Antecedents and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism in an emerging market: uncovering implicit attitudes using the implicit association test.

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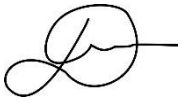
DECLARATION

I, Darren Till, declare that this dissertation is my own, unaided work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Commerce (Research) in Marketing at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination at this or any other university.



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ABSTRACT

With an increase in globalization, and a simultaneous decline in industry growth, South African brand managers in the fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) sector need to consider appropriate marketing strategies to remain competitive against the ever-encroaching multinational conglomerates. Fortunately, international marketing may have a solution in the form of consumer ethnocentrism – a socio-psychological trait that manifests as a general preference for local products, as opposed to those imported. Despite a distinct dearth of research in Africa, the predominant consensus within the field is that consumer ethnocentric tendencies (CET) are linked to a nation's economic prosperity, and that consumers in developing countries generally prefer foreign products. However, research has begun to emerge which brings the validity of such an assumption into question. It is on this premise that the current research enquiry attempts to address the inconsistencies of the extant body of research, which has primarily operationalized traditional market research techniques that are fraught with response biases and other methodological shortfalls.

Thus, by employing a combination of implicit (non-direct) and explicit (self-report) survey techniques this study attempts to uncover consumers' true, nonconscious attitudes towards domestic and imported consumer packaged goods. To this end, a cohort of n=500 Generation Z individuals (between the ages of 18 and 26 years old) were surveyed using a bespoke online questionnaire on the CloudArmy Reactor platform. The subsequent data output was systematically analysed with structural equation modelling (SEM) and metric invariant group difference analyses, which were all carried out on IBM SPSS and Amos version 27.

The results of this analysis suggest that the socio-psychological predisposition of patriotism is a highly significant driver of consumer ethnocentric tendencies (CET) in this particular generational cohort. Additionally, the centrality dimension of materialism was observed to exert a converse, negative influence on CET. Willingness to buy, on the other hand, is significantly influenced by both consumer ethnocentrism and implicit attitudes. Most notably, the former relationship was positive, whereas, the latter is negative, suggesting a level of cognitive dissonance as purported by the dual attitude model. Finally, none of the demographic variables

were found to moderate the model, with only one path (between financial satisfaction and CET) indicating significant moderation by gender.

Importantly, a number of theoretical implications can be gleaned from this study. Most notably, the paper sheds light on many inconsistencies in the extant literature by confirming the nascent conceptualisation of implicit consumer ethnocentrism (ICE). Additionally, it expands on the previously observed moderating variables and highlights the need to examine the effect of materialism's three sub-dimensions separately. In terms of specific managerial implications, these findings reiterate the value of incorporating patriotic themes into marketing efforts, so as to heighten CET behaviour in South African consumers. As an extension, local practitioners are well advised to use consumer ethnocentrism as a predictable psychographic identifier and driver towards prosocial buying behaviour. In toto, this paper culminates in several other key managerial and theoretical implications which may assist local brand managers guard against the encroaching threat posed by globalisation and heightened competition in the South African FMCG marketplace.

Key words: consumer ethnocentrism, country-of-origin, international marketing, nonconscious, implicit attitudes, consumer neuroscience.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Craig and Candice Till, and my loving girlfriend, Alice.

“Don't shine so others can see you. Shine so that through you, others can see Him.” – C. S. Lewis

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction

Commonly referred to as the economic powerhouse of Africa (Nare & Mataire, 2020), South Africa has experienced significant growth of domestic brands in the last century, with some home-grown firms such as SAB Miller and Nando's successfully expanding their product offerings beyond our borders. Moreover, the national fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) industry – encompassing those products that are bought at a low cost and consumed regularly by the end consumer (Jacobs & Mafini, 2019) – has also seen consistent growth. I fact FMCG consumption increased by 48% in the two years preceding the economic disruptions of the Coronavirus pandemic (Nielsen, 2018). Although these goods are sold at low profit margins, the sheer quantity and frequency of sales significantly contribute to the local economy (Noko, 2018) – making it an industry of particular importance to government, specific interest to researchers, and value to brand owners.

Indeed, the culmination of reduced barriers to international trade, ease of global communications, and steadily improving living standards have resulted national markets rich in competition from both domestic and international firms (Pentz, Terblanche, & Boshoff, 2017). As such, there has been increased interest of how the "made in…" phrase sways consumer behaviour (Tjandra, Omar, & Ensor, 2015). The resultant consensus is that in order to remain competitive in an increasingly globalised context, marketers need to explore the phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism to help nullify the threats of assortment, quality and pricing offered by international brands (Casado-Aranda, Sanchex-Fernandez, Ibanez-Zapata, & Liebana-Cabanillas, 2020; Muchandiona, Kakava, & Makanyeza, 2021; Vuong & Giao, 2020).

As a major barrier to international trade (John & Brady, 2011; Shankarmahesh, 2006), consumer ethnocentrism is an important product cue due to its direct influence on willingness to buy fast-moving consumer goods (Silili & Karunaratna, 2014). Thus, central to this paper is the concept of consumer ethnocentrism (CET)

which explains an individual's proclivity to choose local brands over foreign ones, despite other relevant product cues such as price and quality (Akbarov, 2021; Das & Mukherjee, 2019; Kamwendo, Corbishley, & Mason, 2014; Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Initially, investigations into this phenomenon were conducted exclusively in economically developed countries, eliciting strong ethnocentric attitudes amongst the respective populations (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004; Granzin & Painter, 2001; Shimp & Sharma, 1987). More recently, however, inverse results have been observed in developing markets where a bias towards positively evaluating foreign products has generally been proposed (De Run, Chan, & Khalique, 2012; Ranjbarian, Morteza, & Mirzaei, 2010; Tsai, Lee, & Song, 2013). This has initiated renewed interest within the context of developing nations, with African researchers such as Kibert (2016) concluding that this predominate conceptualisation of consumer ethnocentrism in developing markets is not as unidimensional as once thought.

Importantly, consumer ethnocentrism was originally described by Shimp and Sharma (1987) primarily as a conscious evaluation. This has resulted in the methodological approach of subsequent research which makes use of traditional modes of market research such as focus groups and questionnaires – collectively referred to as 'explicit' techniques – that rely on self-reported, introspective experience (Greenwald & Lai, 2020; Maison, 2016; Tseng, Balabanis, & Liu, 2016). Conversely, 'implicit' measurement techniques are grouped by a common independence from conscious deliberation, intentional introspection, and self-report on the part of the respondent (Nosek, Hawkins, & Frazier, 2011; Perkins, Forehand, Greenwald, & Maison, 2018).

Initially developed to test unconscious stereotypes in the field of social psychology, the Implicit Association Test (IAT) is an online assessment procedure which infers the strength of association between concepts in the subject's semantic memory (Nosek, Greenwald, & Banaji, 2005). It operationalises a simple sorting task to compare response latency between tasks, allowing quick, scalable and insightful assessment of nonconscious attitudes, biases and perceptions (Bridger, 2020; Greenwald & Banaji, 2017). This type of approach has proven particularly useful in in market research (Bridger, 2020) as it negates the need for the participant's cognizance of a relation between their response and the content of interest (Nosek & Greenwald, 2009), thereby avoiding the inherent pitfalls of explicit measures. Such

an approach can be beneficial in understanding the true drivers of consumer attitudes (Martin, Shyue Wai Lee, & Lacey, 2011), especially in the context of developing countries which face the threat of ever-encroaching global firms dominating international markets. It is precisely for these reasons that the reputable IAT methodology has been selected to assess the important phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism in South Africa.

1.2. Problem statement

Globalization is one of the most influential forces currently shaping regional marketplaces in that the provision of goods and services is no longer constrained by a firm's geographical location (Makanyeza & du Toit, 2017). Naturally, such a significant driver of change presents local businesses with unprecedented levels of competition from well-established global firms (Das Nair, 2018; Ranjbarian, Morteza, & Mirzaei, 2010). Unsurprisingly this has initiated a call for fresh, context specific insights as to which factors influence consumer attitudes, intentions and behaviours involved in such a globalised economy (Muchandiona, Kakava, & Makanyeza, 2021).

Despite this shared goal amongst international marketers, such research into perceptions and intentions have been notably lacking in developing countries (Makanyeza & du Toit, 2017; Pentz, Terblanche, & Boshoff, 2017). This has prompted some proponents such as Karoui and Khemakhemb (2019) to call for a concerted effort to attend to this literary gap by actively pursuing consumer ethnocentric research in developing countries. Moreover, Muchandiona and colleagues (2021) reiterate that despite consumer ethnocentrism's power to guard against threats of international trade, the phenomenon have been sorely overlooked in a major economic conglomerate: The Southern African Development Community (SADC).

Even so, the limited literature that does exist has largely relied on traditional metrics such as the Brand Preference Measure (BPM) and the Consumer ethnocentrism scale (CETSCALE), all of which are explicit, self-report measures (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016). Although useful, the validity of such paradigms is particularly vulnerable to situations in which opinions are not formed prior to the research, attitudes are not readily accessible to conscious awareness, or when participants

show an unwillingness to accurately share these attitudes (Eijlers, Smidts, & Boksem, 2019; Dholakia & Morwitz, 2002). The phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism is one such topic that may render explicit reports unreliable due to social desirability biases and other methodological issues (Perkins, Forehand, Greenwald, & Maison, 2018). Moreover, explicit reports are known to have little predictive value in situations involving impulse buying decisions, free from conscious deliberation (Bridger, 2020; Hofmann, Gawronski, Gschwendner, Le, & Schmitt, 2005).

Thus, it is henceforth argued that the employment of a non-conscious, response-latency measure such as the Implicit association test (IAT) may reveal new insights amongst the fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) product category, in which consumers commonly show high levels of impulsive purchases (Chen, Kassas, & Gao, 2021). In addition to this, the FMCG industry is of interest due to its fiscal impact on the national economy, and the category's saliency in ever-day shopping (Vibhuti & Pandey, 2014). Thus, it is this frequency of purchase and commonality of experience that ensures the average consumer is likely to be familiar with the brands therein, and thus, hold relevant attitudinal concepts.

Unfortunately, such intersectionality of topic (consumer ethnocentrism) and methodology (the IAT) has been largely overlooked, in South Africa and the world alike. The exception to this rule is that of a study by Maison and Maliszewski (2016) which used the IAT to contrast implicit and explicit consumer attitudes towards foreign and local goods in Poland. The results strongly suggest the existence of implicit attitudes which are generated by non-conscious processes which may significantly influence behaviour in certain contexts. As such, a dissociation of self-reported preferences and implicit preferences can be observed in developing countries, where automatic, emotional processes clash with more deliberate, rational process, leading to cognitive dissonance (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016).

1.3. Research objectives and question

1.3.1. Primary research objective:

The primary research objective of this study is to investigate the combined predictive strength of implicit consumer attitudes and CET on willingness to buy local brands in

the fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) product category of an emerging market such as South Africa.

1.3.2. Secondary objectives:

- To investigate the influence of socio-psychological and economic antecedents on consumer ethnocentrism.
- To explore how consumer ethnocentrism influences implicit brand attitudes.
- To investigate the impact of consumer ethnocentrism on willingness to buy local products in the FMCG product category.
- To determine the implicit attitudes that South African consumers hold towards local brands in the FMCG product category.
- To determine the level of consumer ethnocentrism amongst South African consumers in the FMCG product category.
- To investigate whether the demographic variables of gender, education and income exert any moderating effect on the study's conceptual model.
- To inform strategy development on how local firms can best curb the threat of foreign competition.
- To inform managerial decision-making processes with respect to effective market segmentation along the lines of consumer's ethnocentric tendencies.

1.3.3. Research question

This study seeks to answer the following overarching research question: What are the antecedents and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism using the CETSCALE and Implicit Association Test?

1.4. Theoretical framework and conceptual model

In attempting to understand the phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism, it is worth first considering the studies conducted on minimal group membership. From this, it was determined that many of the social groups we identify with are both arbitrary in nature and psychologically constructed. Nationalism is no exception, with a random place of birth denoting significant meaning to the individual and fellow countrymen. This, of course, is the result of what Tajfel and Turner (1979) named Social Identity Theory (SIT) which denotes the human proclivity to seek out and gain emotional fulfilment from one's alignment with a positively perceived social group. Indeed, such

value judgements presuppose the exaltation of members and disapproval of non-members, resulting in the formation of in-groups and out-groups.

The natural consequence of this tendency is called ethnocentrism in which other cultures, groups, behaviours, and beliefs are critically interpreted through the lens of one's own worldview (LeVine, 2017). However, such a critical stance towards the social world need not be reserved for national group membership, rather it commonly extends to many other social spheres such as family circles, religious groups, and patriotic ties (Murdock, 1931). As such, Shimp and Sharma (1987) identified the applicability of this sociological phenomenon in the context of commercial shopping. From this, the term 'consumer ethnocentrism' was established to refer to the predispositions and attitudes that consumers hold towards local and foreign products (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019).

Initially, this was conceptualised as a conscious value-judgment rooted in the nationalistic morality of supporting local businesses (Pentz, 2011), however, the increasing incidence of conflicting empirical results (especially in the context of developing economies) has brought the validity of this assumption into question (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016). As such, the traditional model of consumer ethnocentrism – which accounts for the antecedents, mediators, moderators, and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism – is critically inspected to find the potential source of empirical inconsistency. From this, it is determined that the current conceptualisation of consumer attitude needs to be re-evaluated as it relies too heavily on the assumption that consumers reliably make decisions based on logic and conscious deliberation – an incomplete picture resulting from Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behaviour.

Instead, it is argued that the understanding of consumer cognition, preference and decision-making be supplemented by newer, more holistic theories. To begin with, cognitive neuroscience has repeatedly shown the applicability of what is called the 'dual attitude model' (Wilson, Lindsey, & Schooler, 2000) in which an individual can simultaneously possess two contradictory attitudes – one which is conscious, and another which is not. Of course, this presupposes two systems of cognitive processing, one which is borne out of rationality and another that is governed by association (Serenko & Turel, 2019). The field of cognitive psychology has put

forward the concept of associative networks which explain how concepts are stored in a web-like network of different nodes in one's long-term semantic memory (Pace-Sigge, 2018). The recall of these concepts, in turn, is facilitated by spreading activation whereby the whole memory network is diffusely activated, causing automatic associations (Peschel et al., 2019). This explains why when one thinks of 'Germany', high-quality German engineering may come to mind.

Finally, this discussion culminates in the concept of Implicit Social Cognition (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995) which refers to the various attitudes, stereotypes and self-concepts that exist independent from conscious awareness and control. These unconscious factors all serve to influence cognition, emotion, and behaviour even if the individual is not aware of their existence. Consequently, the commercial derivative of this is Implicit Consumer Cognition which is argued to govern every type of consumption behaviour, particularly the situations that involve a product's local or foreign country-of-origin. Accordingly, Maison and Maliszewski (2016) argue that consumer ethnocentric attitudes can be unconsciously governed too, thereby introducing Implicit Consumer Ethnocentrism (ICE).

It is the inclusion of this implicit dimension to consumer ethnocentrism that sets the subsequent conceptual model apart from the predominant frameworks (Sharma et al., 1995; Javalgi et al., 2005; Shankarmahesh, 2006). This is done to supplement the shortcomings of traditional modes of attitude measurement and thereby clarify the inconsistencies observed in the literature. Moreover, the conceptual model utilises key demographic variables as moderators (instead of antecedents) so as to gain an understanding of how to better segment this consumer predisposition. This model and the various relationships therein have resulted in the following set of hypotheses:

H1: Patriotism significantly and positively predicts consumer ethnocentric tendencies amongst generation Z South Africans.

H2: Materialism (success) significantly and negatively predicts consumer ethnocentric tendencies amongst generation Z South Africans.

H3: Materialism (centrality) significantly and negatively predicts consumer ethnocentric tendencies amongst generation Z South Africans.

H4: Materialism (happiness) significantly and negatively predicts consumer ethnocentric tendencies amongst generation Z South Africans.

H5: Personal financial satisfaction significantly and negatively predicts consumer ethnocentric tendencies amongst generation Z South Africans.

H6: Consumer ethnocentrism significantly and positively predicts implicit attitudes towards local brands.

H7: Consumer ethnocentrism significantly and positively predicts willingness to buy local brands.

H8: Implicit attitudes significantly and positively predict willingness to buy local brands.

H9: Education significantly moderates the relationships in the conceptual model.

H10: Gender significantly moderates the relationships in the conceptual model.

H11: Income significantly moderates the relationships in the conceptual model.

1.5. Research methodology

To best articulate research methodology in business, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2019) conceptualised the “research onion” which serves as the methodological framework for this proposed study.

1.5.1. Research philosophy, approach, and strategy

Due to the nature of the research question, this study assumes a positivist research philosophy. Moreover, the deductive reasoning of a quantitative data analysis was employed as the enquiry calls for an empirical investigation of the relationships between distinct socio-psychological constructs. Subsequent to a comprehensive review of the literature, it was established that this study would be best served by a self-administered, online survey strategy which incorporated experimental response latency paradigms. These two additional measures were the Implicit association test (IAT) and a timed choice-based experiment (tCBE), both of which added an extra dimension of data from which better informed insights could be gleaned (Bridger, 2020). As a whole, this study constituted cross-sectional, descriptive research grounded in an objective reality (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019).

1.5.2. Sampling design

As this study is concerned with the domain specific phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism, it was determined that the population should be constituted by South Africans only. It was further decided that this study would focus on the rapidly growing consumer base of generation Z (born between 1995 and 2010) individuals as they are emerging as major contributors to the global economy (Anthony, 2015). As such participants were screened before testing to ensure that these sample prerequisites of age and nationality were met. As a sampling frame of this magnitude was not viable, this study employed a non-probability sampling technique. Using a convenience sampling method, emails with the online survey link were disseminated to students at the University of Witwatersrand. From this, 500 valid and usable responses were collected over a period of five days. This sample size was deemed to be acceptable as it matched and often exceeded the sample sizes of many other consumer ethnocentric studies around the world.

1.5.3. Data collection, instrument, and administration

Made up of six sections, the online, self-administered survey was hosted by the bespoke market research platform, *Reactor* (CloudArmy Network Inc., 2021). Due to the platform's versatility, the data of all three research paradigms (explicit survey, implicit association test, and timed choice-based experiment) were collected in one seamless test, with each section preluded by clear instructions. This intuitive and self-explanatory interface negated the need for in-person administration of the test, thereby profoundly increasingly its scalability and potential reach (Bridger, 2020). The order of testing was as follows:

Section A – the Implicit Association Test (IAT) aimed at uncovering implicit, nonconscious consumer attitudes towards the local brand (Simba) and foreign brand (Lay's).

Section B – explicit self-report questions to capture socio-psychological antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism. In this, participants were presented with various statements concerning their perceptions of patriotism, materialism success, materialism centrality and materialism happiness, and were expected to agree or disagree according to a 7-point Likert-type scale.

Section C – a timed choice-based experiment (tCBE) was created to mimic a purchasing scenario and capture participants' willingness to buy.

Section D – a self-report survey following the 7-point Likert-type structure was used to measure the economic antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism.

Section E – a 6-item version of the CETSCALE was used to measures the respondent's consumer ethnocentric tendencies.

Section F – various self-report, multiple choice questions captured simple demographic data.

1.5.4. Data analysis

Subsequent to data capturing, various descriptive analyses were undertaken on the Reactor platform (CloudArmy Network Inc., 2021), Microsoft Excel, as well as IBM SPSS version 27. Thereafter, the inferential analysis was conducted on SPSS AMOS version 27 using structural equation modelling (SEM). Due to the unique nature of the data involved, the first segment of the structural model was assessed using maximum likelihood estimation (MLE), while the second segment required Bayesian estimation. Finally, moderation of three demographic variables was examined with the group difference analysis of a metric invariant technique, the Chi-squared (χ^2) test.

1.6. Significance of the study

By addressing several gaps in the literature and incorporating a nascent testing paradigm to the study of consumer ethnocentrism, this study presents important implications for marketers, as well as theoretical contributions to the body of knowledge.

1.6.1. Practical implications

Consumer ethnocentrism is regarded as one of the most important extrinsic product cues in determining purchase intention (Fernández-Ferrín, Bande-Vilela, Klein, & del Río-Araújo, 2015). As such, strategies tailored towards enhancing this psychological state of mind are invaluable to local brand managers. It is, therefore, imperative that marketers, domestic and international alike, understand how this psychological phenomenon is caused, so as to improve behavioural prediction and better control

the outcome of such processes. South African practitioners can undoubtedly benefit from this information by adapting their marketing strategies to maximise the effect of consumer ethnocentrism and its ability to fend against competition from international firms.

Additionally, the insights gained from demographic moderation testing should significantly improve managerial decision-making when looking to effectively segment the market. By understanding how each demographic cohort responds to changes in the various factors that lead up to a purchasing decision between local and foreign goods, marketing strategies can be designed and targeted for specific psychographic or demographic groups. In total, this study should inform marketing brand managers, international and local alike, on how to best position their products to best exploit the socio-psychological, socio-economic, and ethnocentric predispositions according to specific psychographic parameters.

1.6.2. Theoretical contribution

From a theoretical point of view, this study most notably contributes to the existing body of literature by being among the first to examine implicit consumer attitudes with respect to consumer ethnocentrism in Africa. Moreover, it adds to the dearth of research in the context of developing countries and within the generation Z cohort, while enriching the understanding of how consumer ethnocentrism is manifested by scarcely researched socio-psychological predispositions such as financial satisfaction. Indeed, this paper is one of the few to investigate the predictive validity of materialism's three constituent parts (success, centrality, happiness).

As such, the findings herein serve to clarify many of the inconsistencies found in previous research with respect to the relationship between materialism predispositions and CET. Hence, future consumer ethnocentrism researchers would do well to follow this precedent by employing a similar piecemeal approach to the three dimensions of the socio-psychological consumer state. Finally, the findings serve to validate Maison and Maliszewski's (2016) claim that consumer ethnocentrism is a phenomenon governed by two distinct mechanisms operating on different cognitive levels. Together, it is hoped that these contributions shed light on the phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism, corroborating the notion of an

additional, distinct dimension of CET that also exerts significant influence on consumer behaviour.

1.7. Clarification of key terms

Consumer ethnocentrism – A general proclivity to favour local products over their foreign counterparts, often in spite of other intrinsic and extrinsic product cues (Agarwal, 2020).

Country of origin – An extrinsic product cue, operationalised in this study as the country in which the brand's official headquarters are located (Johansson, Douglas, & Nonaka, 1985).

Generational cohort – a method of demographic categorization which groups individuals according to shared life experiences and commonalities unique to their era (Thach, Riewe, & Camillo, 2020).

Generation Z – the generational cohort born between the years 1995 and 2010, as operationalised by McKinsey & Company (Francis & Hoefel, 2018).

Attitude – The cognitive evaluation of an object (most often a brand or product in a commercial context). It is necessary for this evaluation to have both dimensions of valency and strength for it to be considered a consumer attitude (Zhang, Zhang, & Zhou, 2021).

Nonconscious – The cognitive processes which individuals are not aware of and do not have access to by means of introspection (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007). The terms nonconscious and unconscious can be used interchangeably, however the latter also denotes a lack of wakefulness and perception (hence the preference of nonconscious in consumer neuroscientific research).

Implicit – For ease of reference, implicit is used in a procedural context to denote the indirect measurement of attitude (Greenwald & Banaji, 2017). In other words, it refers to measurement techniques that avoid self-report and focus on inferring attitudes from overt behavioural cues such as reaction times (Corneille & Hütter, 2020).

Explicit – Conversely, the term explicit[1] is used in reference to measurement techniques and instruments that largely rely on self-report and introspection on the part of a respondent (Greenwald & Banaji, 2017). In such a scenario, participants are aware of the relationship between what is being asked and the construct under investigation.

System 1 – This term is used in reference to the two contrasting concepts that theoretical represent the automatic and nonautomatic types of cognitive processing which govern human experience (Corneille & Hütter, 2020). System 1 specifically relates to processes that are automatic, instinctual and operate below the level of conscious awareness. Thus, the sudden urge to run after seeing a spider is a direct behavioural manifestation of the nonconscious System 1. This system is informed by associative concepts that make up cognitive biases, heuristics and schemas (Kahneman, 2011).

System 2 – In contrast, System 2 refers to the processes involved in conscious deliberation and thought, which is more rational, slow and effortful in nature (Corneille & Hütter, 2020). This system is employed in a situation that requires more complex rationalising than simple associative computations and is commonly associated with the act of thinking. For example, System 2 is actively employed while filing your tax return due to the task's demand for cognitive load and concentration[2].

Implicit Association Test (IAT) – A response latency measure of nonconscious attitudes, perceptions and self-concepts. Using sorting task, response times are used to indicate the strength of association between two comparative concepts in the participant's semantic memory (Perkins, Forehand, Greenwald, & Maison, 2018). This strength of association is used to infer the valency and conviction of an attitude towards the object in question.

Fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) – Low-involvement and low-priced physical products that are bought and consumed regularly. These products typically include

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[1] Please note that 'Explicit' and 'Implicit' are not strictly dichotomous terms. In fact, some measurement techniques can have a degree of both, but they may fall closer to one side of the spectrum than the other.

[2] Generally speaking, implicit measures like response latency techniques are directed at System 1 processes, whereas self-report techniques like traditional surveys engage System 2 processing.

packaged foods, beverages, snack foods, toiletries, cosmetic products, and other common goods intended for personal consumption (Jacobs & Mafini, 2019).

Implicit social cognition – The various attitudes, stereotypes and self-concepts that influence cognition, emotion and behaviour below the level of conscious awareness and control (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995).

Patriotism – A measure of love for and pride in one's own country (Pentz et al., 2017), and is also used as an indication of loyalty towards one's nation and fellow countrymen (Kostić, Stanišić, & Marinković, 2020).

Materialism – The degree of priority which an individual places on material possessions (Richins & Dawson, 1992). This is commonly conceptualised as one socio-psychological concept constituted by the dimensions of success, centrality and happiness (Chan & Prendergast, 2007).

Financial satisfaction – The subjective perception of one's own ability to meet current financial obligations, satisfy needs, and attain a desired way of life (Hampson, Ma, & Wang, 2018).

1.8. Outline of the dissertation

Chapter 1: Introduction and background to the study

As an introduction to the dissertation, this chapter provides an overview of the research paper as a whole. In doing so, it provides the context from which this study was conceived, as well as justifying the importance of such a research enquiry. Moreover, the research methodology is briefly explained, followed by a summary of the key terms and phrases central to this paper.

Chapter 2: Literature review

Focussing on the South African FMCG industry, this chapter begins with a discussion of the shifts and emerging trends in the market and amongst consumers alike. From there, the theoretical and practical relevance of a product's country-of-origin is defined and elaborated on, leading to the marketing utility of consumer ethnocentrism in a developing country.

Chapter 3: Theoretical framework, conceptual model, and hypothesis development

Central to the arguments of the subsequent work, chapter 3 addresses the core theoretical principles, models and paradigms on which the paper is based. Drawing from various fields, the topics of social identity theory (SIT), ethnocentrism, dual attitudes, implicit memory, associative networks and spreading activation are used to explain consumer ethnocentrism and implicit social cognition which guides human and – by implication – consumer behaviour. This discussion naturally results in a conceptual model and the subsequent development of research hypotheses.

Chapter 4: Methodology

As an extension of the brief methodology section, chapter 5 comprehensively explains the use of particular research methods over others. Using Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill's (2019) illustrative framework, the chosen research philosophy, approach and design are justified with reference to contextual constraints and research requirements. Thereafter, the appropriate instruments are discussed, and sampling design elaborated on. Lastly, the data collection procedure and analysis phases will be established, ending with a concise, yet systematic, consideration of the ethical implications involved in such a project.

Chapter 5: Results

Chapter 5 documents the process and outcome of the statistical analyses involved in this empirical project. This chapter begins with the presentation of relevant sample characteristics and group results from the two experimental paradigms – the IAT and tCBE. Following, the descriptive statistics of each latent construct are outlined, with additional consideration to the data's univariate normality. Finally, the process of structural equation modelling (SEM) is discussed, with emphasis on the results of the hypothesis testing and group difference testing.

Chapter 6: Findings, recommendations, and conclusions

Finally, chapter 6 brings the dissertation to a close by presenting a discussion of the main findings. This is accomplished by recalling the results, explaining the real-world interpretation of such result, discussing the possible theoretical explanations of such outcomes and identifying research which either observed similar or contradictory

findings. Thereafter, the implications of these research findings are deliberated on, specifically with reference to how researchers and marketing practitioners can benefit from the current research. From there, several research limitations are noted, with a corresponding section dedicated to how future research can elaborate on the current work. Lastly, the chapter is completed by concluding remarks which provide a recap of the project as a whole.

CHAPTER 2:

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The previous chapter serves to introduce the study's aims, objectives and methodology. This chapter, in contrast, addresses the fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) industry which is one of the fastest growing sectors in sub-Saharan Africa, and is increasingly attracting the attention of multinational firms (Noko, 2018). With the influence of global events and technological advancements, the FMCG sector faces certain opportunities and challenges that international marketers need to account for (Chakabva, Tengeh, & Dubihlela, 2020). As such, this literature review is aimed at unpacking the various shifts and emerging trends in the industry and thereafter discuss one effective strategy that shrewd marketing managers can employ to mitigate or exploit such changes. This will be accomplished by reviewing the available literature on the country-of-origin effect (COO), as well as how the phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism influences perceptions and behaviour in developing countries as a whole, African nations in particular, and finally in the domestic market of South Africa.

2.2. Shifts and emerging trends in the FMCG industry

Arguably the most influential factor to shape the international market since industrialisation is that of globalization. Due to the culmination of reduced barriers to international trade, ease of global communications, and steadily improving living standards, the provision of goods and services are no longer constrained by a firm's geographical location (Makanyeza & du Toit, 2017). This expansion of the new global market results in two consequences within domestic markets: a dramatic increase in the variety of brands of a given product category (Diamantopoulos, Florack, Halkias, & Palku, 2017), and unprecedented levels of competition between firms (Muchandiona, Kakava, & Makanyeza, 2021; Pentz, Terblanche, & Boshoff, 2017).

One area of commerce that is experiencing the effects of this extreme competitiveness is the consumer goods industry (Hattingh, Magnus, & Ramlakan, 2016). Defined as low-priced physical products which are bought and consumed regularly, fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) include packaged foods, beverages, snack foods, toiletries, cosmetic products, and other common consumables intended for personal consumption (Jacobs & Mafini, 2019). Despite the recently diminishing global growth rate, the FMCG industry remains one of the most substantial sectors in every national economy, accounting for approximately half of all consumer purchasing worldwide (Kenton, 2021). This dominance, despite notably low-profit margins per unit, is attributable to the sheer volume of units consistently purchased on a regular basis. Due to this emphasis on mass production and slim margins, however, role-players in this sector are constantly motivated to explore new markets, reduce prices, and improve quality – all of which contribute to a fierce business environment (Chakabva, Tengeh, & Dubihlela, 2020).

Given the steady economic development on the African continent, sub-Saharan Africa's growing middle class is the current focus of many powerful FMCG corporations, local and international alike (Noko, 2018). These previously unprofitable markets have been invigorated by increasing populations with discretionary income to try novel product alternatives that are beginning to enter the consumer goods market (KPMG, 2016; Muchandiona, Kakava, & Makanyeza, 2021). Naturally, this has resulted in markets rich in competition from both domestic and international firms (Pentz, Terblanche, & Boshoff, 2017). As such, the globalization of a domestic market is said to be indicative of an emerging economy's well-being (Sheth & Sinha, 2015) as it presents opportunities for expansion of multinational brands. However, with such opportunity for growth comes certain threats to domestic firms that are not as established or dominant as their international counterparts (Ferreira & Ferreira, 2018) – a problem which requires unique solutions.

The second emerging trend resulting from the globalisation of domestic markets is that of increased variety for consumers to choose from (Diamantopoulos, Florack, Halkias, & Palku, 2017). Indeed, this phenomenon is particularly evident in the fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) category, in which a simple "soap" search elicits more than 1300 results on the local e-commerce site, Takealot. This relatively new market phenomenon has occurred partly to meet an emerging shift in consumer

needs and changing consumption patterns – a dynamic which is most evident when compared across the decades. In essence, consumer behaviour changed from simple needs-driven purchasing (to fulfil basic sustenance needs, for example) to more complex wants-driven purchasing (Kotler & Keller, 2016; Monga & Williams, 2016). In other words, the average consumer has advanced beyond merely satisfying physiological needs to now seeking out products and services that fulfil more psychological desires such as self-actualisation and identity creation (Chen & Ren, 2016).

To meet this growing demand and sophistication of consumption, brands no longer focus on the functional properties of their products but rather highlight more intangible qualities that satisfy an individual's aspirational and experiential desires (Afzal, Shao, Sajid, & Afzal, 2019). By creating a concrete symbolic brand image, organisations are catering to the materialistic consumer trend which centres around self-realisation and expression of a personal identity through possessions. This desire to differentiate oneself from the next consumer, in conjunction with an increase in general standards of living and rapid growth of telecommunication, has resulted in the beginning of a systematic shift in transactional power (McKenzie, 2018).

2.2.1. Shifts in transactional power over time

Subsequent to the second world war (1939-1945), and with the rapid industrialization of western powerhouses such as Great Britain and America, a best-practice model was established in the consumer packaged goods (CPG) industry. The FMCG conglomerates that are still competitive to this day all follow this operational process, which begins with a strong emphasis on brand identity and intense market awareness campaigns, driven by product innovation as the unique differentiator (Kelly, Kopka, Kupper & Moulton, 2018). Thereafter, the emerging firm would partner with FMCG retailers like grocers and pharmacies in order to reach the market on mass. Once these mass distribution channels have been successfully established in the domestic market, FMCG giants then expand their reach to untapped emerging markets (Schwarz, 2021). Importantly, the penultimate step entails the centralisation and consolidation of operations so as to drive down costs and maximise economies of scale. Finally, marketing and advertisement activities are prioritised to secure

market share and ensure organic growth subsequent to market penetration (Kelly et al., 2018).

As a result, manufacturers possessed the most influence in determining consumption patterns and supply-chain processes throughout the 1980s (Berg, n.d.). Large manufacturing conglomerates dominated by producing vast quantities of homogenous goods which were aimed at distinct and unrefined consumer segments (McKenzie, 2018). This is most evident by referring to the companies listed in the Dow Jones Industrial Average (DJIA) towards the end of that decade. The top 5 companies listed on the Dow were all manufacturers, with the CPG giants of Procter & Gamble, PepsiCo, Johnson & Johnson, and Coca-Cola featuring amongst the most powerful (Kelly et al., 2018). Notably, not a single retailer was listed in the top 100 according to net asset value (NAV).

However, this initial industry norm saw rapid change predominantly by the growth and dominance of the American retail chain, Walmart. At the beginning the era, circa 1990, Walmart had a regional chain of approximately 800 stores, affording them unprecedented levels of bargaining power as they became a single gatekeeper through which the end consumer could be accessed (Berg, n.d.). Additionally, these emerging retail giants introduced mass usage of unique product codes (UPC) which allowed for more efficient stock keeping. However, this systems method presented the added advantage of allowing unrivalled insights into consumer analytics such as purchasing patterns and seasonal preference trends. Nonetheless, the mass retailer chain now held the key to understanding consumer behaviour, allowing them to dictate the manufacturing, distribution, price and marketing of CPG. By the turn of the century there was only one manufacturer left in the DJIA top 5 based on NAV.

However, the landscape is now shifting once more, such that the traditional FMCG operational model is no longer resulting in the same prosperity for CPG manufacturers or retailers alike (Schwarz, 2021). Indeed, the global industry has experienced a declining rate of growth – in the first decade of this century (2000 – 2009) economic growth expanded by 10.4% per annum, however, in the following decade (2010 – 2019) this rate fell to 3.2% per annum (Kelly et al., 2018). Moreover, the majority of economic profit contribution by these firms is attributable to improved margins, rather than market and economic growth. McKinsey & Company provide 12

trends that may be contributing to this steady decline in momentum since the financial recession, circa 2008.

Along with the dawn of a new century came the boom of the internet and global communication, driven by Silicon Valley. The so called ‘most entitled generation’, or millennials, were beginning to dominate the economy and brought forth new consumption habits and shopping patterns (Wang, 2021). Indeed, this generation, and those that have followed, grew up using social media and are more influenced by peer validation in forming their consumer preferences (Badaoui, Lebrun, Su & Bouchet, 2018). Moreover, the ease of information accessibility provided by the internet puts the consumer in control, allowing them to make purchasing decisions based on traditional factors such as price and quality, in addition to more symbolic evaluations like brand alignment with one’s own values or personal identity (Reinartz, Wiegand & Imschloss, 2019).

As such, the average consumer is no longer considered to be a mere target of marketing efforts, but rather a co-producer of the process (Dellaert, 2019). The rapid development of smart devices and omnipresence of social media has resulted in the sharing economy, in which consumers have unprecedented control over how they research, buy, consume, and evaluate goods and services (Simonson & Rosen, 2014). Thus, firms are having to rethink their value-creation processes by placing more emphasis on experiential shopping that caters to the individual’s unique desires and needs. As such, academics generally agree that the third seismic power shift is well underway in which the new consumerism paradigm places individual in control of the market (McKenzie, 2018).

2.2.3. Emerging trends in South African consumption patterns

The digital era that is predominated by social media and the sharing economy has fostered and perpetuated a heightened emphasis on social validation (Simangunsong & Handoko, 2020). Moreover, Western culture has consistently glamourised hedonistic consumer behaviour such as retail therapy through popular media outlets. As such, the younger generations are growing up with the belief that consumption need not be limited by one’s discretionary income – a result of poor credit management – and that one should strive to align oneself with an aspirational social class through affiliation with specific brands (Bevan-Dye, Garnett, & de Klerk,

2012). This tendency to value social status and therefore consume goods to elevate one's own perceived standing, known as status consumption, is on the rise in South Africa (Madinga, Maziriri, & Lose, 2016).

Generation Z – defined as the generational cohort born between the years 1995 and 2010 (Francis & Hoefel, 2018) – is at the forefront of this consumption behaviour due to, in no small part, their heavy participation on social media. As a developing country, with burgeoning middle class, South Africa is experiencing the rapid proliferation of information communication technologies (ICT) like smartphones, tablets and social media platforms among the technically-literate demographics – specifically Generation Z (Duffett, 2017). Naturally, this exposure to the world-wide-web results in the popularization of global trends, brands and identities in localized communities of South Africa's youth, generating the predisposition for foreign-inspired status consumption. As such, the current social landscape (as initiated and perpetuated online) prioritizes and validates ownership of foreign brands. This has led to a downturn of consumer ethnocentric tendencies, when compared to preceding generational cohorts (Bevan-Dye, 2012).

Thus, as the South African middle-class grows, and international goods become readily available and more affordable, people are striving to transcend their social standing by way of product ownership, more than ever before. In fact, South Africa has the highest levels of status consumption on the continent, proving lucrative to the luxury goods market (Madinga et al., 2016). Of course, this trend benefits high status brands, and particularly those of an international origin, as consumers in developing countries are known to prioritise brands that are associated with first world nations (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019).

However, since the global recession of 2008, South African consumers have altered their spending habits to meet the rising cost of living and economic uncertainty (Hattingh, Magnus, & Ramlakan, 2016). A Nielsen (2019) survey reported that in 2017, 69% of South African consumers were consciously aware of prices in the FMCG sector, whereas this updated value is now around 75%, indicating the heightening price sensitivity of FMCG consumers. In addition, another market report concluded that more than 80% of consumers have either stopped purchasing certain essential consumables or have begun buying cheaper alternatives to offset the rising

living costs (Borderless Access, 2020). Moreover, it has been observed that as the average shopper becomes more conscious of how their money is spent, factors such as product value, quality, packaging, and nutrition shall govern purchasing decisions (Shange, 2018). Given this shift in behaviour it is unsurprising that South African consumers are considered to be the second most price sensitive population in the world (Nielsen, 2019, as cited in Alleman, 2019), leaving the naturally conspicuous generation Z with a degree of cognitive dissonance.

This situation proved to worsen with the global outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. The Coronavirus outbreak and subsequent national lockdown resulted in a myriad of economic repercussions at both a macro and micro-economic levels. Indeed, the already price-sensitive South Africans are currently paying close attention to, and actively seeking out value-for-money purchases in light of the potential threat to income and livelihood (Westbrook & Angus, 2021). Although this is a threat to premium brands, it simultaneously presents an opportunity for house-brands and more budget consumer brands (Lawlor, 2020). For instance, the emerging budget electronic manufacturer, Xiaomi, has recently surpassed Apple Inc. as the second largest smartphone manufacturer in the world (Canalys, 2021), setting the precedent for other budget brands to follow suit.

Another notable shift in consumer behaviour since the global pandemic is “panic buying” as consumers flocked between lockdowns to purchase essential consumables such as non-perishable foods, cleaning and personal hygiene products, alcohol and medicine (BusinessTech, 2020). Of course, this worldwide crisis was largely unforeseen and the ensuing panic buying lead to widespread stock shortages of many consumer goods throughout the country (Chowdhury, Kumar Paul, Kaisar, & Abdul Moktadir, 2021). Unfortunately, the issue of an unexpected demand surge was compounded by the disruption in supply chain processes and import restrictions which were the result of containment strategies (Demirci, 2021).

However, one important behavioural shift which has quickly accelerated to meet the market disruptions is a growing intention to purchase CPG through e-commerce channels. As a result of the social distancing regulations and general cautiousness, consumers are now less likely to visit brick and mortar stores which has manifested in a downturn in revenue and threat to the prosperity of traditional retailers (Meotto,

2021). In contrast, those outlets that have quickly adapted to include strategies such as omnichannel retailing, m-commerce, and direct to consumer (D2C) models are proving to fare better through this crisis. Checkers, for instance, have recently been ranked the most reputable brand in South Africa (Buthelezi, 2021) – an accolade which can be partly attributed to their innovative Checkers 60sixty service which allows consumers to shop in-app and receive home delivery within the hour. Due to innovations like these, as well as the global state of cautiousness, more people are adopting this form of shopping.

In fact, the demand for CPG via online channels has exploded beyond pre-pandemic levels to approximately 15% of all retail sales (Manly, Royston, & Sonntag, 2020). In a market analysis by Boston Consulting Group (BCG), it is forecasted that this figure is likely to settle around 8% by 2022 which is significant as an adoption rate of 5 to 7 percent is believed to be necessary for the successful full-scale launch of a fledgling e-commerce industry in America (Manly et al., 2020). Given this sudden environmental change that is urging more online purchases, the dimension of e-retailing poses both threats and opportunities for FMCG role players today. However, it must be noted that despite the utility in e-commerce-based retailing, the technology still remains largely inaccessible to much of the South African population – particularly those consumers belonging to the older demographics and lower LSM brackets (Westbrook & Angus, 2021).

2.2.2. Economic shifts in the South African FMCG market

Consistent with previous global trends, South Africa's FMCG industry has seen steady growth in the last decade. In fact, global FMCG consumption increased by 15% in just 2 years prior to the COVID19 pandemic, whereas the South African FMCG demand has expanded by a staggering 48% in the same timeframe (Nielsen, 2018). Moreover, in 2017 alone, South African consumers collectively spent more than R30 000 every second on CPG (Meyer, Niemann, van Pletzen, & Smit, 2019). It has been widely proposed that this growth is largely attributable to a relative increase in financial and political stability of the South African economy (Noko, 2018). Indeed, the outcomes of such a scenario are significant, serving to decrease inflation and commodity prices, stimulating the local economy, and thereby improving standards of living. Increased levels of disposable income and resultant consumer purchasing power, is driving this new demand for consumer goods in Africa – a

factor which may eventually provide the necessary economic boost required if African countries are to make the leap from developing and emerging to industrialised (Noko, 2018).

However, such expansion has been accompanied by various issues that also prove to be hinderances to the industry. For instance, organisations within the domestic FMCG sector are still having to contend with fluctuating consumer purchasing behaviour, changing trade patterns, a degree of political and economic instability and social pressures such as sustainability compliance (Hattingh, Magnus, & Ramlakan, 2016; Jacobs & Mafini, 2019). Indeed, Loury-Okoumba and Mafini (2018) have commented on the fact that consumer demand is constantly shifting which negates all attempts to forecast future trends within the industry – an integral factor for efficient supply-chain management (Nikolopoulos, Punia, Schäfers, Tsinopoulos, & Vasilakis, 2021). Moreover, the ongoing infrastructure instability (like load-shedding), in conjunction with poor governance, corruption, and diminishing industry growth has resulted in reduced confidence among investors, consumers and business owners alike (Jacobs & Mafini, 2019).

As previously mentioned, the economic context worsened significantly as South Africa faced the threat of the Covid-19 pandemic. Despite the initial success in containing the virus and the roll-out of economic stimulus packages, the ensuing financial impact was quickly recognised by economists. The combination of South Africa's poor economic performance, epitomised by a national unemployment rate that has fluctuated between 22% and 31% over the last decade (Statistics South Africa, 2020), in conjunction with the nationwide lockdown, resulted in a sovereign rating downgrade to beneath investment grade (Cronje, 2020). Thus, the long-term impact of this strategy has been suggested by some to be more devastating to the local economy than that of the virus itself (BusinessTech, 2020). In fact, Euromonitor (2020) predicted a GDP contraction in the national economy of between 5.5% and 9.9% as a result of the pandemic and related restrictions.

Currently, the discretionary income that was ordinarily spent on entertainment and restaurants has been redirected to home consumption which benefits the FMCG industry in the short-term (Euromonitor, 2020). However, it must be remembered that the health of the entire economy significantly impacts the prosperity of the CPG

sector in the long run. The approaching recession will be accompanied by more job reductions, lower average salaries and less discretionary income which is likely to negatively affect the FMCG industry in South Africa (BusinessTech, 2020). With this in mind, a weaker Rand may present certain opportunities for local firms as importing foreign goods becomes more expensive (Lawlor, 2020). In combination, this dynamic landscape presents the South African FMCG sector with various challenges and opportunities – all of which need to be carefully considered and adjusted for if the domestic economy is to be revitalised.

Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, the FMCG industry contributed about R2 trillion per annum in real GDP terms (Brand South Africa, 2017). This contribution to the national economy is significant when considering the 23.3% unemployment rate and 2.2 million jobs lost between the first and second quarters of 2020 (Statistics South Africa, 2020). Thus, in light of the current pressures of globalisation and economic turmoil, local marketers must understand the factors involved in the local consumption of domestic products when a foreign alternative is present (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019). It is imperative that local jobs are created, domestic products are prioritised, and exports maximised to buffer against the financial repercussion of this pandemic, all the while stimulating the national economy in anticipation of the next major depression (Jacobs & Mafini, 2019).

Fortunately, the research into international marketing has identified an important factor which consumers use to differentiate products along nationalistic lines. By looking for country of origin (COO) cues, consumers can quickly evaluate a product and determine their likelihood to purchase it (Pentz, 2011). As will be discussed, such origin cues can have a tremendous impact on the success of a brand and the revenue that will flow from it. Therefore, it should be an important factor that South African marketers take into account during these competitive and unprecedented times.

2.3. The marketing utility of a product’s country-of-origin

Central to the understanding of market research is the idea that consumers make decisions, consciously or not, based on information pertaining to the product of interest (Pentz, 2011). Indeed, there are many sources of such information, chief of

which is the product itself that conveys a whole host of information – which, on aggregate, sways buying behaviour in one direction or the other. More specifically, this information can either take the form of intrinsic product cues which make up the literal, physical characteristics of the product (such as colour, smell, aesthetic, functionality), or information can be gleaned by way of extrinsic cues which make up the remaining non-physical aspects of the product (such as price, brand, and warranty) (Symmank, 2019).

When considering these influences on purchasing decisions it is important to keep in mind that prior to the actual consumption of fast-moving consumer goods, many intrinsic cues, such as taste or quality, are not readily available. Thus, the importance of specific extrinsic product cues has been highlighted due to their influential role in helping the consumer make a choice between similar products (Chonpracha et al., 2020). As the commercial context becomes increasingly globalized, country of origin (COO) cues are becoming important indicators of product preference (Ku & Chen, 2021). As a seemingly reliable quality indicator, COO is believed to significantly moderate the various inferences elicited by other product characteristics (Kibret, 2016).

For much of the first half of the 20th century, marketing research into product cues focussed almost exclusively on the role that intrinsic cues play in determining consumer preference. However, the 1960's saw the gradual broadening of such research to include the effect of extrinsic cues, with Ernest Dichter (1962, pp. 116) stating that the "made in…" phrase may significantly impact a product's adoption. In fact, a global market survey has revealed that approximately 75% of consumers report country-of-origin as an integral factor in determining purchase intent, especially when other product cues are ambiguous or unavailable (Nielsen International, 2016). Unsurprisingly, the COO effect has since become one of the most thoroughly researched areas in international marketing (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016). This continuous interest is believed to be attributable to the growing competitiveness between international firms within various domestic markets (Balabanis, Stathopoulou, & Qiao, 2019), all of whom seek unique selling points by offering wider assortments at cheaper prices (Pentz, 2011).

2.3.1. Country of origin clarification

Upon studying the literature, it is evident that the definition of COO varies from scholar to scholar, resulting in an inconclusive definition thereof. This is primarily because a product's 'origin' can be interpreted in different ways (Nakara, 2015). For example, a product may have been invented in one country, designed in another, and manufactured in yet another – each of which can be used to refer to its country of origin. Additionally, COO may even relate to the owning company's domicile or where the so-called parent company's headquarters are based. Consistent with this interpretation, it has been argued that COO should be used to indicate "the country where the corporate headquarters of the firm responsible for marketing the product or brand is located" (Johansson, Douglas, & Nonaka, 1985, pp. 389).

Given this, it is unsurprising that scholars reiterate the complexity of such a phenomenon, with some purporting that the dynamic nature of our global marketplace makes it extremely difficult to formulate one comprehensive account of COO (Pentz, 2011). Thus, in order to simplify this current research, the predominant conceptualisation of Johansson et al. (1985) will be employed which assumes that COO refers to the region in which the company's headquarters are located. Taking this into account, despite Apple products being manufactured and assembled in China, their country-of-origin is the United States as the organisational headquarters are based in California.

2.3.3. The Country Stereotyping effect and product category

Amongst the body of research, it is widely accepted that country-of-origin effects differ according to the associated country and product in question (Oumlil, 2020). Put simply, some nations have a reputation for a specialisation in certain product categories. The Swiss, for instance, are well known for their precision timepieces, whereas the French are famous for fine wine and champagne production (Martin et al, 2011). It has been observed that the COO effect is strongest in favour of the nation with an established reputation in that industry or category (Oumlil, 2020). For instance, when shopping for wine one may be less inclined to buy a bottle of Swiss wine when compared to a French alternative. Likewise, they may be more likely to invest in a Swiss watch than a French one based on the perceived reputation, guided by what is known as the Country Stereotyping Effect (CSE; Chung & Chen, 2018).

Indeed, the CSE has been most succinctly explained by Samiee (1994, pp. 583) as “any influence or bias resulting from Country of Origin and/or Country of Manufacture”. Moreover, it is elaborated that this psychological predisposition is formed as a result of multiple sources including previous experience with the product, personal experience with the country, acquired knowledge from secondary sources, political stances, and ethnocentric tendencies (Samiee, 1994). Due to the boundless expanse of information available to consumers at any given time, it is common to rely on certain cognitive heuristics which simplify the world and influence psychological judgements reactively (Thøgersen et al., 2019), especially with respect to low-involvement goods such as food (Ku & Chen, 2021). In line with this theory, Ahmed and d’Astous (2004) propose that in a brand evaluation scenario, shoppers make use of pre-existing country stereotypes to anchor perceptions before considering other cues. Although, this cognitive mechanism greatly simplifies the decision-making process, it can also result in misguided evaluations.

2.3.4. The mediation of product category and brand familiarity on COO bias

In addition to the COO effect being mediated by the product-country fit, the ensuing COO bias manifests differently according to the product category in question. For instance, the COO effect has been purported to be strongest with respect to high involvement products that involve technical knowledge (Martin et al, 2011), such that the product’s country of origin acts as a heuristic for quality when personal expertise in a technical field is limited (Pentz, 2011). Moreover, country image appears to relay information about product dimensions such that the image of a dimension (for example luxury) can transfer to other product categories. As such, Roth and Romeo (1992) conceptualised a framework whereby a good product-country match can suggest the superior evaluation of a brand compared to another, and in turn, the likelihood of purchasing it. The subsequent results from this study showed that consumers in America, Mexico and Ireland reported intention to buy a timepiece or car from Germany, Japan, or America due to the perceived image of these nations along quality dimensions that are relevant to these product categories. Inversely, the participants responded with markedly reduced intention to purchase the same goods from either Hungary or Mexico (Roth & Romeo, 1992).

However, it is important to note that other research has found significant COO effects within the low-involvement FMCG product category too (Maison &

Maliszewski, 2016; Makanyeza & du Toit, 2017). One consumer product that has garnered considerable research to this end is that of olive oil, due to its perceived quality and superiority relative to other vegetable oils (Chamorro-Mera, Román-Suero, & García-Galán, 2020). Studies conducted in traditional producer countries (such as Greece, Italy and Spain), as well as non-producing import countries (such as Germany, the USA, and Mexico) consistently show that the designation of origin significantly influences consumer's quality perception and willingness to purchase. In fact, an abundance of studies have reported that the COO is more influential on consumer preference than other cues such as the packaging used (Cavallo & Piqueras-Fiszman, 2017; Erraach, Sayadi, Gómez, & Parra-Lopez, 2014) or even the product's taste (Cavallo & Piqueras-Fiszman, 2017; Menapace, Colson, Grebitus, & Facendola, 2011; Panico, Del Giudice, & Caracciolo, 2014).

Similarly, the brand familiarity is likely to influence a consumer's COO bias too Martin et al. 2011). Maison and Maliszewski (2016) acknowledge this and exclusively test implicit attitudes towards foreign and local products have high consumer familiarity and COO identity. Indeed, if one is not familiar with a brand then its various extrinsic (and intrinsic) product cues are not likely to influence their perceptions, attitudes, biases and behaviour. Only once the consumer begins acquiring information about the brand – by way of previous experience with the brand, personal research, or word-of-mouth – are they likely to display significant value-based judgements like the COO bias.

2.3.5. The influence of economic development on country image

In addition to the effect of country image and product category fit, factors such as the nation's historical context, culture, global power, political landscape, and economic status all contribute to a consumer's stereotypically guided judgements (Oumlil, 2020). These value-judgements are often predominated by one main guiding stereotypical image, despite the availability other evidence to the contrary. For instance, when one considers a Zimbabwean product, the state of hyperinflation and failing economic system may colour perceptions far more than an equally valid factor such as the world-class education legacy (IRIN , 2013). Thus, studies investigating the effects of country image stereotypes on attitude towards products have repeatedly observed a clear moderating effect of economic conditions across countries (Han & Won, 2018). In essence, a county's level of economic status is

related to the COO effect, with goods originating from first-world countries generally deemed better than those from more developing countries, even with all else remaining constant (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016).

Research in developing countries further suggests that COO is an important product cue that consumers consider when purchasing a particular product (Oumlil, 2020). The product's overall perception of quality is largely determined by whether it originates from a developed country or one that is culturally similar to their own (Alshammari & Michael, 2018). For example, consumers living in various African and Asian countries such as Zimbabwe, Namibia, Nigeria and the Philippines are said to generally favour products belonging to developed countries due to more positive evaluations (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019). Likewise, consumers from economically developed countries tend to evaluate locally manufactured goods higher than those originating from less industrialised nations (Dogi, 2015).

Relatedly, there is evidence to suggest that consumers in some countries hold a generalised preference for products produced by their own country (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019). This includes cognitive predispositions held in relation to domestic products, as well as stereotypes against foreign countries collectively (Pentz, 2011). For instance, another international study of FMCG product preference found that the Italian consumers of extra-virgin olive oil hold the locally produced product in high regard, attributing more positive value to it than oil originating from other European nations (Giannoccaro, Carlucci, Sardaro, Roselli, & De Gennaro, 2019). Moreover, a study conducted in California observed that the COO cues had the largest impact on consumer perceptions towards other product attributes such as the bottle and label designs, and importantly, that locally produced oil was markedly favoured more than those produced in other countries (Delgado & Gomez-Rico, 2013). Moreover, these results have been replicated in in South American nations too, with Romo-Muñoz et al. (2017) report a local preference for Chilean olive oil over non-domestic alternatives from Spain and Italy.

This COO-related phenomenon is known as consumer ethnocentrism and results in systematic preference for local goods (as opposed to foreign products), causing a more widespread and predictable pattern of preference across product types. Despite being intricately related, consumer ethnocentrism and country of origin bias

are two separate concepts, that are not to be conflated (Kibret, 2016). To fully understand the distinction, one must imagine a South African who holds quality of French wine in high regard due to the country's reputation as a wine producing nation. This COO bias, in turn may be overridden by the South African's consumer ethnocentric tendencies, which are thought to be rooted in strong nationalistic beliefs (Ma, Yang, & Yoo, 2020).

Thus, consumer ethnocentrism represents a general tendency to prefer local goods, guided by a more intrenched cognitive bias that is largely resistant to the product category and country image of the competing brand (Pentz, Terblanche, & Boshoff, 2017). By contrast, COO occurs on a case-by-case basis according to each respective product's merit. Shankarmahesh (2006) elaborates on this by proposing that decisions along the lines of COO involves cognitive and affective psychological mechanisms, whereas consumer ethnocentric decisions are driven by affective and normative processes. As such, the international marketing research has shifted its focus to include the powerful influence of consumer ethnocentrism on attitudes and purchase intention towards domestic and foreign products alike (Ma, Yang, & Yoo, 2020).

2.4. From COO to consumer ethnocentrism

Upon observing high levels of patriotism in America, Shimp and Sharma (1987) realised that nationalistic value-based judgements may lead to differential product evaluations along the lines of country-of-origin. Thus, the concept of consumer ethnocentrism was developed as a "domain-specific derivative of ethnocentrism" (Shankarmahesh, 2006, pp. 147) to explain the beliefs consumers hold towards imported products. As stated in the seminal work, consumer ethnocentrism denotes "the beliefs held by American consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products" (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, pp. 280). Thus, ethnocentric consumers avoid purchasing foreign products due to the potential impact on the domestic economy, such as local job loss and outflow of financial resources. Moreover, such consumers are said to hold contempt for foreign goods due to high patriotic beliefs (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019).

Importantly, the influence of such psychological predispositions can significantly influence attitudes and, in turn, consumer behaviour (Makanyeza & du Toit, 2017). To this end, Sharma et al. (1995) note that consumer ethnocentrism is a major precursor of attitude formation. Indeed, some of the behavioural manifestations of highly ethnocentric consumers include an overestimation of local products' intrinsic characteristics and a corresponding underestimation of foreign products (Pentz et al., 2017). Most notably, it has been suggested that consumer ethnocentrism is more influential in consumer decision making than that of traditional marketing mix variables (Fernández-Ferrín, Bande-Vilela, Klein, & del Río-Araújo, 2015). Thus, it is no surprise that significant attention has been paid towards this phenomenon, especially in such an increasingly globalised world (Makanyeza & du Toit, 2017).

Originally, Shimp and Sharma's (1987) seminal research sought to examine the phenomenon amongst American consumers. Upon analysing their results, it was determined that in general, Americans held strong consumer ethnocentric tendencies, resulting in the proclivity to prefer domestic brands more than foreign ones. In short, individuals with strong ethnocentric biases are believed to be more likely to purchase American goods, despite other product cues such as price and quality. Moreover, it was instantiated that optimistic attitudes towards foreign products were strongly and negatively correlated with consumer ethnocentric bias (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019). Indeed, these findings were significant in that they are consistent with ethnocentrism theory and the marketing specific derivative.

From the proliferation of research since then, it is understood that consumer ethnocentrism is not a phenomenon unique to America, (Fakharmanesh & Miyandehi, 2013; Hamelin, Ellouzi, & Canterbury, 2011; Parker, Haytki, & Hermans, 2011). However, there is a relative dearth of consumer ethnocentric research within developing economies, resulting in mixed findings and assumptions that are based on tentative theory in this context.

2.4.1. Consumer ethnocentrism in developing countries

Early on, it was proposed that consumer ethnocentrism is a function of economic prosperity and that consumers belonging to developing nations possess low levels of consumer ethnocentric tendencies (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019). As such, these consumers are believed to display a positive proclivity for foreign brands, thereby

displaying a sociopsychological trait known as cosmopolitanism (Das & Mukherjee, 2019). Indeed, it is believed that this inverse phenomenon is due to experiences of poorer quality native products (Dogi, 2015), and a simultaneous desire to improve one's social status by way of conspicuous consumption (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016). Despite the recorded strength of consumer ethnocentrism in first-world countries, initial researchers failed to replicate such ethnocentric predispositions in the context of developing countries. For instance, in a cross-national study, Tsai, Lee, and Song (2013) found that Chinese and South Korean consumers tend to show less ethnocentric behaviour than American consumers, a result which was interpreted to suggest that CET levels are dependent on a country's level of economic development.

In a Tunisian study, Karoui and Khemakhem (2019) observed that local consumers also generally hold low ethnocentric tendencies compared to the global average. In order to effectively interpret their results, data was collected concerning the various countries' images as determined by the sample. France and Italy elicited country image scores well above average, followed by Turkey and China which ranked below the average. As expected, levels of willingness to buy domestic (WBD) were low when Tunisian products were compared against either a French or Italian alternative. It was noted that for the countries most associated with a luxury product dimension, the construct of conspicuous consumption served to negatively moderate the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism (CE) and the willingness to purchase domestic goods. From this, it was suggested that insofar as social status motivators are concerned, higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism are negated by conspicuous consumption (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019).

In comparison, though, the roles were reversed when Tunisian products were compared against those of Chinese origin. Due to an unfavourable country image towards China, COO was found to positively moderate the relationship between CE and WBD (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019). In other words, the consumers prefer to support local business when the alternative product originates from a nation associated with low image and prestige. This is notable in that it suggests that marketers can leverage the effect of consumer ethnocentrism, even in developing countries that possess relatively low levels of CET (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019).

In another African study, Makanyeza and du Toit (2017) set out to investigate the effect that consumer ethnocentrism has on consumer attitude towards imported poultry products in Zimbabwe, and to determine the relationship between attitude and intent to purchase such products. In short, the study showed that consumer ethnocentrism is indeed related to attitude towards imports in a negative direction. Moreover, Zimbabwean attitudes concerning imported poultry were positively associated with the intention to buy said products. Although simple, this result serves to confirm previous consumer ethnocentric findings in the context of a developing African nation.

2.4.2. Consumer ethnocentrism in South Africa

As a leading power on the African continent, the South African market has been subject to consumer ethnocentric research too. In particular, one study aimed at determining the levels of consumer ethnocentrism in a large South African metropolitan (Durban) found that this sample showed weak but positive ethnocentric tendencies (Kamwendo, Corbishley, & Mason, 2014). Although they did not attempt to associate this result with attitude towards specific products, they were able to determine which demographic variables might moderate levels of consumer ethnocentrism. Out of the four demographic variables they focussed on (age, gender, ethnicity and education), only ethnicity seemed to have a moderating effect on ethnocentric responses. In short, black respondents appeared to be the most ethnocentric, a finding which has been replicated by other South African researchers (Bevan-Dye, Garnett, & de Klerk, 2012; Pentz, Terblanche, & Boshoff, 2014). Indeed, this result can be explained by an influential Australian paper which purports that the dominant ethnic group within a country tends to be more ethnocentric than other minority cultures (Zarkada-Fraser & Fraser, 2002).

Similarly, Pentz et al. (2017) conducted a study in which the antecedents and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism in South Africa were examined. Over and above the findings which showed that the socio-psychological antecedents of patriotism, openness, individualism and history of oppression were significantly associated with CET, the study suggested that consumer attitudes towards the importation of Chinese clothing are negatively associated with consumer ethnocentrism. In other words, the more ethnocentric a South African feels, the more unfavourably they evaluate imported products, within the clothing product category at

least. Along with those previously discussed, this finding is important in that it highlights the opportunity for South African firms to gain a competitive edge in the increasingly globalised local market by adopting a campaign focusing on the brands' South African heritage.

2.4.3. CET as defence against economic recession and globalization

As a significant psychological trait, consumer ethnocentrism has been identified as one of the most effective barriers against the encroachment of multinational firms in the domestic market (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019). The importance of consumer ethnocentrism in forming positive attitudes and guiding local purchasing behaviour has been repeatedly purported by academics of international marketing (Makanyeza & du Toit, 2017). Although cosmopolitanism values are rising with conspicuous consumption patterns in the young South African consumers (Bevan-Dye, Garnett, & de Klerk, 2012), it is important to note that empirical evidence suggests that the proclivity to support domestic economies often increases in times of economic turmoil (Hampson, Ma, & Wang, 2018; Smyczek & Glowik, 2011). Thus, it may be the case that the ensuing rise in ethnocentrism, and resultant patriotism and national identity, may prove to buttress the South African economy against the economic uncertainty and rising international competition (Dogi, 2015).

Consequently, consumer ethnocentrism is an important aspect of international marketing to focus on, as it has repeatedly shown to be an influential force in shaping global industries (Makanyeza & du Toit, 2017). Indeed, South African marketing campaigns would do well to include the promotion of a local brand or product origin if they are to compete against the more powerful multinational firms, especially given the increasingly unstable market conditions and the globally declining growth within the FMCG industry (Balabanis, Stathopoulou, & Qiao, 2019; Makanyeza & du Toit, 2017). However, despite the efforts of Pentz et al. (2017), it is largely uncertain whether ethnocentric tendencies in South Africa truly translate into positive local brand evaluations, or if respondents strive to appear more patriotic than they are in reality. Thus, the current study aims at addressing this methodological shortcoming by attempting to evaluate consumers' true implicit, non-conscious attitudes towards local brands, and compare their levels of CET and corresponding willingness to buy local products.

2.5. Conclusion

In summary, this chapter has discussed the marketing utility of consumer ethnocentrism in local economies. This was accomplished by first reviewing the various threats and opportunities apparent in the current FMCG industry. Thereafter, the COO bias and associated stereotypes were presented with the aim of unpacking how certain producer nations and product types are automatically perceived with positive connotations in the consumer's mind. This is then expanded to include the moderating role of the nation's economic prosperity, from which consumer ethnocentrism in a South African context was introduced. Finally, it was argued that consumer ethnocentric marketing strategies may provide local firms a distinct advantage in the current globalised marketplace.

CHAPTER 3:

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

3.1. Introduction

The literature discussed in the previous chapter provided a clear overview of the current shifts and emerging trends in the South African FMCG industry. Building on this, the current chapter is aimed at exploring the extant theories and models that explain consumer ethnocentric preferences and behaviours. In doing so, a conceptual framework will be formulated around the research questions, and subsequent hypotheses shall be developed based on empirical evidence put forward by relevant academics. Hence, this chapter will be structured according to the three aims as stated above. The first section shall present the factors that determine consumer ethnocentrism, chief of which is the sociological concept of ethnocentrism, as well as the social identity theory which contextualises the research. The subsequent section will then consider consumer ethnocentrism as an attitudinal concept and how it relates to implicit social cognition, from which an integrated conceptual model can be constructed. Finally, by scrutinising the relationships between variables in the proposed conceptual model, the various hypotheses will be developed according to the extant body of knowledge.

3.2. Theoretical overview of consumer ethnocentrism

In attempting to understand consumer ethnocentrism as a socio-psychological phenomenon, it is useful to first consider the renowned psychologist, Henry Tajfel's (1970) seminal study of minimal group membership. Amongst other things, Tajfel was primarily interested in understanding the level of motivation that drives social group formation and group favouritism (Scheepers & Ellemers, 2019). As such, an experiment was designed to create a sense of group membership using as few commonality criteria as possible, and in doing so, he investigated how these conditions might cause group favouritism to occur. As Tajfel (1970) had hypothesised, those assigned to one arbitrary group ('heads' or 'tails' at the flip of a

coin, for instance) were more generous towards others belonging to the same group, and vice versa. This observation indicated the development of an in-group bias, suggesting that participants had psychologically created, identified with, and adopted the membership of one group without any additional knowledge of the group's members. It was according to these findings that the term 'minimal group' was adopted to denote the human predilection to derive meaningful group membership from arbitrary social markers (Scheepers & Ellemers, 2019).

Indeed, these groups are said to be strictly cognitive as they exist only in the minds of the participants, and are minimal as they exist purely insofar as the experiment is concerned, holding no social meaning outside the experimental paradigm (Scheepers & Ellemers, 2019). However, such group favouritism is not restricted to the conditions created by researchers but is also commonly formed by other contextual circumstances. Take nationality for instance: one has no control over which country they are born in, it is purely up to chance (much like a flip of a coin). And yet, much of one's identity and self-conceptualisation hinges on nationality, with the profound meaning evident in socio-psychological traits such as patriotism, nationalism and even xenophobia.

3.2.1. Social Identity theory

The common maxim, "show me who your friends are, and I will tell you what you are" speaks to man's innate proclivity to assign personal identity based on group membership (Shala & Cooper, 2014). The mere fact that participants in the minimal group experiments voluntarily favoured members of their newly created in-group underscores the idea that social belonging elicits affective reactions (Scheepers & Ellemers, 2019). Thus, Tajfel (1978) named this phenomenon 'social identity' which he described as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from knowledge of membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value or emotional significance attached to that member-ship" (Tajfel, 1978, pp. 63). To properly account for this, the influential Social Identity Theory (SIT; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) was developed and speaks to an individual's understanding of social group membership, from which value and emotional significance is obtained.

Principally, the SIT concerns the social world and how in-group and out-group relationships are established and maintained by the social agent (Zeugner-Roth,

Zabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015). Central to SIT is the tenet that individuals inherently desire a positive personal identity, which is thus established when the individual aligns themself with a positively perceived in-group (Balabanis, Stathopoulou, & Qiao, 2019). As a result, Tajfel and Turner's (1978) SIT has proven to be one of the most robust theoretical frameworks in social psychology, providing pragmatic utility in fields such as organisational psychology and human resource management (Scheepers & Ellemers, 2019). Moreover, the theory is commonly employed to analyse business phenomena and, thereafter, formulate and guide the implementation of practical interventions. Indeed, the SIT is particularly useful in the field of marketing too, providing a reliable framework against which phenomena such as the county-of-origin effect and, more specifically, consumer ethnocentrism commonly occurs (Balabanis, Stathopoulou, & Qiao, 2019).

3.2.2. Ethnocentrism

Human beings are inherently social creatures, to the extent that the social world permeates most of what we do and influences how we perceive ourselves and others (Fiske, 2018). Since time immemorial, humans have made sense of the social landscape by mentally identifying, categorising, and comparing (consciously or not) others according to the fundamental question: 'are they one of my own?' (Balabanis, Stathopoulou, & Qiao, 2019). Originally, this tendency served an evolutionary function as favouring one's relatives ensured the propagation of the familial genes (Dawkins, 1976). As the fundamental behavioural pattern became biologically ingrained, it undoubtedly came to influence other social dynamics too.

Tribes formed as extensions from the familial structures as it was established that communal living provided practical benefits such as resource pooling, social support, companionship, and safety in numbers (Seltzer, 2019). Importantly, our ancestors would have learned to value the structure, stability and predictability that are inherent in established social harmony. As such, rival tribes were seen as a threat to this stability and warranted the creation of dyadic value judgments assigned to 'us' and 'them' alike. Of course, it appears that these primal behavioural patterns still exist in our modern societies as we not only show preferential treatment to those in our close-knit circles, but also to more abstract groups – the complex result of a modern social world which is ever-increasing in nuance.

Consequently, Sumner (1906), who established the first formal definition of ethnocentrism (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019), described the sociological phenomenon 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... Each group nourishes its own pride and vanity, boasts itself superior, exalts its own divinities and looks with contempt on outsiders” (Sumner, 1906, pp. 13). Stated simply, ethnocentrism refers to the human tendency to observe and judge other groups, cultures, behaviours, and beliefs through the lens of one’s own experientially constructed frame of reference (LeVine, 2017). In turn, one’s worldview is uniquely informed by personal experience and cultural indoctrination either intragenerationally (horizontal enculturation) or intergenerationally (vertical enculturation) (Hales & Edmonds, 2019). Thus, a substantial part of ethnocentrism is believed to be learnt as a result of the interplay between these two forms of social education.

By means of socially engrained value structures, individuals develop a strong sense of identity with, and loyalty for, the in-group, thereby exalting fellow members and disparaging non-members (Sumner, 1906). Naturally, this loyalty is strengthened by the approval of the in-group, thus increasing ethnocentric behaviour. Likewise, limited exposure to other cultures also enhances ethnocentrism as the individual only knows of their particular worldview (Shala & Cooper, 2014). Building on this, Murdock (1931) noted that ethnocentrism need not be restricted to tribal or national group membership, but can equally occur in a whole host of intergroup scenarios, “developing into family pride, sectionalism, religious prejudice, racial discrimination, and patriotism” (Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995, pp. 27). As such, ethnocentrism is a social phenomenon that is theoretically likely to occur in any social situation where at least two comparative groups exist. The ‘tribes’ that ethnocentrism was fundamentally predicated on are no longer reserved to those who we cohabitate with, but also theoretically extend further to include more abstracted groups along the dimensions of nationality, for instance.

Indeed, this social group distinction between nations is very often the first that comes to mind as much of the modern intergroup competition endorsed by society is global in nature. For instance, the pinnacle of sporting endeavour most often occurs at the international level, where countries are pitted against each other at the Olympic Games or a World Cup (Shala & Cooper, 2014). However, this tendency to derive

much meaning from inter-national competition extends to the economic world too, where one country's success is determined in direct relation to another country (as is the case with the ongoing global superpower battle between America and China). Moreover, this applies to the commercial realm in which phenomena such as country-of-origin bias and consumer ethnocentric tendencies become manifest (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016). Thus, it would be fair to conclude that the current manifestations of our functional but primitive sociological tendencies are the epiphenomenal result of the more complex social world we now inhabit.

3.2.2.1. The essence of consumer ethnocentrism

By observing the powerful influence of ethnocentrism on various aspects of human life, Shimp and Sharma (1987) realised that this psycho-social phenomenon regularly manifests in a commercial context too. After careful observation, they theorised that nationalistic value-based judgements, guided by ethnocentrism and social identity, may lead to differential product evaluations along the lines of country-of-origin (COO). Thus, the concept of consumer ethnocentrism was developed as a "domain-specific" (Shankarmahesh, 2006, pp. 147) derivative of ethnocentrism to explain the beliefs that consumers hold towards imported products (Zeugner-Roth, Zabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015).

As informed by the social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), consumer ethnocentrism is one mechanism by which the individual can acquire a sense of social identity and inclusion (Fernández-Ferrín, Bande-Vilela, Klein, & del Río-Araújo, 2015). Moreover, such an axiom provides the individual with principles of what is considered acceptable behaviour of in-group members (to buy local products, in the case of consumer ethnocentrism) and serves to guide purchasing decisions in a complex economy saturated with variety (Balabanis, Stathopoulou, & Qiao, 2019). As a trait-like property of personality, consumer ethnocentrism is believed to influence attitudes towards products, and in turn, purchasing behaviour (Pentz et al., 2017). Indeed, it has been suggested that the impact of consumer ethnocentrism is more influential on consumer decision making than that of traditional marketing mix variables (Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015). Thus, it is no surprise that significant attention has been paid to this phenomenon, especially in such an increasingly globalised world.

Rooted in the morality of supporting the economy of one's nation, consumer ethnocentrism results in the strong in-group bias which accompanies self-identification with the domestic country (Balabanis, Stathopoulou, & Qiao, 2019). Moreover, it has been posited to be the result of a number of mental processes, including cognitive (consciously believing a local product is superior), affective (more positive emotions are elicited by local brands), and ideological factors (the belief that purchasing local brands is the right thing to do) (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016). Accordingly, this commonly results in an overestimation of local products' intrinsic characteristics, and a simultaneous underestimation of foreign products (Pentz et al., 2017) – a cognitive bias which reflects the in-group favouritism observed in the minimal group paradigm (Zeugner-Roth, Zabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015).

Importantly, though, consumer ethnocentrism research to date shows a level of inconsistency in the variables involved (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2017). It has long been purported that consumers living in developing countries tend to show more conspicuous consumption (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019) and a corresponding lack of consumer ethnocentric tendencies (Dogi, 2015). The commonly provided explanation is that low levels of consumer ethnocentrism tendencies (CET) are a function of poor economic development (Perkins, et al., 2018). However, this pattern seems to be less certain as more research emerges (Han & Won, 2018). For instance, an early study conducted by Sharma (2011) corroborated the theory that consumers of developed nations hold higher ethnocentric tendencies, however, Han (2017) observed the inverse to be true.

Moreover, a literature review aimed at clarifying the levels of ethnocentrism in Africa found that, in fact, countries within the continent display comparatively high levels of consumer ethnocentric tendencies (Kibret, 2016). By collating the findings of numerous studies in developed and developing countries around the world, it was established that the global average of consumer ethnocentrism is 58,68% (Kibret, 2016). Moreover, developing countries such as Pakistan (65.8%) and Chili (62.24%) show higher levels of CET than developed nations like Australia (55.71%), France (50.29%) and Spain (35.14%). More importantly though, the analysis suggests that, of them all, African countries seem to display the highest levels of CET with Ghana (70.17%) and Nigeria (70.8%) leading the way, followed closely by South Africa (66.29%) and Ethiopia (64.6%). This is significant as it contradicts the commonly

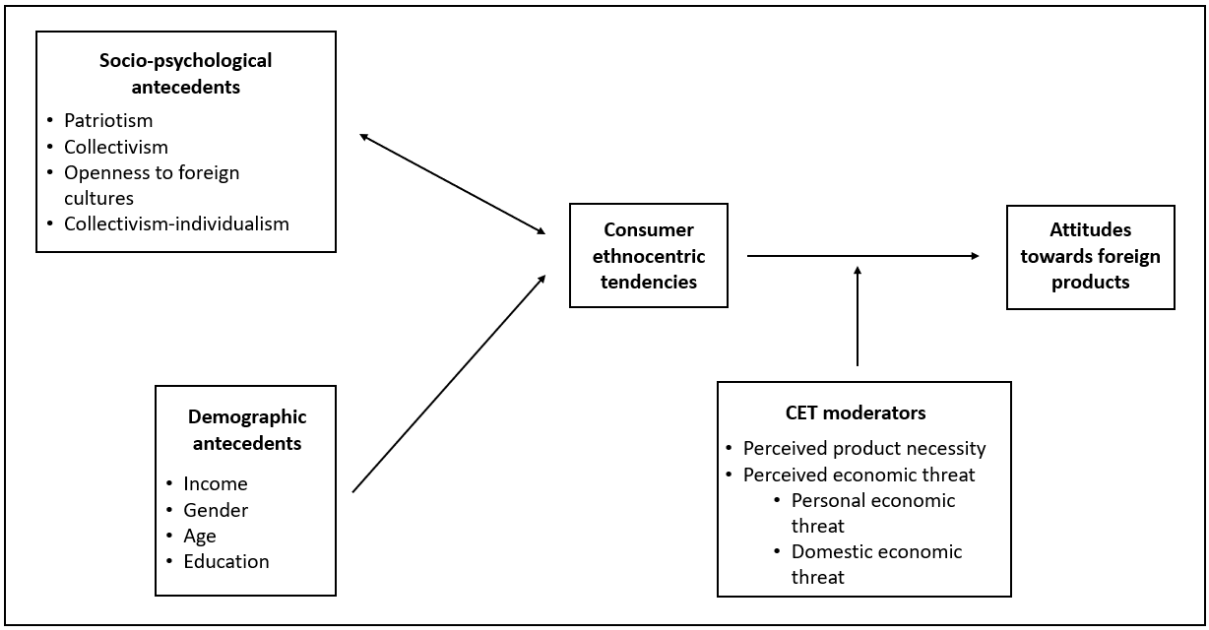
held perception that developing countries hold lower levels of consumer ethnocentrism (Mahbub, 2020).

Upon closer inspection, it would appear that – instead of low levels of CET – the current body of literature suggests that actual attitudes (not the ethnocentric predispositions) towards domestic goods (and the resultant purchase intention) are particularly negative in developing markets (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019). Indeed, consumers of developing countries have been reported to perceive foreign goods as better and more desirable, especially when the foreign brand's COO is highly developed (Jin, Yang, & Jung, 2019). This raises a second issue though: why is there an apparent inconsistency between recorded levels of consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes held towards foreign and domestic products in developing countries? In attempting to reconcile this, one must break down the traditional consumer ethnocentrism conceptual framework and address each constituent part on merit.

3.2.3.2. The conceptual model of consumer ethnocentrism

In their seminal work, Sharma et al. (1995) reiterate the idea that, like ethnocentrism, consumer ethnocentrism is not a factor that one innately possesses from birth, but is rather the result of multiple demographic and psychosocial influences. As such, they developed the first conceptual model of consumer ethnocentrism (see Figure 3.1), which was proposed to be influenced by four demographic antecedents (income level, gender, age, and education level), in addition to four socio-psychological variables (patriotism, collectivism, openness to other cultures, conservatism). Of course, consumer ethnocentrism results in behavioural outcomes too, of which Sharma et al. (1995) include consumer attitudes with respect to foreign imports in the local market. Lastly, the original conceptualisation also included a couple of moderating variables between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer attitudes too. These included the perceived economic threat of the product, as well as the perceived necessity of the product, which positively and negatively influenced attitudes, respectively.

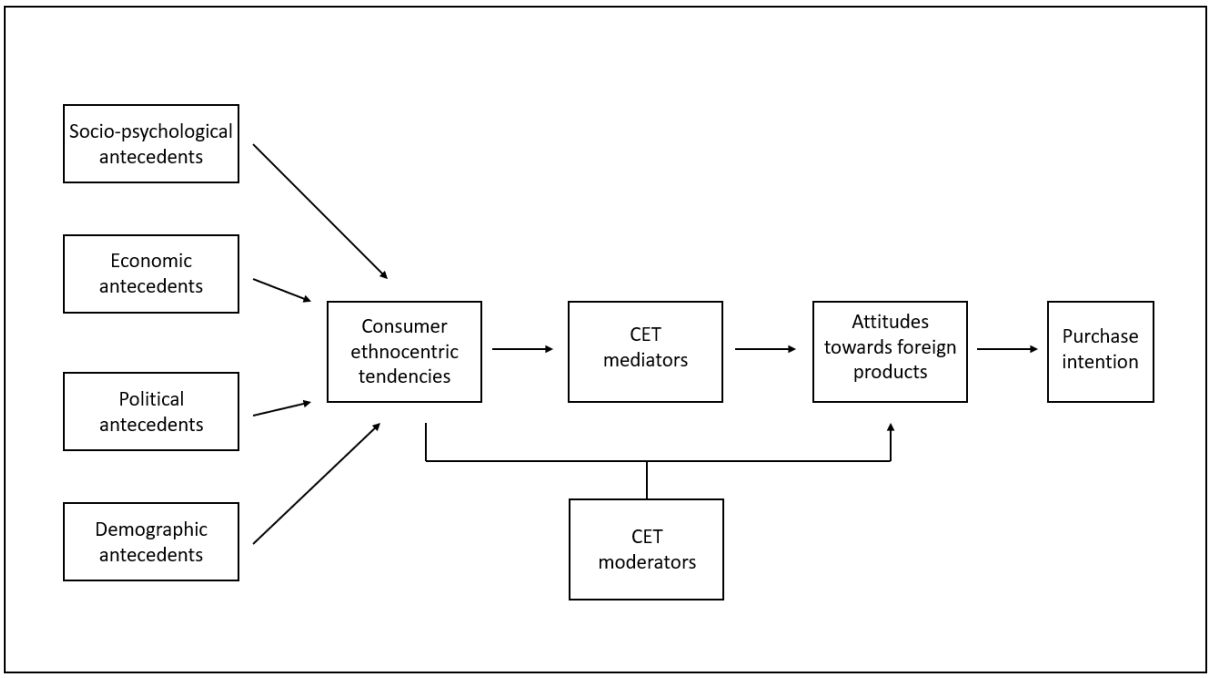
Figure 3.1: Conceptual model of Sharma et al. (1995)



Source: Sharma et al. (1995:28)

Building on the original model of Sharma et al. (1995) and various empirical findings, Shankarmahesh (2006) created the predominant conceptual framework which is still widely cited today. This framework used in the international marketing literature accounts for the major antecedents, outcomes, mediators and moderators of the phenomenon (Pentz, 2011). In particular, Shankarmahesh's (2006) account was progressive in its comprehensive inclusion of antecedents, spanning four different categories. As illustrated by Figure 3.2, these variables are grouped according to the socio-psychological, political, economic, and demographic categories, all of which result in consumer ethnocentric tendencies (or lack thereof). Thereafter, consumer ethnocentrism is purported to develop as a trait-like function of the consumer psyche, proving to influence the attitudinal concepts devoted to imported and domestic products alike. Lastly, the key consumer outcome, consumer behaviour is determined by preconceived attitudes.

Figure 3. 1: Conceptual model of Shankarmahesh (2006)



Source: Shankarmahesh (2006:161)

With this framework, we can readdress the principal inconsistency of consumer ethnocentrism as observed in developing nations – the incongruency in the literature which relates directly to a country's level of economic development. As an antecedent in the conceptual model, a country's level of economic development is theoretically factual and as such, is unlikely to be the source of contention. Moreover, if the phenomenon in question (consumer ethnocentrism), and the measure (the CETSCALE) are valid and reliable, then we must adopt the updated assumption that CET levels are indeed higher in developing countries than in developed ones.

If this is indeed the case, then it would be wise to re-evaluate the theorised consequences of consumer ethnocentrism in order to reconcile the current incongruency. Thus, it is on this premise – that the current conceptualisation of consumer attitude is partly flawed (Perkins, et al., 2018) – that the current research is grounded. Fortunately, the psychological literature provides an alternative conceptualisation of attitudinal concepts, which may shed light on the current quandary facing the academic field of international marketing.

3.3. A holistic approach to consumer attitudes

As early as the 1930s, the importance of attitudes was acknowledged when Alport (1935, pp. 798) stated that they are “probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in … social psychology”. This sentiment holds true today and is every bit as applicable in consumer research as attitudes are widely considered to be the precursor of behaviour (Haugtvedt & Kasmer, 2018). Indeed, truly understanding consumer attitude allows for accurate prediction of consumer behaviour, an ability that is considered of utmost desirability in market research (Perkins et al., 2018).

3.3.1. Attitudes as described in the marketing literature

Attitude is commonly described as the psychological evaluation of an individual, group, object, or concept, and is cognitively associated with a degree of valence (directionality of emotion, positive or negative) and arousal (strength of conviction or emotion) (Serenko & Turel, 2019). As with the enquiry of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer research in general is saturated with frameworks and models that presuppose consumers to be rational agents of conscious deliberation and logical reasoning (Perkins et al., 2018). This was in line with the dominant understanding of consumer behaviour, guided by the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) which assumes the consumer to largely be rational decision-makers.

Accordingly, attitude was considered to be the result of a dynamic interaction between emotional, cognitive and behavioural factors (Allport, 1935). It was further assumed that the individual has conscious access to these attitudes, allowing them to be accurately captured by means of simple self-report techniques (Nosek, Hawkins, & Frazier, 2011). Consequently, the expanse of research predicated on this assumption describes the average consumer as agents of careful consideration, weighing up opportunity costs and objectively comparing pros and cons between products. Moreover, this is further based on the assumption that as social agents, we perceive and interpret relevant stimuli from our environment in a deliberate and controlled manner. From this, consumers are expected to see the world through an objective lens, parsing out the information that is relevant to a particular situation and formulate a plan of action by weighing up the relevant considerations that remain (Perkins et al., 2018).

However, most marketers understand (intuitively or otherwise) that this is not always true. If it were, then the most effective advertising campaigns would focus solely on important intrinsic product characteristic, such as price and product quality. In fact, this is very rarely the case, as consumers regularly make objectively irrational decisions (like forgoing a higher quality laptop and choosing one that is objectively inferior instead) based on the numerous cognitive biases, fallacies and heuristics that constitute the nascent field of behavioural economics (Kahneman, 2011).

Moreover, the traditional methods (such as surveys and focus groups) predicated on this original theory of planned behaviour are only valid insofar as three key conditions are met. Firstly, the respondent must be familiar enough with the target (a product, brand, group etc.) to possess an opinion towards it (Nosek et al., 2012). Thus, it is difficult for explicit measures to accurately capture attitudes towards novel objects, and often elicit the generation of a plausible response purely to appease the researcher. Secondly, traditional methods rely on the assumption that these preformed attitudinal concepts are readily accessible to the respondent through introspection (Greenwald & Banaji, 2017; Nosek et al., 2012). Unfortunately, individuals are not always aware of the true drivers of their cognition, affect and behaviour, resulting in the formulation of a similarly plausible response, which may or may not reflect the underlying cognitive process. Lastly, self-report measures are only valid so long as the respondent is willing to provide accurate accounts of their psychological processes, provided that they are accessible by introspection (Perkins et al., 2018; Nosek et al., 2012). Regrettably, factors such as response biases incentivise participants to consciously alter responses to seem more socially acceptable, especially with respect to topics that are perceived as sensitive or taboo (Dimofte, 2010). Likewise, the involvement of conscious processing in response tends to elicit the phenomenon of resetting (or post-rationalisation) whereby responses are altered to account for the influence of seemingly irrelevant stimuli (Herz, 2017) – stimuli which are the source of true value to the researcher.

As a result, the last 30 years have seen rapid development in the psychological theory of attitude (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016). The bulk of which strongly suggests that cognition, behaviour, and emotions are not as meaningfully correlated as once thought, and that together they are not always a strong predictor of behaviour (Nosek, Hawkins, & Frazier, 2011). Instead, behaviour is regularly driven by a variety

of cognitive, affective, and environmental influences that are constantly shaping our perception of the world and how we interact with it. Consequently, introspection, declaration and self-report measures have been found to be rather unreliable under certain conditions, leading to the scientific interest in new methods of attitude assessment (Perkins et al., 2018).

3.3.2. Dual attitude model

It is not uncommon for consumers to state a conviction (such as “I don’t enjoy fast-food because it’s unhealthy”), only to contradict that with behaviour that suggests otherwise (by ordering pizza, for example). This phenomenon, commonly referred to as the attitude-behaviour gap (alternatively, the intention-behaviour gap or value-action gap), is commonly observed in a commercial setting and indicates that there is a degree of cognitive dissonance in much of what we believe, say, and do (Birch & Memery, 2020). Of course, this is not to imply that the individual in question is lying about their views on fast-food, but rather that attitudes are more complex than initially assumed (Serenko & Turel, 2019).

However, if the stated preference for the item is truly weak and yet behavioural intention was strong enough to drive consumption, then how does this dissonance occur? This is one of the major conundrums facing traditional market research as marketers rely so much on what the consumer reports, and serves to suggest that in a commercial context, there is rarely a straightforward cause-and-effect relationship between stated attitude and behaviour driven by rationality (Balabanis, 2017).

Simply stated, the dual attitude model (Wilson, Lindsey, & Schooler, 2000) purports that an individual can simultaneously hold two distinct attitudes towards a target (object, person, product etcetera) – one that is readily accessible to conscious awareness and one that is nonconscious (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016). This assumes the existence of dichotomous modes of cognitive processing, which have been dubbed System 1 and System 2, both of which are capable of influencing behavioural outcomes in different ways depending on contextual demands (Serenko & Turel, 2019). For instance, when an individual is thoughtfully comparing the price of two high-involvement products, their behaviour is likely to be guided by the slow, deliberate and rational System 2. Conversely, certain situations may require less

conscious awareness and thus, the rapid, associative and nonconscious System 1 is utilized (Kahneman, 2011).

In accordance with the dual attitude model, separate attitudinal concepts can be formed, stored and activated at the two levels of cognition (Payne & Gawronski, 2010). In a commercial setting, system 2 is likely to be employed in situations that are unfamiliar and attitudes are not yet fully formed, or when the decision involves high degree of conscious deliberation and discernment, like when choosing between different life insurance policies. These high-risk purchasing scenarios require the thoughtful comparison of pros and cons and induce high levels of cognitive load to compute. Therefore, this process of consciously employing system 2 is likely to invoke explicitly held beliefs and attitudes that are generally informed by intrinsic product cues such as price and quality.

However, this is not generally the case for most scenarios that consumers encounter on a day-to-day basis. In order to save time and cognitive resources, our decision-making processes are handled by System 1 for simpler, more routine choices (Thøgersen et al., 2019). This fundamental system is primarily aimed at achieving cognitive efficiency and operates according to entrenched associations between concepts that have been learnt over time. Thus, implicit attitudes are very likely to drive habitualised action in situations that are familiar, low-risk and require little conscious thought (Kahneman, 2011). A simple trip to the grocery store is heavily laden with system 2 judgements such as selecting a low-involvement product such as toothpaste, or when impulse buying a chocolate at the point of sale (Ku & Chen, 2021). Indeed, a great deal of the decisions we make are guided by this unconscious process and, as a result, implicit attitudes are covertly influencing behaviour more than theory originally led us to believe (Perkins et al., 2018).

Importantly, Daniel Kahneman (2011, pp. 29), highlights the purely explanatory nature of the terms by stating that “they are fictitious characters. Systems 1 and 2 are not systems in the standard sense of entities with interacting aspects or parts. And there is no one part of the brain that either of the systems would call home”. Rather, these terms are useful purely insofar as their ability to simplify incredibly complex psychological phenomena and allow pragmatic conceptualisation that is accessible to the average person (Corneille & Hütter, 2020). However, for the

purpose of effective marketing, it is still important to understand the overarching mechanisms that facilitate such cognitive processes. System 1, as a conceptualisation, is governed by the human brain's capacity for implicit memory and the ensuing implicit attitudes that develop as a result of associative networks within the memory structures. In toto, these faculties give rise to the phenomenon of implicit social cognition which is applicable to the field of marketing as implicit consumer cognition.

3.3.3. Implicit memory

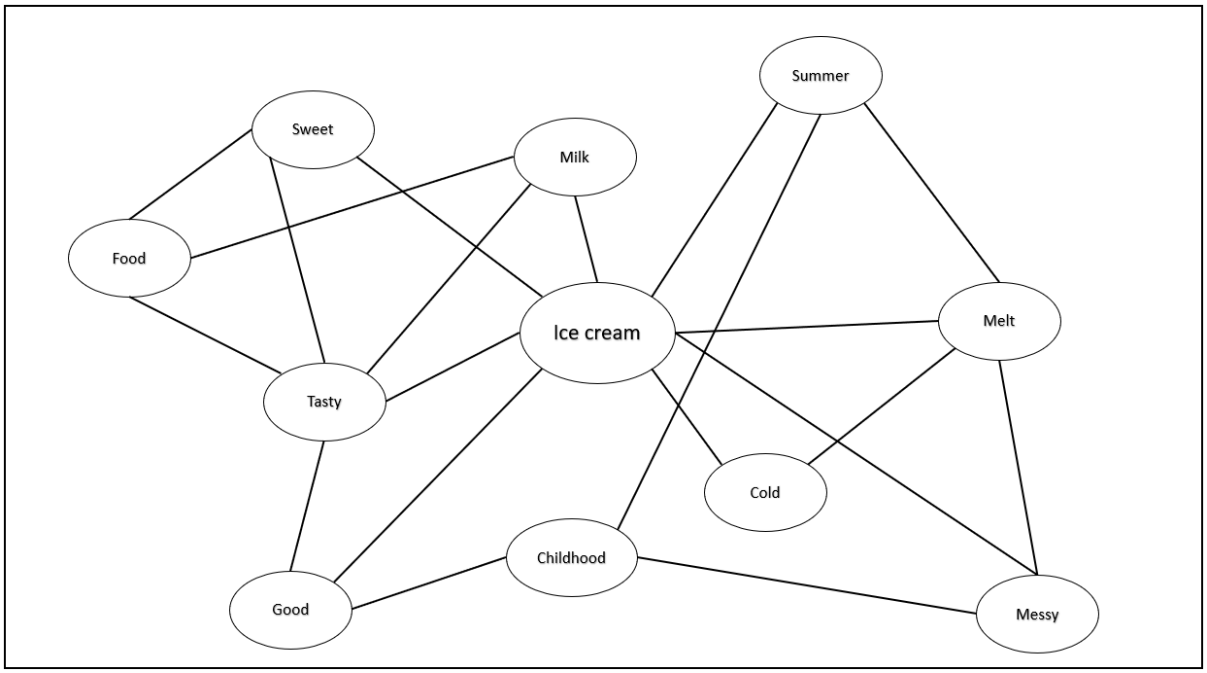
For hundreds of years, philosophers such as Aristotle, academics like Augustine and physicians like Freud have commented, in one way or another, on the guiding force of the unconscious and the limits to introspective recall (Payne & Gawronski, 2010). Central to this realisation is the distinction between implicit (unconscious) and explicit (conscious) processes which, in tandem, shape our cognition, emotion and behaviour. This direction of enquiry was motivated by one particularly influential clinical anecdote of 19th century French physician, Édouard Claparède (as cited in Payne & Gawronski, 2010) who discovered that a chronically amnesiac patient displayed instinctual learning without any recollection of the primary event. Consequently, Claparède went on to describe the reaction as being governed by a memory system separate from the patient's conscious self, a cognitive faculty that has since been named implicit memory (Greenwald & Banaji, 2017). /

Uncovered by the work of cognitive psychologists, implicit memory is described as a memory structure constructed by past experience that guides future performance without any conscious awareness of its existence or influence (Payne & Gawronski, 2010). The acknowledgement of such a faculty spurred research into information-processing stage models which primarily relied on indirect response latency measures such as evaluative priming (Fazio, Jackson, Dunton, & Williams, 1995) and the affect misattribution procedure (Payne, Cheng, Govorun, & Stewart, 2005). This, in conjunction with other semantic priming findings, helped develop the cognitive models of associative networks which attempts to illustrate the nature of the coding and storage of constructs (or units) in semantic memory.

3.3.4. Associative networks and spreading activation

Most notably, Collins and Loftus (1975) proposed the renowned associative network model which purports a weblike categorisation of concepts in semantic memory and is still widely employed in fields that deal with cognitive psychology, artificial intelligence and even consumer decision making (Pace-Sigge, 2018). In essence, this theory suggests that when two objects are perceived in close proximity (spatially or temporally), they become linked, or associated, within the brain's memory structures (Peschel, Kazemi, Liebichová, Sarraf, & Aschemann-Witzel, 2019). For instance, when one enjoys an ice cream, they are likely to taste the sweetness of the sugar while outside on a warm summer's day. Thus, the cognitive units of 'ice cream', 'sweet', and 'summer' are stored as separate nodes in an interconnected network (illustrated in Figure 3.3). In turn, each node is linked by pathways which denote the association between conceptual units. Moreover, pathways between nodes are strengthened when the two cognitive units are repeatedly activated together. In the current example, ice cream and sweet will likely co-occur more often than ice cream and summer (as it is plausible that ice cream is eaten in winter too). Therefore, the pathway between the former will be stronger and more developed than the pathway between the latter.

Figure 3.3: Associative network example



Source: Author's construction

In order to account for the retrieval of concepts from once memory is formed, the seminal theorists purported the related theory of spreading activation (Collins & Loftus, 1975). This process begins with an input cue which may be external (an environmental signal) or internal (a cognitive thought or impulse) that activates a specific node (Pace-Sigge, 2018). Following the cognitive laws of threshold activation, that node may then initiate the activation of proximal nodes which are linked by associative pathways (Peschel et al., 2019). This process sets off a ripple effect that spreads throughout the network, until activation levels drop below the threshold level, or the same node is activated by two different pathways (Koponen, 2021).

As a mechanism for diffuse association between concepts in memory, spreading activation is integral to human thought and is believed to be the guiding force behind practices such as free association commonly employed in market research (Koll, von Wallpach, & Kreuzer, 2010). This concept that a stimulus can activate a network of associations within one's implicit memory structures was initially brought to the fore by social psychologists in examining racial prejudices (Payne & Gawronski, 2010). In addition to its valuable contribution to sociology and social psychology, this method of enquiry also served to highlight the dichotomy between explicitly held beliefs and implicit attitudes, adding credence to the growing emphasis on implicit social cognition.

3.4. Implicit social cognition

Following the groundswell of dual-processing models and related behavioural measurements, Greenwald and Banaji (1995) established the concept of implicit social cognition which describes the various attitudes, stereotypes and self-concepts that exist independent from conscious awareness and control. Greenwald and Banaji (1995, pp. 8) refer to implicit attitudes as "introspectively unidentified (or inaccurately identified) traces of past experience that mediate favourable or unfavourable feeling, thought, or action toward social objects". In other words, they are the attitudes shaped by lived experiences that influence cognition, emotion and behaviour, albeit on a nonconscious level (Nosek, Hawkins, & Frazier, 2011). Thus, the marketing derivative, known as implicit consumer cognition, relates to the nonconscious and

automatic drivers of consumer affect, motivation and behaviour (Dimofte, 2010). According to the mounting evidence, traditional conceptualisations of consumer motivation fail to account for the breadth of System 1 influences that govern a large proportion of consumer perception, memory recall, and intention (Perkins et al., 2018).

As such, the incorporation of automatic, inattentional processes to the model of consumer psychology has resulted in less reliance on self-report techniques and more emphasis on indirect measures of attitude. In fact, implicit social cognition is intimately related to the cognitive constructs measured by a new era of computer-based tests that are designed specifically to compensate for the limitations of traditional self-report measures of attitude and emotion. Indeed, these unique tests accomplish this by designing a research paradigm in which respondents are not forthrightly asked of their opinion, but are rather presented with a series of timed sorting tasks which are seemingly unrelated to any specific marketing construct. Thus, the primary distinction of an implicit method from other data collection techniques is that the participant is unaware of any relation between the task at hand and the specific target construct under investigation (Perkins et al., 2018). In doing so, this comprehensively accounts for the effect of response biases that are all too common in self-report techniques and mitigates the subject's ability to consciously control their answers, thereby revealing a source of genuine psychological insights (Nosek, Hawkins, & Frazier, 2011).

By relying on the concept of associative networks, these response latency measures attempt to measure attitudes towards a concept through the process of spreading activation (Bridger, 2020). Simply, researchers discovered that when two concepts are strongly associated in sematic memory – that is, the pathway between those two nodes (ice cream and tasty) are strong – then they are quicker to respond to one if it is preceded by another (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016). Therefore, it stands to reason that the stronger the association, the faster and more readily available the activation. Likewise, the quicker the activation, the more prominent the attitude towards the target. Thus, such methods are valuable in that they can extract unconscious attitudes that are not readily accessible by way of self-report measures, and that they can indicate the strength or surety of an attitude (Bridger, 2020).

3.4.1. CET: an automatic or reflective process

In light of the nascent but credible theories of dual attitude and implicit social cognition, we must now return to the construct of consumer ethnocentrism which is a phenomenon of great import in our globalized marketplace. As previously eluded to, the theory was created under the widely accepted presupposition that consumers are rational decision-makers, guided by the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) which has now been established to only partially account for consumer decision making (Diamantopoulos, Florack, Halkias, & Palku, 2017). Thus, one would be wise to reassess the assumptions originally made by Sharma et al. (1995), chief of which was their explicit description of consumer ethnocentrism as a *conscious* preference for brands that belong to one's own country of origin (Pentz, 2011). Moreover, the theory was fundamentally presupposed on the idea that CET specifically stems from a strong ideological cognitive process, rather than other, more automatic and affective processes (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016).

As a result of the proliferation of implicit research, compelling empirical evidence has emerged to suggest that the in-group bias of SIT is nonconscious and operates on an implicit level (Jansson, 2013) by way of ingrained biological mechanisms (De Dreu, Greer, Van Kleef, Shalvi, & Handgraaf, 2011). As consumer ethnocentrism is a derivative of ethnocentrism, fundamentally rooted in SIT, it is prudent to consider the possibility of it also being implicitly governed. This seems likely to be the case as research further points to the likelihood that COO-related effects (stereotypes and attitudes) are automatically activated within system 2 and are largely independent of conscious control or awareness (Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2017).

Importantly, consumer ethnocentrism is analogous to an attitudinal concept (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016), and is undoubtedly the extension of a core attitude towards foreign and local products. Described as a "trait-like property of the personalities of individuals" (Pentz, 2011, pp. 97), consumer ethnocentrism is a learnt predisposition with a motivational dimension that is either positive or negative in valence (drive towards or repel against). As a predisposition that is generalised across products categories and industries, consumer ethnocentrism is likely to be a core attitudinal concept that is initially developed by enculturation and lived experience, stored unconsciously as a node in the associative network of semantic memory, and activated automatically upon exposure to contextual cues.

Much like the stereotypes governing COO bias, such attitudes are unconsciously created specifically by implicit social cognition and are fundamentally associative (Martin, Shyue Wai Lee, & Lacey, 2011). In keeping with the theory of spreading activation, Herz and Diamantopoulos (2017) empirically purport that such attitudes are activated by mere exposure to COO cues even without conscious awareness or behavioural intention. Although consumers can (and often do) control for these stereotypes by strategically formulating responses from System 2, the core attitudinal concepts that guides approach and avoidance behaviours are unconscious (Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2017). As such, current market research practice that relies solely on explicit measures of attitude are likely to produce insights which fail to comprehensively capture consumer perceptions (Diamantopoulos et al., 2017).

3.4.2. Implicit Consumer Ethnocentrism (ICE)

Indeed, it is becoming increasingly evident in the literature, however, Maison and Maliszewski (2016) were among the first to realise this and set out to identify the true constructs driving consumer ethnocentric tendencies. Specifically, they aimed to determine whether consumer ethnocentrism is a strictly rational product of conscious System 2 reasoning, or if it is the manifestation of a more unconscious mechanism. By using the CETSCALE, brand preference measure (BPM) and the implicit association test (IAT) they conducted a series of experiments aimed at comparing explicit and implicit attitudes towards brands in various product categories. The ensuing results were revolutionary in that they do indeed point to an underlying mechanism that governs automatic preference for local goods (Perkins et al., 2018). This confirmed the hypothesis that consumer ethnocentric tendencies are additionally guided by an automatic, nonconscious mechanism which they termed Implicit Consumer Ethnocentrism (ICE).

Consequently, Maison and Maliszewski (2016) posit that the phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism is more complex than simply a consciously ideological decision. Instead, it involves another, automatic process which may be derived from underlying cognitive factors such as in-group favouritism, which are implicitly learned as a result of implicit consumer cognition. This acknowledgement of an additional mechanism, distinct from conscious deliberation is significant and should not be readily overlooked in market research (Perkins, Forehand, Greenwald, & Maison,

2018). Instead, marketers would be wise to incorporate this dimension of consumer decision-making into the current framework if they are to better understand, explain and predict behaviour (Diamantopoulos, Florack, Halkias, & Palku, 2017).

3.5. Proposed conceptual model and hypothesis development

In keeping with the predominant literature on consumer ethnocentrism, this model has been adapted from the frameworks developed by Shankarmahesh (2006), Sharma et al. (1995), and Javalgi et al. (2005).

Indeed, the current study incorporates many of the variables offered by Shankarmahesh (2006) but differs fundamentally in the inclusion of an unconscious dimension – implicit consumer attitudes as guided by Maison and Maliszewski (2016). The model (illustrated in figure 3.3) and relevant hypotheses are elaborated on in the sections to follow. In doing so, the discussion will justify each constituent of the model, as well as discuss the hypothesised outcomes of the relationships therein.

3.5.1. Socio-psychological antecedents

As informed by the relevant literature, a couple of overarching socio-psychological antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism have been selected from the aforementioned theoretical frameworks. These specific constructs were selected due to the broader societal context in which this research takes place. For instance, patriotism is currently a psychological state of particular interest in South African society, subsequent to the abolishment of apartheid and ensuing societal identity crisis (Ndwandwe, 2020). South Africans are in the process of establishing a new and inclusive national identity, a situation which has important implications for marketers. Moreover, the effect of materialism is particularly pertinent to this cohort – Generation Z – which have been reported to place much emphasis on the conspicuous consumption of high-status goods (Bevan-Dye et al., 2012; Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019). It is important for South African marketers to understand how this influences consumer ethnocentric tendencies in the developing context as foreign goods are commonly regarded as better quality and more desirable (Perkins et al., 2018). Hence, the following socio-psychological antecedents were included

and separately addressed due to the unique historical-political and socio-economic landscape of South Africa. These are discussed as follows:

3.5.1.1. Patriotism

The first major determinant of consumer ethnocentrism, as identified by Shimp and Sharma (1987) and Han (1988), is that of patriotism which is believed to contribute to the level of sacrifice one is likely to make for the home nation. As such, patriotism is an affect-based personality trait relating to one's predisposed feelings towards a place of birth, and thus defined as the love and pride for one's home country (Pentz, Terblanche, & Boshoff, 2017). Moreover, it is also said to extend to the portrayal of respect and loyalty to others of the same nationality (Kostić, Stanišić, & Marinković, 2020). Unlike nationalism which inherently involves a degree of disdain for foreigners, the affective state of patriotism is said to involve strong feelings of attachment and loyalty without the corresponding hostility towards other nations (Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller, & Melewar, 2001). This socio-psychological variable is suggested to be positively associated with CET by Sharma et al. (1995), a proposition empirically supported in the extant literature (Han 1988; Sharma et al., 1995; Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Shankarmahesh, 2006).

Indeed, in a study of potential socio-psychological precursors to consumer ethnocentric tendencies, Kostić et al. (2020) surveyed consumers across a variety of metropolitans in the Balkan nation of Serbia. Although a total of four antecedents (animosity towards the EU, nationalism, patriotism, and religiosity) were observed to significantly influence CET, patriotism was ardently reported to be the most prominent antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism. It was further observed that patriotic love for one's country is also associated with an increased intention to purchase local products, further adding credence to the positive link between patriotism and consumer ethnocentric tendencies.

This replicates another significant result observed amongst a representative sample in the European city of Belgrade (Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015). It was thus reported that the socio-psychological dimension of patriotism is a significant positive predictor of both consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity towards foreign imports. Moreover, in the investigation of consumer ethnocentrism in China, Ding (2017) identified patriotism as the main contributor of consumer ethnocentrism, in

conjunction with nationalism. Moreover, they purport that in that specific developing economy, people tend to reject imports due to patriotic dispositions and not because of perceived inferiority of local products.

Given the potential importance between patriotic predispositions and consumer tendencies in a globalised market, many researchers have examined the link between the two constructs. Pentz et al. (2017) have been among the most successful to this end, with their South African study proving to elicit some important findings. Amongst other potential antecedents, patriotism was observed to be positively associated with consumer ethnocentrism, in which both their black and white samples exhibited a positive relationship between patriotism and CET. Indeed, it was thus concluded that South African consumers who have pride in and love for their country tend to display higher levels of consumer ethnocentric predispositions than their unpatriotic counterparts (Pentz et al., 2017). Importantly, Jain and Jain (2013) and Rybina et al. (2010) also found this relationship to hold true in the developing economies of India and Kazakhstan, respectively, further confirming the trend in the context of developing countries. Thus, it is proposed that patriotism be addressed with the following hypothesis:

H1: Patriotism significantly and positively predicts consumer ethnocentrism.

3.5.1.2. Materialism (success, centrality, happiness)

Widely purported as a consequence of the increasing consumption culture that predominates capitalistic societies, materialism is described as “the importance ascribed to the ownership and acquisition of material goods in achieving major life goals or desired states” (Richins, 2004, pp. 210). Accounting for its three precipitating dimensions, materialism is “a set of attitudes which regard possessions as symbols of success, where possessions occupy a central part of life, and which include holding the belief that more possessions lead to more happiness” (Chan & Prendergast, 2007, pp. 214). From this definition, it must be noted that materialism is comprised of three sub-dimensions, namely materialism success (the extent to which material possessions indicate personal success), materialism centrality (the extent to which material possessions are of central importance in one’s life) and materialism

happiness (the extent to which material possessions are obtained in the pursuit of happiness).

Materialism is considered to play an influential role in consumer behaviour, attitudes, perceptions and evaluations across product categories and markets (Sharma, 2011). Indeed, it is a socio-psychological trait that is strongly associated with status consumption, and thereby the behavioural manifestation of conspicuous consumption (Bevan-Dye, Garnett, & de Klerk, 2012). Moreover, consumers with high levels of materialistic tendencies place much emphasis on elevating their social status in communal settings (as per the social identity theory), and as a result, materialistic consumers regularly seek out and purchase products that denote a level of exclusivity, luxury and wealth to this end (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019).

As foreign goods are commonly associated with luxury (given a positive COO product-country fit), Shankarmahesh's (2006) integrative review suggests a positive association between materialism and consumer ethnocentrism as individuals predisposed to materialistic tendencies use personal belongings to infer group identity – a process highly correlated with consumer ethnocentrism. Empirical support for this has been noted by Clarke et al. (2000) in a cross-national comparison. Moreover, recent research into *"Millennials' national and global identities as drivers of materialism and consumer ethnocentrism"* (Gonzalez-Fuentes, 2019) elicited a significant relationship between the two constructs in both their American and Japanese samples. However, some studies have failed to find an association between the sociological constructs of materialism and consumer ethnocentrism (Bevan-Dye, Garnett, & de Klerk, 2012; Das & Mukherjee, 2019), a discrepancy which necessitates further research.

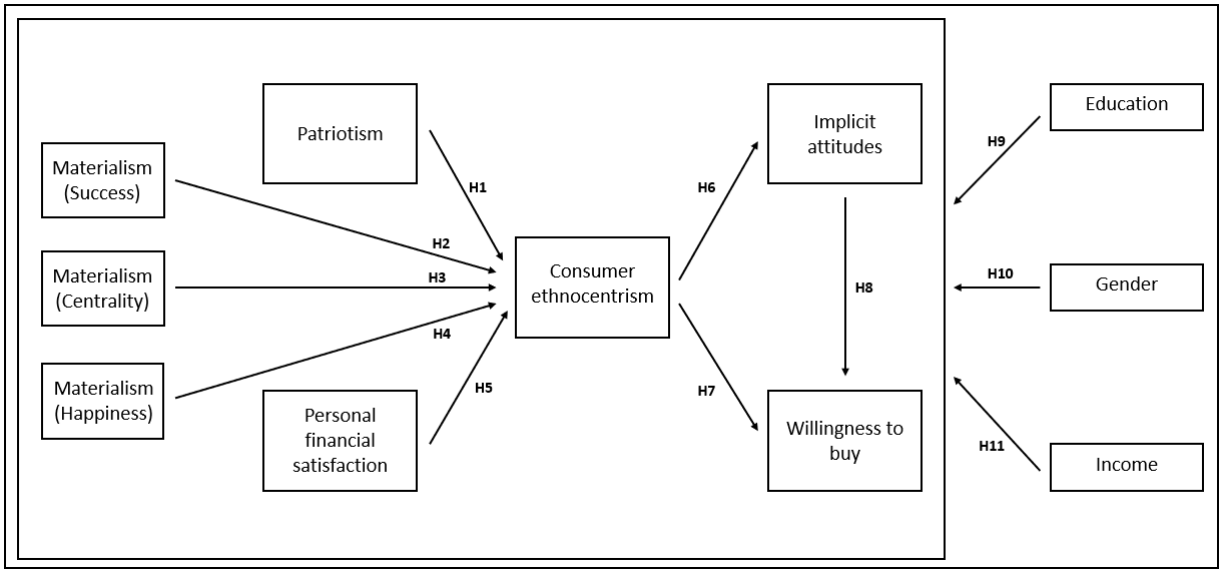
Materialistic tendencies have been steadily increasing with the growth of a global culture of consumerism, and further exacerbated by the globalization of markets around the world (Das & Mukherjee, 2019). However, it must be noted that the manifestation thereof is moderated by the economic and cultural context in which the materialistic consumer finds themselves (Jin, Yang, & Jung, 2019). More specifically, materialistic consumers in developing countries have been observed to adopt the conspicuous consumption of foreign products more than their European or North American counterparts (Sharma, 2011). Naturally, this is believed to be the result of

a strong desire to transcend historically low social statuses, in conjunction with premium associations attached to goods hailing from more developed regions (Bevan-Dye, Garnett, & de Klerk, 2012).

Although most research operationalises materialism as a unidimensional construct, it was decided that the current study would separate the overarching phenomenon of materialism up into its three constituent parts. To this end, the goal was to identify which specific sub-domains of materialism contribute to consumer ethnocentric tendencies in this sample, and account for the inconsistencies observed in the extant body of literature. Thus, it is proposed that:

> *H2: Materialism success significantly and negatively predicts consumer ethnocentrism.*
>
> *H3: Materialism centrality significantly and negatively predicts consumer ethnocentrism.*
>
> *H4: Materialism happiness significantly and negatively predicts consumer ethnocentrism.*

Figure 3.4: Proposed conceptual model



Source: Author's construction

3.5.2. Economic antecedents

It has been proposed by Shankarmahesh (2006) that no less than four economic antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism exist. However, the construct of personal financial situation was specifically selected by Fernández-Ferrín and Bande-Vilela (2013), who state that consumer ethnocentric tendencies are particularly strong in those that feel international brands pose a threat to the local economy and their own standard of living. Indeed, this economic antecedent was included due to the unique economic situation facing the country – one which is considered a developing nation with an industrialised economy. Due to South Africa's intricate socio-political history, the nation is divided into a dual economy with high inequality. However, the middle class is growing at a rapid rate, leading to a financial context which is rich in nuance and complexity. This, in combination with unstable economic conditions – especially following the fiscal impact of the COVID-19 pandemic – results in a situation which has uncertain effects on a phenomenon like consumer ethnocentrism. Thus, due to the lack of CET research in this context and the phenomenon's influential nature on the local economy, and the subsequent filter-down effects on individual's financial situations, it is of great importance to marketers and researchers alike. Despite the genuine paucity of literature, the following paragraphs discuss the economic variable selected for this model.

3.5.2.1. Personal financial satisfaction

Han (2017) highlights the influential role that one's home nation's level of economic development plays on the level and outcome of consumer ethnocentrism. Originally, Klein and Ettenson (1999) observed that the perception of an improving national economy tends to reduce consumer ethnocentrism within their sample of American consumers. This is believed to be due to the fact that consumer ethnocentric behaviours serve to defend the domestic economy against the threat of foreign competition. Moreover, Siamgka and Balbanis (2015) note that the general sentiment towards supporting local business has increased subsequent to the global financial crisis of 2008. Likewise, it has been empirically shown that the consumption of domestic products and related ethnocentric levels increase in times of national economic hardship (Yildiz, Heitz-Spahn, & Belaud, 2018). However, when the nation is perceived to be thriving, competition from foreign organisations is not seen as much of a threat (Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995). Indeed, this trend was replicated in

the cross-national study of consumers in Poland and Russia (Good & Huddleston, 1995). Lastly, Fernández-Ferrín and Bande-Vilela (2013) found such a relationship in context of regional ethnocentrism.

After an extensive search, it would appear that despite the purporting of Shankarmahesh (2006), this particular antecedent has been widely overlooked. Such a paucity of publications is seen as both a challenge and an opportunity for the current paper. Of course, the challenge is that a scarcity of research limits this hypothesis development, but this also means that any findings elicited to this end will greatly add to the body of knowledge and ultimately facilitate further research into the effects of personal financial satisfaction on consumer ethnocentrism. Thus, it is tentatively postulated that:

> *H5: Personal financial satisfaction significantly and negatively predicts consumer ethnocentrism.*

3.5.3. Consumer ethnocentrism, implicit attitudes and willingness to buy

One of consumer ethnocentrism's core strengths is the ability to predict consumer attitudes (Pentz, Terblanche, & Boshoff, 2017). Although the nature of these attitudes may differ according to extraneous factors such as product category or spontaneity of report, the construct remains a valuable determinant of preference. Indeed, the pioneering research of Maison and Maliszewski (2016) shows that the phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism is anything but unidimensional, with attitudes forming and influencing behaviour below the level of consciousness – that is, at a nonconscious level. Similar research shows that other stereotypical predispositions when viewing advertisements (like consumer ethnocentrism) influence implicit attitudes in this way (Read, van Driel, & Potter, 2018). Bennet & Vijaygopal (2018) touch on this connection too, in their IAT study inquiry of consumer attitudes towards electric vehicles. Indeed, a rare implicit study revealed that explicit COO product evaluations are related to implicit attitudes generated by the IAT (Martin, Shyue Wai Lee, & Lacey, 2011). Although the extant literature is limited, the plausibility of such a link between explicit consumer ethnocentrism and implicit attitudinal concepts is evident. Thus, an exploration of this possibility would be

beneficial to many fields, not least the study of consumer psychology and market research. Consequently, the following hypothesis is structured as follows:

> *H6: Consumer ethnocentrism significantly and positively predicts implicit consumer attitudes.*

Consumer ethnocentric tendencies are fundamentally derived from an attitudinal concept (Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995). In theory, attitudes are multifactorial and result in the dynamic interplay between emotional states, belief systems, and behaviour (Ladero, Casquet, & Singh, 2017). Consequently, Zhang et al. (2021) purport that, fundamentally, consumer attitude is constituted by the three composite parts of cognition, affect and conation. As an integral element of this tricomponent model, conation represents one's behavioural intention, (more commonly referred to as 'purchase intention'). Moreover, Muchandiona et al. (2021) suggest that conation should be understood in a marketing context as one's willingness to buy a product – a behavioural intention which is considered to be conscious in nature (Makanyeza, Svotwa, & Jaiyeoba, 2021).

Indeed, scholars generally agree that a positive attitude towards an item is directly related to one's intention to buy said item (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2017). In line with this, Rybina et al. (2010) observed both a positive association between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intention of local goods, as well as a complimentary negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy foreign products. Moreover, Pentz et al. (2017) and Makanyeza et al. (2017) observed similar associations amongst their South African and Zimbabwean samples, respectively. As a result, the following is hypothesised:

> *H7: Consumer ethnocentrism significantly and positively predicts willingness to buy local brands.*

Although Shimp and Sharma's (1995) prominent account of consumer ethnocentrism specifically defined it as a conscious phenomenon, Maison and Maliszewski's (2016) pioneering research strongly points to the existence of an additional, automatic attitude system – one which is separate but related to the reflective, conscious system. As alluded to previously, some conscious attitudinal concepts fail to correlate significantly with purchase behaviour in certain situations, such as ones that require a socially desirable answer to a sensitive topic (Nosek, Hawkins, &

Frazier, 2011; Hofmann, Gawronski, Gschwendner, Le, & Schmitt, 2005). In fact, research scenarios aimed at investigating consumers' opinions towards COO related topics have been found to result in such response biases driven by unconscious defence mechanisms (Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2017).

Furthermore, academics have observed that implicit attitudes reliably predict behaviour in various domains of cognitive sciences (Perkins, Forehand, Greenwald, & Maison, 2018). This was particularly the case in a study conducted by Diamantopoulos et al. (2017) which investigated the predictive strength of implicit and explicit attitudes towards product preference. Indeed, it was found that implicitly held stereotypes better predicted consumer brand preference in situations that required impulse decisions. As the current study is focused on the low-involvement, fast-moving consumer good of potato chips, it is assumed that implicit attitudes are likely to govern purchase intention. Grounded in this reasoning, it is assumed that:

> *H8: Implicit attitudes significantly and positively predict willingness to buy local brands.*

3.5.4. Demographic moderators

Originally included as an antecedent in Shankarmahesh's (2006) conceptual model, Pentz and colleagues (2014) note that demographic variables should be considered as moderators in future consumer ethnocentric research. Likewise, Makanyeza and du Toit (2017) highlight the fact that the moderating effect of demographics on the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer attitude has been widely overlooked in the marketing literature, especially in the developing world (Akbarov, 2021). This is suboptimal as such readily available identifiers could provide marketers with effective means to segment the consumer base and tailor marketing strategies accordingly (Nadiri & Tümer, 2010).

Importantly, these consumer differentiators have been commonly identified as significant moderators of product evaluations, decision-making, purchase intention, and buying behaviour (Antony, Khanapuri, & Jain, 2018; Henrique & Augusto de Matos, 2015; Pérez & del Bosque, 2015; Prayag, Hosany, Taheri, & Ekiz, 2019). As such, the demographic variables of education, gender and income have been included in this study as moderators of the whole conceptual model. The next three

sub-sections will therefore discuss how each demographic variable has been recorded to influence consumer ethnocentrism, and its outcomes in particular.

3.5.4.1. Education

Shankarmahesh's (2006) review strongly suggests that education is negatively linked to consumer ethnocentrism. Indeed Fernández-Ferrín et al. (2015) observed that amongst their sample of Serbian consumers, higher levels of education are associated with the overestimation of foreign products, while lower levels are associated with an overestimation of domestic products – a trend which was also confirmed by Nadiri & Tümer (2010) and Chryssochoidis et al. (2007). Due to the fact that consumer ethnocentrism fundamentally derives from attitudinal concepts and is influenced by education accordingly, it logically follows that the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and implicit attitudes should theoretically be moderated by education too. This assumption is supported by Maison and Maliszewski (2016) who conclude that the two are related constructs that both influence willingness to purchase in different quantities. Because of this dynamic interplay, the following is hypothesised:

> *H9: Education significantly moderates the relationships in the conceptual model.*

3.5.4.2. Gender

Upon review of the literature, it is evident that gender may influence CET in a significant way (Maison, 2016). In short, evidence suggests that women present with higher consumer ethnocentric tendencies than their male counterparts (Josiassen, George, & Karpen, 2011; Shankarmahesh, 2006). This is further supported by a South African study that found the gender of white participants to have an impact on CET levels (Pentz, Terblanche, & Boshoff, 2014). As with the moderation effect of education, gender is believed to influence the various interrelated attitudinal concepts and their subsequent relationships in a similar way (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016). Thus, gender is hypothesised to have the following effect:

H10: Gender significantly moderates the relationships in the conceptual model.

3.5.4.3. Income

As with the two previous demographic factors, there is some empirical evidence to suggest that income levels do influence CET (Pentz et al., 2014). More specifically, it has been observed that individuals with higher income levels tend to display less ethnocentric tendencies (Akbarov, 2021; Hamelin, Ellouzi, & Canterbury, 2011; Richardson, 2012). This trend has been replicated in the South African context too, with Pentz et al. (2014) observing a negative relationship between personal income and CET levels in both their samples. Sharma et al. (1995) attributed this inverse relationship to more appreciation for foreign products – a function of higher exposure to foreign culture through travel and the ability to afford imported goods. Indeed, Paul (2018) observed that those with high income prioritize prestige products more highly than their lower-income counterparts. Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

H11: Income significantly moderates the relationships in the conceptual model.

3.6. Conclusion

By drawing on the expanse of literature in fields such as cognitive neuroscience, social psychology and behavioural economics, this chapter has established the theoretical framework on which the current study is grounded. This was accomplished by first discussing the overarching social identity theory and how it relates to the sociological concept of ethnocentrism, and its marketing derivative, CET. Importantly, a key inconsistency in the international marketing literature was identified and unpacked with reference to a more nuanced approach to consumer psychology – implicit consumer cognition. This argument was bolstered by the influential dual attitude model, implicit memory, associative networks, and spreading activation. In total, the discussion culminated in the proposition that consumer ethnocentrism is a complex phenomenon which is likely to be informed by at least

two cognitive processes – one which operates on a conscious level, and another that influences behaviour below the level of awareness.

Following this theoretical foundation, the conceptual model to be used herein was proposed and justified with supporting literature. The model is a progression from the acclaimed works of Sharma et al. (1995) and Shankarmahesh (2006), with the notable inclusion of an implicit dimension of consumer attitudes, as informed by Maison and Maliszewski (2016). Naturally, each relationship between the concepts of the model represents an area of empirical interest. Eleven hypotheses were made to this end, of which the following research design shall evaluate the empirical plausibility of each.

CHAPTER 4:

METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

High-quality research is question led, insofar as the question dictates the nature of the ensuing study. Hence, the initial question posed here – “What is the predictive role of implicit consumer attitudes on willingness to buy local brands in the fast-moving consumer goods product category?” – informs every other aspect of the study. As such, the research methodology is tailored to fit, guiding all activities towards answering the research question. Thus, the chapter to follow is dedicated to discussing the various methodologies, strategies and techniques commonly used in marketing research. Additionally, the aim is to shed light on the research question and to this end, a carefully constructed research methodology has been created and motivated for as per the relevant literature and theory.

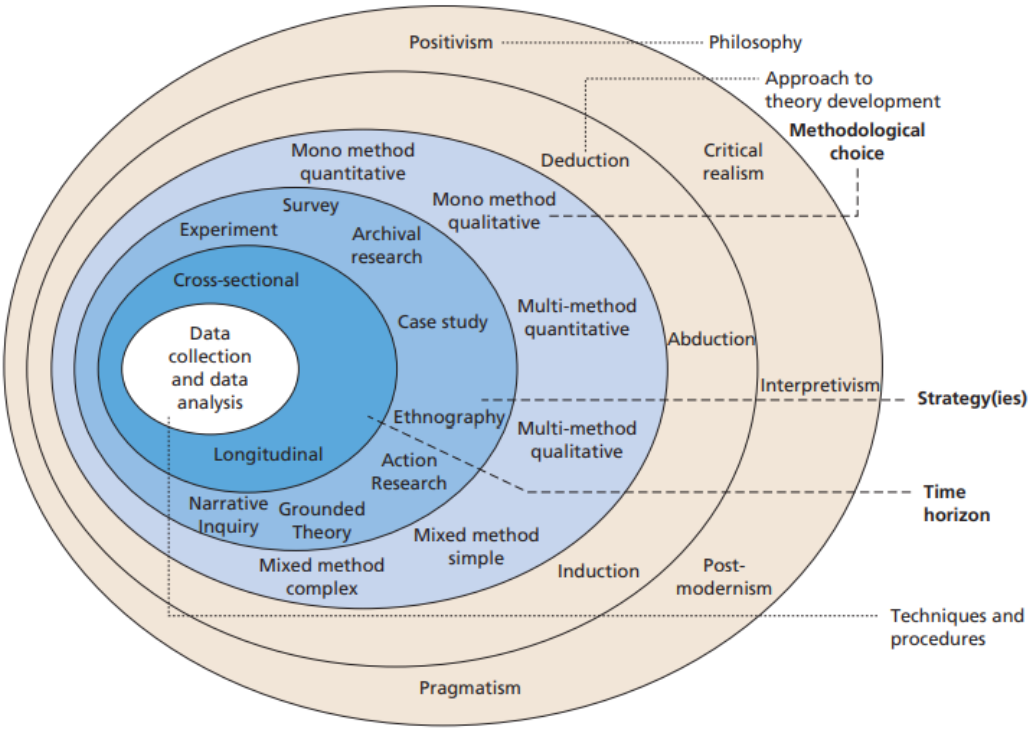
4.2. The empirical research process

As with most meaningful endeavours, it is wise to follow a roadmap that systematically guides the creation of something out of nothing. Indeed, the marketing research process is just that; a framework designed specifically to help formulate valuable research of consumer attitude, cognition, and behaviour (Berndt & Petzer, 2011). This formulation typically results in a research methodology which is described as the framework of research methods and processes that are systematically created to investigate a topic of interest (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019).

Although the research process is made up of numerous steps, the application thereof may differ from researcher to researcher, depending on their particular needs, preferences and objectives (Berndt & Petzer, 2011). Despite this, all marketing research share commonalities which are reflected in the various research guidelines put forward over the years. As such, this particular dissertation adopts the “research onion” of Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2019) which serves as a comprehensive and structured methodological framework for market researchers.

Thus, the research onion, as illustrated by Figure 4.1, is used to guide the philosophical and theoretical grounding, applied research methods, sample and sampling strategy, collection of data, and the data analysis of the present study.

Figure 4.1: The Research Onion



Source: Saunders et al. (2019: 160)

4.3. Research philosophy and theory development

4.3.1. Research Philosophy

Governing every research endeavour is the philosophical paradigm to which the researcher subscribes, which, in turn, is derived from their personal beliefs and assumptions about knowledge and the nature of reality (Bryman & Bell, 2014). Collectively, this personal stance towards knowledge is known as a research philosophy and is comprised of three axioms, namely, ontology, epistemology and axiology (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). Ontology refers to the nature of the world, a lens through which the researcher determines what is worth investigating. Relatedly, epistemology refers to the phenomenological nature of knowledge, what

constitutes valuable knowledge and how communication is best accomplished between individuals. Lastly, axiology concerns the influence of value judgements on the generation of knowledge (Al-Ababneh, 2020). Together, the assumptions made according to each of these axioms determine one's philosophical paradigm, which is either objective or subjective in nature. Indeed, it is important to be cognizant of these fundamental stances as they dictate what is worth investigating, how that investigation will be carried out, and what conclusions can be drawn thereof.

The fields of business and marketing are generally associated with five distinct philosophies from which knowledge is generated, interpreted and critiqued differentially. From these, positivism and interpretivism dominate business sciences as the main two philosophies, trailed by post-modernism, pragmatism, and critical realism which are employed more often in the humanities (Bryman & Bell, 2014).

Dominating the scientific revolution, positivism was historically adopted to systematically reduce reality to measurable constructs, from which causal relationships could be determined using methods of deduction (Crowther & Lancaster, 2008). Consequently, positivism presupposes an objective reality independent of the social being, such that the researcher is able to deduce universally constant principles of reality by way of observation and experimental design (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019).

Conversely, this emphasis on lawlike generalisations spurred the interpretivism movement as a rebuttal to the objective presuppositions of positivism. As a subjective philosophy, interpretivism is grounded in the belief that reality (objective or subjective) can only be assessed by way of the socially constructed mediums of language, subjective conscious experience, and shared meaning (Myers, 2020, pp. 45). Moreover, the interpretivist movement purports that the physical reality which our world is made up of (as studied in physical science) should not be conflated with the social world that conscious beings create and inhabit (as studied by social sciences) (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). Thus, this stance purports that each social agent creates and experiences reality in a unique way, necessitating methods of enquiry which interpret their experiences in relation to their specific context and worldview.

To reiterate its purpose, this study primarily aims to examine the relationship between implicit consumer attitudes and their willingness to buy. As a question about reality, this aim is predicated on the assumption that distinct socio-psychological phenomena exist in the world and can be objectively investigated directly to generate broad consumer insights. Thus, it follows that the nature of this research question assumes a positivist approach grounded in an objective reality, such that the world can be and quantified and empirically tested using scientific methods (Rahi, 2017).

4.3.2. Research approach

By its very nature, research is concerned with the testing and development of knowledge (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). To this end, theories about the world can either be generated by way of deductive or inductive approaches to research. Firstly, deductive reasoning necessitates a review of the relevant literature, from which a set of premises are extracted in the form of hypotheses. Therefore, a deductive conclusion is reached after testing if the observed phenomena concur with the various premises established by the conceptual framework (Zikmund, Quinlan, Carr, Griffin, & Babin, 2019). This ‘top-down’ approach to theory development is contrasted by inductive reasoning which is considered ‘bottom-up’, whereby a generalised theory is developed by way of more specific observations. Using exploratory methods, the process of induction involves the detection of patterns and trends which are cautiously translated into theories about the phenomena in question (Babin & Zikmund, 2016).

With regards to the current research, chapter 3 was dedicated primarily to the creation of a conceptual framework as guided by empirical evidence and previously established theory. This process resulted in the formulation of numerous hypotheses which shall be tested by way of inferential statistics. As such, the enquiry necessitates a deductive approach as it calls for the empirical investigation of relationships between a few predetermined socio-psychological constructs.

4.4. Research design

Informed by the overarching research philosophy, a robust research design ensures that the relevant objectives and aims are satisfactorily met. As an exercise in planning, a research design facilitates the systematic contemplation of various

factors that may determine the success or failure of a study. Importantly, the aims and objectives of this current study are particularly unique due to the complex psychological constructs under investigation. As such, meticulous thought has gone into the research design so as to effectively measure the relevant phenomena, and thereby maximise the practical utility of said findings. Following Malhotra's (2013) conceptualisation of research design, this research enquiry is classified as being explanatory in nature.

4.4.1. Methodological choice

The type of data collected and inferences drawn depend on the choice of research methodology (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). The three overarching research methodologies available in market research include quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. Generally speaking, quantitative research generates data in numeric form which can be tested inferentially to validate hypotheses and theories (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). Whereas, qualitative research often results in concepts or ideas, expressed in words, which can be sorted to extract trends using thematic analysis techniques. Naturally, a mixed-methods design is a combination of the two. As this research subscribes to the positivist paradigm and adopts a deductive approach, it will therefore employ quantitative methods of data collection. Moreover, the research question involves the investigation of both implicit attitude and explicit consumer predispositions, which shall be accomplished by way of multiple data collection techniques, qualifying a multi-method quantitative study.

4.4.2. Research strategy

The successive layer of the framework (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019) is that of research strategy which is concerned with the intended data collection technique employed to ultimately address the research question (Rahi, 2017). There are three suitable methods under the positivist philosophy, namely, survey, observation, and experiment. Part of this study's aim is to make generalisations about the population using a representative sample, thereby validating the use of a survey method which efficiently generates standardized data for large samples. Online surveys, as employed by the current study, are even more efficient in their ability to reach a large sample with relative ease and low demand on time and resources (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019).

In the tradition of prior consumer ethnocentric research, the survey structure uses carefully considered questions to measure the specific constructs and address the relevant research aims and objectives. Although, it should be reiterated that such traditional research instruments, ubiquitous with international market research, rely on self-report responses and commonly operate on the presupposition that participants are able and willing to share their beliefs (Perkins, Forehand, Greenwald, & Maison, 2018). Unfortunately, this is rarely the case when it comes to consumer attitudes, especially in the FMCG category which generally involves low levels of cognitive engagement (Chen, Kassas, & Gao, 2021). Thus, market researchers are beginning to see the utility in supplementing traditional questionnaires with response latency measures (Bridger, 2020).

By combining the response latency measures with traditional survey-type questions, one can benefit from an extra element of consumer cognition. Specifically, this additional dimension of behavioural data, occasionally referred to as paradata, allows for the measurement of ‘attitude accessibility’ which is an underutilized yet invaluable metric in market research (Bridger, 2020). The concept of attitude accessibility is based on the premise that attitudinal concepts are more readily accessible, and thus faster to retrieve, when the strength of association between concepts are strong in semantic memory (Perkins, Forehand, Greenwald, & Maison, 2018).

In keeping with the models of associative networks and spreading activation, the quicker an attitude is expressed, the more established (or neurally entrenched) it is in the brain (Rocklage & Fazio, 2018). This is important to marketers as it has been empirically shown that highly accessible attitudes are commonly predictive of future behaviour, thereby substantially increasing the reliability of market research when included (Bridger, 2020). Moreover, highly accessible attitudes are significantly more likely to remain constant over time, be less susceptible to change and be less affected by suggestion or persuasion. They are often also central to a belief system, and therefore, are more likely to influence the processing of subsequent information associated with the attitude or target construct (Rocklage & Fazio, 2018).

Importantly though, attitude accessibility can only be measured when the response is of a spontaneous nature (Bridger, 2020). In other words, if one has time to fully

consider the question and thereafter formulate an answer, the response latency dimension becomes incapable of accurately measuring the ease of attitude accessibility. Thus, the purchasing intention task is preceded by an instruction to make a choice as quickly as possible (see Section 4.5.1). This typically elicits a nonconscious, automatic response indicative of low-involvement FMCG products operationalised in this research paradigm. Therefore, in addition to the outright self-report response, the current study places additional emphasis on response reaction time to gain more in-depth insights of consumer cognition.

As such, the online questionnaire incorporated two response-latency paradigms aimed at uncovering implicit attitudes and behavioural intentions. These included a timed choice-based experiment (tCBE) and the implicit association test (IAT) to capture the constructs of willingness to buy and implicit attitudes, respectively (discussed further in Section 4.5.1). Thus, both the survey and experimental strategies shall be employed in one cohesive test, as per the multi-method quantitative research design.

4.4.3. Time horizon

In the context of academic research, the time horizon of a study refers to the frequency of data collection necessary to answer the research question (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). In order to assess South African consumers' implicit attitudes, as well as determine the relationship of these attitudes to purchasing behaviour at one particular point in time, this study makes use of a cross-sectional approach whereby each participant's data is captured only once. Longitudinal studies, by contrast, collect data from the same subject at two different points in time, allowing for a comparative view of how phenomena change temporally. However, due to the substantial demand on time of longitudinal designs, the single cross-sectional approach is ideal for this study, especially due to the lack of a temporal dimension in the research question.

4.5. Measurement and instruments

As this research enquiry is best addressed by way of an online questionnaire that incorporates bespoke response latency measures, the adoption of a generic online questionnaire hosting platform such as SurveyMonkey was not viable. As such, this

study was created on, and hosted by, the implicit data collection platform, *Reactor* (CloudArmy Network Inc., 2021), developed by the consumer neuroscience company, CloudArmy. Due to the platform's versatility and ease of use, the online, self-administered test seamlessly incorporated all implicit and explicit research paradigms, into one cohesive test. The resultant self-report questionnaire was categorized into six sections (see Appendix A) which were preluded by clear instructions on what was required of the participants. This negated the need for in-person administration of the test, thereby profoundly increasingly its scalability and potential reach (Bridger, 2020).

4.5.1. Instruments

Due to the unique nature of this research topic, various instruments were required to address each aspect of the conceptual model. Of these, each instrument can be categorized according to its ability to access unconscious processes (Corneille & Hütter, 2020). Accordingly, the explicit instruments followed a 7-point Likert-type scale or multiple-choice format, whereas the implicit instruments were structured in accordance with the Implicit Association test, and timed Choice-Based Experiment paradigms. The respective instruments of each category of the final test will be discussed separately in the sections to follow:

4.5.1.1. Socio-psychological antecedent instruments

As this section required the measurement of predefined socio-psychological traits, as informed by the literature, a traditional seven-point Likert-type scale was used to measure each construct. Participants were presented with a series of statements (items) to which they were expected to rate the applicability to their own life on a scale ranging from "1. Strongly disagree" to "7. Strongly agree". Some items were negatively scored to minimise response strategies and promote accurate reports.

Table 4.1: Socio-psychological instruments

Construct:	Source:	Number of items identified	Item example:
Patriotism	(Kosterman & Feshbach, 1989)	5	"I am proud to be a South African."
Materialism:			
Success	(Richins & Dawson, 1992)	6	"I admire people who own expensive homes, cars, and clothes."
Centrality	(Richins & Dawson, 1992)	6	"Buying things gives me a lot of pleasure."
Happiness	(Richins & Dawson, 1992)	5	"I would be happier if I could afford to buy more things."

4.5.1.2. Economic antecedents

As an established antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism, the economic construct of financial wellbeing was included in the study. Similarly, a seven-point Likert-type scale was used to capture participants self-reported financial wellbeing as per the items created by Hira and Mugenda (1999). As such, participants were presented with various domains of financial wellbeing, such as "Level of savings", and were asked to evaluate their perceived financial situation on a scale ranging from "1. Very dissatisfied" to "7. Very satisfied". Each score was then summed to obtain a financial satisfaction index which ranged from 6 (complete dissatisfaction) to 42 (complete satisfaction).

4.5.1.3. Consumer ethnocentrism

In keeping with the predominant research of consumer ethnocentrism, the self-report Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies Scale (CETSCALE; Shimp & Sharma, 1987) was used to determine the sample's levels of consumer ethnocentrism. As an explicit instrument, the CETSCALE has been used in both developing and developed countries, the world over (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019). Previous South African studies to employ this measure include those of Pentz et al. (2014; 2017), Kamwendo et al. (2014) and Bevan-Dye et al. (2011). Originally developed as a 17-item scale by Shimp and Sharma (1987), it has been successfully condensed to a 6-

item version by Klein, Ettenson and Krishnan (2006), which performed just as well, if not better, than the 10-item version (Klein et al., 2006; Pentz, 2011). This shortened version has been validated cross-culturally and used by Altinaş and Tokol (2007), and Nguyen, Nguyen and Barrett (2008). Lastly, a concise, 4-item version of the original CETSCALE was successfully adapted by Vida, Dmitrović and Obadia (2008) to investigate the influence of ethnicity on consumer ethnocentric tendencies in the developing nation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

As a well-established instrument, the CETSCALE requires participants to rate a series of statements that relate to the importation of foreign goods and the South African economy (Pentz et al. 2017). These statements, which were selected in line with previously validated research, were altered to fit the South African context and remain consistent with previous Southern African consumer ethnocentric studies (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019; Makanyeza & du Toit, 2017; Pentz, Terblanche, & Boshoff, 2014; 2017; Kamwendo et al., 2014). As such this section was constituted by a series of statements such as “A real South African should always buy South African-made products”. Following this, participants were then expected to evaluate their opinions on these statements according to a scale ranging from “1. Strongly disagree” to “7. Strongly agree”. Subsequent to data collection, the relevant item scores were summed for each participant, thereby generating a consumer ethnocentrism tendency index. This index ranges from 6 to 42, indicating low consumer ethnocentric tendencies and high consumer ethnocentric tendencies, respectively (Shimp & Sharma, 1987).

4.5.1.4. Implicit attitudes

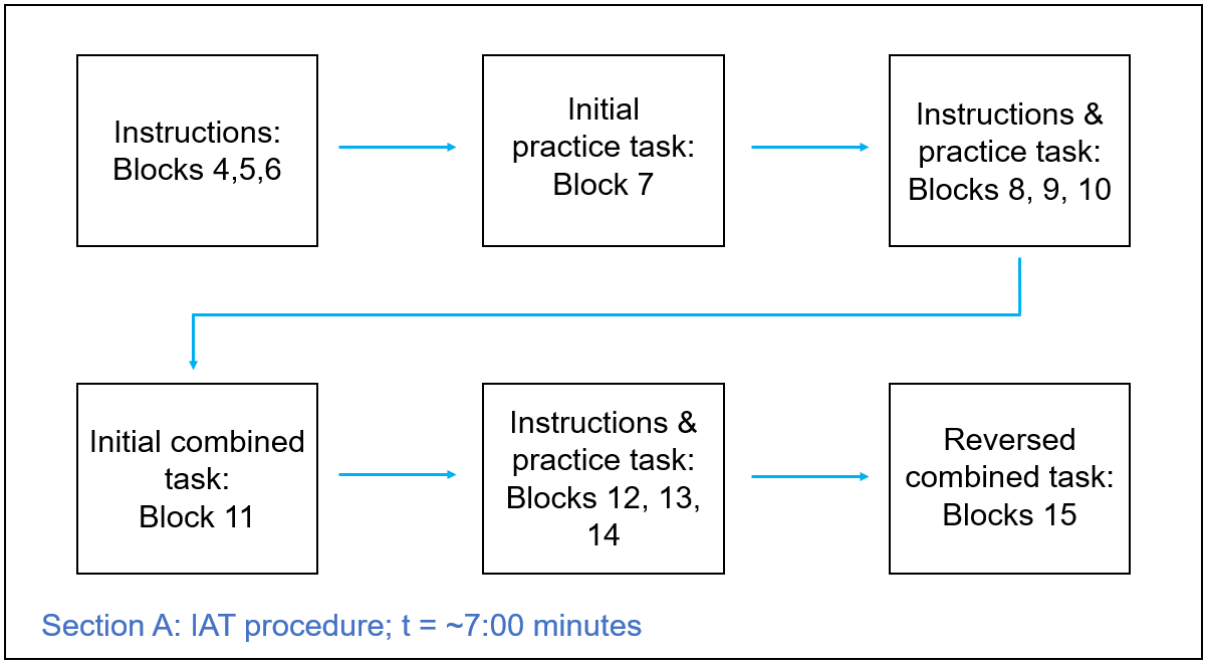
Due to the nature of the question at hand, this section operationalised the Implicit Association Test[3], which is the most researched and widely used implicit test in the social sciences (Bridger, 2020).

Despite the various nuances underpinning the IAT, its practical application is relatively straightforward. This section was constituted by several steps (as seen in Figure 4.2) involving both instruction blocks and exercise blocks. Appearing in random order, participants were expected to sort the product images and attribute

[3] Please visit https://implicit.harvard.edu/implicit/takeatest.html to experience a generic example of the IAT

words according to their appropriate poles, as quickly as possible. The first block of analytical interest is the initial combined task (ICT) from which each individual's baseline reaction time is established (see Figure 4.4). Thereafter, the pole pairing is inverted in the reversed combined task (RCT) from which a difference in response time is observed. Importantly, the practice blocks between ICT and RCT are to ensure that any response priming effects are annulled when the poles are reversed. Thus, the measure of implicit attitude is computed as the difference in average response times between the ICT and the RCT blocks (Perkins, Forehand, Greenwald, & Maison, 2018). This is computation results in a D measure which indicates the IAT effect size (discussed further in Section 4.7.2.4.2).

Figure 4.2: The IAT procedure



Source: Author's construction

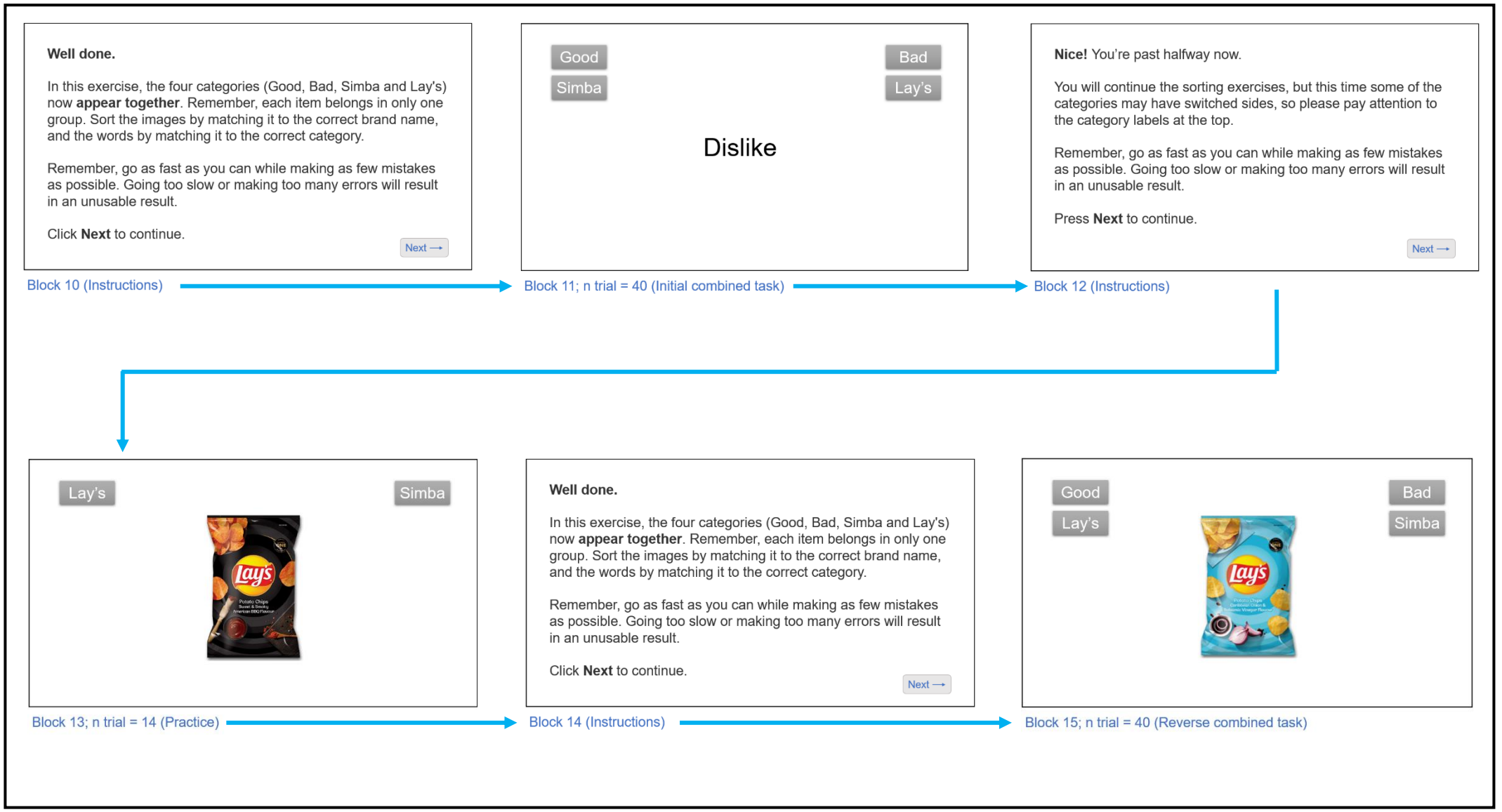
As previously mentioned, such a comparison serves to infer the strength of association between concepts within one's associative memory networks. In short, this deduction is based on the fact that the RT in response to incongruent pairings (such as 'Good' and 'Spider') are slower than those of subjective congruency (Bridger, 2020). Importantly, the IAT is known for large effects sizes, good reliability, scalability and ease of dissemination (Maison, 2016). Moreover, it has been proven

to be a particularly robust measure, insensitive to response biases typically elicited by explicit self-report measures of attitude. Thus, to maximise these benefits, this section was designed in accordance with the IAT's best-practice guidelines (Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998), as demonstrated in the literature.

Figure 4.3: The IAT section

Source: Author's own construction

Figure 4.4: The IAT section continued



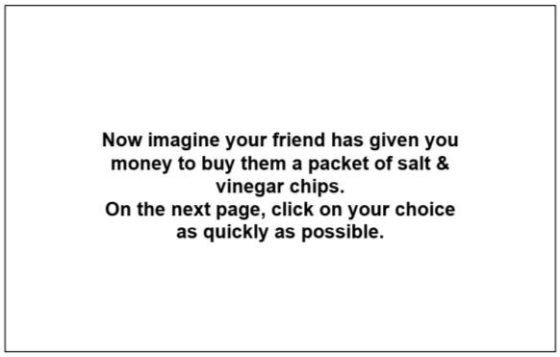
Source: Author's own construction

4.5.1.5. Willingness to buy

To capture participants' willingness to buy, a choice-based experiment (CBE) was adapted to simulate real-world purchasing scenarios. Despite its intention to elicit a choice which would be made in reality, one significant issue with the traditional CBE paradigm is that it is inconsequently directed at system 2 processing, eliciting a conscious response borne out of intentional deliberation. As stated previously, consumer goods are usually selected impulsively, with low cognitive involvement (Chen, Kassas, & Gao, 2021). This misdirected focus on system 2 processing, combined with the response biases which generally accompany self-report measures, bring the validity of traditional CBE results into question. Thus, in order to mitigate this, it was decided that a temporal dimension should be added – resulting in the creation of a timed choice-based experiment (tCBE) – such that the selections are closer to a spontaneous decision and activates system 1 as much as possible.

Thus, participants were provided with a hypothetical purchasing scenario (see Figure 4.5) and were thereafter expected to promptly choose between two similar products by clicking on their preferred choice (see Figure 4.6). In doing so, outright responses serve to indicate the level of attitude valency (preference for one brand or the other), whereas the speed of response denoted the additional dimension of arousal (indicating surety of preference or behavioural conviction). As with the IAT section, the product choice task consisted of a packet of Simba (local) chips and one packet of Lay's (foreign) potato chips – both of which were salt and vinegar flavour to minimise personal taste preference and other extraneous variables.

Figure 0.1: Purchasing scenario



Source: Author's construction

Figure 4.6: tCBE block

Source: Author's construction

4.5.1.6. Demographic moderators

Specific demographic information was required for both descriptive purposes and to establish moderator effects between the variable relationships. This section operationalised a self-administered multiple-choice format in which participants were asked a series of carefully considered questions, as guided by the literature. Akin to previous consumer ethnocentric studies (Akbarov, 2021; Pentz et al., 2014; 2017), these questions pertained to participants' gender, level of education, ethnicity, marital status, and income level.

4.5.1.7. Relative visual saliency

Finally, the visual saliency of each pack design was tested to establish the extent to which design may influence results, to contextualise the findings, and to aid in discussion of the relevant implications. Visual saliency refers to the extent to which an object (pack, image, advert) is capable of drawing attention and stand out in the context of other, competing objects (Itti, 2007). This subjective bottom-up perceptual quality was measured by a visual saliency processing algorithm which takes into account relevant visual elements such as shape, colour and form. In culmination, these factors are used to predict which areas of interest (AOIs) would draw attention in the first 3 to 5 seconds of viewing, thereby simulating human attention at first glance.

4.5.2. Questionnaire pilot testing and reliability of instruments

In keeping with widely held research conventions, a pilot study was conducted to assess instrument applicability (Babin & Zikmund, 2016). Pilot studies are generally run on a small number of conveniently selected respondents with the aim of specifically testing construct reliability and validity. In addition, pilot studies are used to check the overall survey design, identify errors, gain feedback, and determine the estimated resource demand (Lowe, 2019). By using two screening questions (as respondents had to be South African, between the ages of 18 and 26 years of age), a cohort of 30 generation Z individuals were directly recruited by the researcher on an instant messenger application. The objectives of this pilot study were twofold: first, to test the performance of the constructs; and second, to determine whether there were any design flaws which could be rectified by restructuring the test format or improving task instructions.

In order to assess the first goal, each instrument was checked against the Cronbach Alpha score for reliability analysis. Cronbach Alpha scores range between 0 and 1 (Hair et al., 2017) and are typically interpreted according to the alpha ranges as illustrated in Table 4.2. Importantly, an alpha value of 0.9 or above is problematic in that it may represent the redundancy of items which lack discriminant validity (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Table 4.2: Conventional Cronbach Alpha scores

Cronbach Alpha value	Interpretation
0.80 – 0.89	Excellent
0.70 – 0.79	Good
0.60 – 0.69	Acceptable
0.01 – 0.59	Unacceptable

Source: Hair, Ortinau, and Bush (2017:78)

After assessing the reliability of the scales on SPSS, it was concluded that the majority of constructs held high levels of internal consistency, as seen in Table 4.3. After doing so, the various instruments were deemed to be satisfactory for the final study.

Table 4.3: Cronbach Alpha values retrieved from the pilot study

Construct instrument:	Cronbach Alpha
Patriotism	0.884
Materialism – Success	0.766
Materialism – Centrality	0.707
Materialism – Happiness	0.804
Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.808

In accomplishing the second goal, an additional section was appended to the pilot questionnaire. This feedback section was purely for diagnostic purposes and was

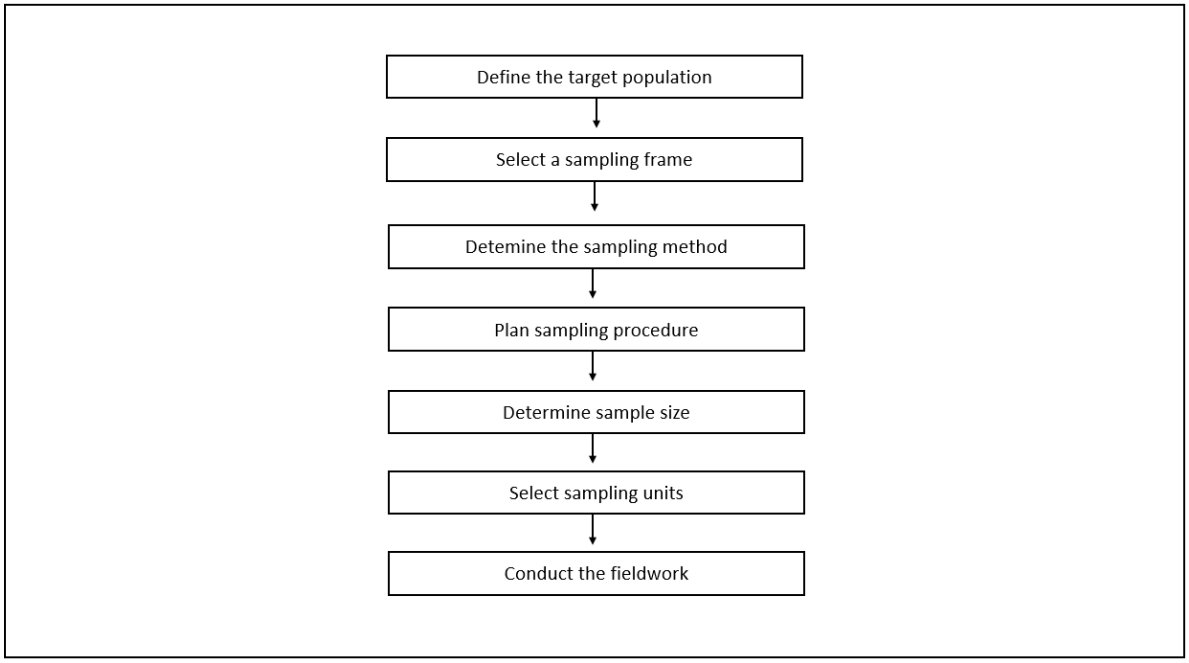
made up of questions such as “how did you find the length of the test?” and “how easy was it to follow the instructions and complete the exercise?”, as well as comment sections in which respondents could express suggestions, experiences or confusion.

From this it was determined that the length of the test (approximately 16 minutes) was neither too long, nor too short; the instructions were easy to understand and tasks simple to complete; and that the test experience was enjoyable and ran without any problems. The feedback did indicate one spelling error and a duplicate Likert question which were both duly corrected. In conclusion, the test ran without any technical difficulties to a 100% completion rate. As such, the pilot study confirmed the instruments’ applicability and provided sufficient motivation to proceed to the official data collection stage.

4.6. Sampling design

The following framework was used to select the appropriate target population and to develop a viable sample, as illustrated by Figure 4.7.

Figure 4.7: The stages of sampling



Source: Zikmund et al., 2019: 391

4.6.1. Target population and sampling frame

Due to the deductive nature of quantitative research, large representative samples are necessary to produce accurate generalisations about the world (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). As such, it is important to first define the target population from which a representative sample can be selected. This research question prescribes that the target population be comprised of South African consumers who play an influential role in the fast-moving consumer goods market. Thus, the target population consists of generation Z individuals (born between 1995 and 2010) residing in South Africa – a population consisting of approximately 27.5 million individuals (TransUnion, 2019). This group was selected as they are deemed to be key drivers of the current economy (especially in the cosmopolitan province of Gauteng) due to their familiarity with the digital world and e-commerce (Anthony, 2015). Despite this, they are an underrepresented cohort in the literature, presenting a meaningful research gap to fill.

4.6.2. Sampling technique

A sample is used in academic research when the target population is too large for data to be collected from every single individual (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). As such, the sample is a sub-set of the whole population, one which is as closely representative of the population characteristics as possible. Sampling is thus used to collect the relevant data from said representative sample and is sub-divided into one of two techniques, namely probability and non-probability sampling (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019).

Probability sampling is employed when there is an equally likely chance that data may be drawn from every individual or unit in the target population. As such, probability sampling necessitates a sampling frame that comprehensively includes every member of the target population, allowing for an equal probability of selection (Malhotra, 2013). These types of sampling techniques, such as systematic, cluster, stratified, and simple random sampling, are attractive to researchers in that they can produce statistical findings that reflect the population, and can be confidently interpreted to describe the population (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019).

In contrast, non-probability sampling techniques include convenience, judgemental, snowball and quota sampling techniques, which do not represent the target population (Berndt & Petzer, 2011). This is because each member of the population does not have the same probability of being selected. Instead of letting chance dictate who is chosen to participate, non-probability methods rely on factors such as ease of access (convenience), educated selection (judgmental), or participant referral (snowball) to obtain a sample (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). As a result, there is no certainty that the sample reflects population in characteristics and results.

Although probability sampling is ideal for an experimental design (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019), this study made use of a non-probability sampling technique, as a comprehensive sample frame of the target population was simply not accessible to the researcher. Thus, the study utilized the convenience technique, due to its efficiency and minimal demand on resources. The process of convenience sampling involves selecting participants that fit the target population based on ease of access and availability (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). This technique was specifically employed by way of an online survey link that was emailed to students enrolled at the University of the Witwatersrand (see Appendix B). Used alone, this convenience sampling allowed the researcher to gain rapid and easy access to a suitable respondent cohort, with high efficiency and relatively low financial cost (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019).

4.6.3. Sample size

Integral to any empirical study is a suitable sample size, which is regarded as the minimum number of observations or units from which data is analysed (Berndt & Petzer, 2011). Typically, the sample size of a study is determined, in part, by the population's variability of characteristics, and in part by the statistical technique used in the data analysis (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). The Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) requires a minimum of 200 participants as purported by Malhotra et al. (2017), however the number of constructs included in the study also informs sample size (Siddiqui, 2013). Although, as per Hair et al.'s (2014) guidelines for multivariate techniques, the minimum sample size should be 300 when less than eight constructs are included in the enquiry. Moreover, Siddiqui (2013) purports that a sample size of 150-400 respondents is necessary for models that include between 10 and 15 variables.

Thus, to err on the side of caution and maximise validity, 525 responses were collected, from which exactly 500 were valid and usable.

In total, the survey invite link was emailed to 40364 University students, resulting in a response rate of 1.3% with a notably low dropout rate. This is most likely attributable to the novelty of the gamified survey structure which is significantly less cognitively taxing than traditional questionnaires (Bridger, 2020). More importantly, this sample size is consistent with a number of similar consumer ethnocentric studies across the globe (Akbarov, 2020; Balabanis, 2017). In Southern Africa specifically, Muchandiona, Kakava, & Makanyeza (2021) used a sample of 505 respondents, while Kamwendo et al. (2014) disseminated 500 questionnaires, of which 476 were usable. Moreover, John and Brady (2011) operationalised a sample of 448 respondents to investigate "*consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes toward South African consumables in Mozambique"*.

4.7. Data collection and analysis

Integral to the research enquiry are the data collection techniques employed by the researcher. The decision of which technique to use is guided by a number of factors, but primarily the time and resources at the researcher's disposal, the intended sample size, the nature of the research question, and the level of detail required to answer the research question (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). This specific research question is descriptive and does not require extensive in-depth questioning. Moreover, the researcher's time and resources were limited, warranting a technique that is both scalable and efficient.

4.7.1. Data collection procedure

Subsequent to obtaining registrar approval to use the university email databse, the data collection phase could officially commence. Utilizing the researcher's university's extensive student email database, a cover letter (see Appendix C) and link to the online survey was systematically sent to every student enrolled at the institution. Upon clicking on the link, participants were redirected to the online survey, hosted by Reactor v52.0.0 (CloudArmy Network Inc., 2021). Participants were presented with a survey welcome page, which explained the conditions of consent and reiterated their rights as a participant. Clicking next was taken to

indicate consent and presented the participant with the subsequent page which included two screening questions. These questions were selected according to the exclusion criteria of age and nationality and automatically screened out any respondents that failed to meet the requirements. Following this, participants were made aware of each brands' country-of-origin, explaining that Simba is South African, whereas Lay's originates from America (see Figure 4.8). In order to contextualise these results, questions relating to the respondents' familiarity with the brands and their awareness of the brands' COO were asked at the end of the survey (see Appendix A).

Figure 4.8: Brand COO prelude

Source: Author's construction

From there, the self-administered test was made up of a total of six sections, each of which is preluded by clear instructions on how to complete the task and what was required of the participants[4]. Importantly, the survey was designed on the Reactor platform (CloudArmy Network Inc., 2021) in such a way that both the instructions and response input type (swiping on tablet and smartphone; arrow click on desktop or laptop) were responsive to the particular device type used by participants, thereby maximising response rates and ensuring accessibility for most respondents. In total,

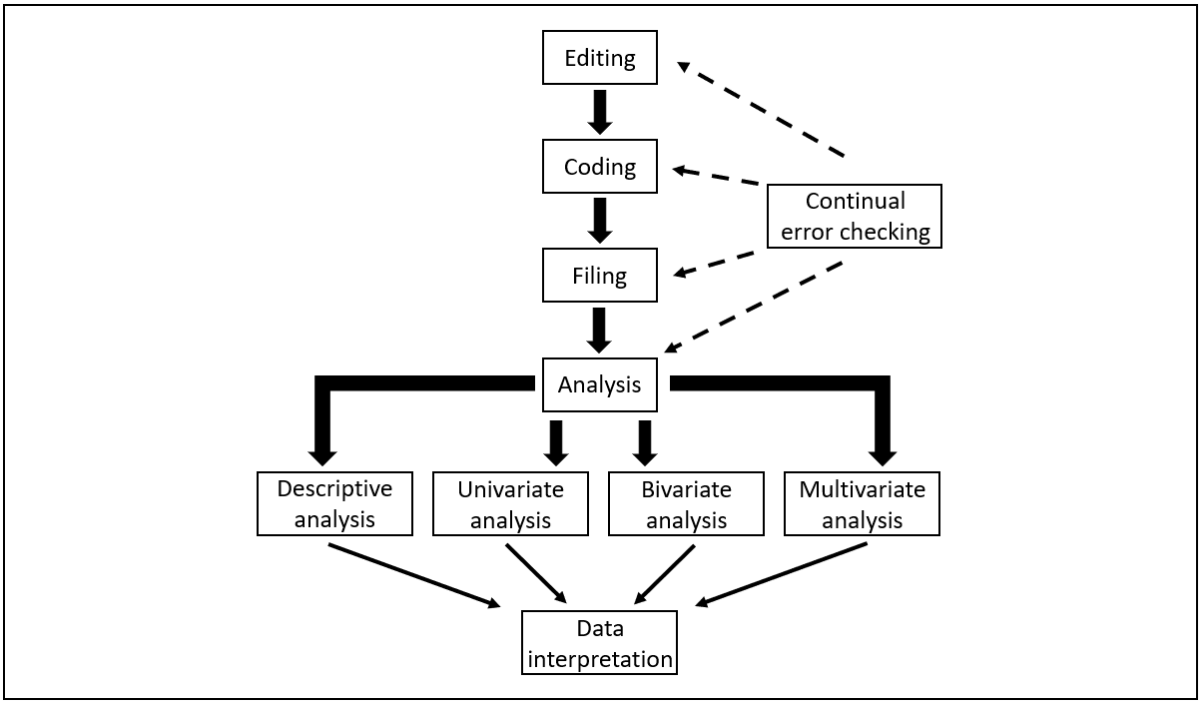
[4] Please see Appendix A for the full questionnaire structure

the data collection process spanned approximately 5 days and ran without any complications.

4.7.2. Data analysis

Data analysis is central to an empirical study in that it condenses and summarizes the body of data to a form that can be interpreted against current literature (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). Thus, once the data collection process had concluded, the data set was systematically cleaned, coded, filed and analysed, in line with the 4-step process purported by Zikmund et al. (2019; Figure 4.9). The following section outlines how each step was implemented in this research.

Figure 4.9: The data analysis process



Source: Zikmund et al., 2019: 462

4.7.2.1. Editing the data

The first step is the process of editing the data whereby the questionnaire is reassessed to ensure no discrepancies or mistakes are reflected in the data set. This involves, but is not limited to, checking that the data output downloads in full and without any recording issues, that any incomplete or invalid responses are excluded, and that the output is of a nature that can address the research aims. Due to the scalability of the Reactor platform (CloudArmy Network Inc., 2021) and low drop-out

rates of implicit surveys (Bridger, 2020), only those responses that were filled-out to 100% completion were used.

4.7.2.2. Coding the data

Once the data was determined to be suitable for use in the editing phase, it was systematically coded for ease of analysis and interpretation. In doing so, each question was assigned a unique code indicative of the construct to which it belongs. This was primarily done to reduce the various sentence-form questions into short and distinct identifiers that allow for ease of reference within SPSS and AMOS. The various construct codes are represented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Construct code ranges

Construct:	Code range:
Patriotism	PAT1 – PAT5
Materialism – success	MS1 – MS6
Materialism – centrality	MC1 – MC6
Materialism – happiness	MH1 – MH5
Satisfaction with financial situation	SFS1 – SFS6
CETSCALE	CET1 – CET6

4.7.2.3. Filing the data

Data filing is described as the process of organising and storing the various data sets in a logical order to further streamline the process of analysis (Zikmund, Quinlan, Carr, Griffin, & Babin, 2019). This was accomplished by storing the sets according to output type. In other words, the IAT data, MCQ responses, tCBE data, and demographics were saved as separate files to avoid confusion and loss of information. Additionally, one master file containing all data points was created to allow for effective analysis during the SEM phase. This was all done in preparation for an efficient data analysis process, which is explained in the following section.

4.7.2.4. Analysing the data

Once the relevant data had been collected and stored, it was appropriate to move to the next step in the research process which focussed on analysing the data (Zikmund, Quinlan, Carr, Griffin, & Babin, 2019). Data analysis in research makes use of established statistical techniques to convert the raw data into information that can be interpreted and used to guide managerial decisions. The section to follow outlines the various statistical analyses employed – specifically, that of reliability and validity testing, descriptive statistics, confirmatory factor analysis, maximum likelihood estimation, bayesian estimation, and multigroup analysis.

4.7.2.4.1. Test for skewness and kurtosis

After the data set had been imported from Microsoft Excel to Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) v27.0 (IBM Corp, 2020) it was necessary to conduct the preliminary analysis of skewness and kurtosis. This is an important step to ensure that the assumptions of the subsequent analysis techniques are not violated. Indeed, this is accomplished by checking the distribution and variation of the data set so as to ensure that parametric assumption of normality (and deviation thereof) is within an acceptable range.

4.7.2.4.2. Descriptive statistics

Once normality and kurtosis had been established, the descriptive statistics were generated and captured. Typically, descriptive statistics are reported first to describe the sample characteristics, and to frame the results to follow (Malhotra, 2013). Thus, such analyses were run in SPSS to first describe the sample's demographic make-up, in terms of gender, education levels, ethnicity, marital status, and income level. Additionally, participant familiarity with the brands and awareness of brand COO was established to contextualise the consumer ethnocentric results. Thereafter, descriptive statistics were generated to indicate the respondents' explicit opinions towards the socio-psychological, economic, and ethnocentric constructs. These were systematically presented with reference to measures of frequency, central tendency, and variance in an attempt to simplify and create order from the expanse of raw data (see Section 5.2).

Moreover, the relevant response latency data was extracted in Microsoft Excel and averaged across the sample using pivot tables. This pertinent information was used

to describe the sample's willingness to buy and conviction of choice. By outlining the dichotomous selection frequencies and percentages, as well as average reaction times (in milliseconds), valuable insights can be gleaned from the two sources of data when interpreted together.

Additionally, the IAT data was also manipulated in Excel to extract key insights into implicit consumer attitudes. Because participants will vary in their individual baseline reaction-times, and the level of analysis is at the group level, it is necessary to control for any within-participant latencies (Perkins, Forehand, Greenwald, & Maison, 2018). This standardization is accomplished by first calculating the combined standard deviation (SD) of practice and test blocks, and then using the 'pooled' SD to divide the within-participant latency difference (Greenwald, Nosek, & Banaji, 2003). This results in a D-score which can be likened to Cohen's d at the level of group analysis. The D-score (or effect score) is then interpreted according to the conventions established by Greenwald et al. (1998), which generally dictate that a positive D-score denotes a positive bias (target A positive; target B negative), whereas a negative D-score indicates the opposite (target A negative; target B positive). Naturally, a score of zero suggests the absence of a consumer bias, and neutrality of preference. These guidelines are represented in Table 4.5. Additionally, the score can be further interpreted with regards to the strength of association, as illustrated by Table 4.6.

Table 4.5: D-score valency

D-score	Result
-1 < D < 0	Negative bias towards target A
D = 0	No bias
0 < D < 1	Positive bias towards target A

Source: Perkins et al., 2018

Table 4.6: D-score strength

D-score	Interpretation
±0.15	Slight bias
±0.35	Moderate bias
±0.65	Strong bias

Source: Epifania et al., 2020

4.7.2.4.3. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

As previously stated, this research enquiry is quantitively oriented under the positivist paradigm and is therefore concerned with uncovering the trends contributing to consumer behaviour. Additionally, it is such that the causal relationship between variables is of primary interest, so that consumer behaviour can be better described, understood, and predicted in the future. Due to the multidimensional nature of most complex social phenomena, the statistical analysis of cause-and-effect relationships requires the use of very specific techniques and technologies (Tarka, 2018). Structural equation modelling (SEM) is one such technique that accomplishes multivariate analysis by way of a two-step process of both factor analysis and multiple regression analysis.

Indeed, SEM is regularly used in the social sciences due to its ability to identify, depict and measure the relationships between latent, or unobserved, variables which are intangible in reality (Kline & Rex, 2014). Moreover, it is a robust multivariate statistical technique preferred by reputable quantitative researchers due to this proficiency in testing causal relationships between latent and observed variables, by means of factor analysis (Malhotra et al., 2017; Nusair & Hua, 2010). It is further advantaged by its proficiency in accounting for both measurement error and structural aspects at the same time (Her, Shin, & Pae, 2019). Consequently, structural equation modelling (SEM) was adopted for the multivariate statistical analysis of this study (Hair, Babin, & Anderson, 2014).

SEM was duly computed on SPSS Amos version 26.0 (IBM Corp, 2020) to calculate the predictive strength of implicit consumer attitudes on willingness to buy, as well as the various other hypotheses in the conceptual model. As a powerful multivariate statistical tool, SEM allows the researcher to assess the relevant instruments' psychometric properties, as well as test the hypothesised relationships with one encompassing technique. The initial step of this process is concerned with designing a measurement model in which factor analysis is used to determine which items best serve the latent constructs of interest.

Following the creation of a model which suitably fits the data, the structural model is then established to differentiate the endogenous (dependent) variables from the exogenous (independent) variables, and ultimately test the nature of these relationships. Within these path diagrams, unobserved constructs are identified by an ellipse in which they are situated, whereas the observed variables are found within rectangles or squares. Moreover, the nature of the relationship between variables is denoted by an arrow, such that a straight single-headed arrow signifies a causal relationship, while a bowed, double-headed arrow represents a correlational relationship between two exogenous constructs.

4.7.2.4.3.1. Measurement model analysis

As the initial step in SEM, the purpose of constructing a measurement model is to evaluate the validity and reliability, psychometric properties and overall suitability of the instruments used in the model. In analysing the measurement model, the researcher is able to determine how well an item is suited to a latent variable and how applicable a construct is to the model as a whole. To this end, the primary goal of this process is striving to establish a good model-data fit in which each scale item contributes to the constructs in the model in a reliable and valid manner. This process is accomplished by factor analysis which encompasses exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). As the constructs employed in this study were adopted from established theories of the extant literature, and the scales thereof had been empirically validated by previous researchers, only CFA was conducted.

Although there are few requirements as to which goodness-of-fit indicators should be used, it is advised that researchers report the standard normed chi-square (x^2/df), in addition to one incremental, one absolute, and one parsimony index at the least (Hair, Babin, & Anderson, 2014). The following table summarises the various goodness-of-fit indices employed in this study.

Table 4.7: Common goodness-of-fit indices

Measure	Model fit index	Good fit threshold
Absolute index	Normed Chi-square	x^2/df: ≤ 3
	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	RMSEA < 0.05

	(RMSEA)	
	Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	GFI > 0.90
Incremental Index	Normed Fit Index (NFI)	NFI > 0.90
	Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	CFI > 0.90
	Tucker- Lewis Index (TLI)	TLI > 0.90
Parsimony	Parsimony normed fit (PNFI)	PNFI > 0.90
	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	AGFI > 0.80

Source: De Bruin, 2019:250

4.7.2.4.3.2. Structural model analysis and hypothesis testing

Subsequent to the establishment of a suitable measurement model by way of CFA, it is necessary to develop the structural model. As alluded to, the structural model refers to a schema denoting the various exogenous variables and how they relate to one or more endogenous (outcome) variables (Hair et al., 2014). This process of developing the structural model according to the predetermined hypotheses is guided by extant literature and theory, which is laid out in Chapter 3, Section 3.5. As such, every hypothesis is represented by an arrow in the structural model (Figure 5.3), from which the analysis will be tested.

However, the statistical complexity of the current study necessitates a degree of ingenuity to properly assess the model as a whole. More specifically, a large proportion of the constructs are ordinal, while some generated ratio data, whereas one key metric – the purchasing scenario – was primarily dichotomous (with secondary response latency paradata). Ordinarily, such a scenario could be accounted for by utilizing the maximum likelihood measure throughout the structural model, however, this is not strictly correct from a statistical point of view (Bryne, 2013). Consequently, for the sake of statistical integrity, the proposed model was duly divided into two parts to accurately test the whole structural model.

The first section included the various socio-psychological and economic latent constructs, as indicated by the measurement model. Based on the nature of the data involved, a traditional maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) was thus adopted to test these in relation to CET. The second section, in contrast, included one observed variable (IAT score), one construct with scale items (CET), and one dichotomous

outcome variable (willingness to buy). This section relied on the Bayesian estimation which is considered most appropriate when dealing with categorical variables (Bryne, 2013).

Of course, a couple of steps were systematically followed with respect to the process of this structural model analysis. To begin with, an assessment of the goodness-of-fit scores (as established in the measurement model analysis) and examination of the respective parameter approximations – which represent each hypothesised relationship – was conducted. Indeed, such approximations are considered acceptable insofar as they exceed a score of 0.5, and thus can be used in conjunction with others to either accept or reject the null hypothesis (Hair et al., 2014). Following this, the path coefficients of all unobserved constructs (independent and dependent alike) were established. Lastly, the overall coefficient of determination (R^2) was generated to determine the degree to which variance of the endogenous construct is explained by the antecedental variables. Indeed, this R^2 value can range between 0 and 1, with the former denoting no variance explained, and the latter representing complete variance explained (Malhotra et al., 2017).

4.7.2.4.3.3. Moderation using a group difference analysis

Finally, H9, H10, and H11 posit the moderation of the conceptual model by three demographic variables. As such, education, gender, and income were tested using group difference analysis, a metric invariant test on AMOS. In plain terms, this test is accomplished by comparing the difference between groups, ensuring that these differences are the result of structural disparity in path coefficients, rather than measurement disparities across the groups. Bryne's (2006) recommendations for conducting such multigroup analyses involves the creation of a baseline model in which no constraints are applied across the groups. The resultant chi-squared (χ^2) is then compared against constrained models and are compared to detect the source of non-invariance. Therefore, equality across the groups is denoted by a chi-squared difference ($\Delta\chi^2$) that is nonsignificant.

4.8. Ethical considerations

With the turn of the century, there has been an increased emphasis on ethics in the domain of academic research. Above all, participant wellbeing is prioritised when

human subjects are involved in a study (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). Fortunately, a host of legal, procedural and social regulations are in place to ensure that all research is of the high ethical standards demanded by research institutions. Thus, the implementation of this study was wholly dependent on approval and clearance from the University of the Witwatersrand Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical). Subsequent to the application process and one round of revision, ethics approval was obtained (Appendix D) on the status of minimal risk as the study posed no identifiable threat to participants' wellbeing. Moreover, the research topic, questions asked, and tasks performed were not deemed to be of a sensitive nature.

In accordance with the guidelines set out by Saunders et al. (2019), the prospect email sent out to participants included an introductory message (see Appendix B). This section was carefully compiled by the researcher and comprehensively stated the research objectives. Moreover, respondents were made aware that participation was completely voluntary and that they held the right to withdraw from the study at any point in the data collection process, without fear of repercussion. Additionally, both the researcher's and supervisor's contact details were included in the event that respondents wished to provide feedback, obtain clarity or express concern at any point. Furthermore, the actual questionnaire began with a short introductory step reiterating the participant's rights and obligations. In this, it was stated that clicking 'next' to commence with the questionnaire was taken to indicate voluntary participation and infer consent to have their data included in the research. Importantly, due to the remote nature of online questionnaires, participant data remained anonymous and completely confidential throughout the study. Lasty, the data, solely accessed by the researcher and supervisor, was stored on a password-protected computer and backed up on Google Drive, a secure cloud storage platform.

4.9. Conclusion

The goal of this chapter was to comprehensively discuss the philosophical approach adopted to answer the overarching research question and the various methodological techniques employed to this end. By reviewing and reporting on the

literature, it was argued that the chosen philosophy, approach, choices, strategies, design, sample and sampling techniques, data collection methods, and analysis techniques were the most suitable given the specific contextual and theoretical context.

CHAPTER 5:

RESULTS

5.1. Introduction

The following chapter documents the data analysis phase of this research project. It begins by addressing the demographic characteristics that constitute this sample – in particular, the factors of gender, education, ethnicity, marital status, and gross monthly income. Thereafter, the group's overall brand familiarity and awareness of COO is assessed to establish the applicability of the products chosen for this study. Similarly, the group-level implicit association and willingness to buy results are reported on. Next, normality kurtosis and skewness is established, after which the descriptive statistics of each measurement instrument is recorded. From there, the process of structural equation modelling is documented. This section begins with the measurement model and specific emphasis on the model fit indices, validity, and reliability. Following this, the structural model is established, and subsequent hypothesis testing results are conveyed. Lastly, the outcome of three group difference analyses is reported on.

5.2. The sample's demographic makeup

As discussed in previous sections, the online, self-administered questionnaire was preluded by 2 screening questions to ensure that respondents met the minimum inclusion criteria, as dictated by the predetermined target population. Therefore, the sample of participants were South African nationals strictly between the ages of 18 and 26 years old (at the time of testing). As collected by section F of the questionnaire (see Appendix A), various demographic data were captured to establish the sample characteristics, frame the results to follow, and ultimately infer key moderating effects on the conceptual model. Firstly, however, the demographic profiles of gender, education, ethnicity, marital status, location and income levels are set out in Table 5.1 and elaborated on in the paragraphs to follow.

Table 5.1: Sample demographic characteristics

Item	Description	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	150	30%
	Female	350	70%
	Total	500	100%
Education level completed	None	0	0%
	Primary school	0	0%
	High school	310	62%
	Diploma	4	0,8%
	Degree	122	24,4%
	Postgraduate degree	56	11,2%
	Unspecified	5	1%
	Total:	500	100%
Ethnicity	Black African	240	48%
	White	127	25,4%
	Coloured	14	2,8%
	Indian	82	16,4%
	Other	10	2%
	Unspecified	27	5,4%
	Total:	500	100%
Marital status	Single (living alone)	145	29,0%
	Living with parents	326	65,2%
	Married/living with partner	22	4,4%
	Divorced or separated	0	0%
	Unspecified	7	1,4%
	Total:	500	100%
Personal monthly gross income	Less than R500	111	22,2%
	R501 – R1,000	76	15,2%
	R1,001 – R5,000	171	34,2%

	R5,001 – R10,000	23	4,6%
	R10,001 – R20,000	21	4,2%
	More than R20,000	19	3,8%
	Unspecified	79	15,8%
	Total:	500	100%

5.2.1. Gender

As illustrated in Table 5.1, of the 500 valid participants, this sample was primarily made up of females (70%; n=350), whereas the male demographic only constituted 30% of the sample (n=150). This is a notable disparity in distribution which may speak to ethnocentric predispositions particular to each gender. This shall be further elaborated on in Chapter 6, Section 6.2.

5.2.2. Education levels

The distribution of education levels in this sample show that 0% (n=0) of the participants failed to complete primary or high school. Although unrepresentative of the South African population, this result was unsurprising as the sampling technique focussed on students enrolled at a tertiary institution which generally necessitates both levels of education. Consequently, for 62% (n=310), the largest proportion of the sample, a complete high school education was the highest level obtained up until the point of testing. A small proportion (0.8%, n=4) of this sample had at most obtained a tertiary diploma, whereas 24.5% (n=122) of the participants had already completed a bachelor's degree. Moreover, 11.2% (n=56) were postgraduates, having already completed a postgraduate degree. Lastly, exactly 1% (n=5) of the respondents were recorded as unspecified after refraining to disclose this information.

5.2.3. Ethnicity

The ethnic composition of this sample was broken up into 5 main groups, namely Black African (Xhosa, Bapedi, Basotho, Zulu, South Ndebele, Tswana, Swazi, Tsonga, Venda), White (English and Afrikaners), Coloureds, Indians, and Other. As illustrated in Table 5.1, the ethnic distribution of the current sample is populated, in order of greatest frequency, by those who identify with the Black African community (48%, n=240), White (25.4%, n=127), Indian (16.4%, n=82), Coloured (2.8%, n=14)

and then other (2%, n=10). Indeed, 5.4% (n=27) of respondents decided to refrain from disclosing their ethnicity.

5.2.4. Marital status

As the target population was predetermined to focus on Generation Z South Africans (ranging from 18 to 26 years of age), it is unsurprising that the largest proportion, 65,2% (n=326), reported living with their parents at the time of testing. Following this, 29% (n=145) of the sample claimed to be single and living alone, whereas only 4.4% (n=22) were married or lived with a partner. Interestingly, none of the respondents selected the option of divorced or separated – a result which is most probably a consequence of the sample's relatively young age.

5.2.5. Income level

Table 5.1 denotes the income distribution within this sample group. From this, it is clear that the reported monthly income levels (before deductions) were relatively low – a trend that was to be expected as the sample was primarily made up of students. Hence, a sizeable proportion (34,2%, n=171) of respondents were receiving between R1001 and R5000 monthly. Moreover, 22,2% (n=111) of the participants were earning less than R500 a month, while 15.2% (n = 76) reported between R501 and R1000, suggesting no formal employment. The distribution becomes consistently smaller from there, with 4.6% (n = 23) selecting R5,001 to R10,000, and 4.2% (n = 21) indicating a monthly income between R10,001 and R20,000. Lastly, only 3.8% (n = 19) report earning a before deductions salary of more than R20,000 per month. Indeed, 15.8% (n = 79) of the respondents chose to refrain from disclosing this personal information.

5.3. Brand familiarity and COO awareness

In addition to the demographic data collected in section F of the questionnaire, specific questions were asked about the two brands involved in the study. Previous consumer ethnocentric studies have highlighted the influence of brand familiarity on CET (Martin, Shyue Wai Lee, & Lacey, 2011). For the purpose of this study, it was desired that respondents possessed good knowledge of and familiarity with both brands to ensure that the results were grounded in fully formed attitudes. This is

clearly the case as 79% of participants reported being very familiar with the brands of Simba and Lay's (as seen in Table 5.2).

Table 5.2: Familiarity and COO awareness frequency

Item	Description	Frequency	Percentage
Brand familiarity	Not at all familiar	0	0,0%
	Somewhat unfamiliar	9	1,8%
	Somewhat familiar	96	19,2%
	Very familiar	395	79,0%
	Total:	500	100%
COO awareness	Yes	270	54%
	No	230	46%
	Total:	500	100%

Additionally, the literature speaks to the effect that brand country-of-origin has on consumer ethnocentric results. Consumers that are unaware or unsure of a brand's COO are less likely to accurately exert consumer ethnocentric preferences (Martin, Shyue Wai Lee, & Lacey, 2011). As such it was predetermined that the sample possesses a reasonable level of knowledge about the two chip brands' country of origin. By asking the participants whether they were aware of both brand's COO prior to the study, it was determined that more than half (54%; n=270) did indeed know the COO. This was satisfactory, however, to truly test the effect of COO cues on consumer ethnocentric tendencies and implicit attitudes, the survey was prefaced by a cover statement informing participants that Simba is a South African brand, whereas Lay's is American.

Finding 1: The vast majority (79%; n=395) of this sample were very familiar with the two brands prior to testing (mean=3.77, standard deviation=0.461).

Finding 2: Over half (54%; n=270) of this sample was aware of the two brands' COO prior to the test (mean=1.46, standard deviation= 0.499).

5.4. Analysis of the group implicit associations

With the use of the versatile Reactor platform (CloudArmy Network Inc., 2021) for bespoke market research, the implicit association test paradigm was integrated into

the traditional survey format. Notably, some IAT researchers make use of log transformations, however, this analysis indicated a lack of skewness in the implicit dataset, thereby negating the need for such transformation. Consequently, the IAT scores reported here are mean response time scores, measured in milliseconds (ms). As explained in Chapter 4, Section 4.7.2.4, the overall IAT D score (effect size) was generated by subtracting the average latency of the compatible (Simba & good, Lay's & bad) block from the mean latency of the incompatible (Lay's & good, Simba & bad) block, from which the result is divided by the overall standard deviation.

Table 5.3: Group level IAT results

	Reaction time (ms)	Trial count per participant
Compatible trial	934.4463	40
Incompatible trial	897.36175	40
Incompatible minus compatible	-37.08455	
Pooled standard deviation	383.9171997	
Effect size (D)	-0.096595	

Note: ms stands for milliseconds

The sample average reaction time of the compatible trial was 934.446ms, whereas the average reaction time (RT) of the incompatible trial was only 897.361ms. Thus, the difference between these two conditions generates a RT of -37.0845ms. Indeed, the pooled standard deviation of RTs at the group level was 383.917ms, resulting in an overall D score of -0.096595. This result indicates that slightly more negative associations are implicitly linked with the local brand (Simba) and that nonconscious preference is only marginally, but favourably nonetheless, skewed towards Lay's.

Finding 3: Overall, this sample of generation Z South Africans implicitly associate Simba (the local brand) with more negative attributes than positive, when compared to Lay's (the international brand).

5.5. Analysis of the group willingness to buy

The CloudArmy Reactor platform (2021) is designed to seamlessly integrate traditional, explicit techniques with more implicit response latency measures. As such, it was decided that the timed choice-based experiment (tCBE) would measure

the outright categorical choice between the two brands, as well as response RT in making such a choice. The results of this tCBE are set out in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Group level CBE results

Brand	Choice frequency	Percentage	Average reaction time
Simba (local)	323	64.6%	2134,548
Lay's (foreign)	177	35.4%	2450,791
Total	500	100%	2246,498 (combined)

Note: RT measured in milliseconds (ms)

From this, it is evident that the majority (65%, n=323) of respondents selected the Simba option, whereas only 35% (n=177) chose Lay's. Importantly, the additional response time data reveal interesting insights that help elaborate on these findings. Firstly, the sample average RT across both brands was 2246 milliseconds for this task. Those that selected Simba (n=323) did so at a faster rate than the average, with a response time of just 2134 milliseconds. Those that displayed a willingness to buy the Lay's product, on the other hand, made their selection in a notably slower average RT of 2246 milliseconds. This substantial reaction time difference indicates that those choosing Simba experienced less cognitive load, and thus it was an easier decision to make, whereas the Lay's proponents had more difficulty making their choice. The implications of these results are addressed further in Chapter 6.

Finding 4: Overall, this sample of generation Z South Africans show more of a willingness to buy the local brand, Simba.

Finding 5: Overall, the generation Z South African respondents that selected the local product (Simba) did so faster (t=2134ms) than those who selected the foreign brand, Lay's (t=2450ms).

Subsequent to this, a relative visual saliency analysis was conducted to explore how the difference in visual properties might influence product selection. Despite both products having a predominant colour scheme that was largely similar (as both packs were salt and vinegar flavour), it was found that the relative visual saliency was vastly different. The results of this saliency analysis are illustrated in Table 5.5 and Figure 5.1, respectively.

As a powerful consumer neuroscientific technique, this analysis makes use of an algorithm that takes into account multiple visual properties of a design, including aspects such as lines, shapes, colours and contrast. In doing so, the algorithm simulates an automatic visuo-cognitive response to images, thereby estimating where attention will be drawn within the first two seconds of exposure to the image (Bruce et al., 2015).

Table 5.5: Relative visual saliency results

AOI ID	AOI name	AOI attention (%)
1	Lay's	34.68
2	Simba	63.81

Note: AOI stands for 'area of interest'

Figure 5.1. Relative visual saliency heatmap

The relative visual saliency analysis, as summarised in Table 5.5, indicates that the Simba pack's visual composition is capable of eliciting almost double the attention (63.81%) than that of the Lay's pack (34.68%). Remarkably, these AOI attention percentages correlate almost perfectly with the choice frequency of each product, with 64.6% and 35.4% of the respondents selecting Simba and Lay's, respectively. Theoretically, this can be explained by a phenomenon called visual saliency bias which is based on the triadic relationship of visual properties influencing attention

which, in turn, dictates choice (Milosavljevic, Navalpakkam, Koch, & Rangel, 2012). This will be discussed further in Chapter 6.

Finding 6: The visual properties of the Simba pack design elicit a visual saliency score (63.81%) which is almost double that of the Lay's pack design (34.68%).

Finding 7: The visual saliency scores (Simba=63.81%; Lay's=34.68%) match the choice frequency scores (Simba=64.6%; Lay's=35.4%) almost exactly.

5.6. Univariate normality: Skewness and kurtosis

Prior to running inferential analysis, it is recommended that one confirms the integrity of the statistical assumptions necessary for parametric testing, chief of which is the normality of the data. Firstly, Field (2017) purports, in line with the central limit theory, that the normality of a data set has a minor effect on statistical analysis when a sample's size is larger than one hundred and sixty-seven. Indeed, this study is well above that value with a sizeable sample of 500. However, it was decided that tests for univariate normality should be conducted, nonetheless.

Hence, descriptive statistics were generated, and the data was assessed for normality by way of skewness and kurtosis – the results of which are summarised in Table 5.6. Although skewness and kurtosis values of zero indicate absolute normality (Malhotra et al., 2017), best practice dictates that an acceptable skewness value falls within the range of negative 2 and positive 2 for adequate univariate normality to be established (George & Mallery, 2010). As for kurtosis, scores between negative 7 and positive 7 are considered acceptable enough to indicate normality (Pallant, 2016).

Table 5.6: Skewness and Kurtosis results

Items[5]	Skewness	Kurtosis
Socio-psychological variables		
Pat1	-1,050	0,734
Pat2	-0,508	-0,302
Pat3	-1,145	0,688

[5] These are the items retained in the improved measurement model.

Pat4	-0,712	-0,367
Pat5	-0,972	0,494
MS1	-0,241	-0,680
MS2	0,147	-1,191
MC1	0,115	-1,215
MC2	0,253	-0,923
MH1	-0,473	-0,884
MH2	-0,443	-0,792
MH4	-0,548	-0,647
Economic variables		
Sfs1	0,059	-1,190
Sfs4	-0,135	-1,035
Sfs5	-0,141	-1,231
Consumer ethnocentrism		
Cet2	-0,184	-0,794
Cet3	0,369	-0,803
Cet4	0,397	-0,587
Cet5	-0,304	-0,403

The results of Table 5.6 show that the skewness values ranged between -1.145 (PAT3) and 0.397 (CET4), thereby falling within the stipulated threshold level of -2 and 2. Likewise, the kurtosis values ranged from -1.231 (SFS5) to 0.734 (PAT1), both of which fall between the threshold levels of -7 and +7, respectively (Field, 2017). Together, these findings confirm that the individual items, which constitute the various constructs, are indeed normally distributed and are therefore acceptable for parametric statistical analysis.

Finding 8: The data obtained from this sample of generation Z South Africans are distributed in such a way that deviation from normality is not of concern.

5.7. Analysis of descriptive statistics of the measurement constructs

By focussing primarily on the measures of variance and central tendency, the various constructs were analysed according to the conventions of descriptive

statistics. As traditional Likert-type measurements, these instruments surveyed the latent constructs of patriotism, materialism success, materialism centrality, materialism happiness, financial satisfaction, and consumer ethnocentrism. To reiterate, each item was measured according to a 7-point Likert scale, allowing for the effective capturing of predispositions and tendencies displayed by the sample.

As part of the confirmatory factor analysis (to be elaborated on in Section 5.8.1) several items have been removed from some constructs to ensure measurement reliability, validity and model integrity, as suggested by Hair et al. (2017). Thus, four items (MS3, MS4, MS5, MS6) were omitted from materialism success, four items (MC3, MC4, MC5, MC6) from materialism centrality, two items (MH3, MH5) from materialism happiness, three items (SFS2, SFS3, SFS6) from financial satisfaction, and two items (CET1, CET6) from consumer ethnocentrism. The following section reports the descriptive analysis of each construct individually.

5.7.1. Patriotism

Patriotism was measured using a total of five items. Table 5.7 displays each item, their respective mean scores and standard deviation, as well as an overall mean score and standard deviation for the latent variable as a whole.

Table 5.7: Descriptive statistics of Patriotism

Patriotism		Mean	Standard Deviation
PAT1	I love my country, South Africa.	5.38	1.435
PAT2	Patriotism is an important characteristic of a good South African citizen.	4.63	1.531
PAT3	The fact that I am a South African is an important part of my identity.	5.43	1.549
PAT4	I am attached to my country, South Africa.	4.95	1.697
PAT5	I am proud to be a South African.	5.31	1.500
	Overall Patriotism	5.14	1.233

The descriptive statistics show that a mean score of 5.14 with a standard deviation of 1.233 was recorded for patriotism, suggesting that on aggregate participants in this sample somewhat aligns themselves with a patriotic ideology. The highest mean score was elicited by the statement PAT3: “The fact that I am a South African is an

important part of my identity" (mean=5.43, standard deviation=1.549). Conversely, the lowest mean score was generated by PAT2: "Patriotism is an important characteristic of a good South African citizen" (mean=4.63, standard deviation=1.531).

Finding 9: Overall, generation Z South Africans tend to possess a degree of patriotic predispositions (mean=5.14, standard deviation=1.233).

5.7.2. Materialism – success

This socio-psychological phenomenon was measured using two items from which participants were required to rate their level of agreement. Table 5.8 highlights the mean and standard deviation scores for each item, as well as an overall mean and standard deviation for the latent variable as a whole.

Table 5.8: Descriptive statistics of materialism success

Materialism - success		Mean	Standard Deviation
MS1	I admire people who own expensive homes, cars, and clothes	4.15	1.592
MS2	Some of the most important achievements in life include acquiring possessions	3.57	1.813
	Overall Materialism - success	3.857	1.513

The sample generated an overall mean score of 3.857 with a corresponding standard deviation of 1.513. From this, it can be concluded that on aggregate, this sample tended towards a more neutral stance on the importance of material possession in denoting personal success. The highest mean score was elicited by the statement MS1: "I admire people who own expensive homes, cars, and clothes" (mean=4.15, standard deviation=1.592). Alternatively, the lowest mean score was generated by MS2: "Some of the most important achievements in life include acquiring possessions" (mean=3.57, standard deviation=1.813).

Finding 10: Overall, generation Z South Africans are largely neutral with respect to the importance of material possessions in denoting success (mean=3.857, standard deviation=1.513).

5.7.3. Materialism – centrality

Related to materialism success, this socio-psychological phenomenon was also measured using two items. Table 5.9 illustrates the respective mean scores and standard deviations for each item, as well as those for the overall construct.

Table 5.9: Descriptive statistics of materialism centrality

Materialism - centrality		Mean	Standard Deviation
MC1	I usually buy only the things I need*	3.77	1.710
MC2	I try to keep my life simple, as far as possessions are concerned*	3.34	1.543
	Overall Materialism – centrality	3.556	1.436

Note: * Reverse-scored item

These statements that were presented to participants are both reverse items. However, the reverse scoring was accounted for in the initial questionnaire design. As such, it is evident that this sample reported a mean score of 3.556 and a corresponding standard deviation of 1.436. This result indicates that the sample generally disagreed with the centrality of materialism, to the extent that it tended to a neutral stance. Within this construct, the highest mean score was elicited by item MC1: “I usually buy only the things I need” (mean=3.77, standard deviation=1.710). Alternatively, the lowest mean score was recorded by the item MC2: “I try to keep my life simple, as far as possessions are concerned” (mean=3.34, standard deviation=1.543). This lower score suggests that participants are more willing to report their habits of consumerism, which slightly tend away from the needs-based existence of minimalism.

Finding 11: Overall, generation Z South Africans generally but only slightly disagree with the central role that materialism plays in their lives (mean=3.556, standard deviation=1.436).

5.7.4. Materialism – happiness

The last dimension of materialism is that of happiness. Table 5.10 sets out the mean scores and standard deviations for each item, in addition to those of the overall construct.

Table 5.10 Descriptive statistics of materialism happiness

Materialism - happiness		Mean	Standard Deviation
MH1	My life would be better if I owned certain things that I do not have.	4.59	1.761
MH2	I would be happier if I could afford to buy more things	4.64	1.736
MH4	It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I cannot afford to buy all the things I would like.	4.70	1.678
	Overall Materialism – happiness	4.643	1.445

From this table it can be observed that the happiness dimension of materialism elicits a mean score of 4.643 with a standard deviation of 1.445. This can be interpreted to suggest that the sample generally holds neutral opinions that tend towards agreement with the proposition that material goods are a source of happiness. This is most exemplified by the statement MH4: “It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I cannot afford to buy all the things I would like” which recorded the highest mean score (mean=4.70, standard deviation=1.445). On the contrary, the item which generated the lowest mean score was MH1: “My life would be better if I owned certain things that I do not have” (mean=4.59, standard deviation=1.761). Such a result hints at participants’ awareness that material possession may not be a viable solution to some of life’s fundamental problems.

Finding 12: Overall, generation Z South Africans generally, but only slightly agree with the role that materialism plays on their levels of happiness (mean=4.643, standard deviation=1.445).

5.7.5. Satisfaction with financial situation

Personal financial satisfaction is an important part of the perceived economic conditions that may contribute to consumer ethnocentric behaviour (Fernández-Ferrín & Bande-Vilela, 2013; Hampson, Ma, & Wang, 2018; Klein and Ettenson, 1999). Table 5.11 describes the mean scores and standard deviations for each individual item, as well as for the construct in toto.

Table 5.11: Descriptive statistics of financial satisfaction

Financial Satisfaction		Mean	Standard Deviation
SFS1	Level of savings.	3.61	1.750
SFS4	Ability to meet long-term financial goals.	3.98	1.764
SFS5	Ability to meet financial emergencies.	3.90	1.873
	Overall Satisfaction with financial situation	3.830	1.492

These results show that on average, the latent variable of financial satisfaction generated a mean score of 3.830 with a standard deviation of 1.492. Falling close to the neutral score of 4, such a mean suggests that the sample is ambivalent, tending to the side of dissatisfaction with regards to their financial situation. On closer inspection it can be seen that the highest score was elicited by statement SFS4: “Ability to meet long-term financial goals” (mean=3.98, standard deviation=1.492). Likewise, the lowest mean score was observed in conjunction with statement SFS1: “Level of savings” (mean=3.61, standard deviation=1.750). This may be the result of the sample’s relatively young age and lack of formal occupation.

Finding 13: Overall, generation Z South Africans generally hold neutral perceptions towards their financial satisfaction (mean=3.830, standard deviation=1.492)

5.7.6. Consumer ethnocentrism

Central to this study is the concept of consumer ethnocentrism which necessitated the adaptation of four items from the literature to establish each participant’s CETSCALE score (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). The relevant mean scores and standard deviation results for each item, and that of the latent variable are displayed in table 5.12.

Table 5.12 Descriptive statistics of consumer ethnocentrism

CETSCALE		Mean	Standard Deviation
CET2	South African products first, last and foremost.	4.40	1.634
CET3	A real South African should always buy South	3.35	1.678

	African-made products.		
CET4	South Africans should not buy foreign products, because this hurts South African business and causes unemployment.	3.33	1.515
CET5	It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support South African products.	4.39	1.481
	Overall CETSCALE score	3.868	1.215

Inspection of the results reveals an average CETSCALE mean score of 3.868 and a standard deviation of 1.215. Once again, this is close to the neutral score and tending to disagreement, thereby indicating that this sample reports a largely ambivalent stance with respect to the support of local goods and importation of foreign products. Upon further inspection it can be seen that the highest mean score was elicited by the statement CET2: “South African products first, last and foremost” (mean=4.40, standard deviation=1.634). In contrast, the lowest mean score was linked to the statement CET4: “South Africans should not buy foreign products, because this hurts South African business and causes unemployment” (mean=3.33, standard deviation=1.515). Indeed, this result represents a slight disagreement with the stance on imported products and their impact on the local economy. This may suggest that the participants are somewhat aware of the role that imports play in market stimulation, or that economic phenomena such as unemployment are nuanced and multifaceted.

Finding 14: Overall, generation Z South Africans hold generally neutral consumer ethnocentric tendencies (mean=3.868, standard deviation=1.215).

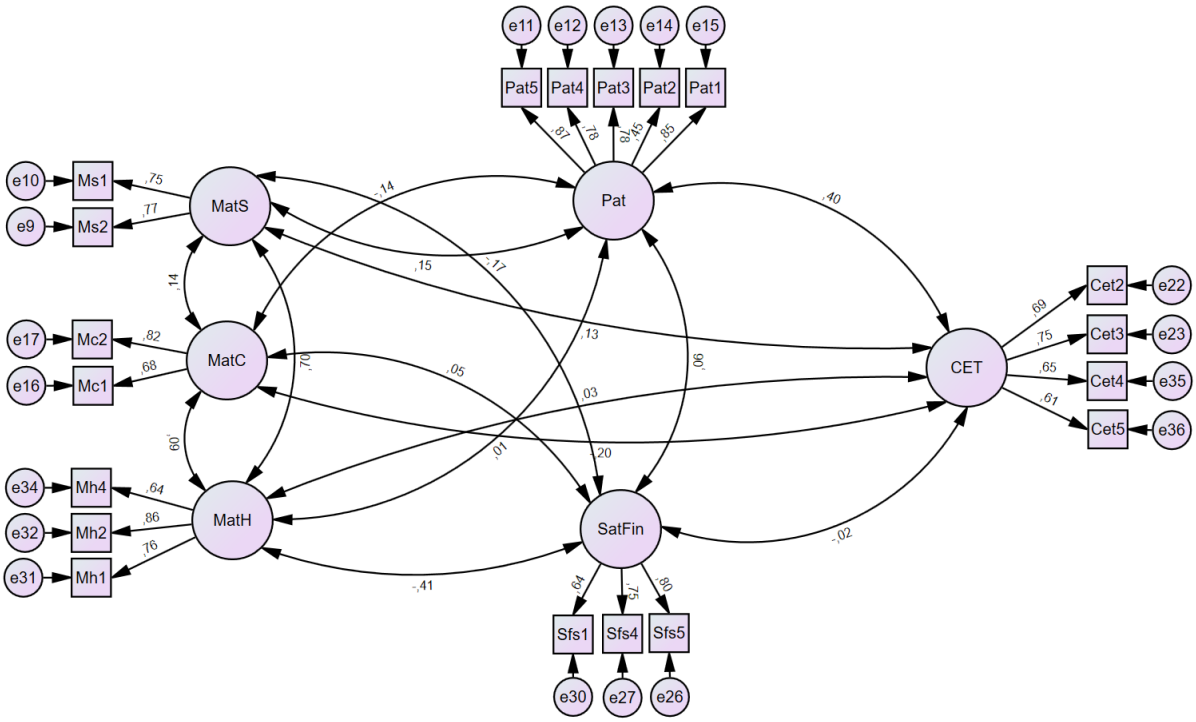
5.8. Structural equation modelling data analysis

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a powerful inferential technique which accomplishes multivariate analysis by way of a two-step process of both factor analysis and multiple regression analysis (Hair et al., 2014). The two phases – measurement model and structural model – are discussed in the sections to follow.

5.8.1. The measurement model

As established in the previous chapter, the validity and reliability of this current measurement model were established by way of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), conducted in IBM SPSS AMOS Graphics v27. Consequently, the section to follow is concerned with discussing the measurement model's fit, reliability and validity.

Figure 5.2: The final measurement model[6]



5.8.1. Model fit indices

In SEM analysis there are generally seven model fit indices most commonly employed to assess the appropriateness of a measurement model. As listed in Table 5.13, these include the CMIN/DF, Normed Chi-square, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker- Lewis Index (TLI), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and the Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI).

Table 5.13: Model fit indices

[6] This graphical depiction of the model only includes the constructs (latent variables). Please see Figure 5.3 for the structural model.

Model fit index	Conventional fit threshold	Initial measurement model in this study	Refined measurement model in this study
Normed Chi-square	x^2/df: ≤ 3 good 3-5 acceptable < 5 bad	2.492	1.802
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	RMSEA < 0.05 good 0.06-1 acceptable < 1 bad	0.055	0.040
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	NFI >0.90 good 0.80-0.90 acceptable < 0.80 bad	0.791	0.931
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	CFI > 0.9 0	0.863	0.968
Tucker- Lewis Index (TLI)	TLI >0.90 good 0.80-0.90 acceptable < 0.80 bad	0.849	0.960
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	GFI >0.90 good 0.80-0.90 acceptable < 0.80 bad	0.862	0.950
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	AGFI >0.80	0.840	0.931

Using these threshold indices as a guide, CFA of the measurement model began. Firstly, the initial model elicited a significant Normed Chi-squared (x^2) value of 1276,106 (p-value=0.000; df=512). Additionally, the RMSEA (0.055) and AGFI (0.840) displayed good levels of acceptance, with TLI (0.849) and GFI (0.862) indicating acceptable levels too. Despite this, both the Normed Fit (0.791) and Comparative Fit (0.863) indices generated values below the level of acceptance. This was noted as it may indicate issues with validity and fundamental concerns with regard to the model fit. Thus, further development of the model was required before it was deemed to be satisfactory.

In keeping with the suggestions of Hair et al. (2014), a careful examination of the standardised residual covariances was undertaken to identify all items that displayed residual covariance coefficients in excess of |2.5|. These items were systematically noted and considered in conjunction with an investigation of the missing inter-item regressions and correlations, (as suggested by the AMOS capability of “modification indices”), as well as a qualitative analysis of the questionnaire. From this, it was determined that some items were impeding the model fit and, thus, warranted their deletion. The following items were subsequently removed: MS3, MS4, MS5, MS6, MC3, MC4, MC5, MC6, MH3, MH5, SFS2, SFS3, SFS6, CET1, CET6. Additionally, the latent variables of MS, MC, and MH were duly correlated as they all derive from the overarching phenomenon of materialism.

As guided by the process of investigation and refinement described above, the internal consistency and measurement error were greatly improved, which served to elicit an overall model fit above the level of acceptance (χ^2= 1.802; p-value= 0.000; CMIN/DF=2,449; GFI=0.958; AGFI=0.879; TLI=0.930; CFI=0.939, NFI=0.901, RMSEA=0.048). Subsequent to the refinement process of CFA, the updated measurement model elicited a significant and improved Chi-squared value (x^2=246,872; p-value=0.000; df= 137). This result, in conjunction with the acceptable levels of model fit indices, signifies a measurement model which is enhanced and appropriate for the further analysis of construct reliability and validity.

5.8.2. Validity and reliability

5.8.2.1. Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which an instrument is capable of consistently measuring the target phenomenon in a stable and repeatable manner (Hair et al., 2014). Although the items for all latent constructs were adopted from the extant literature, it was nonetheless necessary to confirm the reliability of the measurement instruments in this specific context. Internal-consistency reliability is widely assessed by way of Cronbach’s alpha coefficient, which ranges from zero (indicating a lack of consistency between items) to one (suggesting a great association between scale items). Generally, an alpha coefficient above 0.8 is considered high, those within the range of 0.8 to 0.7 are deemed to demonstrate good internal consistency, values

between 0.7 and 0.6 as said to be fair, whereas an alpha score below 0.6 denotes poor internal consistency (Hair, Ortinau, & Bush, 2017, pp. 78). Additionally, composite reliability (CR) also offers credible indicators of internal consistency across items, with the threshold of acceptability at 0.7. Both the Cronbach alpha coefficients and CR scores have been recorded in Table 5.14.

As is evident from the Cronbach alpha scores, each construct demonstrated good levels of internal consistency. These scores ranged from α=0.716 for materialism centrality and α=0.859 for patriotism, thereby indicating good reliability that is not too high (which may suggest issues with the redundancy of items and a possible lack of discriminant validity). This was further corroborated by acceptable CR levels which were all above the 0.7 threshold of acceptability (Hair et al., 2014). Thus, taken in unison, the constructs of this measurement model are considered to be reliable and appropriate for the following phase of validity testing.

Table 5.14: Construct and item reliability and validity

Construct	Item	Factor loading	Corrected Item-Total correlation	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability	AVE	Number of items used
Patriotism	PAT1	0.85*	0.761	0.859	0.868	0.578	5(5)
	PAT2	0.45*	0.426				
	PAT3	0.78*	0.724				
	PAT4	0.78*	0.721				
	PAT5	0.87*	0.768				
Materialism: Success	MS1	0.75*	0.577	0.732	0.732	0.577	2(6)
	M22	0.77*	0.577				
Materialism: Centrality	MC1	0.68*	0.558	0.716	0.722	0.567	2(6)
	MC2	0.82*	0.558				
Materialism: Happiness	MH1	0.76*	0.624	0.786	0.799	0.572	3(5)
	MH2	0.86*	0.719				
	MH4	0.64*	0.544				
Financial Satisfaction	SFS1	0.64*	0.556	0.775	0.778	0.540	3(6)
	SFS4	0.75*	0.636				
	SFS5	0.80*	0.642				
Consumer ethnocentrism	CET2	0.69*	0.573	0.770	0.772	0.460	4(6)
	CET3	0.75*	0.626				

	CET4	0.65*	0.565				
	CET5	0.61*	0.525				

Note: * Significant at the 0.05 level

Finding 15: All instruments (measuring patriotism, materialism success, materialism centrality, materialism happiness, financial satisfaction, and consumer ethnocentrism) display good internal consistency and composite reliability, and are thus reliable in this context of generation Z South Africans.

5.8.2.2. Convergent validity

As an important indicator of measurement model applicability, convergent validity denotes the degree of positive correlation between items within a latent construct (Hair et al., 2014). As a consequence, high convergent validity and internal consistency are related insofar as highly reliable scales are usually comprised of convergent items. The determination of sufficient convergent validity is accomplished by investigating each item's standardised factor loading (SFL), the construct's average variance extracted (AVE), as well as the corrected item-total correlation (CITC). Indeed, a significant factor loading of at least 0.5 is advisable by Hair et al. (2014, pp. 618) to ensure acceptable convergent validity, however, factor loadings above 0.7 are generally considered desirable in such a model. Similarly, an AVE score and corrected item-total correlation in excess of 0.5 is believed to collectively indicate sufficient convergent validity.

As illustrated in Table 5.14, most standardised factor loadings of items retained in the refined model are both significant ($p<0.001$) and are in excess of 0.5. Indeed, twelve items of the exogenous variables, namely, PAT1 (0.85), PAT3 (0.78), PAT4 (0.78), PAT5 (0.87), MS1 (0.75), MS2 (0.77), MC2 (0.82), MH1 (0.76), MH2 (0.86), SFS4 (0.75), SFS5 (0.80), and CET3 (0.75) all displayed good factor loadings above 0.7. Notably though, one item, PAT2 (0.45) failed to meet the 0.5 threshold. Nonetheless, all endogenous items, except PAT2 (0.426), displayed good levels of corrected item-total correlation, which ranged from 0.525 (CET5) to 0.768 (PAT5). After deliberation, it was decided to retain PAT2 due to its quantitative applicability in the questionnaire, and because its omission would have a negligible bearing on the model fit indices and the construct's AVE standing. As mentioned, the standardised

factor loadings were all significant, a result which further indicates construct validity of the latent variables.

With regards to the AVE construct indicators, four out of the five latent variables surpassed the threshold of 0.5. Importantly, the four retained items of consumer ethnocentrism generated an AVE score of 0.460, with good factor loading and corrected item-total correlations. After consultation with the literature, it was decided that this value, which is only slightly below par, is sufficient enough to warrant acceptable validity. Indeed, authors such as Pentz et al. (2017) state in their study that only CET items with loadings below 0.4 should be deleted. Thus, it was determined that it was not worth omitting more items from this study as they all display impressive factor loadings, thereby keeping the integral measure as close to the original 6 item scale as possible – which is widely used in the field of international marketing (Pentz, 2011). Although this has reduced it to 4 items, it must be noted that a similar 4-item version of the CETSCALE was operationalised in the developing nation of Bosnia and Herzegovina (Vida, Dmitrovič, & Obadia, 2008).

Finding 16: All instruments (measuring patriotism, materialism success, materialism centrality, materialism happiness, financial satisfaction, and consumer ethnocentrism) display good convergent validity, and are thus valid in this context of generation Z South Africans.

5.8.2.3. Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity refers to the degree of difference or uniqueness between latent constructs in the model (Hair et al., 2014). As per the Fornell-Larcker (1981) technique, discriminant analysis is conducted by comparing the square root of each unobserved variable's AVE with the greatest corresponding bivariate correlation within the model. Thus, for a latent variable to be considered adequately discriminant, the highest shared variance of two variables must be lower than the square root of the respective AVE (Malhotra et al. 2017). Table 5.15 is a matrix displaying the results as per the Fornell-Larcker (1981) criterion. The values in bold along the diagonal are the calculated square root of the AVEs, and the values within the matrix represent the correlation of each bivariate relationship.

Table 5.15: Construct discriminant validity

	PAT	MS	MC	MH	SFS	CE
PAT	**0.735**					
MS	-0.168	**0.760**				
MC	0.056	0.151	**0.760**			
MH	0.053	0.138	-0.140	**0.753**		
SFS	-0.018	0.126	0.399	-0.204	**0.678**	
CE	-0.414	0.697	0.014	0.088	0.034	**0.757**
MSV	0.159	0.486	0.042	0.486	0.171	0.159

Note: Bolded values on the diagonal are the AVE's square root; PAT: Patriotism; MS: Materialism success; MC: Materialism centrality; MH: Materialism happiness; SFS: Financial Satisfaction; CE: Consumer ethnocentrism; MSV: Maximum shared variance

As is evident in this table, the lowest AVE square root is that of financial satisfaction (0.678), which is still higher than the squared inter-construct correlation coefficients. This trend is further corroborated by MSV scores which are all lower than the AVE for each corresponding scale, thereby confirming discriminant validity across the model.

In conclusion, the data fits the model satisfactorily, the scales are considered reliable, convergent validity is acceptable, and there are no issues with discriminant validity. As the process of CFA has produced an adequate measurement model (as displayed in Figure 5.2), it was acceptable to focus on the next phase which concerns the construction of a structural model.

5.8.2. The structural model

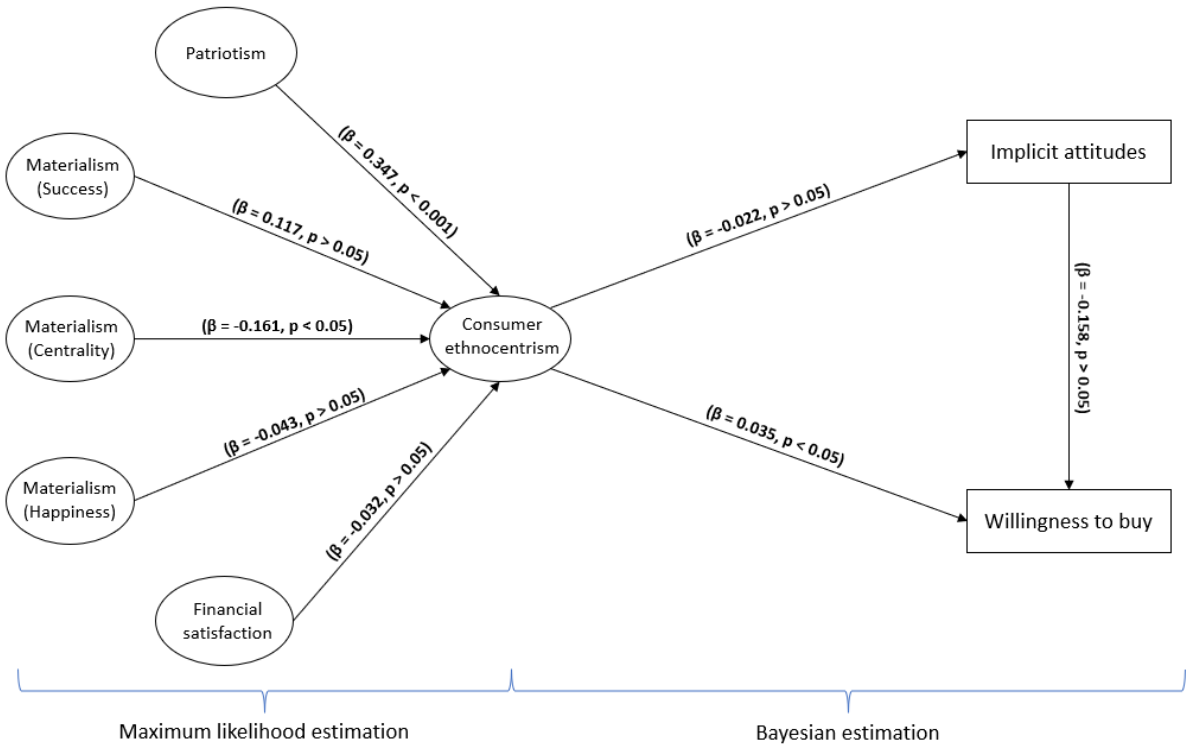
The primary role of a structural model is to display and systematically test the research hypotheses which were set out in conjunction with the conceptual model

(Hair et al., 2014). To this end, the structural model denotes the relevant relationships between variables and their respective valence by way of path estimates. This is accomplished by substituting the correlation values of the measurement model for the path estimate values between variables in the structural model.

To reiterate, the current structural model is unique in that it has two distinct parts which require different data analysis techniques. More specifically, the variables that constitute the measurement model are all ordinal, necessitating analysis by maximum likelihood estimation (MLE). As previously stated, the additional observed variables (implicit attitudes and willingness to buy) are ratio and dichotomous, respectively. Thus, the first half of this structural model employs MLE, whereas the second half utilizes Bayesian estimation.

Indeed, these two dimensions of the model were both assessed on SPSS AMOS version 27. For the sake of clarity, the two halves of the conceptual model have been combined and illustrated in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3: The combined structural model



5.8.2.1. Hypothesis testing

The section below is concerned with reporting the process of hypothesis testing by structural equation modelling in SPSS. The results of these inferential analyses are displayed in Table 5.16 which includes path coefficients (β) between variables and the coefficients of determination (R^2) for each dependent variable. According to Hair et al. (2014, pp. 78), these R^2 values are generated by squaring the correlations between constructs and their predicted values, thereby denoting the exogenous (independent) variables' combined influence on the variance observed in the endogenous (dependent) variable. Indeed, this R^2 value ranges between zero and one, with those results tending towards the latter representing higher levels of prediction.

Table 5.16: Structural model

Hypotheses		Path estimate (β)	t-value	p-value	Variance explained (R^2)	Result
Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)						
H1	Patriotism ---> consumer ethnocentrism	0.347	6.888	0.001	0.18	Accepted
H2	Materialism (Success) ---> consumer ethnocentrism	0.117	1.381	0.167		Rejected
H3	Materialism (Centrality) ---> consumer ethnocentrism	-0.161	-2.860	0.004		Accepted
H4	Materialism (Happiness) ---> consumer ethnocentrism	-0.043	-0.596	0.551		Rejected
H5	Financial satisfaction ---> consumer ethnocentrism	-0.032	-0.592	0.554		Rejected
Bayesian inference			95% lower	95% upper		

			bound sig	bound sig		
H6	CET ---> Implicit attitudes	-0.022	-0.048	0.004	0.129	Rejected
			P > 0.05			
H7	CET ---> willingness to buy	0.035	0.000	0.069	0.227	Accepted
			P < 0.05			
H8	Implicit attitudes ---> willingness to buy	-0.158	-0.278	-0.040		Rejected
			P < 0.05			

The structural model analyses indicate that this model accounts for 18% (R^2=0.18) of the variance in consumer ethnocentric tendencies amongst the generation Z South Africans. Moreover, consumer ethnocentrism is significantly influenced by patriotism (β=0.347, p<0.001) and materialism centrality (β=-0.161, p<0.05). Therefore, hypotheses H1 and H3 are both accepted. Conversely, it was found that consumer ethnocentrism is not influenced by materialism success (β=0.117, p>0.05), materialism happiness (β =-0.043, p>0.05) or financial satisfaction (β=-0.032, p>0.05), which all elicited nonsignificant results. As such, hypotheses H2, H4, and H5 were duly rejected due to a lack of statistical evidence.

Finding 17: Hypothesis H1 is accepted, thereby suggesting that patriotism positively predicts consumer ethnocentric tendencies in this sample (β=0.347, p<0.001).

Finding 18: Hypothesis H2 is rejected, thereby suggesting that materialism success does not significantly predict consumer ethnocentric tendencies in this sample (β=0.117, p>0.05).

Finding 19: Hypothesis H3 is accepted, thereby suggesting that materialism centrality does significantly and positively predict consumer ethnocentric tendencies in this sample (β=-0.161, p<0.05).

Finding 20: Hypothesis H4 is rejected, thereby suggesting that materialism happiness does not significantly predict consumer ethnocentric tendencies in this sample (β =-0.043, p>0.05).

Finding 21: Hypothesis H5 is rejected, thereby suggesting that financial satisfaction does not significantly predict consumer ethnocentric tendencies in this sample (β =-0.032, p>0.05).

Likewise, the results from the second half of the structural model indicate that 12.9% (R^2=0.129) of the variance in implicit attitudes is explained by the model. However, the corresponding relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and implicit attitudes was deemed nonsignificant (β=-0.022, p>0.05), warranting the rejection of H6. Alternatively, this Bayesian half of the model accounts for 22.7% (R^2=0.227) of the variance observed in willingness to buy. Further, willingness to buy is significantly influenced by both consumer ethnocentrism (β=0.035, p<0.05) and implicit attitudes (β=-0.158, p<0.05). Indeed, H7 is accepted as consumer ethnocentrism seems to positively predict willingness to buy, thereby validating the hypothesis. However, the significant relationship between implicit attitudes and willingness to buy is negative (β =-0.153, p>0.05), warranting the rejection of H8.

Finding 22: Hypothesis H6 is rejected, thereby suggesting that consumer ethnocentrism does not significantly predict implicit attitudes towards local brands in this sample (β=-0.029, p>0.05).

Finding 23: Hypothesis H7 is accepted, thereby suggesting that consumer ethnocentrism does significantly and positively predict willingness to buy local brands in this sample (β=0.045, p<0.05).

Finding 24[7]: Hypothesis H8 is rejected, suggesting that implicit attitudes are significantly and negatively predict willingness to buy local brands in this sample (β=-0.153, p>0.05).

5.8.2.2. Moderation using group difference analysis

After the construction of an adequate structural model, the scope of the study was expanded to investigate the influence of a few key demographic variables on the model. This was accomplished by conducting group difference analysis, which relied on a metric invariant test – specifically the Chi-squared (χ^2) test as originally purported by Jöreskog & Sörbom (1993). As such, the three predetermined demographic variables were each divided into relevant groups and included education (undergraduate and postgraduate), gender (male and female) and income (monthly salary below R1000, between R1000 and R5000, and above R5000),

[7] Although the hypothesis was rejected, a significant result was still elicited.

respectively. In keeping with the traditions of the Chi-squared test, the unconstrained model – in which the relevant paths differ between the two groups of each potential moderator – was compared with the constrained model – in which every path is restricted to equal degrees for both groups (Hair et al., 2014; Issock, Mpinganjira, & Roberts-Lombard, 2020). In doing so, it was intended that differences in the model would be determined, and moderation of segmental variables could be established.

5.8.2.2.1. Education as a moderator

The results of this first group difference test between education levels, as illustrated in Table 5.17, indicate that there is no significant difference between the groups of those with a completed degree (n=317) and those without (n=178) ($\Delta\chi^2$=8.4; Δdf=16; p-value>0.05). Thus, Hypothesis H9 was rejected as there was no statistical evidence that level of education significantly moderates the model. Furthermore, a path-by-path χ^2 difference test was conducted to examine whether significant differences could be observed within the two groups on a path level. However, the results of this path-by-path analysis, also displayed in Table 5.16, indicate that the two education groups don't differ significantly with respect to any of the individual relationships within the model.

Table 5.17: Results of the education group difference analysis

Paths	$\beta_{Undergrad}$	$\beta_{Postgrad}$	χ^2	df	p-value
Pat -> CET	0.34***	0.41***	973,1	542	ns
MatH -> CET	-0.14	0.15	972,9	542	ns
MatS -> CET	0.25*	-0.16	974,3	542	ns
MatC -> CET	-0.19*	-0.13	971,6	542	ns
SatFin -> CET	-0.08	-0.01	971,9	542	ns
CET -> IAT	-0.11	-0.06	972	542	ns
CET -> WTB	0.15*	0.01	973,8	542	ns
IAT -> WTB	-0.13*	-0.07	971,9	542	ns
Unconstrained			971.9	540	ns
Fully constrained			980	556	

Note: * Significant at the 0.05 level; ** Significant at the 0.01 level; *** Significant at the 0.001 level

Finding 25: There is no significant difference in the models for each education group ($\Delta\chi^2$=8.4; Δdf=16; p-value>0.05).

Finding 26: There are no significant differences in the relationships between variables in the model when the two education groups were compared.

5.8.2.2.2. Gender as a moderator

A summary of the metric invariance test run on the two gender groups (male n=150 and female n=350) can be found in Table 5.18. From this, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between them ($\Delta\chi^2$=17; Δdf=16; p-value>0.05). Consequently, hypothesis H10, which posited a significant moderating effect of gender on the model, was duly rejected. A further inspection of the path-by-path χ^2 difference test (illustrated in Table 5.18), however, revealed that the groups significantly vary with respect to the relationship between financial satisfaction and consumer ethnocentrism. This is evidenced by a statistically significant χ^2 difference when the constrained – in which this specific path was solely constrained – and unconstrained models. This finding indicates that gender significantly moderates the relationship between financial satisfaction and consumer ethnocentrism, such that this relationship is significant and positive for males (β_{Male}=0.23; p<0.05), and nonsignificant for females (β_{Female}=-0.12; p>0.05).

Table 5.18: Results of the gender group difference analysis

Paths	β_{Male}	β_{Female}	χ^2	df	p-value
Pat -> CET	0.37***	0.39***	922,6	542	ns
MatH -> CET	0.08	-0.06	923,2	542	ns
MatS -> CET	0.15	0.02	923,3	542	ns
MatC -> CET	-0.28*	-0.1	924,5	542	ns
SatFin -> CET	0.23*	-0.12	930,5	542	p < 0.010
CET -> IAT	-0.23*	-0.05	925,1	542	ns
CET -> WTB	0.08	0.14*	923,2	542	ns
IAT -> WTB	-0.06	-0.13*	923,1	542	ns
Unconstrained			922.5	540	ns
Fully constrained			939.5	556	

Note: * Significant at the 0.05 level; ** Significant at the 0.01 level; *** Significant at the 0.001 level

Finding 27: There is no significant difference in the models for each education group ($\Delta\chi^2$=17; Δdf=16; p-value>0.05).

Finding 28: The impact of financial satisfaction on consumer ethnocentrism is significantly moderated by gender.

5.8.2.2.3. Income level as a moderator

As established, the same multigroup analysis was run on the three independent income groups. To reiterate, the first group (n=187) was constituted by those respondents that reportedly receive less than R1000 in gross monthly income. The second group (n=171) fell into the R1000 to R5000 monthly income bracket, while the last group (n=63) reportedly earns in excess of R5000 per month. The results of this metric invariant test, as displayed in Table 5.19, indicate that there is no significant difference between the three income groups ($\Delta\chi^2$=20.073; Δdf=21; p-value>0.05). As a result, hypothesis H11, was rejected due to a lack of statistical evidence that income level significantly moderates the model's relationships.

Thereafter, a path-by-path χ^2 difference test was conducted, from which no statistically significant differences at the path level could be observed. Guided by the data illustrated in Table 5.19, it has been concluded that gender doesn't moderate any paths due to lack of statistical evidence.

Table 5.19: Results from the income group difference analysis

Paths	$\beta_{<R1000}$	$\beta_{R1000 - R5000}$	$B_{>R5000}$	χ^2	df	p-value
Pat -> CET	0.301***	0.285***	0.544***	1191,5	723	ns
MatH -> CET	-0.102	0.126	-0.461	1193,2	723	ns
MatS -> CET	0.206*	-0.005	0.259	1190,5	723	ns
MatC -> CET	-0.226**	-0.088	-0.332	1191,1	723	ns
SatFin -> CET	-0.111	0.025	-0.126	1190,8	723	ns
CET -> IAT	0.033	-0.056*	0.002	1194,6	723	ns
CET -> WTB	0.44	0.055	0.028	1189,7	723	ns
IAT -> WTB	0.098**	0.043	-0.053	1195,3	723	ns
Unconstrained				1189.327	720	ns
Fully constrained				1209.4	741	

Note: * Significant at the 0.05 level; ** Significant at the 0.01 level; *** Significant at the 0.001 level

Finding 29: There is no significant difference in the models for each education group ($\Delta\chi^2$=20.073; Δdf=21; p-value>0.05).

Finding 30: There are no significant differences in the relationships between variables in the model when the two gender groups were compared.

Table 5.20: Summary of the hypothesis testing results

Hypothesis		Result
H1:	Patriotism significantly and positively predicts consumer ethnocentric tendencies amongst generation Z South Africans.	Accepted
H2:	Materialism (success) significantly and negatively predicts consumer ethnocentric tendencies amongst generation Z South Africans.	Rejected
H3:	Materialism (centrality) significantly and negatively predicts consumer ethnocentric tendencies amongst generation Z South Africans.	Accepted
H4:	Materialism (happiness) significantly and negatively predicts consumer ethnocentric tendencies amongst generation Z South Africans.	Rejected
H5:	Personal financial satisfaction significantly and negatively predicts consumer ethnocentric tendencies amongst generation Z South Africans.	Rejected
H6:	Consumer ethnocentrism significantly and positively predicts implicit attitudes towards local brands.	Rejected
H7:	Consumer ethnocentrism significantly and positively predicts willingness to buy local brands.	Accepted
H8:	Implicit attitudes significantly and positively predict willingness to buy local brands.	Rejected
H9:	Education significantly moderates the relationships in the conceptual model.	Rejected
H10:	Gender significantly moderates the relationships in the conceptual model.	Rejected
H11:	Income significantly moderates the relationships in the conceptual model.	Rejected

5.9. Conclusion

This chapter was dedicated to reporting the relevant results elicited by the research enquiry. Naturally, it began with a section concerned with the demographic distribution of the sample, as well as the brand familiarity and COO awareness frequencies. From there, the group-level results of both the IAT and tCBE analyses were reported and expanded upon, followed by a consideration of the data set's normality and kurtosis. Thereafter, the descriptive statistics of each measurement instrument was established, with an emphasis on measures of central tendency and

variance. Finally, the sole purpose of Section 5.8 was to record the process of SEM, specifically with respect to the establishment of a measurement model and testing of the structural model. Indeed, this led to the presentation of results from the two-phase (MLE and Bayesian estimation) hypothesis testing, as well as the outcome of the group difference analysis. In combination, this chapter served to either support or reject the various proposed hypotheses, as summarized in Table 5.20.

CHAPTER 6:

FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1. Introduction

The previous chapter conveyed the statistical results of both the descriptive and inferential analyses. Chapter 6 elaborates on those results by providing a discussion of the findings with reference to contextual factors and the extant literature. The first two sections of this chapter address the sample characteristics and instrument descriptive results, with reference to similar studies. This is then followed by a discussion of the hypothesis testing and group difference results, with an emphasis on how these should be interpreted and their relation to previous research. Thereafter, the aforementioned sections are used to evaluate the ways in which these findings influence managerial decisions and the theoretical understanding of consumer ethnocentrism. Finally, the chapter is completed by a summarised report of the whole project to sum up this dissertation.

6.2. Discussion of the sample characteristics results

The first demographic identifier of interest was gender as it is widely regarded as one of the most fundamental segmentation variables in market research (MBA Skool, 2020). Interestingly, the current study elicited quite a disproportional response from women, who made up exactly 70% (n=350) of the responses. Conversely, only 30% (n=150) of the sample were men. Although the national gender ratio is tipped in favour of women, it is not as extreme as the distribution observed in the current study. In fact, an estimated 51.1% of South Africans are female (Stats SA, 2021).

The exact cause of this disparity in sample distribution is not clear, however, it must be noted that women are believed to be more willing to participate in research studies than men (Mulder & Bruijne, 2019). Additionally, the literature holds that women are generally more ethnocentrically minded (Dogi, 2015; Muchandiona, Kakava, & Makanyeza, 2021), possibly resulting in a higher proclivity to show interest and participate in such a research topic. As such, numerous other consumer ethnocentric studies also report a gender distribution weighted in favour of the

feminine gender (Akbarov, 2020; Makanyeza & du Toit, 2017; Muchandiona, Kakava, & Makanyeza, 2021). Indeed, Maison et al. (2018) report operationalising a sample that was 68% female, while Nuttavuthisit and Thøgersen (2019) used a 78% female dominated sample for their in-store interviews.

With respect to education levels, this sample displayed a distribution tending towards the well-educated, with 62% (n=310) having already completed up to the level of high school. As the sampling technique targeted university students, it can be assumed that these individuals are furthering their education beyond secondary phase and are thus considered well educated in the South African context. The remaining proportion of respondents are considered highly educated, with 24.5% (n=122) furthering their studies after a bachelor's degree, and an additional 11.2% (n=56) conducting advanced postgraduate activities such as Master's, PhD or post-doctoral activities.

It must be noted that this distribution is not representative of the greater South African population (Macha & Kadakia, 2017). However, it does reflect the samples of other consumer ethnocentric studies which focussed primarily on student samples (Maison, Ardi, Yulianto, & Rembulan, 2018) and that of the South African studies conducted by Pentz et al. (2014; 2017). Furthermore, Nuttavuthisit and Thøgersen (2019) report using a well-educated sample from which 46% had already obtained a bachelor's degree, and 43% had completed formal education beyond bachelor's graduation. Moreover, Acikdilli, Ziemnowicz, and Bahhouth (2017) and Kamwendo et al. (2014) report similar sample demographics of their Turkish and South African samples, respectively.

South Africa is a country of vast cultural and ethnic diversity. As such, the demographic variable of ethnicity has been employed as a valuable dimension of market segmentation in South African consumer ethnocentric research (Pentz et al., 2014; 2017). The ethnic distribution of the current sample shows 48% (n = 240) of participants identified with the Black African ethnic community. This was followed by 25.4% (n = 127), and 16.4% (n = 82) of the sample that aligned themselves with white (English and Afrikaans) and Indian communities, respectively. The remaining 2.8% (n = 14), and 2% (n = 10) of respondents identified with the coloured group and other, respectively.

As a whole, this distribution differs from South Africa's ethnic composition in that approximately 81% of the national population are Black African, followed by the coloured community (8.5%), then white (7.5%), and finally, the Indian (2.4%) populations (Statista, 2021). Indeed, this slight difference in composition can be explained by the sampling technique which focussed on people enrolled at the University of the Witwatersrand – of which student enrolment statistics mirror the ethnic distribution of the current sample very well (WITS University, 2018). Moreover, the order of this distribution reflects that of similar South African consumer ethnocentrism studies by Kamwendo et al. (2014) and Pentz et al. (2014; 2017).

This sample predominated by students also accounts for the distribution in marital status. As the initial screening questions excluded individuals above the age of 26, and most individuals are completing their studies, it may be the case that many individuals are still in a life-phase of dependence on parental figures. Indeed, 65.2% (n=326) of the respondents claimed to be living with their parents or family members. Additionally, a further 29% (n=145) report that they are single and living alone. In contrast, a mere 4.4% (n=22) report living with an intimate partner. Interestingly, none of the respondents reported divorce or separation, which may be a consequence of the sample's relatively young age.

Lastly, income levels of the respondents were assessed. To reiterate, participants were required to indicate which income bracket corresponded with their own monthly income before deductions. The results indicate that this sample's gross monthly income is relatively low. In fact, 22% (n=111) of the respondents reportedly receive less than R500, with a further 15.2% (n = 76) earning between R501 and R1000 a month. To contextualise this, the South African government has legislated a minimum wage of R21,69 per hour, in accordance with the National Minimum Wage Act (Department of Employment and Labour, 2021). Given an average 40-hour work week, one can expect this hourly rate to translate to around R3470,40 per month on minimum wage. As such, the large proportion of this sample who report an income less than this value are thus not likely employed. Rather, it should be assumed that they report the receipt of monies from a source other than full-time employment, such as a stipend, grant, or allowance.

On the other hand, the average monthly salary paid to employees in the South African formal sector was approximated at R23 526,00 in the first half of 2021 (Stats SA, 2021). Only 4.2% of this sample earn an income valued between the minimum wage rate and average monthly income, indicating regular part-time or informal employment. Moreover, a mere 3.8% of respondents claim to be earning above the national average of formally employed individuals. As the sample is constituted by a large proportion of full-time students, both of these findings are unsurprising. Indeed, Akbarov (2020) report a similar income level distribution in their consumer ethnocentric study in Azerbaijan, whereby approximately 60% receive below R2325,64 (250 AZN[8]), 17% earn between R23.25,64 and R4651,28, and the remaining 23% report a monthly income above R4651,28 (500 AZN).

6.3. Discussion of the descriptive statistics

6.3.1. Patriotism

The analysis of descriptive statistics revealed that, on aggregate, this sample possesses relatively high levels of patriotic predispositions, as evidenced by a mean score of 5.14 and a standard deviation of 1.233. This result suggests that generation Z South Africans have high levels of love for, and pride in, their country. Moreover, the single item that elicited the highest levels of patriotism (mean = 5.43, standard deviation = 1.549) read “The fact that I am a South African is an important part of my identity”. In fact, 27.2% of the sample strongly agreed with this statement, thereby highlighting the importance of nationality on personal identity, in accordance with the social identity theory on which this study is based (Zeugner-Roth, Zabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015). This general tendency towards positive national identity and patriotic predispositions is consistent with the South African study of Pentz et al. (2017), as well as others abroad (Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller, & Melewar, 2001; Jain & Jain, 2013).

6.3.2. Materialism

The results show a largely neutral sample response to all three of materialism’s subdomains. This implies that the sample of generation Z South Africans explicitly

[8] Azerbaijani Manat; the official currency of Azerbaijan – 1AZN to R9,30 at time of authorship.

believe that materialism (or lack thereof) is not much of a guiding force in their lives. This is consistent with the materialism tendencies of an Indian sample (Das & Mukherjee, 2019). Although minimal, material possessions do appear to be somewhat linked to happiness in this cohort, a result that is in accordance with the theory of hedonic motivation (Sheth, & Gross, 1991; Subawa, Widhiasthini, Pika, & Suryawati, 2020). However, on aggregate, the three subdomains seem to indicate an ambivalent stance towards materialism. This finding is contradictory to the materialism levels of generation Y South Africans who have shown notable materialistic and status consumption tendencies (Bevan-Dye, Garnett, & de Klerk, 2012), thereby suggesting a generational difference in predispositions.

6.3.3. Financial satisfaction

The descriptive results of this economic variable showed that participants are also largely ambivalent towards their financial well-being, as indicated by a mean score of 3.830 and a standard deviation of 1.492. This neutral outcome may be a result of the fact that this sample of generation Z individuals (between the ages of 18 and 26) do not yet have many of the long-term financial goals that come with formal employment and mature adulthood. This is corroborated by the sample characteristics which indicated a high level of unemployment and dependence on parents, thereby suggesting that these students are in a phase of life that does not yet warrant particular concern about finances. Indeed, Renaldo et al. (2020) speak of this generation's lack of financial maturity, highlighting the importance of developing independence and confidence in becoming financially satisfied.

6.3.4. Consumer ethnocentrism

The analysis of consumer ethnocentric tendencies among generation Z South Africans reveals that, overall, this sample holds a largely neutral position. This is indicated by an average CETSCALE mean score of 3.868 which – given that this score is out of seven – can be calculated into a percentage score of 55.3%. Amongst the scant consumer ethnocentric literature in South Africa, Pentz et al. (2017) reported mean CETSCALE percentages of 49.94% and 42.80% for their black and white groups, respectively. Moreover, Karoui & Khemakhemb (2019) recorded a mean CET score of 2.84 (40.57%) for their sample of Tunisian consumers. Although the current study elicited a CETSCALE score higher than the aforementioned African

studies, it is in line with the global average which has been estimated to be around 58.68% (Kibret, 2016).

Moreover, this sample's ethnocentric levels are slightly higher than the mean score of developed nations which is believed to be 51.58% (Kibret, 2016), suggesting that generation Z South Africans are generally more consumer ethnocentric than people living in the developed nations. This is in contrast to the predominant understanding that consumers in developing nations are less ethnocentric than their first-world counterparts, as commonly proposed in the literature (Bamfo, 2012; Purwanto, 2014).

6.4. Discussion of the brand familiarity and COO awareness results

In the process of reviewing the literature, brand familiarity and COO awareness were identified as two important factors that may have a bearing on consumer attitudes and ethnocentric proclivities (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016; Martin, Shyue Wai Lee, & Lacey, 2011). From the ensuing survey results, it was clear that respondent familiarity was high, such that 79% (n=395) of the sample claimed to be very familiar with the two brands, Simba and Lay's. This level of familiarity was determined to be satisfactory for the study and was accompanied by relatively good country-of-origin awareness. In fact, more than half of the sample reported knowledge of the two brands' COO. Importantly, these findings were largely in line with a similar implicit consumer ethnocentric study which only operationalised brands eliciting high awareness and good knowledge of COO, as established in their pilot testing (Maison & Maliszewski, 2016).

6.5. Discussion of the implicit association results

As this research enquiry is concerned with examining the unconscious attitudes that consumers hold towards specific brands, an implicit testing paradigm was included, one which produced some interesting results. Ultimately, the sample produced an IAT D score of -0.097. This score, although slight (below -0.15; Epifania, Anselmi, & Robusto, 2020), is negative in valence and implies a small negative association towards the local brand, Simba.

It must be noted, though, that the dual category IAT produces a result that is only relative insofar as this specific brand comparison is concerned (between Simba and Lay's) (Tseng et al., 2016). In other words, this result does not necessarily mean that these consumers dislike Simba, but rather that Lay's elicits slightly stronger positive associations when compared to Simba. As such, it may be the case that this sample holds Simba in high regard, but hold Lay's in slightly higher regard (9.7% more, to be exact). As a result of this strictly relative interpretation, one should not make assumptions about Simba's implicit popularity in the potato chip market as a whole, nor should these findings be extrapolated against other chip brands, such as Doritos. It is for this reason that comparison of IAT effect size against extant implicit research is difficult, as it would require testing of exactly the same categories (Simba and Lay's) and attributes (Good and Bad).

What is possible, however, is to examine the IAT results of studies which also compared one local FMCG brand against one foreign FMCG brand, using the same standardised implicit paradigm. One such study was conducted by Maison and Maliszewski (2016) in Poland when they compared the implicit response to various consumer goods (such as toothpaste, soft drinks and cigarettes). The results of this pioneering COO implicit study show that the sample of Polish consumers implicitly preferred the domestic brands more, by way of more positive associations, than that of the foreign brands. This observation is important as it is contrary to the IAT results elicited in the current South African study.

Although product categories are not identical, the items generally fall into the same FMCG category, allowing for a fair comparison. Thus, one may conclude that Generation Z South Africans nonconsciously prefer the foreign brand over its local alternative. Indeed, this finding confirms the widely held assumption that consumers in developing countries hold foreign brands in higher regard (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019), on an implicit level at least.

6.6. Discussion of the timed choice-based experiment results

Using a timed choice-based experiment, participants' willingness to buy was evaluated between one local product and one foreign product. Unlike the IAT section, these results show a 64.6% (n=323) selection rate for Simba (local) and

35.4% (n=177) for Lay's, indicating a convincing group-level willingness to buy the Simba option. Indeed, this result conflicts with the implicit attitudes which were slightly and positively skewed towards Lay's – an unexpected inconsistency.

However, this type of incongruence between explicit and implicit data has occurred elsewhere in the literature (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2017). In fact, Tseng, Balabanis and Liu (2016) observed a similar occurrence with respect to convenience goods in Japan, reporting that consumers show an explicit ethnocentric preference for local products, and an inverse implicit preference for foreign goods. With regards to durable goods, consumers' implicit and explicit attitudes were congruent (Tseng, Balabanis, & Liu, 2016), suggesting that the current results are dependent on product type and the degree of consumer involvement (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2017). However, an alternative explanation may be gleaned from another source – specifically from the pack design visual saliency analysis run subsequent to the tCBE of this study.

To reiterate, the frequency of Simba selection in the tCBE was 64.6%, with Lay's making up the remaining 35.4%. The relative visual saliency analysis of the pack designs elicited attention percentage scores almost identical to the selection frequencies (Simba – 63.81%; Lay's – 34.68%). Interestingly, the saliency of visual properties is known to heavily influence decision making in similar scenarios. In fact, Milosavljevic et al. (2012) employed a visual neuroscientific experimental design to investigate this phenomenon, referred to as visual saliency bias. Importantly, their results strongly indicate that, in scenarios of rapid decision making (as with the tCBE), the saliency of visual properties influence product selection more than actual preference. Moreover, they also found that this visual saliency bias increases with the rise in demand on cognitive resources, and that the bias exerts most influence when the individual only possesses a weak preference for one option over the other (Milosavljevic et al., 2012).

To their first main finding, the tCBE explicitly stated that participants are under time pressure to make their selection, which may have inadvertently let the saliency bias dictate choices, instead of the phenomenon of interest: product preference. Indeed, this was a catch twenty-two as time pressure may have enabled the saliency bias, however, without it, one would run the risk of eliciting system 2 responses. Secondly,

the tCBE test block was positioned in section E of the questionnaire (approximately 10 minutes in), after the taxing tasks of the IAT and numerous Likert-type questions. As such, the cognitive load experienced by participants was likely to be relatively high, plausibly resulting in a heightened influence of the bias. Lastly, the implicit attitude results of the IAT clearly indicate that overall implicit preference for Lay's over Simba is small (D=-0.0966), which, in light of Milosavljevic et al.'s (2012) observations, may have further enabled the influence of pack design properties on product selection.

It is possible, therefore, that selection in the tCBE was governed primarily by the visual saliency of each pack, rather than the brands' country-of-origin. This may have been facilitated by the culmination of three factors (rapidity of selection, high cognitive load, and low implicit preference) that enabled a visual saliency bias on product choice. Indeed, the likelihood of this is strongly corroborated by the sheer consistency between selection frequencies of the tCBE and the visual saliency scores.

In addition to outright selection, the tCBE recorded a secondary dimension of data – or paradata as referred to by Bridger (2020) – in the form of response latency scores. In other words, the time (in milliseconds) that respondents took to make their choice was recorded too – data which is capable of adding valuable context and help elaborate on the findings. To begin with, the group average reaction time was 2246,498ms, regardless of selection. The majority of respondents (64.6%) who selected Simba did so in an average time of 2134,548ms, well below this aggregate RT. Those who selected Lay's, in contrast, took substantially longer, making their choice in an average time of 2450,791ms.

Indeed, these differences in reaction time are taken to indicate conviction of response, or surety of preference, in the field of consumer neuroscience (Bridger, 2020). As such, one interpretation of these secondary findings could be that the participants who selected Simba were able to make their decision faster because of stronger associative networks, indicative of stronger attitudes. Whereas the reverse may be true for those who selected Lay's as they were less sure of their preference, having to take a longer to formulate a response – a result of weaker associative networks linking Lay's with a hypothetical "I would want to buy" node. In summary,

this tCBE showed that the majority of respondents explicitly display a willingness to buy the local brand, with a high conviction of response. However, given the visual saliency insights, it is likely that this trend is more a reflection of the relative pack aesthetic, as opposed to brand preference and COO bias.

6.7. Discussion of the hypothesis testing results

6.7.1. Patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism

The SEM analysis revealed that the sociopsychological disposition of patriotism does significantly predict consumer ethnocentric tendencies in a positive direction ($\beta=0.347$, $p<0.001$). This highly significant result suggests that patriotism does indeed predict consumer ethnocentric tendencies, as purported by the predominant literature and theoretical models of Sharma et. al (1995), Javalgi et al. (2005) and Shankarmahesh (2006). Moreover, the current finding is congruent with numerous consumer ethnocentric studies in both developing and developed nations across the world (Cazacu, 2016; Ding, 2017; Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015; Kostić, Stanišić, & Marinković, 2020).

Authors such as Maison and Maliszewski (2016) posit the role that more psychologically ingrained mechanisms play in consumer ethnocentrism. Indeed, Maison, Ardi, Yulianto, and Rembulan (2018) champion this approach, purporting that in addition to ideological or moral factors, consumer ethnocentrism is guided by a psychological desire to belong socially. Thus, this approach draws heavily from the social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978), on which the current study is grounded. Likewise, the concept of patriotism refers directly to the love and pride for one's country (Kostić, 2020; Pentz et al., 2017) and is also rooted heavily in the social identity theory (Schatz, 2020).

Similarly, Zeugner-Roth, Zabkar and Diamantopoulos (2015) operationalised the socio-psychological constructs of consumer ethnocentrism and national identity in their study, in which it was concluded that pro-in-group and anti-out-group factors influence consumer behaviour by way of the desire for social acceptance and belonging. It is this emphasis on social identity that overarches the two constructs and explains why the highest rated item on the patriotism scale – "The fact that I am a South African is an important part of my identity" – was most directly referencing

social belonging by nationality. Thus, it is unsurprising that such a highly significant relationship was elicited between patriotic predispositions and consumer ethnocentric tendencies in the current study.

With respect to South Africa specifically, the current finding echoes the research of Pentz et al. (2017) which reports a significant positive correlation between patriotism and CET. Additionally, Rybina et al. (2010) and Jain and Jain (2013) also observed such an association in the third world countries of India and Kazakhstan, respectively. These findings, in conjunction with the current study, provide strong evidence in defence of the theory that patriotism exerts a significant effect on consumer tendencies in a developing country like South Africa too. As such, it can be concluded that Generation Z South Africans are likely to possess stronger consumer ethnocentric tendencies as their levels of patriotism rise.

6.7.2. Materialism and consumer ethnocentrism

The inferential analysis of all three subdomains of materialism (success, centrality, happiness) produced results that indicate that only the centrality dimension significantly and negatively influences consumer ethnocentrism (β=-0.161, $p<0.05$). In other words, the more that obtaining material possessions becomes a priority and the subject of life goals, the less ethnocentric consumers are likely to behave.

As mentioned previously, most CET research has operationalised materialism as a unidimensional construct, with authors such as Clarke et al. (2000), Cleveland et al. (2009) and Gonzalez-Fuentes (2019) finding associations between the two, thereby suggesting that consumer ethnocentrism is indeed influenced by materialistic predispositions. However, a study focussing on materialism, status consumption and consumer ethnocentrism amongst generation Y students in South Africa concluded that CET and materialism are not significantly correlated (Bevan-Dye, Garnett, & de Klerk, 2012). This lack of association has since been corroborated by Das and Mukherjee (2019).

The in-depth analysis of the current study may provide clarity on this inconsistency, possibly revealing that only certain aspects of materialism influence CET in some populations, and that future investigations would be better suited by looking at the three dimensions separately. To this end, Das and Mukherjee (2019) caution against marketers using generalised findings in contexts that are niched or different to the

global norm. This is equally relevant in the South Africa context in which complex relationships between conspicuous consumption, materialism and preference for foreign brands are known to exist (Jin, Yang, & Jung, 2019; Karoui & Khemakhem, 2018).

6.7.3. Financial satisfaction and consumer ethnocentrism

Financial satisfaction does not significantly influence consumer ethnocentrism on a group level (β=-0.032, $p>0.05$). Simply stated, this implies that a shift in financial well-being does not change one's consumer ethnocentric tendencies towards local products. Importantly, this is in contrast to the predominant theory of Shankarmahesh (2006) who based their conceptualisation solely on the results of Klein Ettenson's (1999) study. Since then, Fernández-Ferrín and Bande-Vilela (2013) have been able to replicate this, stating that consumer ethnocentric tendencies generally increase when international business is perceived to threaten national and personal financial well-being.

Despite a dearth of research examining this relationship, a more recent study was identified and proves to contradict the predominant theory. Specifically, Hampson, Ma and Wang (2018) observed that perceived financial well-being (PFWB) does not influence domestic purchase intention and consumer ethnocentrism. Accordingly, it failed to elicit a significant relationship between PFWB and pro-social consumer ethnocentrism, a specific derivative of consumer ethnocentrism, thereby corroborating the current finding of this dissertation.

6.7.4. Consumer ethnocentrism and implicit attitudes

The Bayesian analysis of this enquiry elicited a nonsignificant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and implicit attitudes (β=-0.029, $p>0.05$). This means that one's nonconscious brand attitudes are not altered as a function of explicitly held consumer ethnocentric beliefs and predispositions. Although this result disproves one of the hypotheses, it more imperatively highlights the distinction in constructs. From this it is likely that consumer ethnocentrism as a whole is constituted by two distinct dimensions which operate on different cognitive levels.

Indeed, this type of discrepancy was first purported as early as 2004, when an American study examined the difference between implicit and explicit ethnocentrism towards 5 different social groups (Cunningham, Nezlek, & Banaji, 2004). It was thus

reported that across groups, the explicit attitudes directed at outgroups were positive, whereas the implicit attitudes towards the same outgroups were negative in valence (Cunningham et al., 2004). Although more sociological in nature, that finding inspired the idea that the consumer ethnocentrism derivative may include a distinct, implicit counterpart (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2017).

Maison & Maliszewski (2016), in particular, championed this line of enquiry, by specifically investigating the existence of a nonconscious mechanism guiding consumer behaviour, which they termed implicit consumer ethnocentrism (ICE). Importantly, their study also found no significant relationship between the CETSCALE and IAT results, positing that each technique measures distinct cognitive constructs – one which is likely formulated by moral predispositions and rational deliberation, and the other based on nonconscious automatic associations (Perkins, Forehand, Greenwald, & Maison, 2018). Indeed, this type of discrepancy between implicit and explicit results is not unique to consumer ethnocentrism, with similar phenomena reported by Serenko and Turel (2019) in the context of systems use, as well as Sarabia-Andreu and Sarabia-Sánchez (2018) with reference to organic wine purchase intention.

6.7.5. Consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy

The results of this SEM analysis reveal that consumer ethnocentrism does positively influence respondents' willingness to buy domestic products in the FMCG category ($\beta=0.045$, $p<0.05$). Put simply, the more ethnocentric one feels towards local products, the more willing they are to show interest towards said item. Indeed, both the CETSCALE and tCBE tend towards more explicit forms of measurement. They both largely target system 2 processing, even in spite of the added temporal dimension, resulting in both accessing the same consciously held beliefs, which are governed by more rational cognitive deliberation. With this in mind, it is largely unsurprising that such a relationship was elicited between the two constructs.

This tendency of WTB increasing as a function of CET is reflected in the historical finding of Klein et al. (1998) who observed a negative association between consumer ethnocentric levels and purchase intention of foreign goods, in addition to subsequent findings (Karoui & Khemakhemb, 2019; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015; Tabassi, 2012; Zeugner-Roth, Zabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015). In Southern Africa,

this relationship is largely consistent with the research of Pentz et al. (2017) and Makanyeza et al. (2017) who both observed similar associations amongst their South African and Zimbabwean samples, respectively. Most recently, Muchandiona et al. (2021) found that consumer ethnocentrism is negatively linked with intention to buy imported products in Harare.

6.7.6. Implicit attitudes and willingness to buy

It was originally hypothesised that implicit attitudes, which reflect implicit consumer ethnocentric tendencies, should positively predict willingness to buy. However, the result of this analysis reveals that implicit attitudes negatively influence willingness to buy domestic products (β=-0.153, $p>0.05$). In other words, the more positive implicit attitudes a consumer holds for the local product, the less willing they are to buy it.

Again, this result may be a function of the tCBE's sensitivity to the visual saliency bias or general proclivity to elicit system 2 processing (in contrast to the system 1 directed IAT) and should therefore be interpreted cautiously. However, the exact cause of this unexpected result remains unclear due to the nascency of such enquiry and lack of exploratory research to this end. Having said that, previous studies have been identified in the literature to reported similar findings. Within the FMCG category specifically, Sarabia-Andreu and Sarabia-Sánchez (2018) investigated the explicit and implicit attitudinal drivers of intention to purchase wine. From this the authors concluded that explicit attitudes alone significantly influenced consumer willingness to buy, whereas implicit attitudes were not found to significantly impact behavioural intention.

6.8. Discussion of the group difference analysis results

A metric-invariant group difference analysis was conducted on the demographic variables of education (undergraduate and postgraduate), gender (male and female), and income (below R1000, between R1000 and R5000, and above R5000), respectively. The subsequent results showed that none of the three groups significantly moderate the conceptual model. This suggests that the dynamics of the current model are consistent across different demographic groups, with a lack of moderation from participant gender, education and income. From a practical point of view, this implies that the model conceptualised here can be applied to most

generation Z South African consumers, without the need for differentiation of marketing efforts.

Similarly, the path-by-path analysis conducted for each group largely indicated that the individual relationships in the model are not significantly moderated by the demographic variables. However, one exception was found, such that the male and female groups displayed a significantly different relationship between financial satisfaction and consumer ethnocentrism. More specifically, financial satisfaction significantly and positively influences consumer ethnocentric tendencies in males, suggesting that the more satisfaction a male consumer feels about their financial well-being, the more ethnocentric tendencies they are likely to display.

Although financial well-being has been scarcely investigated as an antecedent, this result is contradictory to the predominant theory which purports that a decline in perceived financial well-being and ensuing financial hardship results in more conservative purchasing decisions to save money (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014). Indeed, this deviation may be accounted for by the relative income level of the current study's sample. Authors such as Hampson et al. (2018) operationalised a sample of which the income distribution was more indicative of an employed demographic, whereas, the current South African sample primarily consisted of full-time students. As a result, it may be the case that the usual relationship between CET and financial well-being is negated by virtue of a different financial frame of reference.

6.9. Managerial implications

The results of this study indicate that the socio-psychological and economic antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism affect the population in much the same way, regardless of individual gender, education or income level (with one exception to be discussed in due course). From this it was observed that patriotism and materialism centrality exert significant influence on consumer ethnocentric tendencies. Although a significant difference was found between the male and female groups – the influence of financial satisfaction on consumer ethnocentric tendencies – one can conclude that these factors remain relatively constant across demographic segments, within this generational cohort.

Notwithstanding, patriotism remained highly significant across all groups and exerted a sizeable positive force on CET. As such, it is strongly recommended that marketing managers differentiate the market according to patriotic predispositions, placing emphasis on this psychological phenomenon and tailoring strategies accordingly. For instance, local marketers should develop campaigns aimed specifically at patriotic consumers which appeal to their national identity and desire for social cohesion. Of course, this is concurrent with Pentz et al.'s (2017) suggestion of more focussed "multi-national" marketing strategies in the South African context, thereby increasing consumer ethnocentric tendencies through heightened patriotism.

Managers of South African brands are therefore recommended to incorporate the patriotic themes of national love and pride into their promotional campaigns and marketing communications. This should be undertaken with an aim to influence consumer decision-making on both levels of cognitive processing. Firstly, the marketing material should entice purchases through the ideological-based facet of CET which is driven by system 2 processes. This can be accomplished by simply using patriotic messages such as "real South Africans buy local and support the nation". However, to maximise impact, the patriotic message should also be intricately tied to the brand, thereby consolidating the association between brand and image in the target's semantic memory. By creating a brand that is synonymous with patriotic themes, consumers are more likely to act on these automatic impulses, driven by system 1. Indeed, an example of such a message can be found in the Castle Lager campaign which centred around the tagline: "Different tribes, one voice. It all comes together with a Castle".

In terms of mass marketing opportunities, brand managers would be well advised to consider promoting such campaigns during periods when collective patriotism is high. As discussed briefly in chapter 3, factors driven by social identity (such as ethnocentrism and patriotism) are commonly displayed on a national level. Although, this may result in undesirable manifestations such as xenophobia, pride for one's country is often displayed in a socially acceptable way at national sporting events (Shala & Cooper, 2014). Therefore, occasions like the Olympics, Rugby World Cup, or Soccer World Cup create environments conducive to such campaigns, maximising their reach and impact.

Not only does the event provide opportunities to advertise on location (billboards at the stadium or TV advert slots during broadcast) but it also lends a degree of relevance and content around which the message can be created. Indeed, the local product used in this study, Simba chips, took advantage of such an opportunity by launching their “Bring back the cup with a roar campaign” in anticipation of a Rugby World Cup. Other examples of local FMCG brands using this strategy include:

- “Our Boks are SPURfect” – Spur
- “We’ve got Ball's in the rucks and mauls” – Mrs Ball's Chutney
- “Castle Lager. United behind Southern African football” – Castle Lager

In addition to marketing material and advertisement placement, patriotism inducing events also present opportunities for collaboration and association with the teams and sporting personalities themselves. Used in parallel with an effective advertisement campaign, brand endorsements from well-known personalities should establish the system 1 associations and greatly improve implicit attitudes towards the brand in patriotic consumers. This was accomplished by the local leather-goods brand, Freedom of Movement (FOM), when they partnered with the Springbok rugby captain, Siya Kolisi. This campaign centred around the collaboration on a range of proudly South African vellies (type of South African footwear) and was strengthened all the more after the 2019 Rugby World Cup victory.

Relatedly, marketing managers are also advised to consider the impact of cause-related marketing which focusses on community upliftment programmes undertaken by the firm (Vrontis, Thrassou, Christofi, Shams, & Czinkota, 2020). Again, FOM maximised their celebrity endorsement campaign by pairing it with a relevant cause-related marketing strategy, pledging a portion of the profits to build a sporting facility in the underprivileged township of Mbekweni. This type of approach has been found to be especially effective amongst younger consumers (Correa, et al., 2021), with Generation Y and Z individuals placing much emphasis on social activism (Tyson, Kennedy, & Funk, 2021). Moreover, charitable causes could be specified according to each province in South Africa, thereby eliciting regional ethnocentrism and heightening the campaign’s relevancy, effectiveness and reach.

From an international brand manager’s perspective however, the concept of materialism centrality may be a more attractive psychographic variable to target

amongst young South African consumers. To reiterate, it was identified that this sub-domain of materialism – which refers to the extent to which acquiring material possessions constitutes major life goals (Richins, 2004) – negatively influences consumer ethnocentrism. It must be noted that the products associated with this materialistic tendency are usually high-involvement, expensive luxury items which easily signal status (Greenberg, et al., 2020; Shao, Grace, & Ross, 2019). However, products in the FMCG category are rarely considered to be laden with high social status. As such it may be challenging to establish an effective campaign targeted at the importance of acquiring a particular consumer good.

A more feasible approach, however, would be to simply increase the amount of lifestyle marketing to this materialistic consumer segment. Instead of focussing on product attributes, international managers should strive to link their brands with a way of life that evokes an emotional connection by speaking to a particular social identity. In order to be successful, this strategy must position the brand to exemplify the aspirations, aesthetics and values of a socially desirable, high-status life. As with the patriotic campaigns, this lifestyle marketing approach should be aimed at both system 1 and system 2 processing, appealing to the consumer's materialistic centrality ideals on a conscious level, while also reinforcing this brand-image association in the consumer's nonconscious cognitive faculties. Within the FMCG category, this strategy is used to great effect by fragrance and cosmetics brands, suggesting that it may be applicable for other product types if developed carefully and directed at the right psychographic group.

In terms of the demographic factors, it was found that only financial satisfaction in males positively influences consumer ethnocentrism in this population of generation Z South Africans. The inverse can be assumed too, with consumer ethnocentrism dropping as a result of reduced financial satisfaction. On a macro-economic level, collective financial satisfaction reduces with economic turmoil such as recessions, political unrest, or volatile exchange rates (Hampson, Ma, & Wang, 2018). As such, it is suggested that during periods of macro-economic hardship, local brands pre-empt any reduction in consumer ethnocentric tendencies by adapting their branding, pricing and promotion strategies accordingly. This should be done with the aim to promote value-for money offerings, indicating that their products can help ease the impending financial stressors. Moreover, it is important that local brands use

campaigns to emphasise how supporting local business serves to stimulate the national economy and lessen financial burdens on an individual level (Hampson et al., 2018).

Fortunately, the rise of social media advertisement allows for market segmentation at an unprecedented level (Ramasubbareddy et al., 2020). Sophisticated algorithms facilitate precise market differentiation, allowing for efficient and targeted messages based on each user's individual psychographic and demographic make-up. Both patriotism and materialism centrality marketing campaigns can be implemented simultaneously, with the possibility to further differentiate the target audience according to location if regional ethnocentrism is desired. Of course, proudly South African campaigns can be disseminated using this segmentation technique too, with content centred around price advantages targeted specifically at male consumers.

Turning to the consequences of ethnocentrism now, this study found that CET directly and significantly influences consumer's willingness to buy domestic products. As such, it is recommended that brands make an effort to display their local identity by including properties such as "made in South Africa" or national iconography (such as the national flag) on packaging design. Furthermore, initiatives such as the "Proudly South African" campaign should be promoted by the brand. Introduced in 2001 to elicit pride in South African business and grow job-creation, it has been documented that the South African population has been receptive to this "home-grown" approach (SME South Africa, 2018). Importantly though, Brand South Africa should also enhance and expand educational campaigns which inform citizens of the benefits associated with supporting local business. Such messages should reiterate the role that local organisations play in job creation and economic stimulation. Ultimately this must be carried out to increase levels of consumer ethnocentric tendencies beyond the moderate level observed in this study.

With regards to the implicit brand assessments, it is clear that the foreign product elicits more positive evaluations at a nonconscious level. Thus, taken with the hypothesis testing results, it is advised that international brand managers make a concerted effort to reach the consumer on an unconscious level. For instance, this could be accomplished by focussing their in-store communications and product offerings at the point-of-sale, thereby eliciting more spontaneous purchasing

(Pradhan, 2018). Such decision making is driven by system 1 processing, which has been shown by this study to negatively predict South African's willingness to purchase the local option. Alternatively, placement of these foreign brands would be equally effective when centred in and around high-involvement goods, such as consumer electronics. The neuroscientific research strongly suggests that high cognitive load – induced by sustained deliberation on high-involvement goods – significantly increases the subsequent reliance on system 1 processing (Kahneman, 2011; Milosavljevic et al., 2012). Of course, this would benefit foreign brands which have shown to elicit more positive evaluations at the implicit level.

Further to this, it is recommended that this positive implicit attitude associated with Lay's is maintained and expanded upon. Similar foreign brands would be best suited by a marketing strategy which aims to reinforce the brand image of foreign quality, while simultaneously appealing to patriotic predispositions and consumer ethnocentric tendencies on an explicit level. Lay's has previously attempted this when they ran the "Flavour World Cup" campaign which highlighted its international nature, all of which was centred around the proudly South African flavour of biltong – an association strengthened by collaboration with local sporting icons. Nonetheless, the small IAT D-score elicited in this study implies that there is room to improve on this front, necessitating concerted effort in tailoring such beneficial implicit and explicit brand images.

From a more generalised point-of-view, marketing managers across the FMCG category should consider incorporating visual saliency metrics into their packaging design and graphic creation process. As was remarkably evident in this study, the attention-grabbing properties of visuals are highly equivalent to the distribution of consumer's willingness to buy. Therefore, visual production studios should use such a consumer-neuroscientific metric to tailor marketing content (print advertisements, videos, social media graphics, etcetera) to maximise the attention eliciting capabilities, with an emphasis on emotional arousal.

Additionally, brand managers should adopt it as best practice to conduct a market-wide relative visual saliency audit of the brands in a given product category. In doing so, product designers will gain a better understanding of how to craft packaging that will be noticed on both levels of cognitive processing. This is especially pertinent with

respect to goods that are commonly purchased with little deliberation (such as the potato chips used here), which should take advantage of good design to elicit purchase behaviour that is driven by the visual saliency bias.

Finally, the distinction of implicit and explicit findings observed in this study reiterate that consumer cognition is more nuanced than previously believed. Consequently, sole reliance on explicit measures in market research may render incomplete insights and missed opportunities (Diamantopoulos, Florack, Halkias, & Palku, 2017). Rather, it is unequivocally recommended that market researchers employ a wide range of methodologies – spanning both implicit and explicit paradigms – if they are to gain meaningful insights to inform effective managerial decisions. Of course, the type of methods used will vary on a case-by-case basis, depending on the assumptions and needs of each market researcher. Some scenarios would be better suited to traditional forms of testing, whereas others may be benefitted from more implicit approaches – such as the IAT, fast-choice or affect misattribution paradigms – while others still may be best addressed by a combination of the two types. As such, it is trusted that this research serves to showcase the versatility of technology like the Reactor platform (CloudArmy Network Inc., 2021) which can incorporate multiple testing paradigms into one functional and seamless research design. This allows for insights that can better describe, understand and predict consumer preference and purchase intention (Bridger, 2020).

To conclude, marketing managers in the South African FMCG industry would be well advised to segment their target market according to the psychographic variables of patriotism, materialism centrality and consumer ethnocentrism. This is due to the fact that the current study found these constructs to significantly influence key precursors to purchase behaviour. Moreover, the financial satisfaction of males within this consumer demographic should be monitored, with proactive strategies implemented when widescale financial stressors begin to appear. As such, all efforts should be optimised with the goal of improving consumer purchase intention, as well as bettering implicit and explicit perceptions of the brand. This should be accomplished with the use of neuro-metrics like visual saliency analysis to carefully tailor campaigns that are directed at the appropriate psychographic group through targeted advertisements. In doing so, it is possible for FMCG brands to effectively guard against the threats and challenges associated with rapid globalisation.

6.10. Theoretical implications

This study enriches the field of international marketing by investigating the influential phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism, the contributions of which are threefold. Not only does this study expand upon the limited body of consumer ethnocentrism research within developing nations, but it also contributes to the limited research focussing on the generation Z population within South Africa. Lastly, and most importantly, with the incorporation of implicit testing, this study was one of the first to investigate the link between nonconscious consumer attitudes, consumer ethnocentrism, and willingness to buy with a tCBE.

Karoui and Khemakhemb (2019) are among those that note the need to incorporate additional socio-psychological factors into consumer ethnocentrism research designs, so as to gain a more nuanced understanding of what influences consumer preference and behaviour in increasingly globalised developing markets (Pentz et al., 2017). The current study accomplishes this by focussing on four such consumer traits, significantly contributing to the theoretical domain by subdividing materialism into its three constituent parts (success, centrality, happiness). Although referring to one overarching trait, these individual results provide clarity on the current inconsistencies found by previous authors (Bevan-Dye, Garnett, & de Klerk, 2012; Cleveland, Laroche, & Papodopoulos, 2009; Das & Mukherjee, 2019; Gonzalez-Fuentes, 2019), and guide future academics in how the phenomenon of materialism should be appropriately investigated.

Similarly, the more research into consumer ethnocentrism that is conducted, the more inconsistencies arise between studies. Balabanis and Siamagka (2015) specifically raise the issue of a regular disconnect between CET results and purchase intention, purporting that consumer ethnocentric tendencies vary as a function of product category and level of consumer involvement (Tseng et al., 2016). The current study served to dive deeper into this phenomenon by incorporating an implicit dimension, allowing for a better understanding of what drives consumer behaviour and how it relates to ethnocentric tendencies. In their review, Balabanis and Siamagka (2015) speak of evidence suggesting that CET does not influence purchasing of low-involvement convenience goods – primarily a result of low

motivation to collect additional information such as brand COO. In doing so, they cite only Maison, Greenwald, and Bruin (2004) for their investigation into implicit consumer ethnocentrism. The current study contributes to this extremely limited body of knowledge by observing that the explicit measure of consumer ethnocentrism is not significantly associated with implicit associations, thereby corroborating the existence of a separate implicit mechanism driving purchasing behaviour, as purported by Maison and Maliszewski (2016).

Moreover, this nonsignificant and contradicting result between implicit attitudes and explicit consumer ethnocentric predispositions adds credence to the dual attitude model. To reiterate the findings on a group level, participants displayed a slight preference for the foreign brand (Lay's) by means of more positive associations, whereas the self-reported CETSCALE and explicit tCBE results indicated a willingness to buy local. Of course, this is congruent with the dual attitude model which posits that an individual can simultaneously hold differing attitudes towards an object, one on a nonconscious, implicit level and the other on an explicit or conscious level (Tseng, Balabanis, & Liu, 2016). As such, this research may add to the growing evidence which points to the more complex and dynamic reality of consumer cognition. Similarly, the consistent strength of association between patriotism and consumer ethnocentric tendencies serves to affirm the applicability of the social identity theory too. To this end, the current study draws from SIT and adds to the extant body of literature by proving the predictive strength of a pro-in-group psychological antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism.

Finally, all previously identified consumer ethnocentric research that investigates the effects of demographic variables have included them as antecedents (Akbarov, 2021; Kvasina, Crnjak-Karanovic, & Tucak, 2018; Pentz, Terblanche, & Boshoff, 2014). Following Pentz et al.'s (2014) suggestion that demographic factors be incorporated as a moderating factor, this study contributes to the field of enquiry by undertaking such an approach. By investigating the moderating effect of education, gender and income levels on the model, it was found that none of these factors significantly moderate the current model. Moreover, it was further observed that only one relationship (between financial satisfaction and CET) is significantly moderated by gender. Together, these findings expand on the current understanding of

consumer ethnocentrism, its antecedents and consequences, as well as how these dynamics are affected by different market segments.

6.11. Limitations of the study

As with all research, this study has certain limitations which must be noted:

- Although most suitable for this study, the convenience sampling method employed here is considered to be a limitation. It introduces an element of sampling bias and places limitations on generalisability.
- Unlike most consumer ethnocentric studies, this current research focussed on one generational cohort. As such, it was not possible to examine the moderating effect of age on the relationships within the model.
- The current research focussed on the FMCG product category alone. Thus, it is undetermined as to how the model's relationships would be affected with respect to high-involvement goods.
- Similarly, this study examined consumers' attitudes and perceptions towards one type of product (potato chips) due to contextual constraints. It is possible that the relationships elicited by this product type do not reflect broader predispositions towards the FMCG product category as a whole.
- This study relied on a modified choice-based experiment to measure willingness to buy. Although adding a temporal dimension to it may have made it a degree less system 1 dependent, it is unclear how well this method substitutes for actual low-involvement purchasing decisions, which are primarily driven by system 1.

6.12. Recommendations for future research

Given the limitations listed above, it is recommended that subsequent studies implement the following to expand and improve upon the current research:

- Future consumer ethnocentric research in South Africa should collect data from citizens in all provinces, thereby improving the sample representativeness and generalisability of findings.
- Future studies should consider including consumers of all age groups, not one generational cohort. By doing so it will be beneficial to examine if age moderates

any of the relationships in this model, especially between consumer ethnocentrism, implicit attitudes and willingness to buy.

- Authors such as Tseng et al. (2016) and Balabanis and Siamagka (2017) purport that the congruence, valence and strength of implicit and explicit consumer ethnocentrism differ according to product category. Thus, it would be interesting to compare the results of this type of research design between high-involvement durables and low-involvement consumer goods.
- This study only assessed attitudes towards and willingness to buy one type of consumer good (potato chips). Therefore, future research should incorporate multiple different types of consumer goods to better reflect preferences towards the product category as a whole.
- Due to the uncertain validity of the choice-based experiment paradigm, it is recommended that future studies incorporate consumer purchasing history into the model or include a purchasing paradigm that more accurately captures a low-involvement FMCG purchasing scenario.
- In this study, it was found that implicit attitudes negatively influence willingness to buy. This contradicts the limited research focussing on similar phenomena. Thus, future exploratory research should be conducted to examine the underlying reason for this negative relationship.
- The role of brand preference may have influenced results more than that of COO preference. Consequently, subsequent studies could adopt a similar research design to Martin et al. (2011) which excluded brand names and instead displayed either a “Made in Germany” or “Made in Poland” label beneath images of generic products. Alternatively, one could employ the strategy of Maison and Maliszewski (2016) which created fictional brand names for each product. Thereafter it was signalled which items are local and which are foreign, ensuring that prior preference based on brand consumption experience was mitigated.

6.13. Concluding remarks

To conclude, it is evident that rapid globalization, the economic development of African nations, and a shift in transactional power, amongst other factors, has resulted in a local FMCG market rich in competition. As such, local marketers need

to investigate innovative strategies to gain a competitive edge. Extant research indicates that consumer ethnocentrism presents one viable avenue through which the threat of foreign goods can be mitigated. However, the current body of literature has largely neglected developing nations. Moreover, the consumer ethnocentric research has traditionally used explicit methods to measure consumer attitude and predispositions, thereby presenting a need for more diverse findings informed by other paradigms of market research.

The current research paper accomplished this explanatory enquiry by first conducting a comprehensive literature review of the fast-moving consumer goods industry. By primarily focussing on opportunities and threats that marketing managers face in this era of industrial revolution, shifts in transactional power, and increased globalisation, the review narrowed from a global perspective to a more localised South African context. From this, it was concluded that as a developing nation, South Africa's growing middle-class presents attractive opportunities for expansion by domestic and foreign organisations alike. However, with the threats of global competition and economic uncertainty, this necessitates lateral thinking from local marketing managers. To this end, the literature strongly suggests that an emphasis on proudly South African marketing should be adopted, thereby appealing to consumers' ethnocentric tendencies as one of the most effective barriers to foreign competition.

Chapter 3 of this paper, however, takes a different approach to the phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism, which was originally based on conscious ideologies, as guided by the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Instead, this paper presents the argument that an important facet of consumer ethnocentrism is guided by a more automatic, nonconscious and associative cognitive process that is primarily rooted in the social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982). By briefly discussing cognitive neuropsychological literature, this process of implicit consumer ethnocentrism was explained with reference to cognitive mechanisms such as spreading activation, associative networks, implicit memory, and the dual attitude model. It was based in this theory of implicit social cognition – the culmination of unconscious attitudes, stereotypes and self-concepts which serve to guide cognition, affect and behaviour – that the conceptual model and relevant hypotheses were subsequently constructed.

By employing an eclectic mix of explicit and implicit market research methods, including survey type questions, multiple-choice questions, implicit association testing, and a modified choice-based experiment, this research design was deployed in the testing phase to uncover more accurate consumer attitudes, predispositions and preferences. From this inferential analysis, grounded in structural equation modelling, a few significant findings were noted. Firstly, it was observed that patriotism and materialism (centrality) made up the antecedents to significantly influence consumer's ethnocentric tendencies. Secondly, it was found that implicit consumer attitudes significantly and negatively influence willingness to buy, a result which necessitates future exploratory research to fully explain. Lastly, it was observed that a direct consequence of consumer ethnocentrism is willingness to buy, of which a significant and positive relationship was elicited between the two.

As a consequence, it is highly recommended that marketing managers develop strategies that are designed to evoke the patriotic predispositions of love and pride for one's country. Based on the current results, this should directly promote consumer ethnocentric tendencies which, in turn, seem to influence willingness to buy local products. In toto, this study has served to inform both academics and marketing professionals, thereby providing insights into how the consumer phenomenon develops and can be employed to gain a competitive advantage in the complex world of global commerce.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Questionnaire structure

Welcome message:

“Welcome to my research project! By clicking ‘Begin’ you agree to participate and provide consent as per the participant information sheet.”

Screening questions:

Age: Are you between the ages of 18 and 26 years old?

Yes	No
1	2

Nationality: Do you consider yourself a South African?

Yes	No
1	2

Brand COO prelude:

“Before we start, we would like you to know that Simba is a South African brand, whereas Lay's is an American-owned brand.”

Section A. Implicit consumer attitudes

Implicit association test

“During this task you will see words and images appear one at a time in the middle of the screen. Your task is to decide whether that word belongs to the category on the left or on the right. If the word or image belongs to the category on the left, quickly press the E Key. If the word belongs to the category on the right, quickly press the I Key.”

Block 10 – initial combined task:

Block 14 – reversed combined task:

Section B. Socio-psychological antecedents

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?								
Horizontal collectivism		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
HC1	The well-being of my co-workers/colleagues is important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HC2	It is important to me that I maintain harmony within my group of friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

HC3	My happiness depends very much on the happiness of those around me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HC4	I feel good when I cooperate with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HC5	If a relative is in financial difficulty, I would help within my means	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Patriotism								
PAT1	I love my country, South Africa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PAT2	Patriotism is an important characteristic of a good South African citizen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PAT3	The fact that I am a South African is an important part of my identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PAT4	I am attached to my country, South Africa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PAT5	I am proud to be a South African.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Materialism – success								
MS1	I admire people who own expensive homes, cars, and clothes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MS2	Some of the most important achievements in life include acquiring possessions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MS3	I do not place much emphasis on the number of material objects people own as a sign of success. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MS4	The things I own say a lot about how well I am doing in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MS5	I like to own things that impress people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MS6	I don't pay much attention to the material objects other people own. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Materialism – centrality								
MC1	I usually buy only the things I need*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MC2	I try to keep my life simple, as far as possessions are concerned*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MC3	The things I own are not all that important to me*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MC4	I enjoy spending money on things that are not practical.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MC5	Buying things gives me a lot of pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MC6	I put less emphasis on material things than most people I know*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Materialism – happiness								

MH1	My life would be better if I owned certain things that I do not have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MH2	I would be happier if I could afford to buy more things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MH3	I have the things I really need to enjoy life*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MH4	It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I cannot afford to buy all the things I would like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
MH5	I wouldn't be any happier if I owned nicer things*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cosmopolitanism – Open-mindedness								
COM1	When traveling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
COM2	I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
COM3	I like to have contact with people from different cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
COM4	I have got a real interest in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cosmopolitanism – Diversity appreciation								
CDA1	Having access to products from many different countries is valuable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CDA2	The availability of foreign products in the domestic market provides valuable diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CDA3	I enjoy being offered a wide range of products from various countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CDA4	Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cosmopolitanism – Consumption transcending borders								
CCT1	I like watching movies from different countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CCT2	I like listening to music of other cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CCT3	I like trying original dishes from other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CCT4	I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

*Reverse scored items

Section C. Willingness to buy

Choice-based experiment (timed):

“Now imagine your friend has given you money to buy them a packet of salt & vinegar chips. On the next page, click on your choice **as quickly as possible.”**

Section D. Economic antecedents

Satisfaction with financial situation								
How satisfied are you with the following aspects of your financial situation?		Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Neutral	Somewhat satisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied
SFS1	Level of savings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SFS2	Level of current debt.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SFS3	Family’s current financial situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SFS4	Ability to meet long-term financial goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SFS5	Ability to meet financial emergencies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SFS6	Ability to make financial decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section E. Consumer ethnocentrism

CETSCALE								
To what extent do you agree with the following statements?		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
CET1	Only those products that are unavailable in South Africa should be imported.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CET2	South African products first, last and foremost.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CET3	A real South African should always buy South African-made products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CET4	South Africans should not buy foreign products, because this hurts South African business and causes unemployment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CET5	It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support South African products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CET6	South African consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow South Africans out of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section F. Demographic information

Gender: what is your gender?

Male	Female	Other	Prefer not to say
1	2	3	4

Education: what level of education have you completed?

None	Primary school	High School	Diploma	Degree	Postgraduate *(Honours, Masters, Doctorate)*	Prefer not to say
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ethnicity: according to which ethnicity do you consider yourself? (This is purely for statistical purposes)

Black	White	Coloured	Indian	Other (Specify)	Prefer not to say
1	2	3	4	_____	6

Marital status: what is your current marital status?

Single (living alone)	Living with parents	Married or living with a partner	Divorced or separated	Prefer not to say
1	2	3	4	5

Location: where do you currently live?

Gauteng	KwaZulu-Natal	Free State	Eastern Cape	Limpopo	Western Cape	Mpumalanga	North West	Northern Cape	Prefer not to say
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Income: what is your average monthly income?

Less than R500	R501 – R1,000	R1,001 – R5,000	R5,001 – R10,000	R10,001 – R20,000	More than R20,000	Prefer not to say
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Awareness: Before taking this test, were you aware that Simba is South African and that Lay's is American?

Yes	No	Prefer not to say
1	2	3

Familiarity: How familiar are you with the two brands?

Not at all familiar	Somewhat unfamiliar	Somewhat familiar	Very familiar
1	2	3	4

Thank you for your participation, please click ‘Finish’ to complete.

Appendix B: Sample prospecting email with survey link

Hey Witsie!

Are you between the ages of 18 and 26?
Are you a South African?

If you answered yes to both of those questions then I'd like to invite you to play my gamified survey.

As part of my Master's dissertation, I am conducting a study to determine the causes and outcomes of consumer ethnocentrism in South Africa, under the supervision of Dr. Paul Issock. The main aim of this research project is to find out how non-conscious attitudes influence willingness to buy South African products.

This online survey includes a reaction-time sorting game, a purchase decision task, as well as a few more traditional survey questions. In total, the survey should only take approximately **16 minutes** to complete and your participation would be greatly appreciated.

Please follow the link if you are interested in playing:
https://www.onlineresearch.io/player/batch/d36455b0-ea30-11eb-8cd0-b345891c5d16

Participation is completely voluntary and you may withdraw from the survey at any point should you feel the need to do so. We can assure complete anonymity and confidentiality, with all data being stored on a password-protected computer. Please note that your survey participation is taken to mean you consent to participation in the research project.

Many thanks for your time and interest.

Researcher: Darren Till
1375422@students.wits.ac.za

Supervisor: Dr. Paul Issock
paul.issockissock@wits.ac.za

Appendix C: Participant information sheet

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS SCIENCES

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

Good day,

My name is Darren Till, and I am a marketing student at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. As part of my Master's dissertation, I have undertaken a research project in which I am investigating the causes and outcomes of consumer ethnocentrism in South Africa, under the supervision of Dr. Paul Issock. The main aim of this research project is to find out how non-conscious attitudes influence willingness to buy South African products. The target sample includes all South African nationals that are between the ages of 18 and 26 years old.

As part of this project, I would like to invite you to take part in a gamified online questionnaire. This once-off activity will involve playing an interactive sorting game and purchasing scenario, as well as answering a few questions – all of which should take around 16 minutes of your time. With your help, I would like to measure your performance on the games, as well as capture your answers to the questions. Due to the remote nature of online surveys, this data will be kept anonymous and confidential.

Please be advised that participation is completely voluntary and that there will be no personal costs to you if you choose not to. You will not receive any direct benefits from participation but there are no disadvantages or penalties if you do not choose to participate or if you withdraw from the study. You may withdraw at any time or not answer any question if you do not want to. The questionnaire will be completely confidential and anonymous as I will not be asking for your name or any identifying information. Nonetheless, the data recorded will not be disclosed to anyone else and will be securely stored on password protected computer, only accessible to myself and my supervisor. Please note that by completing and submitting the survey you are providing your informed consent to be included in the study.

If you have any questions with regards to this research, feel free to contact me on the details listed below. This study will be written up as a research report which will be available online through the WITS university library website. The data collected from this research project will be stored in a password protected computer and will be kept until it is no longer deemed necessary to do so. With your permission the data collected from this research project may be used by other researchers in an anonymized format. If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), telephone +27(0) 11 717 1408, email hrecnon-medical@wits.ac.za

Yours sincerely,
Darren Till

Researcher:
Darren Till,
1375422@students.wits.ac.za

Supervisor:
Dr. Paul Issock, paul.issockissock@wits.ac.za

Appendix D: Ethics declaration and clearance

Due to the involvement of human participants, this research project required approval from the Wits Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical). The subsequent clearance certificate for Protocol number H21/06/35 can be found below:

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Till

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: H21/06/35**
PROJECT TITLE	Antecedents and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism in an emerging market: uncovering implicit attitudes using the implicit association test
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Mr D Till
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	School of Business Science/
DATE CONSIDERED	18 June 2021
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved Risk Level: Minimal
EXPIRY DATE	05 July 2024

DATE 06 July 2021 **CHAIRPERSON** (Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Professor P Issock

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to submit an amendment of the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a regular progress report. For Minimal and Low studies, this is due annually on 31 December. For Medium and High Risk studies, this is due twice annually on 30 June and 31 December.**

Signature

22 / 07 / 2021
Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES