

Demographic and Lifestyle Profiles of Ethnocentric and Non-Ethnocentric Urban Malaysian Consumers

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Abstract

The globalization of markets presents considerable challenges and opportunities for domestic and international marketers. This has led to a renewed interest in the effects of consumer ethnocentrism on buying behaviour. The main objective of this paper is to investigate the ethnocentric tendency among urban consumers in Malaysia. Specifically, the paper endeavours to identify the psychographic and demographic characteristics of ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric consumers. This study employs a survey approach. In terms of data collection technique, the study utilizes self-administered questionnaires. The study finds that five out of six demographic characteristics are significant to differentiate between the two ethnocentric groups. In terms of lifestyle dimensions, six out of eight dimensions are found to be significant. In general, the research results show that ethnocentric consumers tend to be Malay, married, female, have a low income and are mostly blue collar. They tend to be family and home concerned as well as price conscious.

Keywords: Consumer Behaviour; Ethnocentrism; Demographic; Lifestyle Profiles

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1. Introduction

Due to the globalization of markets there has been a plethora of goods and services, foreign and local, available to consumers. Increased competition has also led to renewed interest in the antecedents that influence consumer

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decision making apart from the intrinsic characteristics of products, services or the personal characteristics of consumers. According to Kucukemiroglu (1997), research has shown that patriotic and ethnocentric sentiments can affect the selection of imported products. While patriotism implies a strong feeling of attachment and loyalty towards one's own country, it does not elicit a corresponding hostility towards other nations (Balabanis et al. 2001). Ethnocentrism, on the other hand, encompasses issues such as one's fear of economically harming one's own country by buying foreign products, the morality of buying foreign products, and a personal prejudice against imports (Sharma et al., 1995). Furthermore, consumer *ethnocentrism's predictive ability of buying intentions* varies from country to country (Balabanis et al., 2001, italics added).

In light of intense competition and in response to the Asian financial crisis in 1997-1998 (though the economy has now recovered) the government launched the 'Buy Malaysian Product' campaign to encourage Malaysians to purchase locally made products. Furthermore, using various channels of communication, consumers are reminded and persuaded to buy local products as part of their commitment to help the local economy (*Utusan Malaysia*, 2001). As such, an increasing number of Malaysian marketers have turned to ethnocentric themes in an attempt to defend their market share against foreign competition (Mokhlis, Kamaruddin and Othman, 2001). However, up till this point the impact of this campaign on eliciting the ethnocentric orientation of Malaysian consumers remains unclear.

While we could speculate that there are differences in consumer preference towards imported and local products in their buying behaviour, reasons for such tendencies may range from beliefs about the quality of imported goods to a bias against things foreign (Agbonifoh and Elimimian, 1999; Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Durvasula and Lichtenstein, 1991; Herche, 1992; Gross, Javalgi, Khare, and Scherer, 2005; Netemeyer, Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Sharma, Shimp and Shin, 1995; Wang and Chen 2004). It is therefore useful for researchers and marketers to understand the degree of ethnocentric orientation among urban Malaysian consumers and to differentiate along the dimension of ethnocentrism so that marketers can better satisfy customer needs.

Across cultures, researchers have demonstrated that ethnocentrism is a global phenomenon, but there are differences in the degree of ethnocentrism expressed by consumers, depending on the country under study (Gross, Javalgi, Khare and Scherer, 2005:326). Hence, the major objective of the current study is to examine the ethnocentric tendencies among urban Malaysian consumers. With consumer ethnocentrism as the focal construct, this study uses psychographic and demographic variables to examine the ethnocentric orientation among consumers. Specifically, the objectives are as follows:

- To examine the ethnocentric tendency among urban Malaysian consumers
- To identify the psychographic and demographic characteristics of ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric consumers
- To discriminate between ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric consumers.

2. Background

The origin of the consumer ethnocentrism construct is rooted in the general construct of ethnocentrism introduced as a sociological concept introduced by Sumner (1906), who defines it as when one's own group is seen as the centre and a reference for all others (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Ethnocentrism focuses on a 'we group' feeling where the in-group is the centre and all out-groups are judged in relation to it. The in-group is seen as virtuous and superior and an out-group as contemplative and inferior (Axelrod and Hammond, 2003). The consequences of this bias range from maintenance and formation of stereotypes to the belief in the genetic superiority of the in-group over the out-groups. The stereotype formation that accompanies ethnocentrism applies to both negative stereotypes for the out-groups and positive ones for the in-groups. Each group proudly regards itself, its symbols and values, as superior to others who are looked upon with contempt (Levine and Campbell, 1972). In other words, an ethnocentric group assigns itself a central position, and values its achievements and other characteristics positively compared with other groups. Such a group, be it ethnic or cultural, tends to interpret events from a self-reference criterion mindset, considering others as the 'out-groups' (Preiswerk and Perrot, 1978). Booth (1979) and Worchel and Cooper (1979) define the concept of ethnocentrism as the universal proclivity for people to view their own group as the centre of the universe, to interpret other social units from the perspective of their own group, and to reject persons who are culturally dissimilar while blindly accepting those who are culturally like themselves.

Consumer ethnocentrism refers to consumer-held beliefs about the appropriateness and morality of purchasing foreign-made products, since it is perceived as hurting the domestic economy, causing loss of jobs and being plainly unpatriotic (Shimp and Sharma, 1987, p.280). Consumer ethnocentrism denotes consumers' tendencies to distinguish between products of the in-group (home country) and the out-group (foreign countries) and to avoid buying foreign products due to nationalistic reasons (Shankarmahesh, 2006, p. 147-148). Products from other countries are objects of contempt to highly ethnocentric consumers. Non-ethnocentric consumers are said to evaluate foreign products on their own merits. Therefore, consumer ethnocentrism may be a proxy for a sense of identity and belonging and an understanding of which purchase behaviour is acceptable or

unacceptable to an in-group (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). In functional terms, consumer ethnocentrism gives the individual a sense of identity, a feeling of belongingness and most importantly, an understanding of what purchase behaviour is acceptable or unacceptable to the in-group.

Ethnocentrism is not to be confused with country-of-origin (COO). Herche (1992) explained the difference between ethnocentrism, measured by CETSCALE, and COO: ethnocentrism is more of a general tendency to avoid buying foreign products as opposed to a specific country-of-origin image. COO represents the cognitive and affective aspects of consumer decision making whereas CETSCALE symbolizes the affective and the normative aspects of buyer behaviour (Shankarmahesh, 2006, p. 148). The normative aspect is unique to CETSCALE in that it is the normative pressure that the consumer feels towards buying domestic products.

2.1. Consumer Ethnocentrism Tendencies and Consumer Behaviour

Consumer ethnocentrism was construed by Shimp and Sharma (1987) as a domain-specific sub-set of ethnocentrism (Shankarmahesh, 2006). However, even before Shimp and Sharma (1987), there was a stream of studies that measured consumers' general disposition towards buying foreign products (Shankarmahesh, 2006). Shimp and Sharma developed a 7-point Likert multi-item scale known as the CETSCALE, to measure consumer ethnocentric tendency, which captures the more general notion of a disposition to act in some consistent way towards foreign products. It is used to explain why consumers prefer domestic over imported products even though the latter may be cheaper and of better quality.

Netemeyer et al. (1991) found strong support for the CETSCALE factor structure and reliability across the four countries in his study. Past research (Netemeyer et al., 1991; Shimp and Sharma, 1987) established unidimensionality, factor structure invariance, discriminant, and nomological validity of the CETSCALE and reliability across nations (Chrysochoidis et al, 2007; Hamin and Elliott, 2006; Javalgi et al, 2004; Liu et al, 2007; Nielsen and Spence, 1997; Sharma et al. 1995, and Good and Huddleston, 1995; Suh et al, 2002, Reardon et al, 2005). Based on the CETSCALE developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987), Lundstrom et al. (1998) developed a 3-item scale for Taiwanese consumers. Due to the similarities between Taiwanese and Mainland China, Lie et al. (2007) adopted the 3-item scale to study the role of ethnocentrism as an antecedent to the attitude of Chinese towards store signs. Kaynak and Kara (1996) strongly recommend that researchers translate the CETSCALE into other languages and use it in other countries and regions.

2.2. Consumer Ethnocentrism and Demographics

Demographics is one of the antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism (Good and Huddleston, 1995; Huddlestone, Good and Stoel, 2000; Sharma, Shimp and Shin, 1995; Shimp, 1984; Shankarmahesh, 2006). Findings have been inconsistent about the effect of demographics on consumers' perception of imports examined in the light of ethnocentrism. Several studies found that males, better educated consumers, and those with a higher income tend to be less ethnocentric (Balabanis et al. 2004; Good and Huddleston, 1995; Sharma, Shimp and Shin, 1995; Shankarmahesh, 2006; Shimp, 1984;) while several other studies found women to be more ethnocentric (e.g. Balabanis et al. 2004; Brunning, 1997; Han, 1988; Howard, 1989; Kucukemiroglu, 1997; and Sharma et al. 1995). However, according to Schooler (1971) there is a tendency among females to rate foreign-made products more favourably than men. McLain and Sternquist (1991) found no relationship between gender and the degree of ethnocentrism. Age has been consistently found to be related to ethnocentric tendency, younger consumers are more positive towards imported products compared to older ones (Schooler, 1971; Wall and Heslop, 1986, Sternquist, 1991; Balabanis, 2004). Han (1988) found that patriotic consumers were older than those who were less patriotic. Mokhlis, Kamaruddin and Othman (2001) found a greater ethnocentric tendency among the Malays compared to other ethnic groups in Malaysia.

2.3. Consumer Ethnocentrism and Lifestyle

Shimp and Sharma (1987) suggest that CETSCALE could be used as a predictor variable in correlation studies alongside demographic and psychographic measures and other relevant predictors of attitudes (Sharma and Kwon, 1995; Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser, 2002), buying intentions (Suh et al, 2002), and purchase behaviour. Kaynak and Kara (1996) and Kucukemiroglu (1997) conducted a comprehensive analysis of the relationship between consumer lifestyle dimensions and ethnocentrism and found a significant relationship in several lifestyle dimensions among Azerbaijani and Turkish consumers. Kucukemiroglu (1997) reported that several lifestyle dimensions of Turkish consumers have significant influences on consumer ethnocentric buying tendencies. Kaynak and Kara (1996) found that only the fashion conscious dimension had a significant positive correlation with ethnocentric tendency.

3. Data and Methodology

3.1. Methods

Data collection for this study took place in Petaling Jaya and Kuala Lumpur, the two major urban areas of Malaysia. A total of 400 respondents replied to the survey. Convenience sampling (the snowball method) was used due to

resource constraints. In addition, it is an exploratory study that attempts to examine consumers' ethnocentrism orientation from the perspective of psychographic and demographic dimensions. Questionnaires were distributed to friends and colleagues who in turn distributed them to their friends and colleagues. While distributing the questionnaire based on convenience, the ethnic and gender composition of the population was used as a guide to ensure that adequate Malay, Chinese and Indian respondents were obtained. In addition, occupation and job position were used as proxies for income so that respondents were not drawn from a bias group with similar socio-economic background. The questionnaire was pre-tested with 10 respondents to check for clarity before conducting the survey.

3.2. Variables

3.2.1. Ethnocentrism

A scale measuring ethnocentrism was adopted and adapted from Shimp and Sharma (1987). The 10 items selected were based on the original scale of 17 items. Table 1 shows the 10 statements on a seven point Likert scale with 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). Items that contained the word "American" were changed to "Malaysian". The remaining 7 statements from the original scale (items 1, 3, 9, 10, 12, 14 and 15) were considered sufficient to measure ethnocentrism. Cronbach's alpha for the modified scale is 0.9, consistent with the level of internal consistency reliability found in the study by Shimp and Sharma (1987).

3.2.2. Lifestyle

The AIO statements that measure lifestyle were adopted from Wells and Tigert (1971) and Plummer (1971). A total of 56 statements were included. The dimensions measured were: fashion conscious, leadership factor, family concern factor, health conscious, care-free factor, community conscious, cost conscious, and practicality factor. Some modifications were made to reflect the local culture.

3.2.3. Demographic variables

The demographic variables measured in this study include ethnicity, age, gender, marital status, occupation, education, and monthly household income.

4. Results

A total of 319 useable questionnaires were obtained from the survey. Malays made up 32% (n = 101) of the respondents while Chinese constituted 48% (n = 155) and the remaining 20% (n = 63) were Indians. The over representation of non-Malay respondents could be due to the convenience method of data

collection as questionnaires were distributed to friends and colleagues who are employees in the private sector. This may account for a concentration of non-Malay employees. Males make up 44.2% (n = 141) of the sample while the remaining 55.8% are females. About 50% (n = 162) are single, 48% (n = 152) married and about 2% (n = 5) are divorced. The sample was noticeably young. Slightly more than half (n=163 or 51%) are in the age group of 20 – 29 years old, 32% (n = 103) are between 30 – 39 years and only 10 are 50 years or older. More than half (52.3% or n = 167) have a university education, which is consistent with the characteristics of urban population, especially the areas of Petaling Jaya and Kuala Lumpur. Almost 30% (n = 93) are diploma holders. Only 8 (2.5%) have less than high school education. In terms of monthly household income, 18.5% (n = 59) have an income of less than RM2,000 while 17.6% (n = 56) earn RM8,000 or more a month. About 64% have a monthly household income of between RM2,000 to RM7,999. About 37% of the respondents are managers/professionals/lecturers and about 30% are executives or teachers.

Table 1. Modified CETSCALE

No.	Statements
1	Only those products that are unavailable in Malaysia should be imported.
2	Malaysian products, first, last and foremost.
3	Purchasing foreign made products is un-Malaysian.
4	It is not right to purchase foreign products because it puts Malaysians out of jobs.
5	A real Malaysian should always buy Malaysian made products.
6	We should purchase products made in Malaysia instead of letting other countries get rich off us.
7	Malaysians should not buy foreign products because it hurts Malaysian business and causes unemployment.
8	It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Malaysian-made products.
9	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain from our own country.
10	Malaysian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Malaysians out of work.

Source: Adapted from Shimp and Sharma (1987, p.283).

4.1. Consumer Ethnocentrism

Respondents are categorized as having high levels of ethnocentrism if they score in the top half of the 10-item CETSCALE or having low levels of ethnocentrism if they score in the bottom half of the scale (Watson and Wright, 2000). Respondents rated the items on a seven-point Likert scale yielding a potential minimum score of 10 and a maximum score of 70. In this study, the bottom half of the scale-score ranges from 10 to 40 while the top half ranges from 41 to 70. Based on this, 123 (38.6%) of the respondents are categorized as ethnocentric consumers and 196 (61.4%) are non-ethnocentric consumers. The mean ethnocentrism score for the sample was 37.2, with a standard deviation of 11.7, suggesting that overall the respondents tend to be at the low end of the ethnocentrism scale, i.e., non-ethnocentric.

The 10-item CETSCALE was tested for internal consistency reliability using the Cronbach alpha. Table 2 shows the results of the reliability analysis of these 10 items.

The internal consistency reliability test produced a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.900 showing good reliability (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). The result is consistent with the study by Kaynak and Kara (1996) and Kucukemiroglu (1997) who reported reasonably high Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.892 and 0.886, respectively. Based on this, the 10-item scale measures the same ethnocentrism construct and therefore, the items were summed to measure the ethnocentrism tendency of respondents.

4.2. Demographic Comparison of Ethnocentric and Non-Ethnocentric Consumers

In order to understand the demographic profile of ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric consumers, the six demographic variables were statistically analyzed using the chi-square test. Table 3 shows the results. There is a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between male and female regarding the ethnocentric tendency of the respondents ($p = 0.016$). Within each gender group, 31.2% of the male respondents were ethnocentric as compared to 68.8% who were non-ethnocentric. On the other hand, 44.4% of the female respondents were ethnocentrics as compared to 55.6% who were non-ethnocentrics. In other words, the results show that more males tend to be non-ethnocentric whereas females tend to be more ethnocentric than males. This result is consistent with the findings of Balabanis et al. (2001); Han (1998); Good and Huddleston (1995); Samiee (1994); and Sharma et. al. (1995). However, this finding differs from those obtained by Mokhlis, Kamaruddin and Othman (2001) who reported no significant difference between gender with respect to ethnocentric tendencies among Malaysian consumers. Results show that there is no significant difference between

Table 2. Internal Consistency Reliability Analysis of the Modified 10-Item CETSCALE

No.	Statements	Alpha if item deleted
1	Only those products that are unavailable in Malaysia should be imported.	0.899
2	Malaysian products, first, last and foremost.	0.894
3	Purchasing foreign made products is un-Malaysian.	0.897
4	It is not right to purchase foreign products because it puts Malaysian out of jobs.	0.887
5	A real Malaysian should always buy Malaysian made products.	0.882
6	We should purchase products made in Malaysia instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	0.887
7	Malaysians should not buy foreign products because it hurts Malaysian business and causes unemployment.	0.883
8	It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Malaysian made products.	0.895
9	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain from our own country.	0.892
10	Malaysian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Malaysians out of work.	0.885

ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric respondents with respect to age. This is similar to the findings of Mokhlis, Kamaruddin and Othman (2001).

In terms of ethnicity, 67.3% (n = 68) of the Malays are ethnocentric compared to 32.7% who are non-ethnocentric. Only 21.3% (n = 33) of the Chinese respondents are ethnocentric as compared to a majority of 78.7% who are non-ethnocentric. For the Indians, 34.9% (n = 22) are ethnocentric against 65.1% who are non-ethnocentric. In other words, Malays tend to be ethnocentric while the Chinese and Indians tend to be non-ethnocentric. This result is consistent with the findings of Mokhlis, Kamaruddin and Othman (2001).

Regarding marital status, the analysis shows that there is a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between those who are married and the singles. Of the respondents who are single 32.1% (n = 52) are ethnocentric compared to 67.9% who are non-ethnocentric. On the other hand, 45.2% (n = 71) of the

Table 3. Ethnocentrism by Selected Demographic Variables

Demographic variables	Ethnocentric Consumers		Non- Ethnocentric Consumers		Significance λ^2
	N	%	N	%	
Gender					
Male	44	31.2	97	68.8	$p = 0.016$
Female	79	44.4	99	55.6	
Age					
20 – 29 years	62	38.0	101	62.0	ns
30 – 39 years	39	37.9	64	62.1	
40 and above	22	41.5	31	58.5	
Ethnicity					
Malay	68	67.3	33	32.7	$p = 0.001$
Chinese	33	21.3	122	78.7	
Indian	22	34.9	41	65.1	
Marital Status					
Single	52	32.1	110	67.9	$p = 0.016$
Married	71	45.2	86	54.8	
Education Level					
High School and Less	33	55.9	26	44.1	$p = 0.001$
College diploma	40	43.0	53	57.0	
University Degree/ Professional Qualification	50	29.9	117	70.1	
Occupation					
Clerical/Production Staff	33	56.9	25	43.1	$p = 0.001$
Sales Personnel/ Supervisor	24	49.0	25	51.0	
Administrative Executive/Teacher	41	43.2	54	56.8	
Manager/Professional / Lecturer	25	21.4	92	78.6	

married respondents are ethnocentric as compared to 54.8% who are non-ethnocentric. The results reveal that married consumers have a greater tendency to be ethnocentric compared to those who are single.

Respondents with high school and less showed a higher tendency for ethnocentric behaviour. Within that group, 55.9% (n = 33) of the respondents are ethnocentric compared to 44.1% who are non-ethnocentric. Only 29.9% (n = 50) of the respondents with a university degree or professional qualification are ethnocentric. The Chi-square shows a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between the different educational groups. Respondents with clerical and production occupations show a higher tendency of ethnocentric behaviour (56.9%). Only 21.4% (n = 25) of the respondents with managerial and professional occupations are ethnocentric compared to a majority of 78.6% who are non-ethnocentric ($p < 0.05$). Since respondents in managerial and professional occupations are likely to have a higher education level, lower ethnocentric tendencies among respondents in managerial positions is to be expected. Table 4 summarizes the demographic profile of ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric consumers based on the chi-square cross tabulation analysis.

Table 4. Demographic Profiles of Ethnocentric and Non-Ethnocentric Consumers

	Demographic Profile
Ethnocentric	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Likely to be female • Likely to be Malay • Likely to be married • Likely to be educated until high school or below • Likely to be in clerical or production operator jobs • Likely to be in lower income group
Non-Ethnocentric	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Likely to be male • Likely to be Chinese or Indian • Likely to be single • Likely to have college or university degree • Likely to be an executive or manager • Likely to be in higher income group

4.3. Lifestyle Dimensions

A factor analysis was performed on the 56-lifestyle statements to identify the underlying dimensions of lifestyles. Principle components analysis extracted 17 factors with eigenvalues of 1.0 and above. The total variance

explained was 64.1%. Using the Scree plot, it was determined that eight factors would be sufficient to adequately represent the data (See Table 5).

Table 6 summarizes the eight dimensions extracted using the Varimax rotation method with the respective Cronbach's alpha values. Factor I, labelled 'Family and Home Concerned', depicts consumers who are very concerned with the well being of their family members and condition of their home. They tend to put the importance of their family and home above everything else. Factor II, 'Practicality and Socially Active' portrays individuals with an orientation towards involvement in social and community organizations and functions. They also tend to be practical and like to keep their activities simple. Factor III, labelled as 'Price Conscious' refers to consumers who are conscious about price and will pay close attention to prices and special sales to benefit from bargain purchases. Factor IV, 'Leadership and Self Confidence', reflects individuals who are strong believers in their personal ability and are likely to display leadership characteristics. They also tend to be people who are very confident in nature.

Factor V, 'Carefree Personality', are individuals who prefer to take things easy and are likely to avoid unnecessary difficulties or tough tasks. Factor VI, labelled 'Adventurous and Optimistic', portrays those who love to travel and seek adventures and outings. They also tend to be very independent and optimistic in nature. Factor VII, 'Appearance and Health Conscious', reflects individuals who are very fashion conscious and are concerned with the way they look in public. They tend to keep up to date with the current fashion. They are also concerned about their health. Last of all, Factor VIII, labelled 'Sports Oriented' refers to individuals who take pleasure in either participating directly in sports activities or by watching sporting events such as car racing or football games.

4.4. Ethnocentrism and Lifestyle Dimensions

Table 7 shows a comparison of ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric consumers along the lifestyle dimensions using the student t-test. Ethnocentric consumers and non-ethnocentric consumers differ significantly in six of the eight life-style dimensions. These dimensions are: family and home concern ($p=0.001$), practicality and socially active ($p=0.001$), price conscious ($p=0.004$), leadership and self-confidence ($p=0.024$), carefree personality ($p=0.001$) and appearance and health conscious ($p=0.001$). No significant difference is found for sports orientation and adventurous and optimism. Compared to non-ethnocentric consumers, ethnocentric consumers are more family-oriented and home concerned, price conscious and are also concerned about their appearance and health. They are carefree, practical and community conscious individuals and have the tendency to exhibit a high degree of leadership and self confidence.

Table 5. Factor Loadings of the Lifestyle Dimensions

Factor 1	Factor loading
I would like to know how to sew like an expert.	0.476
I find cleaning my house an unpleasant task.	-0.643
I do not volunteer work at a hospital or service organization on a fairly regular basis.	0.359
I try to arrange my home for my family's convenience.	0.425
I have used diet food for at least one meal a day.	0.440
I cook and frequently do.	0.575
I am uncomfortable when my house is not completely clean.	0.586
I enjoy most forms of housework.	0.759
I like to pay cash for everything I buy.	0.415
I do not like to see children's toys lying around.	0.482
I usually keep my house very neat and clean.	0.626
Factor 2	
I am an active member of more than one service organization.	0.475
I depend on canned food for at least one meal a day.	0.578
When I must choose between the two, I usually dress.	0.569
I could not get along without canned food.	0.572
I like to work on community projects.	0.362
Things just do not taste right if they do not come out of a can.	0.592
I often try the latest hairdo styles when they change.	0.651
I often make my own or my children's clothes.	0.570
Factor 3	
I shop for specials.	0.581
I find myself comparing the prices in the grocery stores even for small items.	0.533
I usually watch the advertisements for announcement of sales.	0.803
A person can save a lot of money by shopping around for bargains.	0.403
I often try new stores before my friends and neighbours do	0.435
I sometimes influence what my friends buy.	0.383
I spend a lot of time talking with my friends about products and brands.	0.473
People come to me more often than I go to them for information about brands.	0.437
I usually watch the advertisements for best buy campaigns.	0.787
Factor 4	
I think I have more self-confidence than most people.	0.702
It's good to have credit cards.	0.350
I am more independent than most people.	0.664

Table 5 (continued)

I think I have a lot of personal ability.	0.600
I like to be considered a leader.	0.669
My friends and neighbours often come to me for advice.	0.383
I take a lot of time and effort to teach my family good habits.	0.370
Factor 5	
My idea of housekeeping is it should be a simple chore.	0.392
I would rather spend a quiet evening at home than go out to a party.	0.639
You can save a lot of money by making your own clothes.	0.643
I will probably have more money to spend next year than I have now.	0.390
Factor 6	
I would like to take a trip around the world.	0.575
Five years from now, the family income will probably be a lot higher than now.	0.662
I would like to spend a year in a foreign country.	0.624
Factor 7	
I usually have one or more outfits that are the latest style.	0.479
My family members are the most important things in my life.	0.511
I buy more low-calorie food than the average person.	0.437
An important part of my life and activities is dressing smartly.	0.465
Factor 8	
I would rather go to a sporting event than a dance.	0.660
I participate in sports activities regularly.	0.530
I like to watch or listen to football or racing car programmes.	0.384

Table 6. Lifestyle Dimensions and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficient

Factor	Dimensions of Lifestyle	Cronbach's Alpha	Variance Explained
I	Family and Home Concerned	0.621	11.09
II	Practicality and Socially Active	0.736	7.94
III	Price Conscious	0.747	7.40
IV	Leadership and Self Confidence	0.702	4.87
V	Carefree Personality	0.524	4.30
VI	Adventurous and Optimistic	0.656	3.18
VII	Appearance and Health Conscious	0.379	2.89
VIII	Sports Oriented	0.481	2.72

4.5. Discriminant Analysis

While the test of significance of the differences in the mean values of the characteristics (t-test) provides an initial insight into the differences between ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric consumers, it fails to recognize the interrelationships that may exist among the lifestyle dimensions and demographic variables. Discriminant analysis takes into consideration such interrelationships and enables all variables to be examined simultaneously. In addition, it determines the weights of each variable in such a way that the linear combinations of all variables will best discriminate between ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric consumers. The discriminant model selected has 16 variables, the eight demographic variables and eight lifestyle dimensions extracted. The discriminant function correctly classifies 79.9% of the respondents into their actual groups (Table 8). The groups centroids (means) indicates a fairly high degree of separation, -0.570 for non-ethnocentric consumers versus 0.951 for ethnocentric consumers.

The summary results of the discriminant analysis are in Table 9. The Wilk's Lambda value is moderately high at 0.647. The eigenvalue and canonical correlation are moderate at 0.546 and 0.594. Table 10 shows the standardized discriminant coefficients for the variables.

Table 7. Group Mean Scores for Lifestyle Dimensions of Ethnocentric and Non-Ethnocentric Consumers

Factor	Dimensions of Lifestyle	Ethnocentric	Non-Ethnocentric	Significance
I	Family and Home Concern	53.74	46.23	$P = 0.001$
II	Practicality and Socially Active	24.46	21.21	$p = 0.001$
III	Price Conscious	37.88	35.41	$p = 0.004$
IV	Leadership and Self Confidence	29.06	27.83	$p = 0.024$
V	Carefree Personality	19.74	17.67	$p = 0.001$
VI	Adventurous and Optimism	19.86	20.65	$p = 0.087$
VII	Appearance and Health Conscious	19.93	18.37	$p = 0.001$
VIII	Sports Oriented	13.28	12.78	ns

Table 8. Confusion Matrix

Actual Group	Predicted Group Membership	
	Ethnocentric	Non-Ethnocentric
Ethnocentric	80.5%	19.5%
Non-Ethnocentric	20.4%	79.6%
Percentage correctly classified		79.9%

The Standardized Discriminant Coefficient is an indicator of the relative importance of the variables as discriminators (Green, Tull and Albaum, 1998). Family and home concerned dimension emerges as the most important variable, followed by ethnicity. The third important variable is personal income, followed by leadership and self-confidence, marital status and the adventurous and optimistic factor, respectively. A Stepwise Discriminant analysis was performed to provide an insight into the discriminating power of the variables. Table 11 shows the summary results of the stepwise discriminant analysis. The Wilk's Lambda value is moderately high at 0.686. However, the eigenvalue and canonical correlation are moderate at 0.458 and 0.560. The results are consistent with all the variables in the standardized discriminant analysis.

Table 9. Standardized Discriminant Analysis between Ethnocentric and Non-Ethnocentric Consumers

Discriminant Function	Eigenvalue	Canonical Correlation	Wilk's Lambda	Chi-Square Significance
1	0.546	0.594	0.647	0.001

Table 10. Standardized Discriminant Coefficients

Item	Variable	Coefficient
X1	Gender	-0.044
X2	Age	0.100
X3	Ethnicity	-0.388
X4	Marital Status	0.238
X5	Education Level	0.022
X6	Occupation	-0.051
X7	Personal Income	-0.372
X8	Household Income	-0.147
F1	Family and Home Concerned	0.601
F2	Practicality and Society Active	0.177
F3	Price Conscious	0.047
F4	Leadership and Self Confidence	0.250
F5	Carefree Personality	-0.065
F6	Adventurous and Optimism	-0.235
F7	Appearance and Health Conscious	0.134
F8	Sports Oriented	0.162

The standardized and stepwise discriminant analysis shows the first two variables entered in the stepwise analysis are the same as the two most important variables ranked according to the standardized discrimination coefficient: family and home concerned dimension and ethnicity. Thus, we can summarize from the stepwise discriminant analysis that the most important variables in discriminating ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric consumers are the family and home concerned dimension, followed by the ethnicity, household income and marital status and lastly sports oriented dimension.

5. Discussion

About 39% of the respondents are ethnocentric and 61% non-ethnocentric. In general, ethnocentric consumers are most likely to be a Malay female, working as a clerk or production operator and likely to be married. They are

Table 11. Results of Stepwise Discriminant Analysis between Ethnocentric and Non-Ethnocentric Consumers

Discriminant Function	Eigenvalue	Canonical Correlation	Wilk's Lambda	Chi-Square Significance
1	0.458	0.560	0.686	0.001

Step	Entered	Wilk's Lambda	Significance	Factor/Variable
1	F1	0.848	0.001	Family and Home Concerned
2	X3	0.715	0.001	Ethnicity
3	X8	0.719	0.001	Household Income
4	X4	0.697	0.001	Marital Status
5	F8	0.696	0.001	Sports Oriented

also most likely to be educated only up to high school or lower. In terms of monthly household income, the ethnocentric consumers are most likely to be in the low-income groups. Results of the present study are similar to the study of Mokhlis, Kamaruddin and Othman (2001) who reported that Malays have a stronger ethnocentric tendency compared to the other races in Malaysia.

Discriminant analysis shows that the family and home concerned dimension is the most significant psychographic dimension in differentiating between ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric consumers followed by the sports oriented dimension. In terms of demographics, ethnicity, household income and marital status are important in discriminating ethnocentric consumers from the non-ethnocentric consumers. The fact that income emerged as an important discriminator is hardly surprising as ethnocentric consumers tend to be in less well paid jobs.

Research results from this study indicate that CETSCALE can be applied to an Asian country with a multi-ethnic background. This study supports the suggestion by Kaynak and Kara (1996) to have the scale translated to different languages to test its validity. In addition, this study has expanded the study on ethnocentrism further by performing a discriminant analysis to correctly predict an ethnocentric and a non-ethnocentric consumer along their lifestyle dimensions and demographic variables.

To marketers, an understanding of ethnocentric tendency among urban consumers allows them to apply their segmentation strategies more effectively by using ethnocentrism alongside demographic variables and

psychographic dimensions. In communication strategies, marketers can capitalize on the “made-in” theme when marketing local products to ethnocentric consumers. Product placement in local popular films or television drama series can also be considered when marketing local products. This may elicit more attention from ethnocentric consumers who are also likely to watch local shows. To further overcome the effect of ethnocentrism for imported products, co-branding with a local channel member can be employed to change the perception and attitude of consumers towards imported products. Whereas for the non-ethnocentric consumers, who tend to be better educated, single, non-Malay, and have a higher income, the advertising theme could be based on adventures, fun and an optimistic outlook.

This study has two major limitations. The first stems from the data collection which makes use of convenience sampling resulting in limited generalization of the findings. Future research should overcome this by conducting a more comprehensive research that takes into account the issue of representativeness of the sample so that greater generalizability of the ethnocentric tendency of Malaysian consumers is achieved. Secondly, this study has not included the purchase behaviour of respondents with respect to “made-in” Malaysia and imported products. Future research should examine other variables such as purchase intentions for products (for selected categories) so that Pearson product correlation can be used to test the correlations between ethnocentrism and purchase behaviour.

6. Conclusion

As a conclusion, when ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric consumers are compared in terms of demographic variables using chi-square tests, five out of six variables are found to be significant. When the two groups are compared in terms of lifestyle variables using t-tests, six out of eight variables are found to be significant.

However, when discriminant analysis was utilized putting all the 14 independent variables together, five variables are found to be significant in differentiating ethnocentric from non-ethnocentric consumers. Three of the variables are demographic variables and two are lifestyle variables. The three demographic variables are ethnicity, household income, and marital status. The two lifestyle variables are family and home concerned and sports oriented. The five variables are able to classify-correctly 79.9 per cent of the cases studied.

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