (1906:13) as "the 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". Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson and Sanford (1950) referred to it as "ethnic centeredness". Shimp, Sharma and Shin (1995:27) made the assertion that this phenomenon is inherent to consumer behaviour. They went on to emphasise its influence on an individual's interaction at various levels of society. They pointed out that a person's mind set and feelings about products and services are altered by ethnocentrism (Shimp *et al.*, 1995:27). According to Kwak,

Jaju and Larsen (2006:368), ethnocentrism among consumers causes what can be regarded as protectionist tendencies.

Ethnocentrism is believed to be a cognitive response resulting from an individual's experience and is part of their socialisation process (Kwak *et al.*, 2006:368). Consumer ethnocentrism is also believed to be a behavioural model instilled in consumers at an early age and is not affected by other extrinsic cues (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:282). Thus, it has been linked to the social identity theory with emphasis on in-group and out-group behaviour (Tajfel, 1978; Hogg and Terry, 2000:122; Supphellen and Rittenburg, 2001:910).

The main premise behind the social identity theory is that people gravitate toward certain groups which, in most cases, they belong to (Lantz and Loeb, 1996:374). The social identity theory focuses on social grouping. Brown (2000:747) stated that people tend to prefer what is called the in-group. Put in other words, this refers to the group to which the individual belongs. Ideally, the in-group is made up of an individual's friends, family, their community, race and/or their country (Lantz and Loeb, 1996:374). Ethnocentric tendencies may, therefore, be regarded as in-group behaviour (Lantz and Loeb, 1996:374; Pentz, 2011:97).

The development of consumer ethnocentrism came about in the 1980s. This was due to the interest into the economic implication of ethnocentrism among consumers. CE, a "uniquely economic form of ethnocentrism was formulated as a domain-specific concept in the study of consumer behaviour with marketing implications" (Sharma, Shimp and Shin, 1995:27). Shimp and Sharma (1987:280) defined CE as

“the belief held by consumers about the appropriateness of, indeed morality of, purchasing foreign-made products”. In their study, they determined that consumers develop feelings of “belongingness” which alter their beliefs about what is deemed acceptable consumer behaviour (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:280). The argument behind CE is underpinned by a preference for in-group (domestic) products (Pentz, 2011:141).

According to Josaiissen, Assasf and Karpen (2011:629), CE is based on domestic preference and not any negativity towards any particular country. Consumer ethnocentrism has also been associated with “domestic country bias” (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004:80; Evanschitzky *et al.*, 2008:8). The greater the domestic country bias, the greater the likelihood that the individual will exhibit high levels of ethnocentrism. It is believed that ethnocentric consumers naturally favour their own countries and automatically reject all foreign products (Carter, 2009:35). Shankarmahesh (2006:148) asserts that there is a general misconception that “COO bias” is the same as consumer ethnocentrism. As a result, they should be considered as separate entities, although they may be inter-dependent. Emphasising their differences, Herche (1992:261) illustrates, in his study, that consumers may possess a positive COO image of a certain country but still reject its products. Shankarmahesh (2006:148) points out that, unlike COO bias, CE is caused by a dislike for all imported products regardless of their place of origin.

Numerous explanations have been put forward to try to describe the association between CE and foreign products as well as domestic products. Sharma *et al.* (1995:27) state that ethnocentric tendencies among consumers arise from a

protectionist attitude. Consumers are thought to develop patriotic and nationalistic feelings that cause them to want to protect their domestic economies. Such emotions emanate from the fear of adversely affecting their domestic economy through the purchase of imports. Bandara and Miloslova (2008:4) identify it as, "a feeling of bad economic and employment impact". Another argument is that purchasing foreign products is more than just an economic act, but also carries a moral attachment to it. Consumers who display relatively high levels of CE feel that it is an immoral act (Sharma *et al.*, 1995:27).

Others argue that consumers in some cases are simply just prejudiced against other countries and anything that comes from these countries (Moon, 1996:437). At the same time, a fourth argument has been raised asserting that CE is a product of all the above stated arguments. The assumption is that consumers underrate the quality of imported products whilst overestimating their own domestic products on the premise of previously stated arguments. Consequently, irrespective of the fact that CE occurs as a combination of all three or as a result of one, the result is that consumer perception of imported products is lowered (Sharma *et al.*, 1995:28; Watson and Wright, 2000:1150).

2.5.2 Antecedents to Ethnocentrism

Consumer ethnocentrism is thought to be a product of a number of attributes (Pentz, 2011:105). Political, economic, demographic and psychological factors have been recognised as the major attributes to the construct. Ethnocentrism results in an array of sociological responses which range from racial discrimination to sectionalism among other protectionist responses (Shimp and Shin, 1995:27).

2.5.2.1 Socio-psychological

Among the socio-psychological antecedents identified, Pentz (2011:234) highlighted eight elements. Past research has focused primarily on patriotism, animosity, cultural openness, nationalism, collectivism and dogmatism as elements of socio-psychological antecedents (Nielsen and Spence, 1997:69; De Ruyter, Van Birgelen and Wetzels, 1998:187; Sharma, Shimp, and Shin, 1995:27). Research has shown variances within the influences of the above stated antecedents. Studies by Javalgi, Khare, Gross, and Scherer (2005:330) and, Vida and Reardon (2008:37) have a positive correlation between patriotism and CE. Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller, and Melewar (2001:169) established that patriotism had a positive effect on CE. Preceding studies seem to agree with the idea that nationalism, in most cases, leads to ethnocentrism among consumers (Lee, Hong and Lee, 2003:491; Vida, Dmitrovič and Obadia, 2008:3). On that same note, research has identified a positive association between conservatism and consumer ethnocentrism. The implications of such findings are that the more ethnocentric the consumers, the greater their conservatism (Balabanis *et al.*, 2001:168; Javalgi *et al.*, 2005:333).

2.5.2.2 Economic and Political

The economic stage of development of a particular country, as well as the socio-economic history of that distinct nation as influenced by politics, plays a role in a consumer's preference for products (Good and Huddleston 1995:41; Shankarmahesh, 2006:164; Pentz 2011:73). A study conducted by Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999:538) showed that the influence of the COO effect increased when products from MDC and LDCs were compared. Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999:539) went on further stating that the level of economic development should be regarded in

view of the 'competitive context'. According to them, the level of economic development alone cannot account for domestic or foreign preferences (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999:540). In view of this assertion, consumers seem to attach the level of economic development with a perceived competitive advantage. As a result, it is safe to assume that consumers may exhibit ethnocentric tendencies as a result of the perceived development of the exporting country.

2.5.2.3 Demographics

Consumer ethnocentrism is also believed to be inherent in consumer behaviour and that it is learned by consumers from an early age (Shimp and Sharma 1987:282). As a result, consumers' demographics have been an area of key interest in CE studies (Huddleston, Good and Stoel, 2001:238). More than a few studies have explored the idea of the correlation between CE and consumer demographics (Huddleston *et al.*, 2001:238). An empirical study by Pentz (2011:238) verified the existence of notable ethnocentric tendencies amongst White and Black research participants. In view of Pentz's (2011:238) study, the following demographic characteristics have been identified, namely, age, and gender, education and race/ethnicity. These will also be examined further below;

a. Age

Findings with regard to the correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and respondent ages are quite varied (Shankarmahesh, 2006:164). It is largely understood that older consumers tend to exhibit higher levels of ethnocentrism (Balabanis *et al.*, 2001:169). These findings have been based on the understanding that older consumers are generally more conservative (Altıntaş and Tokol, 2007:315;

Josaissen *et al.*, 2011:630). This point of view has been supported by Bannister and Saunders (1978:563) who discovered in their research that, the older the consumer, the higher the levels of domestic consumption. Han (1988:26) concurred with this argument by highlighting in his research that older consumers exhibited high levels of patriotism. In this line of thought, younger consumers seem to be more open minded, favouring foreign products (Wall, Heslop, and Hofstra, 1988:3). A study by McLain and Sternquist (1991:41) came to the same conclusion. Consequently, one can assume that there exists a positive relationship between the ages of consumers and CE (Ramsaran-Fowder, 2010:119). Their study of an emerging economy, such as Mauritius, discovered that ethnocentric tendencies were higher among the elderly (Ramsaran-Fowder, 2010:127).

Unlike the above stated results, Mittal and Tsiros (1995:293) found that age is not always positively related to CE. This seems to have been in support of Schooler's (1971:72) finding that revealed that younger American consumers favour domestic products more than their older counterparts. Similar results were obtained by Shankarmahesh (2006:148).

In his study, Josaissen *et al.* (2011:631) did an analysis of the existing literature on CE. Although the findings revealed a preference for domestic products, they stated that a consumer does not have to be ethnocentric to prefer domestic products (Josaissen *et al.*, 2011:630). In their opinion, consumer preferences can only be referred to be as ethnocentric in a situation where the underlying motivation is the protection of the domestic economy. Cheong (2011:18) cited a study conducted by Shergil (2010) in New Zealand, which showed that consumers between the ages of

16 and 25 exhibited ethnocentric tendencies. The same consumers were faced with the selection of either foreign or domestic brands; these consumers showed no significant preference for either of the two.

Even though variances exist within CE, a greater percentage of existing studies support the idea of a positive relationship between consumers' ages and CE. More recent studies seem to support this assertion (Bawa, 2004:47).

b. Gender

Results have also varied with regard to the relationship between gender and CE. Caruana (1996:40) discovered that men were less receptive to foreign products than their female counterparts. Men have displayed lower levels of consumer ethnocentrism in a number of other studies (Good and Huddleston, 1995:38; Nielsen and Spence, 1997:71; Sharma, Shimp and Shin, 1995:29). The basis for this argument is that men are less conservative, and less patriotic. Women are believed to care more about safeguarding 'social harmony' and are more concerned about in-group behaviour (Han 1988:27; Sharma *et al.*, 1995:29). However, women have also been found to show signs of favouring imported goods more than their male counterparts (Dornoff, Tankersley and White, 1974:26; Schooler, 1971:71; Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka, 1985:390). Ramsaran-Fowdar (2010:118) studied the influence of demographic variables on CE, his results showing higher ethnocentric tendencies among males.

At the same time, other studies could not find any correlation between gender and ethnocentrism (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972:30; McLain and Sternquist,

1991:40; Balabanis *et al.*, 2001:170). Josaissen *et al.* (2011:632) examined the contradictory results and found no evidence to support the argument. His argument, therefore, gives merit to Bawa's (2004:44) assertion that the dominant view is that women show more ethnocentric tendencies.

c. Education

Past research revealed that highly educated people tend to overestimate foreign product quality while less-educated people overestimate domestic product quality (Schooler, 1971:73; Dornoff *et al.*, 1974:26). Nguyen, Nguyen and Barrett (2008:89), however, found no such relationship between education and foreign product preference and this also seems to be the dominant view among most authors (Javalgi, Khare, Gross and Scherer, 2005:329; Saffu and Walker, 2005:205).

d. Race

Researchers have investigated inter-ethnic group differences and how they relate to CE. Inconsistencies have been identified within this line of research (Shankarmahesh, 2006:165). The race of the consumer seems to provide insufficient information as to the consumers' levels of ethnocentrism (Klein and Ettenson, 1999:19; Piron, 2002:206). A study carried out in Australia revealed that members of the dominant culture showed relatively high levels of CE as compared to members of the cultural minority (Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser, 2002:291).

Pentz (2011:5) conducted a study in which he highlighted studies by Rossiter and Chan (1998) and Burton (2000) that emphasised the need to incorporate consumer ethnicity in consumer behaviour research. A study conducted in South Africa by

Bevan-Dye, Garnett and de Klerk (2012:5584) on 'generation Y' consumers and black South Africans displayed a significant level of ethnocentrism. Bevan-Dye *et al.* (2012:5584) stated that although consumers showed ethnocentric tendencies, they exhibited a level of materialism, which culminated in the consumption of foreign products. The full implication of consumer ethnicity is, therefore, vague.

2.5.3 Effect of Consumer Ethnocentrism

Consumer ethnocentrism has been found to influence preferences and, ultimately, purchasing decisions (Nadiri and Tümer, 2010:447). Studies have shown that ethnocentric consumers are generally against the idea of purchasing importations. Even in the absence of domestic options in a given product category, CE results in positive domestic purchase intentions (Nijssen and Douglas, 2004:25). The ethnocentric consumer tends to exaggerate the quality of domestic product characteristics over and above foreign product quality.

COO studies carried out in North America, Europe and Asia show that CE lowers consumer's opinions of imported products, for example, USA (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:281; Suh and Kwon, 2002:665), Germany (Evanschitzky *et al.*, 2008:8), Netherlands (Josiassen, 2011:628), South Korea (Suh and Kwon, 2002:665) and Australia (Poon, Evangelista and Albaum, 2010:36). The suggestion is that a positive relationship exists between CE and the evaluation of domestic products. The reverse is also true for CE and imported product brands (Vida and Reardon, 2008:35).

Studies by Damanpour (1993:361) and Elliott and Cameron (1994:55) demonstrated that within developed countries (MDCs), in most instances, consumers view their

domestic product quality as being higher than it is for foreign products. In contrast to developed countries, domestic products are regarded as poor-quality products in developing countries, especially when they are compared with imported products (Batra *et al.*, 2000:84; Bow and Ford, 1993:12; Wang and Chen, 2004:392).

Cheong (2010:18) went on further stating that the influence of CE extends to countries with cultures that may be deemed similar to each other. Consumers exhibiting ethnocentric tendencies seem to favour foreign products from countries that possess some cultural similarity. Watson and Wright (2000:1152) discovered that the greater the cultural similarity, the greater the chance of product selection.

Much research has been focused on CE and its effects on conspicuous consumption. Such research has linked consumers' need for recognition and status to their purchasing behaviour (Wang and Chen, 2004:393). As a result, the need to understand purchasing behaviour culminated in conspicuous consumption research. Conspicuous consumption (CC) is referred to as a "consumers' desire to provide prominent visible evidence of their ability to afford luxury goods" (Piron, 2000, cited by Wang and Chen, 2004:393). In their study, Wang and Chen (2004:393) postulated that conspicuous consumption is synonymous with CE, especially in developed countries, while a negative correlation exists in developing countries between CE and CC. Consumers do not only rely on COO information as other factors also have a mitigating effect on a consumer's willingness to buy, such as product quality and durability (Wang and Chen, 2004:395).

2.5.4 Measurement of CE

Early studies by Shimp and Sharma (1987:281) established an instrument to quantify the CE phenomenon, which they termed the Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale (CETSCALE). This was in response to what was considered a lack of adequate tools for understanding consumer behaviour. The CETSCALE was initially tested in the United States of America measuring ethnocentric tendencies of US consumers towards imported products (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:280). This instrument (scale) was established to measure consumer “tendency” rather than attitude, where tendency denotes the notion of a consumer’s general disposition to act, while attitude represents feeling towards a particular object (Teo, Mohamad and Ramayah, 2010:2805).

The scale was originally developed as a one-dimensional scale by Shimp and Sharma (1987:283) where a single factor, which loaded 17 items, was tested to make up the CETSCALE. This was refuted by other authors who introduced a two-dimensional model (Luque-Martínez, Ibáñez-Zapata, del Barrio-García, 2000:1357). However, they concluded that the one-factor model was a better fit, that is, where the CETSCALE measures a one-dimensional construct. When it was analysed, the CETSCALE was shown to be a valid measuring instrument (Witkowski, 1998:259). Chryssochoidis, Krystallis and Perreas (2007:1524) assessed its validity in Greece and came to the same conclusion.

The CETSCALE was originally developed in the form of a Likert scale fashioned from an original pool of 180 items (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:281,284) 284 into a 17-item, Likert-scale questionnaire. Findings revealed a negative correlation between

consumer attitudes toward foreign products and the intention to purchase. That is, they discovered that consumers exhibited ethnocentric tendencies. The stronger the CE, the more the likelihood that the consumer would buy a domestic motor vehicle and/or the stronger the intention to buy a domestic vehicle would be. In accordance with the social identity theory, it can be disputed that all consumers possess a “national identity” derived from their country-of-origin. Different consumers identify themselves with this identity at different levels. The CETSCALE, therefore, measures the socio-economic manifestation of this identity among different consumers (Lantz and Loeb, 1996:374).

Shimp and Sharma (1987:288), in addition, called for further investigations, which according to them would be necessary to determine the full reach of the CETSCALE. In order to ensure that the instrument was not limited to one particular study, other groupings needed to be analysed. Over the years, the CETSCALE has been tested in numerous countries. Studies conducted in the USA and Russia validated its authenticity and showed it to be a reliable measure of ethnocentric tendencies (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:284; Durvasula, Andrews, and Netemeyer 1997:75; Nielsen and Spence 1997:70). Other countries, where it has been validated, include South Korea (Sharma, Shimp and Shin, 1995:28), Spain (Luque-Martinez *et al.*, 2000:1358) and Poland (Good and Huddleston, 1995:36). Further research was conducted in other parts around the world where it was used to measure the impact of ethnocentrism on consumption behaviour as well as product attractiveness among consumers (Netemeyer, Durvasula and Lichtenstein, 1991:321; Hult, Keillor and Lafferty, 1999:31).

A large number of consumer ethnocentrism research studies have been carried out in developed nations. Only recently has the focus shifted to developing countries such as Spain and Indonesia, in which the CETSCALE was also utilised (Luque-Martinez *et al.*, 2000:1358; Hamin and Elliot, 2006:81). Findings have indicated that consumers in developing countries favour domestic products to imports.

There has been some disagreement within the academic fraternity over the appropriateness of the CETSCALE. Some have gone as far as to state that the CETSCALE is best suited to the study of American culture (Manrai *et al.*, 1998:612). The basis of this argument is that, since it was developed in the US, it is, therefore, unsuitable for any other studies outside the US. As a result, some have opted to use other means of measurement. For example, Festervand and Sokoy (1994:96) developed an alternative means of measurement. They created an attitudinal scale of ethnocentrism weighing the feelings of respondents towards imports against social ideologies. Bevan-Dye *et al.* (2012:5583) utilised the CETSCALE in their study of South Africa's 'generation Y' consumers. The CETSCALE produced acceptable Cronbach's alpha ranges. In South Africa, it has also been used successfully in a study carried out by Pentz (2011:178). In other parts of the African continent such as Ghana, the CETSCALE has been used in conjunction with other instruments as a measure of consumer ethnocentrism (Mensah, Bahhouth, and Ziemnowicz, 2011:122).

The CETSCALE has evolved over time, being shortened from a 17-item scale to a 10-item scale (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:283). The shorter scale has been widely used in a number of recent studies (Lindquist, Vida, Plank and Fairhurst, 2001:507;

Douglas and Nijssen, 2003:625; Bawa, 2004:45; Evanschitzky *et al.*, 2008:8). The CETSCALE could be used with less than ten items, to which a 6-point scale could be used to validate the presence of ethnocentric tendencies (Klein, Ettenson and Krishnan, 2006:307).

2.6 CONCLUSION

Existing studies on the COO concept have revealed that consumer evaluations of product brands and choice behaviour are altered by the consumers' knowledge of its origins (Pharr, 2005:34). In accordance with Bilkey and Nes (1982:96) and Bhaskaran and Sukumaran (2007:75), country-of-origin beliefs are subject to change over time and are, therefore, circumstantial. Some have even stated that these evaluations form part of the broader concept of the COO image (Pharr, 2005:36).

In the same context, Le Manrai *et al.* (1998:594) reiterated that the COO information had an effect on product evaluations giving rise to the construct "COO effect". Acharya and Elliott (2003:89) argue that, beyond the generalised COO effect, another important aspect to consider is the systematic bias of consumers in favour of domestically produced products at the expense of comparable products from foreign countries.

Evanschitzky *et al.* (2008:8) argue that this domestic preference exists either as a result of "domestic country bias" or as a result of consumer ethnocentrism. Granzin and Painter (2001:75) affirm that ethnocentrism causes protectionist tendencies among consumers. Consumers try to shield their domestic economies from any adverse effects that may be caused by product importation. As a result, CE is

regarded as having a negative effect on the evaluation, consideration and subsequent purchasing behaviour of consumers. Sharma *et al.* (1995:27) argued that CE occurs as a product of a collection of various influences.

To measure the ethnocentrism among consumers, Shimp and Sharma (1987) constructed a measuring instrument known as the CETSCALE which has been tested and proven viable and reliable internationally in a number of countries (Durvasula *et al.*, 1997:75; Nielsen and Spence, 1997:70).

Following studies carried out in South Africa, CE research has revealed that greater understanding is required within this field of international marketing (Pentz, 2011:124). According to Pentz (2011:120), the results from a study on CE and its antecedents among different racial groups in South Africa may be highly beneficial to the establishment of marketing strategies. Existing literature has highlighted the lack of research within Africa. Not much is, therefore, known about the full impact of CE and how it manifests, although there is a general consensus that demographics have a moderating effect. Therefore, consumer demographics are likely to have a significant effect on the correlation between CE and brand consideration.

In the following chapter, the research methods used to investigate the concepts mentioned within the literature review will be presented.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study was to determine how the CE phenomenon affects the establishment of a consideration set of convenience goods. In earlier chapters (chapter 1 and 2), the same concepts were discussed within the context of consumer behaviour. In this chapter, an analysis of the research methodology used within the study will be carried out. This analysis will be conducted under the following sections; that is, the research design, research population and sampling, data collection and data analysis, validity and reliability.

3.2 DEVELOPING A RESEARCH DESIGN

Research methodology may refer to more than just data collection techniques. Methodology is a related set of assumptions that reflect how a researcher views reality. How this reality is articulated, is dependent upon the choice of method used and reflects on what the researcher wants to uncover.

The research design is the framework for implementing a specific marketing research project and provides more detail on the procedures followed in order to obtain the information for achieving the research objectives. The purpose of this framework is to propose a study that will offer possible answers to the research questions and provide information that is required for decision making (Malhotra, 2004:10). Burns and Bush (2003:7, 8) argue that the ultimate purpose of marketing

research is to connect the consumer to the marketer by providing information that can be used in marketing decision-making.

There are two types of information (data) available to marketing researchers, namely, primary and secondary. Data collected to address the objectives of a specific project refers to primary data, while data collected and recorded by other researchers from other research projects refers to secondary data (Zikmund, 2003:63).

Research design refers to the blueprint that the researcher will use to execute the research project and indicates the way in which the data is to be gathered. The purpose behind the research design is to try to ensure that the researcher has the research questions in mind throughout the study.

According to Flick (2002:7), qualitative research enables the use of the different analytical tools and the use of a number of approaches. McMillan and Schumacher (2001:40) described qualitative research design as being rather flexible in that it incorporates information as and when the researcher acquires it. For a better understanding about the phenomenon, qualitative research was conducted (Welman, Kruger and Mitchell, 2005:188).

The study is in the form of a descriptive survey investigating the effects of behavioural characteristics on the development of a consideration set size. According to Churchill and Iacobucci (2010:59), descriptive research identifies the

frequency of something occurring or the relationship between variables, which supports the stated objectives of the study.

A survey research design was chosen because it was best suited to answer the questions about the study. Under a survey design, the researcher does not need to study the entire population, but a small segment of the population can suffice to obtain a generalized opinion (Nworgu, 1991:68). According to McBurney (1994:170), a survey design is defined by the use of a questionnaire and the sampling techniques used in the study.

3.3 RESEARCH POPULATION

According to Goddard and Melville (2004:34), the research population is any group that is the subject of the research. The target population is comprised of students and staff members from two universities in Durban (DUT, UKZN). According to the Republic of South Africa's Department of Higher Education and Training (2013:4) the population of enrolled students for both universities in 2011 was 41 762 and 24 840 UKZN and DUT respectively. It was therefore assumed that these figures would not undergo drastic changes thereby ensuring that the total research population remains above 65 000. The research population cut across all racial groupings.

3.4 RESEARCH SAMPLE

Goddard and Melville (2004:34) stated that the sample selected refers to a subset of the research population. It is generally understood that the greater the size of the sample the more reliable the research findings to which, Roscoe (1975, cited by Sekaran and Bougie, 2010:296) emphasizes that an appropriate sample size is

between 30 and 500 respondents. He further states that a population size of 75 000 and 1 000 000 should have a sample size between 382 and 384. As a result, a sample size of 480 was deemed suitable to ensure a minimum sample size of 60 respondents across four racial groupings.

For this study, non-probability sampling techniques were employed. According to Henry (1990:17), non-probability samples are "a collection of sampling approaches that have the distinguishing characteristics that subjective judgments play a role in the selection of the sample". The study will make use of quota sampling. According to Babbie (2012:192), quota sampling is a type of non-probability sampling technique where the "units are selected into a sample on the basis of pre-specified characteristics so that the sample will have the same distribution characteristics assumed to exist in the population". The quota sampling criterion was based on the existing literature.

Convenience sampling was also used within the sample in order to fill the quotas. Convenience sampling is a method commonly used in behavioural sciences research. The emphasis here is the ease with which the researcher can obtain participants (Gravetter and Forzano, 2011:151). As a result, research participants were chosen on the researchers' convenience. Student classes were intercepted at the researcher's convenience upon obtaining permission from the governing university's authorities.

Purposive sampling was also employed within the study, particularly for the purpose of filling the quota. Within qualitative research, the research sample may be

deliberately selected according to the needs of the study which is referred to as 'purposive sampling'. According to Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2005:329), purposive sampling is used in situations where it helps identify a specific element within a study. As a result, the researcher sought to purposely identify research participants who most identified with the research phenomenon. The participants were selected on the basis of their capacity to give meaningful information relevant to the study as respondents of a particular age and race, gender and educational background were sought after. The use of purposive sampling leaves the selection of a participant from the target population to the judgment of the researcher. The quality of samples selected by using this approach depends on the accuracy and subjective interpretation of the researcher. The desired sample is illustrated in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Desired Sample Size

	Young				Old				Total
Race	Matric	Diploma	Degree	Postgrad	Matri c	Diploma	Degree	Postgrad	Total
B	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	120
W	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	120
C	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	120
I	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	120
total	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	480

3.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The research instrument used was a self-completion questionnaire made up of 19 questions developed from existing scales (see Appendices). The instrument is made up of two major sections, the Consumer Ethnocentrism Tendency Scale (CETSCALE) and brand consideration. The questions were developed from CETSCALE questions, willingness to buy, consumer attitude towards products and product evaluation questions (Carter, 2009:45). The instrument also contains a section devoted to establishing each respondent's personal details; that is, their age, gender, race and educational background. Respondents were not required to provide any personal information, thereby ensuring confidentiality.

Closed-ended questions were used to allow the researcher to obtain greater uniformity and greater consistency within the research findings (Babbie, 2001:240). The use of close-ended questions also allowed for the standardization of responses, to ensure easier encoding of research data and minimizing the chances of obtaining irrelevant responses. The instrument contained 3 sections, consisting of three main themes as illustrated below:

SECTION A - Demographic data;

SECTION B - CETSCALE; and

SECTION C - Brand Consideration.

3.5.1 Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale (CETSCALE)

Seminal research conducted by Shimp and Sharma (1987:280) led in the development of an instrument used to determine consumer ethnocentrism within a given research population. The CETSCALE was established in response to the lack of consumer behaviour specific instruments (Saffu and Walker, 2005:558). As a

result, the CETSCALE was established as a measure of ethnocentric tendencies among American consumers in the 1980s.

The CETSCALE was originally developed as a seventeen-item scale in the form of a seven-point Likert-type scale. The scale was developed from a pool of 180 items from about 800 participants within the United States of America. Participants were questioned on the subject of purchasing foreign products in the US (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:284). The result was the establishment of a 17-question Likert scale questionnaire with responses ranging from 1 for strongly agree to 7 strongly disagree. The results of Shimp and Sharma's (1987:281) study showed that the higher the CETSCALE, the greater the likelihood that a consumer would purchase domestic products as opposed to foreign products. Through the scale, a link was also discovered between consumer attitudes and ethnocentric tendencies. They discovered that a negative correlation existed between attitudes towards foreign products and ethnocentric tendencies (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:254)

The CETSCALE has evolved over time, being shortened from a 17-item scale to a 10-item scale (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:283). The shorter scale has been widely used in a number of recent studies (Lindquist *et al.*, 2001:507; Douglas and Nijssen, 2003:625; Bawa, 2004:45; Evanschitzky *et al.*, 2008:8). According to Klein, Ettenson and Krishnan (2006:307) the CETSCALE can be used with less than ten items, to which a 6-point scale could be used to validate the presence of ethnocentric tendencies. A 7-item Likert scale was, therefore, developed for the study. Responses range from 1 to 5, 1 being strongly agree and 5 for strongly disagree. CETSCALE questions begin from question 5 to 11 (see Appendix 3).

The CETSCALE was the instrument of choice within the study as it has been used in a number of studies around the world and has been validated as an accurate measure of CE (Luque-Martinez *et al.*, 2000:1358; Orth and Firbasová, 2003:140; Hamin and Elliot, 2006:81). Studies have also been conducted successfully using the CETSCALE within the African continent (Mensah *et al.*, 2011:122; Pentz, 2011:178).

3.5.2 Consumer attitude and Product Evaluation

Brand consideration was measured using questions developed from attitudinal studies used to measure purchasing intent (Batra and Ray, 1986:235; Mackenzie *et al.*, 1986:131). Other questions were derived from consumer evaluation studies based on guidelines such as workmanship, design, durability and value for money (Carter, 2009:46). Brand consideration questions begin from question 12 to question 19 of the questionnaire (see Appendix 3).

3.6 DATA COLLECTION

The study was conducted at two of the major universities in Durban. All participants were invited to voluntarily participate in the study. Questionnaires were administered to younger students from two universities (DUT and UKZN) for completion via classroom intercept until the quota was filled. Classrooms, to which questionnaires were administered, were also chosen at the researcher's convenience. Questionnaires were also administered to UKZN Business School students via classroom intercept. All participants were required to sign a letter of informed consent before participating (see Appendix 2). The questionnaires were distributed

by the researcher to different classrooms of students in the presence of an appointed university representative. Respondents were required to drop completed questionnaires into a sealed box to ensure confidentiality and anonymity.

Permission to conduct the study was first sought from DUT through the ethics committee. After obtaining permission from the ethics committee permission was also obtained from heads of the various departments of the different academic faculties within the university. The assistance of individual lecturers was employed in administering the questionnaires during each classroom intercept after permission had been obtained. Permission to conduct the study at UKZN was obtained through the office of the registrar. Permission was also obtained from the heads of various faculties at the UKZN together with the assistance of individual class lecturers during each classroom intercept.

Staff members were approached through their respective department heads. Respondents were purposively selected at the researcher's convenience in administering the questionnaires. Some questionnaires were emailed to individual DUT staff members in order to fill the quota. Staff members were purposively selected using the research criteria and this was particularly the case for the minority races.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistical methods were used to analyse data; that is, graphs, descriptive statistics and the appropriate inferential statistics. Asadoorian and Kantarelis (2005:2) stated that inferential statistics/inductive statistics allow for the use of probability techniques by the researcher which are used to examine data collected from a sample in order to understand the entire population. The data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0.

3.8 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Sekaran and Bougie (2010:156) defined validity as “a test of how well an instrument measures the particular concept it is intended to measure”. Criterion-related validity as well as construct validity may be increased if use is made of an existing instrument (Goddard and Melville, 2001:47). As a result, the research instrument was developed from established instruments.

Content validity was obtained by conducting consultations with experts who assessed the validity of the instrument during its development. The research instrument is, therefore, representative of the existing knowledge on the subject of CE (Goddard and Melville, 2001:47). Validity of the questionnaire was also ensured as the instrument was pre-tested under the guidance of the supervisors and a statistician and then pilot-tested to identify and eliminate any potential problems. Adjustments were made as changes to the wording of the questions 5, 6 and 7 were made.

Reliability refers to the credibility of the research findings (Welman *et al.*, 2005:144). If a research's findings can be repeated, it is considered reliable (Welman *et al.*,

2005:145). Reliability is determined through conducting several tests or examinations on the same subject(s). It is concerned with establishing the credibility of a given set of results (Welman *et al.*, 2005:144). Reliability is, "a test of how consistently a measuring instrument measures the particular concept it is measuring" (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010:156). As a result, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0, 7 % was used to secure reliability of estimates.

3.9 CONCLUSION

As stated within the introduction to this chapter, the research methodology was discussed looking at the research design, the target population, and the research instrument and data analysis. Students and staff members from two universities within the greater Durban area were targeted and surveyed using a questionnaire as the research instrument. The aim was to determine the influence of CE on South African consumers. Research questions were developed from established measuring tools.

In the next chapter, the research findings will be presented.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The intent of this study is to understand the influence of consumer ethnocentrism in South Africa, as witnessed among South Africans in the city of Durban. Respectively, in this chapter, results from the study will be presented. The findings obtained from the questionnaires used during the study were analysed in terms of the objectives of the study. All data collected was analysed using the SPSS version 21.0.

A description of the sample demographics will be provided. Reliability of the instrument was ascertained by applying Cronbach's alpha test while inferential statistics were used to test the hypotheses. The results of the data analysis will be presented in this chapter using, amongst others, graphs and cross tabulations. A summation of the research findings will be provided within the chapter.

4.2 SAMPLE

The intended sample size was 480 responses from students and staff members of the respective universities. 500 questionnaires were distributed and 476 scripts were collected giving more than a 95% response rate of students and staff members from DUT and UKZN.

4.3 RELIABILITY STATISTICS

The success of any given study is dependent upon the research's reliability and validity. According to Welman *et al.* (2005:147), an internal consistency method can be employed to determine the reliability of a measuring instrument. This method uses the Cronbach's coefficient alpha as a degree of an instrument's internal

consistency. Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0, 7 or higher is considered "acceptable" (Andrew, Pederson and McEvoy, 2011:202). The following Cronbach's alpha scores were obtained from the various sections that made up the questionnaire (Table 2).

An overall reliability score of 0.714 exceeds the recommended value of 0.7 and is therefore, deemed acceptable. This indicates a high (overall) degree of acceptable, consistent scoring for the research. Section B of the research instrument scored a level of 0.729, which is also consistent with the required level of acceptable results and, therefore, meets the required standard. Section C, however, scored a value that is slightly lower than the required standard with 0.644. The primary reason for this score is that the construct is newly developed and would require further testing. Improvements have been noted since it was piloted.

Table 2: Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Questionnaire)

	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Section B	7 of 7	.729
Section C	4 of 8	.644
Overall	12 of 15	.714

4.3.1 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a tool that allows researchers to explore underlying structures of an instrument or set of data (Mertler and Vannatta, 2002:17). According to Moonsamy and Singh (2012:5), factor analysis is aimed at reducing the amount of data within a particular study. It is a tool within which a set of questions within a survey can be reduced or subdivided into a smaller set of hypothetical factors (Moonsamy and Singh, 2012:5). The goal is to demonstrate whether the established

questions within the survey can be combined to measure distinctive elements. Factor analysis was used to determine whether the two sections, B and C, measure the same item. Each component (CE and Brand Consideration) was split into finer elements, as illustrated in Table, 3 and 4, below in the rotated component matrix.

Table 3: Section B (CETSCALE Questions)

Section B	Component
	1
SA brands only	.507
Foreign purchase unpatriotic	.507
Foreign brands hurt the economy	.698
Beside the cost I prefer domestic products	.670
Only purchase foreign products not found domestically	.639
Only purchase domestically produced foreign brands	.627
Heavily tax foreign brands	.652

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a.1 component extracted.

Table 4: Section C (Brand Consideration Questions)

Section C	Component		
	1	2	3
Foreign products are cheap	-.171	.777	.161
Foreign last long	.155	.075	.892
Foreign product are great value	.646	.017	-.116
Foreign brand are of low quality	-.435	.615	.016
Happy with foreign brand	.761	-.130	.168
Likely to recommend foreign brands	.703	-.215	.197
I reject brands I have a negative attitude towards	.361	.597	-.374

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

The method employed in the extraction of elements was the principal component analysis and the Varimax with Kaiser Normalization as the main method of rotation. That is, an orthogonal rotation method used to lessen the variables' components with

a higher loading on each factor. As a result, items found to be 0.5 or more imply an effective measurement along the various components.

It is noted that section B (Table 3) variables loaded perfectly along one factor. This means that the statements (variables) that constituted this component perfectly measured the component. It can be concluded that the section measured exactly what it was meant to be measure. Only the variables that constituted section C (Table 4) split along three sub-themes. These sections are characterised by questions that induced positive and negative considerations (subdivision 1 and 2, respectively), while the last question (subdivision 3) did not induce either positive or negative consideration but rather indifference.

4.3.2 Biographical data (Section A)

Section A of the research instrument summarises the demographic characteristics of the sample respondents. The research focused primarily on a number of biographic characteristics, which will be discussed below.

4.3.2.1 Age and Gender

Below, a discussion of the research participants' age distribution will be carried out with the provision of a diagram illustrating age distributions as a percentage of the research sample.

Table 5: Biographical Data (Gender and Age group cross-tabulation)

	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	

Age group	18-20	Count	67	79	146
		% within Age group	45.9%	54.1%	100.0%
		% within Gender	26.8%	35.0%	30.7%
		% of Total	14.1%	16.6%	30.7%
	21-35	Count	137	121	258
		% within Age group	53.1%	46.9%	100.0%
		% within Gender	54.8%	53.5%	54.2%
		% of Total	28.8%	25.4%	54.2%
	36-50	Count	36	20	56
		% within Age group	64.3%	35.7%	100.0%
		% within Gender	14.4%	8.8%	11.8%
		% of Total	7.6%	4.2%	11.8%
	51-65	Count	10	6	16
		% within Age group	62.5%	37.5%	100.0%
		% within Gender	4.0%	2.7%	3.4%
		% of Total	2.1%	1.3%	3.4%
Total	Count		250	226	476
	% within Age group		52.5%	47.5%	100.0%
	% within Gender		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total		52.5%	47.5%	100.0%

As illustrated in Table 5, the ratio of males to females is approximately 1:1 (52.5%: 47.5%). This is inconsistent with Statistics South Africa (2011:15) which shows that there are more females than males across all districts. The majority of males were found to be in the age category 21 to 35 years, with 54.8% and the majority of females; that is, 53.5% were also found within the same category. This is relatively consistent with the eThekweni Municipality's population distribution which shows that largest number of males and females are between 21 to 35 years of age (Statistics South Africa, 2011:18). In total, more than half of the respondents were found within the age category 21 to 35 years, constituting 54.2% of the sample population. The second largest group, making up 30.7% of the research sample, was found within

the 18 to 20 years' of age categories. 14.1% of this group was male while 16.6% was female. The remaining 15.2% of the sample population was found within the 35 to 50 years' category and the 51 to 65 years' of age category. This is due to the fact that the majority of research participants were undergraduate students from UKZN and DUT.

4.3.2.2 Race

Figure 3 indicates the race group of the respondents.

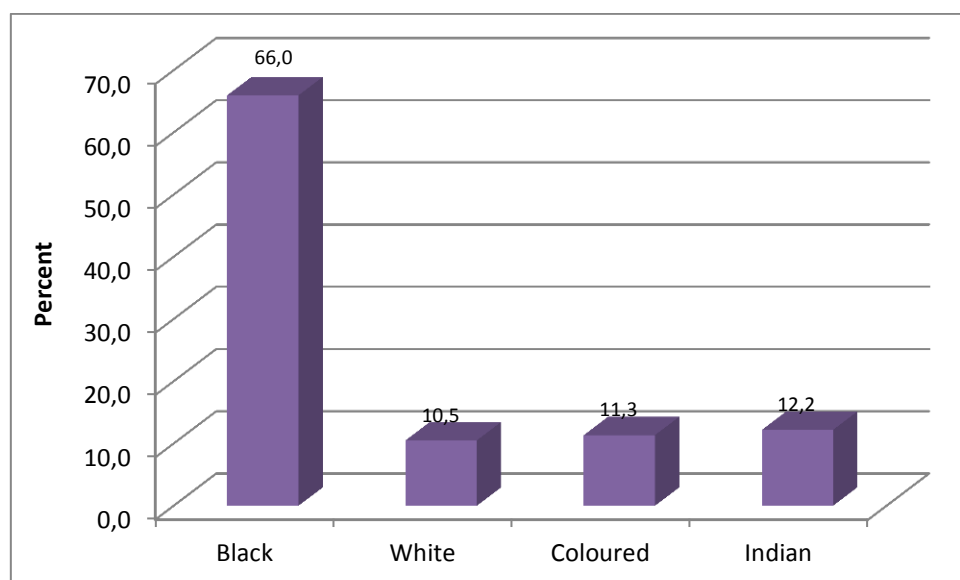


Figure 3: Biographical Data (Sample population by Race %)

Approximately two-thirds (66.0%) of the respondents were Black with the remaining race groups forming approximately related numbers with Whites, Coloureds and Indians making up the remaining third (10.5%, 11.3% and 12.2%). These statistics are relatively similar to Statistics South Africa (2011:17) population statistics in which the population contained more Black South Africans than any other race. The Indian population constitutes the second largest racial group which mirrors the national

population (Statistics South Africa, 2011:17). Inconsistences arise with the Coloured population making up the third largest racial group within the sample.

4.3.2.3 Educational Level (Achieved)

The graph below indicates the educational qualification of the respondents.

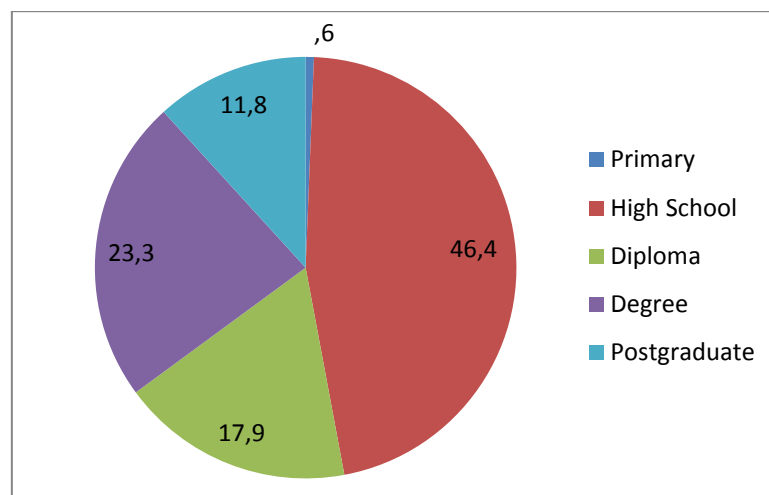


Figure 4: Biographical Data (Educational level achieved)

Approximately half of the respondents (51.0%) had a tertiary qualification. This may be attributed to the fact that the study was delimited to university students and staff members at the various universities. As illustrated by the Figure 4, 11.8% had attained a primary school education, 46.4% a high school qualification, 17.9% a diploma, 23.3% a degree and 0.6% had attained a postgraduate qualification. Table 6 indicates the racial composition of the respondents by qualification.

In accordance with Table 6, the three respondents who had managed to attain a primary level education were all Black making up 0.6% of the total population and 1% of the black (only) population. 221 respondents possessed a high school education. Within this category of high school educated respondents, 62.0% were

Black, 10.4% were White, 8.1% were coloured and 19.5% were Indian. Within the different races 43.6% of all Black respondents were high school educated while 46.0% of all Whites, 33.3% of all Coloured respondents and 74.1% of all Indian respondents were all high school educated.

The findings are consistent with the population of the study which mainly consisted of first-year students from UKZN and DUT. The ratio of less educated (high school educated) respondents to highly educated (tertiary educated) respondents is almost 1:1 in favour of the less educated. There seems to be a greater percentage of respondents who had managed to attain a high school qualification (matric certificate) than within any other category across all races except for Coloureds. This shows that there are more students with a lower level qualification (diploma level) within the student population than there are those with a higher level qualification (degree and post graduate level). This is consistent with a university population.

Table 6: Race and Educational Statistics

			Race				Total
			Black	White	Coloured	Indian	
Level of education	Primary	Count	3	0	0	0	3
		% within Level of education	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within Race	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.6%
		% of Total	0.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.6%
	High School	Count	137	23	18	43	221
		% within Level of education	62.0%	10.4%	8.1%	19.5%	100.0%
		% within Race	43.6%	46.0%	33.3%	74.1%	46.4%
		% of Total	28.8%	4.8%	3.8%	9.0%	46.4%
	Diploma	Count	60	8	7	10	85
		% within Level of education	70.6%	9.4%	8.2%	11.8%	100.0%
		% within Race	19.1%	16.0%	13.0%	17.2%	17.9%
		% of Total	12.6%	1.7%	1.5%	2.1%	17.9%
	Degree	Count	82	4	23	2	111
		% within Level of education	73.9%	3.6%	20.7%	1.8%	100.0%
		% within Race	26.1%	8.0%	42.6%	3.4%	23.3%
		% of Total	17.2%	0.8%	4.8%	0.4%	23.3%
	Postgraduate	Count	32	15	6	3	56
		% within Level of education	57.1%	26.8%	10.7%	5.4%	100.0%
		% within Race	10.2%	30.0%	11.1%	5.2%	11.8%
		% of Total	6.7%	3.2%	1.3%	0.6%	11.8%
Total		Count	314	50	54	58	476
		% within Level of education	66.0%	10.5%	11.3%	12.2%	100.0%
		% within Race	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	66.0%	10.5%	11.3%	12.2%	100.0%

4.3.3 Conclusion

Sample demographics consisted of four racial groups between 18 and 65 years of age. The study was on institutions of higher learning within the Durban area. The discussions above show that the sample is reasonably representative of the population of the area.

4.4 QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

The following section shows the analysis and scoring patterns of the respondents per research attribute. Respondents' levels of disagreement (negative statements) were broken down into smaller elements that make up a single category of 'Disagree'. Similarly, for the levels of agreement (positive statements), the same process was carried out. This is allowed due to the acceptable levels of reliability. As a result, findings are presented as summarised percentages of each of the given variables from the given section and further analysed according to the importance of the statements.

4.4.1 CETSCALE (Section B)

Section B of the research instrument deals with measuring the level of consumer ethnocentrism among the research participants. This section was developed from an established instrument, the Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale (CETSACALE), constructed by Shimp and Sharma (1987:281). Unlike Shimp and Sharma (1987:284), a shorter version of the scale was used to measure CE within the study. As stated, the CETSCALE can be used with less than ten items. Therefore, a 7-point scale was used to measure the presence of ethnocentric tendencies within the study (Klein *et al.*, 2006:307).

To determine whether the differences in responses put forward were significant, chi-square tests were done by variable (statement), that is, between agree and disagree. The null hypothesis tested the claim that there were no differences in the scoring options per statement. The results are shown below in Table 7.

Table 7: Chi square test results

	SA brands only	Foreign purchase unpatriotic	Foreign brands hurt the economy	Beside the cost I prefer domestic products	Only purchase foreign products not found domestically	Only purchase domestically produced foreign brands	Heavily tax foreign brands
Chi-Square	207.078	113.312	10.641	65.51	56.03	73.363	6.359
df	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.031	.000	.000	.000	.174

Since all of the significant values (p -values) except the last, are less than 0.05 (the level of significance), it implies that the distributions were not even. That is, the differences between agreement and disagreement were significant. It is noted that the category of “Undecided” also contribute to the p -value. Subsequently, responses to the individual questions within the section (CETSCALE) produced scores summarised below in Figure 5.

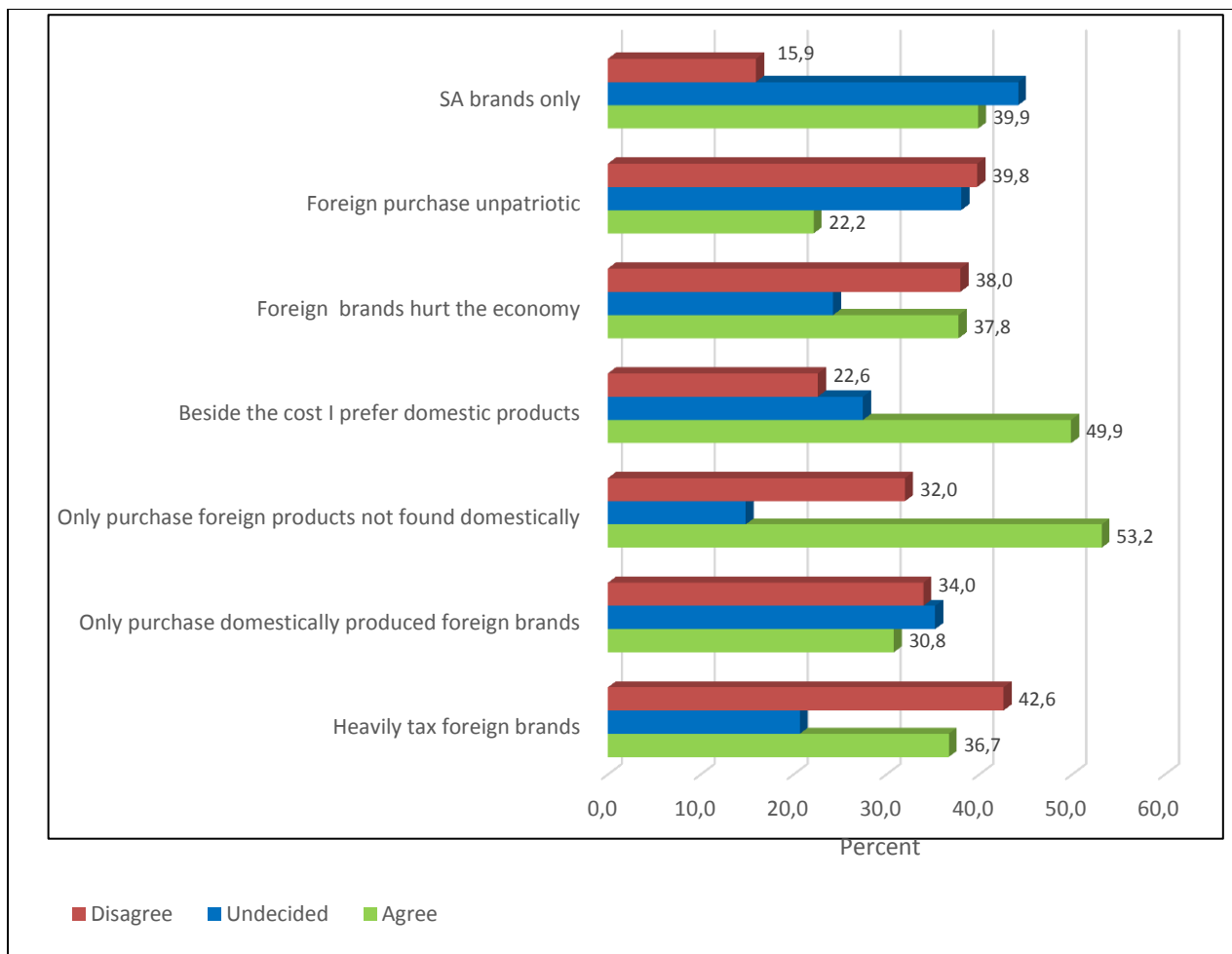


Figure 5: CETSCALE Percentage Scores

The two highest levels of agreement were for “Besides the cost, I prefer domestic products” (49.9%) and “Only purchase foreign products not found domestically” (53.2%). This indicates a strong preference for local brands choosing only to purchase foreign brands only in the absence of local alternatives. Relatively similar numbers of respondents agreed as well as those that disagreed with the statement “Foreign brands hurt the economy,” that is, 37.8% to 38.0%, respectively.

Only the first and sixth statements did the respondents score higher percentages of indecision than agreement or disagreement (see Figure 5). This may be attributed to consumers’ long history with imports, especially in an African country such as South

Africa, thus making it difficult to separate the two (foreign and domestic). Apart from the first, fourth and sixth statements, all the others indicate higher disagreement percentages than those for agreement.

One of the main objectives of the study was to determine the ethnocentrism among South African consumers within Durban. A one-sample t-test was performed to compare the sample's mean ethnocentrism score with hypothetical or population mean score. The results are displayed in Tables, 8 and 9, below.

Table 8: One Sample T-Test (Ethnocentrism)

One-Sample Test						
	Test Value = 0					
	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Ethnocentrism	76.385	451	.000	20.20354	19.6837	20.7233

The population mean score was assumed to be 35.00 which was greater than the average mean score of 20.20354 (N = 452; $p = 0.00$) reflecting respondents' ethnocentric tendencies. The results show ethnocentric inclinations among the sample respondents.

4.4.2 Brand Consideration (SECTION C)

This section investigates both consumer attitude and brand evaluation. Brand consideration was measured using questions developed from attitudinal studies used to measure purchasing intent (Batra and Ray, 1986:235; Mackenzie *et al.*, 1986:131) as well as brand evaluation studies based on guidelines such as workmanship, design, durability and value for money (Carter, 2009:46). As a result, eight questions

were constructed in this section. Again, in order to determine whether the differences in responses put forward were significant, chi-square tests were done by variable (statement). The null hypothesis tested the claim that there were no differences in the scoring options per statement as shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Chi square test results

	I avoid foreign products	Foreign products are cheap	Foreign last long	Foreign product are great value	Foreign brand are of low quality	Happy with foreign brand	Likely to recommend foreign brands	I reject brands I have a negative attitude towards
Chi-Square	55.473	45.636	99.186	55.573	63.532	34.608	87.745	83.944
df	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

All the p -values are less than 0.05, implying that the scoring patterns show significant differences. The differences between agreement and disagreement were significant and, again, it must also be noted that the category of “Undecided” contributed to the p -value. The summary of results obtained from this section (Brand Consideration) is presented in Figure 6 below.

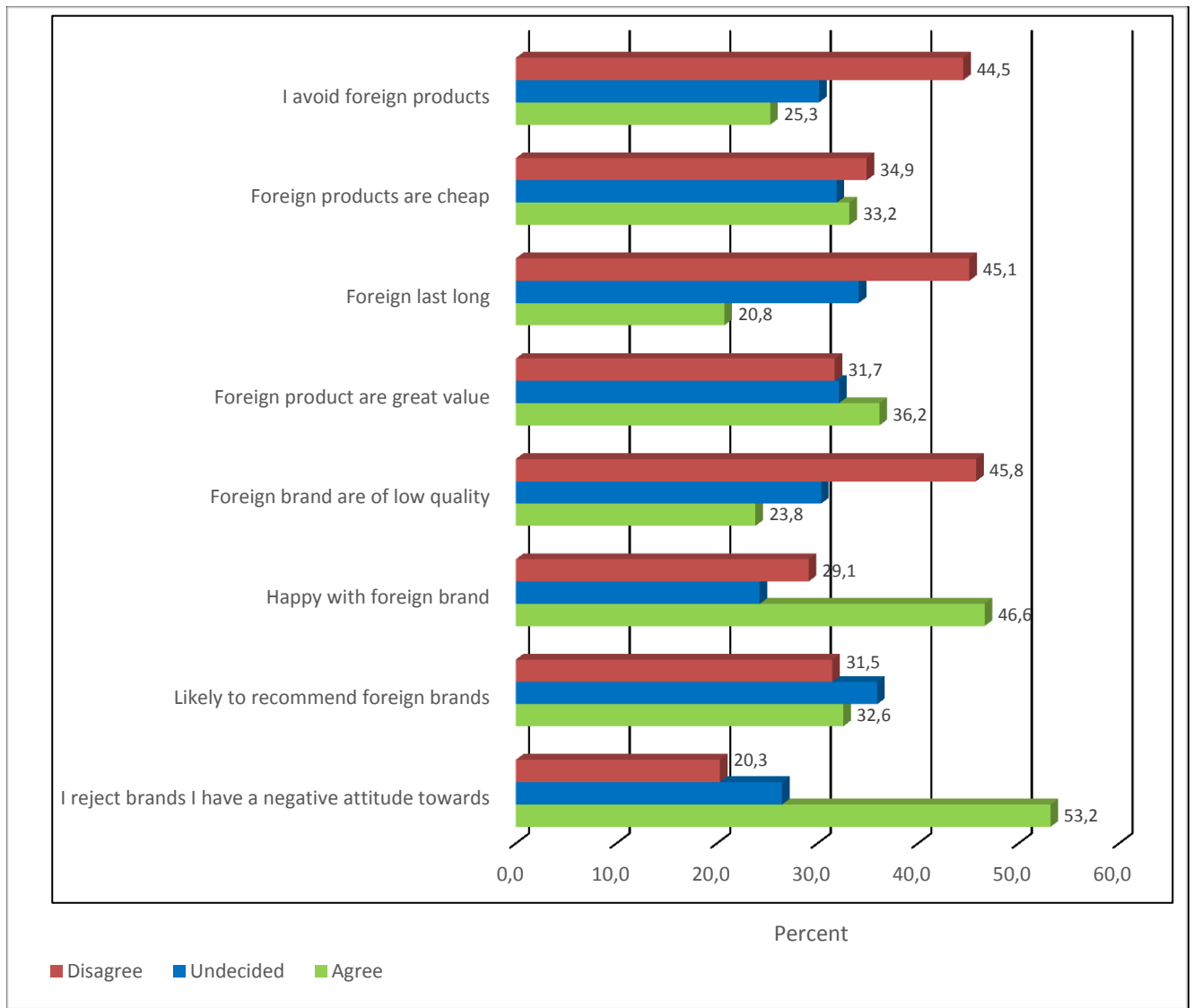


Figure 6: Brand Consideration Scores (Section C)

Three of the statements have higher levels of agreement than disagreement. As illustrated in Figure 6 respondents only agreed with three statements, "Happy with foreign brand," "Foreign brands are of great value" and "I reject brands I have a negative attitude towards". Although there are more respondents who agreed than disagreed, the difference is relatively small. For example, the levels of agreement and disagreement to the statement, "Likely to recommend foreign brands," were 32.6% and 31.5%, respectively. The largest margin between agreement and

disagreement was for the statement “I reject brands I have a negative attitude towards” with 53.2 % in agreement and 20.3% in disagreement. For the remaining statements, there are more respondents who disagreed (more than those that agreed); “I avoid foreign products, “Foreign products are cheap,” Foreign last long” and “Foreign brand are of low quality” (Figure 6).

Results show a general dislike for foreign brands, which may be emanating from the idea that foreign products are cheap and do not last long. Responses also show that the majority participants believe foreign brands are of cheap quality. The majority of participants go on to display the belief that foreign brands are of great value. Inconsistencies arise as responses show that the majority of participants are happy with the foreign brands they have come across and that they would recommend them to other consumers. As illustrated in Figure 6, there were more participants who were undecided (those who agreed 32.6 % and disagreed 31.5%) about the decision to recommend a foreign brand. The chi-square test results below show whether the distribution patterns were equal or not.

The brand consideration scores for the sample are displayed in Table 10.

Table 10: One Sample T-test (Brand Consideration)

One-Sample Test						
	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Brand consideration	141.983	463	.000	24.12716	23.7932	24.4611

Again, a one-sample t-test was performed to compare the sample's mean brand consideration score with hypothetical or population mean scores. The population mean score was assumed to be 37 which was greater than the average mean score of 24.12716 ($N = 463$; $p = 0.00$) reflecting respondents' attitudes and brand consideration tendencies. Results show that respondents have a moderately positive attitude towards foreign brands and would consider them for purchase.

4.4.3 Inferential statistics

The chi-square test was performed in order to establish the existence or non-existence of statistically significant relationships between the given variables (rows vs columns) (Vaughan, 2001:75). The null hypothesis states that no significant relationship exists while the alternate hypothesis states that an association exists. From the statistical test, a p -value is generated. In cases where $p < 0.05$, there is the indication of a level of significant difference great enough to reject the null hypothesis. Table 11 summarises the results from the chi-square tests. The direction of the scores can be obtained in Appendix 4.

Table 11: Pearson Chi-Square Tests

	Age group	Gender	Race	Level of education
SA brands only	0.293	.282	.002*	0.328
Foreign purchase unpatriotic	0.799	.693	.467	0.302
Foreign brands hurt the economy	0.682	.443	.048*	0.853
Beside the cost I prefer domestic products	0.305	.763	.005*	0.114
Only purchase foreign products not found domestically	0.085	.340	.004*	.041*
Only purchase domestically produced foreign brands	0.571	.007*	.004*	0.828
Heavily tax foreign brands	0.182	.213	.000*	0.143
I avoid foreign products	0.783	.128	.398	0.916
Foreign products are cheap	0.433	.730	.095	0.754
Foreign last long	0.673	.524	.256	0.213
Foreign product are great value	.042*	.040*	.064	0.521
Foreign brand are of low quality	0.622	.006*	.035*	0.351
Happy with foreign brand	0.185	.616	.000*	0.127
Likely to recommend foreign brands	0.437	.271	.002*	0.733
I reject brands I have a negative attitude towards	0.555	.288	.700	0.432

The results from the chi-square test support the existence of a number of significant relationships between respondents' biographical data and some of the research statements.

The results show that race plays a significant role in determining whether or not a consumer believes that the purchase of a foreign brand hurts the economy ($p = 0.048$). The results show that Coloured and Black respondents are more inclined toward the belief that foreign products harm the economy with the mean responses being 2.84 and 2.92 respectively (see Appendix 4). White and Indian respondents' display some disagreement to the statement probably because of their historic connection with foreign countries. The sample population's mean response for this question shows that the sample moderately agrees with this statement (2.98). A significant relationship also exists between Race and the statement, "Besides cost I prefer domestic brands" ($p = 0.05$), and the mean response to this statement was

2.55. Black respondents showed the highest level of agreement (mean response 2.41) followed by Indian (2.75) and Coloured respondents (2.74) while the White respondents showed the least (2.96). The total mean response (2.55) shows that the average participant agreed with this statement, which may be attributed to the strength of one's country of birth and/residence as a grouping variable.

Race, furthermore, shows significant relationships with the following statements: "Foreign brands are of low quality," "Happy with foreign brands" and "Likely to recommend foreign brands" ($p = 0.035$, $p = 0.00$ and $p = 0.002$, respectively). As indicated in Appendix 4, the total mean responses for the statement "Foreign brands are of low quality" was 3.33, which shows moderate disagreement among all participants. For the statement "Happy with foreign brands", the total mean score was 2.75, which showed that participants moderately agreed with the statement. The highest agreement score was displayed among Indians with 2.14, followed by Coloured with 2.48, White respondents with 2.52 and, lastly, 2.92 among Black participants. For the statement "Likely to recommend foreign brands", the total mean score was 2.99 with two groups showing disagreement (Black and White) and two agreeing (Indians and Coloured). As displayed in Appendix 4, Black respondents showed the highest level of disagreement (3.11) and Indian participants displayed the highest agreement score 2.52.

Moreover, a relationship of significance exists between "Only purchase foreign products not found domestically" and "Race" ($p = 0.004$). The given responses expressed according to the sample's racial statistics show the following mean scores: Black (2.52), White (3.04), Coloured (2.67) and Indians (2.60). As a result,

Black participants display a far greater preference to the purchase of foreign products only when there are no domestic alternatives. Unlike the other groups, White participants moderately disagree with the statement (3.04).

According to the findings, the statement "Only purchase domestically produced foreign brands" has a significant relationship with not only Race, but also with Gender ($p = 0.007$). The mean scores for the statement are the same for both Race and Gender (3.06). Black participants agree (2.93) with the statement relatively moderately while all other racial groups disagree (White 3.34, Coloured 3.31 and Indian 3.36). Male participants tend to agree with the statement while their female counterparts disagree.

The statement "Foreign products are of great value" has a significant association with the following biographical data "Age group" and "Gender". This means that the belief that foreign products are of great value is influenced by both a respondent's age group and gender ($p = 0.42$ and $p = 0.4$ for Age group and Gender, respectively). According to age, older participants disagreed with the statement, "Foreign products are of great value" with a score of 3.38 (36 to 50 years) and 3.19 (51 to 65 years). Younger participants were more agreeable with the statement, participants between 18 to 20 years of age scoring 2.74 and 2.87 for the 21 to 35 year participants. Male participants agreed with the statement with a 2.77 mean score and females disagreeing and scoring 3.04 (mean score).

Respondents' "Gender" also shows a significant relationship to the belief that "Foreign products are of low quality" ($p = 0.006$) together with the respondents'

“Race” ($p = 0.035$). Male and female participants both disagreed with this statement, scoring 3.51 and 3.4, respectively. According to Race, all races disagreed, with Indians showing the most disagreement followed by Coloureds, Whites and Black participants scoring the lowest.

Education displays a significant association with the statement “Only purchase foreign products not found domestically” ($p = 0.041$). That is, the education level of a respondent does influence the decision to purchase foreign products not found domestically. Only respondents with lower educational qualifications (Primary) disagreed with the statement while those with higher qualifications agreed relatively moderately with the statement (High School, Diploma, Degree and Postgraduate) (see Appendix 4). The more educated the consumer, the more open they are to other product options as they are more aware of their inability to access these products.

4.4.3.1 Research Hypotheses

One of the objectives of the study was to determine the influence of consumer demographics on CE. As illustrated by the chi-square test (Table 11), the participants’ demographic characteristics were tested against individual questions within the questionnaire. The findings showed that the participants’ age, gender and education had an insignificant influence on the responses provided except the respondents’ race. As a result, the following research hypotheses were tested:

H1: The distribution of Ethnocentrism is the same across categories of Age;

H2: The distribution of Ethnocentrism is the same across categories of Education;

H3: The distribution of Ethnocentrism is the same across categories of Race; and

H4: The distribution of Ethnocentrism is the same across categories of Gender.

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test and the Mann-Whitney U test of independence produced the following results:

Table 13: Hypothesis Testing Summary (Research Hypothesis)

Hypothesis Test Summary

Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig	Decision
H1: The distribution of Ethnocentrism is the same across categories of Age	Independent Sample. Kruskal Wallis test	.444	Retain the Null hypothesis
H2 The distribution of Ethnocentrism is the same across categories of Education	Independent Sample. Kruskal-Wallis test	.564	Retain the Null hypothesis
H3: The distribution of Ethnocentrism is the same across categories of Race	Independent Sample. Kruskal-Wallis test	.001	Reject the Null hypothesis
H4:The distribution of Ethnocentrism is the same across categories of Gender	Independent Sample. Mann-Whitney U test	.474	Retain the Null Hypothesis

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is 0.05.

The Mann-Whitney test conducted on independent samples is a non-parametric test.

It compares medians instead of means of two groups ($p < 0.05$). The Kruskal-Wallis

test is also a non-parametric test which, in nature, is similar to the Mann-Whitney test which is used as an alternative to a one-way between-groups analysis of variance. The above result shows that only race results in the occurrence of significantly different ethnocentric responses within the sample.

4.4.3.2 Correlations (inferential statistics)

Bivariate correlation was also performed on the (ordinal) data. Bivariate correlation evaluates the relationship between two quantitative variables. Spearman's correlation is the most commonly used bivariate correlation technique. It measures the relationship between variables without distinction between dependant and independent variables (Mertler and Vannatta, 2002:13). The results are found in Appendix 5.

a. Questionnaire Questions (correlation)

The following patterns were exhibited; that is, positive values displayed a direct association between the variables while negative values depicted a negative association with both being indicated by an asterisk (* or **). Therefore, only those possessing significant relationships (highlighted by an asterisk) will be discussed, as indicated by the Spearman's correlation calculation.

There is a directly proportional relationship between respondents' desire to purchase "SA brands only" and the seven statements that follow (see Appendix 5). For example, a directly proportional relationship exists between the statements "Foreign purchases are unpatriotic" and "SA brands only" ($r = 0.184$; $p = 0.00$). All the proceeding correlation values between the statement, "SA brands only" and seven of

the statements that follow, up to “I avoid foreign products” all support the existence of directly proportional relationships. The more consumers favour domestic brands, the less likely they are to favour, purchase and recommend foreign product brands. Consumers who favour the purchase of SA brands only are more patriotic than those who do not. As a result, they are undeterred by higher costs.

An inversely proportional relationship exists between “SA brands only” and the following statements; “Foreign brands last long,” “Foreign products are of great value,” “Happy with foreign brand” and “Likely to recommend foreign brands”. These statements all indicate negative correlation values (see Appendix 5). This, also, is the trend as the first eight statements (CETSCALE question) all display a negative correlation with five other statements (Brands consideration) beginning from “Foreign brands last long” up to the statement, “Likely to recommend foreign brands”.

Another trend is that there is a directly proportional relationship between “I reject all brands I have a negative attitude towards” and the following statements; “Foreign brands hurt the economy,” “Beside the cost, I prefer domestic products,” “Only purchase foreign products not found domestically” and “Only purchase domestically produced foreign brands” (see Appendix 5). That is, the beliefs that foreign products hurt the domestic economy will likely result in the rejection of foreign products. Consumers are also likely to reject foreign brands that they have a negative attitude towards and will gladly overlook cheaper foreign brands for a more expensive local brand. Consumers also have a general preference for domestic products and will only look for foreign alternatives only in the absence of a local option.

b. *Correlation (Consumer Ethnocentrism and Brands Consideration)*

To test the H5 hypothesis and establish the relationship between brand consideration and CE, the Pearson correlation test was conducted.

H5: Consumer ethnocentrism leads to a negative consideration of foreign convenience brands.

Table 15: Brand Consideration and CE (Correlation)

Correlations			
		Ethnocentrism	Brand consideration
Ethnocentrism	Pearson Correlation	1	.067
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.156
	N	452	444
Brand consideration	Pearson Correlation	.067	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.156	
	N	444	466

Table 15 shows that there is a very weak positive correlation between CE and Brand Consideration ($r = .067$; $p = 0.156$). As a result, the H5 hypothesis was rejected due to the significantly weak association between CE and brand consideration.

4.5 CONCLUSION

Within this chapter, all data collected from the study was presented. The study produced the following findings.

Research participants were mostly Black, which is consistent with the area's population statistics. Inconsistencies were observed among the minorities. Of all the

demographic variables, participants' race showed the most significant association with CE. The results obtained from the CETSCALE section revealed the existence of moderate ethnocentric tendencies among the research participants. The study also revealed a weak correlation between CE and brand consideration. The research instrument (questionnaire) was also shown to be reliable, although it exceeded the recommended score with inconsistencies emanating from the newly developed brand consideration section.

Within chapter 5, a discussion about the research findings relative to the literature will be carried out. The discussion allows for the development of a deeper understanding of the findings in chapter 4.

CHAPTER 5

DATA DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 4, the findings from the research were presented after being analysed by SPSS using various statistical techniques and methods. A discussion of the obtained results based on the aims and objectives of the study will be carried out within this chapter. An overall summation of the study's findings will be provided. An analysis of the demographic characteristics of the sample will be conducted together with a discussion on the responses provided for the different sections of the research instrument. Responses to CETSCALE questions as well as brand consideration questions will be analysed in relation to the existing literature on the subjects of consumer ethnocentrism and brand consideration.

5.2 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Within the study, the instrument for data collection was a questionnaire. As mentioned within chapter 3 (methodology), it was made up of, biographical questions, CETSCALE questions, willingness to buy, consumer attitudes towards products and product evaluation questions. Divided into three sections, these were combined together to measure the effects of CE on brand consideration. Developed from an established instrument, a shortened version of the CETSCALE was employed (Evanschitzky *et al.*, 2008:8; Klein *et al.*, 2006:307). As for section C (brand consideration), a combination of previously developed questions was put together in order by the researcher and subsequent supervisors.

The questionnaire underwent a reliability test producing an acceptable reliability score of 0.714 (Table 2). Each section of the instrument was also tested producing a score of 0.729 for the CETSCALE and 0.644 for brand consideration. Section C produced an unacceptable score. Subsequently, factor analysis was conducted to determine whether section B and section C were credible instruments to measure CE and Brand consideration. The results showed that only section B (CETSCALE) adequately measured its intended component. Section C, on the other hand, proved inadequate as a measure of brand consideration. This has been attributed to the fact that the section had not undergone extensive testing.

During the data analysis, using SPSS, section C of the questionnaire had to be manipulated in order to measure consumer attitudes towards foreign convenience brands and ultimately determine brand consideration.

5.2.1 Consumer Ethnocentrism

One of the main components of the study is the principle of CE (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:280). In order to determine the effect that CE has on brand selection the CETSCALE was used to establish ethnocentrism among South Africans within Durban. The CETSCALE contained the following statements:

Q5. SA brands only;

Q6. Foreign purchase unpatriotic;

Q7. Foreign brands hurt the economy;

Q8. Beside the cost I prefer domestic products;

Q9. Only purchase foreign products not found domestically;

Q10. Only purchase domestically produced foreign brands; and

Q11. Heavily tax foreign brands.

According to the existing literature, CE is “the belief held by consumers about the appropriateness of, and indeed the morality of, purchasing foreign-made products” (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:280). According to Josaissen *et al.* (2011:629), CE is based on domestic preference and not any negativity towards any particular country. Consumer ethnocentrism has also been associated with “domestic country bias” (Evanschitzky *et al.*, 2008:8). The greater the domestic country bias, the greater the likelihood that the individual will exhibit high levels of ethnocentrism.

The overall mean scores provided for CETSCALE questions show that participants agreed with four out of seven statements. Results show a general preference towards domestic products. Respondents disagreed with the notion of associating patriotism and product purchase as well as heavily taxing foreign brands. Respondents display a general preference for domestic products. The results supported previously established studies conducted in South Africa, which showed that South African consumers displayed ethnocentric tendencies (Estifanos, 2003:86). Although a preference for domestic brands exists, consumers seem open to the idea of foreign products, which is consistent with studies carried out in other developing African countries (Mensah *et al.*, 2011:25). Respondents disagree with the notion of domestically produced foreign brands. Consumers do not support the idea of limiting foreign products through heavy taxes.

5.2.1.1 The Moderating effect of consumer demographics on CE

Four main demographic characteristics were analysed within the study for the purpose of understanding their influence on CE in South Africa. Consumers' age, gender, race and education were analysed. Results revealed that only race had a significant correlation with ethnocentrism. Respondent's ages, gender and education were all observed to have an insignificant association with consumer ethnocentrism (Table 13).

a. Age

According to the existing literature, there is a positive relationship between the age of the consumer and CE (Bawa, 2004:47; Ramsaran-Fowder, 2010:127). This assertion is largely based upon the premise that older consumers are more conservative (Altıntaş and Tokol, 2007:315; Josaissen *et al.*, 2011:630). Other authors even state that an inversely proportional relationship exists as studies by Shankarmahesh (2006:148) revealed that younger consumers were more ethnocentric. Although the literature varies, there is no evidence to support the existence of a significant association between respondents' ages and their responses to CETSCALE and brand consideration questions. The results from the study show that participants' ages did not influence their product preferences. As a result, H1 was rejected.

H1: A positive relationship exists between age and CE.

b. Race

Past studies on the subject of race have produced a varied array of results (Shankarmahesh, 2006:165). In response to the plea made by Pentz (2011:5), the current study has provided results to further understand the influence of race on consumer behaviour.

The results from the study show that a significant relationship exists between CE and race. Variances were seen in participants' responses to CETSCALE questions. For Q5 (SA brands only), all races generally agreed with the statement, with Black participants displaying the highest level of agreement followed by Coloureds, Indians and, lastly, White participants. This trend can be attributed to the social identity theory (Lantz and Loeb, 1996:374; Brown, 2000:747 and Pentz, 2011:97). All races, therefore, identify themselves with their country of residence (South Africa), thus supporting the existence of ethnocentric tendencies within the population.

For Q6 (Foreign purchase is unpatriotic), all racial groups generally disagreed with the given statement. It seems that there is no connection between a participant's view of patriotism and the purchase of products. Based on this discovery, one of the underlying premises behind ethnocentrism is undercut as the understanding that ethnocentrism results in the development of strong nationalistic feelings are not evident throughout the study. According to an earlier study, CE results in protectionist tendencies against a possible negative economic impact and this can be associated with economic patriotism (Bandara and Miloslova, 2008:4). This deviates from the finding of Pentz (2011:229), who found a significant association between ethnocentrism and patriotism in South Africa. Although participants

disagreed with the statement, no significant connection was found between race and Q6.

Participants provided mixed responses to Q7 (Foreign brands hurt the economy). Black and Coloured respondents moderately agreed with the statement while Indians and White respondents moderately disagreed. The results may be explained by looking at each racial group's historic connections. Since Indian South Africans and White South Africans all have a historic and possibly existing connection with other countries, they may be less inclined to think that foreign purchases cause any harm to the South African economy. Racial groups that have less of a connection with other countries may be more inclined to believe foreign purchases may hurt the economy.

For Q8 (Besides the cost I prefer domestic products) all racial groups moderately agreed with the statement. The highest level of agreement was shown by Black respondents followed by Indians, Coloureds and then Whites. This trend supports the results of previous statements where Black participants display the highest levels of agreement and White participants display the least. All consumers display an emotional connection choosing to forgo a possible financial benefit for a moral benefit, that is, the idea of providing economic support for domestic companies (Shimp and Sharma, 1987:280). White participants disagreed with the Q9 (Only purchase foreign products not found domestically) while the rest agreed (Black, Coloureds and Indians). For statement Q10, White, Indian and Coloured participants disagreed while Black participants moderately agreed.

The mean responses provided by Black respondents show that they moderately agreed with six of the CETSCALE questions except for the statement Q6. White participants agreed with only two statements (Q1 and Q4) and disagreed with the rest. Coloured respondents agreed with four (Q1, Q3, Q4 and Q5) and disagreed with four. Indian participants disagreed with four (Q2, Q3, Q6 and Q7) and agreed with the rest. This shows that between the four groups, Black respondents provided the most ethnocentric responses. This supports the findings of a study carried out in Australia that revealed that members of the dominant culture showed relatively high levels of CE as compared to members of the cultural minority (Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser, 2002:291). A study conducted in South Africa by Bevan-Dye *et al.* (2012:5584) on 'generation Y' consumers and Black South Africans displayed a significant level of ethnocentrism. The dominant race has been found to be more ethnocentric. H3 was, therefore, rejected as varied responses were provided in response to CETSCALE questions.

H3: Ethnocentric tendencies are the same amongst the different races.

c. Education

Past research revealed that highly educated people tend to overestimate foreign product quality while less-educated people overestimate domestic product quality (Schooler, 1971:73; Dornoff, Tankersley and White, 1974:26). Nguyen *et al.* (2008:89), however, found no such relationship between education and foreign product preference and this also seems to be the dominant view among most authors (Javalgi, Khare, Gross and Scherer, 2005:329; Saffu and Walker, 2005:205).

The responses provided by participants in this study show that those with only a primary qualification disagreed with the statement than any other group. Consistencies were found with Q1, Q4 and Q5 for high school educated participants to post-graduate educated participants. These participants all display a preference for South African products and are willing to forgo cheaper foreign product options for more expensive local options. The same participants also share in the belief that only products not found locally should be imported. Variances were seen with Q3, Q6 and Q7. The responses show that there is shared preference for domestic products as consumers become more educated.

Since no significant association was found between education and ethnocentrism, there was support for the argument by Walker (2005:205) and Nguyen *et al.* (2008:89). As a result, H2 was rejected as no significant association was identified between CE and education.

H2: A negative correlation exists between the level of education and CE.

d. *Gender*

Results have also varied with regard to the relationship between gender and CE. Caruana (1996:40) discovered that men were less receptive to foreign products than their female counterparts. Men have displayed lower levels of consumer ethnocentrism in a number of other studies (Good and Huddleston, 1995:38; Nielsen and Spence, 1997:71; Sharma, Shimp and Shin, 1995:29). The basis for this argument is that men are less conservative, and less patriotic. Women are believed to care more about safeguarding 'social harmony' and are more concerned about in-

group behaviour (Han 1988:27; Sharma *et al.*, 1995:29). However, women have also been found to show more signs of favouring imported goods more than their male counterparts (Dornoff *et al.*, 1974:26; Schooler, 1971:71; Johansson *et al.*, 1985:390). However, Ramsaran-Fowdar (2010:118) studied the influence of demographic variables on CE and his results showed higher ethnocentric tendencies amongst males.

At the same time, other studies could not find any correlation between gender and ethnocentrism (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972:30; McLain and Sternquist, 1991:40; Balabanis *et al.*, 2001:170). Josaissen *et al.* (2011:632) examined the contradictory results and found no evidence to support the argument. Their argument, therefore, gives merit to Bawa's (2004:44) assertion that the dominant view is that women show more ethnocentric tendencies.

Responses from this study show that male participants agreed with six statements except Q2 while more variances were seen amongst responses put forward by their female counterparts. Female participants agreed with four statements (Q1, Q3, Q4 and Q5) and disagreed with three (Q2, Q6 and Q7). Resultantly, male participants display greater ethnocentric tendencies than their female counterparts. Despite these responses, a hypothesis test showed that no significant association exists. H4 hypothesis was rejected as no significant association was identified between CE and respondents gender.

H4: Females display greater ethnocentric tendencies than their male counterparts.

5.2.2 Brand Consideration

According to the existing literature, the term 'consideration' was developed as a means to describe consumers' predisposition to confine their choices to a given set of options. According to Howard (1977:306), the consideration ('evoked') set is "the subset of brands that a consumer considers buying out of the set of brands that he or she is aware of in a given product class". Ideally, consumers establish groups and categorise brands during selection. Due to the link between product evaluation and consideration, consumer evaluation is believed to result in the formation of perceptions, attitude and opinions about a product (Hulland, 1999:25). The link between consideration and evaluation made it possible to estimate consideration through product evaluation.

As stated in chapter 2 (Literature review), a consideration measurement instrument was developed from other instruments. Eight consideration questions were asked establishing consumer attitudes as determined by a range of product characteristics such as design, durability, workmanship and value for money. The results showed a lower than the estimated mean score (24.12716) which shows a moderately favourable attitude towards convenience products. The association between consideration and attitude towards products only leads toward the conclusion that respondents display positive considerations for foreign convenience products.

The Pearson's chi-square test also revealed the existence of significant relationships between consumer demographics and the following questions:

Q11. Foreign products are of great value;

Q12. Foreign brand are of low quality;

Q13. Happy with foreign brand; and

Q14. Likely to recommend foreign brands.

Results obtained illustrate the existence of significant relationships between respondent's age category and Q11. That is, mean scores show that participants generally agreed with the statement. An association was also discovered between Q11 and the respondent's gender. Associations were also discovered between respondent's race and gender and Q12. Their mean score shows that participants generally disagreed with this statement. Respondent's race showed other associations with Q13 and Q14 to which participants generally agreed with both statements. Overall mean score to each of the consideration questions show that participants disagreed with four and agreed with four. Participants stated that foreign brands were of great value, that they were happy with the brands that they had come across and that they would recommend these brands. Although this is the case, inconsistencies within the measuring instrument led to the transformation of data and, therefore, leave's room for scepticism about the research findings. Nonetheless, a one-sample t-test revealed that respondents displayed moderately positive considerations towards foreign convenience products. This positive attitude could be the result of a long history of foreign product consumption and favourable rating of imported products, specifically from MDCs (De Run *et al.*, 2012:7).

Although results show a favourable consideration towards foreign products, the given product category (convenience products) requires little involvement by the consumer. For more involved products, consumers may display an even more

positive attitude and greater consideration for foreign products (Roth and Romeo, 1992:493; Giraldi and Ikeda, 2009:309; Han (2010:67).

5.2.3 Consideration and Consumer Ethnocentrism

One of the main research objectives was to determine the association between consideration and CE. CE results in positive attitudes towards domestic products and a general negative attitude towards foreign products (Vida and Reardon, 2008:35). The assumption is, therefore, the stronger the ethnocentrism, the more positive the consumers' attitude will be towards domestic products and the greater the domestic preference. Pearson's correlation shows the existence of a weak positive correlation between brand consideration and CE (Table 15).

According to the study, staff members and students of DUT and UKZN exhibit ethnocentric tendencies. The results from the brand consideration section also show relatively positive attitudes towards foreign brands and, consequently, a moderately positive consideration.

Based on the research model (Figure 1), consumer demographics moderate the effects of CE and ultimately alter product considerations. The research has revealed that only race has a significant relationship with CE. Based on these findings, Black South Africans display the strongest ethnocentric tendencies, followed by Coloureds, Indians and, lastly, White South Africans. Therefore, Black South Africans are more likely to exhibit negative consideration of foreign convenience products. A number of studies investigating the relationship between consumer attitudes towards the importation of foreign products and consumer ethnocentrism have found that the

more ethnocentric consumers are, the more likely they would be to oppose the importation of foreign goods (Javalgi et al., 2005:332). A study by Pentz (2011:246) pointed to a negative relationship between CE and the attitude of White and Black South Africans towards foreign clothing apparel (Chinese). In support of these findings, a study by Bevan-Dye *et al.* (2012:5584) also discovered that South African consumers showed ethnocentric tendencies but deferred slightly stating that they exhibited a level of materialism, which culminated in the consumption of foreign products. Resultantly materialism may be the cause for foreign product purchases. H5 hypothesis below was rejected.

H5: Consumer ethnocentrism leads to a negative consideration of foreign convenience brands.

5.3 CONCLUSION

As stated within the previous chapter, the existence of ethnocentric tendencies is evident. The results from the study show that only race displayed a notable influence on ethnocentrism. Evidence does not support the influence of any other demographic data (age, gender and education). As discussed, this was a deviation from existing literature, which supported significant associations between age as well as gender on CE. Due to the impact participants' race had on CE, it is likely that it will affect product consideration. As discussed within the chapter, a weak association was discovered between CE and BC. Based on the result, Black participants displayed the most ethnocentric inclination and would possess fewer favourable considerations for foreign products. Inconsistencies within the research instrument that produced the given findings have also highlighted suggestions for further testing.

Within the next chapter (chapter 6), a conclusion as well as recommendations from the study will be provided.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this concluding chapter to the study, the findings emanating from the research will be addressed. A summary of the study will precede a discussion of the empirical results from the study which will be centred on the findings from earlier studies. The chapter will also contain limitations of the study and will conclude with suggestions for further study as well as implications of the results provided.

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The underlying premise behind the study has been the interest into the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and the selection of brands with the objective of not only determining the relationship between CE and selection but to establish the connection CE has with convenience products. According to Dickčius *et al.* (2010:109), the prominence of country of origin in emerging economies over the years has encouraged such an interest. The notion of ethnocentrism which has been described as a “sociological concept that refers to a tendency to regard the beliefs, standards and code of behaviour of one’s own as superior to those found in other societies,” is an aspect which has been of key interest in the advancement of COO research (Nadiri and Tümer, 2010:445).

One of the objectives of the study was to illustrate how salient ethnocentrism is among South African consumers of different ages, gender, education and race. A study by Pentz (2011:238) highlighted the existence of notable ethnocentric tendencies amongst different research participants. As a result of that study, the

current study sought to explore the influence demographic characteristics have on CE. More than a few studies have explored the idea of the correlation between CE and consumer demographics (Huddleston *et al.*, 2001:238). As a result, four demographic characteristics were highlighted within the study, namely, race, gender, age and education. For the purpose of adequately catering for these demographic characteristics, the study was delimited to students and staff members at universities in the greater Durban area.

The establishment of consumer choice sets upon a given purchasing occasion has also been subject to some debate (Simonson and Tversky, 1992:359). According to Ranjanbarian and Kia (2010:262), understanding the formulation and collection of such a set may prove to be helpful in the development of management strategies. Since the place of origin of a brand has been believed to supersede other product cues (Tse and Gorn, 1993:58) the study, therefore, sought to determine the influence that place of origin has on product selection, that is, place of origin as expressed through ethnocentric tendencies. Variances have also been found mainly in the low involvement category which is comprised mainly of convenience product brands (Lin and Chen, 2006:254). Within the study, no specific country of origin was highlighted in order to establish ethnocentrism without highlighting any aversion to a specific country or group of countries. The study was therefore delimited to domestic and foreign convenience products.

A descriptive, cross-sectional methodology was used. Students and staff from two tertiary institutions within the Durban area were sampled and surveyed using quota and purposive sampling. Participants were asked to respond to questions within a

self-completion questionnaire. The results obtained from the CETSCALE section revealed the existence of moderate ethnocentric tendencies among the research participants. The following hypotheses were rejected; H1: A positive relationship exists between age and CE; H2: A negative correlation exists between the level of education and CE; H3: Ethnocentric tendencies are the same amongst the different races; and H4: Females display greater ethnocentric tendencies than their male counterparts. The study also revealed a weak correlation between CE and Brand consideration ($r = 0.067$; $p = 0.156$) to which H5: Consumer ethnocentrism leads to a negative consideration of foreign convenience brands was also rejected.

6.3 RESEARCH FINDINGS

The association between consumers and foreign products has long since been explained through COO studies (Chao, 2001:68; Ulgado, 2002:253; Thakor and Lavack, 2003:396; Insch and McBride, 2004:258). Consumer attitudes can be developed through consumer interactions with products from that country or region (Han, 1989:223). Consumers develop positive or negative associations, which have been known to influence purchasing behaviour (Lampert and Jaffe, 1996:27; Manrai *et al.*, 1998:594). The evolution of COO studies identified an underlying preference for domestic products referred to as CE. The results of the current study have revealed the existence of such a relationship. This preference was generally moderate as no exclusive preference for domestic brands (only) was demonstrated by participants.

The relationship between consumers and a brand's place of origin has also been known to be product category specific (Lu, 2008:63). The COO effect has been

known to vary with specific product categories as consumers have been known to favour products from certain countries, especially if that country has a good reputation for producing that product category (Bhaskaran and Sukumaran, 2007:71). The results from this study showed that for products that require little consumer involvement (convenience products), consumers are still very much aware of the products' country of origin.

Country of origin preference, as expressed through consumer ethnocentrism is influential within the selection of product brands based upon the research findings. It is evident that attitudes cannot be divorced from the purchasing process and are intrinsic to the selection of brands, both domestic and foreign. Consequently, attitudes can determine whether or not a product or brand may be considered for selection within a consumer choice set. Even in the developing world, the place of origin plays an important role. African countries are no different, displaying ethnocentric patterns, which showed a preference for domestic product brands (Mensah *et al.*, 2011:25).

The study also focused on the moderating effects of consumer demographics on product selection. Variances have been identified in a number of studies done around the world. The results revealed that respondents are influenced by their racial identity. It is, therefore, apparent that the strength of one racial identity cannot be overlooked. All other factors (age, gender and education) were shown to have an insignificant effect on purchasing behaviour. Essentially, the results reflect the ethnocentric tendencies of the Black South Africans, as this constituted the largest portion of the research sample.

The findings led to the rejection of three hypotheses and the acceptance of one as stated below:

H1: A positive relationship exists between age and CE.

H1 was rejected as no significant difference was identified in respondent's responses when analysed according to their ages. The responses provided by younger respondents were similar to those provided by older respondents'.

H2: A negative correlation exists between the level of education and CE.

H2 was rejected as no significant difference was identified amongst respondents' responses when analysed according to their education.

H3: Ethnocentric tendencies are the same amongst the different races

H3 was accepted as a significant difference was identified amongst respondents' responses when analysed according to their race.

H4: Females display greater ethnocentric tendencies than their male counterparts

H4 was rejected as no significant difference was identified amongst respondents' responses when analysed according to their gender. No significant difference was identified between male and female responses.

The development of a consideration set is subject to some COO scrutiny. As a result, consideration of products, even of convenience products, is filtered through a moderately weak ethnocentric lens. It is evident that, even within developing countries, the place of origin of the brand is of importance and is influential in the

purchasing decision making. As a result, H5 below was rejected because of the weak association between CE and brand consideration.

H5: Consumer ethnocentrism leads to a negative consideration of foreign convenience brands.

6.4 LIMITATIONS

One of the major limitations to the study was the researcher's inability to obtain the desired sample size. The distribution of research participants was skewed in favour Black South Africans under the age of thirty-five. All other racial groups made up less than 40% of the total sample. Although the sample may have been representative of the South African population, the sample contained smaller numbers of other racial groups (White, Coloured and Indian) except for Blacks. The validity and reliability of the findings would have been improved had more respondents from the racial minorities been surveyed.

Another limitation is the fact that the study could not be conducted in real-time. The researcher could not obtain the data during the participants' purchasing process. This thereby limits the accuracy of responses given by each participant. On that same note, questionnaires were not handed out at the points of purchase or within the vicinity of supermarkets or other places of retail.

The fact that the research instrument has not been extensively tested is also a limitation to the applicability of obtained results. Shortcomings were also identified during the analysis of the data collected, resulting in the manipulation of results for

the interpretation of findings. The brand consideration section produced unacceptable Cronbach alpha results (0.644).

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

In order to fully exploit any opportunity available, foreign brand marketers should clearly understand consumer value structures. The marketing efforts of non-traditional exporters to South Africa as well as traditional exporters can benefit from a better understanding of the South African consumer. Both local and foreign companies should pursue the idea of exploring CE tendencies as this may prove beneficial in the establishment of marketing strategies (Vida and Fairhurst, 1999:332). Managerial implications of this study will be outlined below as well as the potential areas for proceeding studies within this field.

6.5.1 Managerial Implications

Companies should continue to recognise the strength of the South African consumers' preference for domestic products and brands. Much emphasis should be placed in promoting the idea of local brands within the context of advertising. International companies should continue to explore the idea of establishing domestic links for their brands in order to better tap into the South African market.

Companies should work more closely with the Proudly SA organisation in promoting the Proudly South Africa brand. According to Hoskisson, Eden, Lau, and Wright (2000:252), institutions such as Proudly SA provide the directions that structure human interactions and, in this case, such an institution finds itself in a unique position capable of structuring consumer and brand interactions. According to Habib

and Bentley (2008:10), the national identity is an amalgamation of all other identities bridging the gap between individuals with different identities.

6.5.2 Academic Implications

The study is a pioneering undertaking in the analysis of South African consumer behaviour. Although it may be seen as a spinoff from other ethnocentrism studies within the country, it is the first study to analyse the relationship between CE and product consideration. The study is also the first to analyse the concept of consumer ethnocentrism in the KwaZulu-Natal province. This study also examines the effects of ethnocentrism on all four major racial groups within South Africa. This, therefore, provides greater insight into the behaviour of consumers within South Africa.

The study is the first to look into the establishment of a consideration set in South Africa as well as the first to undertake the development of a measure of brand consideration. The potential for the establishment of a new attitudinal instrument creates new venues within the academic field for further research, thereby, allowing for a greater understanding of the influence of consumer attitudes on purchasing behaviour.

6.5.3 Future Research

Within the study, only the following four demographic factors were considered namely, age, gender, education and race, where race was the only moderating factor discovered to have a significant correlation with the CE. It, therefore, follows that further research be conducted to verify these findings. The research sample should also include sufficiently large numbers of participants from all ethnicities and racial

groupings. The sample size should also contain equal numbers of male and female participants as well as large numbers of older and younger participants. Focus should also be placed on understanding the impact of other demographic characteristics on product selection. The relationships of CE and other socio-economic characteristics such as the income levels of consumers, are potential areas for future research.

Another limitation is the fact that only one product category was used during the study. Future studies should endeavour to include a wider range of product categories, which would improve the applicability of the results. The research should also encompass other product categories. Future studies should take into account the fact that consumers shop for multiple product categories. Studies have mainly been focused on a limited range of product categories such as electronics and conspicuous consumption products. Studies should take into account other product categories such as shopping goods, specialty products and unsought products.

Another area of possible future studies should be focused on the development of a consideration instrument. Inconsistencies identified within the current study make the need for a proven reliable measuring instrument a key area for further study. The concept of consideration should also take into account other information cues. Research should combine intrinsic and extrinsic information cues to be able to adequately determine the factors that influence product selection and choice.

6.6 CONCLUSION

The underlying premise behind the study was the desire to determine the effect of CE on the establishment of a consideration set of convenience products. As a result three objectives were set and were all achieved. An association was established between one of the four demographic factors and CE. Consumers within the Durban area were found to be moderately ethnocentric with race being the only significantly influential demographic characteristic. It was concluded that Black South Africans display the highest level of CE.

The results also revealed that South African consumers possess positive considerations for foreign convenience products. Results also revealed the existence of a weak association between CE and brand consideration. It was concluded that CE has an insignificant effect on the consideration of foreign convenience products as evidenced by the weak association between CE and brand consideration. Limitations subsequent to the research were also identified and recommendations for future studies were provided. Managerial as well academic implications of the study, which were based on the findings, were also provided.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abougomaah, N. H., Schlacter, J. L. and Gaidis, W. 1987. Elimination and choice phases in evoked set formation. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 4(4): 67-72.
- Acebrón, L., B, and Dopico, D. C. 2000. The importance of intrinsic and extrinsic cues to expected and experienced quality: An empirical application for beef. *Food Quality and Preference*, 11(3): 229-238.
- Acharya, C. and Elliott, G. 2003. Consumer ethnocentrism, perceived product quality and choice: An empirical investigation. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 15(4): 87-114.
- Adorno, T. W., Frenkel-Brunswik, E., Levinson, D. J. and Sanford, R. N. 1950. *The authoritarian personality*. New York, NY: Harper and Row.
- Ahmed, S. A., d' Astous, A. and El-Adraoui, M. 1994. Country-of-origin effects on purchasing managers product perceptions. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 23(4): 323-332.
- Ahmed, Z. U., Johnson J. P., Yang, X., Fatt, C. K., Teng, H. S. and Boon, L. C. 2004. Does country of origin matter for low-involvement products? *International Marketing Review*, 21(1): 102-120.

- Allport, F. H. 1934. The J-curve of the conforming hypothesis. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 5: 141-183.
- Al-Sulaiti, K. I. and Baker, M. J. 1998. Country-of-origin effects: A literature review. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 16(3): 150-99.
- Altinaş, M. H. and Tokol, T. 2007. Cultural openness and consumer ethnocentrism: An empirical analysis of Turkish consumers. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 25(4): 308-325.
- Amonini, C., Keogh, J. and Sweeney, J. C. 1998. The dual nature of country-of-origin effects. A study of Australian consumers' evaluations. *Australian Marketing Journal*, 6(2): 13-26.
- Anderson, W. T. and Cunningham, W. H. 1972. Gauging foreign product promotion. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 12(1): 29-34.
- Andrew, D. P. S., Pedersen, P. M. and MacEvoy, C. D. 2011. *Research methods and design in sport management*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Andrews, R. L. and Srinivasan, T. C. 1995. Studying consideration effects in empirical choice models using scanner panel data. *Journal of Marketing Research*. 30-41.

Arnould, E. J., Price, L. and Zinkhan, G. M. 2004. *Consumers*. 2nd Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Armstrong, G. and Kotler, P. 2011. *Marketing: An introduction*, 10th ed. N.J: Prentice Hall.

Asadoorian, M. O. and Kantarelis, D. 2005. *Essentials of inferential statistics*, Oxford, University Press of America.

Asamoah, E. S, Chovancová, M., De Alwis, A. C., Kumara, S. M. A. and Guo, Y. 2011. Motivation for buying branded items: A cross country application of Maslows hierarchy of needs in consumer decision making. University of Pardubice, Pardubice, the Czech Republic.

Babbie, E. 2001. *The practice of social research*, 9th ed. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.3.

Babbie, E. 2012. *The practice of social research*, 13th ed. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.

Balabanis, G., Diamantopoulos, A., Mueller, R. D. and Melewar, T. C. 2001. The impact of nationalism, patriotism and internationalism on consumer ethnocentric tendencies. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32 (1): 157-175.

- Balabanis, G. and Diamantopoulos, A. 2004. Domestic country bias, country-of-origin effects, and consumer ethnocentrism: A multidimensional unfolding approach. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 32(1): 80-95.
- Bandara, W. W. M. C. and Miloslava, C. 2012. Consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards foreign beer brands: With evidence from Zlin Region in the Czech Republic. *Journal of Competitiveness*, 4(2): 3-19.
- Bandyopadhyay, S. 2001. Competitiveness of foreign products as perceived by consumers in the emerging Indian market. *Consumer Research*, 11(1): 53-64.
- Bandyopadhyay, S. 2012. Ethnocentrism in Icelandic consumers and its consequences. *International Business and Economics Research Journal*, 11(3): 307-314.
- Bannister, J. P. and Saunders, J. A. 1978. UK consumers' attitudes towards imports: The measurement of national stereotype image. *European Journal of Marketing*, 12(8): 562-570.
- Bargh, J. A. 2002. Losing consciousness: Automatic influences on consumer judgment, behavior, and motivation. *Journal of consumer research*, 29(2): 280-285.

- Batra, R., Ramaswamy, V., Alden, D. L., Steenkamp, J-BEM and Ramachander, S. 2000. Effects of brand local and non-local origin on consumer attitudes in developing countries. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 9(2): 83-95.
- Batra, R. and Ray, M. L. 1986. Situational effects of advertising repetition: The moderating influence of motivation, ability, and opportunity to respond. *Journal of Consumer research*: 432-445.
- Bawa, A. 2004. Consumer ethnocentrism: CETSCALE validation and measurement of extent. *Vikalpa*, 29(3): 43-57.
- Belonax, J. A. and Mittelstaedt, R. A. 1978. Evoked set size as a function of number of choice criterion and information variability. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 5: 48-51.
- Bevan-Dye, A., Garnett, A. and de Klerk, N. 2012. Materialism, status consumption and consumer ethnocentrism amongst black generation Y students in South Africa. *African Journal of Business Management*, 6(16): 5578-5586.
- Bilkey, W. J. and Nes, E. 1982. Country-of-origin effects on product evaluation. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 8(1): 89-99.
- Bhaskaran, S. and Sukumaran, N. 2007. Contextual and methodological issues in COO studies. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 25(1): 66-81.

- Bow, J. and Ford, M. 1993. Indonesia and China: The retail of two cities. *Asian Business*, 29(10): 12-14.
- Brisoux, J. E. and Laroche, M. 1980. A proposed consumer strategy of simplification for categorizing brands. In: John D. Summey and R.D. Taylor (Eds.). *Evolving marketing thought for 1980, Proceedings of the annual meeting of the Southern Marketing Association*. Carbondale. IL. Southern Marketing Association: 112-114.
- Brown, R. 2000. Social identity theory: past achievements, current problems and future challenges. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 30(6): 745-778.
- Burns, A. C. and Bush, R. F. 2003. *Marketing research: Online research application*, 4th ed. Prentice Hall: New Jersey.
- Burton, D. 2000. Ethnicity, identity and marketing: A critical review. *Journal of Marketing*, 16(8): 853-877.
- Cai, Y. 2002. Country-of-origin effects on consumers' willingness to buy foreign products: An Experiment in Consumer Decision. Unpublished masters' dissertation, monograph. University of Georgia: 2-90.
- Carter, L. L. Jr. 2009. Consumer receptivity of foreign products: The roles of country-of-origin image, consumer ethnocentrism and animosity.

Unpublished doctoral dissertation, monograph. Old Dominion University: 1-172.

Caruana, A. 1996. The effects of dogmatism and social class variables on consumer ethnocentrism in Malta. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 14(4): 39-45.

Cattin, P., Jolibert, A. and Lohnes, C. 1982. A cross-cultural study of "Made in" concepts. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 13: 131-141.

Chao, P. 1993. Partitioning country of origin effects: Consumer evaluations of a hybrid product. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 24(2): 291-306.

Chao, P. 2001. The moderating effects of country of assembly, country of parts, and country of design on hybrid product evaluations. *Journal of Advertising*, 30(4): 67-81.

Chattalas, M., Kramer, T. and Takada, H. 2008. The impact of national stereotypes on the country-of-origin effect. *International Marketing Review*, 25(1): 54-74.

Cheong, A. L. H. 2011. Country of origin information, ethnocentrism and perceived quality of mobile phones: Experience from the field. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, 7(6): 15-32.

- Chryssochoidis, G., Krystallis, A. and Perreas, P. 2007. Ethnocentric beliefs and country-of-origin (COO) effect. Impact of country, product and product attributes on Greek consumers evaluation of food products. *European Journal of Marketing*, 41(11/12): 1518-1544.
- Churchill, D. A. and Iacobusi, D. 2010. *Market Research. Methodological Foundations*, 2nd ed. Ohio: Mason.
- Cooil, B., Keiningham, T. L., Aksoy, L. and Hsu, M. 2007. A longitudinal analysis of customer satisfaction and share of wallet: Investigating the moderating effect of customer characteristics. *Journal of Marketing*, 7: 67-83.
- Cordell, V. 1991. Competitive context and price as moderators of country of origin preferences. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 19(2): 123-8.
- Cordell, V. 1992. Effects of consumer preferences for foreign sourced products. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23(2): 251-69.
- Cronbach, L. J. 1951. Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, 16(3): 297-334.
- Dahlen, M., Lange, F. and Smith, T. 2010. *Marketing Communications: A brand narrative approach*. West Sussex: John Wiley and Sons.

- Damanpour, F. 1993. Temporal shifts of developed country-images: A 20 year view. In: Papadopoulos, N. and Heslop, L.A. (Eds.), *Product-Country Images*: 357-78.
- d'Astous, A. and Ahmed, S. A. 1999. The importance of country images in the formation of consumer product perceptions. *International Marketing Review*, 16(2): 108-126.
- Republic of South Africa, Department of Higher Education and Training. 2013. *Statistics on Post-School Education and Training in South Africa: 2011* [Online]. Available: <http://www.dhet.gov.za>. Accessed [25 February 2014].
- De Run, E. C. and Chan, A. W. S., and Khalique, M. 2012. Attitudinal and behavioural response to country of origin cues for low involvement product. *International Journal of Research Studies in Management*, 1(2): 3-14.
- De Ruyter, K., van Birgelen, M. and Wetzels, M. 1998. Consumer ethnocentrism in international services marketing. *International Business Review*, 7: 185-202.
- Dichter, E. 1962. The world customer. *Harvard Business Review*, 40(4): 113-122.
- Dikčius, V. and Stankevičienė, G. 2010. Perception of country of brand origin and country of product manufacturing among Lithuanians and emigrants from Lithuania. *Organisations and Markets in Emerging Economies*, 1(2): 108-120.

- Dornoff, R., Tankersley, C. and White, G. 1974. Consumer's perceptions of imports. *Akron Business and Economic Review*, 5: 26-29.
- Douglas, S. P. and Nijssen, E. J. 2003. On the use of borrowed scales in cross-national research. *International Marketing Review*, 20(6): 621-642.
- Durvasula, S., Andrews, J. C. and Netemeyer, R.G. 1997. A cross-cultural comparison of consumer ethnocentrism in the United States and Russia. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 9(4): 73-93.
- Elliott, G. R. and Cameron, R. C. 1994. Consumer perception of product quality and the country-of-origin effect. *Journal of International Marketing*, 2(2): 49-62.
- Erdem, T. and Swait, J. 2004. Brand credibility, brand consideration, and choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(1): 191-198.
- Erickson, G. M., Johansson, J. K. and Chao, P. 1984. Image variables in multi-attribute product evaluation: Country of origin effects. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 11: 694-699.
- Erickson, G., Jacobson, J. and Johansson, J. K. 1992. Competition for market share in the presence of strategic invisible assets: the US automobile market, 1971-1981. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 9(1): 23-37.

- Eroglu, S. A. and Machleit, K. A. 1988. Effects of individual and product-specific variables on utilising country of origin as a product quality cue. *International Marketing Review*, 6(6): 27-41.
- Estifanos, S. W. 2003. The importance of country-of-origin information on product evaluation: A study of South African consumers. Unpublished master's dissertation, monograph. University of Natal. Durban.
- EThekweni Municipality 2011. *Integrated Development Plan*. Ver. 003, 15 June.
- Evanschitzky, H., Wangenheim, F., Woisetschläger, D. and Blut, M. 2008. Consumer ethnocentrism in the German market. *International Marketing Review*, 25(1): 7-32.
- Festervand, T. A. and Sokoya, S. K. 1994. Consumer ethnocentrism in a developing country: A preliminary investigation. *The International Executive*, 36(1): 95-105.
- Fisher, R. J and Dubé, L. 2005. Gender Differences in Responses to Emotional Advertising: A Social Desirability Perspective. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31 (4): 850-857.
- Flick, U. 2002. Qualitative research-state of the art. *Social science information*, 41(1): 5-24.

- Fournier, S. 1998. Consumers and their brands: Developing relationship theory in consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24(4): 343-353.
- Foxall, G. R., Goldsmith, R. E. and Brown, S. 1998. *Consumer psychology for marketing*, 1. Cengage Learning EMEA: 3-8.
- Foxall, G. R., Oliveira-Castro, J. M., James, V. K and Schrezenmaier, T. C. 2011. Consumer behaviour analysis and the behavioural perspective model. Management Online Review.
- Ger, G., Belk, R. W. and Lascu, D. N. 1993. The development of consumer desire in marketizing and developing economies: The cases of Romania and Turkey. *Advances in consumer research*, 20(1): 102-107.
- Giraldi, J. M. D. and Ikeda, A. A. (2009). Personal values and the country-of-origin effect: the moderating role of consumers' demographics. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 33 (3): 309.
- Goddard, W. and Melville, S. 2004. *Research Methodology: An Introduction*, 2nd ed. South Africa: Juta and Company Ltd: Lansdowne.
- Good, L. K. and Huddleston, P. 1995. Ethnocentrism of Polish and Russian consumers: Are feelings and intentions related? *International Marketing Review*, 12(5): 35-48.

- Granzin, K. L. and Painter, J. J. 2001. Motivational influences on buy domestic purchasing: Marketing management implications from a study of two nations. *Journal of International Marketing*, 9(2): 73-96.
- Gravetter, F. J. and Farzano, L. B. 2011. *Research methods for the behavioural sciences*, 4th ed. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.
- Habib, A. and Benlty, K. 2008. *Racial redress*. Cape Town, South Arica: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) Press.
- Hamin H. and Elliott G. 2005. A less-developed country perspective of “country of origin” effects: Indonesian Evidence. *Proceedings of ANZMAC Conference: Marketing Issues in Asia*: 32-38.
- Hamin, H. and Elliott, G. 2006. A less-developed country perspective of consumer ethnocentrism and country-of-origin effects: Indonesian evidence. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 18(2): 79-92.
- Hammond, R. A. and Axolrod, R. 2006. The evolution of ethnocentrism. *The Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 50(6): 926-936.
- Han, C. M. 1989. Country image: halo or summary construct? *Journal of Marketing Research*, 26: 222-9.

- Han, C. M. 1988. The role of consumer patriotism in the choice of domestic versus foreign products. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 28(3): 25-32.
- Han, C. M. and Terpstra, V. 1988. Country-of-origin effects for uni-national and bi-national products. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19: 235-255.
- Hanzaee, K. H. and Khosrozadeh, S. 2011. The effect of the country-of-origin image, product knowledge and product involvement on information search and purchase intention. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 8(3): 625-636.
- Hauser, J. R. and Birger, W. 1990. An evaluation cost model of evoked sets. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(4): 393-408.
- Heide, J. B. and Weiss, A. M. 1995. Vendor consideration and switching behaviour for buyers in high-technology markets. *Journal of Marketing*, 59(3): 30-43.
- Henry, G. T. 1990. *Practical Sampling*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Herche, J. 1992. A note on the predictive validity of the CETSCALE. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 20(3): 261-264.
- Heslop, L. and Papadopoulos, N., 1993. But who knows where or when: Reflections on the images of countries and their products. In: Papadopoulos,

- N and Heslop, L. (Eds.). *Product-country images: Impact and role in international marketing*. New York, International Business Press: 39-75.
- Hogg, M. A. and Terry, D. J. 2000. Social identity and self-categorisation processes in organisational contexts. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(1): 121-140.
- Homburg, C. and Giering, A. 2001. Personal characteristics as moderators of the relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty-an empirical analysis. *Psychology and Marketing*, 18(1): 43-66.
- Hoskisson, R. E., Eden, L., Lau, C. M. and Wright, M. 2000. Strategy in emerging economies. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 43(3): 249-267.
- Howard, J. A. 1977. *Consumer Behaviour: Application of Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Howard, J. A. and Sheth, J. 1969. *The Theory of Buyer Behaviour*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Hsieh, M. H., Pan, S. L. and Setiono, R. 2004. Product-, corporate-, and country-image dimensions and purchase behavior: A multicountry analysis. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 32(3): 251-270.

- Huddleston, P., Good, L. K. and Stoel, L. 2001. Consumer ethnocentrism, product necessity and Polish consumers' perceptions of quality. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, 29(5): 236-246.
- Hugstad, P. and Durr, M., 1986. A study of country of manufacturer impact on consumer perceptions. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 9: 155-99.
- Hulland, J. S. 1999. The effects of country-of-brand and brand name on product evaluation and consideration. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 11(1): 23-40.
- Hult, G. T. M., Keillor, B. D. and Lafferty, B. A. 1999. A cross-national assessment of social desirability bias and consumer ethnocentrism. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 12(4):29-43.
- Insch, G. S. and McBride, J. B. 2004. The impact of country-of-origin cues on consumer perceptions of product quality: a bi-national test of the decomposed country-of-origin construct. *Journal of business research*, 57(2): 256-265.
- Jacoby, J. O. and Haddock, R. 1971. Price, brand name, and product composition characteristics as determinants of perceived quality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 55: 570-579.

- Jaffe, E. D. and Carlos, R. M. 1995. Mexican consumer attitudes towards domestic and foreign made products. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 7(3): 7-27.
- Javalgi, R. G., Khare, V. P., Gross, A. C. and Scherer, R. F. 2005. An application of the consumer ethnocentrism model to French consumers. *International Business Review*, 14(3): 325-344.
- Jaffe, E. D. and Nebenzahl, I. D. 2002. National image and competitive advantage: the theory and practice of country of origin effect. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 18(3/4): 396-398.
- Johansson, J. K., Douglas, S. P. and Nonaka, I. 1985. Assessing the impact of country of origin on product evaluations: a new methodological perspective. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 19: 388-396.
- Jones, G. G. 2006. The rise of corporate nationality. *Harvard business review*: 20-22.
- Josiassen, A., Assaf, A. G. and Karpen, I. O. 2011. Consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy: Analyzing the role of three demographic consumer characteristics. *International Marketing Review*, 28(6): 627-646

- Kardes, F. R., Kalyanaram, G., Chandrashekar, M. and Dornoff, R. J. 1993. Brand retrieval, consideration set composition, consumer choice, and the pioneering advantage. *Journal of Consumer Research*: 62-75.
- Kaufman-Scarborough, C. 2000. Asian-American consumers as a unique market segment: fact or fallacy? *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 17(3): 249-62.
- Kaynak, E. and Kara, A. 1996. Consumer life-style and ethnocentrism: A comparative study in Kyrgyzstan and Azerbaijan Proceedings of 49th *Esomar Congress Proceedings*, Istanbul /Amsterdam, Esomar: 577-96.
- Kaynak, E. and Kara, A. 2002. Consumer perceptions of foreign products: An analysis of product-country images and ethnocentrism. *European Journal of Marketing*, 36(7/8): 928-949.
- Klein, J. G. and Ettenson, R. 1999. Consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism: An analysis of unique antecedents. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 11(4): 5-24.
- Klein, J. G., Ettenson, R. and Krishnan, B. C. 2006. Extending the construct of consumer ethnocentrism: When foreign products are preferred. *International Marketing Review*, 23(3): 304-321.
- Kotler, P. and Armstrong, G. 2008. *Principles of marketing*, 12th ed. New Jersey: Pearson Global Edition.

- Kwak, H., Jaju, A. and Larsen, T. 2006. Consumer ethnocentrism offline and online: The mediating role of marketing efforts and personality traits in the United States, South Korea and India. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 34(3): 367-385.
- Kraetke, V. 2000. Analysis of a tooth paste brand-a low involvement good. Unpublished term paper. University of Auckland, Auckland.
- Kroeber-Riel, W. 1992. *Konsumentenverhalten*, 5. München: Vahlen.
- Lampert, S. I. and Jaffe, E. D. 1996. Country of origin effects of international market entry. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 10(2): 27-52.
- Lantz, G. and Loeb, S. 1996. Country of origin and ethnocentrism: An analysis of Canadian and American preferences using social identity theory. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 23: 374-378.
- Lapersonne, E., Laurent, G. and Le Goff, J. J. 1995. Consideration sets of size one: An empirical investigation of automobile purchases. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 12 (1): 55-66.
- Laroche, M., Papadopoulos, N., Heslop, L. and Murali, M. 2005. The influence of country image structure on consumer evaluations of foreign products. *International Marketing Review*, 22(1): 96-115.

- Laroche, M., Rosenblatt, J. A. and Sinclair, I. 1984. Brand categorization strategies in an extensive problem solving situation: A study of university choice, in Thomas C. Kinnear (Eds.). *Advances in Consumer Research*, Ann Arbor, MI. Association for Consumer Research: 175-179.
- Lawrence. C., Marr, N. E. and Prendergast, G. P. 1992. Country of origin stereotyping: a case study in the New Zealand motor vehicle Industry. *Asia Pacific International Journal of Marketing*, 4(1): 37-51.
- Lee, W., Hong, J. and Lee, S. 2003. Communicating with American consumers in the post 9/11 climate: An empirical investigation of consumer ethnocentrism in the United States. *International Journal of Advertising*, 22(4): 487-510.
- Leonidou, L. C., Hadjimarcou, J., Kaleka, A. and Stamenova, G. T. 1999. Bulgarian consumer's perceptions of products made in Asia Pacific. *International Marketing Review*, 16(2): 126-142.
- Lehmann, D. R. and Pan, Y. 1994. Context effects, new brand entry, and consideration sets. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31(3): 364-374.
- Leung, L. and Bougoure, U. 2008. *The effects of brand relationships on brand consideration and brand equity for services*. In. ANZMAC 2008, 1-3 December 2008, University of Western Sydney.

- Li, W-K. and Wyer, R. S. 1994. The role of country of origin in product evaluations: informational and standard-of-comparison effects. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 3(2): 187-212.
- Lin, L. Y. and Chen, C. H. 2006. The influence of the country-of-origin image, product knowledge and product involvement on consumer purchase decisions: An empirical study of insurance and catering services in Taiwan. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 23(3): 145-155.
- Liefeld, J. 1993. Experiments on country-of-origin effects: review and meta-analysis of effect size. In: Papadopoulos, C and Heslop, L (Eds.). *Product-country images: Impact and role in international marketing*. New York, International Business Press: 117-156.
- Lindquist, J. D., Vida, I., Plank, R. E. and Fairhurst, A. 2001. The modified CETSCALE: validity tests in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland. *International Business Review*, 10: 505-516.
- Lowe, G. S., Schellenberg, G. and Shannon, H. S. 2003. Correlates of Employees' Perceptions of a Healthy Work Environment. *American Journal of Health Promotion*, 17(6): 390-399.
- Luo, M. M. 2011. Country-of-Origin (COO) effect on Chinese consumers' evaluation of New Zealand milk powder, Auckland: Master thesis. 1-151

- Luque-Martínez, T., Ibáñez-Zapata, J. A. and del Barrio-García, S. 2000. Consumer ethnocentrism measurement: An assessment of the reliability and validity of the CETSCALE in Spain. *European Journal of Marketing*, 34(11): 1353-1374.
- MacKenzie, S. B., Lutz, R. J. and Belch, G. E. 1986. The role of attitude toward the ad as a mediator of advertising effectiveness: A test of competing explanations. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 23(2): 130-143.
- Malhotra, N. K. 2004. *Marketing research: An applied orientation*, 4th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Manrai, L. A., Lascub, D. and Manrai, A. K. 1998. Interactive effects of country of origin and product category on product evaluations. *International Business Review*, 7: 591-615.
- Martín, O. M. and Cerviño, J. 2011. Towards an integrative framework of brand country of origin recognition determinants: A cross-classified hierarchical model. *International Marketing Review*, 28(6): 530-558.
- McBurney, D. H. 1994. *Research methods*, 3rd ed. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- McLain, S. and Sternquist, B. 1991. Ethnocentric consumers: do they buy American? *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 4 (1/2): 39-57.

- McMillan, J. H. and Schumacher, S. 2001. *Research in education. A conceptual introduction*, 5th ed. New York: Longman.
- Mensah, E. C., Bahhouth, V. and Ziemnowicz, C. 2011. Ethnocentrism and purchase decisions among Ghanaian consumers. *Journal of Applied Business and Economics*, 12(4): 20-25.
- Mertler, C. A. and Vannatta, R. A. 2011. *Advanced multivariate statistical methods. Practical application and interpretation*. 2nd ed. Los Angeles, Carlifonia: Pyrczak Publishing.
- Meyers-Levy, J. 1989. Priming effects on product judgments: A hemispheric interpretation. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(1): 76-86.
- Mitchell, A. A. and Olson, L. C. 1981. Are Product attribute beliefs the only mediator of advertising effects on brand attitudes? *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18: 318-31.
- Mitra, A. 1995. Advertising and the stability of consideration sets over multiple purchase occasions. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 12(1): 81-94.
- Mitra, A. and Lynch, J. G. Jr. 1995. Toward a reconciliation of market power and information theories of advertising effects on price elasticity. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 21(4): 644-659.

- Mittal, V. and Tsiros, M. 1995. Does country of origin transfer between brands? *Advances in Consumer Research*, 22(1): 292-6.
- Moon, B. J. 1996. The roles of consumer ethnocentricity and attitude toward a foreign culture in processing foreign country-of-origin advertisements. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 23(1): 436-439.
- Moonsamy, V. and Singh, S. 2012. Using factor analysis to explore principal components for quality management implementation. *Quality and Quantity*: 1-18.
- Nadiri, H. and Tümer, M. 2010. Influence of ethnocentrism on consumers' intention to buy domestically produced goods: An empirical study in North Cyprus. *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 11(3): 444-461.
- Nagashima, A. 1977. A comparative 'made in' product image survey among Japanese businessmen. *Journal of Marketing*, 41(3): 95-100.
- Narayana, C. L. 1981. Aggregate images of American and Japanese products: implication on international marketing. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 16: 31-5.
- Narayana, C. L. and Markin, R. J. 1975. Consumer behavior and product performance: An alternative conceptualization. *Journal of Marketing*, 39: 1-6.

- Nebenzahl, I., Jaffe, E. and Lampert, S. 1997. Towards a theory of country image effect on product evaluation. *Management International Review*, 37: 27-49.
- Nedungadi, P. 1990. Recall and consumer consideration set: Influencing choice without altering brand evaluation. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17: 263-274.
- Nes, E. and Bilkey, W. J. 1993. A multi-cue test of country-of-origin theory. In: Papadopoulos, N. and Heslop, L. A. (Eds.). *Product-country images*. New York: International Business.
- Netemeyer, R. G., Durvasula, S. and Lichtenstein, D. R. 1991. A cross-national assessment of the reliability and validity of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 28 (3): 320-327.
- Nguyen, T. D., Nguyen, T. T. M. and Barrett, N. J. 2008. Consumer ethnocentrism, cultural sensitivity, and intention to purchase local products – evidence from Vietnam. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 7(1): 88-100.
- Nielsen, J. A. and Spence, M. T. 1997. A test of the stability of the CETSCALE: A measure of consumer's ethnocentric tendencies. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 5(4): 68-76.

- Nijssen, E. J. and Douglas, S. P. 2004. Examining the animosity model in a country with a high level of foreign trade. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 21: 23-38.
- Nworgu, B. G. 1991. *Educational Research: Basic issues and methodology*. Ibadan: Wisdom Publishers.
- Okechuku, C. and Onyemah, V. 1999. Nigerian consumer attitudes toward foreign and domestic products. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 30(3): 611-22.
- Orth, U. R. and Firbasova, Z. 2003. The role of ethnocentrism in food product evaluation. *Agribusiness*, 19(2):137-153.
- Özsomer, A. and Cavusgil, S. T. 1991. Country-of-Origin effects on product evaluations: A sequel to Bilkey and Nes Review. In: Gilly, M. C./Dwyer, F. R. (Eds.), *Enhancing knowledge development in marketing*, Chicago: American Marketing Association, AMA Educators' Proceedings, 2: 269-277.
- Papadopoulos, N. and Heslop, L. 1993. What product-country images are and are not. In: Papadopoulos, N and Heslop, L (Eds.), *Product-country images*. New York, International Business Press: 3-35.
- Papadopoulos, N. and Heslop, L. A. 2003. Country equity and product-country Images: State-of-the-art in research and implications, in Jain, S. C. (Eds.),

Handbook of Research in International Marketing. Cheltenham, Elgar: 402-433.

Pappu, R., Quester, P. G. and Cooksey, R. W. 2007. Country image and consumer-based brand equity: relationships and implications for international marketing. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 38(5): 726-745.

Pentz, C. D. 2011. Consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards domestic and foreign products: a South African study. Unpublished Phd thesis, monograph. Stellenbosh University : 1-249

Petty, R. E., Cacioppo, J. T. and Schumann, D. 1983. Central and peripheral routes to advertising effectiveness: The moderating role of involvement. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 10: 135-146.

Phau, I. and Prendergast, G. 2000. Conceptualizing the country of origin of brand. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 6(3): 159-170.

Phau, I and Suntornnond, V. 2006. Dimensions of consumer knowledge and its impacts on country of origin effects among Australian consumers: a case of fast-consuming product. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 23 (1): 34-42.

- Pharr, J. M. 2005. Synthesizing country-of-origin research from the last decade: Is the concept still salient in an era of global brands? *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 13(4):34-45.
- Piron, F. 2000. Consumers' perception of country-of-origin effect on purchasing intentions of (in)conspicuous products. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 17(4): 308-321.
- Parameswaran, R. and Pisharodi, R. M. 1994. Facets of country of origin image: An empirical assessment. *Journal of Advertising*, 23(1): 43-61.
- Poon, P., Evangelista, F. and Albaum, G. Attitudes of migrants towards foreign-made products: an exploratory study of migrants in Australia. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 27(1): 35–42.
- Quester, P. G., Dzever, S. and Chetty, S. 2000. Country-of-origin effects on purchasing agents' product perceptions: An international perspective. *Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing*, 15(7): 479-95.
- Ramsaran-Fowdar, R. R. 2010. Are males and elderly people more consumer ethnocentric. *World Journal of Management*, 2(1): 117-129.
- Ranjbarian, B. and Kia, M. 2010. The influence of personality traits on consideration set size. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 15(2): 262-269.

- Räty, L. 2009. Does country matter? The country of origin effect on sports apparel users' brand perceptions. Unpublished masters' thesis, monograph. Helsinki School of economics: 3-72.
- Rist, R. C. 1977. On the relations among educational research paradigms: From disdain to detente. *Anthropology and Educational Quarterly*, 8: 42-49.
- Roberts, J. J. and Lattin. 1991. Development and testing of a model of consideration set composition. *Marketing Research*, 28: 429-440.
- Roberts, J. H. and Lattin, J. M. 1997. Consideration: Review of research and prospects for future insights. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 34(3): 406-410.
- Rossiter, J. R. and Chan, A. M. 1998. Ethnicity in business and consumer behaviour. *Journal of Business Research*, 42(2):127–134.
- Roth, M. S. and Romeo, J. B. 1992. Matching product category and country image perceptions: A framework for managing country-of-origin effects. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23(3): 477-497.
- Rothschild, M. L. 1979. Advertising strategies for high and low involvement situations. In: Maloney, J.C., Silverman, B. (Eds.). *Attitude research plays for high stakes*. American Marketing Association Proceedings: 74-93.

- Saffu, K. and Walker, J. H. 2005. An assessment of the consumer ethnocentric scale (CETSCALE) in an advanced and transitional country: The case of Canada and Russia. *International Journal of Management*, 22(4): 556-571.
- Samiee, S. 1994. Customer evaluation of products in a global market. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 25(3): 579- 604.
- Schiffman, L. G. and Kanuk, L. L. 2004. *Consumer behavior*, 8th ed. New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Schwarz, N. and Bohner, G. 2001. The construction of attitudes. manuscript of a chapter in A. Tesser and N. Schwarz (Eds.). *Intrapersonal processes* (Blackwell Handbook of Social Psychology), Oxford, UK: Blackwell: 436-457.
- Schweiger, G., Strebinger, A., Otter, T. and Friederes, G. 1999. Brand structures in consumers' minds – from the manager's drawing board to reality. *Zeitschrift für die gesamte Wertschöpfungskette Automobilwirtschaft*, 2(3): 6-12.
- Schweiger, G., Otter, T. and Strebinger, A. 1997. The influence of country of origin and brand on product evaluation and the implications thereof for location decisions. *Department of Advertising and Marketing Research*, Working paper: 14-20.

Schooler, R. D. 1965. Product bias in the Central American Common Market. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 2(4): 394-397.

Schooler, R. D. 1971. Bias phenomena attendant to the marketing of foreign goods in the US. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 2(1): 71-81.

Sekaran, U. and Bougie, R. 2010. *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*, 5th ed. Chichester. John Wiley and Sons: 294-397.

Sharma, S., Shimp, T. A. and Shin, J. 1995. Consumer ethnocentrism: A test of antecedents and moderators. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23(1): 26-37.

Shankarmahesh, M. N. 2006. Consumer ethnocentrism: An integrative review of its antecedents and consequences. *International Marketing Review*, 23(2): 146-172.

Shenge, N. A. 2010. Impact of country of origin and price on products advertisement efficacy. *Journal of Social Science*, 24(3): 193-199.

Shimp, T. A. and Sharma, S. 1987. Consumer ethnocentrism: Construction and validation of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 23: 280-289.

Shocker, A. D., Ben-Akiva, M., Boccara, B. and Nedungadi. 1991. Consideration set influences on consumer decision-making and choices. *Issues models and suggestions, marketing letters*, 2(3): 181-197.

Shoham, A. and Brenčič, M. M. 2003. Consumer ethnocentrism, attitudes and purchase behaviour: An Israeli study. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 15(4): 67-86.

Simonson, I. and Tversky, A. 1992. Choice in context: tradeoff contrast and extremeness aversion. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 29: 281-295.

Sohail, S. M. 2005. Saudi consumers' perception of foreign products. *Journal of International Business and Entrepreneurship*, 11(1): 93-106.

South Revenue Services Main Trading Partners By Value. 2008. [Online]. Available:

<http://www.sars.gov.za/Tools/Documents/DocumentDownload.asp?FileID=50409>

[2012 July 02]

Spears, N. and Singh, S. N. 2004. Measuring attitude toward the brand and purchase intentions. *Journal of Current Issues and Research in Advertising*, 26(2): 53-66.

- Spence, A. and E. Townsend. 2008. Spontaneous evaluations: Similarities and differences between the affect heuristic and implicit attitudes. *Cognition and Emotion*, 22(1): 83-93.
- Statistics South Africa. 2012. *Census 2011 Municipal report – KwaZulu-Natal / Statistics South Africa*. Report no. 03-01-53. Statistics South Africa: Pretoria.
- Strydom, H., Fouche C. B. and Delport C.S.L. 2005. *Research at grassroots for social sciences and human service professions*, 3rd ed. Pretoria-Van Schaik Publishers.
- Suh, T. S. and Kwon, I. G. 2002. Globalization and reluctant buyers. *International Marketing Review*, 19(6): 663-680.
- Sumner, W. G. 1906. *Folkways: The sociological importance of usages, manners, customs, mores, and morals*. New York, NY: Ginn and Co.
- Supphellen, M. and Rittenburg, T. L. 2001. Consumer ethnocentrism when foreign products are better. *Psychology and Marketing*, 18(9): 907-927.
- Tajfel, H. 1978. *Differentiation between social groups: Studies in the social psychology of intergroup relations*. London: Academic Press.
- Teo, P., Mohamad, O. and Ramayah, T. 2011. Testing the dimensionality of consumer ethnocentrism scale (CETSCALE) among a young Malaysian

consumer market segment. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(7): 2805-2816.

Thakor, M. and Katsanis, L. 1997. A model of brand and country effects on quality dimensions: issues and implications. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 9(3): 79-100.

Thakor, M. V. and Kohli, C. S. 1996. Brand origin: conceptualization and review. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 13(3): 21-42.

Thakor, M. V. and Lavack, A. 2003. Effect of perceived brand origin associations on consumer perceptions of quality. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 12(6): 394-407.

Thorelli, H., Lim, J. and Ye, J. 1989. Relative importance of country of origin warranty and retail store image on product evaluations. *International Marketing Review*, 6(1): 35-46.

Trommsdorff, V. 1998. A behavioral foundation of customer orientation. In: Basil G. Englis and Anna Olofsson, Provo, UT. *European Advances in Consumer Research*, 3 (Eds): Association for Consumer Research, Pages: 273-277.

Tse, D. K. and Gorn, G. J. 1993. An experiment on the salience of country of origin in the era of global brands. *Journal of International Marketing*, 1(1): 57-76.

- Ulgado, F. M. and Lee, M. 1993. Consumer evaluations of bi-national products in the global market. *Journal of International Marketing*, 1(3): 5-22.
- Urban, G. L., Hulland, J. S. and Weinberg, B. D. 1993. Premarket forecasting for new consumer durable goods: Modeling categorization, elimination, and consideration phenomena. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(2): 47-63.
- Vaughan, L. 2001. *Statistical methods for information professionals: A practical painless approach to understanding, using and interpreting statistics*. ASIST: Monograph Series. New Jersey: Information Today.
- Verlegh, P. W. J. and Steenkamp, J. E. M. 1999. A review and meta-analysis of country-of-origin research. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 20: 521- 546.
- Vida, I., Dmitrovič, T. and Obadia, C. 2008. The role of ethnic affiliation in consumer ethnocentrism. *European Journal of Marketing*, 42(3/4): 1-13.
- Vida, I. and Fairhurst, A. E. 1999. Factors underlying the phenomenon of consumer ethnocentricity: Evidence from four central European countries. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 9(4): 321-337.
- Vida, I. and Reardon, J. 2008. Domestic consumption: rational, affective or normative choice? *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 25(1): 34-44.

- Wall, M. and Heslop, L. 1986. Consumer attitudes toward Canadian-made versus imported products. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 14: 27-36.
- Wall, M., Heslop, A. and Hofstra, G. 1988. Male and female view-points of countries as producers of consumer goods. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 1: 1-25.
- Watson, J. J. and Wright, K. 2000. Consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes toward domestic and foreign products. *European Journal of Marketing*, 34(9): 1149-1166.
- Wang, C. L. and Chen, Z. X. 2004. Consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy domestic products in a developing country setting: testing moderating effects. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 21(6): 391-400.
- Wang, C. and Lamb, C. 1983. The impact of selected environmental forces upon consumers' willingness to buy foreign products. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 11(2): 71-84.
- Wang, J. and Deng, L. 2010. Consumer politics and brand nationality in the global marketplace: The case of American brands in China and implications for public relations. Presented at Communication for sustainable Social change conference: The future of US-Chinese media communication and public diplomacy in a post-crisis world, August 2011.

- Welman, C., Kruger, F. and Mitchell, B. 2005. Research methodology. South Africa: Oxford University Press.
- Witkowski, T. H. 1998. Consumer ethnocentrism in two emerging markets: Determinants and predictive validity. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 25(1): 258-263.
- Wu, N-C. 2003. RFID industry development and market trend. In: ITRI-RFID Industry Development Seminar, 22 October 2003.
- Zarkada-Fraser, A. and Fraser, C. 2002. Store patronage prediction for foreign-owned supermarkets. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, 30(6): 282-299.
- Zeugner-Roth, K. P., Diamantopoulos, A. and Montesinos, M. Á. 2008. Home country image, country brand equity and consumers' product preferences: An empirical study. *Management International Review*, 48(5): 577-602.
- Zhang, Y. 1996. Chinese consumers' evaluation of foreign product: the influence of culture, product types and product presentation format. *European Journal of Marketing*, 30(12): 50-68.
- Zikmund, W. G. 2003. *Business research methods*, 7th ed. Thomson/South-Western.

APPENDIX 1

88 Crestholme Dr
Waterfall, Durban 4001
KwaZulu-Natal
April 2013

Letter of information

The effects of Consumer Ethnocentrism on the establishment of a Consideration Set of convenience products

Dear Participant

The purpose of this study is to identify how people select brands when purchasing convenience products in South Africa and how this is influenced by attitudes to foreign brands. Convenience products are those products bought in supermarkets for everyday living, such as groceries, toiletries, sweets, magazines, etc. A consideration set refers to a set of products that one is likely to purchase. Participation in the research will take ten to fifteen minutes. Participation within the research will only take place after permission has been awarded by Durban University's Ethics Committee and UKZN.

Your assistance will be much appreciated,
Yours faithfully,

Persons to Contact in the Event of Any Problems or Queries:

Researcher

Administrator

Mr A. R Kamwendo
Cell: 0747 680107 / 0718 66690
Email: Kamwendo5@gmail.com
Skype: andrew.r.kamwendo

DUT Research Ethics

IREC Administrator
Lavisha Deonarian:
Tel: 031 373 2900
Email: LavishaD@dut.ac.za

Supervisors

Mrs K. Corbishley

Tel: 0313735393

Email: karenc@dut.ac.za

Fax: 0866740607

Prof R. B Mason

Tel: 0313735385

Email: rogerm@dut.ac.za

Fax: 0866741196

APPENDIX 2

88 Crestholme Dr
Waterfall, Durban 4001
KwaZulu-Natal
April 2013

Letter of Informed Consent

The effects of Consumer Ethnocentrism on the establishment of a Consideration Set of convenience products

Dear Participant

Would you agree to participate by answering the questions within the questionnaire? Participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time. To ensure strict confidentiality, all questionnaire scripts will be shredded after a storage period of fifteen years. All questionnaire scripts will be kept anonymous. The information you give will only be used for research purposes, and your identity and individual answers will be kept confidential. Participation will take ten to fifteen minutes of your time.

Statement of Agreement to Participate in the Research Study:

I,....., have read this document in its entirety and understand its contents.

Where I have had any questions or queries, these have been explained to me by Andrew Kamwendo to my satisfaction.

Furthermore, I fully understand that I may withdraw from this study at any stage without any adverse consequences and my future health care will not be compromised. I, therefore, voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

Respondent's name (print)

Respondents's signature.....

Date.....

Researcher's

signature:.....Date:.....

Your assistance will be much appreciated,

Yours faithfully,

Research

Mr A. R Kamwendo

Cell: 0747 680107 / 0718 66690

Email: Kamwendo5@gmail.com

Skype: andrew.r.kamwendo

DUT Research Ethics Administrator

IREC Administrator

Lavisha Deonarian:

Tel: 031 373 2900

Email: LavishaD@dut.ac.za

Supervisors

Mrs K. Corbishley

Tel: 0313735393

Email: karenc@dut.ac.za

Fax: 0866740607

Prof R. B Mason

Tel: 0313735385

Email: rogerm@dut.ac.za

Fax: 0866741196

APPENDIX 3

Questionnaire: Draft

My name is Andrew R. Kamwendo and I am conducting research for my Masters in Marketing Degree. This questionnaire focuses on brands of convenience products, which are those products, bought in supermarkets for everyday living, such as groceries, toiletries, sweets, magazines, etc. A consideration set refers to a set of products that one is likely to purchase.

It will only take a few moments of your time. Be assured that all of your responses will be confidential and anonymous. Also, all of the questions concern your own personal thoughts and opinions, so there are no wrong answers.

Please complete the survey to the best of your abilities. Do not skip questions, but answer every question in the survey in the order that they are presented. Your attitudes and opinions are greatly appreciated and will have a substantial impact upon this study.

Thank you for your participation!

Please respond to questions by ticking within the box with the most appropriate response.

Personal Details

1. Age

18- 20	
21-35	
36-50	
51-65	
Over 60	

2. Gender

Male	
Female	

3. Race

Black	
White	
Coloured	
Indian	

4. The highest level of education achieved

Black	
White	
Coloured	
Indian	

Please indicate your attitude regarding the South African products.

CETSCALE

5. SA brands, first, last, and foremost.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

6. Purchasing foreign-made products is un-patriotic.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

7. South Africans should not buy foreign products, because this hurts South African businesses and causes unemployment.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

8. It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support SA products.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

9. We should only buy products from foreign countries that we cannot obtain within our own country.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

10. When purchasing foreign brands South Africans should only purchase foreign brands produced domestically.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

11. Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into the SA.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

Please indicate the appropriateness of each of the following

Brand Consideration

12. Whenever possible I avoid foreign convenience brands.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

13. Foreign convenience brands are made cheaply.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

14. Foreign convenience brands last the same length of time as local brands.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

15. Foreign convenience brands are usually great value for money.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

16. Foreign convenience brands are generally of lower quality than similar local product brands.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

17. I am happy with the foreign convenience brands I have purchased.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

18. I am likely to recommend a foreign convenience brand.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

19. I reject every brand that I have a negative attitude towards.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

APPENDIX 4

Table 12: Mean responses per demographic variable per question

		cts not found domestically	Only purchase domestically produced foreign brands	Heavily tax foreign brands	I avoid foreign products	Foreign products are cheap	Foreign last long	Foreign product are great value	Foreign							
Age group		SA brands only	purchase ur	brands hurt the est	I prefer dom	products	nstically prod	tax foreign	I foreign pro	products ar	reign last lo	product are g	and are of	with foreign	mmend for	ve a negativ
18-20	N	141	143	145	144	144	145	145	145	145	145	145	145	145	143	142
	Mean	2,72	3,23	2,97	2,53	2,61	3,23	3,39	3,36	3,01	3,51	2,74	3,32	2,66	2,90	2,63
	Std. Deviat	1,078	1,208	1,507	1,223	1,565	1,159	1,356	1,257	1,247	1,179	1,225	1,301	1,281	1,124	1,360
21-35	N	254	253	257	257	256	254	257	257	256	255	256	257	257	255	254
	Mean	2,64	3,23	2,99	2,61	2,56	2,96	2,87	3,31	3,03	3,38	2,87	3,39	2,73	2,96	2,41
	Std. Deviat	1,053	1,197	1,381	1,264	1,440	1,261	1,469	1,226	1,298	1,191	1,226	1,226	1,294	1,198	1,294
36-50	N	54	54	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56
	Mean	2,43	3,44	2,86	2,23	2,68	3,04	3,14	3,13	2,86	3,32	3,38	3,11	3,14	3,29	2,45
	Std. Deviat	1,126	1,192	1,368	1,221	1,363	1,190	1,394	1,280	1,257	1,162	1,229	1,171	1,212	1,232	1,190
51-65	N	15	15	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
	Mean	2,40	3,53	3,25	2,75	2,94	3,25	2,81	3,06	3,25	2,94	3,19	3,38	2,63	3,44	2,00
	Std. Deviat	,910	1,246	1,483	1,183	1,289	1,183	1,471	1,436	,856	,998	,981	,957	1,088	,892	1,265
Total	N	464	465	474	473	472	471	474	474	473	472	473	474	474	470	468
	Mean	2,63	3,27	2,98	2,55	2,60	3,06	3,06	3,30	3,01	3,40	2,90	3,33	2,75	2,99	2,47
	Std. Deviat	1,066	1,201	1,419	1,246	1,464	1,222	1,442	1,248	1,264	1,180	1,231	1,235	1,279	1,176	1,304

		ucts not found domestically	Only purchase domestically produced foreign brands	Heavily tax foreign brands	I avoid foreign products	Foreign products are cheap	Foreign last long	Foreign product are great value	Foreign							
Gender		SA brands only	purchase ur	brands hurt the est	I prefer dom	products	nstically prod	tax foreign	I foreign pro	products ar	reign last lo	product are g	and are of	with foreign	mmend for	ve a negative attitude towards
Male	N	242	244	250	249	250	248	250	249	249	249	249	249	249	246	246
	Mean	2,70	3,34	2,98	2,56	2,52	2,92	2,95	3,36	3,09	3,32	2,77	3,51	2,72	2,93	2,41
	Std. Deviat	1,032	1,188	1,463	1,285	1,446	1,281	1,472	1,288	1,251	1,164	1,274	1,248	1,302	1,187	1,287
Female	N	222	221	224	224	222	223	224	225	224	223	224	225	225	224	222
	Mean	2,55	3,18	2,97	2,54	2,70	3,22	3,18	3,23	2,93	3,49	3,04	3,14	2,79	3,06	2,53
	Std. Deviat	1,099	1,211	1,372	1,205	1,480	1,135	1,401	1,202	1,276	1,193	1,167	1,193	1,256	1,164	1,324
Total	N	464	465	474	473	472	471	474	474	473	472	473	474	474	470	468
	Mean	2,63	3,27	2,98	2,55	2,60	3,06	3,06	3,30	3,01	3,40	2,90	3,33	2,75	2,99	2,47
	Std. Deviat	1,066	1,201	1,419	1,246	1,464	1,222	1,442	1,248	1,264	1,180	1,231	1,235	1,279	1,176	1,304

ducts not found domestically Only purchase domestically produced foreign brands Heavily tax foreign brands I avoid foreign products Foreign products are cheap Foreign last long Foreign product are great value Fo																	
Race		SA brands only	purchase ur	brands hurt the e	est I prefer dom	products	nistically prod	tax foreign	foreign pro	products ar	reign last lo	product are g	and are of l	with foreign	mmend for	ve a negative attitude towards	
Black	N	310	310	312	312	310	309	312	312	311	311	311	312	312	308	306	
	Mean	2,52	3,24	2,92	2,41	2,52	2,93	2,84	3,21	2,96	3,40	2,99	3,29	2,95	3,11	2,45	
	Std. Deviat	1,093	1,217	1,483	1,290	1,515	1,279	1,477	1,260	1,303	1,200	1,290	1,298	1,320	1,227	1,318	
White	N	49	49	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	49	50	50	50	50	50	
	Mean	2,94	3,51	3,38	2,96	3,04	3,34	3,62	3,46	3,18	3,29	2,82	3,36	2,52	3,02	2,26	
	Std. Deviat	,899	1,120	1,210	1,049	1,245	1,189	1,176	1,216	1,024	,935	1,004	,964	1,165	,937	1,175	
Coloured	N	53	54	54	53	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	
	Mean	2,81	3,09	2,85	2,75	2,67	3,31	3,52	3,56	2,98	3,56	2,65	3,37	2,48	2,81	2,74	
	Std. Deviat	1,110	1,217	1,265	1,175	1,454	,987	1,161	1,160	1,141	1,144	1,102	1,033	1,005	,973	1,262	
Indian	N	52	52	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	58	
	Mean	2,85	3,40	3,03	2,74	2,60	3,26	3,36	3,38	3,19	3,38	2,72	3,53	2,14	2,52	2,52	
	Std. Deviat	,894	1,142	1,337	1,117	1,324	1,052	1,435	1,268	1,344	1,295	1,167	1,273	1,115	1,143	1,367	
Total	N	464	465	474	473	472	471	474	474	473	472	473	474	474	470	468	
	Mean	2,63	3,27	2,98	2,55	2,60	3,06	3,06	3,30	3,01	3,40	2,90	3,33	2,75	2,99	2,47	
	Std. Deviat	1,066	1,201	1,419	1,246	1,464	1,222	1,442	1,248	1,264	1,180	1,231	1,235	1,279	1,176	1,304	

not found domestically Only purchase domestically produced foreign brands Heavily tax foreign brands I avoid foreign products Foreign products are cheap Foreign last long Foreign product are great value Foreign b																		
Level of education		SA brands only	purchase ur	brands hurt the est	I prefer dom	products	istically prod	tax foreign	foreign pro	products ar	reign last lo	product are g	and are of l	with foreign	mmend for	ve a negative attitude towards		
Primary	N	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3			
	Mean	2,33	3,00	3,00	2,67	3,33	3,00	1,33	3,00	3,00	3,00	2,00	3,33	3,33	3,67	2,67		
	Std. Deviat	,577	2,000	1,000	1,155	1,155	1,000	,577	1,000	2,000	0,000	1,000	1,528	1,155	,577	,577		
High School	N	212	214	220	219	218	218	220	220	220	218	219	220	220	217	216		
	Mean	2,63	3,25	2,96	2,56	2,64	3,11	3,29	3,37	3,05	3,52	2,79	3,35	2,77	2,90	2,58		
	Std. Deviat	1,060	1,203	1,469	1,230	1,488	1,237	1,413	1,223	1,288	1,169	1,267	1,307	1,322	1,180	1,330		
Diploma	N	85	83	84	84	84	83	84	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	84		
	Mean	2,59	3,29	3,02	2,56	2,65	2,94	2,80	3,20	2,98	3,44	3,00	3,28	2,84	2,89	2,33		
	Std. Deviat	,992	1,283	1,414	1,311	1,517	1,086	1,495	1,261	1,371	1,200	1,205	1,287	1,370	1,205	1,311		
Degree	N	110	111	111	111	111	111	111	110	109	110	110	110	110	109	109		
	Mean	2,63	3,16	2,87	2,47	2,42	3,05	2,93	3,32	3,02	3,32	2,97	3,30	2,82	3,15	2,50		
	Std. Deviat	1,082	1,108	1,342	1,278	1,411	1,253	1,432	1,292	1,170	1,203	1,237	1,185	1,235	1,145	1,288		
Postgraduate	N	54	54	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56	56		
	Mean	2,72	3,52	3,18	2,64	2,71	3,05	2,93	3,11	2,89	3,07	3,05	3,39	2,39	3,16	2,16		
	Std. Deviat	1,204	1,209	1,416	1,182	1,411	1,327	1,386	1,260	1,171	1,126	1,102	,947	1,003	1,172	1,218		
Total	N	464	465	474	473	472	471	474	474	473	472	473	474	474	470	468		
	Mean	2,63	3,27	2,98	2,55	2,60	3,06	3,06	3,30	3,01	3,40	2,90	3,33	2,75	2,99	2,47		
	Std. Deviat	1,066	1,201	1,419	1,246	1,464	1,222	1,442	1,248	1,264	1,180	1,231	1,235	1,279	1,176	1,304		

APPENDIX 5

Table 14: Spearman's Correlation

		Correlations															
		SA brands only	purchase un	brands hurt the	st I prefer dom	n products nd	estically produ	ly tax foreign bra	id foreign pro	ch products are	reign last lon	product are g	rand are of Id	y with foreign	commend fore	a negati	
Spearman	SA brands only	Correlation	1,000														
		Sig. (2-tailed)															
		N	464														
	Foreign purchase unp	Correlation	.184**	1,000													
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000														
		N	460	465													
	Foreign brands hurt th	Correlation	.204**	.285**	1,000												
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000													
		N	462	463	474												
	Beside the cost I prefe	Correlation	.390**	.210**	.409**	1,000											
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000												
		N	461	462	473	473											
	Only purchase foreign	Correlation	.182**	.176**	.334**	.370**	1,000										
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000											
		N	460	461	472	471	472										
	Only purchase domes	Correlation	.157**	.299**	.325**	.210**	.340**	1,000									
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000										
		N	459	460	471	470	469	471									
	Heavily tax foreign bra	Correlation	.258**	.183**	.338**	.319**	.320**	.345**	1,000								
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000									
		N	462	463	474	473	472	471	474								
	I avoid foreign product	Correlation	.300**	.327**	.351**	.391**	.234**	.286**	.286**	1,000							
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000								
		N	462	463	472	471	470	469	472	474							
	Foreign products are c	Correlation	.045	.151**	.077	.140**	.038	.097*	.154**	.202**	1,000						
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.332	.001	.095	.002	.408	.036	.001	.000							
		N	461	462	471	470	469	468	471	473	473						
	Foreign last long	Correlation	-.024	-.075	-.071	-.159**	-.041	-.034	-.063	-.060	.008	1,000					
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.611	.110	.124	.001	.371	.460	.172	.190	.858						
		N	460	461	470	469	468	467	470	472	471	472					
	Foreign product are gr	Correlation	-.122**	-.076	-.068	-.188**	-.017	-.080	-.120**	-.212**	-.100*	.033	1,000				
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	.102	.140	.000	.710	.084	.009	.000	.029	.479					
		N	461	462	471	470	469	469	471	473	472	471	473				
	Foreign brand are of Ic	Correlation	.186**	.228**	.174**	.270**	.069	.103*	.163**	.318**	.383**	-.047	-.145**	1,000			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.137	.025	.000	.000	.000	.304	.002				
		N	462	463	472	471	470	469	472	474	473	472	473	474			
	Happy with foreign bra	Correlation	-.155**	-.128**	-.129**	-.223**	-.028	-.105*	-.156**	-.275**	-.163**	.132**	.274**	-.321**	1,000		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.006	.005	.000	.542	.023	.001	.000	.000	.004	.000	.000			
		N	462	463	472	471	470	469	472	474	473	472	473	474	474		
	Likely to recommend f	Correlation	-.223**	-.167**	-.222**	-.296**	-.120**	-.161**	-.199**	-.339**	-.181**	.114*	.285**	-.298**	.489**	1,000	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.009	.000	.000	.000	.000	.013	.000	.000	.000		
		N	458	459	468	467	467	465	468	470	469	468	469	470	470	470	
	I reject brands I have a	Correlation	.039	.064	.154**	.097*	.139**	.113*	.075	.065	.119**	-.046	.062	.022	.082	-.034	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.412	.175	.001	.037	.003	.015	.105	.160	.010	.318	.179	.634	.076	.467	
		N	456	457	466	465	465	463	466	468	467	466	467	468	468	468	468

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).