



The moderating role of personal cultural values on consumer ethnocentrism in developing countries: The case of Brazil and Russia

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Consumer ethnocentrism
Product evaluation
Personal values
Emerging markets

ABSTRACT

Based on the Optimal Distinctiveness Theory, this study explores the moderating role of personal cultural values in the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality and purchase intention of foreign products in developing countries. Based on 305 Brazilian and 307 Russian nonstudent adult participants, we confirm that the effect of consumer ethnocentrism is substantially strong among the local-minded consumers but very weak or nonexistent among global-minded consumers. This research raises a need to identify the personal values of the consumer, whether local or global, to interpret the effect of consumer ethnocentrism accurately. It recommends international marketers to focus on global-minded consumers to detour the negative impact of consumer ethnocentrism when marketing to developing countries. Especially, marketing campaigns emphasizing on distinctiveness through such personal values as openness to change (self-direction and stimulation) and self-enhancement (achievement, power, and hedonism) rather than conservation (conformity, tradition, and security) and self-transcendence (universalism and benevolence).

1. Introduction

As one of the most heavily researched consumer characteristics in international marketing literature (El Banna, Papadopoulos, Murphy, Rod, & Rojas-Méndez, 2018), consumer ethnocentrism is an expansion of the traditional concept of ethnocentrism to consumers' quality assessment and purchase decisions regarding foreign products. It may harbor concerns about the appropriateness or even morality of purchasing foreign-made products (Shimp & Sharma, 1987) and represents an overall attitude towards domestic and foreign products and services consisting of affective reaction, cognitive bias, and behavioral preferences (Sharma, 2010a). Consumer ethnocentrism essentially transfers the superior feeling of one's own national group into economic actions, expressed in a commitment to purchase domestic products and to boycott foreign products. While consumer ethnocentrism in general predicts purchase of domestic products and rejection of foreign products, however, its marketing implications likely vary with countries' economic development status. Specifically, consumers in developed economies tend to overrate domestic products, underrate imported products, and feel morally obligated to buy domestic products (Acikdilli, Ziemnowicz, & Bahhouth, 2018; Ahmed & d'Astous, 2007; Samiee, 1994; Shimp & Sharma, 1987). In contrast, the opposite holds true for consumers in developing countries (Agbonifoh & Elimimian,

1999; Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden, Steenkamp, & Ramachander, 2000; Markus, Kitayama, Strauss, & Goethals, 1991; Sklair, 1994; Wang & Chen, 2004). Prior studies have indicated a positive relationship between a country's economic wellbeing and consumers' perceived product quality of domestic products (Gaedeke, 1973; Toyne & Walters, 1989; Wang & Lamb, 1983). Therefore, consumers in developing countries tend to perceive imported products, particularly those made in higher origin countries (i.e., countries more industrialized or economically developed), as being of higher quality than domestic counterparts. The repercussions of the 2008 Sanlu toxic tripolycyanamide infant formula incident in China provide a case in point. Once Chinese parents began to worry about the quality of domestic infant formula, they rushed to purchase imported infant formula from developed countries such as the U.S., Australia, and the Netherlands (Gross, 2012). Such situations have been depicted by previous researchers as a "patriot's paradox" (Dong & Tian, 2009; Wang & Chen, 2004; Wang, 2008), where domestic products compete with perceived better quality foreign products, and consumers make purchase decisions opposite to their ethnocentric beliefs.

The Optimal Distinctiveness Theory posits that individuals are subject to internal conflict between the need for inclusion and similarity and the need for differentness and distinctiveness (Brewer, Van Lange, Kruglanski, & Higgins, 1991). Ethnocentrism, a strong form of in-group

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preference, inevitably leads the consumer to pursue in-group inclusion need rather than out-group distinction need (Brewer et al., 1991). However, research has shown that cultural environments can make a particular need chronically salient, suggesting that ethnocentrism can be subdued in a certain culture (Markus et al., 1991). Countries have been used as a convenient proxy of culture, but almost every country is heterogenous in culture, making it impossible to stereotype her entire population by any particular culture (Yoo, Donthu, & Lenartowicz, 2011). For example, the U.S. is known to be of the highest level of individualism, but her individual citizens are quite dissimilar in terms of conforming to individualism. As a result, it is advocated that culture should be measured at the individual level (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990; Sharma, 2010a, 2011a; Yoo & Donthu, 2005). Thus, it is imperative to study how culture interacts with consumer ethnocentrism from a personal cultural orientation perspective. We propose that among consumers in developing countries, the extent to which their evaluation about foreign products deviates from their ethnocentric beliefs varies with their individual cultural values.

Cultural values have been an important factor in consumer ethnocentrism research (Han & Won, 2018; Javalgi, Khare, Gross, & Scherer, 2005; Luna & Forquer Gupta, 2001). An integrative review of past literature done by (Shankarmahesh, 2006) identifies several socio-psychological antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism, such as cultural openness, world mindedness, conservatism, collectivism, and materialism. Some scholars claim more general cultural influencers show a significant impact on consumer ethnocentrism. They include sovereignty change, immigrants' perceived ethnicity, acculturation, and specific cultural dimensions like risk taking versus traditional beliefs, family versus community, health consciousness, independence, adventurism, masculinity, and power distance (Kaynak & Kara, 2002; Mensah, Bahhouth, & Ziemnowicz, 2011; Qing, Lobo, & Chongguang, 2012; Sharma, 2010a, 2011b; Watchravesringkan, 2011; Yu & Albaum, 2002). Other scholars have investigated the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and buying behavior regarding domestic and foreign products from a cultural perspective such as cultural and national identity (He & Wang, 2015; Keillor, Tomas, & Hult, 1999; Prince et al., 2016; Rašković, Ding, Hirose, Žabkar, & Fam, 2019), cultural similarity (Balabanis, Balabanis, Siamagka, & Siamagka, 2017; Evanschitzky, 2008; Guo, Tu, & Cheng, 2018), country of origin (Sharma, 2011a), brand personality, globalness, ownership (Supphellen & Grønhaug, 2003; Winit, Gregory, Cleveland, & Verlegh, 2014), and economic development (Evanschitzky, 2008; Reardon, Miller, Vida, & Kim, 2005).

However, previous research mentioned above have commonly examined a direct effect of personal cultural values and related variables on consumer ethnocentrism. But we plan to investigate the moderating effect of personal values in the consumer ethnocentrism process, and embrace the Optimal Distinctiveness Theory in which the effect of consumer ethnocentrism would vary depending on a cultural context. Specifically, according to the Optimal Distinctiveness Theory, diverse personal cultural values create different balances between the need to differentiate and assimilate oneself with others. They will either discourage or encourage the consumer to utilize ethnocentric disposition in evaluating and buying foreign products.

The objective of our research is to examine the contingent role of personal cultural values in the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality and purchase intention of a developed country's (i.e., the U.S.) products among consumers of developing countries (i.e., Brazil and Russia). By focusing on the intriguing consumer paradox in developing countries, this research intends to make two major contributions. First, we systematically assess the impact of a variety of personal cultural values based on Schwartz (1994)'s personal cultural value framework, including dimensions such as power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, and security. Past research suggests that Schwartz's values capture more aspects of culture than Hofstede's

cultural framework (Hofstede & Hofstede, 1991; Hofstede, 2003) and are suitable to assess individual-level cultural orientations (Kagitcibasi, 1997; Ng, Lee, & Soutar, 2007; Schwartz & Ros, 1995; Steenkamp, 2001). Second, based on Optimal Distinctiveness Theory, we offer a new approach to interpret why earlier research on consumer ethnocentrism does not often work as predicted in developing countries (Bi et al., 2012). We propose that consumers prioritize their differentiation/assimilation needs according to personal cultural values. We think this consumer paradox is a universal phenomenon, which can be found in any developing country where consumers' desire for branded and high-quality items cannot be fully satisfied by domestic products.

We begin the paper with a discussion of foreign products related distinctiveness needs. Then, we develop hypotheses pertaining to the moderating effect of personal cultural values on the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and foreign product evaluation. Next, we examine our hypotheses using data from Russian and Brazilian consumers. Finally, we discuss theoretical and practical implications for international marketing academia as well as practitioners.

2. Distinctiveness needs related to foreign products

Research has shown that the differentness or distinctiveness of a product, beyond the product's actual functionality, can significantly affect consumer judgement (Berger & Heath, 2007). For imported products, foreignness itself is a product attribute directly related to self-distinctiveness need. Contrary to consumers in developed countries who overrate domestic products and underrate foreign products (Ahmed, 1995; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004; Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Dickerson, 1982; Morganosky & Lazarde, 1987; Samiee, 1994; Shoham & Brenčić, 2003), consumers in developing countries perceive foreign brands, particularly those made in higher origin countries, as being of better quality (Cui & Liu, 2001; Elliott & Cameron, 1994; Graham, 1994; Li, Fu, & Murray, 1998; Sharma, 2011a; Sklair, 1994; Yan, 1994; Zain & Yasin, 1997). While they perceive imported products from developed countries to be of superior quality, they evaluate products from other less-developed countries to be of similar or inferior quality to their domestic products (Hu, Li, Xie, & Zhou, 2008; Kinra, 2006; Vuong & Khanh Giao, 2019; Wang & Yang, 2008).

To consumers in developing countries, buying imported products from developed countries may denote material achievement (Cleveland, Laroche, & Papadopoulos, 2009), high social status (Batra et al., 2000), and assimilation to Western lifestyle (Ghose & Lowengart, 2001). Moreover, decades of buying "shoddy goods" from state-owned factories lead consumers in developing countries to dissatisfy with the quality and limited choices of domestic products (Klein, Ettenson, & Krishnan, 2006). Therefore, they may have an enhanced favorable perception towards foreign products.

From the perspective of Optimal Distinctiveness Theory, compared to the vast majority of domestic products, foreign products serve as a more distinctiveness-enhancing cue (scarcity cue) rather than distinctiveness-dampening cue (popularity cue). Domestic and foreign products thus respectively serve assimilation and differentiation needs on each end of the self-identity continuum. As suggested by the Optimal Distinctiveness Theory, social identities derive from a fundamental tension between validation and similarity, and uniqueness and individuation (Brewer et al., 1991). We propose that consumers choose domestic (foreign) products to match with their assimilation (differentiation) identities.

3. Personal cultural values and consumer ethnocentrism

Individuals struggle to find a perfect balance between the need to differentiate and assimilate themselves with others. People from the same society can be radically divergent in their desires towards either end. Such divergence can be traced back to differences in personal cultural values. In a study on consumer ethnocentrism in Chinese

societies (Taipei and Shanghai), Hsu and Nien (2008) reveal that different patterns of consumer ethnocentrism exist in sub-cultural Chinese societies, implying the potential interaction of personal cultural values with consumer ethnocentrism.

Previous studies explain consumers' diverse attitudes and evaluation towards foreign products from a cultural perspective (Sharma, 2010a; Yoo & Donthu, 2005). Past research has argued that individuals with different cultural values are likely to adopt different moral philosophies and thus make different consumption decisions (Prince, Yaprak, & Palihawadana, 2019; Yang, Ma, Arnold, & Nuttavuthisit, 2018). For example, the extent to which consumer ethnocentrism is exercised is related to individuals' moral relativism and moral idealism (Armstrong & Sweeney, 1994; Johnson & Tamney, 1984; Lee & Sirgy, 1999). Moral relativism is the belief that moral principles depend on situational circumstances rather than universal rules (Treise, Weigold, Conna, & Garrison, 1994). Moral idealists view actions as either good or bad. They reject utilitarian perspectives, which perceive actions that produce the greatest collective benefit as appropriate, even at the expense of the minority (Rogers, Ogbuehi, & Kochunny, 1995). Consumers with different moral beliefs will hold opposite opinions toward purchasing foreign products. While some consumers think that foreign products will harm domestic manufacturers and potentially affect the stability of their own jobs, others may regard the influx of foreign products as a necessary process toward the overall enhancement of personal life quality.

In the following section, we will use Schwartz's personal values to examine how different personal cultural values are likely to interact with consumer ethnocentrism on product quality evaluation and purchase intention. Schwartz (1992) suggests that the simultaneous pursuit of the following values may give rise to strong psychological and/or social conflict: (1) self-direction and stimulation versus conformity, tradition, and security, (2) achievement and power versus universalism and benevolence, and (3) hedonism versus conformity and tradition. For example, pursuing stimulation values (e.g., novelty and change) is likely to undermine tradition values (e.g., the preservation of time-honored customs) (Schwartz, 2012). To facilitate our investigation, we decide to focus on two ends of the bipolar human value dimensions: openness to change (self-direction and stimulation) and self-enhancement (achievement, power, and hedonism) rather than conservation (conformity, tradition, and security) and self-transcendence (universalism and benevolence) (Schwartz, 2012).

3.1. Self-direction

The self-direction value stresses the freedom to pursue one's independent thought, to follow one's own heart, and to explore creative experiences out of his or her own curiosity (Schwartz, 2012). Specifically, for consumers in developing countries with a higher self-direction value, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality and purchase intention should be relatively weak because self-direction value calls for self-distinctiveness, which would compromise consumer ethnocentrism's negative impact on evaluation towards foreign products. Self-direction is closely related to self-distinctiveness need as self-direction has been categorized as an independence value (Balabanis et al., 2002a, 2002b). Independence-oriented people have a strong concept of self, sense of freedom, autonomy, and personal achievement (Balabanis et al., 2002a, 2002b; Hui & Triandis, 1986; Sharma, 2010b; Triandis, Brislin, & Hui, 1988), which all resemble the features of self-distinctiveness. Consumers embracing self-direction would thus prefer foreign products, which signal a higher level of distinctiveness compared to domestic products. As a result, consumer ethnocentrism will be soothed among consumers of a higher self-direction value.

In contrast, for consumers in developing countries with a lower self-direction value, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality should be relatively strong as a lower self-direction

value associates with an interdependent orientation. Previous research indicates that people with interdependence orientations tend to be more ethnocentric (Nicholson, Graf, Hemmasi, & Widdison, 1993; Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995). This is because interdependence-oriented consumers are more willing to obey in-group requirements and reject out-groups (Triandis, 1972, 1989). They think twice about the result of their behavior and feel responsible for others (Pereira, Hsu, & Kundu, 2002). In contrast, independence oriented consumers are likely to make autonomous decisions, act for their own benefits, and show a lower degree of ethnocentrism (Javalgi et al., 2005; Pereira et al., 2002; Sharma, 2010a). They would rather buy foreign products of better quality to maximize their personal well-being, although this act may conflict with their ethnocentric belief. In addition, independence leads consumers to engage in honest and frank evaluation of the product (Strutton, Pelton, & Lumpkin, 1994).

Thus, self-direction is likely to alter the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and product evaluation. Consumers in developing countries with strong self-direction are expected to utilize foreign products to manifest self-distinctiveness and independence in a way that mutes the negative effect of consumer ethnocentrism on product evaluation. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

H1. In a developing country, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on quality evaluation and purchase intention of a developed country's products will be highly significant among consumers of a high self-direction value than among those of a low self-direction value.

3.2. Stimulation

Individuals with a strong stimulation value aim for excitement, novelty, and challenge in life (Schwartz, 2012). For consumers in developing countries with a high value of stimulation, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism should be relatively weak because a higher distinctiveness need craves for foreign products, which are perceived as new, exotic, and symbolic. Consumers with a high stimulation value would, overcoming the influence of consumer ethnocentrism, show a preference for foreign products over domestic products. Such preference will inevitably temper the original negative effect of consumer ethnocentrism on product evaluation and purchase intention.

In contrast, for consumers in developing countries with a low stimulation value, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality and purchase intention of foreign products should be relatively strong because consumer ethnocentrism is likely to function vigorously without facing inner hindrance. Consumer ethnocentrism will be intensified if the consumer scores low on openness-to-change values such as stimulation (Balabanis et al., 2002). As a result, the impact of consumer ethnocentrism on foreign product evaluation and purchase intention will be likewise strengthened. Meanwhile, Schwartz (1992) suggests that stimulation value is related to the needs underlying self-direction value. Stimulation value would thus impact the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and product evaluation in a similar way to self-direction value calling for distinctiveness need. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

H2. In a developing country, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on quality evaluation and purchase intention of a developed country's products will be highly significant among consumers of a high stimulation value than among those of a low stimulation value.

3.3. Achievement

The achievement value emphasizes personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards, thereby obtaining social approval (Schwartz, 2012). Individuals who stress achievement would like to be perceived as ambitious, successful, capable, and influential (Schwartz, 1992). Achievement is also described to

be centered on self-satisfaction and demonstrating competence to others (Doran, 2009). Individuals with a strong achievement value want to distinguish themselves from others in terms of personal achievement and success.

For consumers in developing countries with a high achievement value, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality and purchase intention of foreign products should be relatively weak because the achievement value shows an inclination toward distinctiveness rather than assimilation. Foreign products from a developed country are used as a way for consumers to highlight distinctiveness, since purchasing imported products often signals personal material success in developing countries (Cleveland et al., 2009). In line with this assertion, other studies suggest that consumers tend to link the positive country image to a product when it is imported from a higher origin country (Gaedeke, 1973; Han, 1989; Toyne & Walters, 1989; Wang & Lamb, 1983; Yagci, 2001). Consumers emphasizing achievement place a high value on the pursuit of material possessions and seek out foreign products to satiate such desires. Their behaviors and attitudes toward foreign products will be in general more positive and proactive compared with those who value achievement less, thus weakening the supposed negative impact of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality and purchase intention of foreign products.

In contrast, for consumers in developing countries with a low achievement value, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality of foreign products would be relatively strong because they are concerned about the potential consequences of their decision before others' eyes. Achievement belongs to the broader dimension of self-enhancement, which emphasizes pursuit of one's own interests, relative success, and dominance over others (Schwartz, 2012). Consumers with a low achievement value thus worry about the possible threats that foreign products might bring to the local (i.e., in-group) economy such as job instability and structural economic change (Downey, Hellriegel, & Slocum, 1977; Yoo & Donthu, 2005). The uncertain consequences of purchasing foreign products will be more relevant to consumers with a low achievement value. Likewise, their evaluation and purchase intention of foreign products will be more influenced by consumer ethnocentrism. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

H3. In a developing country, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on quality evaluation and purchase intention of a developed country's products will be highly significant among consumers of a high achievement value than among those of a low achievement value.

3.4. Power

Power is another value belonging to the self-enhancement dimension, which stresses social status and prestige, and control over people and resources (Schwartz, 2012). Individuals with a strong power value apparently requires some degree of status differentiation or distinctiveness. Thus, for consumers in developing countries with a high value of power, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality and purchase intention of foreign products will be relatively weak. This is because consuming exotic and sometimes pricy imported products over standard domestic options will help one to gain more social recognition and enhance one's public image in terms of wealth and prestige. Consumers with a strong power value would thus be attracted to superior product quality of foreign products.

Previous literature on cultural values and consumer ethnocentrism discussed the impact of Hofstede's power dimension, which represents the inclination of individuals to willingly accept differences in power held by different members of society (Sharma, 2010b). It is argued that power-oriented people generally expect that power is distributed unequally and accept tight control from people with greater power. In the face of a top-down government sponsored patriotism campaign (Lau, 2016; Zhao, 1998) or a nation-wide buy domestic order (Rampell,

2009), power-oriented consumers are likely to feel patriotic when rejecting foreign products to purchase domestic ones. Following their belief that power to be distributed more unevenly, they have an expectation that foreign products be evaluated unfairly. Consequently, it is inferred that power orientation would intensify the negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and product evaluation toward foreign products.

However, we argue that Schwarz's power value and Hofstede's power orientation are not congruent in nature (Ng et al., 2007). The former focuses on how one could reach the top of the social status ladder while the latter emphasizes acceptance of unequal power distribution to suggest the possibility of one becoming a victim of power. Given the different focuses, Schwarz's power value and Hofstede's power orientation will have opposite effects on the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and foreign products judgement.

Specifically, we argue that for consumers in developing countries with a low Schwarz's power value, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality and purchase intention of foreign products will be relatively strong because a low value on power resembles assimilation rather than distinctiveness tendency. Consumers in developing markets with an assimilation tendency will prefer domestic to foreign products to manifest their internal needs to pursue harmony with in-group members. Likewise, they are less likely to associate superior product quality with foreign products. Based on such rationale, we propose the following hypothesis:

H4. In a developing country, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on quality evaluation and purchase intention of a developed country's products will be highly significant among consumers of a high power value than among those of a low power value.

3.5. Hedonism

Individuals with a strong hedonism value pursue pleasure and self-gratification (Schwartz, 2012). For consumers in developing countries with a high hedonism value, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality and purchase intention of foreign products will be relatively weak. The reason is that hedonism shares both openness to change (including self-direction and stimulation) and self-enhancement (including achievement and power) value dimensions (Schwartz, 1992), thus requiring distinctiveness over assimilation. Hedonic consumers constantly seek pleasure and enjoyment, are concerned more about their quality of life, and want instant fulfilment of materialistic needs (Feldman, 2004). As common domestic products in developing countries generally fail to result in significant life change or enhancement, hedonic consumers are eager to choose foreign alternatives of superior quality and reputation. Hedonic consumers in developing countries prefer foreign products as they often symbolize the Western lifestyle and possibility of life enhancement (Ghose & Lowengart, 2001). Previous studies show that individuals emphasizing hedonism display lower levels of in-group favoritism (Feather, 1994), implying that consumers with a strong hedonic tendency are less influenced by consumer ethnocentrism in foreign product purchasing decisions and evaluations. In this sense, the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and perceived product quality of foreign product will be weaker under a high level of hedonism.

However, among consumers in developing countries with a low value on hedonism, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality and purchase intention of foreign products will be relatively strong due to a low level of desire for distinctiveness. Consumers with a low level of hedonism will place less emphasis on product distinctiveness. Foreign products will thus no longer receive preferential treatment when it comes to product evaluation. Rather, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on product judgement will be magnified and centered. Thus, we propose the following hypothesis:

H5. In a developing country, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on quality evaluation and purchase intention of a developed country's products will be highly significant among consumers of a high hedonism value than among those of a low hedonism value.

4. Method

A survey was designed to investigate two emerging markets, Brazil and Russia, on the U.S. products. We selected American products because the U.S. is a representative advanced economy and the world's third-largest exporter after China (Amadeo, 2017). The U.S. is also Brazil's second largest and Russia's third largest import trade partner (World Integrated Trade Solution, 2018). This suggests that Brazilian and Russian consumers should be qualified to provide fair perceptions on American products based on past shopping experiences.

The survey was initially constructed in English and then translated into Brazilian Portuguese and Russian by two professional translators. The Brazilian Portuguese version and the Russian version were then respectively back translated into English by a Brazilian student and a Russian student studying in the U.S. The translated versions were sent back to us to compare with the original English version and check for content equivalency. After correcting all potential inconsistencies among the Brazilian Portuguese, Russian, and original English versions, we launched a pre-test and surveyed 30 nonstudent adult consumers from each country (Brazil and Russia). Respondents were asked to designate any ambiguities or awkwardness in question wording. Based on the pretest results, several items were refined due to ambiguities or cultural incompatibility.

4.1. The sample

The questionnaire was conducted online using nonstudent adult samples by a marketing research company. Panelists registered with the company were provided with an invitation to the survey. They were informed in the invitation beforehand the compensation they would receive as well as the estimate time it would take to fill out the survey. After entering the survey, the individuals were first presented with screening questions and a few demographic questions. Those who did not fit the criteria in the screening and demographic questions were not allowed to continue the survey and informed that they did not meet the qualifications to participate. Upon our acceptance of the data, the compensation for completion was distributed to the panelists. A total of 308 responses from Brazil and 309 responses from Russia were received. Out of them, 305 and 307 responses were usable for analysis. The high usability rate resulted from the force response setup in the questionnaire where respondents could not proceed with the survey unless they completed the previous session. We also controlled the area to Brazil and Russia from which responses were collected. Table 1 summarizes the sample characteristics and Table 2 shows the region distribution of the sample.

4.2. The measures

The measurement of consumer ethnocentrism was taken from Sharma (2015)'s revised consumer ethnocentrism scale, which improves Shimp and Sharma (1987)'s classic CETSCALE. There are three dimensions in the scale, including affective reaction, cognitive bias, and behavioral preference. Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement with the statement on a seven-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Following a recent study on consumer ethnocentrism by Balabanis et al. (2017), we included ten product categories to control for the effect of product categories. We adopted Elliott and Cameron (1994)'s perceived product quality measure and asked respondents how they would rate the quality of each product on a five-point scale ranging

Table 1
Sample characteristics.

Variable	Brazil		Russia	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
<i>Age</i>				
18–24	54	17.7	37	12.1
25–34	76	24.9	62	20.2
35–44	63	20.7	52	16.9
45–54	55	18.0	57	18.6
55–64	43	14.1	85	27.7
65–74	13	4.3	14	4.6
75–84	1	0.3	0	0.0
<i>Gender</i>				
Male	148	48.5	169	55.0
Female	157	51.5	138	45.0
<i>Income</i>				
Lower Class	24	7.9	13	4.2
Lower Middle Class	104	34.1	91	29.6
Middle Class	147	48.2	183	59.6
Upper Middle Class	26	8.5	20	6.5
Upper Class	4	1.3	0	0.0
<i>Education</i>				
Junior High School	12	3.9	5	1.6
High School	130	42.6	68	22.1
College No Degree	33	10.8	110	35.8
Bachelor's Degree	89	29.2	37	12.1
Master's Degree	19	6.2	42	13.7
Professional Degree	17	5.6	43	14.0
Doctoral Degree	5	1.6	2	0.7
<i>Sample Size</i>	305	100.0	307	100.0

Table 2
Region distribution.

Region	%
<i>Brazil</i>	
● North (Acre, Amapá, Amazonas, Pará, Rondônia, Roraima and Tocantins)	7.9
● Northeast (Maranhão, Piauí, Ceará, Rio Grande do Norte, Paraíba, Pernambuco, Alagoas, Sergipe and Bahia)	28.2
● Central-West (Goiás, Mato Grosso and Mato Grosso do Sul; along with Distrito Federal)	7.2
● Southeast (Espírito Santo, Minas Gerais, Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo)	42.3
● South (Paraná, Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do Sul)	14.4
<i>Russia</i>	
● Central Federal District (Moscow)	25.7
● Southern Federal District (Rostov-on-Don)	10.1
● Northwestern Federal District (Saint Petersburg)	10.1
● Far Eastern Federal District (Khabarovsk)	4.6
● Siberian Federal District (Novosibirsk)	13.0
● Urals Federal District (Yekaterinburg)	6.8
● Volga Federal District (Nizhny Novgorod)	21.8
● North Caucasian Federal District (Pyatigorsk)	6.8
● Crimean Federal District	1.1

from “very poor” to “excellent”.

Personal cultural values were measured based on Schwartz (1992)'s personal cultural values. Five dimensions (self-direction, stimulation, achievement, power, and hedonism) were selected over the other five competing values on the opposite sides. Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement with the statement on a seven-point scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

We also controlled several commonly used demographic variables in the survey based on existing consumer ethnocentrism research. The control variables included age, gender, education, and income (Balabanis et al., 2001, 2002b; De Ruyter, Van Birgelen, & Wetzels, 1998; Good & Huddleston, 1995; Han, 1988; Huddleston, Good, & Stoel, 2000; Hult, Keillor, & Lafferty, 1999; Klein & Ettensoe, 1999;

Table 3
Items, reliability, and factor loadings of the measures.

Construct (Items)	Loadings	
	Brazil	Russia
<i>Consumer Ethnocentrism (CR = 0.96/0.95; AVE = 0.66/0.61)</i>		
I love the products and services from Brazil/Russia.	0.88	0.80
I am proud of the products and services from Brazil/Russia.	0.91	0.88
I admire the products and services from Brazil/Russia.	0.92	0.87
I feel attached to the products and services from Brazil/Russia.	0.91	0.75
East or West, the products and services from Brazil/Russia are the best.	0.80	0.77
Products from Brazil/Russia are examples of best workmanship.	0.80	0.75
Service providers from Brazil/Russia have the best work attitudes.	0.79	0.76
For me, it's always the products from Brazil/Russia first, last, and foremost.	0.71	0.74
If I have a choice, I would prefer buying products and services from Brazil/Russia.	0.67	0.74
I prefer being served by service providers from Brazil/Russia.	0.74	0.71
As far as possible, I avoid buying products and services from foreign countries.	0.78	0.77
I often refuse to buy a product or service because it is from a foreign country.	0.77	0.83
<i>Self-direction (CR = 0.85/0.88; AVE = 0.59/0.64)</i>		
Thinking up new ideas and being creative is important to me. I like to do things in my own original way.	0.80	0.75
It is important to me to make my own decisions about what I do. I like to be free to plan and to choose my activities for myself.	0.83	0.82
I think it's important to be interested in things. I like to be curious and to try to understand all sorts of things.	0.74	0.85
It is important to me to be independent. I like to rely on myself.	0.70	0.77
<i>Stimulation (CR = 0.83/0.77; AVE = 0.62/0.53)</i>		
I think it is important to do lots of different things in life. I always look for new things to try.	0.79	0.76
I like to take risks. I am always looking for adventures.	0.76	0.70
I like surprises. It is important to me to have an exciting life.	0.82	0.72
<i>Achievement (CR = 0.79/0.79; AVE = 0.56/0.55)</i>		
Being very successful is important to me. I like to impress other people.	0.78	0.75
I think it is important to be ambitious. I want to show how capable I am.	0.74	0.74
Getting ahead in life is important to me. I strive to do better than others.	0.73	0.74
<i>Power (CR = 0.80/0.81; AVE = 0.58/0.58)</i>		
It is important to me to be rich. I want to have a lot of money and expensive things.	0.74	0.70
It is important to me to be in charge and tell others what to do. I want people to do what I say.	0.78	0.81
I always want to be the one who makes the decisions. I like to be the leader.	0.76	0.78
<i>Hedonism (CR = 0.82/0.87; AVE = 0.60/0.70)</i>		
I seek every chance I can to have fun. It is important to me to do things that give me pleasure.	0.76	0.82
Enjoying life's pleasures is important to me. I like to 'spoil' myself.	0.76	0.87
I really want to enjoy life. Having a good time is very important to me.	0.80	0.81
<i>Perceived Product Quality (CR = 0.92/0.92; AVE = 0.55/0.53)</i>		
Please rate the quality of laptops from the US.	0.83	0.70
Please rate the quality of cameras from the US.	0.81	0.82
Please rate the quality of cell phones from the US.	0.85	0.74
Please rate the quality of refrigerators from the US.	0.73	0.81
Please rate the quality of washing machines from the US.	0.73	0.83
Please rate the quality of cars from the US.	0.75	0.70
Please rate the quality of shoes from the US.	0.71	0.71
Please rate the quality of beer from the US.	0.64	0.63
Please rate the quality of clothing from the US.	0.70	0.65
Please rate the quality of coffee from the US.	0.63	0.62
<i>Purchase Intention (CR = 0.94/0.92; AVE = 0.88/0.85)</i>		
Please indicate your willingness to buy American products	0.94	0.92
Please indicate your willingness to try American products	0.94	0.92

Notes: All items except perceived product quality are measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”; Perceived product quality is measured on a 5-point scale ranging from “very poor” to “excellent”. CR = Composite Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted. Brazil is presented before the “/” and Russia is presented after the “/”.

Kucukemiroglu, 1999; Nielsen & Spence, 1997; Schwartz, 1992; Sharma et al., 1995; Supphellen & Rittenburg, 2001; Vida & Fairhurst, 1999).

4.3. Reliability and validity

We checked the reliability and validity of all measures as latent constructs, using AMOS 23. Each factor loading is statistically significant, and standardized values are above the recommended threshold of 0.70 for all but a few items, which were retained for construct validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). In addition, the composite reliability of each construct is greater than the suggested 0.7 cut-off point, indicating appropriate internal consistency reliability (Bollen & Lennox, 1991).

Further, the average variance extracted (AVE) of all constructs is above 0.50, which provides evidence of convergent validity. We follow the Fornell-Lacker criterion (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) to compare the square root of AVE with the correlation of latent constructs. The square root of each construct's AVE has a greater value than the correlations with other latent constructs, suggesting support for discriminant validity. All items and their loadings and reliability are reported in Table 3 and construct correlations, means, standard deviations, and square roots of AVEs are presented in Table 4.

We further conducted a multi-group confirmatory factor analysis to check configural and metric measurement invariance of the study constructs in Brazil and Russia (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). The goodness-of-fit indices fit the data highly satisfactorily ($\chi^2/df = 2.20$,

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations of the Measures.

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. CE	4.03/4.40	1.27/1.13	0.81/0.78	0.14*	0.19**	0.12*	0.12*	0.14*	-0.29**	-0.36**	0.14*	0.03	-0.01	0.15**
2. Self-direction	5.92/5.83	0.91/0.81	0.10	0.77/0.80	0.53**	0.42**	0.21**	0.38**	0.07	0.08	0.08	-0.02	0.11	0.04
3. Stimulation	4.97/4.92	1.22/1.06	0.08	0.45**	0.79/0.73	0.54**	0.36**	0.51**	0.12*	0.1	-0.09	0.01	0.02	0.19**
4. Achievement	4.75/4.84	1.45/1.19	0.16**	0.36**	0.44**	0.75/0.74	0.62**	0.51**	0.16**	0.18**	-0.09	0.06	0.01	0.18**
5. Power	4.01/4.24	1.54/1.28	0.11**	0.20**	0.30**	0.60**	0.76/0.76	0.37**	0.14*	0.16**	-0.05	0.07	0.05	0.1
6. Hedonism	5.48/5.36	1.15/1.12	0.15**	0.48**	0.55**	0.42**	0.25**	0.77/0.83	0.15**	0.18**	-0.12*	-0.18**	0.01	0.14*
7. PPO	3.94/3.62	0.62/0.59	-0.02	0.34**	0.36**	0.29**	0.28**	0.30**	0.74/0.72	0.49**	-0.22**	-0.12*	0.07	0.09
8. PI	4.03/3.47	1.00/1.09	-0.16**	0.30**	0.23**	0.28**	0.25**	0.16**	0.51**	0.94/0.92	-0.20**	0.05	0.08	0.19**
9. Age	4.00/4.43	1.46/1.49	0.21**	0.02	-0.10	-0.10	-0.09	-0.09	-0.23**	-0.16**	1/1	0.19**	0.03	-0.27**
10. Female	0.49/0.55	0.50/0.50	-0.08	-0.02	0.03	0.11	0.24**	-0.06	0.11	-0.01	0.11	1/1	-0.16**	-0.07
11. Education	3.14/3.59	1.37/1.41	-0.06	-0.01	0.05	0.01	0.09	0.02	0.01	0.07	0.08	0.02	1/1	0.16**
12. Income	2.61/2.68	0.80/0.66	-0.02	0.05	0.01	0.10	0.17**	0.03	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.11	0.37**	1/1

*p < 0.05; **p < 0.01.

Notes: CE (Consumer Ethnocentrism); PPO (Perceived Product Quality); PI (Purchase Intention). The square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) are reported on the diagonal in italics. Brazil is presented below the diagonal and before the “/”. Russia is presented above the diagonal and after the “/”.

CFI = 0.94, GFI = 0.95, TLI = 0.98, NFI = 0.97, RMSEA = 0.04), suggesting support for configural invariance. We then constrain the factor loading in the two groups to be equal and compare this model with the previous model in which factor loadings are free to be estimated across groups. The results indicate that the two country samples are invariant, and that the constraint model is not statistically different from the unconstrained model ($\Delta\chi^2(21) = 22, p > 0.05$). Thus, the two country samples achieve metric invariance.

4.4. Common method bias

In designing the survey, we paid special attention to the sequence of the constructs to minimize common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The dependent variable (perceived product quality and purchase intention) questions were placed before the personal cultural values and consumer ethnocentrism questions, with randomized order within each construct. In addition to the procedural remedy, we also controlled the effect of an unmeasured latent factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Items were allowed to load on their theoretical constructs as well as on an unmeasured latent factor. We then compared the significance levels of the factor loadings with and without the unmeasured latent factor. We found no differences in the significance levels in both country samples. Thus, it was concluded that the common method bias could not distort the results in either the Brazilian or Russian sample.

4.5. Results

To test the hypotheses, we ran two sets of regressions, one on perceived product quality of the U.S. products and the other on purchase intention of the U.S. products, for the five personal cultural values, respectively, for Brazil and Russia samples. Tables 5 and 6 report the result.

Table 5 shows the regression analysis results on perceived product quality for the two samples. Each of the five models regresses perceived product quality on consumer ethnocentrism, one of personal values, their interaction term, and demographic variables (i.e., age, female, education, and income). R² ranges from 0.15 to 0.22 for Brazil and from 0.15 to 0.17 for Russia. The interaction terms are all significant at a 5% or lower level except for the Russia sample’s power value, which is significant at 10%. Specifically, Model 1 supports H1 for self-direction by significant interaction: $\beta = 0.13$ (p < 0.05) for Brazil and $\beta = 0.12$ (p < 0.05) for Russia. Model 2 supports H2 for stimulation by significant interaction: $\beta = 0.11$ (p < 0.05) for Brazil and $\beta = 0.11$ (p < 0.01) for Russia. Model 3 supports H3 for achievement by significant interaction: $\beta = 0.11$ (p < 0.01) for Brazil and $\beta = 0.15$ (p < 0.05) for Russia. Model 4 supports H4 for power by significant interaction: $\beta = 0.15$ (p < 0.05) for Brazil and $\beta = 0.10$ (p < 0.10) for Russia. Finally, Model 5 supports H5 for self-direction by significant interaction: $\beta = 0.15$ (p < 0.05) for Brazil and $\beta = 0.19$ (p < 0.01) for Russia.

Table 6 reports the regression results on purchase intention for the two samples. In this analysis, perceived product quality is put as one of independent variables because it is a firm antecedent of product purchase intention. Thus, each of the five models regresses product purchase intention on consumer ethnocentrism, one of personal values, their interaction term, demographic variables (i.e., age, female, education, and income), and perceived product quality. R² is much higher than in the perceived product quality regressions, ranged from 0.33 to 0.36 for both Brazil and Russia. The interaction terms are all significant at a 5% or lower level. Specifically, Model 1 supports H1 for self-direction by significant interaction: $\beta = 0.11$ (p < 0.05) for Brazil and $\beta = 0.12$ (p < 0.05) for Russia. Model 2 supports H2 for stimulation by significant interaction: $\beta = 0.13$ (p < 0.05) for Brazil and $\beta = 0.16$ (p < 0.01) for Russia. Model 3 supports H3 for achievement by significant interaction: $\beta = 0.12$ (p < 0.01) for Brazil and $\beta = 0.10$

Table 5
Regression results on perceived product quality of the U.S. products.

DV: Perceived Product Quality	Coefficient	SE	T-Value	p-Value	R ²
<i>Model 1: Self-direction</i>					0.22/0.15
Constant	2.12/4.39	0.58/0.81	3.64/5.41	***/**	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.16/-0.28	0.15/0.19	-2.15/-2.49	*/**	
Self-direction	0.33/0.13	0.09/0.14	3.52/1.45	***/0.13	
Interaction [^]	0.13/0.12	0.02/0.03	2.08/1.96	*/*	
Age	-0.11/-0.06	0.02/0.02	-5.10/-2.81	***/**	
Female	0.25/-0.08	0.06/0.06	3.98/-1.25	***/0.11	
Education	0.01/0.02	0.02/0.02	0.18/0.78	0.43/0.22	
Income	0.05/0.07	0.04/0.05	1.09/1.27	0.14/0.11	
<i>Model 2: Stimulation</i>					0.21/0.16
Constant	3.08/4.12	0.49/0.58	6.29/7.09	***/**	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.04/-0.19	0.11/0.13	-0.34/-2.51	0.37/**	
Stimulation	0.19/0.06	0.09/0.11	2.20/0.55	*/0.29	
Interaction	0.11/0.11	0.02/0.02	2.26/2.35	*/**	
Age	-0.09/-0.06	0.02/0.02	-4.23/-2.46	***/**	
Female	0.23/-0.09	0.07/0.07	3.51/-1.37	***/0.09	
Education	-0.01/0.02	0.03/0.02	-0.40/0.95	0.35/0.17	
Income	0.07/0.05	0.04/0.05	1.58/0.96	0.06/0.17	
<i>Model 3: Achievement</i>					0.16/0.17
Constant	3.77/3.85	0.41/0.51	9.25/7.53	***/**	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.04/-0.13	0.09/0.10	-0.38/-1.18	0.35/0.12	
Achievement	0.07/0.11	0.07/0.09	1.98/1.18	*/0.12	
Interaction	0.11/0.15	0.02/0.02	2.44/2.25	**/*	
Age	-0.10/-0.05	0.02/0.02	-4.14/-2.41	***/**	
Female	0.21/-0.10	0.07/0.06	3.05/-1.54	**/0.06	
Education	0.01/0.02	0.03/0.02	0.03/0.89	0.49/0.19	
Income	0.04/0.05	0.04/0.05	0.96/0.94	0.17/0.18	
<i>Model 4: Power</i>					0.15/0.16
Constant	3.37/4.03	0.36/0.42	9.48/9.67	***/**	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.11/-0.15	0.07/0.08	-1.39/-2.75	0.08/**	
Power	0.16/0.08	0.07/0.09	2.31/1.91	*/*	
Interaction	0.15/0.10	0.01/0.02	2.15/1.48	*/0.08	
Age	-0.10/-0.06	0.02/0.02	-4.25/-2.46	***/**	
Female	0.19/-0.10	0.07/0.06	2.70/-1.57	**/0.06	
Education	-0.01/0.02	0.02/0.02	-0.12/0.75	0.45/0.23	
Income	0.04/0.06	0.05/0.05	0.92/1.23	0.18/0.11	
<i>Model 5: Hedonism</i>					0.20/0.16
Constant	4.31/3.69	0.55/0.55	7.88/6.72	***/**	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.28/-0.11	0.13/0.11	-2.14/-0.94	*/0.18	
Hedonism	0.03/0.12	0.08/0.09	0.33/1.30	0.37/0.10	
Interaction	0.15/0.19	0.02/0.02	2.21/2.42	*/**	
Age	-0.10/-0.06	0.02/0.02	-4.25/-2.43	***/**	
Female	0.25/-0.05	0.07/0.07	3.79/-0.75	***/0.23	
Education	-0.01/0.02	0.03/0.02	-0.32/0.94	0.38/0.18	
Income	0.05/0.06	0.04/0.05	1.17/1.18	0.12/0.12	

Notes: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01; ****p* < 0.001. The dependent variable is perceived product quality adjusted for product category. Interaction is between consumer ethnocentrism and the corresponding personal cultural value. Brazil is presented before the “/” and Russia is presented after the “/”.

(*p* < 0.001) for Russia. Model 4 supports H4 for power by significant interaction: β = 0.16 (*p* < 0.05) for Brazil and β = 0.12 (*p* < 0.01) for Russia. Lastly, Model 5 supports H5 for self-direction by significant interaction: β = 0.16 (*p* < 0.05) for Brazil and β = 0.23 (*p* < 0.01) for Russia.

As discussed beforehand, it can be concluded that Schwartz’s renowned cultural human values moderate the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on both perceived product quality and purchase intention. Fig. 1 visually demonstrates how the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intention depends on the level of each personal value across the five models. The plots are obtained, following Aiken and West’s procedure (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991), by replacing the one plus or minus standard deviation (SD) of consumer ethnocentrism and each personal value into the shortened regression equation: purchase intention = intercept + β1 * one SD of consumer ethnocentrism + β2 * one SD of personal value + β3 * one SD of consumer ethnocentrism * one SD of personal value. The plots witness a classic X-shaped interaction. Specifically, consumer ethnocentrism consistently has a strong negative effect on purchase intention in a low personal

value condition while it has a weak negative or even positive effect in a high personal value condition, which gives a concrete support to the hypotheses. Surely, personal values either weaken or strengthen the effect of consumer ethnocentrism.

Appendices 1 and 2 show the same regression results as Tables 5 and 6 except for interaction terms. Compared with the regressions without interactions, those with interactions achieve higher R² (i.e., explaining the dependent variables better) and weaken the main effect of consumer ethnocentrism. Especially, regressions on purchase intention are improved much better than those on perceived product quality. Specifically, R² of the five regression models on perceived product quality improved by 3.0 on average (ranging from 1 to 5) for Brazil and 1.2 (ranging from 1 to 20) for Russia. In contrast, R² of the five regression models on purchase intention improved by 7.6 on average for both samples (ranging from 5 to 10 for Brazil and from 4 to 10 for Russia). It can be concluded that personal values take a more significant role in the purchase stage of the consumer decision making than in the product quality evaluation stage.

Taken together, all hypotheses are fully supported in the Brazil and

Table 6
Regression Results on Purchase Intention of the U.S. Products.

DV: Purchase Intention	Coefficient	SE	T-Value	p-Value	R ²
<i>Model 1: Self-direction</i>					0.36/0.34
Constant	1.07/0.88	0.78/1.30	1.37/0.68	0.09/0.25	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.16/-0.35	0.19/0.29	-0.82/-1.19	0.21/0.12	
Self-direction	0.16/0.10	0.13/0.20	1.23/0.49	0.11/0.31	
Interaction [^]	0.11/0.12	0.03/0.05	2.26/2.31	*/*	
Age	-0.05/0.03	0.03/0.04	-1.75/0.76	*/0.23	
Female	-0.12/0.12	0.09/0.10	-1.37/1.18	0.09/*	
Education	-0.01/0.06	0.08/0.04	-1.37/1.78	0.09/*	
Income	0.15/0.16	0.06/0.08	2.56/2.05	**/*	
Perceived Product Quality	0.64/0.69	0.08/0.09	8.32/7.80	***/***	
<i>Model 2: Stimulation</i>					0.33/0.33
Constant	1.48/2.23	0.70/0.96	2.13/2.32	*/*	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.12/-0.55	0.15/0.19	-0.79/-2.84	0.22/**	
Stimulation	0.04/0.16	0.12/0.16	0.33/1.96	0.37/*	
Interaction	0.13/0.16	0.02/0.04	2.10/2.57	*/**	
Age	-0.04/0.04	0.03/0.04	-1.27/1.02	0.10/0.16	
Female	-0.15/0.09	0.09/0.09	-1.70/0.89	*/0.19	
Education	-0.01/0.08	0.03/0.04	-0.43/2.24	0.34/*	
Income	0.15/0.13	0.06/0.08	2.66/1.68	**/*	
Perceived Product Quality	0.70/0.69	0.08/0.09	9.10/7.78	***/***	
<i>Model 3: Achievement</i>					0.35/0.36
Constant	1.74/3.10	0.59/0.84	2.97/3.69	**/**	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.22/-0.76	0.11/0.16	-1.83/-4.67	*/**	
Achievement	0.04/0.32	0.09/0.14	0.38/2.25	0.35/*	
Interaction	0.12/0.10	0.02/0.03	2.83/3.20	**/**	
Age	-0.03/0.03	0.03/0.03	-1.02/0.96	0.16/0.17	
Female	-0.19/0.08	0.09/0.10	-2.11/0.86	*/0.20	
Education	-0.01/0.08	0.03/0.03	-0.34/2.23	0.37/*	
Income	0.13/0.13	0.06/0.08	2.30/1.75	*/*	
Perceived Product Quality	0.68/0.67	0.07/0.09	9.21/7.72	***/**	
<i>Model 4: Power</i>					0.33/0.35
Constant	1.58/1.37	0.52/0.72	3.03/1.89	**/*	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.13/-0.35	0.10/0.13	-1.32/-2.76	0.09/**	
Power	0.03/0.03	0.09/0.14	0.33/1.19	0.37/0.24	
Interaction	0.16/0.12	0.02/0.03	2.32/2.76	*/**	
Age	-0.04/0.04	0.03/0.03	-1.18/1.20	0.12/0.12	
Female	-0.19/0.08	0.09/0.10	-2.11/0.78	*/0.22	
Education	-0.01/0.07	0.03/0.03	-0.43/1.91	0.34/*	
Income	0.14/0.16	0.06/0.08	2.39/2.01	**/*	
Perceived Product Quality	0.71/0.67	0.07/0.09	9.56/7.59	***/**	
<i>Model 5: Hedonism</i>					0.33/0.36
Constant	0.81/1.45	0.79/0.89	1.02/1.64	0.16/*	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.05/-0.48	0.17/0.17	-0.27/-2.76	0.40/**	
Hedonism	0.13/0.11	0.12/0.14	1.11/1.93	0.13/*	
Interaction	0.16/0.23	0.02/0.03	1.99/2.23	*/*	
Age	-0.04/0.04	0.03/0.03	-1.27/1.16	0.11/0.13	
Female	-0.14/0.17	0.09/0.09	1.58/1.73	0.06/*	
Education	-0.01/0.08	0.09/0.03	-0.28/2.32	0.39/**	
Income	0.15/0.13	0.06/0.08	2.66/1.65	**/*	
Perceived Product Quality	0.73/0.66	0.08/0.09	9.50/7.62	***/**	

Notes: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01; ****p* < 0.001. The dependent variable is purchase intention. Interaction is between Consumer Ethnocentrism and the corresponding personal cultural value. Brazil is presented before the “/” and Russia is presented after the “/”.

Russia samples. Across all five models for both perceived product quality and purchase intention, some common features are found. First, the main effect of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality and purchase intention is generally significantly negative, but it disappears or gets less significant when its interaction with personal value is added. Second, all five personal cultural values are positively related to perceived product quality and purchase intention, but that effect disappears or gets weakened when its interaction with consumer ethnocentrism is added. Third, the significant interaction effect between consumer ethnocentrism and personal values suggests that the negative effect of consumer ethnocentrism will be contingent on personal values. In particular, the effect will be mitigated under the high-level self-direction, stimulation, achievement, power, and hedonism values.

5. Discussion and implications

The impact of consumer ethnocentrism on consumer evaluations and behavioral intentions has never been consistent (Good & Huddleston, 1995; Prince et al., 2016). The first body of literature shows a negative impact of consumer ethnocentrism on consumer evaluations for imported products in developed countries (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004; Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998; Netemeyer, Durvasula, & Lichtenstein, 1991; Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Lacking necessary information about foreign products, consumers in developed countries purchase domestic products to reduce risks and show national pride (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Herche, 1992). The second body of literature shows either no effect (Huddleston et al., 2000; Sharma, 2011a) or a contingent effect based on factors such as product type (Balabanis et al., 2017; Evanschitzky, 2008; Hamin, 2006), price (Winit et al., 2014),

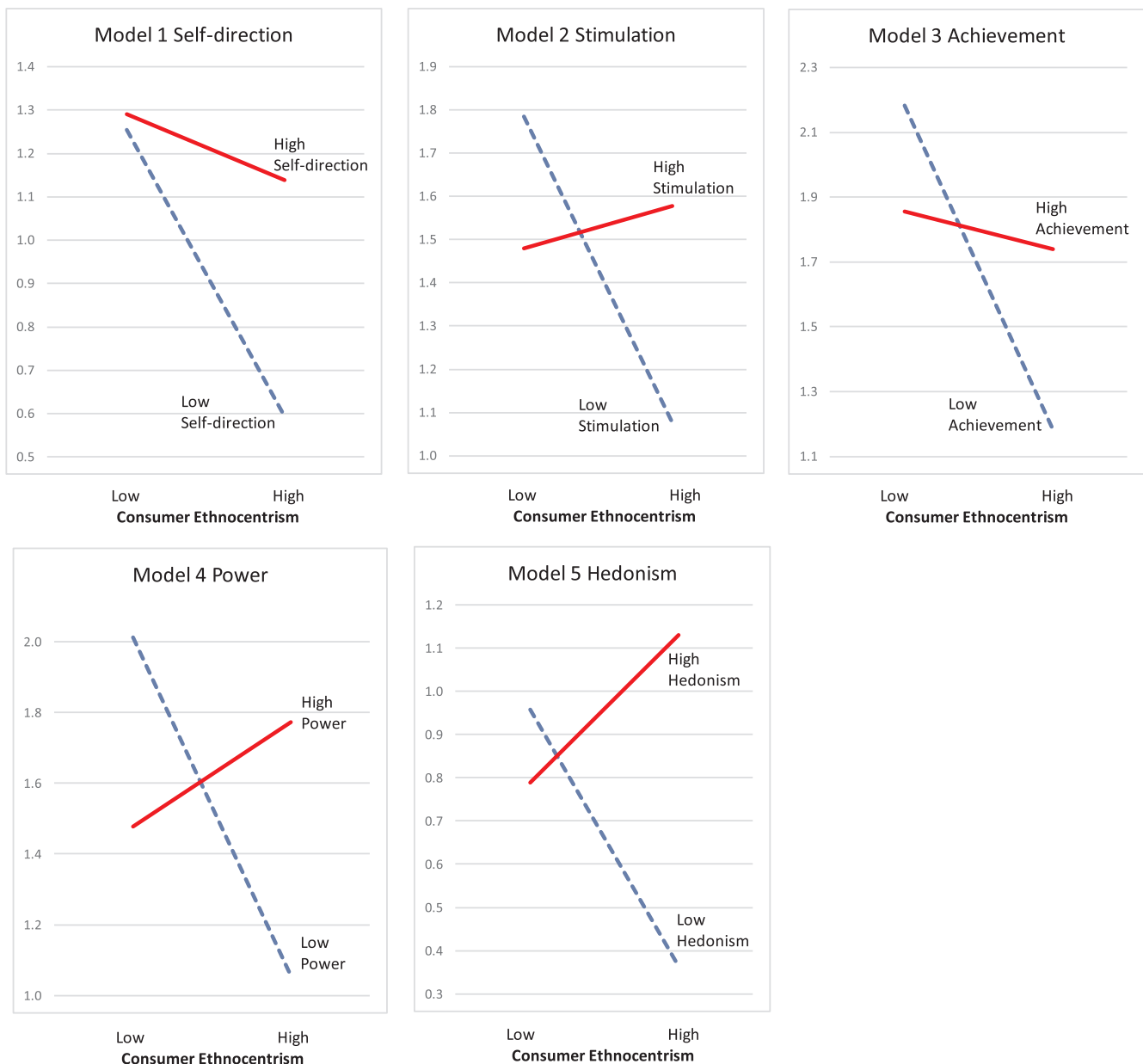


Fig. 1. Interaction effect of personal cultural values on the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intention of the U.S. products in the Brazilian sample. Note that the vertical axis is the purchase intention of the U.S. products.

brand personality (Supphellen & Grønhaug, 2003), quality judgement and conspicuous consumption (Wang & Chen, 2004), and economic development (Reardon et al., 2005; Sharma, 2011a). Our study contributes to the second body of literature based on the Optimal Distinctiveness Theory, showing that the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality and purchase intention of foreign products is contingent on personal cultural values.

5.1. Theoretical implications

Our findings suggest the possibility of two distinct groups of ethnocentric consumers: local ethnocentric consumers, and global ethnocentric consumers. Local ethnocentric consumers are those who have a stronger need for assimilation rather than distinctiveness and who sincerely believe that it is inappropriate and immoral for them to purchase foreign products. In terms of personal cultural values, local ethnocentric consumers tend to value universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, and security. In contrast, global ethnocentric

consumers agree that while it sounds appropriate and moral to buy domestic, they have no objection to purchasing foreign products. In terms of personal values, global ethnocentric consumers tend to value power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction. These consumers have a stronger need for distinctiveness over assimilation. Their desire for distinctiveness diminishes the inhibiting effect of ethnocentric belief on subsequent evaluations and attitudes toward foreign products and purchase intention. Such finding is in line with previous research (Hustvedt, Carroll, & Bernard, 2013; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019) that within highly ethnocentric consumers, there is a set of consumers who care more about buying local.

The coexistence of the two types of ethnocentric consumers helps explain the inconsistent findings in previous studies on consumer ethnocentrism. Both groups of consumers may report the same favoritism levels for domestic products, but will have different objection levels for foreign products. This may imply that future consumer ethnocentrism research should take consideration of both dimensions: consumers' favoritism for domestic products, and their objection to foreign products.

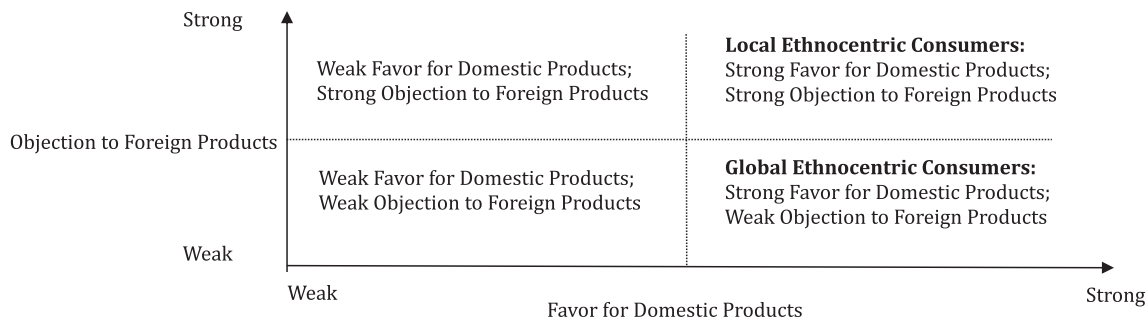


Fig. 2. Consumer types generated from findings.

As summarized in Fig. 2, consumers may be categorized into four possible groups by objection to foreign products and favor for domestic products: those who strongly favor domestic products and strongly object to foreign products; those who strongly favor domestic products and weakly object to foreign products; those who weakly favor domestic products and strongly object to foreign products; and those who weakly favor domestic products and weakly object to foreign products. We believe that ethnocentric consumers tend to show a strong favor for domestic products and that consideration of their objection to foreign products would allow further categorization into local and global segments.

Our findings also imply that a variety of antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism may impact involvement of consumer ethnocentrism. As Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller, and Melewar (2001) showed that consumer ethnocentrism in Turkey is fueled by patriotism and in the Czech Republic by nationalism, different antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism might suggest the consequential coexistence of two groups of consumer ethnocentric consumers in one society. For example, patriotism is a commitment and readiness to sacrifice for the nation while nationalism is a commitment plus exclusion of others and a readiness to sacrifice bolstered by hostility towards (Druckman, 1994). This may suggest that consumer ethnocentrism generated from patriotism is more likely to involve into global consumer ethnocentrism than consumer ethnocentrism fueled by nationalism. Further investigation into the antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism and the further involvement of consumer ethnocentrism would be fruitful.

5.2. Managerial implications

Our findings confirm the importance of focusing on individual-level cultural traits, rather than the stereotyped country-level culture when entering developing markets. It is dangerous to assume that consumers from the same culture will share the same cultural values to the same extent. For example, within the same cultural setting, individual consumers vary in terms of distinctiveness versus assimilation need. Focusing on individual-level cultural values rather than society-level cultural values will enhance managerial judgement and generate more precise decisions.

Our study generates at least three suggestions for global marketers aiming to enter developing markets. First, we suggest global marketers to strategically focus on global ethnocentric consumers. While ethnocentric consumers in general favor domestic products and are relatively difficult to persuade, global marketers can work to overcome the softer barriers of global ethnocentric consumers. Global ethnocentric consumers are distinguished from local ethnocentric consumers by their aspiration for distinctiveness, which leads to our next suggestion.

Second, we suggest global marketers to emphasize their products' distinctiveness compared with local competitors' offerings. Such distinctiveness could be manifested through product characteristics such as superior functionality, high durability, limited supply, exorbitant price, symbolic meanings, prestigious image, and corporate or brand reputation. The goal for utilizing this strategy is to make global

ethnocentric consumers feel special and able to express self-distinctiveness through purchasing, owning, and consuming the product.

Third, global marketers need to highlight certain messages while avoiding others in advertising and promotion on both traditional and social media. Commercials featuring messages regarding openness to change (self-direction, stimulation) and self-enhancement (achievement, power, and hedonism) better suit global ethnocentric consumers' need for distinctiveness. Messages featuring conservation (conformity, tradition, and security) and self-transcendence (universalism and benevolence) will reinforce the negative effect of consumer ethnocentrism and are thus not recommended.

5.3. Limitations and future directions

We use the Optimal Distinctiveness Theory to distinguish consumers' need for foreign products from their domestic counterparts. Although foreign products are arguably associated with more distinctiveness than assimilation needs, the level of distinctiveness perceived by consumers is not directly measured in this study. Preferably, the level of distinctiveness is measured on a continuous scale, rather than as a dichotomous variable. Future studies could investigate how the level of perceived distinctiveness impacts consumers' product evaluations and behaviors.

As domestic industries boom in developing markets, foreign products are facing increasingly fierce competition from local counterparts. For example, though Chinese consumers loved the American brand Apple for years, its market share slipped to the fifth place against domestic smartphone brands such as Huawei, Oppo, Vivo, and Xiaomi (King & Yan, 2019). As certain high-tech items like smartphones become commodities, the distinctiveness perceived by consumers between foreign and domestic products will be minimized (Ma, Yang, Kalliny, & Roy, 2015). This implies our findings may be temporary.

There may be a point in the near future when consumers in developing markets no longer view foreign products from developed countries as unique. Consumers' need for distinctiveness could be fully satisfied by domestic products. Even self-direction, stimulation, achievement, power, and hedonism oriented consumers will not be driven to evaluate foreign products positively by origin. Without the safeguard of global ethnocentric consumers, foreign products will face stronger entry barriers in developing markets. Consistent with prior research, this also implies that a country's economic development determines the level of consumer ethnocentrism. It would be too general to categorize markets as developed and developing, since many developing countries are in different status of economic advancement. These nations have diverse combinations of market freedom, competition, and intellectual property right protection. Future researchers will find it helpful to consider specific economic measures in consumer ethnocentrism research.

In addition, the power of opinion leaders in shaping domestic versus foreign product perceptions should not be overlooked. For example, Chinese opinion leaders such as first lady Peng Liyuan are promoting domestic brands to the public by only wearing domestic apparel

(Shepard, 2019). We did not study personal cultural values for opinion leaders in different societies. A further investigation of this topic would be interesting.

As consumer ethnocentrism is relevant to several other psychographic variables (Bizumic, 2018; Sharma, 2011a) such as consumer animosity, materialism, and value consciousness, individual differences may take a role under the same cultural setting. Future researchers could look beyond consumer ethnocentrism and apply individual personal cultural orientation perspective to other relevant psychographic variables to better understand consumer behaviors in emerging markets.

Finally, we used Schwartz’s individual human values as a measure of cultural values, but recently, new measures of cultural values accommodating, especially, Geert Hofstede (2003) and Hofstede and Hofstede (1991) national level cultural dimensions at the individual level are developed and popularly used. One of them is CVSCALE (Yoo & Shin, 2017; Yoo et al., 2011), which has been tested by many researchers for adequate reliability, validity, and across-sample and across-national generalizability.

6. Conclusion

The present research looks at the long controversial effect of

consumer ethnocentrism on perceived product quality and purchase intention of foreign products from personal cultural value perspective. Unlike developed countries where the impacts of consumer ethnocentrism on consumer attitudes and behaviors are well established, developing markets show more complex ethnocentric behaviors. The Optimal Distinctiveness Theory helps explain the mixed findings of previous research. In developing countries, foreign products are comparably more suitable to fulfill one’s distinctiveness need while domestic products are better in addressing one’s assimilation need. Consumers with personal cultural orientations such as self-direction, stimulation, achievement, power, and hedonism have a greater need for distinctiveness and thus have a positive perception toward foreign products by suppressing consumer ethnocentrism.

Acknowledgement

This research has been supported by Summer Research Grant from Frank G. Zarb School of Business at Hofstra University and New Faculty Research Fund from College of Business and Technology at The University of Texas at Tyler.

Appendix 1. Regression results on perceived product quality of the U.S. products (without interaction)

DV: Perceived Product Quality	Coefficient	SE	T-Value	p-Value	R ²
<i>Model 1: Self-direction</i>					0.17/0.14
Constant	2.68/3.86	0.26/0.29	13.43/5.41	***/**	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.12/-0.15	0.03/0.03	-0.48/-5.31	0.32/**	
Self-direction	0.24/0.09	0.04/0.04	6.73/2.26	***/*	
Age	-0.12/-0.06	0.02/0.02	-5.13/-2.80	***/**	
Female	0.26/-0.08	0.06/0.07	4.01/-1.25	***/0.11	
Education	0.01/0.02	0.03/0.02	0.19/0.69	0.43/0.25	
Income	0.05/0.07	0.04/0.05	1.10/1.34	0.14/0.09	
<i>Model 2: Stimulation</i>					0.17/0.15
Constant	3.20/3.98	0.21/0.24	15.29/16.55	***/**	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.01/-0.16	0.03/0.03	-0.38/-5.50	0.36/**	
Stimulation	0.17/0.09	0.03/0.03	6.34/2.83	***/**	
Age	-0.10/-0.06	0.02/0.02	-4.23/-2.46	***/**	
Female	0.23/-0.09	0.07/0.06	3.50/-1.35	***/0.09	
Education	-0.01/0.02	0.03/0.02	-0.41/0.92	0.34/0.18	
Income	0.07/0.05	0.04/0.05	1.56/0.99	0.06/0.16	
<i>Model 3: Achievement</i>					0.14/0.16
Constant	3.61/3.97	0.20/0.23	18.53/17.05	***/**	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.04/-0.15	0.09/0.03	-0.16/-5.45	0.44/**	
Achievement	0.10/0.09	0.02/0.03	4.27/3.35	***/**	
Age	-0.10/-0.06	0.02/0.02	-4.14/-2.43	***/**	
Female	0.21/-0.10	0.07/0.06	3.11/-1.55	***/0.06	
Education	0.01/0.02	0.03/0.02	0.06/0.91	0.48/0.18	
Income	0.04/0.05	0.05/0.05	1.00/0.94	0.16/0.18	
<i>Model 4: Power</i>					0.14/0.14
Constant	3.72/4.06	0.19/0.23	19.79/17.99	***/**	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.02/-0.15	0.03/0.03	-0.87/-5.42	0.20/**	
Power	0.09/0.08	0.02/0.03	3.80/3.04	***/**	
Age	-0.10/-0.06	0.02/0.02	-4.28/-2.46	***/**	
Female	0.18/-0.10	0.07/0.07	2.64/-1.58	**/0.06	
Education	-0.01/0.02	0.03/0.02	-0.17/0.76	0.44/0.23	
Income	0.04/0.06	0.05/0.05	0.92/1.23	0.18/0.11	
<i>Model 5: Hedonism</i>					0.18/0.15
Constant	3.20/3.90	0.22/0.25	14.30/15.40	***/**	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.01/-0.16	0.03/0.03	-0.08/-5.45	0.47/**	
Hedonism	0.16/0.08	0.03/0.03	5.43/2.91	***/**	
Age	-0.10/-0.06	0.02/0.02	-4.23/-2.45	***/**	
Female	0.26/-0.05	0.07/0.07	3.97/-0.78	***/0.22	
Education	-0.01/0.02	0.03/0.02	-0.13/1.00	0.45/0.16	
Income	0.06/0.06	0.04/0.05	1.28/1.13	0.10/0.13	

Notes: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. The dependent variable is perceived product quality adjusted for product category. Brazil is presented before the “/” and Russia is presented after the “/”.

Appendix 2. Regression results on purchase intention of the U.S. products (without interaction)

DV: Purchase Intention	Coefficient	SE	T-Value	p-Value	R ²
Model 1: Self-direction					0.27/0.26
Constant	0.90/0.51	0.39/0.55	2.28/0.92	*/0.18	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.11/-0.26	0.03/0.05	-3.22/-5.63	***/**	
Self-direction	0.19/0.16	0.13/0.06	3.76/2.64	***/**	
Age	-0.05/0.03	0.03/0.04	-1.76/0.77	*/0.22	
Female	-0.12/0.12	0.09/0.10	-1.38/1.19	0.09/0.12	
Education	-0.01/0.06	0.03/0.04	-0.23/1.75	0.41/*	
Income	0.15/0.16	0.06/0.08	2.56/2.09	**/*	
Perceived Product Quality	0.64/0.69	0.08/0.09	8.33/7.83	***/**	
Model 2: Stimulation					0.24/0.29
Constant	1.42/0.95	0.37/0.51	3.81/1.86	***/*	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.11/-0.27	0.04/0.05	-3.01/-5.52	**/**	
Stimulation	0.05/0.09	0.04/0.05	1.31/1.86	0.10/*	
Age	-0.04/0.04	0.03/0.04	-1.29/1.08	0.10/0.14	
Female	-0.15/0.11	0.09/0.10	-1.70/1.10	*/0.14	
Education	-0.01/0.07	0.03/0.04	-0.42/2.01	0.34/*	
Income	0.16/0.15	0.06/0.08	2.69/1.86	**/*	
Perceived Product Quality	0.70/0.69	0.08/0.09	9.12/7.78	***/**	
Model 3: Achievement					0.25/0.26
Constant	1.35/0.92	0.36/0.50	3.74/1.85	***/*	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.12/-0.26	0.04/0.05	-3.55/-5.68	***/**	
Achievement	0.11/0.12	0.03/0.04	3.45/2.88	***/**	
Age	-0.03/0.04	0.03/0.04	-1.02/1.13	0.16/0.13	
Female	-0.18/0.09	0.09/0.10	-2.05/0.90	*/0.19	
Education	-0.01/0.07	0.03/0.04	-0.29/2.02	0.39/*	
Income	0.14/0.14	0.06/0.08	2.37/1.76	**/*	
Perceived Product Quality	0.68/0.67	0.07/0.09	9.24/7.56	***/**	
Model 4: Power					0.28/0.27
Constant	1.46/0.97	0.37/0.50	3.99/1.96	***/*	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.10/-0.26	0.04/0.05	-2.96/-5.79	**/**	
Power	0.06/0.13	0.03/0.04	1.94/3.34	*/0.13	
Age	-0.04/0.04	0.03/0.04	-1.18/1.14	0.12/0.13	
Female	-0.19/0.08	0.09/0.10	-2.10/0.80	*/0.21	
Education	-0.01/0.07	0.03/0.04	-0.42/1.87	0.34/*	
Income	0.14/0.15	0.06/0.08	2.39/2.00	**/*	
Perceived Product Quality	0.71/0.67	0.07/0.09	9.56/7.59	***/**	
Model 5: Hedonism					0.28/0.27
Constant	1.43/0.56	0.38/0.51	3.73/1.10	***/0.14	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.11/-0.27	0.04/0.05	-2.98/-6.00	**/**	
Hedonism	0.13/0.18	0.04/0.04	0.80/4.01	0.21/**	
Age	-0.04/0.04	0.03/0.03	-1.29/1.20	0.10/0.12	
Female	-0.15/0.18	0.09/0.10	1.64/1.81	*/0.14	
Education	-0.01/0.08	0.03/0.03	-0.35/2.18	0.36/*	
Income	0.15/0.14	0.06/0.08	2.62/1.83	**/*	
Perceived Product Quality	0.72/0.66	0.08/0.09	9.47/7.58	***/**	

Notes: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. The dependent variable is purchase intention. Brazil is presented before the “/” and Russia is presented after the “/”.

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