



**An Empirical Examination of the Effect of  
National Identity on Willingness to Pay for Local  
Origin Products:  
A Focus on Egyptian Consumers**

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by

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## **Dedication**

The PhD journey is considered challenging for everyone in their own way. The details of this challenge make everyone's journey unique and worthy. I never imagined or planned for many events throughout my PhD journey, like losing a baby and going through a pandemic. Many of my PhD journey details cannot even be put into words. All I can say is that I didn't have the luxury to cave in or reflect on those details. Instead, I reflected on the motivations that gave me the strength to stay strong during tough times. With the never-ending support of my family and supervisors, I wasn't afraid to start all over again because I was starting from experience, not from scratch. I never took the acquired support for granted; it only made me want to be better. I realised that I am my own hero, standing in the way of difficulties and challenges and braving through the down.

To my mother, father, brother and husband, thank you for your continuous support. Thank you for continuously believing in me and my capabilities when I could not deem to see them. Thank you from all my heart.

To my daughters, sometimes the world may underestimate you. March through and show the world who you are. Keep the faith and keep growing. Remember, you are strong, you are capable, and you are beautiful and unique in your own way.

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## **Abstract**

Building on social identity theory, this study develops and investigates a conceptual model that assesses the effect national identity has on the willingness to pay for local origin products. A systematic literature review highlighted the theoretical and managerial research gaps that are evident from a developing country's perspective. To better understand the link between national identity and willingness to pay for locally sourced goods, this study looks at the role of several mediating variables such as negative evaluations of foreign products, reluctance to buy foreign products, participation in the purchase decision process, self-categorisation and the perceived quality of domestic products in Egypt. These mediating effects are also examined under the moderating role of conservation values (tradition, security and conformity). An online survey of 794 respondents revealed that (a) a negative evaluation towards foreign products, (b) a reluctance to buy foreign products, (c) and perceived quality of domestic products were shown to mediate the effect of national identity on willingness to pay for local origin products. Accordingly, Egyptian consumers tend to prefer domestic products over foreign ones to satisfy their sense of national identity and maintain a positive social identity among members of their in-group (home nation). These findings extend social identity theory, where members of the in-group are expected to behave in favour of that in-group, but this does not necessarily suggest refusing foreign products in the case of a lack of domestic alternatives or domestic products of inferior quality. The study also empirically examines the construct of national identity within an Arab and developing country context where very limited research has been conducted. An important takeaway for managers is the importance of considering Egyptian consumers' level of national identification and how it manifests itself in their purchasing behaviour.

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## List of Abbreviations

$\alpha$ : Cronbach's alpha

CCA: Confirmatory Composite Analysis

CE: Consumer Ethnocentrism

CMB: Common Method Bias

COO: Country-of-Origin

CR: Composite Reliability

EFA: Exploratory Factor Analysis

NI: National Identity

PDI: Purchase Decision Involvement

PQ: Product Quality

SCT: Self-Categorisation

SEM: Structural Equation Modeling

SI: Social Identity

SIT: Social Identity Theory

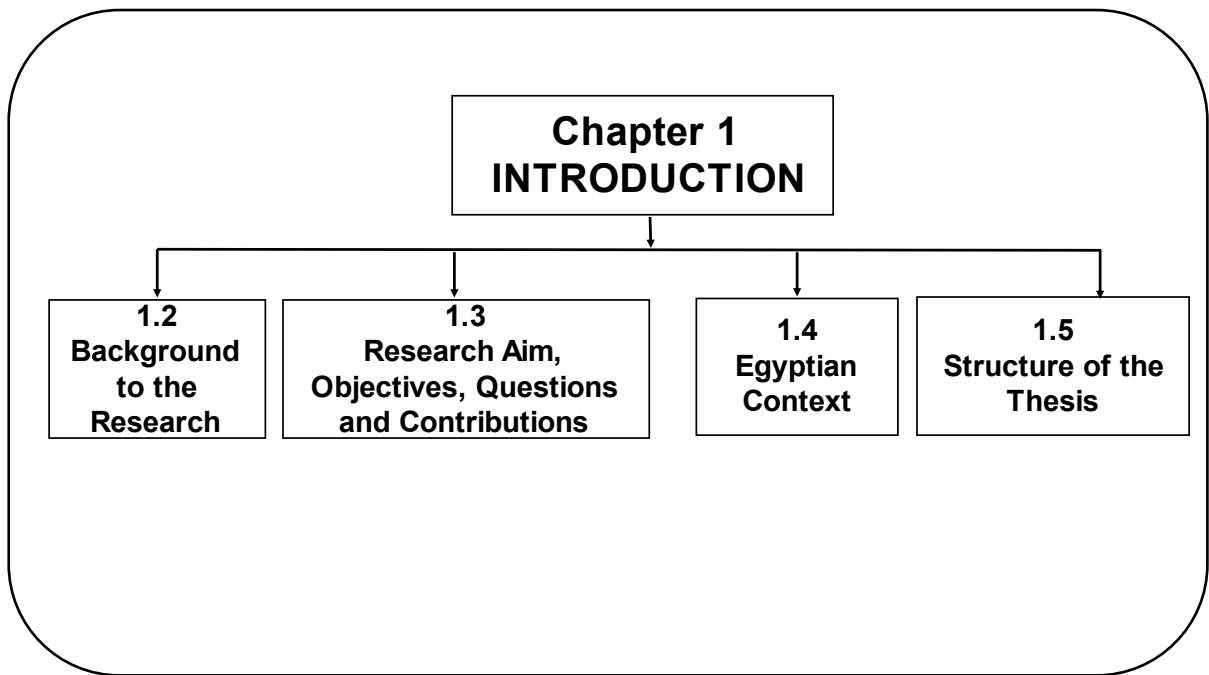
WTP: Willingness to Pay

# Chapter 1 : INTRODUCTION

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## 1.1 Introduction

This chapter starts by providing an insight into the nature of this research and a background overview. This introduction leads into formulating the research questions, main aim and objectives of this study. This is followed by presenting the contributions of this study. Moreover, the thesis structure is outlined, including a brief overview of the subsequent chapters. Finally, a brief overview is provided on the country where the research is conducted. Figure 1.1 demonstrates the structure of this chapter.



**Figure 1.1 Structure of Chapter One**

## **1.2 Background to the Research**

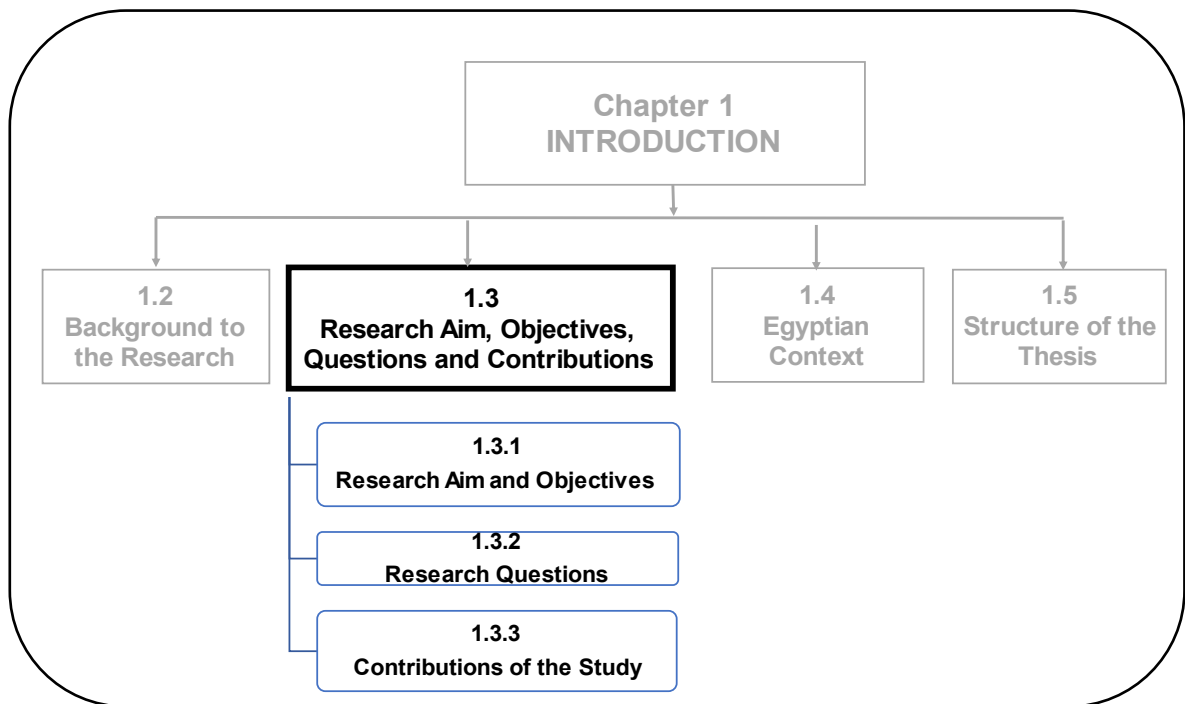
Intense competition between domestic and international goods has emerged due to the modern consumer's globalisation of knowledge, sophistication, and perspectives (Agbonifoh and Elimimian, 1999). The heightened competition has pushed manufacturers to produce a wide range of products and qualities to meet the needs and preferences of a wide range of consumers. Consumers around the world were inspired by Ohmae's vision in 1992, when he put forth a plan to increase access to foreign goods in a "borderless world." Globalization and its associated trade policies, as articulated by scholars such as Wang and Chen (2004) and Upadhyay and Singh (2006), have helped to support this vision. With these ideas and visions, consumers had access to an enormous range of products with varying quality and price points available. This rapid expansion of global brands into local markets is a result of globalisation (Wang et al., 2017). While the consumption patterns in developing markets have been the focus of a majority of research in this area, it is now critical to direct the focus to emerging and developing markets as well. The World Trade Organization (WTO) classifies its members as either developed or developing and classifies emerging markets as synonymous with developing countries (Burgess and Steenkamp, 2006). Consumers in developing economies are keener on participating in the global consumer economy (Venkatesh and Swamy, 1994). Accordingly, consumers may purchase foreign-made and imported products to integrate into the global community. Nonetheless, it has been pointed out that "in developing countries, not all consumers may follow this behaviour" (Venkatesh and Swamy, 1994, pp. 207), hence the necessity to pay attention to the diverse consumer trends worldwide. Moreover, Klein et al. (1998, p.89) noted that "marketers are showing a growing

interest in understanding the factors that affect the consumer's evaluation and selection of imported and foreign-made goods". This calls for further elaborations on the trends of consumers worldwide who are more exposed to an unprecedented wide range of foreign brands.

It is vital to point out that this research does not intend to compare the context in developing and developed countries. The main aim is to examine the effect of the National Identity (NI) of Egyptian consumers on the Willingness to Pay for local origin products. According to the International Monetary Fund, Egypt is classified under Emerging Markets and Developing Economies (International Monetary Fund, April 2021). Therefore, this must be taken into consideration while conducting the current study.

### 1.3 Research Aim, Objectives, Questions and Contributions

The succeeding sub-sections represent the main research aim and the objectives accompanying this primary aim of the current study. In addition, the research questions of the current research are highlighted. Finally, the contributions of this study are emphasized in the last sub-section. Figure 1.2 illustrates the structure of section 1.3.



**Figure 1.2 Structure of Section 1.3 – Research Aim, Objectives, Questions and Contributions**

### 1.3.1 Research Aim and Objectives

The main research aim is to examine the effect of the National Identity of Egyptian consumers on the Willingness to Pay for local origin products. The following objectives accompany this primary aim:

1. To conduct a Systematic Literature Review on National Identity.
2. To examine the relationship between Egyptian consumers' National Identity and their Willingness to Pay for local origin products.
3. To identify and test potential mediatory mechanisms (i.e., Evaluation of Foreign Products, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products, Purchase Decision Involvement, Self-Categorisation and Perceived Quality), which explain why National Identity affects Willingness to Pay for local origin products.
4. To test if, and to what extent, consumer values (especially conservation) influence the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products.
5. To develop a new and tested conceptual framework that details the different factors contributing to, or detracting from, Egyptian consumers' Willingness to Pay for local origin products.

### 1.3.2 Research Questions

The current study offers answers to the following research questions:

**RQ.1:** Does National Identity have an effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products?

**RQ.2:** Does National Identity influence Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Evaluation of Foreign Products?

**RQ.3:** Does National Identity influence Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products?

**RQ.4:** Does National Identity influence Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Purchase Decision Involvement?

**RQ.5:** Does National Identity influence Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Self-Categorisation?

**RQ.6:** Does National Identity influence Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Perceived Quality?

**RQ.7:** What is the impact of National Identity and Value Orientations (conservation) on Willingness to Pay for local origin products?

#### 1.3.3 Contributions of the Study

- To extend our knowledge about National Identity and Consumer Behaviour to Egyptian consumers, a scarcity of research has been conducted to provide insight into Egyptian consumers.
- Allow testing of the existing National Identity measurement model to find out whether it is competent in explaining Egyptian consumers' Willingness to Pay for local origin products.
- To contribute to the existing literature by employing Schwartz's (1992) personal value system of consumers (traditional value orientations) to examine (and properly explore) the association between National Identity and

the process of product evaluation and Willingness to Pay for local origin products (for Egyptian consumers).

- To provide insights that help practitioners in the Egyptian markets attract and maintain more customers towards purchasing products of Egyptian origin by introducing a tested conceptual framework that details the different causes for their Willingness to Pay for local origin products.

## **1.4 Egyptian Context**

When it comes to marketing journals, it has been recognised by some scholars that the research carried out in the Middle East (ME) and African region is scarce and scattered (Onyancha, 2011). Burgess and Steenkamp (2006) previously highlighted this gap, outlining concern that this lack of research would hinder the development of new constructs and unconventional thinking. As a result, scholars such as Okazaki and Mueller (2007) and Fastoso and Whitelock (2010 and 2011) have recognised the importance of conducting research in Africa and ME. Lages et al. (2015) suggested that researchers are being held back from advancing in international marketing theory when conducting most research in developed markets and neglecting the Emerging Markets (EMs). Existing international marketing theories might convey different meanings and results in other contexts. These differences are related to theory and managerial and governmental practices (Lages et al., 2015). Therefore, this research will be conducted in Egypt, an African country sharing some Middle Eastern traits.

Egypt is a developing country in North Africa with a population of 106,437,241 (CIA World Factbook, 2021). According to Elaraby (2017), it is considered one of the

largest economies in North Africa, with political, economic and social advancement, and most importantly, a rising consuming class. On the 25<sup>th</sup> of January 2011, the Egyptian revolution brought transformative events in political and economic domains. However, the economic transformation has fallen into a vicious cycle since then and has not yet reaped the benefits of the corrective hopes behind the revolution. As a result, it is essential to note that the potential to gain valuable results contributing to Egypt's current literature and research is undisputed.

When it comes to explaining Egyptian consumer behaviour, the majority of the research conducted covered various subjects such as green consumption (Mostafa, 2006, 2007), environmental friendliness and environmental awareness, ethical consumption (Al-Khatib et al., 1997; Mostafa, 2011), Corporate Social Responsibility, ethics educational and cause-related marketing (Carrigan and Attalla, 2001; Ellen et al., 2006; Tantawi et al., 2009; El Bassiouny et al., 2011; Kolkailah et al., 2012; Hammad et al., 2014). Despite the popularity of National Identity as a research topic, studies have mainly focused on the perspective of western and developed countries (Hammad et al., 2014). A scarcity of research undertaken in Egypt (an Arab developing country) in the field of National Identity encouraged this research to remedy the void in the literature. Furthermore, the existing literature conducted in other Arab countries does not encourage generalising the results among all Arab countries (Cui and Adams, 2002). Therefore, from a theoretical point of view, this research aims to extend our knowledge about National Identity and consumer behaviour to Egyptian consumers, where little research has been conducted. Moreover, this study will allow testing of the existing National Identity measurement

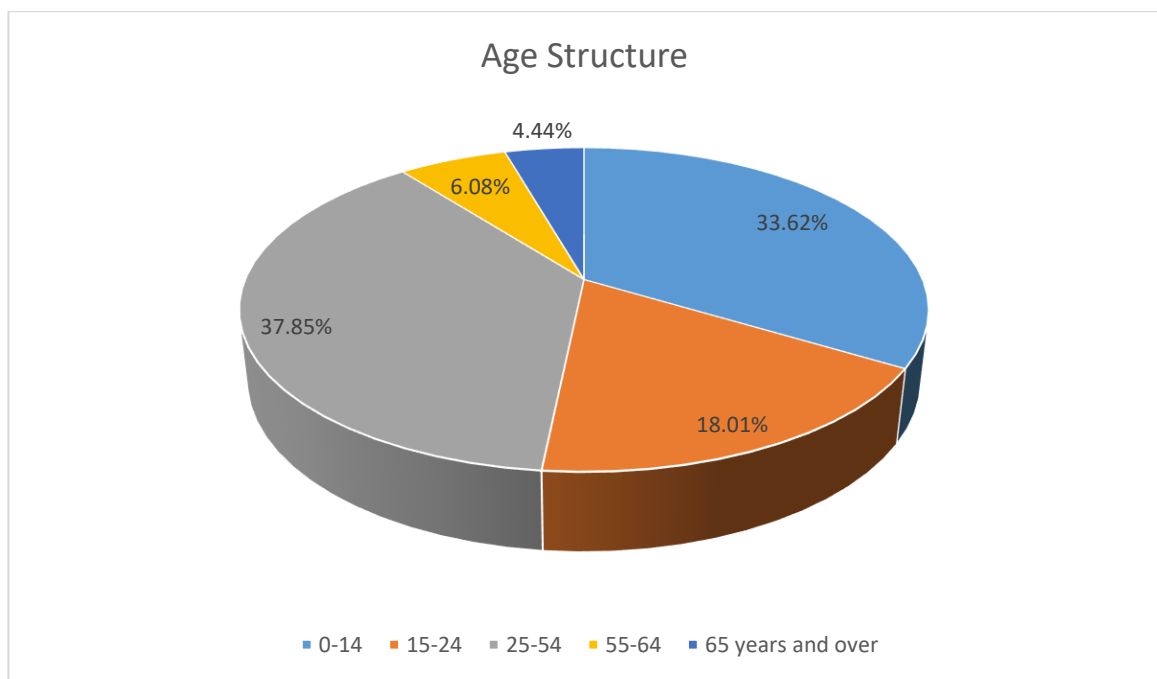
model to observe its ability to explain Egyptian consumers' Willingness to Pay for local products.

For this study, demographic characteristics, gender and age in particular, are useful in understanding the gender and age groups of the Egyptian population. The age and gender characteristics offer significant information regarding the descriptive profile for this research. Moreover, it is significant to explore the trading aspects of Egypt to gain an insight regarding the estimated expenditure on imported and foreign-made products.

#### 1.4.1 Demographics

Egypt, situated in Northern Africa, has an estimated total population of 106,437,241 (CIA world factbook, 2021). The gender ratio of the Egyptian population is divided into 53,203,274 males (49.9%) and 53,233,967 females (50%) (CIA world factbook, 2021).

The age structure is divided into five categories. Age ranges from 25 – 54 years has the largest range, with a 37.85% share of the total population. This is followed by an age range of 0 – 14 at 33.62% and 15-24 at 18%. Finally, over 65 is represented at 4% of the total population. The CIA World Factbook introduced this estimated age structure for 2020, as demonstrated in Figure 1.3.



**Source:** CIA world factbook (2021)

**Figure 1.3 Age Structure of Egyptian Population**

#### 1.4.2 Trading

This final section represents relevant information and facts about relevant trading activities conducted in Egypt. For the purpose of enhancing knowledge related to this study, a specific focus will be granted to foreign-made and imported goods. The main imported commodities include fuels, medicines, wheat, electronics, and care (CIA world factbook, 2019). In 2020, the estimated import expenditure was \$72.48 Billion, and the key partners were China 15%, Russia 7%, the United States 6%, Germany 5% and Turkey 5% (CIA world factbook, 2021).

## 1.5 Structure of the Thesis

This study is divided into seven chapters that aim to provide a comprehensive and organised research process and contribution. The thesis structure is as follows:

**Chapter 1:** includes a brief introduction to the topic and geographic focus of this research. In addition, the research aim, objectives, and questions are stated, along with the contributions of the current study.

**Chapter 2:** is considered the backbone of the current research, which introduces the literature review. This chapter presents a critical review of the literature regarding constructs of National Identity, Consumer Ethnocentrism, Country-of-Origin, Values, Involvement and Perceived Quality. In addition, a systematic literature review encompassing National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism is presented.

**Chapter 3:** provides an outline of the research framework driven by the systematic literature review conducted in the previous chapter. The proposed research framework illustrates the direct and indirect relationships between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for Local Origin Products. Moreover, the developed conceptual model is accompanied by the proposed research hypotheses derived from the literature review for the current study.

**Chapter 4:** presents the theory of the research and methodological considerations. This substantive chapter explains the approach and strategy employed in this research, as well as the data collection method (instrument, pre-testing, piloting, and sample characteristics) and ethical considerations applied in the current study.

**Chapter 5:** provides an illustration of the collected primary data, including a coverage of the quantitative data analysis and the necessary analysis to test the proposed hypotheses. This analysis, in turn, facilitates answering the research questions and addressing the research aim and objectives.

**Chapter 6:** offers a discussion of the findings of the data analysis provided in the previous chapter. This discussion includes linking the results of the current study to the existing literature.

**Chapter 7:** is the final primary section of the document, where the summary of the key findings of the current study is presented. Moreover, the theoretical and managerial implications are discussed alongside contributions to policymakers and society. Finally, this chapter will demonstrate the practical limitations of the current study and the future recommendations to improve and advance the research field.

## **Chapter 2 : LITERATURE REVIEW**

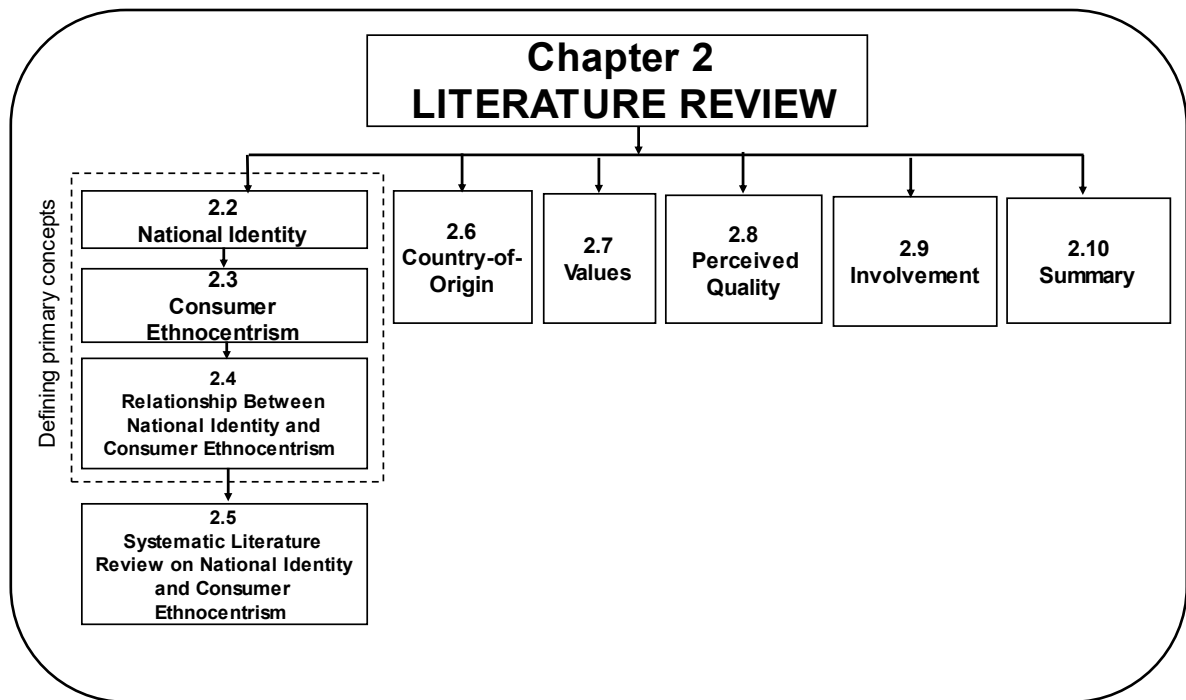
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### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter aims to critically review the literature relevant to National Identity, Consumer Ethnocentrism, Country-of-Origin, Values, Perceived Quality and Involvement. This chapter is divided into eight sections. The first section starts with an overview of the definitions and dimensions of the construct of National Identity. The purpose behind this is to critically review the literature regarding the various proposed definitions in previous key studies. This will provide suitable conceptual definitions that match the purpose of the current study. Furthermore, Social Identity Theory, which is the theoretical foundation of this research, is presented. The second section describes the theoretical construct of Consumer Ethnocentrism. This is followed by section three, which provides a critical review that explores the relationship between National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism. This is important to explore the literature further, encouraging linking or disentangling the two constructs and discussing research gaps. In section four, a Systematic Literature Review for National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism is developed to enhance understanding of the relationship between the two constructs. The Systematic Literature Review includes 20 fundamental previous key studies related to National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism from 1987 to 2019. Section five discusses the Country-of-Origin construct by providing background information, definitions and highlighting the importance of investigating this construct. Values are discussed in section six, where Schwartz's Dimensions are emphasized. Moreover, section seven explores the background and relevant information regarding the construct of

perceived quality. Finally, section eight investigates the construct of involvement.

Figure 2.1 demonstrates the structure of this chapter.

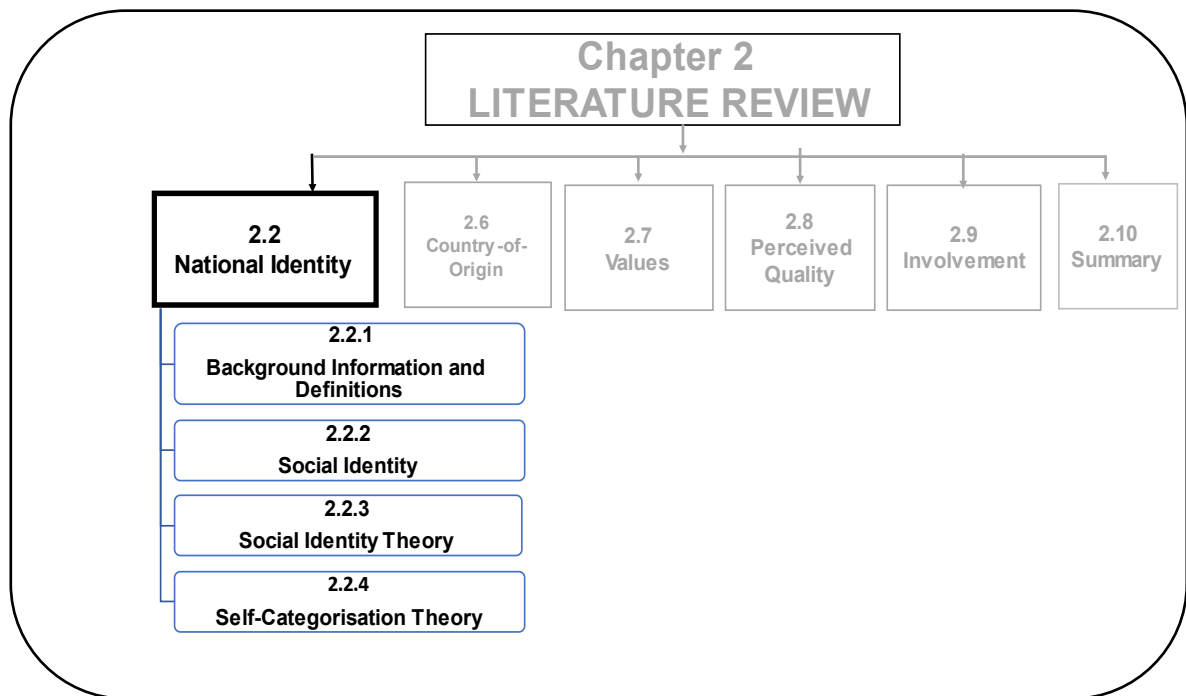


**Figure 2.1 Structure of Chapter Two**

## **2.2 National Identity**

In 1964, Terhune explained how a nation achieves personal relevance for individuals when they become sentimentally attached to their homeland. This perception is considered the means for individuals to express themselves to the outside world and is referred to by social psychologists as National Identity (NI). The construct of National Identity acts on tying the sense of belonging to a nation and the mere expression of that sense of attachment to one's nation (Yoo and Lee, 2016; Strizhakova and Coutler, 2019; Dang and Raska, 2021). Accordingly, when individuals are motivated to help their country, they gain a sense of identity and self-esteem through their national identification. As a result, it can be inferred that the sense of National Identity is considered to define and locate individuals of a nation within the world (Carvalho and Luna, 2014; Malhotra and Ramalingam, 2022). This is vital for individuals to understand who they are in a complex world and under the undeniable impact of globalisation.

In order to further understand the construct of National Identity and how it is employed in the current research, it is important to commence with background information and definitions. Following this, Social Identity Theory, the basis of this research, will be introduced and thoroughly discussed. Figure 2.2 highlights the structure of section 2.2 of National Identity.



**Figure 2.2 Structure of Section 2.2 – National Identity**

### 2.2.1 Background Information and Definitions

The construct of National Identity has developed and evolved throughout the years and is as relevant today as it was at the beginning of the last century. Smith (1991) used the term National Identity to refer to a special form of social identity where several interrelated components (ethnic, cultural, territorial, economic and legal-political) all link the self with a specific country in the form of in-groups. Furthermore, National Identity has been examined and defined by several scholars such as Clark (1990), Huntington (1997), Keillor et al. (1996), Keillor and Hult (1999), Thompson (2001), Blank and Schmidt (2003), Thelen and Honeycutt (2004) and Karkatsoulis et al. (2005). But for this research, the most relevant definitions were the ones presented by Thompson (2001), Blank and Schmidt (2003), Thelen and Honeycutt (2004) and Karkatsoulis et al. (2005).

To begin with, in 2001, Thompson described how “individuals are perceived as behaving in a certain way because their belief in collective national values ensures that they do so” (2001, p.25). This is because National Identity is represented in the form of in-group bias resulting solely from a person’s feeling of attachment to the in-group (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). For instance, in Egypt, an example can be given of how some businesses were a recipient of a wide in-group biased movement (Carvalho et al., 2019). A populist movement to boycott American products began in Egypt in 2000 due to political dissatisfaction over US foreign policy in the region generally and in Egypt specifically. Egyptians were urged to boycott American goods, as a result, threatening the sales of several businesses, including, for example, Pepsi and Pantene shampoo (Djerdjarian, 2003). Moreover, “the importance of national affiliation and the subjective significance of an inner bond with the nation” were highlighted (Blank and Schmidt, 2003, p.296). This is an important contribution within the context of this research and was complemented by Karkatsoulis et al. (2005, p.581), who considered National Identity to be a social phenomenon that “involves feeling proud to be the national of a particular country, appreciating the nation’s problems and participating in problem-solving”. The reason behind emphasising these definitions is that they are of the most significance to this research. In this research, it is key to acknowledge that an individual takes pride in being involved with his/her in-group. For instance, it is manifested that consumers tend to be more concerned with the product they purchase when they associate value outcomes (functional, social and psychological) with the use of this product (Roe and Bruwer, 2017; Bartikowski et al., 2021). This feeling of involvement and pride is motivated by values that ensure that individuals act in a collectivist manner

(beliefs, attitudes and behaviours towards in-group members), are aware of the in-group's problems and actively participate in solving them.

All in all, the various definitions describing National Identity are illustrated in Table 2.1.

**Table 2.1: Review of Key Definitions of National Identity**

Sources	Definition
<b>Smith (1991. p.9)</b>	Used the term NI to refer to a special form of social identity with several interrelated components (ethnic, cultural, territorial, economic, and legal-political), all of which link the self with a specific country in the form of in-groups.
<b>Keillor et al. (1996, p.59)</b>	The construct of NI acts on tying "subcultures together within national boundaries".
<b>Keillor and Hult (1999, p. 66 and 67)</b>	- "The theoretical construct of national identity is built around the notion that there is a relatively limited number of unique elements, which sets the culture apart and enables it to exist, associated with any given culture which make up its national identity" (p. 66). - Provides a "sense of national character" (p. 67).
<b>Thompson (2001, p.25)</b>	"Individuals are perceived as behaving in a certain way because their belief in collective national values ensures that they do so".
<b>Blank (2003, p.260)</b>	"Varies on a positive-negative continuum, which stretches from a negative identity (in the sense of an explicit contra-identity) to a positive identity with a nation".
<b>Blank and Schmidt (2003, p. 296)</b>	"The importance of national affiliation as well as the subjective significance of an inner bond with the nation".
<b>Thelen and Honeycutt (2004, p.59)</b>	National identity refers to how societies relate to their unique characteristics.
<b>Karkatsoulis et al. (2005, p. 581)</b>	A social phenomenon that "involves feeling proud to be the national of a particular country, appreciating the nation's problems and participating in problem-solving".
<b>Carvalho and Luna (2014, p.1027)</b>	It can be inferred that the sense of national identity is considered to define and locate individuals of a nation within the world

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<b>Carvalho et al. (2019, p. 312)</b>	A sense of national identity “provides a powerful means of defining and locating individual selves in the world, allowing a person to gain an idea of who they are in this globalized and complex world.”
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A National Identity framework was developed by Herskovits (1948), Huntington (1993; 1996), and Keillor et al. (1996), aiming to go beyond the personality and behavioural characteristics considering the influence on the international marketing environment (Phau and Chan, 2003). Furthermore, Keillor and Hult (1999) suggested four National Identity dimensions: Belief System, National Heritage, Cultural Homogeneity and Ethnocentrism (Keillor and Hult, 1999). The four dimensions include elements used in measuring the level of NI. While all four dimensions are significant in measuring the sense of National Identity, a special emphasis will be given to Ethnocentrism from a consumer’s perspective. Being a unique form of ethnocentrism, consumer ethnocentrism constitutes the economic motives of the in-group bias (avoiding foreign products that threaten domestic industries and employment rates) (Verlegh, 2007; Balabanis and Siamagka, 2022).

But then again, National Identity is not only about individuals identifying themselves as members of a nation. It is about satisfying the obligations that arise from the sense of national identification (Carvalho and Luna, 2005; Spielman et al., 2020). Furthermore, the strength of National Identity plays a role in how individuals express it. For instance, a strong sense of National Identity entails a high commitment to supporting the economy and welfare of one’s country (Verlegh, 2007; Mishra et al., 2022). It has been highlighted that individuals with a strong sense of National Identity

are willing to choose local products over foreign ones even if they cost more, desiring to help the country's economy (Yoo and Lee, 2016).

On the other hand, several studies have detected in-group members' evaluation in terms of balancing the preference for domestic products and reality (Supphellen and Rittenburg, 2001; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Klein et al., 2006; Verlegh, 2007; Charton-Vachet et al., 2020; Waehning and Filieri, 2022). It was observed that consumers may not always prefer domestic products over foreign ones at any cost. That is, being affiliated with a group may not be enough to overcome price and quality weaknesses (Verlegh, 2007). This was previously stated by Lantz (1998), where the respondents demonstrated a strong sense of National Identity but did not feel obliged or able to express their national identification in their purchases. It is also important to point out that it is not recommended to examine the influence of National Identity by the degree of national development (Keillor et al. 1996). This was supported by Phau and Chan (2003), as developing countries might exhibit a strong sense of national identity while developed countries may have a weak national identity.

In the existing literature, the significant interaction between National Identity and its associated behavioural manifestations has been extensively studied in the fields of sociology, psychology, social psychology, and political science (Wooten and Galvin, 1993; Forehand and Deshpande, 2001; Forehand et al., 2002). Here a research gap was observed in terms of a lack of understanding of consumer expressions of National Identity and its effect on global business in the marketing context. Thus, to achieve the aims and objectives of this research, it is vital to explain some of the consumers' expressions of National Identity. This takes us to findings where it has

been widely accepted that the existence of a particular identity has its influences, perceptions, behaviours, and performances (Wicklund and Gollwitzer, 1982; Stryker and Serpe, 1982; Giles and Johnson, 1987; Turner et al., 1987; Hinkle and Brown, 1990; Hogg, 1992). These findings were later supported by a theory developed by Forehand et al. (2002) about how enhancing a particular identity may lead to people engaging in perceptions and behaviours consistent with this identity.

### 2.2.2 Social Identity

In the beginning, it is important to note that in consumer behaviour, social identity has been presented to be more predictive of a consumer's behaviour when this identity is precisely and clearly labelled (Tybout and Yalch, 1980; Kleine et al., 1993; Deaux et al., 1995; Laverie et al., 2002). Citrin et al. (2001) referred to National Identity as a social identity among many "co-existing and overlapping" identities and the individual's feeling of belonging and attachment to the national community (Carvalho and Luna, 2014). Social Identity is defined as "self-categories that define the individual in terms of his or her shared similarities with members of certain social categories in contrast to other social categories" (Turner et al., 1994, p. 454). This research focuses on social identity because, generally, people have many identities (Yoo and Lee, 2016). In the Egyptian context, for example, Egyptian youth are argued to suffer from identity conflicts (Ezzat, 2020), along with insurmountable obstacles such as restricted educational prospects, high unemployment rates, an increase in the average marriage age, poverty, and high emigration desires (Amin, 2013; Roushdy and Sieverding, 2015), all the while as the society holds great expectations for them, as agents of change (UNDP, 2016).

Accordingly, people may thus choose the most important identity in terms of defining their self-concept and identifying with a particular group (Kramer and Brewer, 1984; Hogg et al., 1995) and engage in behaviours that support the values and goals of that group. Self-concept stands for all the thoughts, feelings and perceptions an individual holds about him/herself (Reed, 2002). Added to this, studies over the years developed and proved that social identity is a part of one's self-concept that exists when an individual becomes a member of a social group (Tajfel, 1978, 1981; Tajfel and Turner, 1979; Turner et al., 1987, Tajfel and Turner, 2010).

However, Forehand et al. (2002) argued that the existence of an identity itself would not affect how consumers perceive and behave towards certain stimuli; rather, focusing on enhancing this existing identity is what may lead to an action. Accordingly, the enhanced identity may affect perceptions and behaviours (Stryker and Serpe, 1982; Turner et al., 1987; Giles and Johnson, 1987; Stayman and Deshpande, 1989; Hogg, 1992; Forehand and Deshpande, 2001; Forehand et al., 2002; Reed, 2004; Xu et al., 2004). Thus, the areas of self and identity can enhance our understanding of consumer behaviour (Keane, 1994) since National identity is part of the self-concept and serves as a powerful form of social identity (Smith, 1991). Turner et al. (1987) and Abrams and Hogg (1990) employed self and identity to link it to the social identity theory to explain some consumers' expressions of NI.

National tragedy, triumph, or disaster (nation-related contextual or stimulus cues) can enhance National Identity (Carvalho and Luna, 2014; Yoo and Lee, 2016). This was previously tackled by Kramer and Brewer (1984), where it was suggested that when the level of National identity is high, members of the nation feel more attached, and they become concerned about the welfare of their nation. Adding to this, it was

observed that in the presence of high levels of National Identity, an emotional significance takes place, and citizens are most likely to act in support of their national interest and welfare (Sharma et al., 1995; Yoo and Lee, 2016). Therefore, it can be concluded that individuals with a high level of National identity tend to overrate and purchase local products over foreign alternatives to do the best for the nation's welfare and survival (Sharma et al., 1995). What is more is that the preference for local products corresponds with the individual's self-concept or identity, leading to an enhanced level of National Identity (Dimofte et al., 2003; Krishen and Sirgy, 2016).

### 2.2.3 Social Identity Theory

In the 1970s, Social Identity Theory was developed by Tajfel to explain an individual's preference for in-group members (Tajfel, 1974; Tajfel and Turner, 1986; Ellemers and Haslam, 2011; Haslam et al., 2014; Losh and Nzekwe, 2017; Welbourne et al., 2017). Social Identity Theory is introduced for the current research because social identity is part of an individual's self-concept. This is due to the emotional significance for the individual of his/her perceived membership in a valued social group (Tajfel, 1981).

Social Identity Theory (SIT) examines the relationship of an individual with the in-group and explains when and why individuals identify themselves (and behave) as part of a group (Tajfel, 1974; Tajfel and Turner, 1986). According to SIT, an individual's self-image consists of personal identity and social identity (Tajfel, 1974; Tajfel and Turner, 1986; Fielding et al., 2008; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015; Jiang et al., 2016). Self-image is represented in an individual wondering: "What am I like? How good am I? What should or might I become? On what basis shall I judge myself?" (Rosenberg, 1965, p.3). Social Identity is defined as "that part of an individual's self-

concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the emotional significance attached to that membership” (Tajfel, 1974, p. 69). At the same time, social identity denotes self-image regarding group memberships that are “determined by social categories” (Tajfel and Turner, 1979, p. 40), while personal identity refers to self-image regarding personal attributes (Trepte and Loy, 2017). Moreover, it is proposed that individuals strive to attain a positive social identity by making favourable comparisons toward the in-group members and against the out-groups (Tajfel and Turner, 2004; Hogg, 2006). In turn, this positive social identity boosts their self-esteem (Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017).

Social identity is also defined as the characteristics of membership in a relevant social group (Tajfel and Turner, 1985) and comprises cognitive and affective perspectives (Karasawa, 1991). Cognitive perception refers to the self-image and personal identity of other members of a community (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2002), whereas the affective component refers to the emotional attachment (or commitment) to a community (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2002; Chiang et al., 2017). This emotional attachment is summed up in the positive feeling of affiliation with one’s nation and the importance an individual attaches to this feeling of national identification (Tajfel and Turner, 2004).

#### 2.2.4 Self-Categorisation Theory

Self-Categorisation Theory (SCT) is considered to be an extension of Tajfel’s (1978) Social Identity Theory (Hogg and Abrams, 1988, 1999; Hogg and McGarty, 1990; Hogg et al., 1995). It was developed by Turner et al. (1987), which led to deeper insights into the related influences of identification.

In 1999, Ellemers et al. proposed further development of social identification by introducing *cognitive*, *evaluative*, and *emotional* components that contribute to an individual's social identity. The cognitive component is represented by Self-Categorisation, where a "cognitive awareness of one's membership in a social group" is achieved (Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000, p. 556), while the group self-esteem represents that evaluative component in which "a positive or negative value connotation [is] attached to this group membership" (Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000, p. 556). The emotional component "is a sense of emotional involvement with the group" (Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000, p. 556). Hence, Self-Categorisation is considered to be the cognitive component of Social Identity Theory that explains the relationship between self-concept and group behaviour (Hogg and Terry, 2000). Specifically, Hogg and Terry viewed Self-Categorisation Theory as "an extended social identity theory of the relationship between self-concept and group behaviour that details the social cognitive process that generates social identity effects" (Hogg and Terry, 2000, p. 123). In other words, Self-Categorisation Theory aims to further elaborate on the cognitive element of the theory, which leads to positive in-group attitudes, collective behaviour, normative behaviour (ethnocentrism) and shared norms (Hogg and Terry, 2000; Hornsey, 2008). In addition, Self-Categorisation results in conformity of in-group well-being, solidarity and trust (Hogg et al., 2004).

Further significant development in Self-Categorisation Theory occurred in 2006 when Van Dick et al. suggested that Social Identity Theory and Self-Categorisation Theory are both related under the Social Identity Approach (Haslam, 2014). It was pointed out that Self-Categorisation is related to intergroup behaviour that results from identification and identity activation (Van Dick et al., 2006). Originally, Social

Identity Theory viewed the interpersonal and intergroup relationships as being opposite ends of a bipolar array (intergroup hostility and in-group favouritism), whereas Self-Categorisation Theory introduced three different levels in which an individual can categorise and compare him/herself (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Hornsey, 2008). The first level is the superordinate category of the self (Human Identity). The second level, the intermediate level, is the self while being a member of the social group (Social Identity), which is compared against relevant out-groups. This intermediate level makes the group membership and social identity more relevant. The last level is the subordinate level which is based on interpersonal comparisons (Personal Identity), where an individual compares him/herself to other individuals (Hornsey, 2008, p. 208).

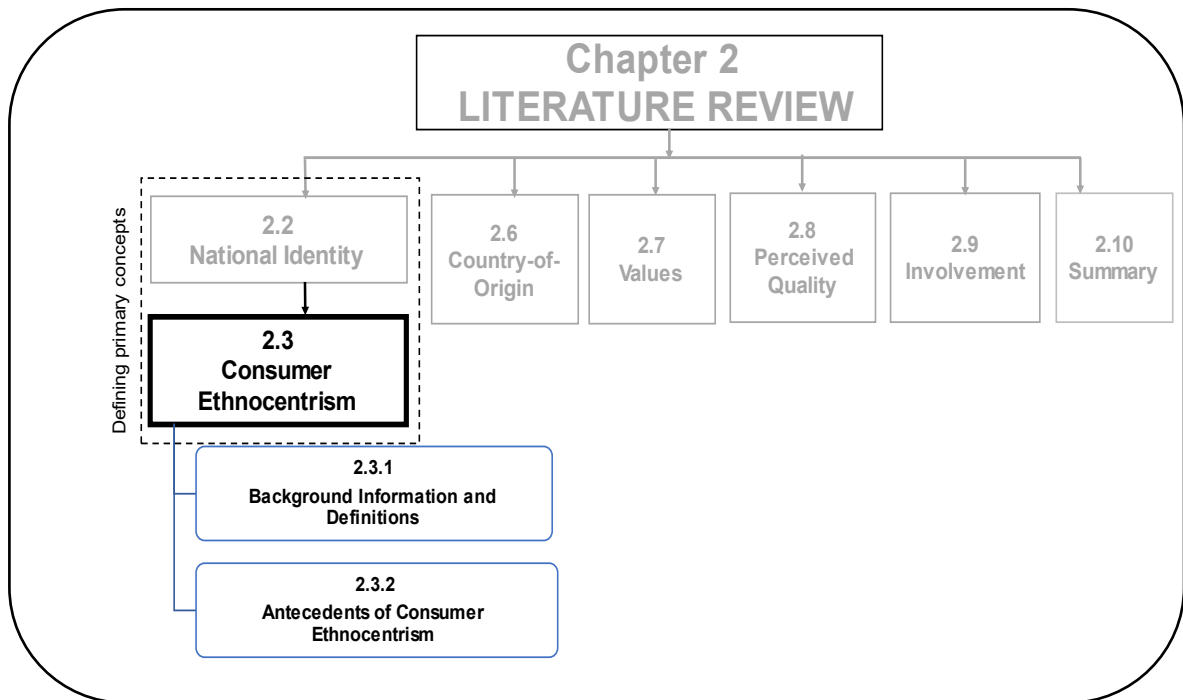
The reason behind discussing Social Identity Theory and Self-Categorisation Theory together is to explain better the emergence of Self-Categorisation (the identification) and anticipated group behaviour (collective behaviour). Stoner et al. (2011) described Self-Categorisation as being an essential primary step in the process of identification. Van Dick et al. (2006, p. 286) explained identification as “when the individual can be identified with a certain category, i.e., that he or she fits into the category, and that the individual identifies him/herself with that category, i.e., perceives this category as relevant for his/her identity”. That is, an individual must consider him/herself as a member of the group, which may be then followed by collective sense and behaviour (Phinney, 1995).

## 2.3 Consumer Ethnocentrism

The launch of Consumer Ethnocentrism (CE) goes back to 1906 when Sumner introduced the broader concept of ethnocentrism as a sociological concept to distinguish between individuals of the same groups (in-groups) and individuals of other groups (out-groups). Almost 50 years later, ethnocentrism was conceptualised as accepting like cultures while rejecting unlike cultures (Adorno et al., 1950). But Sumner's (1906) study on ethnocentrism was the first to provide a formal definition, followed by similar work by several researchers, most notably Shimp and Sharma (1987) and Sharma et al. (1995). Ethnocentrism was defined as "the view of things in which one's group is the centre of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it" (Sumner, 1906, p. 13). It is even attention holding that ethnocentrism has been argued as being a part of human nature (Lynn, 1976) and has the enduring nature of a personality trait (Hooghe et al., 2007; Bircan, 2010). Moreover, Sharma et al. (1995) introduced ethnocentrism as being a "universal phenomenon that is rooted deeply in most areas of intergroup relations" (p. 27). Yet, it was necessary to formulate a more domain-specific concept to be utilized in studies of consumer behaviour with marketing implications. As a result, the concept of CE was constructed by Shimp and Sharma (1987, p. 287) as a domain-specific sub-set of ethnocentrism and a well-established marketing paradigm that facilitates understanding consumer behaviour (Schooler, 1971; Klein et al., 1998; Alshammari et al., 2017). In addition, CE reflects purchasing intentions and willingness to buy domestic products over foreign-made and imported products.

In order to further comprehend the construct of CE and how it is employed in the current research, it is important to commence with background information and

definitions. Moreover, the antecedents of CE will be thoroughly addressed in the upcoming sub-sections. Figure 2.3 highlights the structure of section 2.3 of Consumer Ethnocentrism.



**Figure 2.3 Structure of Section 2.3 – Consumer Ethnocentrism**

### 2.3.1 Background Information and Definitions

Initially, CE was viewed as a “unique economic form of ethnocentrism that captures the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness and indeed morality of buying a foreign-made product” (Shimp and Sharma, 1987, p.280; Feurer et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2017; Han and Guo, 2018). This definition aligns with Schooler (1971), who previously suggested that consumers will not refrain from buying imported and foreign-made products but rather will just avoid such behaviour for moral reasons. Perhaps economic constraints can be added besides the moral reasons that Schooler and Shimp and Sharma suggested. Moving on to more recent research,

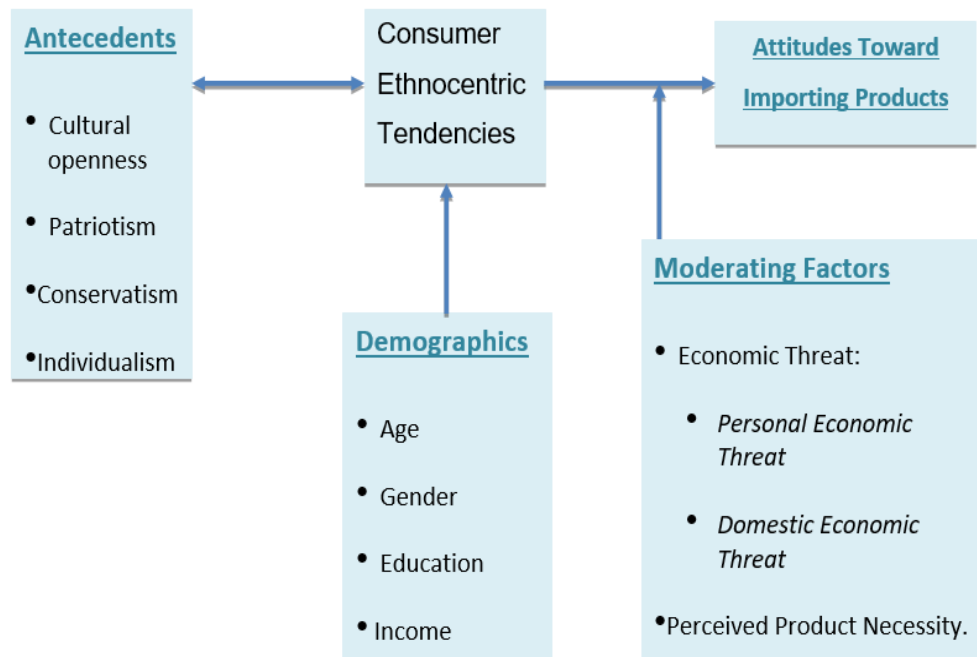
the notion behind CE that captures only economic motives for in-group bias is interpreted as avoiding foreign products that threaten the domestic industry and cause unemployment (Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Kaynak and Kara, 2002; Verlegh, 2007). Non-ethnocentric consumers, on the other hand, do not hold such a bias; they evaluate products based on their own assessment (such as price, quality, and functionality). The concept of CE aims at justifying consumer bias toward products produced domestically (Hsu and Nien, 2008; Josiassen et al., 2011; Han and Won, 2018). Evanschitzky et al. (2008) highlighted that CE was very important in understanding what purchasing behaviours are acceptable or unacceptable within a group. This is enhanced by the belief in the superiority of the consumer's group (Usunier and Lee, 2009; Park and Yoon, 2017). Generally, CE has been linked to foreign brand avoidance (Nijssen and Douglas, 2004; Sharma, 2011) and a preference for domestic brands (Supphellen and Rittenburg, 2001; Cicic et al., 2003; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Vida et al., 2008; Guo and Zhou, 2017). It was even argued that, due to nationalistic reasons, ethnocentric consumers shun all imported products regardless of price or quality (Shankarmahesh, 2006; Castelló and Mihelj, 2017). For instance, highly ethnocentric consumers may find it unacceptable to buy foreign-made or imported products (Chryssochoidis et al., 2007). Therefore, CE serves to "provide people with a sense of belonging to a group and direction regarding what is appropriate or inappropriate purchasing behaviour" (Siamagka and Balabanis, 2015, p.68).

Given the above, several explanations surround the concept of CE, but the most appropriate definition for the current research is that given by Shimp and Sharma (1987). This is because one of the essential aspects of CE is the perceived morality

dimension. It discusses the moral responsibility of buying foreign-made products, which allows us to further explore consumer behaviour with a feeling of belonging to a group. This association with morality is due to following moral values that can be helpful or harmful to individuals in the long run (McGregor, 2006). Similarly, Shimp and Sharma's definition was complemented by Evanschitzky et al. (2008) with the importance of CE in understanding the acceptable and unacceptable purchase behaviours within a group. Therefore, by definition, consumers who have strong ethnocentric tendencies perceive domestic products more favourably than foreign products (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001; Wang and Chen, 2004; Kipnis et al., 2012).

### 2.3.2 Antecedents of Consumer Ethnocentrism

The existing literature suggests that not all consumers are equally ethnocentric (Jain and Jain, 2013). And several socio-psychological and demographic factors act as antecedents to CE (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Shankarmahesh, 2006; Jain and Jain, 2010). To begin with, Shimp and Sharma (1987) developed a conceptual framework for the influential factors affecting CE. The five main influential factors that affect the level of CE are as follows: 1) ethnocentric tendencies, 2) attitudes toward importing products, 3) moderating factors, 4) antecedents, and 5) socio-demographic variables (Sharma et al., 1995) as demonstrated in Figure 2.4:



**Source:** Sharma et al. (1995)

## Figure 2.4 Influential Factors of Consumer Ethnocentrism – Conceptual Framework

As shown in figure 2.4, the antecedents include cultural openness, patriotism, collectivism, and individualism. Sharma et al. (1995) explained patriotism by how tied the individual is to his/her own country. Following this, Sharma et al. (1995) expected CE to covary along with sociodemographic variables: age, gender, income, and education.

**Age.** The controversy findings about the socio-demographic variable of age have been discussed by various researchers (Schooler, 1971; Watson and Johnson, 1972; Bannister and Saunders, 1978; Wang, 1978; Triandis et al., 1985; Wall and Heslop, 1986; Howard, 1989; Ray, 1990; Huddleston et al., 2001; Balabanis et al., 2002; Han, 2017; Raskovic et al., 2016). Han and Terpstra (1988) found that older people tend

to be more conservative, thus, more ethnocentric. Han and Terpstra's (1988) finding corresponds with Bannister and Saunders (1978), who previously confirmed that an increase in age tends to be associated with high CE. Perhaps this could be true if older consumers are conservative and are not open to change. Generally, Klein and Ettenson (1999) proposed that elderly persons tend to be more patriotic and have more national pride. Still, researchers such as Schooler (1971) and Tongberg (1972) documented some conflict around whether older people are more or less ethnocentric. This conflict might be due to the low feeling of attachment and national pride in their own country's products (Sharma et al., 1995; Shankarmahesh, 2006). Perhaps this could depend on factors such as the consumer's personality, living standard style and economic capabilities. Generally, the majority of the findings agree that age is positively related to CE (Schooler, 1971; Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Caruana and Magri, 1996).

*Gender.* Throughout the years, studies have shown that when compared to males, females tend to exhibit more ethnocentric tendencies (Triandis et al., 1985; Bruning, 1997; Han and Terpstra, 1988; Howard, 1989; Huddleston et al., 2001; Balabanis et al., 2002a; Bawa, 2004; Rahnema, 2017). In addition, females were found to be more patriotic and have positive feelings among group members. From a consumer behaviour perspective, one possible explanation behind these findings could be associated with the role of females to care for others (Sharma et al., 1995; Jain and Kaur, 2006, p.112).

*Individualism/Collectivism.* At this point, it is important to emphasise the role of Hofstede's (1980) Cultural Dimensions, which include power distance, masculinity/femininity, individualism/collectivism and uncertainty avoidance. In this

case, it is vital to differentiate between individualism and collectivism. Individualist cultures assume individuals look primarily after their interests and the interests of their immediate family (husband, wife, and children) (Hofstede, 1984, p.390). Individualistic people tend to consider society as only a means to their goals (Hui and Triandis, 1986, Oyserman et al., 2002). Consequently, individualistic people are thought to have fewer consumer ethnocentric tendencies because their primary focus is on their own benefit. Adversely, collectivism was explained as the situation where an individual feels that s/he belongs to a larger in-group (while the in-group takes care of the individual) (Hofstede and Bond, 1984, Hofstede 2001). Collectivistic people tend to consider the effect of their behaviour on society and hence, show strong consumer ethnocentric tendencies (Triandis et al., 1988; Nishina, 1990; Balabanis et al., 2001; Javalgi et al., 2005; Altıntaş and Tokol, 2007; Jain and Jain, 2013).

*Education and Income.* Previous findings show that the socio-demographic variables of education and income share similar ethnocentric tendencies. For instance, consumers with more education and higher incomes tend to be less ethnocentric (Watson and Johnson, 1972; Wang, 1978; Wall and Heslop, 1986; Ray, 1990; Sharma et al., 1995). This is because more educated people may be less conservative. Hence, when their income increases, they are more capable of obtaining openness to try foreign-made and imported products (Jain and Jain, 2010). On the other hand, Barutcu et al. (2016) documented in a study conducted among university students that they were ethnocentric and had negative attitudes toward foreign products. Nevertheless, previous findings by Batra et al. (2000) show that ethnocentric consumers were found to have lower income and education levels and

came from a lower class. But it is still unclear whether this is due to the mentioned reasons or due to a lack of alternatives in the case of economic disparity.

Advancing the moderating factors, Sharma et al. (1995) included two main moderating factors in the conceptual framework, which are perceived product necessity and economic threat.

*Perceived product necessity.* It is believed that consumers tend to perceive products differently in terms of personal or domestic economic necessity (Maison and Maliszewski, 2016; Balabanis and Siamagka, 2017; Park and Yoon, 2017). If a product is perceived as necessary, the role of CE in importing that product is relatively minor. In contrast, CE might have a more substantial impact on products perceived as unnecessary (Sharma et al., 1995). As a result, product necessity opposes the “altruistic and non-self-centred motives contained in the ethnocentric ideal” (Sharma et al., 1995, p.29).

*Perceived economic threat.* As was agreed earlier, CE captures the economic motives for in-group bias by avoiding foreign products that threaten the domestic industry and causes unemployment (Verlegh, 2007, p.362). Therefore, CE has a strong impact on attitudes toward imported products when individuals feel personally or that their domestic economy is threatened (Sharma et al., 1995, Park and Yoon, 2017; Acikdilli et al., 2018).

Approximately ten years after Sharma et al. (1995) formulated the above conceptual framework, Shankarmahesh (2006) further developed the antecedents and consequences of CE and introduced a progressed diagram represented in Appendix 1. Shankarmahesh (2006) introduced four broad categories of antecedents, which

are socio-psychological, economic environment, political environment, and demographic antecedents. For this research, Sharma et al.'s (1995) conceptual framework is satisfactory, but the following elements in Table 2.2 will be adopted from Shankarmahesh (2006) to strengthen the base of this study.

**Table 2.2: Consumer Ethnocentrism Antecedents, Consequences, Mediators, Chosen Elements and Previous Work**

Chosen Elements and Previous Work	
<b>Antecedents</b>	<p><i>List of values:</i> Clarke et al. (2000)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Internal: values denoting the importance of personal factors in value fulfilment.</li> <li>b. External: values indicating the importance of impersonal factors (Kahle, 1983).</li> </ul> <p><i>Salience:</i> the extent to which the need for help is recognized by the potential helper (Olsen et al., 1993, p.308).</p> <p><i>Improving national economy:</i> belief that the national economic situation improved in the past year. (Klein and Ettenson, 1999).</p>
<b>Consequences</b>	<p><i>Attitudes toward buying foreign products</i> (Kim and Pysarchik, 2000; Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser, 2002).</p> <p><i>Purchase intention towards buying domestic products and services</i> (Herche, 1992; Olsen et al., 1993; Bruning, 1997; Klein et al., 1998; Suh and Kwon, 2002).</p>
<b>Mediators</b>	<p><i>Empathy:</i> feelings for the in-group (Olsen et al., 1993).</p> <p><i>Perceived costs personal economic costs of purchasing domestic products</i> (Olsen et al., 1993).</p> <p><i>Responsibility:</i> obligation to help the in-group (Olsen et al., 1993).</p> <p><i>Country-of-Origin:</i> Han and Terpstra(1988), Brodowsky (1998).</p> <p><i>Product evaluation:</i> making overall judgments of the quality of foreign products (Klein et al., 1998), Klein (2002), Kim and Pysarchik (2000), Moon and Jain (2001), Huddleston et al. (2001), Supphellen and Rittenburg (2001), Yu and Albaum (2002).</p>

The chosen elements in Table 2.2 will be combined with Sharma et al.'s (1995) conceptual framework to provide a clearer and deeper insight into CE and its antecedents.

*Internal and External Values.* Values underlie consumption behaviour which allows a better understanding of attitudes and behaviours (Rokeach, 1968; Kahle, 1983). Pitts and Woodside (1983) did find a relationship between values and product/brand choice criteria. Moreover, it was concluded by Beatty et al. (1985) that studying values will aid in understanding and interpreting consumption attitudes and behaviours. Rokeach (1973) viewed some values in a measurement scale as being self-centred (such as self-respect) and some as being society-centred. Nevertheless, it is believed that most attitudes and behaviours are oriented toward the individual's needs rather than society's (Beatty et al., 1985). This was further explained by Shankarmahesh (2006, p. 163), who referred to internal values as "self-respect" and "self-fulfilment", and external values were scaled by "fun and enjoyment in life" along with "being well respected". Previously, Clarke et al. (2000) documented a positive relationship between CE and external values. Therefore, the importance of including and further studying values in marketing and consumer behaviour is indisputable.

*Salience.* One of the essential aspects of CE is in-group bias and the perceived morality dimension, which are interpreted as avoiding foreign products that threaten the domestic industry and cause unemployment (Verlegh, 2007, p.362). This concept of identifying with a group is translated directly into helping behaviour (Olsen et al., 1993). In the present context, salience reflects the perceived threat to the domestic industry and economy. However, it has been debated that salience may act as a moderator between CE and attitudes/willingness to buy foreign products

(Olsen et al., 1993). Also, it is significant to add that the salience of a problem, identification with in-groups, empathy and cost of helping influence the willingness to help.

*Improving National Economy.* Even though CE captures only economic motives for in-group bias (Verlegh, 2007), several studies failed to consider the influence of the economic environment on CE. As has been previously evidenced, throughout the stages of economic transition, ethnocentric tendencies will start low and be at their peak when the economy reaches a developed state (Schuh, 1994; Good and Huddleston, 1995; Durvasula et al., 1997, Klein and Ettenson, 1999). Such variance in the level of CE is useful when comparing countries based on the level of economic development or a country going through economic transformation.

*Attitudes toward buying foreign products.* It has been reported that CE leads to negative attitudes towards and willingness to buy foreign products (Sharma et al., 1995; Klein et al., 1998; Suh and Kwon, 2002; Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser, 2002). As a result, positive purchase intention of domestic products occurs (Han and Terpstra, 1988; Herche, 1992, Rybina et al., 2010). However, a study conducted by Han (2017) in China showed that CE did not play an important role in the purchase decisions of foreign brands. On the other hand, a study conducted by Bruning (1997) detected that price consideration ranks first for buying domestic products, even among consumers with high ethnocentric tendencies. This, in turn, guides the willingness to pay for domestic products, which will be discussed later in this research.

Moving on to the consequences, a direct consequence of CE is the negative attitudes against foreign products (Sharma et al., 1995; Klein et al., 1998; Suh and Kwon, 2002; Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser, 2002). Consequently, this leads to positive attitudes and purchase intentions towards domestic products (Han and Terpstra, 1988; Herche, 1992). But we cannot deny the role played by mediators that affect purchasing intentions. Hence, Olsen et al. (1993) considered empathy, perceived equity, responsibility and costs to be possible mediators between CE and the willingness to buy imported products.

*Empathy.* In a helping situation, empathy is presented as a form of awareness, i.e., "the ability to understand how a situation appears to another person and how that person is reacting cognitively and emotionally to the situation" (Johnson, 1975, p. 241). Back in 1964, Rosenblatt hypothesised that an increase in the level of ethnocentrism would lead to an increase in in-group solidarity. This, in turn, shall increase empathy (disregarding personal economic costs) and, accordingly, the willingness to buy domestic products (Olsen et al., 1993). In this context, empathy exceeds this definition because it has been reported that individuals are more likely to show empathy towards those with whom they have ties in the case of group identity (Piliavin et al., 1981).

*Perceived equity.* It is portrayed as consumers finding international competition unfair to domestic industries. Hence, CE positively influences perceived equity leading to buying domestic products. Ethnocentric consumers were posited to perceive competition between foreign and domestic products as being unfair. Thus, CE is said to negatively influence perceived equity. This decrease in perceived equity promotes consumers to purchase domestic products as opposed to foreign

ones. Here, perceived equity is affiliated with responsibility. But first, responsibility was defined as “acceptance of an obligation to alleviate the distressful situation” (Olsen et al., 1993, p. 310). So, when perceived equity decreases, consumers will be more willing to buy domestic products due to the increased sense of responsibility.

*Country-of-Origin.* Empirically, the results of the relationship between country image and purchase intention remain inconsistent. For instance, Bannister and Saunders (1978) found strong effects of Country-of-Origin on purchase intentions, while Han and Terpstra (1988) found no effect. Therefore, it was essential to employ CE as a normative construct that leads to Country-of-Origin evaluation. Moreover, CE is considered to be an antecedent of Country-of-Origin (Samiee, 1994; Brodowsky, 1998).

Regarding product evaluation, CE was believed to have an adverse judgment of the quality of foreign products (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Klein et al., 1998; Klein, 2002; Yu and Albaum, 2002). On the contrary, a study conducted using US consumers did not document any relationship between CE and foreign product quality evaluation (Kim and Pysarchik, 2000). Other studies also did not document a relationship between CE and foreign quality evaluation. Still, one cannot deny the impact of US consumers on previous studies, especially since this lack of relationship was due to the effect of brand familiarity.

Finally, although this research is not a comparative study between developing and developed countries, it is still substantial to discuss briefly. This is because a very important bias attributed to CE is when consumers prefer domestic to foreign products, even if the prices are higher and the quality is lower (Siamagka and

Balabanis, 2015; Balabanis and Siamagka, 2022). The majority of the research conducted to understand the factors influencing the consumer's evaluations of domestic versus foreign products has been done in Western and developed countries. And even more, the results of research from some non-western and developed countries show contradictory results (Saffu et al., 2010). Some studies recorded the negative effect of CE on evaluating foreign products by consumers in emerging markets (Klein et al., 2006, Sharma, 2011). So, despite the rising interest in understanding the above, little research has been conducted in developing countries (Kaynak and Kara, 2002; John and Brady, 2011; Wanninayake, 2013; Pentz et al., 2017).

## **2.4 Relationship Between National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism**

Over the years, the bias and preference for domestic products have been documented in various studies (such as Watson and Wright, 2000; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Wang and Chen, 2004). And when it came to explaining the preference for domestic products over foreign alternatives, researchers typically employed the construct of CE (Shankarmahesh, 2006). Nevertheless, Josiassen (2011, p.125) referred to this exclusive focus on CE to most likely “render an incomplete picture of local bias-induced consumer behaviour”. Adding to this, it was previously mentioned that CE is considered to capture only economic motives for consumers' preferences for domestic versus foreign products (Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Kaynak and Kara, 2002; Verlegh, 2007; Han and Won, 2018; Han and Guo, 2018). However, other motivators, such as consumers' attachment to their country,

go beyond these economic concerns (Giddens, 1981; Verlegh, 2007). As a result, it was advised to consider a wider range of consumer traits for a comprehensive representation and explanation of the consumer preference for domestic and foreign products. In this case, National identity will be employed along with the commonly used construct of Consumer Ethnocentrism.

Initially, it is vital to note that Brewer put forward how “in-group formation involves differentiation of the social landscape into those that are acknowledged to be ‘us’ and those that fall outside that boundary” (Brewer, 1999, p. 432). The in-group represents the group that the individual identifies with, while the out-group is everything else (Turner, 2010). A significant argument proposed by researchers, including Billig (1995), contends that countries should be looked at as social groups linked with a National identity in many ways. Therefore, in this research, the home country is considered to be the in-group and foreign countries are the out-groups (Shankarmahesh, 2006; Verlegh, 2007).

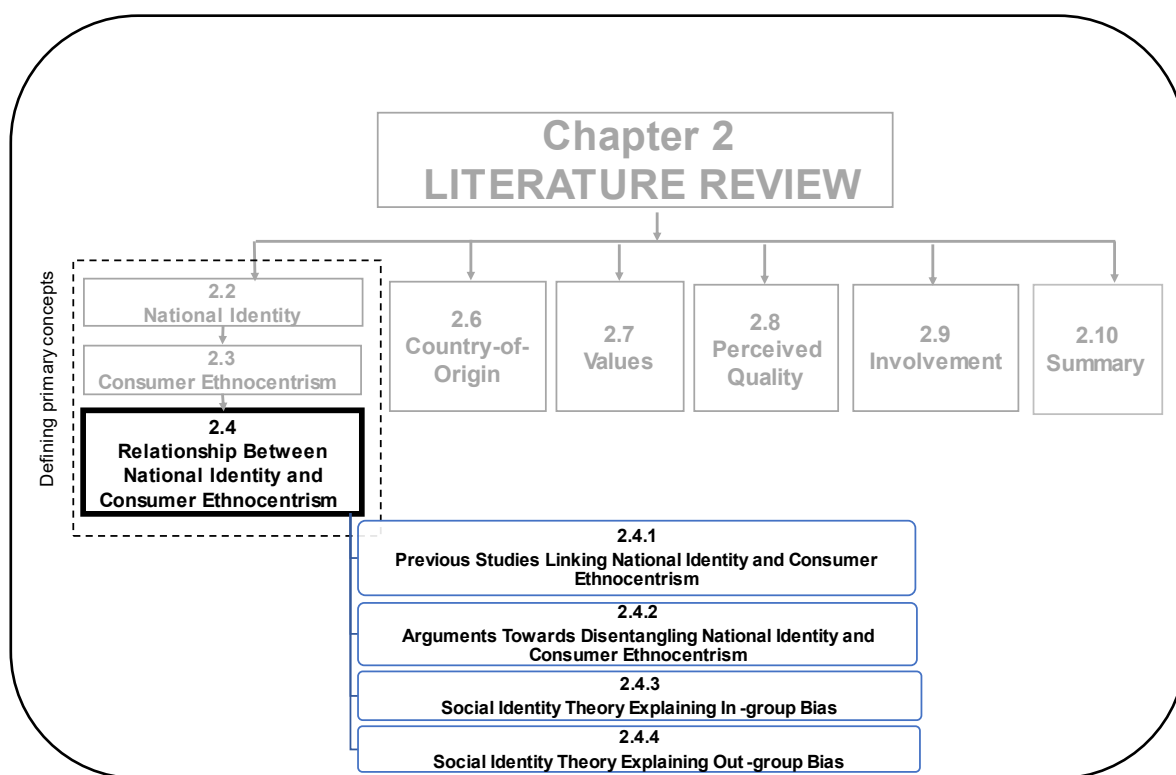
From a theoretical perspective, it is significant to clarify how consumer socio-psychological traits (National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism) influence willingness to pay for local origin products. Both National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism are based on an individual’s attachment to the in-group (home country), hence playing a strong role in the willingness to pay for local origin products. Such clarification is essential for theory development because of the subsisting idea that when individuals prefer domestic products, they do not necessarily have to discriminate against foreign products (Brewer, 1979, 1999). This is supported by Turner (1999), who suggested that consumers with high National identity scores prefer domestic products because of their need to achieve a positive social identity.

This, in turn, leads to an in-group bias towards domestic products (Tajfel and Turner, 2004; Hogg, 2006; Verlegh, 2007; Cargile and Bolkan, 2013; Han and Guo, 2018). From a practical and managerial perspective, this investigation into National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism provides further evidence for segmentation due to their distinct nature. Grouping consumers according to their National Identity or Consumer Ethnocentrism degree can be used in segmentation and advertising studies.

Even though the motive of in-group bias is to maintain a positive social identity rather than to discriminate against out-groups (Brewer, 1979, 1999), discrimination might occur in the cases of competition or perceived threat among groups (Brown, 2000). In the case of the absence of competition or perceived threat, out-groups (foreign countries) are likely to be “viewed with indifference, sympathy, even admiration, as long as inter-group distinctiveness is maintained” (Brewer, 1999, p. 434; Brewer, 1979; Duckitt and Mphuthing, 1998). Also, it is worth mentioning that even though consumers’ national identification bias is in favour of domestic products, this bias may not be strong enough to override price or quality defects (Ellemers et al., 1993). This might lead to consumers’ preference for foreign products over domestic alternatives. Moreover, it has been proposed that in-group discrimination may be accompanied by rejecting out-groups (Verkuyten, 2001; Verkuyten and Yildiz, 2007; Fong et al., 2014). More specifically, this has been observed when National Identity takes the form of blind patriotism (one’s national group is superior and should be dominant) (Druckman, 1994; Mummendey et al., 2001, Fong et al., 2014). Here is where the conflict arises because some studies call for treating National Identity and

Consumer Ethnocentrism as related constructs while others postulate them as different.

To further reflect on this conflict, it is important to explore previous studies linking National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism as well as arguments towards disentangling both constructs. Moreover, it is vital to understand the role of Social Identity Theory in explaining in-group and out-group bias. Figure 2.5 highlights the structure of section 2.4 of the relationship between National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism.



**Figure 2.5 Structure of Section 2.4 – Relationship Between National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism**

### 2.4.1 Previous Studies Linking National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism

Studies have documented the positive relationship between National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism throughout the years, which is presented in Table 2.3 and will be further discussed in this section.

**Table 2.3: How are National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism Related?**

Points linking NI and CE	1.	CE is one of the dimensions of NI (Tajfel and Turner, 1979; Brewer (1999).
	2.	CE is considered to be one way in which NI salience is expressed (Askegaard and Ger, 1998; Keillor and Hult, 1999).
	3.	NI is treated as synonymous with CE (Keillor et al., 1996; Keillor and Hult, 1999; Thelen and Honeycutt, 2004).
	4.	CE leads to a positive bias toward domestic products (Shankarmahesh, 2006).
	5.	NI and CE are positively related but not identical (Verlegh, 2007).

In studies conducted by Tajfel and Turner (1979) and Brewer (1999), it was pointed out that Consumer Ethnocentrism is one of the dimensions of National Identity to highlight the importance of maintaining culturally centred values and behaviours. It is manifested in providing individuals with a sense of belonging and a sense of identity to their own group (in this case, their country) (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Not only is Consumer Ethnocentrism keyed as a dimension of National Identity, but it is considered to be one of the (positive) ways in which National Identity salience is expressed (Klein et al., 1998; Keillor and Hult, 1999; He and Wang, 2015; Prince et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2020). Even existing literature treats National Identity as synonymous with Consumer Ethnocentrism (Keillor et al., 1996; Keillor and Hult, 1999; Thelen and Honeycutt, 2004). Besides, individuals seek to express their identity in the form of domestic product consumption, which may serve as a symbol of National Identity (Askegaard and Ger, 1998). It was documented by Balabanis et

al. (2001) that national identification (in the form of patriotism or nationalism) is positively related to Consumer Ethnocentrism.

Even though Shimp and Sharma's (1987) definition of Consumer Ethnocentrism did not even include consumers' intentions toward domestic products (only bias against foreign products), subsequent research showed that Consumer Ethnocentrism leads to a positive bias toward domestic products (Shankarmahesh, 2006). Adding to this, Verlegh (2007) perceived National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism as conceptually and empirically different but still related. These two constructs complement each other when explaining consumers' evaluations of domestic and foreign products. For instance, when national identification is high, consumers attach more importance to their home country (supporting the economy) (Verlegh, 2007). As a result, it was hypothesised that National identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism are positively related but not identical.

#### 2.4.2 Arguments Towards Disentangling National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism

Similar to studies documenting the positive relationship between National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism, other studies argue against this positive relationship. This is because "attachment to the nation" (i.e., National Identity) doesn't necessarily imply ethnocentrism (Roudometof, 2005, p. 122). These studies will be explored in the upcoming section and represented in Table 2.4.

Cui and Adams (2002) conducted a famous study about National Identity in Yemen and detected that National identity has only a weak impact on Consumer Ethnocentrism. In addition, it is important to consider that Consumer Ethnocentrism

is an established construct in literature. On the other hand, National identity is a promising construct for explaining behaviour in the home and foreign country settings (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). In a similar vein, when it came to in-group versus out-group behaviour, Josiassen (2011) highlighted the importance of distinguishing between constructs (National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism) that signal attraction versus repulsion from a group. Therefore, it is urged to disentangle consumer ethnocentric tendencies from the sense of NI.

**Table 2.4: Why Should National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism be Disentangled?**

<b>Differences</b>	<b>NI</b>	<b>CE</b>
	NI is represented in the form of in-group bias.	CE is represented in the form of anti-out-groups.
	NI signals attraction to a group (Josiassen, 2011).	CE signals repulsion from a group (Josiassen, 2011).
	NI is a pro-in-group but not anti-out-group construct (no explicit reference to the out-groups) (Brewer, 1999).	CE is “pro-in-group” as well as “anti-out-group” (Sharma et al., 1995; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004).
	NI is a purely pro-in-group construct as it has a weak effect (if any) on foreign product purchases (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015).	CE postulates that in-group bias occurs because of a feeling of superiority toward the in-group plus attribution of inferiority to all other groups to which one does not belong (Adorno et al., 1950; Levine and Campbell, 1972).
	NI (in-group’s bias) primarily results from the motive to maintain a positive Social Identity rather than to discriminate against other groups (Mackie and Smith, 1998, Brewer, 1999; Bizumic et al., 2009).	CE is expressed in an individual’s fear of purchasing foreign products (not domestic) that will hurt the domestic economy (Shimp and Sharma, 1987).
	NI is based on the desire for a positive social identity to enhance group and self-esteem (Verlegh, 2007).	CE is primarily based on the desire to protect one’s economy by being biased toward the home country (Verlegh, 2007).
	NI has only a weak impact on CE (Cui and Adams, 2002).	

It has been suggested that the modest identification with the home country should lead to consumers being biased in favour of domestic products (Wetherell, 2010). Therefore, National Identity is believed to arise naturally. Accordingly, in the case of Consumer Ethnocentrism, certain factors affect the strength of its impact, such as the degree to which certain foreign products threaten the domestic economy (Brewer, 1999; Brown, 2000). Therefore, if no threats exist, identity motives shall override ethnocentric tendencies (Verlegh, 2007; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). This is because Consumer Ethnocentrism is expressed in an individual's fear of purchasing foreign products (not domestic) that will hurt the domestic economy (Shimp and Sharma, 1987).

From the above arguments, the following is concluded:

1. CE is represented in the sense of individuals who are anti-out-groups. At the same time, they also want to protect their economy by purchasing local origin products. Therefore, it is concluded that CE is “pro-in-group” as well as “anti-out-group” (Sharma et al., 1995; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004).
2. National identity is represented in the form of in-group bias resulting solely from a person's feeling of attachment to the in-group. It is important to note that this feeling of attachment takes place without any explicit reference to the out-groups (Brewer, 1999). Moreover, National Identity (in-group bias) should almost arise naturally because even a relatively modest identification with the home country should bias consumer perception in favour of local origin

alternatives (Wetherell, 2010). Therefore, it can be concluded that National Identity is primarily pro-in-group (rather than anti-out-group). Also, National identity has a weak effect (if any) on foreign purchases. Hence, it has been manifested that National Identity is a purely pro-in-group construct. This manifestation is complemented by previous findings showing that National Identity is a pro-in-group but not anti-out-group construct (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015).

3. Consumer Ethnocentrism claims that the feeling of superiority toward the in-group plus attribution of inferiority to all other groups to which one does not belong lead to in-group bias (Adorno et al., 1950; Levine and Campbell, 1972), while National Identity (in-groups bias) primarily results from the motive to maintain a positive Social Identity rather than to discriminate against other groups (Mackie and Smith, 1998, Brewer, 1999; Bizumic et al., 2009).
4. While CE is primarily based on the desire to protect one's economy by being biased towards the home country, National Identity is based on the desire for a positive social identity to enhance group and self-esteem (Verlegh, 2007).

All in all, the differences between National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism should be deliberated to a greater extent. This distinction between constructs that signal pro-in-groups versus anti-out-groups is crucial (Josiassen, 2011) and, in turn, shall broaden the knowledge about the influence of pro-in-group (National Identity) and anti-out-group (Consumer Ethnocentrism) behaviour. Such clarification is important for theory development because the idea that people prefer local origin products does not necessarily imply that they discriminate against foreign products.

Consequently, Social Identity Theory presumes that achieving and maintaining a positive self-image is essential for individuals; such images are derived through comparing one's own group favourably and against out-groups (Tajfel and Turner, 2004; Hogg, 2006, Baker and White, 2010). This is important because Social Identity Theory is believed to capture the dynamics of in-group cohesion and bias against out-groups (Brown, 2001; McLeod, 2008; Tajfel and Turner, 2010; Callero, 2015; Hogg, 2016; Mangum and Block, 2018). This belief is extended by including National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism as predictors of consumer behaviour. National Identity is a driver of pro-in-group bias, while Consumer Ethnocentrism is considered to be a driver of pro-in-group and anti-out-group behaviour.

#### 2.4.3 Social Identity Theory Explaining In-group Bias

The current research introduces Social Identity Theory because social identity is part of an individual's self-concept (Schlenker, 1980; Oyserman et al., 2012). This is due to the emotional significance for the individual with his/her perceived membership in a valued social group (Tajfel, 1981). Social identity helps describe how individuals identify themselves to the in-groups by sharing common traits (Reed, 2002). It has been stated by Clark (1990) that a few "core" traits set cultures apart, and one known trait is "National Identity". Hence, National identity is viewed as a social identity where the norms associated with this National identity are considered important factors in determining the attitudes toward out-groups (Schildkraut, 2011). Adding to this, several studies such as Feather (1981), Stayman and Deshpande (1989), Verlegh (2007) and Zeugner-Roth et al. (2015) showed that combining in-group identities with the self-concept may motivate individuals to favourably bias the members and achievements of the in-group. Also, Social Identity Theory examines

the relationship between individuals within the group and the behaviour that arises from this relationship (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel and Turner, 1986; Hogg, 2006). Therefore, Social Identity Theory aids in explaining some consumers' expressions of National Identity (in the case of National Identity salience) (Carvalho and Luna, 2014).

It has been documented that most of the literature that explains the effect of National identity is rooted in Social Identity Theory (Citrin et al., 2001; Crepaz, 2008; de Figueiredo and Elkins, 2003; Sniderman et al., 2004; Theiss-Morse, 2009; Wong, 2010; Breton, 2015). Social Identity Theory justifies the in-group favouritism associated with a social identity that may lead to out-group hostility in the event of a threat to the in-group's identity (Brewer, 2001; Sniderman et al., 2004; Coenders et al., 2008). In the case of a positive social identity, positive self-esteem is granted, while competition and perceived threats lead to a negative social identity forcing individuals to enhance a more positive image for the in-group (Treppe and Loy, 2017; Fujita et al., 2018).

National identity is summarised as the positive feeling of affiliation with one's own nation and the importance an individual attaches to this feeling (Tajfel and Turner, 2004). Here Social Identity Theory assumes that individuals receive their positive self-identity by comparing their in-group and out-group while favouring their own group (Tajfel and Turner 2004). Accordingly, this form of engagement accounts for a positive orientation towards members of the in-group. This affective attachment to the nation is consistent with Social Identity Theory, positing that individuals tend to engage in identity-protecting behaviours (Tajfel 1974) when they feel that their self-identity is threatened by the out-group (Brewer, 1979; Brewer 1999). As a result, it

can be implied that Social Identity Theory aids in explaining in-group bias in the form of National Identity.

#### 2.4.4 Social Identity Theory Explaining Out-group Bias

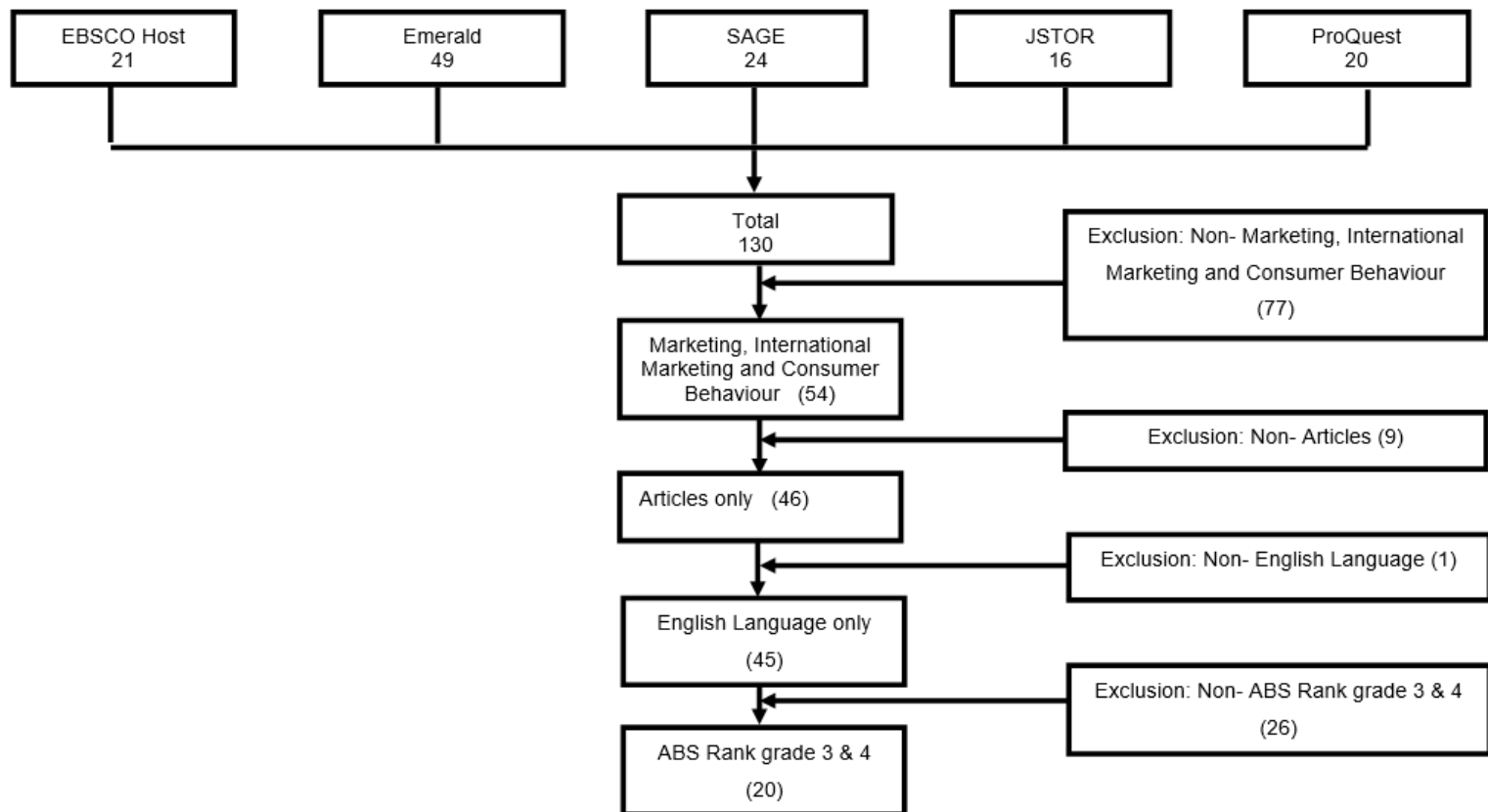
Another reason behind including Social Identity Theory is that it can be useful in illustrating the causes of CE (Huang et al., 2008). Tajfel and Turner (1979), Klein et al. (1998) and Brewer (1999) referred to Consumer Ethnocentrism as a positive form of National identity expression. That is, the feeling of superiority linked to CE is considered an expression of an individual's National Identity salience (Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017). Here, Social Identity Theory justifies the in-group favouritism associated with a social identity that may lead to out-group hostility in the event of a threat to the in-group's identity (Brewer, 2001; Sniderman et al., 2004; Coenders et al., 2008). The logic behind Social Identity Theory implies that individuals who are strongly identified with their in-group will be biased towards the in-group (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). As a result, Consumer Ethnocentrism tends to generate a hostile attitude towards out-groups because buying imported products is considered to harm the domestic economy, creates unemployment and is unpatriotic (Supphellen and Rittenburg, 2001). Moreover, this will result in an out-group bias.

## **2.5 Systematic Literature Review on National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism**

A Systematic Literature Review (SLR) on National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism has been conducted and presented in Appendix 2. The date range was specified between 1987 and 2019 using "National Identity" AND "Consumer Ethnocentrism" as keywords in five journal databases which are: EBSCOhost,

Emerald, SAGE, JSTOR and ProQuest, as shown in Figure 2.6. The reason behind combining both constructs in the search process was that it yielded more focused and relevant results to meet the objectives of this study.

Figure 2.6, titled “Systematic Literature Review Steps”, shows the screening process of narrowing down the number of articles that appeared during the search from 130 to 20 articles. The exclusion procedure included four criteria which are: excluding articles that did not belong to Marketing, International Marketing and Consumer Behaviour, Non-Articles, Non-English Language and Non-ABS Rank grades 3 & 4. It is important to note that this study includes articles that are Marketing, International Marketing and Consumer Behaviour related, as well as other articles from other related areas, such as psychology and culture.



**Figure 2.6 Systematic Literature Review Steps.**

Appendix 2 presents the table, which includes the 20 articles resulting from the screening process. The table demonstrates definitions for National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism as well as sample characteristics, the targeted objectives, and the core findings. It can be noticed that all the studies have been conducted in the USA (and Mexico), Europe (UK, Germany, Sweden, etc.) or Asia (Japan and Hong Kong) except for one which was held in Yemen (an Arab country). The majority of the data collection was carried out by surveys via mail, telephone, and questionnaire distribution. Overall, the SLR points to the following theoretical and managerial research gaps, which will be addressed in this study, and consequently form the contributions of this work.

*A. From a theoretical perspective:*

- 1) Conflicting results regarding the relationship between National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism:** Some studies call for treating National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism as being related (National Identity as synonymous with Consumer Ethnocentrism) constructs (Tajfel and Turner, 1979; Klein et al., 1998; Brewer, 1999; Keillor and Hult, 1999; Shankarmahesh, 2006; Verlegh, 2007) while others postulate them as being different (Roudometof, 2005; Josiassen, 2011; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). The differences between National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism should be deliberated to a greater extent. This distinction between constructs that signal pro-in-groups versus anti-out-groups is crucial (Josiassen, 2011) and, in turn, shall broaden the knowledge about the influence of pro-in-group (National Identity) and anti-out-group (Consumer Ethnocentrism)

behaviour. Such clarification is important for theory development because the idea that people prefer local origin products does not necessarily imply that they discriminate against foreign products (Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017; Han, 2017).

**2) Conducting the majority of the research in developed markets and neglecting the Emerging Markets can hold back researchers from advancing in international marketing theory:**

Despite the popularity of the National identity as a research topic, studies have mainly taken place from western and developed countries' perspectives (Hammad et al., 2014). And it has been recognised by some scholars that the research carried out in the Middle East (ME) and African region is scarce and scattered (Onyancha, 2011). This was previously expressed by Burgess and Steenkamp (2006), who were concerned that this lack of research would hinder the development of new constructs and unconventional thinking. As a result, scholars such as Okazaki and Mueller (2007) and Fastoso and Whitelock (2010 and 2011) have recognised the importance of conducting research in Africa and the ME. In addition, Lages et al. (2015) suggested that researchers are being held back from advancing in international marketing theory when conducting the majority of the research in developed markets and neglecting Emerging Markets (EMs). Particularly, existing international marketing theories might convey different meanings and results in different contexts. Therefore, this research will be conducted in Egypt, an African country sharing some Middle Eastern traits.

The scarcity of research undertaken in Egypt (an Arab developing country) in the field of National identity encouraged this research to remedy the void in the literature. And the existing literature conducted in other Arab countries does not encourage generalising the results among all Arab countries (Cui and Adams, 2002). The majority of the research conducted to explain Egyptian consumer behaviour covers green consumption (Mostafa, 2006, 2007), environmental friendliness and environmental awareness, ethical consumption (Al-Khatib et al., 1997; Mostafa, 2011), Corporate Social Responsibility, ethics, educational and cause-related marketing (Carrigan and Attalla, 2001; Ellen et al., 2006; Tantawi et al., 2009; El Bassiouny et al., 2011; Kolkailah et al., 2012; Hammad et al., 2014). Therefore, from a theoretical point of view, this research aims to extend our knowledge about National identity and consumer behaviour to Egyptian consumers, where little research has been conducted.

**3) Gaining more insight into the Egyptian consumers:** this allows testing of the existing National Identity measurement model to find out whether it is competent in explaining Egyptian consumers' Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Also, to explore how National identity influences judgments towards foreign products and perceptions of the quality of domestic products.

*B. From a Managerial perspective:*

**1) Market Segmentation and Targeting:** In a complex and uncertain global marketplace, companies and marketing managers need to know how to effectively address consumers to make their brands and products appealing locally and globally. Previous marketing research

documented the importance of CE in managerial aspects such as standardisation/specialisation (Keillor and Hult, 1996), market segmentation and entry mode decisions (Shankarmahesh, 2006; Nijssen and Douglas, 2011; Westjohn et al., 2012; Magnusson et al., 2014; Fong et al., 2014; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015) and global branding and country-of-origin related matters (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2008, 2011; Alden et al., 2013; Guo, 2013). Nevertheless, the continuous changing segmentation guidelines make it vital for managers to be agile and adapt accordingly. The suggested differences between National identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism relate to theory and managerial and governmental practices (Lages et al., 2015). National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism possess a distinct nature as segmentation variables and consumer behaviour drivers (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015), which offers managerial guidance. For instance, previous studies have shown that consumers can be grouped according to their degree of Consumer Ethnocentrism and National identity when conducting global segmentation and advertising studies (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). Therefore, managers need to identify the messages associated with consumers' perceptions of National Identity cues and anticipate reactions to these cues (Carvalho, 2005). However, managers must pay attention to the relationship between National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism because consumers may show signs of National Identity but may not be ethnocentric towards domestic products.

**2) Marketing practice and marketing mix:** The level and influences of National Identity may provide marketers with useful information to better understand the concept behind Egyptian consumers' Willingness to Pay for local origin products (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015; Trudel et al., 2016). This allows global corporations to consider the effect of National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism on perceptions of foreign products before undergoing any trading agreements. Also, this allows marketers to develop an understanding of how Egyptian consumers perceive products from different countries. This enables marketers to understand further how Egyptian consumers perceive different products.

**3) The scores of the used measurement scales can be a useful tool for investors considering Emerging Markets (Keillor and Hult, 1999):** Firms can use this information to develop an effective marketing mix and marketing strategies and adjust them to the local segments. In addition, the research findings can also be a source of reference for marketers of products with a similar context in other developing countries such as Egypt.

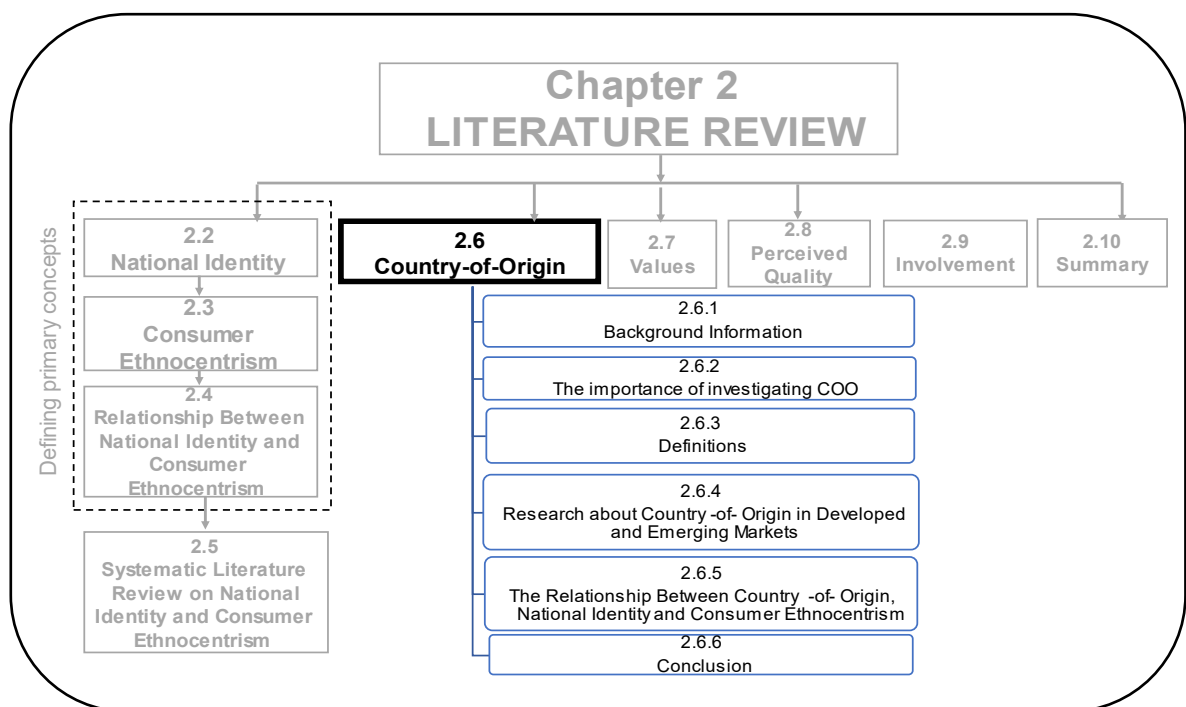
## 2.6 Country-of-Origin

Globalisation created opportunities that facilitated the worldwide circulation of companies' goods and services (Jimenez and Martin, 2010; Burlefinger, 2021). These opportunities resulted in consumers being exposed to a wide range of products and services with varying qualities, categories and prices (Jimenez and Martin, 2010). The globalization of markets facilitated foreign market entry which, in turn, enhanced the need to better understand the consumers' orientations toward foreign products (Cilingir and Basfirinci, 2014; Nuruzzaman, Gaur, and Sambharya, 2021). Moreover, in the current global economy, the incrementing exposure to products and services from around the world makes it necessary for marketers to manage the perception of the origin of their brands (Jiménez-Guerrero et al., 2014; Westjohn et al., 2016; Maier and Wilken, 2017; Diamantopoulos, Kalajdzicb, and Moschikc, 2020). This perception surrounding a foreign product has been "one of the oldest concerns of international marketers" (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004, p. 80).

In general, for product evaluation, consumers use Intrinsic and Extrinsic cues (Cattin et al., 1982; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2008). Intrinsic cues include design, taste, and performance, and Extrinsic cues include price, brand name, packaging, and warranties. When consumers have little knowledge about the product, extrinsic informational cues are used, as it may be difficult for consumers to evaluate intrinsic cues before the purchasing decision (Cattin et al., 1982). These cues may reduce the purchase decision-associated risks (Peng Cui et al., 2014). As a result, it is suggested that consumers use the Country-of-Origin (COO) as an information cue

when making purchasing decisions (Rosenbloom and Haefner, 2009; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Jiménez and San Martín, 2014).

In order to further understand the construct of Country-of-Origin and how it is employed in the current research, it is important to commence with background information and highlight the importance of investigating this construct. Additionally, previous research about Country-of-Origin in developed and emerging markets will be addressed. Afterwards, the relationship between the Country-of-Origin, National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism will be emphasized. Figure 2.7 illustrates the structure of section 2.6 of Country-of-Origin.



**Figure 2.7 Structure of Section 2.6 – Country-of-Origin**

### 2.6.1 Background Information

The history of Country-of-Origin goes back to 1965 when Schooler introduced the Country-of-Origin effects, and since then, a huge number of studies and publications

have been conducted (e.g., Peterson and Jolibert, 1995; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Usunier, 2006; Zeugner-Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2010; Samiee et al., 2016). Country-of-Origin Effect (COOE) can be interpreted as the positive or negative influence that a country of manufacturing might have on the behaviour or purchase decision making of consumers (Samiee, 1994; Diamantopoulos et al., 2021).

Foreign-made products are accompanied by higher risks (Hampton, 1977; Baumgartner and Jolibert, 1977; Lee and Robb, 2022). These risks could be due to the lack of available information about foreign-made products. Therefore, Jonansson (1989) highlighted the Country-of-Origin Effect impact on the perceived risk, how the information is processed and the purchasing behaviour. While today's age of information makes it easier for consumers to discover the correct Country-of-Origin, thanks to the internet, social media and various other information sources, the risks prevail. Recently, it is becoming common for a firm to choose a brand name associated with one country, source parts in a second, and manufacture the products in another low-labour cost country (Gereffi and Fernandez-Stark, 2016; Brodowsky et al., 2018). This variation allows managers to choose whether to reveal or disguise country-of-origin information, which makes it more difficult to recognise the product's true Country-of-Origin.

Although Country-of-Origin is a relevant cue in consumer decision making, it is the image associated with that country that makes the influence (Diamantopoulos et al., 2011). Country image is defined as "the overall perception consumers form of products from a particular country, based on their prior perceptions of the country's product and marketing strengths and weaknesses" (Roth and Romeo, 1992, p.480). For example, Haagen Dazs is a US ice cream manufacturing company that uses this

Danish-sounding name because of the consumers' positive association between Denmark and dairy products (Brodowsky et al., 2018). What is more, it has been reported that some companies originating from a country with a weak image try to associate their brands with a country that has a strong image for positive consumer expressions (Samiee et al., 2005; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2008; Cakici and Shukla, 2017). Even though there is strong evidence available about the effect of Country-of-Origin on consumers' perceptions of quality and purchase intentions, limited generalisable knowledge about the effect of Country-of-Origin image on consumer behaviour is available (Baugh and Yaprak, 1993; Parameswaran and Pisharodi, 1994; Peterson and Jolibert, 1995; Insch and McBride, 2004).

Academically, for 50+ years now, a large body of research has yielded significant empirical evidence for the effect of Country-of-Origin on consumers' product evaluations and purchase decisions (Pharr, 2005; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2008; Zeugner-Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2010). However, Country-of-Origin is not a unidimensional concept (Chao, 1998; Thakor and Lavack, 2003) and remains a complex construct due to the global nature of businesses and the presence of multinational corporations (Maier and Wilken, 2017). In 1993, Chao broke down Country-of-Origin into two fundamental parts, which are: Country of Assembly (COA) and Country of Design (COD). COA and COD are a source of factual information and hence, may not be influenced by consumers' attitudes, sentiments, and biases (Samiee, 1994; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2008). But the consumers' perceptions towards particular products associated with a particular country are crucial and are influenced by factors such as product quality, characteristics and attributes, level of involvement in purchase decisions (Maheswaran, 1994), level of economic and

technological development, demographics, and socio-psychological characteristics (Kucukemiroglu et al., 2005). Then other researchers, such as Tse and Lee (1993), added that this decomposition is represented in a component origin (a product component manufactured in one country) and assembly origin (product components assembled in another country). This decomposition has led to products being designed in one country and assembled in another (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2008; Maier and Wilken, 2017). This was highlighted in various studies such as Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2008), Samiee et al. (2005), Shukla (2011) and Cakici and Shukla (2017), who brought attention to firms that use subtle and direct Country-of-Origin associations when marketing their products internationally.

A good example would be iPod Shuffle which is labelled “designed in California and made in China”. In this case, the country of the design was a more relevant cue than the country of manufacturing. In addition, consumer decision making may be significantly influenced by the perceived headquarters of the company, irrespective of the country of manufacturing (Verlegh et al., 2005).

Notably, several studies have attempted to explore and compare manufacturing dimensions (COA and COD) on product evaluations, such as Chao (1993) in the USA; Li et al. (2000) in Australia; Thakor and Lavak (2003) in Canada; Insch and McBride (2004) in Mexico; Ahmed and d'Astous (1995, 2002, 2007, 2008). Table 2.5 represents the major studies covering COA and COD.

**Table 2.5: Review of Major Studies Conducted on COA and COD**

	About the Study	Country of Assembly (COA)	Country of Design (COD)
<b>Chao (1993, p.299)</b>	<p><b>-US respondents.</b></p> <p>-Examined COO facets on 2 product quality aspects (design quality and overall quality).</p> <p><b>-Findings:</b></p> <p>1-COD and COA influenced consumer perceptions of product quality.</p> <p>2-Found that the COD ratings did not directly influence the COA ratings meaning that product design quality “represents a different dimension than product quality”.</p>	COA influences the overall product evaluations only.	COD and price level significantly affect the design and overall quality perceptions of U.S. consumers about colour televisions.
<b>Tse and Lee (1993)</b>	<p><b>-US consumers.</b></p> <p>- Investigated the effects of COO facets on quality dimensions such as performance attributes, long-term attributes, purchase value and overall quality.</p> <p><b>-Findings:</b> the decomposition of COO into multi-facets weakens the construct.</p>	Well-known brand names can override negative COA associations.	
<b>Ahmed and d’Astous (1995)</b>	<p><b>-Canadian respondents.</b></p> <p>-Looked at the effects of COO facets on overall perceived quality and purchase value.</p> <p><b>-Findings:</b></p> <p>1-COA and COD both affect product evaluations on the industrial and household purchaser levels.</p> <p>2-COD and COA effects decrease when product information such as brand name, price and warranty are available.</p>		More emphasis was placed on industrial purchasers.

	About the Study	Country of Assembly (COA)	Country of Design (COD)
<b>Insch and McBride (1999, p.73)</b>	<p><b>-US and Mexican consumers.</b></p> <p>-Extrinsic information cues are external but related to the product, such as price, brand, warranties, COD, Country of Manufacturing and COA.</p> <p><b>-Findings:</b> Both COA and COD are strong extrinsic information cues that affect consumer quality perceptions.</p>	Is the country where the majority of the product's final assembly took place (p. 73).	Is the country where the product was conceived and engineered (p.73).
<b>Li et al. (2000, p.122)</b>	<p><b>-Australian consumers.</b></p> <p>-Global sourcing has transformed COO into a multifaceted construct. It is manifested in multiple facets such as COD, COA, Country of Corporation (COC), Country of Parts and Components.</p> <p>e.g., Sony TV designed in Japan, parts supplied from China and assembled in Malaysia.</p> <p><b>-Findings:</b> various sourcing locations may influence different product quality aspects.</p>	COA may simply affect consumers' product evaluations on functional aspects (e.g., performance and reliability)	COD may spread its influence over a product image, aesthetics, and other aspects.
<b>Ahmed et al. (2002)</b>	Products that are designed in one country and assembled in another are commonly found on the market, and marketing researchers have recognised the necessity of taking into account the multidimensionality of the COO concept (p. 390).		
<b>Insch and McBride (2004, p.257)</b>	<p><b>-Mexican and US consumers.</b></p> <p><b>Findings:</b> There are differences in consumer COO effects between style-related and purely functional products and between a prosperous, wealthy society and a relatively low-income, emerging market (especially concerning COD).</p>	Is the country where the majority of the product's final assembly occurred (p. 257).	Is the country where the product was conceived and engineered (p. 257).
<b>Ahmed and d'Astous (2008)</b>	<p><b>-Canadian, Moroccan, and Taiwanese consumers</b> (three culturally and economically diverse countries). The research was particularly relevant for learning about cross-national differences in the evaluations of products originating from diverse countries along their design and assembly dimensions, taking into account their degree of technological complexity.</p> <p><b>-Findings</b> suggest that in countries like Morocco, it makes sense not to emphasis COD versus COA when providing COO information to consumers to make it easier for them to retrieve the information from memory. On the other hand, such complex information should be provided to Canadians.</p>		

As firms become global, marketers explore the COA and COD to aid in constructing an effective and efficient marketing plan to target audiences. An interesting result was reported by Klein et al. (1998) when they found that the decomposition of Country-of-Origin into COA and COD has provided marketers with greater flexibility in emphasising the origins of different product attributes to avoid negative Country-of-Origin Effect influences (such as animosity). These negative consumer attitudes expressed towards products associated with a particular country may yield results such as consumer ethnocentrism and national loyalty.

In addition to the mentioned Country-of-Origin dimensions, there are several other dimensions, such as country of the brand, country of parts, degree of localness vs foreignness, etc. (see Li et al., 2000; Pharr, 2005; Zhaung et al., 2008). Examining the effects of multiple Country-of-Origin facets aids in resolving some global sourcing deficiencies in Country-of-Origin research (Li et al., 2000). There are various Country-of-Origin dimensions, but the current research defines Country-of-Origin as the country of manufacturing and operationalisation, which is conveyed with the phrase “made in (country name)” and is conducted on a local level.

#### 2.6.2 The Importance of Investigating Country-of-Origin

The importance of investigating Country-of-Origin effects is undeniable (Dinnie, 2004), particularly since Country-of-Origin is considered the main indicator for whether the product is of a domestic or foreign origin (Cilingir and Basfirinci, 2014). Country-of-Origin Effect is a long-standing area of research in the fields of consumer behaviour and international marketing (e.g., Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Xie et al., 2015; Chattalas, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016). In addition, direct

and indirect Country-of-Origin influences have been reported on information processing (e.g., Lee et al., 2016) and consumer orientations and traits (e.g., Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016). Hence, understanding consumers' perceptions is indispensable for marketing plans, segmentation, targeting audience and global marketing (Samiee, 1994; Chao, 1998; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2002; Woo, 2019). Furthermore, Country-of-Origin acts as an informational cue to quality, performance and specific attributes of foreign products when consumers generally lack complete information about products (Bruning, 1997; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Berry et al., 2015). Moreover, previous research documented that Country-of-Origin affects the quality perceptions of products which in turn influences purchase decision making (Bannister and Saunders, 1978; White, 1979; Koubaa, 2008; Lee and Robb, 2019). For example, Germany is known for its quality automotive technology, while France is famous for fine wine and perfumes (Usunier and Cestre, 2007; Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009). Hence, the effect of Country-of-Origin plays an important role in terms of product evaluation and thus on purchase decision making and consumer attitudes and behaviour.

Country-of-Origin effects tend to have an impact on consumer attitudes toward foreign products in two forms. The first form is *Evaluation of Foreign Products* (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Han and Terpstra, 1988; Heslop and Papadopoulos, 1993), and the second form is *Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products* due to moral reasons (e.g., supporting the domestic economy) (Klein et al., 1998; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004). It is important to highlight that, even though the behaviour that arises from moral reasons may be individually based, this individual may be encouraged to demonstrate moral behaviour when the situation is related to the community or society of which s/he is a member (Kraus et al., 2020).

The impact of the growth of international trade and Country-of-Origin Effects has encouraged the examination of consumer attitudes (e.g., Olsen et al., 1994; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004; Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2006; Phau and Chao, 2008; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). Accordingly, consumer attitudes are likely to have a direct effect on the likelihood of purchase, such as Willingness to Pay. Consumer attitudes towards foreign products go beyond brand name, store image or other non-country specific cues. More specifically, regarding evaluating foreign products, consumers were found to negatively evaluate foreign products and prefer domestic products due to attitudes that arise from feelings of hostility or animosity towards certain countries (Klein et al., 1998; Zbib et al., 2021). For example, it is argued that even if other ethnic groups supplied brands from unfavourable countries due to conflicts on the personal, political, and religious levels (Alvarez and Campo, 2020; Khan et al., 2019), Egyptian people would not still judge these brands differently due to reasons of animosity (Danilwan and Pratama, 2020). In addition, strong levels of National Identity and feelings of patriotism encourage consumers to negatively evaluate foreign products to maintain a positive self-image and follow moral reasons (such as Consumer Ethnocentrism) (Nijssen and Douglas, 2004). In some cases, it was found that consumers may negatively evaluate foreign products because they believe that products imported from emerging or developing countries are of inferior quality (Han and Terpstra, 1988; Nguyen and Pham, 2021). Moreover, it is important to point out that attitudes towards foreign products may rely on the country's context. For instance, negative attitudes towards foreign products may not be related to individual characteristics but rather to a specific country, e.g., products labelled as being made in China may not imply a good quality cue.

On another note, special emphasis should be given to countries with high levels of imports as consumers may be more used to foreign products. This emphasis is important because, in this situation, foreign products may not threaten domestic products, the economy, or employment levels. As a result, consumer traits or characteristics may not have an impact on the evaluation of foreign products. In other words, consumers may be indifferent to foreign products. Moreover, Nijssen and Douglas (2004) predicted the likelihood of affecting attitudes toward purchasing foreign products because of a lack of domestic alternatives. Hence, the lack of domestic alternatives should be considered as this may make an evaluation of foreign products unfeasible. For instance, the lack of domestic alternatives may leave the consumer with no choice but to purchase the foreign product offered, even if the consumer has negative attitudes toward the foreign products.

The other form of consumer attitudes towards foreign products is represented in the reluctance to buy foreign products. Reluctance to buy foreign products is a form of consumer attitude towards foreign products, which may affect the likelihood of purchase (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). Previous research linked the construct of Consumer Ethnocentrism and Animosity to reluctance to buy foreign products (Klein et al., 1998). For instance, consumer ethnocentric tendencies were found to encourage reluctance to buy foreign products as a form of implementing beliefs about the appropriateness and morality of purchasing foreign products (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Netemeyer et al., 1991; Sharma et al., 1995). As for animosity, it is country related rather than the product itself (Klein et al., 1998). For example, consumers may be reluctant to buy foreign products independent of product judgment and beyond the beliefs about the

appropriateness of purchasing foreign products, such as hostility between countries.

The Country-of-Origin Effect is interpreted as an informational cue, i.e., attributes and quality of products from a specific Country-of-Origin, and a form of reinforcement to the sense of group identity. When the sense of group identity is threatened, this results in identity-protecting behaviour to maintain a positive social identity among the members of the group. This identity-protecting behaviour is an outcome of in-group threat and the need to maintain a positive social identity among the members of the group, which emerges from Social Identity Theory (Brewer, 1979, 1999; Tajfel and Turner, 2004; Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017). For instance, consumers may show reluctance to buy foreign products as a form of reinforcing their National Identity. The sense of National Identity results in identity-protecting behaviour to maintain a positive social identity, respond to in-group threats and follow moral reasons even when foreign products are perceived as being superior (Tajfel, 1974; Brewer, 1979, 1999; Tajfel and Turner, 2004; Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017). Nevertheless, it was argued that in the case of National Identity, consumers are keener on expressing identity-protecting behaviour rather than discriminating against foreign products (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). For instance, the influence of National Identity can be reflected in the form of consumers purchasing domestic products to support their domestic economy and their society's well-being.

### 2.6.3 Definitions

Identifying variables that affect consumers' evaluation of domestic and foreign products has been a matter of great interest to marketing and international marketing academics. One of the common concerns in international marketing is

whether the Country-of-Origin of a product is preferable or not to consumers (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). Typically, the Country-of-Origin is communicated in the phrase “made in (name of country)”. However, it is becoming harder to specify a product’s Country-of-Origin due to dual and multinational sourcing and manufacturing (Chattalas et al., 2008). As previously mentioned, Country-of-Origin is a construct that has been studied for over 50 years, and the definitional diversity is evidence that Country-of-Origin is of interest to many researchers (Pharr, 2005). Hence, clarifying the definition is fundamental to understanding how Country-of-Origin has been placed and utilised in literature and studies over the years.

In 1962, Dichter was the first to argue that a product’s Country-of-Origin may have a “tremendous influence on the acceptance and success of products” (Dichter, 1962, p. 116). Shortly after, Schooler carried out the first empirical test of this notion and highlighted significant differences in the evaluation of products that were identical in all respects, except for the “made in” label (Schooler, 1965, p. 396). The majority of these studies placed special emphasis on assessing three main aspects, which are the occurrence, magnitude, and significance of Country-of-Origin Effects for different products. The “made in (name of country)” idea was further developed, and several researchers referred to Country-of-Origin as the country of manufacturing or assembly (such as Nagashima, 1970, 1977; Bannister and Saunders, 1978; White, 1979; Chasin and Jaffe, 1979; Bilkey and Nes, 1982, p.89; Cattin et al., 1982; Han and Terpstra, 1988; Papadopoulos, 1993; Lee and Schaninger, 1996). Another notable definition of Country-of-Origin was the one developed by Johansson et al. (1985, p.388) and Herz and Diamantopoulos (2017, p.53), describing Country-of-Origin as “the country where the corporate headquarters of a company marketing the product

or brand is located”. In other words, it refers to the final point of manufacture, which can be the same as the headquarters of a company. For example, IBM implies the USA, and SONY implies Japanese origin. It was assumed that “the product or brand is identified with that country even though it may not necessarily be manufactured in that country because of multinational sourcing” (Johansson et al., 1985, p.389). For instance, a clothes company based in the USA can use materials and supplies or even outsource some operations to other countries (cheaper labour), but the final assembly or manufacturing is carried out in the USA. Therefore, Samiee (1994), Usunier (2006), and Herz and Diamantopoulos (2017) proposed utilizing the “made in” definition because it is believed to be more important for consumers than where the brand was designed, manufactured, or assembled.

So far, the various definitions of Country-of-Origin lead to the meaning of country-of-origin as being the manufacturing country. Nevertheless, Lantz and Leob (1996) identified the effect that the Country-of-Origin has as “the preference consumers may express towards a product based upon the country where it was made” (p.374). To sum up, Table 2.6 includes the key definitions affiliated with the construct of Country-of-Origin.

It is important to note that Country-of-Origin may be used as a guide to the buyers’ perception of quality, but it may not be the case for established brand names (Johansson et al., 1985; Hong and Wyer, 1989). Manufacturers using misleading labels such as “assembled in (the country name) and made in EU” makes it increasingly difficult to determine the actual country of manufacturing (Chao, 1993; Chattalas, 2005; Cakici and Shukla, 2017; Micevski et al., 2018). Such practice modifies the accuracy of the Country-of-Origin. Moreover, it must be taken into consideration that even in the case of well-established brands, the

widespread use of cheap labour in manufacturing countries (such as China, Indonesia, and Bangladesh) has a significant effect on the quality of the product. This significant effect may discourage many consumers (Johansson et al., 1985). Martin (2007) provided evidence that US consumers became sensitive to product origins and started favouring US-made products due to several recalls and disasters associated with overseas products.

**Table 2.6: Review of Key Definitions of Country-of-Origin**

Source	Definition	Meaning of definition
<b>Schooler (1965, p.396)</b>	Carried out an empirical test and found significant differences in the evaluation of products that were identical in all respects, except for the name of the country specified on a “made in” label.	“Made in (name of country).”
<b>Nagashima (1970, 1977); Bannister and Saunders (1978); White (1979); Chasin and Jaffe (1979); Bilkey and Nes (1982, p.89); Cattin et al. (1982); Han and Terpstra (1988); Papadopoulos (1993); Lee and Schaninger (1996)</b>	“The country of manufacturing or assembly. It is also known as “made in (name of country).”	“Made in (name of country).” Or “Assembled in (name of country).”
<b>Wang and Lamb (1983)</b>	Defined COO as an intangible barrier rooted in consumer bias that favours familiar brands and afflicts new market entrants.	COO is an intangible barrier affecting new market entrants.
<b>Johansson et al. (1985, p.388)</b>	“The country where corporate headquarters of a company marketing the product or brand is located.”	Country where the company’s headquarters is located

Source	Definition	Meaning of definition
<b>Samiee (1994, p. 581).</b>	COO denotes “the country with which a firm is associated. Typically, this is the home country for a company.”  Firms that maintain a relatively large global network of operations or do business with a variety of suppliers include parts and components from several countries within their products. In this case, the Country of Manufacturing (COM) refers to the final point of manufacture, which can be the same as the COO.	COO is the home country of a company.
<b>Lantz and Leob (1996, p.374).</b>	“The country-of-origin effect refers to the preference consumers may express towards a product based upon the country where it was made.”	COO effects and how it influences consumers’ expressions.
<b>Ferguson et al. (2008)</b>	COO refers to the “tendency among individuals to infer the quality of a product from its country of manufacture.”	Individuals use COO to infer product quality.
<b>Herz and Diamantopoulos (2017, pg. 53)</b>	“The country where the corporate headquarters of the company marketing the product or brand is located.” Though the product may not necessarily be manufactured in that country because of multinational sourcing, it is assumed that the product or brand is identified with that country.	Country where the company’s headquarters is located

The term Country-of-Origin has been identified by several researchers over the years using several definitions. For the current research, the definitions provided by Samiee (1994), Lantz and Leob (1996) and Ferguson et al. (2008) are the most significant. Initially, Samiee (1994) referred to the Country-of-Origin as the home country of a company and implied that the country of manufacturing (which is the final point of manufacture) could be the same as the Country-of-Origin. By that, even when acquiring parts and components within a product from several countries, the country of final manufacture is still considered the Country-of-Origin. As a result, the “made in” definition will be utilized since Samiee (1994),

Usunier (2006), and Herz and Diamantopoulos (2017) believe that this definition is more important for consumers than where the brand was designed, manufactured, or assembled. Then, Lantz and Leob (1996) addressed Country-of-Origin Effects by bringing attention to the consumers' expressions towards the country where the product was made ("made in"). The final significant definition for this research is the one provided by Ferguson et al. (2008), where consumers use Country-of-Origin to infer product quality.

#### 2.6.4 Research About Country-of-Origin in Developed and Emerging Markets

It is essential to understand how a country's culture, social systems, and level of economic development impact the information that positions the country in the consumers' minds (Lin and Sternquist, 1994; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2008).

One of the significant discoveries about Country-of-Origin was that the preference for domestic or foreign-made product patterns varies across countries (Heslop and Papadopoulos, 1993), which shows that Country-of-Origin has a strong influence on product evaluation (Peterson and Jolibert, 1995). Moreover, it has been observed that the Country-of-Origin influences consumer behaviour through the country image (Usunier and Cestre, 2007; Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009) due to the effect of information about a product's origin on the consumers' expected product outcomes. It is significant to note that the Country-of-Origin image is associated with the perception of the level of economic development of the country (Roth and Romeo, 1992). For instance, products from countries with higher levels of industrialisation are perceived to be of better quality and more favourable due to the perception of the quality of its workers (Li and Monroe, 1992), which reflects better product quality (Iyer and Kalita, 1997). Accordingly, depending on the particular country's image (sometimes stereotype), a country

could be seen as more or less favourable for certain products (Usunier and Cestre, 2007; Tseng and Balabanis, 2011).

Previous comparative studies have included countries of product origin and country markets (such as Dickerson, 1982; Morganoskay and Lazarde, 1987; Herche, 1992; Damanpour, 1993; Bow and Ford, 1993; Elliot and Cameron, 1994; Sklair, 1994; Agbonifoh and Elimimian, 1999; Batra et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2000). It was suggested that consumers who utilize Country-of-Origin information tend to favour products from developed countries over those of developing countries (Schooler, 1965; Khachaturian and Morganosky, 1990). Additionally, previous research conducted in developed countries, such as Dickerson, 1982; Morganoskay and Lazarde, 1987; Herche, 1992; Damapour, 1993; Elliot and Cameron, 1994, showed that consumers tend to perceive domestic products as of higher quality than imported products. On the contrary, previous research conducted in developing countries (such as Egypt) claimed that consumers tend to prefer foreign and imported products over domestic ones due to foreign liability and foreign product quality (Bow and Ford, 1993; Sklair, 1994; Agbonifoh and Elimimian, 1999; Batra et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2000).

Early research on Country-of-Origin Effects has mainly focused on perceptions and attitudes of consumers in developed markets, while studies examining consumers of emerging markets have recently been conducted (such as Batra et al., 2000; Amine and Shin, 2002; Klein et al., 2006; Ozretic-Dosen et al., 2007; Wang and Yang, 2008). This deficiency in studies covering developing countries and emerging markets has led to the assumption that Country-of-Origin Effects are similar for both developed and emerging markets (Batra, 1997; Cui and Liu, 2001; Sharma et al., 2006). An undeniable fact is that consumers in emerging markets are being progressively exposed to global media conveying Western

lifestyles in local media (Belk, 1999). It has been observed that consumers in developing countries were impressed by foreign products due to the glamorous influence of movies and TV advertisements. In 2000, Batra et al. found that a brand's Country-of-Origin acts as a "Quality Halo" surrounding the product. Therefore, consumers in developing markets prefer non-local brands over local ones for reasons that go beyond quality assessments, such as status enhancement (Steenkamp et al., 2003). In emerging markets, consumers are believed to perceive products imported from developed markets, compared to their domestic ones and imports from other emerging markets, as superior quality (Kinra, 2006; Hu et al., 2008; Wang and Yang, 2008).

In developed markets, it has been observed that consumers are regularly confronted with equally strong foreign and local alternatives, but they frequently prefer the local ones (Schooler, 1965; Erdogan and Uzokurt, 2010; Jiménez-Guerrero et al., 2014). This prejudice towards local alternatives despite the increased openness towards foreign products (Suh and Smith, 2008; Westjohn et al., 2016) is due to the perceived moral obligation towards purchasing domestic products (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Netemeyer et al., 1991; Sharma et al., 1995). As a result, Hamin and Elliot (2006) emphasised the importance of investigating the influences of Country-of-Origin within developed and developing countries. This emphasis is due to the difference in the impact of the combined effects of Country-of-Origin when comparing developed and developing countries. It has been found that a consumer can favour a product from a foreign country but still decide not to purchase it because of the inappropriateness and immorality (normative reasons) of such behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Herche, 1992). Overall, growing evidence shows the variance in the attitudes and perceptions

between developed and emerging markets (Sharma, 2011; Cilingir and Basfirinci, 2014).

It has become obvious that the lack of research done in emerging markets of developing countries (Ferguson et al., 2008) and the growing evidence showing the variance in the attitudes and perceptions between developed and emerging markets (Sharma, 2011) urge more research to be conducted. This lack of research has led to inconsistent results and even assumptions about treating developed and emerging markets as being the same. Consequently, future research should extend the set of Country-of-Origin s and country markets, calling for further research on emerging markets in developing countries.

#### 2.6.5 The Relationship Between Country-of-Origin, National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism

Country-of-Origin Effects are represented in the cognitive, affective, and normative associations with a particular country that impacts consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions because Country-of-Origin acts as a signal of product quality and influences consumers' risk and value perceptions (Phau and Chao, 2008; Chattalas et al., 2008; Kim and Park, 2017). Therefore, understanding how Country-of-Origin evaluations are related to socio-psychological traits such as National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism within a nation provides a better understanding of the contributing factors underlying the formation of these Country-of-Origin evaluations (Kucukemiroglu et al., 2005; Ortega-Egea and García-de-Frutos, 2021). In 1987, Shimp and Sharma argued that a Country-of-Origin invokes specific socio-psychological processes apart from those of a typical stereotyping process. The literature on Country-of-Origin supports the idea that it operates through three distinct processes that affect

evaluations and purchase intentions (such as Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1989; Papadopoulos et al., 1990; Ger, 1991; Niss, 1996; Askegaard and Ger, 1998; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Knight and Calantone, 2000; Laroche et al., 2005; Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009; Dmitrovic and Vida, 2010; Maher and Carter, 2011; Cilingir and Basfirinci, 2014; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015; Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017), which are:

1. **Cognitive:** consumers consider the quality signs of the product (Li and Wyer, 1994; Steenkamp, 1989). Also, the cognitive effect is represented in the degree to which a country is known for products in a certain category (i.e., product ethnicity) (Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017). This cognitive process is also known as *Country Image* (Samiee, 2010, 2011; Usunier, 2006).
2. **Normative:** social and personal (norms) relationship between the consumers and Country-of-Origin (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999) and is represented by the consumers' level of ethnocentrism (Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017).
3. **Affective:** products that represent the emotional and symbolic value for consumers meaning that consumers associate with a country due to national ties or similarities (Askegaard and Ger, 1998; Batra et al., 2000), also known as the National Identity (Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017).

It is important to note that although each component is defined separately, the interplay among the three aspects influences attitudes and behaviours. To further explain, the first component suggests that a country could be considered to carry a less or more favourable origin for certain products depending on the particular country's image. For instance, France is famous for fine wine and perfumes, versus Germany for beer and cars (Usunier and Cestre, 2007; Roth and

Diamantopoulos, 2009). This cognitive process is referred to as *Product Ethnicity* (Usunier and Cester, 2007; Tseng and Balbanis, 2011).

Herche (1992) brought attention to the fact that consumers can be favourable towards a foreign-made product yet refrain from purchasing it due to normative reasons. This observation leads to the second component, which is the Normative component. An individual can react in favour of (attraction) or against (avoidance) a product depending on how the foreign product's source country relates to his/her norms and values (Batra et al., 2000; Ettenson and Klein, 2005; Brijs et al., 2011; Samiee, 2011; Diamantopoulos et al., 2011; Jimenez and Martin, 2017). Also, one of the normative reasons behind this feeling of inappropriateness and immorality toward purchasing foreign-made products is *Consumer Ethnocentrism* (CE) (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). The fear of hurting the domestic economy and the moral imperative associated with Consumer Ethnocentrism is quite independent of the quality of foreign products (Supphellen and Rittenburg, 2001). Consumer Ethnocentrism is considered to be a salient norm of Country-of-Origin effects in the form of favouring domestic products and home-country bias (Verlegh, 2007). Adding to this, Consumer Ethnocentrism can influence the perception of the product and purchase intentions (Peterson and Jolibert, 1995), product preferences and choices (Klein, 2002; Siamagka and Balabanis, 2015; Balabanis and Siamagka, 2022) between domestic and foreign products. It is important to note that, in the case of insufficient data about the product, there is evidence that the tendency of CE is influenced by the Country-of-Origin (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Wall and Heslop, 1986, 1989; Herche, 1992; Damanpour, 1993; Elliot and Cameron, 1994; Sharma et al., 1995; Balbanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Evanschitzky et al., 2008). While Consumer Ethnocentrism is considered one of the negative sentiments towards foreign

countries and imported products in general, this sentiment can transform into positive feelings or sympathy in the case of a country of resemblance (Oberecker et al., 2008; Diamantopoulos and Oberecker, 2010). That is, if a country shares similar in-group characteristics or, in the case of previous positive experiences with that country, there is a high probability that consumers would prefer consuming products from that particular country (Cakici and Shukla, 2017). Nevertheless, Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999) concluded that the impact of a Country-of-Origin cannot be explained only by cognitive and/or normative motives and that the affective meaning of a Country-of-Origin cannot be ignored.

The third component is represented in the Affective reactions to Country-of-Origin effects which depend on the strength and direction (positive or negative) of the consumers' level of attachment to the home country (Verlegh, 2007; Josiassen, 2011). Extant research such as Fournier (1988), Stayman and Desphande (1989) and Strizhakova et al. (2008) indicate that consumers purchase products that reflect their own heritage. The extent to which individuals identify with and have a positive affiliation with their own nation is known as *National Identity* (Blank and Schmidt, 2003; Tajfel and Turner, 2004). The Country-of-Origin carries symbolic and emotional meaning for consumers (Hong and Wyer, 1989, 1990) and serves as an indicator of an individual's group identity (Bruning, 1994). That is, Country-of-Origin may associate a product or a brand with a sense of National identity and pride, which builds a strong emotional attachment (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). In the presence of a salient and strong sense of NI, the attachment to local products versus foreign products will be stronger (Bruning, 1994), and consumers are less persuaded by brand name, store image, specific product attributes or any other non-country specific cues. For example, an individual with a low sense of National Identity is not as likely to respond to promotional campaigns utilising

national themes as individuals possessing a strong sense of national identification with their nation. Adding to this, when National identity is strong, consumers may be willing to show a preference for local products even though they could spend less on imported products (Lantz and Loeb, 1996). The variance in the strength of National identity is strongly connected to ethnocentrism. A previous study by Olsen et al. (1994) reported an increase in consumers buying domestic products just for the sake of supporting the domestic economy. As a result, it can be deduced that the Country-of-Origin Effect is interpreted as an informational cue and a reinforcement of the sense of group identity. In this case, the individual may respond to Country-of-Origin cues in cases of the close association of foreign nations with his/her self-identity.

Last but not least, it seems likely that Consumer Ethnocentrism is a major determinant of consumer behaviour but is not directly involved with consumers' product evaluation. It defines manifestations of group behaviour and social identity and refers to consumers' feelings toward their own country (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel and Turner, 1986; Cilingir and Basfirinci, 2014). For example, in a study by Herche (1992), Americans declared that the Country-of-Origin effect is positive for French wine due to its known quality characteristics. Yet, they may decide not to buy it out of being nationalistic. This observation was because the preferences for domestic over foreign products differ across country markets, depending on the level of Consumer Ethnocentrism (Maier and Wilken, 2017). Accordingly, Country-of-Origin cues play the role of reducing risks, being a quality indicator to consumers and serving as an indicator of one's group identity, which theoretically links Country-of-Origin and Consumer Ethnocentrism together (Cilingir and Basfirinci, 2014). Adding to this, the Country-of-Origin Effect, which is explained by nationalistic tendencies, is further explicated by Social Identity Theory (Lantz

and Leob, 1996) which examines the relationship between an individual and his/her in-group/nation and the subsequent behaviour arising from this relationship (Tajfel and Turner, 2004; Hogg, 2006). In-group and/or social identities reflect group membership within a society. This membership defines an individual's self-concept, which shapes his/her cognition and behaviour (Tajfel, 1978). Drawing on the Social Identity Theory perspective, the individual's group identification aids in shaping the attitudinal responses and favouritism toward foreign and local brands (Cleveland et al., 2011; Bartsch et al., 2016; Makri et al., 2018). Hence, more studies exploring the interactions of all concepts together should be conducted in terms of their combined impact on consumer behaviour (Jimenez and Martin, 2010). For instance, research documenting the effect of country image (the cognitive component) on consumers that are highly ethnocentric or that identify strongly with their home country is available (e.g., Samiee, 2010, 2011; Usunier, 2006) but is scarce from a developing country's perspective.

#### 2.6.6 Conclusion

As mentioned above, extant Country-of-Origin research has mainly focused on the consumers' quality evaluations and purchase intentions. However, some empirical studies indicate that the Country-of-Origin Effect loses impact as consumers move closer to the actual purchase situation (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Agrawal and Kamakura, 1999; Josiassen et al., 2008). These studies highlight the price-related consequences of Country-of-Origin Effects that may override other product attributes, which is an important yet neglected outcome (Ettenson, 1993; Agrawal and Kamakura, 1999; Huddleston et al., 2001; Amine and Shin, 2002).

What is meant by price here is “the amount of money we must sacrifice to acquire something we desire” (Monroe, 2003, p.5). For further elaboration, a consumer may evaluate a product from one country more favourably than a product from another country yet be unwilling to pay a premium price. Therefore, it is essential to investigate the link between the Country-of-Origin of a product and the consumers’ Willingness to Pay. *Willingness to Pay* (WTP) refers to “the maximum amount of money a consumer is willing to spend for a product” (Homburg et al., 2005; p.3). Consumers use Willingness to Pay as an internal reference that influences their purchase decisions (Miyuri and Bettman, 2005; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). Consumers can be value-conscious and equally concerned about low product prices and quality (Ailawadi et al., 2001). Therefore, they tend to be more aware of prices and make comparisons among different brands to get the best value for their money (Sharma, 2011). For instance, some studies on consumers in emerging markets document that low purchasing power tends to make these consumers more value-conscious and price-sensitive (Batra, 1997; Cui and Liu, 2001; Brouthers and Xu, 2002). Other studies suggest that consumers in emerging markets may un-favour products from developed markets because of the perceived higher prices (when compared to local products’ prices) (Sharma, 2011).

Last but not least, Koschate-Fischer et al. (2012) expected that economic and political events might affect the consumers’ image of countries (and their products); in turn, Willingness to Pay may also be affected. In this case, the Country-of-Origin is known to affect consumers’ choices, especially in the presence of certain consumer traits (such as National Identity) (Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017). A good example would be a study by Olsen et al. (1994) that reported an increase in consumers buying domestic products just to support

the domestic economy, reflecting the influences of National Identity. As a result, the Willingness to Pay variable will be investigated within Country-of-Origin effects and National Identity research settings.

## 2.7 Values

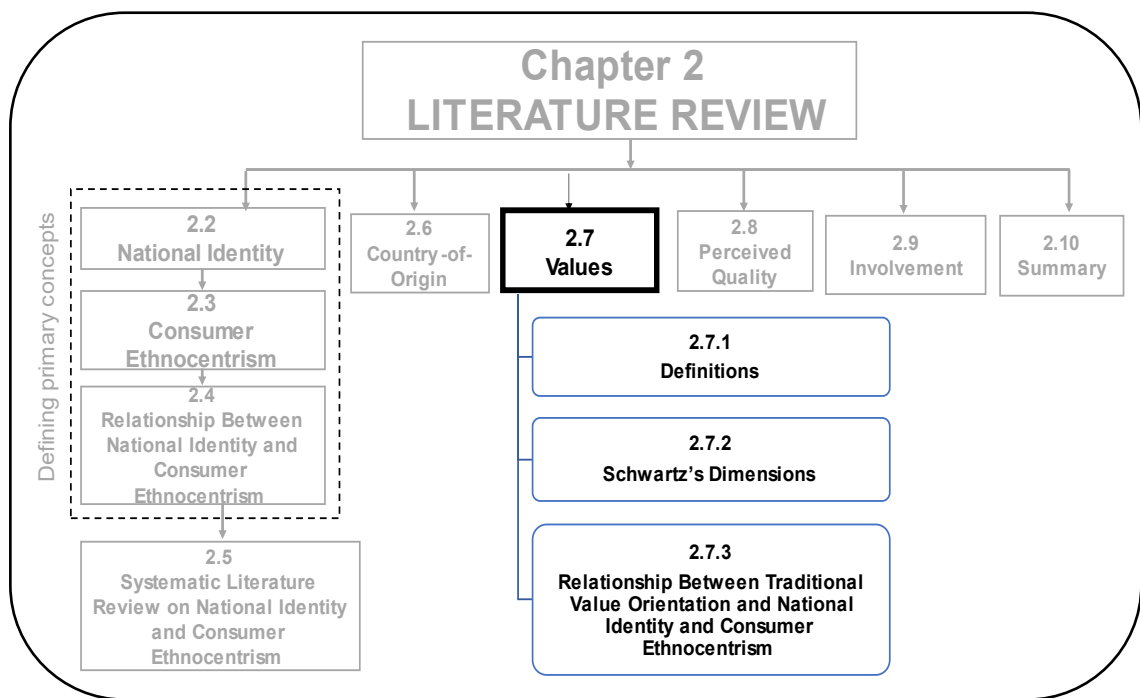
Scholars such as Lewin (1951), Rokeach (1973) and Steg and De Groot (2012) argue that values can influence behaviour and/or guide preferences. This influence can be indirect in the form of beliefs, attitudes, and norms (Fujii and Taniguchi, 2014; Dietz, 2015; Hiratsuka et al., 2018). To further explain, it has been suggested that values may act as indirect predictors of behaviours. For instance, values can influence eco-friendly consumers via behaviour-specific beliefs and norms, which leads to the purchase behaviour of eco-friendly products or services. In other words, values may influence pro-environmental behaviour directly through purchasing environmentally friendly products or services or indirectly through environmental values and norms (Nordlund and Garvill, 2002). On the other hand, values can have a direct effect on behaviour without the interference of attitudes or norms. For example, an eco-friendly consumer can immediately purchase eco-friendly products or services without the mediation of attitudes or norms. Hence, it is encouraged to further discuss the important role of values.

Both Hofstede and Schwartz suggested that the consumers' values are affected by the place where she/he was born and currently live (Schwartz, 2006; Hofstede et al., 2010). Schwartz (1992) believed that values reflect general goals that individuals strive for in life. Also, it is relevant to study values because they are relatively stable in time (Stern, 2000). Therefore, values are studied to simultaneously recognise their impact as a guiding principle on beliefs, preferences and behaviours (Rokeach, 1973; Rohan, 2000; De Groot and Steg, 2008). It has been noticed that among the existing literature review, researchers have relied on Hofstede's cultural framework to explain consumer behaviour

within a nation (Henderson et al., 2013) and Schwartz's (1992) personal value system of consumers (traditional value orientation). This research will employ Schwartz's value system to study the influence of individual consumer values. Nonetheless, Hofstede's (1984) cultural framework may also be partly consulted to further elucidate some of the study's findings.

The role played by values has not been limited only to Sociology (Schwartz, 2012), but it has been included in other disciplines as well (such as Psychology and Anthropology). Throughout the years, in the business field, values (on the individual level) have been used to explore a wide variety of studies, such as bases for market segmentation (Kamakura and Novak, 1992), managerial risks (Williams and Narendran, 1999), economic growth (Johnson and Lenartowicz, 1998) and ethical decision making (Robertson and Fadil, 1999). It is believed that the reason behind marketing interest in values is due to the abstract nature of values. This abstract nature of values facilitates the understanding of the product evaluation process of the consumers (Tsiotsou, 2006). For instance, values may affect the consumer's choice criteria, problem recognition and information search. Moreover, it has been suggested in existing marketing literature that values tend to have a direct effect on the consumers' choice criteria and an indirect effect on their attitudes, purchase intentions and behaviour (Pitts and Woodside, 1983; Tsiotsou, 2006).

In order to further understand values and how it is employed in the current research, it is important to explore the existing definitions and Schwartz's dimensions. Furthermore, the relationship between traditional value orientation and National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism will be thoroughly addressed. Figure 2.8 highlights the structure of section 2.7 of Values.



**Figure 2.8 Structure of Section 2.7 - Values**

### 2.7.1 Definitions

Poortinga (1992) described culture “as a set of shared constraints that limit the behaviour repertoire available to members of a certain.....group” (p. 10). The internal constraints are represented in culturally transmitted values and beliefs (Poortinga, 1992). When describing culture, human values are one of the most widely accepted approaches (Rokeach, 1973; Hofstede, 1983; Schwartz, 1992; Smith et al., 1996). Accordingly, values are considered to provide a stable and intrinsic understanding of behaviour (Kamakura and Novak, 1992; Balabanis et al., 2002).

Even though research done by Rokeach (1973, 1979) and Schwartz (1992, 1994b) is considered to be the basis of recent psychological theories and studies on values (De Groot and Steg, 2008), the definition of values goes back to 1963. Allport (1961) stated that “a value is a belief upon which a man acts by preference” (p. 454). In other words, it reflects the desirability of reaching a certain purpose.

Then, Schwartz (1992) defined values as “desirable trans-situational goals varying in importance, which serve as a guiding principle in the life of a person or other social entity” (p. 21). That is, individuals consider the implications of their choices and behaviour on the matters they value most. Therefore, values are used as standards when making judgments or justifying actions (Schwartz, 1994b). De Groot and Steg (2008) agreed with Schwartz’s definition that values are “rather abstract”; hence, they are considered trans-situational as they “transcend” specific situations (De Groot and Steg, 2008, p.331). As a result, Schwartz’s (1992) definition is considered inclusive of all the most agreed upon key features of values. Adding to this, Steg et al. (2012) believe that “values influence what knowledge becomes cognitively most accessible, how people evaluate various aspects of the situation, how much importance people ascribe to different consequences of actions, and what alternatives are being considered” (pp. 164, 165).

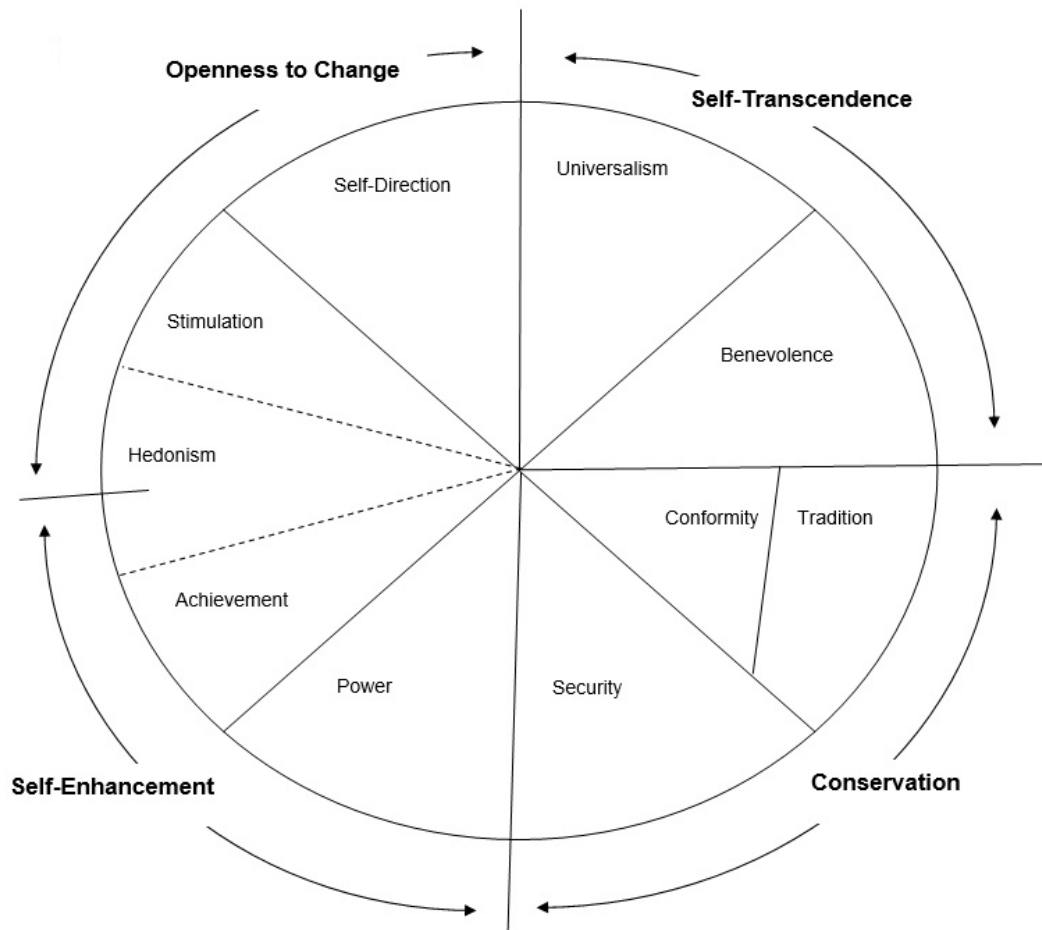
Theoretically and empirically, values have been reasoned and validated to play an important role in explaining attitudes and behavioural intentions (Stern and Dietz, 1994; Stern, 2000; De Groot and Steg, 2008). But individuals can prioritise various values differently (Steg et al., 2012). As a result, individuals will base their choices on the value they consider the most important to act on.

### 2.7.2 Schwartz’s Dimensions

Schwartz developed the theory of universal aspects of the content and structure of human values to enable the study of the relationships between human values and behaviour (Schwartz, 1992, 1994b). The theory remains widely used by psychologists (Pepper et al., 2009) and has been empirically validated in more than 65 countries worldwide (Schwartz, 2003, p.266). Schwartz (1992) defined

culture with ten types of values. The values are distinguished from one another through a crucial content aspect which lies in the expressed type of motivational goal (Schwartz, 1994b). Schwartz administered collecting data from 20 different countries, including Australia, Brazil, China, Finland, Germany, Japan and Zimbabwe (1992). The sample mainly consisted of students and teachers representing 13 different languages and eight major religions (including Muslims) as well as atheists (Schwartz, 1992). As a result, the sample was diverse in terms of culture, language and geographical region. Even though the purpose of the study was to develop universal human values, doing comparisons within-culture allowed the researcher to differentiate between culture-specific and universal aspects of value meanings.

The dimensions developed by Schwartz cover a wide variety of potential cultural differences (Ng et al., 2007). Ten values describe culture on a national level (Schwartz, 1999; Schwartz, 2006). The human values are plotted in those two dimensions demonstrated in Figure 2.9.



**Figure 2.9 Circumplex Structure of Schwartz Value System Values (adapted from Schwartz, 1992, p. 45)**

Figure 2.9 exhibits the dimensions represented in a bipolar circumplex that identifies ten motivationally distinct values and specifies the dynamic relationship among them. It is important to note that each type of value has consequences (psychological, practical, and social) that may conflict with the pursuit of the other types of values (Schwartz, 1994b). Moreover, in the circumplex (Figure 2.9), compatible value types are placed adjacent to each other, while conflicting values are opposite each other (Pepper et al., 2009). The first dimension includes Openness to Change and Conservation. Openness to Change covers values emphasising one's independent thoughts and actions and encouraging change, while the opposing side, Conservation, covers values emphasising preservation

of traditional practices and encouraging stability (Schwartz, 1994b). The second dimension embraces Self-Enhancement reflecting “a concern with one’s own interests”, versus Self-Transcendence values “reflecting a concern with collective interests” (Steg et al. 2012, p.165, 166). Noticeably, in this two-dimensional space, Hedonism does not play a distinctive role because it is considered related to both Self-enhancement and Openness to Change (Schwartz, 1992). Finally, each dimension includes motivational values, which are listed and defined in Table 2.7.

**Table 2.7: Definitions of motivational types of Values in terms of their goals and the single Values that represent them**

Values	Meaning
<b>Universalism:</b>	Appreciation and protection for the welfare of the members of society and nature.
<b>Benevolence:</b>	Represents the desire to enhance the welfare of the members of society whom one is in frequent contact with.
<b>Conformity:</b>	Aiming toward harmony among members of the society and society’s goal to restrain upsetting and harmful actions. It is also represented in the form of obedience and honouring of the elderly.
<b>Tradition:</b>	Importance of meeting society’s expectations on a daily basis. This includes respect, commitment, and acceptance of traditions, customs, and ideas.
<b>Security:</b>	It is represented in society’s desire to be safe and stable. This includes harmony for the overall population in terms of family and national security.
<b>Power:</b>	How much a society values social status and recognition in terms of prestige, control over other individuals and resources.
<b>Achievement:</b>	Achieving social recognition through personal success (ambitions, intelligence and capabilities) and competence according to social standards.
<b>Hedonism:</b>	Indulging in life enjoyment, pleasure, and sensuous gratification for oneself.
<b>Stimulation:</b>	Includes satisfying the individual needs but with the need for excitement, novelty, and challenges in life to maintain a positive attitude of members of society.
<b>Self-direction:</b>	The independence and creativity of the society enable members to choose their own goals.

**Source:** Self-produced based on Schwartz and Bardi (2001) and Schwartz (2006)

In 1994b, Schwartz included 97 samples from 44 countries, including the USA, Mexico, Germany, France, Sweden, Hong Kong, Japan, New Zealand, India,

Turkey, Greece, and Zimbabwe, in a review of research. This examination revealed that the dimensions of Openness to Change (Self-direction and Achievement) and Conservation (Tradition, Security and Conformity) appeared in 99% of the samples (Schwartz, 1994b). Self-Enhancement (Achievement and Power) and Self-Transcendence (Universalism and Benevolence) dimensions emerged in 97% of the samples (Schwartz, 1994b). This examination shows that, even though it is believed that the nature and structure of values are universal, individuals and groups hold different values (Schwartz, 2012). That is, a particular value can be important to an individual but is of less importance to another. Therefore, it is important to explore values at an individual level.

Given its strong theoretical foundations, Schwartz's framework offers great potential for international marketing research (Steenkamp, 2001). From a marketing perspective, the importance of studying human values proceeds beyond market entry strategies. They are also important for knowing which marketing communication strategies to apply (segmentation, channels, message designs, etc.) after choosing which market to enter (Schwartz and Ros, 1995; Lenartowicz et al., 2003; Chen et al., 2005; Douglas and Craig, 2011). Managerially, generalising consumers' perceptions of a whole country and ignoring regional differences may negatively affect a company's success in this country (Thelen et al., 2006).

Generally, Schwartz's cultural values are an appropriate foundation for the current research. More specifically, it is significant to refer to the values of Conservation in the current study. As demonstrated in Figure 2.9, Conservation is described through three basic values, which are Tradition, Security and Conformity. Tradition was described as "respect, commitment and acceptance of the customs and ideas that one's culture or religion provides" (Schwartz, 2012,

p.6). This value allows people to decide what is good or bad, acceptable or unacceptable and worth doing or avoiding based on their traditions and cherished values. Security represents a person aiming toward safety, stability and harmony for themselves and their relationships with others. Conformity describes the loyal and responsible behaviour and everyday interactions of consumers that are controlled (sometimes restrained) by values (Schwartz, 1996). Tradition and conformity share the motivational goal of placing the self under socially imposed expectations. But the difference between them is that tradition entails subordination to customs, norms and religion, while conformity entails subordination to people with whom one is in frequent contact (e.g., parents, boss, etc.). As a result, it can be concluded that the values of Conservation (Tradition, Security and Conformity) represent devotion to an individual's in-group by emphasising the preservation of traditional practices and encouraging stability (Schwartz, 1994b; Schwartz, 2012).

### 2.7.3 Relationship Between Traditional Value Orientation and National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism

#### 2.7.3.1 Consumer Ethnocentrism:

Sharma et al. (1995) examined Hofstede's (1983) cultural dimensions of individualism and collectivism in the form of antecedents with CE. Researchers such as Yoo and Donthu (2005) and Javalgi et al. (2005) also relied on Hofstede's collectivism when examining cultural values against CE. Studies on CE have been conducted in several countries, such as the USA (Shimp and Sharma, 1987), Poland (Supphellen and Rittenburg, 2001), the United Kingdom (Siamagka and Balabanis, 2015), Australia, China, Russia, and Brazil (Strizhakova and Coutler, 2015) and Morocco (Hamelin et al., 2011). Previously, Balabanis et al. (2002) evaluated the relationship between CE and human values.

They found that Schwartz's cultural dimension Conservation is positively correlated with consumers' levels of ethnocentrism. However, consumers may need to make sacrifices when deciding on what is good or bad, acceptable or unacceptable and worth doing or avoiding when placed under socially imposed expectations. This moral obligation presented by CE may lead consumers to put their own country's interests over their self-interests (Powers and Hopkins, 2006). For instance, consumers may sacrifice quality and price to favour domestic products over foreign ones if society expects them to do so or because it is the right thing to do to support the economy and other members of the society. As a result, more research covering the influence of human values on the behaviours of consumers using Schwartz's framework is important.

For further advancement of marketing as an academic discipline, more studies and examinations alongside the ones conducted in Western countries and on CE are required. In addition, a more evolved and comprehensive framework that incorporates more dimensions of values is needed. In this case, utilizing Schwartz's (1992) dimensions will allow the capture of more of the motivational influences on human behaviour expressed in values (Schwartz, 1996).

#### 2.7.3.2 National Identity:

Tung (2008) and Henderson et al. (2013) referred to National Identity as the extent to which consumers must abide by the traditional values of a country. This "within-national diversity" perspective implies that individuals within the same country have different levels of adherence to National Identity due to globalization and acculturation (Tung, 2008; Watchravesringkan, 2011; Henderson et al., 2013). Therefore, the National Identity of an individual is what forms his/her cultural and value orientation. This is based on the value orientation that the

individual will develop to judge the product or service being consumed (Schwartz, 1992; Thuy and Hau, 2010).

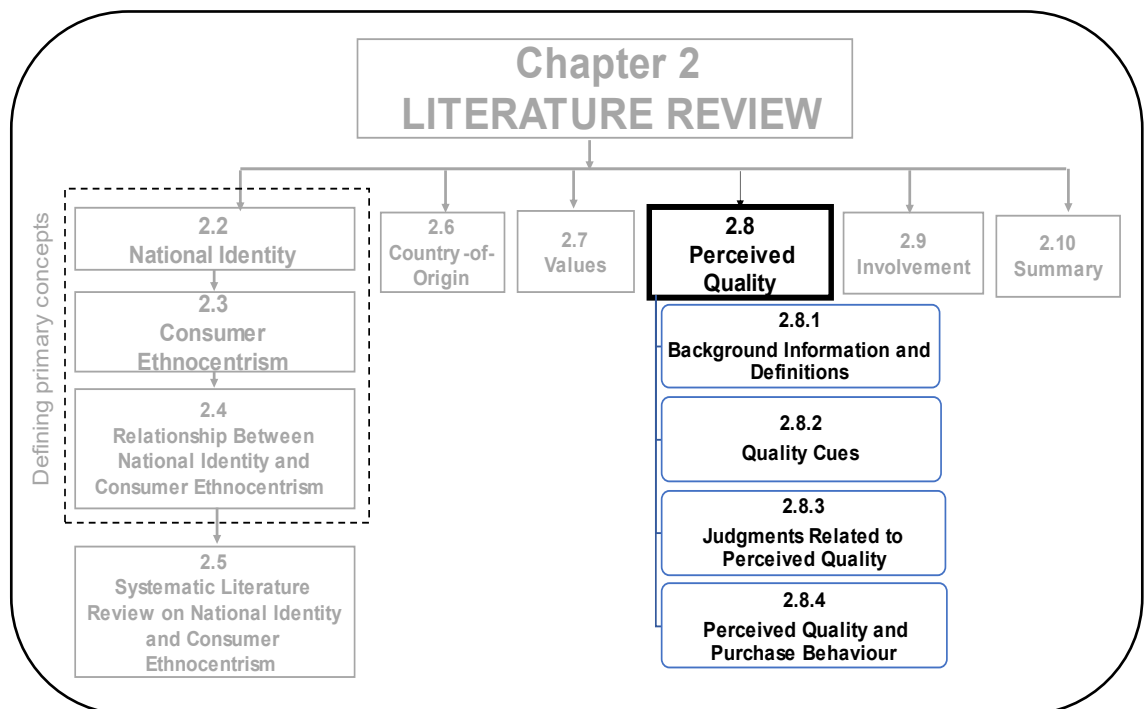
Regarding National Identity, the members of the in-group tend to behave in a manner that enhances their self-image (Siamagka and Balabanis, 2015; Balabanis and Siamagka, 2022). In addition, when in-group members feel threatened, they tend to increase their group identity (Grant, 1993) by responding in a way that defends their in-group (Bizumic et al., 2009; Siamagka and Balabanis, 2015). One of the proposed ways is to buy local products. Therefore, the purpose of the current research is to examine the association between National Identity and the process of product evaluation under the influence of Schwartz's human values. Values are used as standards when making judgments or justifications for actions (Schwartz, 1994b), and individuals base their choices on the value they consider the most important to act on. Therefore, values are studied to simultaneously recognise their impact as a guiding principle on beliefs, preferences, and behaviours.

The current research aims to contribute to the existing literature by exploring the available human universal values by employing Schwartz's (1992) human values framework. Exploring Schwartz's human values framework requires examining the influences of values on human behaviour in other cultural settings, especially as the existing studies cover other topics such as sustainability (Pepper et al., 2009), fair trade non-food products (Ma and Lee, 2012) and organic products (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Dreezens et al., 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2013). This approach will aid academics in further explaining the reasons behind variations in the levels of National Identity between individuals within a country.

It is important to add that Schwartz's (1992) personal value system of consumers is believed to emphasise the association between National Identity and product evaluation. Product evaluation reflects the perceived quality and perceived price (Sharma, 2011). To further explain, it has been suggested that the level of National Identity of an individual structure his/her social value system, which develops personal judgment of the product or service being consumed (Thuy and Hau, 2010). Usually, for consumers in developing countries, perceived quality represents a more meaningful attribute because of the questionable quality of local products (Le et al., 2013). However, it is proposed that the influence of the sense of National Identity may link the local products to pride and build a strong emotional attachment. Therefore, consumers with a high sense of National Identity may tend to perceive local products as of high quality to fulfil a positive view of the nation (Lantz et al., 2002).

## 2.8 Perceived Quality

As previously mentioned, it has been suggested that National Identity may influence the perceived quality of the product or service being consumed. Before further exploring the relationship between National Identity and perceived quality, it is important to investigate the background information and definitions of perceived quality. This background information includes quality cues and judgements related to perceived quality. Moreover, the relationship between perceived quality and purchase behaviour will be thoroughly discussed. Figure 2.10 illustrates the structure of section 2.8 of Perceived Quality.



**Figure 2.10 Structure of Section 2.8 - Perceived Quality**

### 2.8.1 Background Information and Definitions

Initially, Perceived Quality is considered an extension of the concept of Quality (Zeithaml, 1988). Quality is broadly defined as “superiority” or “excellence” (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 3). Therefore, Perceived Quality is defined as “the consumer’s

(subjective) judgment about a product's overall excellence or superiority" (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 3). This definition has gained a reasonable level of acceptance among researchers such as Dodds et al. (1991), Yoo and Donthu (2001), Netemeyer et al. (2004), Le et al. (2013) and Konuk (2018). Perceived Quality (PQ), categorised as a subjective judgment on quality, is different from objective quality because Perceived Quality is referred to within a specific consumption setting, while objective quality is the "actual technical excellence of the product" that is measurable and verifiable (Tsotsou, 2006, p. 210; Monroe and Krishnan, 1985). In other words, Perceived Quality acts as a subjective thought in the consumer's mind and has a higher abstraction degree than objective quality (Zeithaml, 1988; Anselmsson et al., 2014). The consumer's subjective judgment of quality can be influenced by his/her personal product experience, specific needs and situations related to consumption (Yoo et al., 2000). Consumers usually use quality cues to build perceived quality expectations.

### 2.8.2 Quality Cues

Product characteristics that are observed without actual consumption or utilisation are known as quality cues (Oude Ophuis and Van Trijp, 1995, p. 179). Previous research classified quality cues as intrinsic and extrinsic (e.g., Olson and Jacoby, 1972; Monroe and Dodds, 1988; Rao and Monroe, 1989; Richardson et al., 1994). Intrinsic quality cues are related to the physical properties of the product, such as colour and shape; for example, observing the physical appearance of fresh fruits or fish as an indication of the expected perceived quality. Extrinsic quality cues are related to the product itself but not to the physical properties of that product, which are represented in the price, brand name and packaging of the product. Price is considered the most common

extrinsic quality cue (Oude Ophuis and Van Trijp, 1995; Le et al., 2013). This cue is complemented by consumers' judgment of quality expectations and performance. Perceived Quality can be obtained through promotions that convey information (intrinsic or extrinsic) related to the general quality of the brand or product. Another way to obtain Perceived Quality is through direct judgements from experience with a brand or product (Fazio and Zanna, 1981).

### 2.8.3 Judgments Related to Perceived Quality

Perceived Quality is also known as the "fitness of consumption", with an overall evaluation from very poor to very good quality (Steenkamp and Van Trijp, 1996, p. 197). Judgements related to Perceived Quality are noted at two different stages. The first stage is the quality expectation, where "the consumer forms an impression about the product's expected fitness of consumption" (Steenkamp and Van Trijp, 1996, p. 197). This stage is important for the consumer's choice behaviour (Narasimhan and Sen, 1992). Usually, the quality expectations about a product are based on one or more quality cues. After consumption, the consumer's evaluation of the quality of the consumed product is known as judging the quality performance. Quality performance is the second stage of judgments related to Perceived Quality and is represented in the actual fitness for consumption (Churchill and Suprenant, 1982). Therefore, Perceived Quality was further defined as the "overall subjective judgment of quality relative to the expectation of quality" (Tsui, 2012, p. 1193). Consumers acknowledge the superiority and differentiation of a product through the long-term experience related to that product. Also, the expectations of quality are formed from previous personal experiences, brand reputation, price, and advertising (Dodds et al., 1991; Tsui, 2012). Therefore, high perceived quality would motivate the consumer to choose that product rather than other competing ones (Yoo et al.,

2000). For instance, nationalistic biases were positively associated with product evaluations (Dodds et al., 1991; Verlegh, 2007). Hence, consumers may positively evaluate domestic products due to nationalistic feelings and maintain a positive self-image within society. Adding to this, increasing the perceived quality of a product can create a differentiated position for the brand within the market, which may encourage consumers to pay more (Steenkamp et al., 2010; Anselmsson et al., 2014).

#### 2.8.4 Perceived Quality and Purchase Behaviour

Perceived Quality has been linked to Customer-Based Brand Equity and considered a primary construct in studies across the framework of Customer-Based Brand Equity (such as Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993) due to being associated with Willingness to Pay a premium price, brand choice and purchase intention (Netemeyer et al., 2004). Some empirical studies documented a positive relationship between Perceived Quality and Willingness to Pay premium price and purchase behaviour (Sethuraman, 2000; Netemeyer et al., 2004). In the food marketing literature, it has been proposed that Perceived Quality could act as a determinant of the premium price that consumers are willing to pay (Anselmsson et al., 2007; Kalogeras et al., 2009). On the other hand, it is believed that Perceived Quality does not provide the full picture and might not explain the consumer's Willingness to Pay a premium price by itself (Sethuraman, 2000; Anselmsson et al., 2014). For instance, previous research on brand equity (Yoo and Donthu, 2001; Kim and Kim, 2005) and marketing (Méndez et al., 2011; Khan and Mahmood, 2012) and food marketing (Richardson et al., 1994; Anselmsson et al., 2007) have focused more on consumers' choice and preference rather than willingness to pay a premium price. This previous research highlights the

importance of adding non-quality brand associations, such as National Identity, along with quality perceptions to explain the consumer's Willingness to Pay.

Previous research shows that consumers in developed countries tend to perceive domestic products as of higher quality than imported products (Dickerson, 1982; Morganosky and Lazarde, 1987; Herche, 1992; Damanpour, 1993; Elliot and Cameron, 1994). On the contrary, it was found that this claim is reversed in the case of developing countries due to foreign liability and foreign product quality (Bow and Ford, 1993; Sklair, 1994; Agbonifoh and Elimimian, 1999; Batra et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2000). This finding brings up the effects of non-quality brand associations, such as National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism, on product evaluation in the case of quality levels' disparity between domestic and foreign-made products (Supphellen and Rittenburg, 2001). The contradictory findings encourage further research on perceived quality and non-quality brand associations in developing countries.

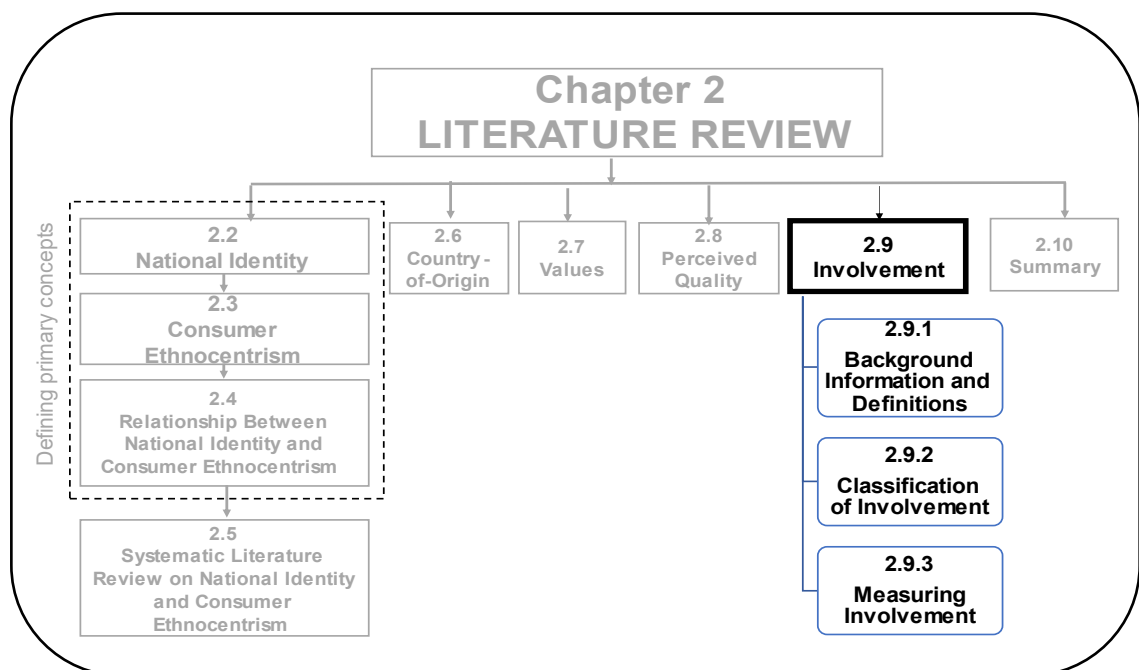
Finally, regarding measuring quality, most of the preliminary academic research relied on unidimensional rating scales. The problem with these unidimensional quality rating scales is that they allow respondents to interpret them in any way they choose (Zeithaml, 1988). This aspect was perceived as problematic because this may not ensure that the respondent will interpret the quality in the same way intended by the researcher for the study. As a result, Parasuraman et al. (1986) proposed a measurement used to investigate service quality. The approach aimed to treat quality as a comparison between the consumer's expectations and the performance based on those expectations. This approach allowed the highlighting of individual differences within subjects for the properties that communicate quality. However, this approach targeted individual elements of quality rather than the overall quality. In 1991, Dodds, Monroe and Grewal

expanded the evaluation of quality beyond the conventional price-perceived quality state. The research examined the influence of extrinsic cues on perceived quality, value, and purchase intentions. The measurement scale developed by Dodds et al. (1991) was considered adequate for evaluating the consumer's subjective judgement about the general excellence of a brand (Yoo et al., 2000; Yoo and Donthu, 2001). Similarly, Sweeny et al. (1999) and Bao et al. (2011) adopted the previously developed Perceived Quality scale developed by Dodds et al. (1991) to measure the overall perceptions of quality.

## 2.9 Involvement

Initially, to further understand the construct of involvement and how it is employed in the current research, it is important to provide background information and highlight the important definitions of this construct. Additionally, the classifications of involvement are discussed. This further understanding is complemented by recognising the existing measuring scales of involvement.

Figure 2.11 illustrates the structure of section 2.9 of Involvement.



**Figure 2.11 Structure of Section 2.9 - Involvement**

Previous research suggested that consumers are on the search for information that they can use to make informed choices when it comes to making a reasonable decision about purchasing a certain product or service (e.g., Howard and Sheth, 1969; Markin and Narayana, 1975; Bettman, 1979). However, it was pointed out that not all consumers get extensively involved in the information search process, even for crucial purchasing decisions (Olshavsky and Granbois, 1979; Kassarian, 1978, 1981). As a result, the level of involvement of the consumer was divided into low involvement consumer behaviour and high

involvement consumer behaviour (Engel and Blackwell, 1982). Over the years, involvement and its influences have been a topic of interest for researchers to understand consumer attitudes, perceptions, and brand preferences (e.g., Traylor and Joseph, 1984; Lesschaeve and Bruwer, 2010; Schiffman et al., 2011). The majority of the previous research work conducted in the construct of involvement has taken place across disciplines such as Social Psychology (Sherif and Sherif, 1967), Consumer Research (Krugman, 1967) and Leisure and Tourism (Havitz and Dimanche, 1997; Havitz and Mannell, 2005). These previous studies contributed to the understanding of the characteristics of consumers in their decision making process.

The concept of involvement aims to provide researchers with a better understanding of how and why a consumer creates particular attachments toward a product class (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Richins and Bloch, 1986; Kapferer and Laurent, 1993). For instance, a consumer may be highly interested in the clothes he/she wears but not very interested in which music genre to listen to. Therefore, the level of involvement directs the consumer throughout their information search and decision process (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985). In addition, the consumer's degree of involvement with a product or situation acts as a mediating variable for consumer behaviour.

#### 2.9.1 Background Information and Definitions

Old yet valuable published studies about involvement have addressed the constructs of involvement (Vaughn, 1980, 1986; Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Park and Young, 1986; McQuarrie and Munson, 1987; Zaichkowsky, 1987; Mittal and Lee, 1989; Kim and Lord, 1991; Kim and Lord 1991; Purttrevu and Lord, 1994). Two main common aspects were agreed upon within the various studies, which

are: *Cognitive involvement* (rational and thinking, derived from utilitarian motives) and, *Affective involvement* (emotional and hedonic, induced from value-expressive motives).

The term “involvement” has been applied in various literature related to advertisements (Krugman, 1962,1965, 1977; Ray et al., 1973; Wright, 1974-75), products (Howard and Sheth, 1969; Hupfer and Gardner, 1971) and purchase decisions (Clarke and Belk, 1978) which in turn leads to distinct responses. For example, when involvement is related to purchase decisions, an individual may spend more time and effort searching for information to make the right choice (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Generally, involvement is related to advertising so that the audience is personally influenced and motivated toward product involvement. It is concerned with the needs and values of the consumers and purchase decision involvement which is concerned with the consumer carefully making the right decision. In other words, involvement can be referred to as personal relevance (Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984). Accordingly, the commonly used definition of *Involvement* is “a person’s perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values and interest” (Zaichkowsky, 1985, p. 342).

In 1989, Mittal suggested a comprehensive definition of involvement from previous work by Sherif and Cantril (1947), Day (1970), Mitchell (1979) and Cohen (1983). As a result, involvement was defined as “the degree of interest of a person in an object” (Mittal, 1989, p. 148). The main outcome of this definition is that involvement is goal-oriented. This goal could be the product itself or the purchase decision (Mittal, 1989). Later on, the definition seems to have progressed into involvement being “a motivational state of mind of a person with regard to an object or activity. It reveals itself as the level of interest in that object or activity” (Mittal, 1995, p. 664). From a behavioural point of view, involvement

being a motivational and goal-directed emotional state, has been agreed on in terms of product information search and evaluation (Brennan and Mavondo, 2000; Schiffman et al., 2011).

Involvement has been viewed as having three main antecedent factors (Zaichkowsky, 1986; Bloch and Richins, 1983). The first antecedent factor is affiliated with the characteristics of an individual. The second factor revolves around the aspects of the stimulus, and the third antecedent factor is related to the aspects of the situation itself. It is expected that one or more of these antecedent factors could affect the level of involvement in a purchasing situation (Clarke and Belk, 1978; Zaichkowsky, 1994).

In 1983, Taylor observed that “involvement results from the fact that important values or the person’s self-image are engaged or made salient by a decision situation. These values, self-images and important attitudes become cognitively linked to a particular stand or choice alternative” (Taylor, 1983, p.145). Besides, Assael (1998) referred to involvement as being consistently identified as a key moderator of the relationship strength between attitudes and behavioural intentions. And according to Coulter et al. (2003) and other established research, a commitment to a brand is known to be preceded by involvement activation. Thus, for consumers to be committed to a certain brand, it is believed to be preceded by involvement salience. Additionally, it is suggested by Beatty et al. (1988) that the extensive decision making process led by involvement may result in a symbolic value (e.g., nationalism and patriotism) for the consumer leading to a higher commitment to the brand. And that the value orientation resulting from the level of involvement will have an effect on the purchasing intentions of a certain brand.

It is manifested that consumers will be more concerned with the product they purchase when they associate values outcomes (functional, social, and psychological) with the use of this product (Bloch and Richins, 1983; Lichtenstein et al., 1988). That is, the higher the involvement level, the more the consumer dedicates time and effort to the decision making process (Beatty and Smith, 1987). In contrast, it is important to understand that in the case of low involvement, a consumer will make minimal purchase efforts because the adverse consequences associated with a wrong purchase decision are very small (Bronnenberg and Vanhonacker, 1996; Gordon et al., 1998). In addition, the connection between the brand and the consumer's actual self will be less likely in the situation of lower involvement levels (Malär et al., 2011). Therefore, if a product has a weak relationship with an individual's self-concept and values, s/he will care less about his/her brand choice (Beatty et al., 1988).

### 2.9.2 Classification of Involvement

In 1984, Rothschild proposed three main categories of involvement, which are *Enduring Involvement*, *Situational Involvement* and *Response Involvement*. The purpose behind classifying involvement is to gain a better understanding of the concept. Enduring involvement is perceived as an attitude that is characterised by being stable over time (Bruwer and Huang, 2012). This perception allows the signalling of the personal relevance of an object to the individual (Laaksonen, 1997), which is determined by cognitive factors such as interests, needs and values (Bruwer, 2012). Situational involvement "represents a mindset - temporary concern with a stimulus object that is aroused by a particular cause such as perceived risk or need" (Michaelidou and Dibb, 2008, p.444). This temporary interest is usually triggered by a particular cause. It has been argued that, unlike enduring involvement, situational involvement is not related to cognitive factors

(such as self-knowledge, values and needs) because it is considered a mental state (Laaksonen, 1997; Bruwer, 2012). Response involvement refers to the behavioural positioning of involvement, which reflects the time and effort devoted to attempting the behaviour (Rothschild, 1984). In other words, in this sense, involvement is viewed as a behaviour (Laaksonen, 1997). It is worth mentioning that the classification of involvement evolved when Zaichowsky (1985) and Mittal and Lee (1989) employed product and purchase involvement.

### 2.9.3 Measuring Involvement

Researchers such as Arora (1982), Bloch and Richins (1983) and Mittal (1989) distinguished between product involvement and Purchase Decision Involvement (PDI). One of the suggested differences is that a consumer may have a low product involvement but has a high involvement in product choice. Product involvement is represented in the importance of the product and the enduring involvement. For example, the heater as a product is important, but it may not be expressive of self-concept (enduring involvement) (Mittal, 1989). Product involvement is considered to be a reflection of a specific product class. This reflection may be more or less central to some individuals in their lives, their sense of identity and their relationship with the world around them (Te'eni-Harari and Hornik, 2010). Michaelidou and Dibb (2006) examined product involvement as a multidimensional construct that included interest, sign value/symbolic, hedonic/pleasure and importance). An earlier report by Mittal defined Purchase Decision Involvement as “the extent of interest and concern that a consumer brings to bear upon a purchase decision task” (Mittal, 1989, p. 150).

In 1985, Zaichowsky developed a measurement scale to measure the motivational state of involvement. The purpose of that measuring scale was to

measure the state of involvement. The reason behind this is that involvement may not be considered a stable trait due to the antecedents that may cause changes to the level of involvement. Similarly, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) developed an involvement profile scale measuring product class involvement and Purchase Decision Involvement. This scale included importance, sign and pleasure value and risk aspects. However, these two measurement scales were not seen as sufficient for measuring purchase decision involvement (Mittal, 1989).

A measurement scale for purchase decision involvement was developed by Mittal (1989), which included items for measuring the care put into making the right choice, the importance of making the right purchase decision and the concerns regarding the outcome of these choices. As a result, Mittal (1989) deals with Involvement as (unidimensional) one of the variables of interest in a study. Purchase Decision Involvement scale was developed to differentiate between Product Involvement (multidimensional) and Purchase Decision Involvement. Here, it measures a single underlying construct through items for the degree of caring, perceived brand differences, the importance of the right brand selections and concern with the outcome. The intent of the developed scale comes in line with the definition of purchase decision involvement, which is “the extent to which he or she is motivated to make the right choice” (Mittal, 1989, p. 159).

## **2.10 Summary**

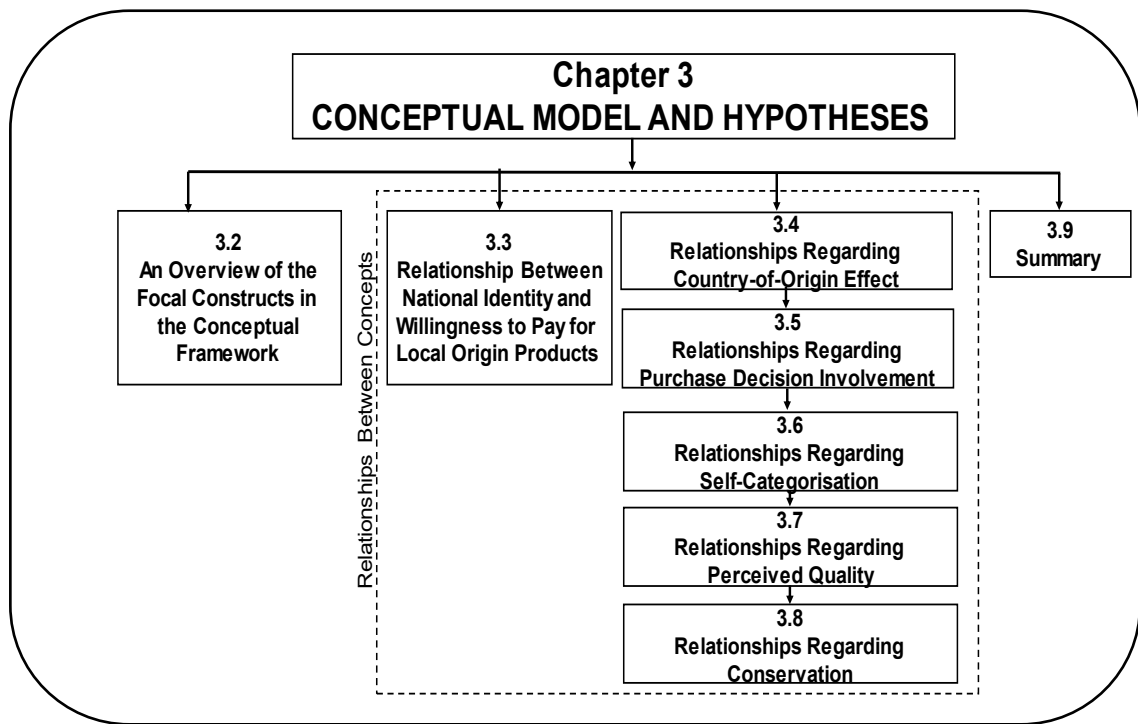
The main definitions and dimensions of the construct of National Identity were identified through a critical review of the literature. In addition, the role of SIT, which is the theoretical foundation of this research, in explaining in-group bias and out-group bias was presented. As a result, various arguments treating National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism as synonymous and other studies encouraging disentangling them were discussed. This discussion was further enhanced by conducting a systematic literature review for National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism, which yielded significant theoretical and managerial contributions. Moreover, the importance of investigating the construct of Country-of-Origin as being the main indicator of whether the product is of a domestic or foreign origin was further highlighted by providing background information and definitions. Furthermore, Schwartz's dimensions were discussed, and their relationship with National Identity was emphasized. Finally, investigating the constructs of Involvement and Perceived Quality provided valuable information about the relationship between a consumer's degree of involvement with a product or situation and consumer behaviour. All the previous is considered a foundation to be used in developing hypotheses in the upcoming chapter.

## **Chapter 3 : CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES**

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### **3.1 Introduction**

The aim of this chapter is to explore the conceptual model of the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products in the presence of mediating factors (Evaluation of Foreign Products, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products, Purchase Decision Involvement, Self-Categorisation and Perceived Quality) and moderated-mediation. Initially, this chapter discusses the direct relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Then, the indirect relationships between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products are examined in the presence of mediating factors. This examination is followed by investigating the moderating role of Conservation on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Finally, this chapter looks at the moderated-mediation relationships. Accordingly, hypotheses are developed theory and presented to investigate all possible relationships. The summary section (Section 3.9) highlights the main points discussed in this chapter. Figure 3.1 demonstrates the structure of this chapter.

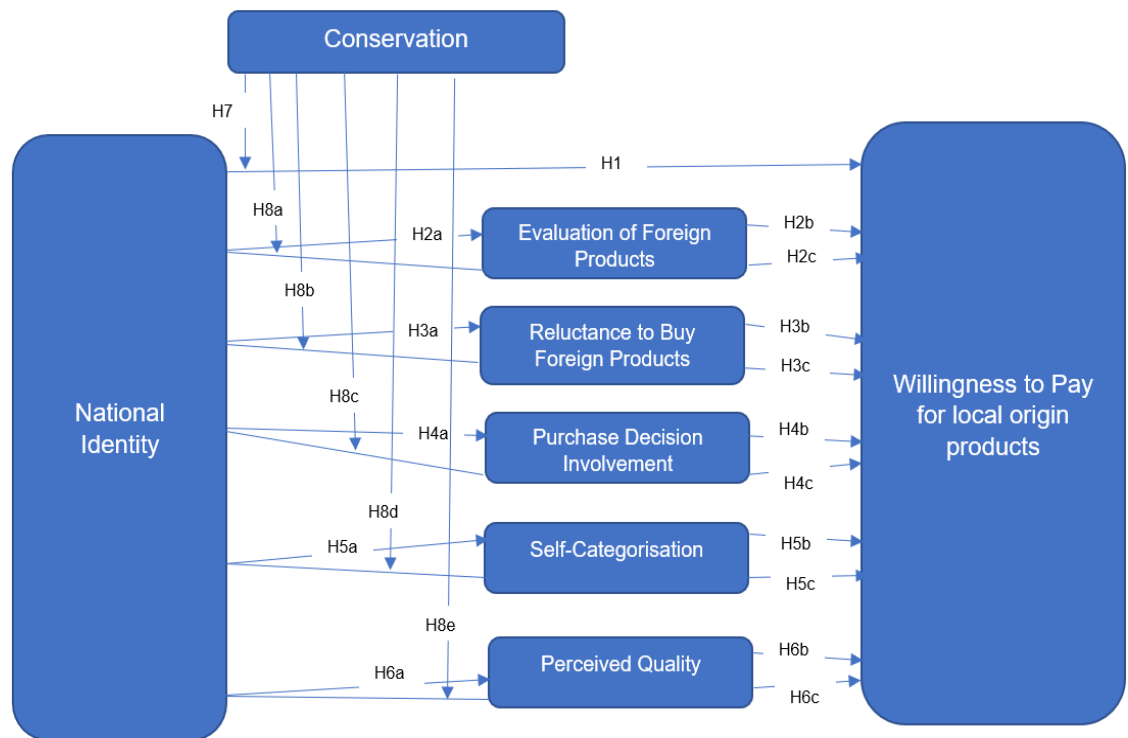


**Figure 3.1 Structure of Chapter Three**

### **3.2 An Overview of the Focal Constructs in the Conceptual Framework**

The previous chapter included a critical literature review of the constructs of National Identity, Social Identity Theory, Self-Categorisation, Consumer Ethnocentrism, Evaluation of Foreign Products, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products, Purchase Decision Involvement, Perceived Quality and Value Orientations. Initially, National Identity (pro-in-group only construct) represents the independent variable of the current study. The constructs of Evaluation of Foreign Products, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products, Self-Categorisation, Purchase Decision Involvement and Perceived Quality are considered to be the mediating research variables. The moderator variable is represented by the Value Orientations, which will be evaluated against the mediated relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Finally, Willingness to Pay for local origin products is the dependent research variable in

the current study. As a result, the conceptual framework for the current study is developed and illustrated in figure 3.2.



**Figure 3.2 Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework is a fundamental part of the current research because it acts as a map for the concepts and theories being investigated (Liehr and Smith, 2009). Accordingly, 22 hypotheses are developed from all suggested relationships from the conceptual framework. Table 3.1, in the summary section, presents the 22 developed hypotheses. This is followed by a detailed discussion of the rationale underlying the hypotheses included in the conceptual model.

### **3.3 National Identity and Willingness to Pay for Local Origin Products**

Since nationality is a part of consumers' identities, local origin products with social and cultural connotations can strengthen National Identity (Askegard and Ger, 1998). Research has demonstrated that identity articulation significantly influences consumer intention to purchase a brand (Thorbjornsen et al., 2007). Verlegh (2007) further revealed that National Identity is likely to influence bias toward home-country independently of Consumer Ethnocentrism. Moreover, even when there is no significant impact on global items, National Identity is likely to have a favourable impact on the attitudes toward the products of local origin (Verlegh, 2007; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). In this sense, consumers generally appear to appreciate commodities differently when they are linked to the National Identity (Trudel et al., 2016). This conclusion reflects how a sense of National Identity shapes consumption behaviour (Carvalho et al., 2019). Moreover, it is proposed to test the existing National Identity measurement model to find out whether it is competent in explaining Egyptian consumers' Willingness to Pay for local products. The values and attitudes toward consumption will also differ between developed and developing countries due to the differences in levels of economic and technological development (Kaynak and Kara, 2002; Gamal El-Din and El Sahn, 2013). For instance, research showed that consumers in developed countries (e.g., USA, UK, Japan, Netherlands) tend to perceive domestic products to be of higher quality in comparison to imported products (Dickerson, 1982; Morganoskay and Lazarde, 1987; Herche, 1992; Damanpour, 1993; Elliot and Cameron, 1994). On the other hand, it is claimed that, in developing countries (such as Egypt), this perception is reversed (Bow and Ford, 1993; Sklair, 1994;

Agbonifoh and Elimimian, 1999; Batra et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2000). This claim may be due to foreign liability and foreign product quality.

Several studies in developing countries such as India, Nigeria, China, Indonesia, and Turkey have shown a preference for foreign imported products. Consumers in developing countries tend to perceive domestic products as being of lower quality than foreign imported products (Bow and Ford, 1993; Agbonifoh and Elimimian, 1994, 1999; Sklair, 1994; Batra et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2000; Upadhyay and Singh, 2006). In contrast, a study about Turkish consumers showed that the preference for purchasing domestic products is to avoid hurting the economy and causing unemployment (Balabanis et al., 2001; Upadhyay and Singh, 2006).

Egypt is economically and culturally different from other countries used in previous research as it has been classified as a unique nation (Souiden, 2002). Thus, in contrast to other developing countries, Egyptian consumers seem to have a stronger identification with their nation. In addition, Egypt is a large importer of foreign products (CIA Factbook, 2021). By the end of 2011, the Economist, Dr Reda Abdel Salam, wrote in a local newspaper, “Youm 7” (The 7<sup>th</sup> day), about how Egyptian consumers are racing to find ways to save the economy and reduce unemployment rates. Further, a movement towards local produce markets and restaurants has evolved. An example is the restaurant ‘Ma7ali’ (Local) in Cairo, Egypt, which takes pride in using all local produce from the local farm.

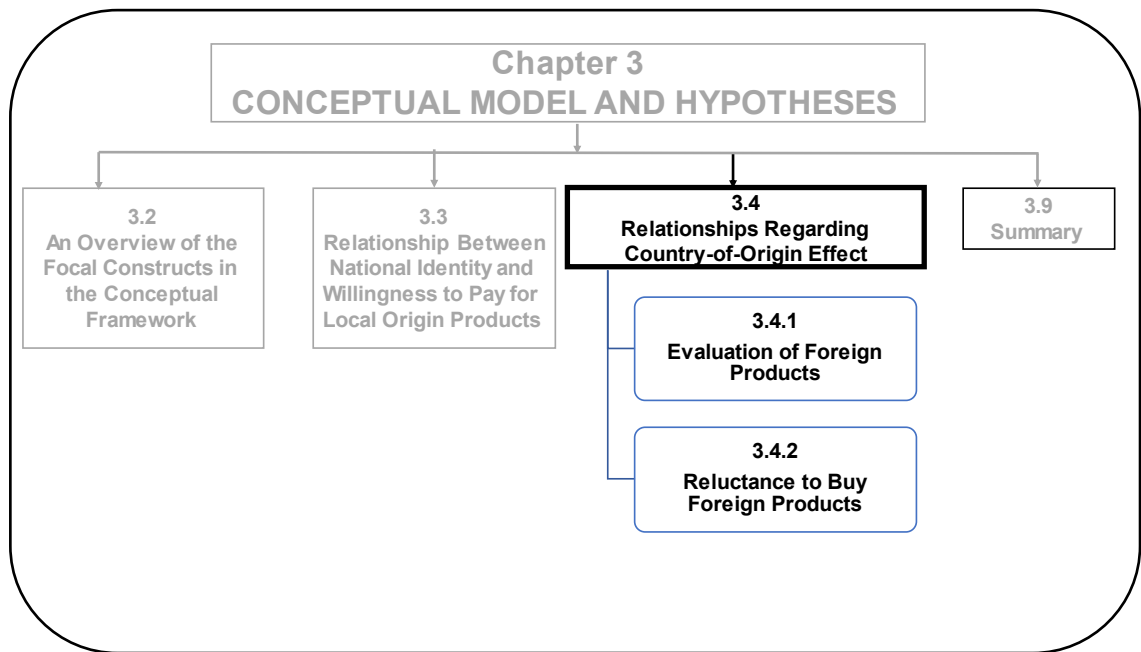
To sum up, the limited knowledge about the effect of National Identity on Willingness to Pay for local origin products within the Egyptian context (a developing country perspective) encourages further research to remedy the void

in the existing literature. Given that National Identity encourages purchasing local products even when they cost more and how Egyptian consumers seem to be racing to express their high commitment to supporting the economy and welfare of their country, it is supposed that:

*H1. National Identity has a positive direct effect on Egyptian consumers' Willingness to Pay for local origin products.*

### **3.4 Country-of-Origin Effects**

The "home country bias" phenomenon, or a preference for local over global items, has long been documented through studies on the impacts of country-of-origin (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004). Numerous studies have revealed that across a variety of product classifications and nations, customers prefer domestically produced goods to those of foreign origin (e.g., Ahmed et al., 2004; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Huddleston, Good and Stoel, 2001). This bias, which frequently leads to a preference for local brands over international ones, is typically explained by consumer characteristics like consumer values (Steenkamp and de Jong, 2010; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015), economic and sociopsychological motives (Verlegh, 2007), and patriotism (He and Wang, 2015; Vianelli et al., 2015; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). Country-of-Origin Effects thus impact consumer attitudes towards foreign products in the form of *Evaluation of Foreign Products* (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Han, 1989; Heslop and Papadopoulos, 1993) and *Reluctance To Buy Foreign Products* due to moral reasons (e.g., supporting the domestic economy) (Klein et al., 1998) and will be further discussed within those two contexts. Figure 3.3 highlights the sub-sections of the relationships regarding the Country-of-Origin Effect.



**Figure 3.3 Structure of Section 3.4 - Country-of-Origin Effect**

#### 3.4.1 Evaluation<sup>1</sup> of Foreign Products

National Identity is the extent to which individuals identify with and have a positive affiliation with their own nation (Blank and Schmidt, 2003; Tajfel and Turner, 2004) and is expressed in different reactions to Country-of-Origin, such as affective representation. This affective representation depends on the strength and direction (positive or negative) of the consumers' level of attachment to the home country (Verlegh, 2007; Josianssen, 2011). In the presence of a strong sense of NI, the attachment to local products versus foreign products is stronger (Bruning, 1994), and consumers are less persuaded by brand name, store image, specific product attributes or any other non-country specific cues. Consumers frequently exhibit a favourable bias when evaluating items, favouring local goods over imported ones (Verlegh, 2007). There is considerable empirical evidence to back

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<sup>1</sup> Evaluation signifies a negative evaluation towards foreign products and applies to all other hypotheses.

the premise that signalling the locality of the product has a favourable impact on purchase intention and willingness to pay, according to many opinion polls (Consumer Reports, 2015; CREDOC, 2014; IFOP, 2017). For instance, 72% of French customers, including 77% of those with high incomes and even 65% of those with low incomes, are happy to pay a premium for goods produced in France, as per the IFOP (2017, p. 24). Similar research related to the influence of referencing the local origin of items (Carpenter and Larceneux, 2008; Merle et al., 2016; Charters et al., 2017; Gineikiene et al., 2017) demonstrates that consumers are more likely to purchase food goods that bear a local indication than those that do not. Thus, consumers with high scores on National Identity are expected to negatively evaluate foreign products. Hence, it is proposed that:

*H2a. National Identity has a negative direct effect on Evaluation of Foreign Products.*

In addition to the above, research on the impacts of Country-of-Origin shows that people prefer local over international goods, which increases their likelihood of making a purchase of the local origin item and not the foreign alternative (Ahmed et al., 2004; He and Wang, 2015; Huddleston et al., 2001; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). Given that it reveals a domestic production, referencing the origin may provide the equivalent favourable “home country bias”, although the comparison may not be exact (presence/ absence of the local origin acknowledgement vs domestic/ foreign acknowledgement). Further, Mostafa (2015) contends that buyers in a developing nation such as Egypt could view a brand’s Country-of-Origin as a sign of its general quality since it occasionally denotes prestige and boosts the consumer's self-esteem. Country-of-Origin effects may thus impact consumer attitudes and are likely to establish a direct effect on the likelihood of purchase (Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2006; Phau and Chao, 2008; Koschate-Fischer

et al., 2012). As a result, consumers' attitudes in the form of evaluating foreign products are likely to have an effect on Willingness to Pay a premium price. In this case, consumers may negatively evaluate foreign products, which leads to Willingness to Pay more for the local origin product. However, it must be considered that most studies exploring consumers' preference for domestic versus foreign products were carried out in the context of developed countries (Batra et al., 2000; Kaynak and Kara, 2002; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Holt et al., 2004; Strizhakova et al., 2008; Guo and Hong, 2018). Furthermore, the knowledge about consumers' preference for domestic versus foreign products is generally incomplete (Xie et al., 2015). Thus, it is hypothesised that:

*H2b. Evaluation of Foreign Products has a negative direct effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products.*

The sense of National Identity results in identity-protecting behaviour to maintain a positive social identity, respond to in-group threats and follow moral reasons. A poll by IFOP (2017) suggests four primary factors that account for such consumer preference for local goods, which are: (1) The need to retain jobs and aid the country's economy, (2) The search for usage safety and excellence, (3) Adherence to social customs, and (4) Reducing the negative effects on the environment. Consumers do, in fact, identify local manufacturing with other advantages in terms of economy, health, social welfare, and the environment. Therefore, National Identity is expected to negatively affect consumer attitudes towards foreign product evaluation. Moreover, evaluation of foreign products is expected to have a direct effect on the likelihood of purchase. Accordingly, the evaluation of foreign products is expected to negatively affect the Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Hence, consumers with strong National Identity are

expected to negatively evaluate foreign products, which leads to a higher Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Accordingly, it is hypothesised that:

*H2c. National Identity has a negative indirect effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through decreasing Evaluation of Foreign Products.*

#### 3.4.2 Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products

The role of the Country-of-Origin Effects on consumer attitudes toward foreign products needs particular attention in the context of developing countries. In today's multinational marketplace, consumers are increasingly presented with a variety of foreign products (Steenkamp et al., 2003). Consumers sometimes prefer foreign products over local ones because of the global image, even when the quality and value of these foreign products are not superior (Shocker et al., 1994; Kapferer, 1997). In fact, findings suggest that consumers in developing economies may show a negative bias towards domestic products (Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999). This negative bias may be caused by factors that are related to product evaluations, such as price, quality or need for self-enhancement (Verlegh, 2007). For example, in developing markets, consumers are sometimes increasingly pressured to choose between outdated domestic products and newer foreign products (Batra et al., 2000). The perception of a developed country-of-origin of a product (such as the USA, Europe, or Japan) acts as insurance for the product's quality and performance (Batra et al., 2000). For instance, Kaynak et al. (2000) show that consumers are willing to pay a premium price for a Phillips tape recorder which was made in Austria over one manufactured by the same company in India, although the quality of both products was identical.

The other form of consumer attitudes towards foreign products is represented in the reluctance to buy foreign products. As was mentioned in the previous chapter, buyers' judgments regarding local items influence their reluctance to purchase foreign goods (Topçu and Kaplan, 2015). Overall, when people place less value on domestic goods, they should be more willing to buy foreign goods (Balabanis et al., 2001; Klein et al., 2006). Types of products and unique characteristics of the country also significantly influence how consumers perceive a product (Wang and Chen, 2004; Shankarmahesh, 2006). Considering the influence of National Identity on consumers' preference for domestic products, it is important to note that National Identity leads to a preference for domestic products even when foreign products are perceived as being superior. Authors note how signalling the local origin of the products seems to offer an added benefit that may have an immediate impact on how the product is evaluated (Bernard et al., 2020; Bloemer et al., 2009). This added benefit emerges from Social Identity Theory which proposes that individuals engage in identity-protecting behaviour (Tajfel, 1974) when they feel that their self-identity is being threatened (Brewer, 1979, 1999; Tajfel and Turner, 2004; Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017). Consumers may show reluctance to buy foreign products as a form of reinforcing their NI. Therefore, consumers with a strong sense of National Identity are likely to represent it in the form of reluctance to buy foreign products. Hence, it is hypothesised that:

*H3a. National Identity has a positive direct effect on Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products.*

Moreover, reluctance to buy foreign products is a form of consumer attitude towards foreign products, which may affect the likelihood of purchase (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). Reluctance to buy foreign products is likely to have an

impact on Willingness to Pay a premium price. Accordingly, consumers may be reluctant to buy foreign products, which leads to an increase in the Willingness to Pay for the local origin products. Hence, it is hypothesised that:

*H3b. Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products has a positive direct effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products.*

Based on the above-mentioned, National Identity promotes identity-protecting behaviour in efforts to maintain a positive social identity that challenges in-group threats. Therefore, National Identity is expected to positively affect consumer attitudes towards foreign products through reluctance to buy foreign products. Moreover, reluctance to buy foreign products is expected to have a direct effect on the likelihood of purchase. Accordingly, reluctance to buy foreign products is expected to positively affect the Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Hence, consumers with strong National Identity are expected to show reluctance to buy foreign products, which leads to a higher Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Accordingly, it is hypothesised that:

*H3c. National Identity has a positive indirect effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products.*

### **3.5 Purchase Decision Involvement**

For the past three decades or more, *Involvement* has been a topic of interest in consumer research literature (O'Cass, 1996; Lesschaeve and Bruwer, 2010; Bruwer and Buller, 2013). The construct of involvement has been at the centre of research for a long time (e.g., Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Park and Young, 1986; Zaichkowsky, 1987; Mittal and Lee, 1989; Kim and Lord, 1991; Purttrevu and Lord, 1994; Schiffman et al., 2008; Bojanic and Warnick, 2012) because of its direct

links and strong influence over consumer decision process and marketing planning such as segmentation. Consequently, involvement and its considerable influence over the consumer decision process acquired a central place within research into consumer behaviour (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985). According to Park and Mittal (1985, p. 209), two main conceptual aspects of involvement influence the consumers' decisions, which are *Cognitive aspects* (motivational component, rationale and thinking derived from utilitarian motives) and *Affective aspects* (the reasons for the motivation, induced from value-expressive motives).

Park and Mittal (1985) placed involvement as being "goal-directed" and represented by the above mentioned cognitive and affective motives (p. 209). The cost benefits and functional performance of the product are represented by the cognitive motive, while the affective motive is associated with the symbolic benefits (such as self-image or enhanced self-esteem) resulting from the use of the product (Bojanic and Warnick, 2012). It is vital to note that an individual is usually either interested in the cognitive aspect (a product's attributes and performance) or the affective aspect (the product's expressed meaning in terms of self-image or self-esteem) of the product (Park and Mittal, 1985; Bojanic and Warnick, 2012). For example, consumers involved with the affective aspect of the product are more concerned about how this product affects their own personal self-image, whereas consumers involved in the cognitive aspect would be more attentive to the product's attributes.

This research focuses on the affective aspect of involvement because it is represented in the degree of emotional state provoked by a product (Zaichkowsky, 1994). Recent publications such as Fischer and Zeugner-Roth (2017) refer to National Identity as an affective aspect of product purchase decision making; hence, a link between involvement and National Identity appears to be likely. In

addition, analysing the consumers' degree of Purchase Decision Involvement in association with affective involvement provides marketers with better strategic information (Kim and Sung, 2009). But first, it is essential to highlight the types of involvement that fall under the umbrella of the term involvement.

Johnson and Eagly (1989) noted three distinguishable forms of involvement: value-relevant, impression-relevant, and outcome-relevant involvement. The reason behind choosing those types of involvement lies in their "motivational state induced by an activated attitude and the self-concept" (Johnson and Eagly, 1989, p. 290). Value-relevant involvement is guided by supporting one's values and self-concept (Cho and Boster, 2005; Quick and Heiss, 2009), while impression-relevant involvement is represented in the concern about the consequences of an individual's response (Cho and Boster, 2005). On the other hand, outcome-relevant involvement is centred around outcomes associated with a particular issue (Quick and Heiss, 2009). In the context of National Identity, value-relevant involvement becomes essential because an individual with high value-relevant involvement shows the position they hold on an issue to be an essential part of his/her identity (Carpenter, 2019). For example, in some studies on Arab and Islamic countries, including Egypt, the authors report that adverts utilising high involvement with religious signals produce more favourable attitudes (Kalliny and Gentry, 2007; Hasan et al., 2016). Adding to this, value-relevant involvement motivates individuals to be involved in purchase decisions that align with their value orientations (Osburg et al., 2019). As a result, such involvement may result in individuals purchasing local products to reflect their self-concept and values, i.e., in this case, National Identity.

The displayed level of involvement differs from one person to another and is usually classified as being either high or low involvement (Celsi and Olson, 1988;

Aurifeille et al., 2002; Barber et al., 2008). It is crucial to know that when there is low involvement, a buyer will avoid making many efforts to complete a purchase because the negative outcomes of making a poor decision are minimal (Bronnenberg and Vanhonacker, 1996; Gordon et al., 1998). Therefore, in the case where a product has a weak relationship with an individual's self-concept and values, s/he will care less about his/her product/brand choice (Beatty et al., 1988).

On the contrary, products that are meaningful and significant to individuals are characterised by high (product) involvement (Thomson et al., 2005). It has been shown that when customers link value-related outcomes (functional, social, and psychological) with the use of a product, they become more concerned about it (Bloch and Richins, 1983; Lichtenstein et al., 1988). As a result, the consumer invests more time and effort in the decision-making process the higher the level of involvement (Beatty and Smith, 1987).

As mentioned earlier, involvement is placed as being "goal-directed", which can be the purchase decision. The concept of Purchase Decision Involvement lies in "the extent to which a consumer cares about what she or he buys and the extent to which he or she is motivated to make the right choice" (Mittal, 1989, p. 159). Generally, Purchase Decision Involvement is classified under situational involvement, which is represented by a temporary concern or aroused by perceived risk or a need (Park and Mittal, 1985; Mittal, 1989; Dholakia, 2001; Michaelidou and Dibb, 2008). For example, consumers could express their National Identity in the form of purchasing local products. Hence, it is hypothesised that:

*H4a. National Identity has a positive direct effect on Purchase Decision Involvement.*

The complexity of the buying and consuming processes and people's behavioural orientations are strongly influenced by a number of variables, irrespective of the form of value that is recognised in the item (Baltas and Doyle 1998). The degree of consumer involvement is one of those variables that is particularly significant (Mitchell, 1979; Traylor, 1981; Zaichkowsky, 1985; Mittal, 1989). For example, several authors indicate that involvement positively affects purchasing intentions (Liu et al., 2018). Additionally, consumers with little decision involvement typically employ basic conceptual or cognitive heuristics; in that, when making a decision, consumers may either carefully evaluate the product's details they believe are essential before committing to a purchase or they may rely on a few basic indicators (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981). Consumers who are highly involved are more likely to accurately evaluate the different products, reducing the need for such heuristics. Compared to customers who have less involvement, they devote more cognitive resources in the purchase decision-making (Bertoli et al., 2020). In conclusion, the depth of the evaluation processes and, consequently, the capacity to recognise the unique qualities of local origin products develop as customer involvement increases. As a result, the researcher anticipates that consumers who are extremely involved will be more willing to pay for the local origin products. Thus, it can be hypothesised that:

*H4b. Purchase Decision Involvement has a positive direct effect on Willingness to Pay for Local Origin Products.*

All in all, the undeniable role of involvement in explaining and influencing consumer behaviour cannot be overlooked (Havitz and Dimanche, 1990, 1997,

1999; Dholakia, 2001). The identification with a product and the purchase decision process, as well as an individual's personality, determines consumers' involvement (Khare and Rakesh, 2010). As a result, consumers' involvement can be a consequence of associated risk, how important the product is to the consumer (such as affects lifestyle) and self-image (Khare and Rakesh, 2010). Furthermore, it has been indicated that high involvement and emotional attachment levels are associated with strong Willingness to Pay (Thomson et al., 2005). Such involvement may result in individuals purchasing local products because it reflects their self-concept and values, i.e., in this case, NI. Since Purchase Decision Involvement is represented in "the extent to which a consumer cares about what she or he buys and the extent to which he or she is motivated to make the right choice" (Mittal, 1989, p. 159), it is assumed that consumers express their National Identity in the form of purchasing local products due to high involvement in the purchase decision making process. Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

*H4c. National Identity has a positive indirect effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Purchase Decision Involvement.*

### **3.6 Self-Categorisation**

As aforementioned in chapter two, Social Identity Theory was introduced in the current research because social identity is part of an individual's self-concept (Schlenker, 1980; Oyserman et al., 2012), and it should help in describing how individuals identify themselves to in-groups by sharing common traits (Reed, 2002; Reed et al., 2012). This aspect is relevant in the current research context because Clark (1990) states that a few "core" traits set cultures apart, e.g., the trait of "National Identity". The individual's identity changes into a

collective/shared group identity during the process of Self-Categorisation. This eventual shift may lead to collective group behaviours and attitudes, including ethnocentrism (Hogg and Terry, 2000; Robinson and Tajfel, 1996). The "group self-centeredness" and "group self-importance" that ethnocentric consumers typically prioritise (Bizumic and Duckitt, 2012) may cause them to have less favourable attitudes toward marketed goods and ads which use foreign products because they may view these products as a threat to their national group identity, importance, and interests (see Bizumic and Duckitt, 2008). Therefore, it was argued that the integration of the in-group identities and the self-concept might encourage people to be biased toward the members and achievements of the in-group (Feather, 1981; Stayman and Deshpande, 1989; Verlegh, 2007; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). Specifically, consumers with a strong sense of National Identity make the concerns and goals of the group (that they are a member of) their own and act in order to increase the well-being of that group. Hence it is hypothesised that:

*H5a. National Identity has a direct positive effect on Self-Categorisation.*

Furthermore, Tajfel proposed a classic definition of social identification that included three components contributing to an individual's social identity were cognitive component (Self-Categorisation), evaluative component (positive or negative group self-esteem) and emotional component (sense of emotional involvement with the group affective commitment) (Tajfel, 1978, p.372). Self-Categorisation is, therefore, an extension and development of Social Identity Theory (Hogg and Terry, 2000), which focuses on the cognitive element of Social Identity Theory (Brickson, 2000; Jackson, 2002; Ashmore et al., 2004; Dimmock et al., 2005; Hornsey, 2008) and is a necessary first step in the identification process (Stoner et al., 2011). In other words, an individual must first see

him/herself as a part of a group before the collective sense of self and collective behaviour is created (Phinney, 1995). Accordingly, Self-Categorisation is defined as “that component of an extended Social Identity Theory of the relationship between self-concept and group behaviour that details the social cognitive processes that generate social identity effects” (Hogg and Terry, 2000, p.123). Thus, Self-Categorisation implies placing oneself into a specific social group (Stoner et al., 2011) and behaving in favour of this group, such as Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

*H5b. Self-Categorisation has a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products.*

In this regard, the attachment to the nation posited by National Identity stimulates individuals to engage in identity-protecting behaviours (Tajfel, 1974), especially when they feel that their self-identity is threatened by the out-group (Brewer, 1979; Brewer, 1999). This is because it is important for an individual to see him/herself as part of a group before assimilating aspects of the group (Stoner et al., 2011; Breton, 2015; Trepte and Loy, 2017; Fujita et al., 2018), which in turn will influence Self-Categorisation (Phinney, 1995). As a result, when individuals feel that their self-identity is threatened by the out-group, they tend to engage in identity-protecting behaviours such as Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Hence, it is hypothesised that:

*H5c. National Identity has an indirect positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Self-Categorisation.*

### 3.7 Perceived Quality

Consumers evaluate products based on rational judgment towards a physical product (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2008; Sharma, 2011; Le et al., 2013). Product evaluation is reflected by perceived quality and perceived price (Le et al., 2013). Perceived Quality is defined as “the consumer’s evaluation of a product’s overall excellence or superiority” (Zeithaml, 1988, p.3). This definition implies that certain consumption situations may influence the subjective judgment of quality by the consumer (Yoo et al., 2000). For instance, consumers positively evaluate domestic products due to nationalistic feelings.

Nationalistic biases were positively associated with product evaluations (Dodds et al., 1991; Verlegh, 2007). When individuals are motivated to maintain a positive self-image, this motivates individuals to favourably bias the in-group, its members, products, and achievements (Hewstone et al., 2002; Verlegh, 2007). National Identity acts as an affective base for product evaluation (Batra et al., 2000). Moreover, National Identity motivates a tendency to show a preference for domestic products and perceive domestic products as of high quality (Le et al., 2013). This observation is supported by Verlegh (2007), who suggested that the consumer’s level of national identification is positively related to the perceived quality of domestic products. Hence it is hypothesised that:

*H6a. National Identity has a direct positive effect on Perceived Quality.*

The link between National Identity and Perceived Quality is established by individuals attempting to maintain a positive self-image of their in-group members by perceiving the domestic products as of high quality. The localness of a product contributes to a positive self-image (Batra et al., 2000). It has been previously

suggested that when the perceived quality of a product is high, consumers are more likely to show Willingness to Pay for local origin products (Dodds et al., 1991).

However, it has been argued that the tendency to prefer domestic over foreign products and to perceive domestic products as being of high quality might exist only in developed countries (Hamelin et al., 2011). For instance, in developing or emerging countries (such as Egypt), domestic products may be viewed as being of lower quality than foreign products (Klein et al., 2006). In this sense, focusing on Egyptian hypermarkets, Mostafa and Elseidi (2018) stress that perceived quality is a determinant factor in consumers' decision to buy private labels or store's own brands. Nonetheless, in a survey by Nielsen (2014), the author justified the slow growth of the store's own brands in Egypt with the consumers' perceptions of their quality, despite them being familiar with the manufacturing stores (e.g., Carrefour). In fact, it was suggested that consumers might compromise their feelings of national attachment if domestic products are viewed as inferior in comparison to foreign products. An example from Vietnam showed that consumers in developing countries tend to consider perceived quality as the most significant attribute of a product due to previous experience with low-quality domestic products (Lantz et al., 2002; Nguyen et al., 2008). Accordingly, it is worth investigating the impact of Perceived Quality on Willingness to Pay for local origin products from a developing country's perspective. Hence it is suggested that:

*H6b. Perceived Quality has a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products.*

To sum up, it has been suggested that high National Identity leads to higher Perceived Quality of domestic products for the sake of maintaining a positive self-image among members of the in-group. Therefore, a consumer's National Identity has a positive correlation with the consumer's evaluation of local origin products (Le et al., 2013). Adding to this, when the Perceived Quality of a product is high, consumers are more likely to be willing to pay for local origin products. Moreover, Verlegh (2007) considers perceived quality to be a mediator between National Identity and Willingness to Pay by perceptions of the quality of local products. Accordingly, it is hypothesised that:

*H6c. National Identity has an indirect effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing perceived quality.*

### **3.8 Conservation**

The sense of belongingness to a nation needs to be supported by an understanding of what that nation represents and what common set of values members of that nation typically share (Henderson and McEwen, 2005). It is important to note that shared values are not believed to create a sense of National Identity where one does not already exist (Henderson and McEwen, 2005). Shared values are expected to nurture the sense of belongingness to a particular nation, help define what people share in common and aid in strengthening the ties that hold the members together (Henderson and McEwen, 2005). In other words, shared values play a part in giving meaning to the collective understanding of a nation which demonstrates the significance of shared values to National Identity.

National Identity includes a collective dimension that helps explain what unites members of one nation and distinguishes it from others (Miller, 1995; Henderson and McEwen, 2005). The shared values may underline part of what defines an individual, hence helping to bring meaning to the collective dimension of National Identity. In other words, shared values interpret the collective dimension of National Identity by defining and strengthening the collective conceptions of who an individual is and what s/he represents (Anderson, 1991; Bizumic et al., 2009; Siamagka and Balabanis, 2015; Balabanis and Siamagka, 2022). Therefore, it can be concluded that the principal significance between shared values and National Identity lies in values as being a symbol of belonging, which strengthens the underlying national identification. The idea of shared values acts as a tool that emphasises the distinctiveness of the nation to which an individual belongs.

The personal value system of consumers explains the association between National Identity and product evaluation (Schwartz, 1992). It has been suggested that the interaction of the National Identity of an individual and his/her social value system helps in developing personal judgment of the product or service being consumed (Thuy and Hau, 2010). Therefore, it is relevant to discuss the dimension of National Identity and its influence on consumer behaviour while being moderated by values.

In the existing literature review, researchers have relied on Hofstede's cultural framework to explain consumer behaviour within a nation (Hofstede, 1980, 1984; Henderson et al., 2013). The four cultural dimensions (Power distance,

Uncertainty avoidance, Individualism/Collectivism and Masculinity)<sup>2</sup> were derived from comparisons among data from 40 different nations (Hofstede, 1984; Ng et al., 2007). For example, Egypt was found to be moderately collectivist, which was presented in the form of beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours towards in-group members (society) (Hofstede, 1984, 1994; Hofstede and Bond, 1984; Renner and Myambo, 2007).

Hofstede's four cultural dimensions uncover differences in the way consumers from different countries prefer and respect social issues. Although the purpose of the present research context is to explore the individual values of one country (Egypt), Hofstede's four cultural dimensions could be consulted later on to signal how individual variation in value priorities within a country exists due to the unique experiences and personalities of different individuals (Schwartz, 1999). These values should reflect the idea of collectivism which is important because collectivism reflects behavioural intentions and behaviours related to concern for others within the society (Hui, 1988). Schwartz introduced a bipolar value system circumplex, which includes the dimension of openness to change (emphasising one's own independent thoughts and actions and encouraging change) and conservation (covering values emphasising preservation of traditional practices and encouraging stability). Openness to change and conservation relate to

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<sup>2</sup> **Power Distance:** is represented in the form of inequality within any culture and the degree in which it is tolerated. That is, when less powerful individuals within a culture accept the inequality and see it as being normal (Hofstede, 1980, 1984).

**Individualism/Collectivism:** Individualism is represented in individuals that primarily look after their own interest and that of their immediate family (Hofstede, 1984). While Collectivism was explained as the situation where an individual feels that s/he belongs to a larger in-group (while the in-group in turn takes care of the individual) (Hofstede and Bond, 1984).

**Masculinity/Femininity:** Masculine cultures differentiate social roles for men and women in terms of men being assertive, ambitious, and competitive. While women are expected to serve "nonmaterialistic" purposes (Hofstede, 1984, p 390), feminine cultures represent overlapping roles of men and women without the competitiveness and ambitions (Hofstede, 1984).

**Uncertainty Avoidance:** when people within a culture avoid unstructured or unpredictable situations (Hofstede, 1984).

Hofstede's cultural dimension in terms of openness to change supporting the individualistic part, while conservation supports the collectivist one (Schwartz, 1992; Steenkamp et al., 1999; Steenkamp, 2001; Balabanis et al., 2002; Auger et al., 2007; Becker et al., 2012). Conservation includes values of Tradition, Security and Conformity relating to Hofstede's collectivism. Collectivistic cultures are oriented towards conformity which represents a higher level of concern for group behaviour (Steenkamp et al., 1999). This orientation is represented in values aiming toward harmony among members of the society, the importance of meeting society's expectations and promoting a safe and stable society. Thus, this research employs Schwartz's value system to study the influence of individual consumer values.

Conservation values (Tradition, Security and Conformity) emphasise order and resistance to change. In other words, these values motivate individuals to avoid uncertainty and instability (Roccas et al., 2010). In addition, conservative consumers are expected to act according to social acceptance and depend more on collective rather than personal control when making decisions (Schwartz, 1994b; Zhou et al., 2013). Individuals that appraise conservation as being an important life principle value the survival of their society and social acceptance. Hence, when making decisions, their independent opinion is reduced (Jansson et al., 2010; Jansson, 2011; Ruiz de Maya et al., 2011).

On the other hand, openness to change values emphasise independent actions that motivate exploring, discovering, and seeking novelty (Schwartz, 1994b; Roccas et al., 2010). Individuals who attribute high importance to openness to change may perceive national identification as a constraint to their freedom (Roccas et al., 2010).

According to Schwartz (1992), values are important in terms of being guiding principles in life. Therefore, value orientations are beliefs about how an individual should behave (what one should strive for), while identity is the approach to how an individual solves a problem (how to accomplish goals and desired end-state) (Berzonsky et al., 2011). For instance, individuals with a sense of National Identity are expected to act in favour of their in-group members. This behaviour can be moderated by shared values depending on their strength.

Besides values being abstract and stable beliefs, they are used to resolve conflicts and to make decisions (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz and Bilsky, 1990; Schwartz, 1992; Ester et al., 1994; Zhou et al., 2013). More recent research showed that values could affect the strength of motivational and behavioural intentions in the decision making process (Vermeir and Verbeke, 2008; Ruiz de Maya et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2013). In line with the present research context, values were found to influence the extent to which consumers perceive these motivations as more suitable for their expression of self-identity (Verplanken and Holland, 2002; Barbarossa et al., 2017).

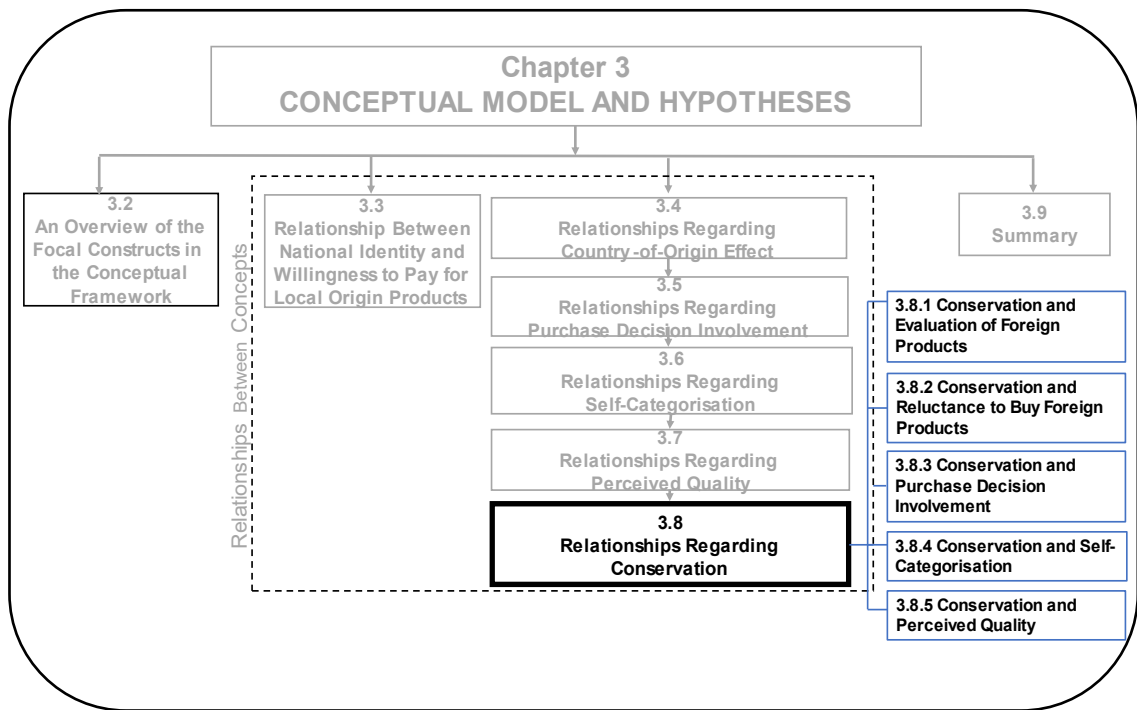
Consumption behaviour is believed to be shaped by the sense of National Identity (Carvalho et al., 2019). This belief is based on findings that show that consumers perceive products differently when a sense of National Identity is associated with these products (Trudel et al., 2016). For example, people who have a strong sense of National Identity are willing to pay more for domestic goods in order to support the economy of their home country (Yoo and Lee, 2016). In a collectivist culture, members of a particular in-group are expected to look after and protect each other (Adler, 1997). Therefore, members of an in-group may engage in identity-protecting behaviour that will maintain the well-being of their in-group. For

instance, a strong sense of National Identity entails a high commitment to supporting the economy and welfare of one's country (Verlegh, 2007).

As a result, individuals identify with their nation to attain their values by creating a sense of belonging and being part of a collective society with shared interests and goals (Roccas et al., 2010). Adding to this, National Identity can influence consumer behaviour for collectivistic purposes. Consumers with strong collectivistic values may favour domestic products to protect and enhance the stability and safety of the home country (Hofstede, 2001; Yoo and Donthu, 2005). Hence, it can be concluded that National Identity can influence consumer behaviour, particularly for collectivistic purposes. Therefore, it is expected that the high importance given to conservation values moderates the association of National Identity and Willingness to Pay local origin products. Accordingly, the following is hypothesised:

*H7. The influence of National Identity on Willingness to Pay for local origin products is moderated by Conservation, so that the effect is stronger (weaker) when conservation is high (low).*

The relationships regarding Conservation are further explored in the presence of several variables, which are: evaluation of foreign products, reluctance to buy foreign products, purchase decision involvement, self-categorisation and perceived quality. Figure 3.4 highlights the structure of section 3.8 of relationships regarding Conservation.



**Figure 3.4 Structure of Section 3.8 - Relationships Regarding Conservation**

### 3.8.1 Conservation and Evaluation of Foreign Products

Country-of-Origin effects impact consumer attitudes towards foreign products in the form of evaluating foreign products (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Han, 1988; Heslop and Papadopoulos, 1993). The effects of Country-of-Origin are represented in the affective associations with a particular country that impact consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards products (Chattalas et al., 2008; Phau and Chao, 2008; Cilingir and Basfirinci, 2014; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015; Kim and Park, 2017; Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2015). Another important factor, National Identity, defines the extent to which individuals identify with and have a positive affiliation with their own nation (Blank and Schmidt, 2003; Tajfel and Turner, 2004) and is expressed in different reactions to Country-of-Origin, such as affective representation. This affective representation depends on the strength and direction (positive or negative) of the consumers' level of attachment to the home country (Verlegh, 2007; Josianssen, 2011). Accordingly, in the presence of a strong sense of NI, the attachment to local products versus foreign products is

stronger (Bruning, 1994) because it is interpreted as a reinforcement of the sense of group identity (Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017). As a result, the influence of National Identity can be reflected in the form of consumers purchasing domestic products to support their domestic economy. This influence results in a preference for domestic products, which may be reflected in the form of consumers' Willingness to Pay for local origin products to support their domestic economy and maintain a positive social identity by negatively evaluating foreign products.

Nevertheless, this mediated relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products through evaluation of foreign products is likely to be emphasised by consumers' value orientation because it has been suggested that the interaction of the National Identity of an individual and his/her social value system causes strong distinctions between in-groups and out-groups causing a bias against foreign products (Sharma et al., 1995; Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000; Watson and Wright, 2000).

Country-of-Origin Effect related to culture is based on the concepts of individualism and collectivism (Sharma et al., 1995; Watson and Wright, 2000). Schwartz (1992) showed that values of Tradition, Security and Conformity (conservation values) are linked with collectivism, whereas values of self-direction, stimulation and hedonism (openness to change) are linked to individualism. Conservation values focus on the feeling of belonging to a group with shared interests and commitment to protecting the in-group members (Roccas et al., 2010). In contrast, openness to change values are stimulated by foreign products that emphasise exposure to new ways of life and promote against in-group favouritism (promotes individuals to act independently) (Feather, 1994; Schwartz, 1996; Balabanis et al., 2002). Moreover, it has been found that

collectivist individuals are more biased against foreign products and make stronger distinctions between in-groups and out-groups when compared to other individuals (Sharma et al., 1995; Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000; Watson and Wright, 2000). In fact, collectivist consumers may view foreign products as a threat to the local economy and employment (Sharma et al., 1995). The collective sense of self and collective behaviour can be moderated by values aiming toward harmony among members of the society for a safe and stable society and meeting society's expectations. In this case, conservation is employed, including values of Tradition, Security and Conformity relating to collectivism. In particular, individuals embracing conservation values view foreign products as being a threat to their customs and norms (Balabanis et al., 2002). Therefore, these individuals negatively evaluate foreign products as they seek to maintain their customs and familiar norms (Schwartz, 1996). Hence, individuals attributing high importance to conservation values, as opposed to openness to change, will place more emphasis on choosing domestic over foreign products by negatively evaluating foreign products to facilitate attaining their values, consistent with the goals of conservation values (Roccas et al., 2010). Thus, it is hypothesised that:

*H8a. Conservation moderates the strength of the mediated relationships between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Evaluation of Foreign Products, so that the relationship is stronger (weaker) when conservation is high (low).*

### 3.8.2 Conservation and Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products

Country-of-Origin effects impact consumer attitudes towards foreign products in the form of reluctance to buy foreign products due to moral reasons (e.g., supporting the domestic economy). The attachment to domestic as opposed to

foreign items is stronger when there is a strong sense of National Identity (Bruning, 1994) because it is interpreted as a reinforcement of the sense of group identity (Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017). Consequently, in order to retain a positive social identity in the face of threats from within the group and follow moral grounds, the sense of National Identity leads to identity-protecting behaviour. Therefore, National Identity is expected to positively affect consumer attitudes towards foreign products through reluctance to buy foreign products. In Addition, reluctance to buy foreign products can be used by consumers as a form of reinforcing their NI.

National Identity impact on consumers' preference for domestic products (Brewer, 1979, 1999; Tajfel, 1974; Tajfel and Turner, 2004; Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017) results in reluctance to buy foreign products, which may be reflected in the form of consumers' Willingness to Pay for local origin products to support their domestic economy and maintain a positive self-identity. This mediated relationship is likely to be moderated by conservation in terms of the presence of a strong National Identity leading to more reluctance to buy foreign products to support the domestic economy, to enhance and protect the stability of the home country.

In conclusion, people with strong collectivist principles may choose domestic products in order to safeguard and improve the stability and security of their own nation (Hofstede, 2001; Yoo and Donthu, 2005). Hence, it can be concluded that National Identity can influence consumer behaviour, particularly for collectivistic purposes.

Individuals embracing conservation values view foreign products as being a threat to their customs and norms (Balabanis et al., 2002). By that, consumers

are reluctant to buy foreign products and choose domestic over foreign products to facilitate attaining their values and are consistent with the goals of conservation values (Roccas et al., 2010). For example, from the Egyptian market context, Eldin and Alhassan (2017) point out that some Egyptian consumers subscribing to the values of Conservation believe that purchasing foreign commodities constitutes a violation of their patriotism. Therefore, in the presence of a strong National Identity, conservation values are expected to lead to more bias against foreign products for the purpose of supporting the domestic economy and protecting and enhancing the stability of the home country. Hence it is hypothesised that:

*H8b. Conservation moderates the strength of the mediated relationships between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products, so that the relationship is stronger (weaker) when conservation is high (low).*

### 3.8.3 Conservation and Purchase Decision Involvement

Involvement has been linked in earlier studies to important values of consumers (Zaichkowsky, 1985) and the individual's sense of self-identity (Traylor and Joseph, 1984). Individuals with high value-relevant involvement reflect the position they hold on an issue as an essential part of their identity (Carpenter, 2019) and one that motivates them to be involved in purchase decisions that align with their value orientations (Osburg et al., 2019). Consequently, individuals may express their National Identity by purchasing local products to reflect their self-concept and express their value orientations through such involvement.

National Identity is known to play a role in the purchase decision making process by motivating members of a group to do the right thing for their in-group and

society (Verlegh, 2007). Since Purchase Decision Involvement is represented by the extent to which consumers care about what they purchase and the urge to make the right choice (Mittal, 1989), it can be assumed that consumers express their National Identity in the form of purchasing local products due to high involvement in the purchase decision making process. In other words, the higher the involvement level, the more likely the consumer will dedicate time and effort to the decision-making process (Beatty and Smith, 1987). Nonetheless, this mediated relationship between National Identity and involvement is likely to be emphasised by consumers' value orientation because it has been suggested that the interaction of the National Identity of an individual and his/her social value system helps in developing personal judgment of the product or service being consumed (Schwartz, 1992; Thuy and Hau, 2010).

Mittal (1995) reported the link between involvement and values in terms of values being the antecedents of involvement. This link is established as "involvement reflects the extent of personal relevance of the decision to the individual in terms of his/her basic values, goals and self-concept" (Wijnen et al., 2007, p. 64). Purchase Decision Involvement is typically categorized as situational involvement, which is exemplified by a transient concern or motivated by a perceived risk or need (Park and Mittal, 1985; Mittal, 1989; Dholakia, 2001; Michaelidou and Dibb, 2008). For instance, in times of hardship, it is suggested that National Identity can influence consumer behaviour, particularly for collectivistic purposes, by favouring domestic products to protect and enhance the stability and safety of the home country (Hofstede, 2001; Yoo and Donthu, 2005). This notion aligns with the view of Schwartz (1992), who classifies values of conservation as collectivistic values and openness to change as individualistic values. Openness to change promotes individuals to act independently and follow

their own interests and makes them less likely to perceive situations as threatening (Schwartz et al., 2000). On the contrary, conservation values promote harmony among members of society and facilitate meeting society's expectations while maintaining a safe and stable society. Hence, consumers can consider Purchase Decision Involvement to express their important values (conservation values) in the form of Willingness to Pay for local origin products. The more important a value is to an individual, the more the individual will work towards the attainment of the goals directed by that value (Schwartz, 1992). Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

*H8c. Conservation moderates the strength of the mediated relationships between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Purchase Decision Involvement, so that the relationship is stronger (weaker) when conservation is high (low).*

#### 3.8.4 Conservation and Self-Categorisation

National Identity stimulates individuals to engage in identity-protecting behaviours (especially in the presence of a threat), which in turn influences Self-Categorisation (Stoner et al., 2011; Carvalho and Luna, 2014; Breton, 2015; Trepte and Loy, 2017; Fujita et al., 2018). In other words, first, an individual has to see him/herself as part of a group before the collective sense of self and collective behaviour is created (Phinney, 1995). Thus, consumers may be willing to pay for local origin products, being an internal reference (by consumers), to protect their threatened identity. However, this mediated relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products through Self-Categorisation is likely to be accentuated in dependence on consumers' value orientation because individuals identify with their nation to attain their values by

creating a sense of belonging and being part of a collective society with shared interests and goals (Roccas et al., 2010).

The individual's identification with their nation is affected by the degree to which being a member of a group will enhance the attainment and protection of the individual's important values (Feather, 1994). In particular, National Identity can influence consumer behaviour for consumers with strong collectivistic values because they may favour domestic products to protect and enhance the stability and safety of the home country (Hofstede, 2001; Yoo and Donthu, 2005). In this situation, values of Conservation would be triggered, which encompasses values related to collectivism, including tradition, security, and conformity. On the other hand, the values of openness to change (self-direction, stimulation and hedonism) are shown to be related to individualism and work against in-group favouritism (Feather, 1994; Schwartz, 1996; Schwartz et al., 2000; Balabanis et al., 2002). This finding may be due to the fact that individuals attributing high importance to openness to change values tend to act independently and follow their own interests (discovering and seeking novel) and are unlikely to perceive situations as threatening (Feather, 1994; Schwartz, 1996; Schwartz et al., 2000; Balabanis et al., 2002). Thus, the values of Conservation (Tradition, Security and Conformity) strengthen the association of an individual within a group and his/her collective behaviour to protect this group. In the case of individuals attributing high importance to Conservation values, as opposed to openness to change, identifying with their nation will facilitate attaining their values because it is consistent with the goals of the values of Conservation (Roccas et al., 2010).

To sum up, when individuals feel that their self-identity is threatened by the out-group, they tend to engage in identity-protecting behaviours such as Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Therefore, it is expected that the high importance

given to conservation values moderates the association of National Identity and Self-Categorisation, leading to Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Accordingly, the following is hypothesised:

*H8d. Conservation moderates the strength of the mediated relationships between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Self-Categorisation, so that the relationship is stronger (weaker) when conservation is high (low).*

### 3.8.5 Conservation and Perceived Quality

In literature related to marketing, it has been suggested that values indirectly influence consumer attitudes, purchase intentions and behaviour (Pitts and Woodside, 1983). For instance, when consumers become involved in a purchase situation, they will try to accomplish their goal by fulfilling a particular important value structure (Schwartz and Bilsky, 1990; Tsotsou, 2006).

National Identity is the extent to which consumers adhere to a “typical value system” of a country (Le et al., 2013, p. 768). The National Identity of an individual is what forms his/her social value system. The individual uses the social value system as a base on which he/she creates his/her own personal value framework in order to evaluate the product being consumed (Thuy and Hau, 2010). In other words, the personal value systems of consumers (Schwartz, 1992) explain the association between National Identity and product evaluation.

Nonetheless, this mediated relationship between National Identity and Perceived Quality (PQ) is likely to be emphasised by the consumer’s value orientation because it has been suggested that the interaction of the National Identity of an individual and his/her social value system helps in developing personal judgment

of the perceived quality of the domestic product (Schwartz, 1992; Thuy and Hau, 2010). Consumers with strong National Identity purchase local origin products out of the benefit to society (welfare of society). The link between National Identity and Perceived Quality is established by individuals attempting to maintain a positive self-image of their in-group members by perceiving the domestic products as of high quality (Batra et al., 2000).

High National Identity leads to higher Perceived Quality and consequently to a greater Willingness to Pay for local origin products out of wanting to maintain a positive self-image. For instance, in times of hardship, it was argued that National Identity could affect consumer behaviour by favouring domestic goods to safeguard and improve the stability and security of the home country, especially for collectivistic reasons (Hofstede, 2001; Yoo and Donthu, 2005). Hence, consumers can consider the Perceived Quality of domestic products to be high to express their important values (conservation values) in the form of Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

*H8e. Conservation moderates the strength of the mediated relationships between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Perceived Quality, so that the relationship is stronger (weaker) when conservation is high (low).*

### **3.9 Summary**

This chapter explored the developed conceptual model of the relationship between National Identity (Independent Variable) and Willingness to Pay for local origin products (Dependent Variable). This relationship was examined in the presence of five mediators: Evaluation of Foreign Products, Reluctance to Buy

Foreign Products, Self-Categorisation, Purchase Decision Involvement and Perceived Quality. In addition, the mediated relationships were explored under the moderating role of Conservation. The 22 hypotheses are demonstrated in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1: Table of hypotheses**

No.	Hypotheses
<b>H1</b>	National Identity has a positive direct effect on Egyptian consumers' Willingness to Pay for local origin products.
<b>H2a</b>	National Identity has a negative direct effect on Evaluation of Foreign Products.
<b>H2b</b>	Evaluation of Foreign Products has a negative direct effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products.
<b>H2c</b>	<i>National Identity has an indirect effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through decreasing Evaluation of Foreign Products.</i>
<b>H3a</b>	National Identity has a positive direct effect on Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products.
<b>H3b</b>	Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products has a positive direct effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products.
<b>H3c</b>	National Identity has an indirect effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products.
<b>H4a</b>	National Identity has a positive direct effect on Purchase Decision Involvement.
<b>H4b</b>	Purchase Decision Involvement has a positive direct effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products.
<b>H4c</b>	National Identity has an indirect effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Purchase Decision Involvement.
<b>H5a</b>	National Identity has a direct positive effect on Self-Categorisation.
<b>H5b</b>	Self-Categorisation has a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products.
<b>H5c</b>	National Identity has an indirect positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Self-Categorisation.
<b>H6a</b>	National Identity has a direct positive effect on Perceived Quality.
<b>H6b</b>	Perceived Quality has a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products.
<b>H6c</b>	National Identity has an indirect positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Perceived Quality.
<b>H7</b>	The influence of National Identity on Willingness to Pay for local origin products is moderated by Conservation, so that the effect is greater ( <i>weaker</i> ) when conservation is high ( <i>low</i> ).

No.	Hypotheses
<b>H8:</b>	Conservation moderates the strength of the mediated relationships between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products via
<b>H8a</b>	Evaluation of Foreign Products
<b>H8b</b>	Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products
<b>H8c</b>	Purchase Decision Involvement
<b>H8d</b>	Self-Categorisation
<b>H8e</b>	Perceived Quality

The direct relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products was derived from how National Identity encourages individuals to purchase local origin products to support the economy and welfare of their society. This investigation is complemented by the limited knowledge about the effect of National Identity on Willingness to Pay for local origin products within the Egyptian context.

Furthermore, the indirect relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Evaluation of Foreign Products and Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products are derived from consumer attitudes towards foreign products. Evaluation of Foreign Products is influenced by identity-protecting behaviour that encourages maintaining positive social behaviour among members of the in-group. Hence, consumers are expected to negatively evaluate foreign products, which in turn leads to higher Willingness to Pay for local origin products. As for Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products, National Identity is expected to enhance identity-protecting behaviour to respond to in-group's threats and follow moral reasons. Thus, consumers are expected to show reluctance to buy foreign products in the form of Willingness to Pay for local origin products.

Moving on to Purchase Decision Involvement, consumers are expected to express their National Identity in the form of Willingness to Pay for local origin

products by being motivated to make the right choice. Therefore, it is suggested that in the presence of high involvement in the purchase decision making process, consumers are likely to express their National Identity by being motivated to make the right choice.

It is suggested that National Identity stimulates individuals to engage in identity-protecting behaviour, which in turn influences Self-Categorisation. Individuals identify with their nation to attain their values by creating a sense of belonging. Hence it is suggested that Self-Categorisation mediates the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Moreover, it is suggested that nationalistic consumers are likely to positively perceive the quality of domestic products. This suggestion arises from the motivation to maintain a positive self-image among members of the in-group. Therefore, it is suggested that a consumer's level of national identification is expected to positively influence the perceived quality of domestic products in the form of Willingness to Pay for local origin products.

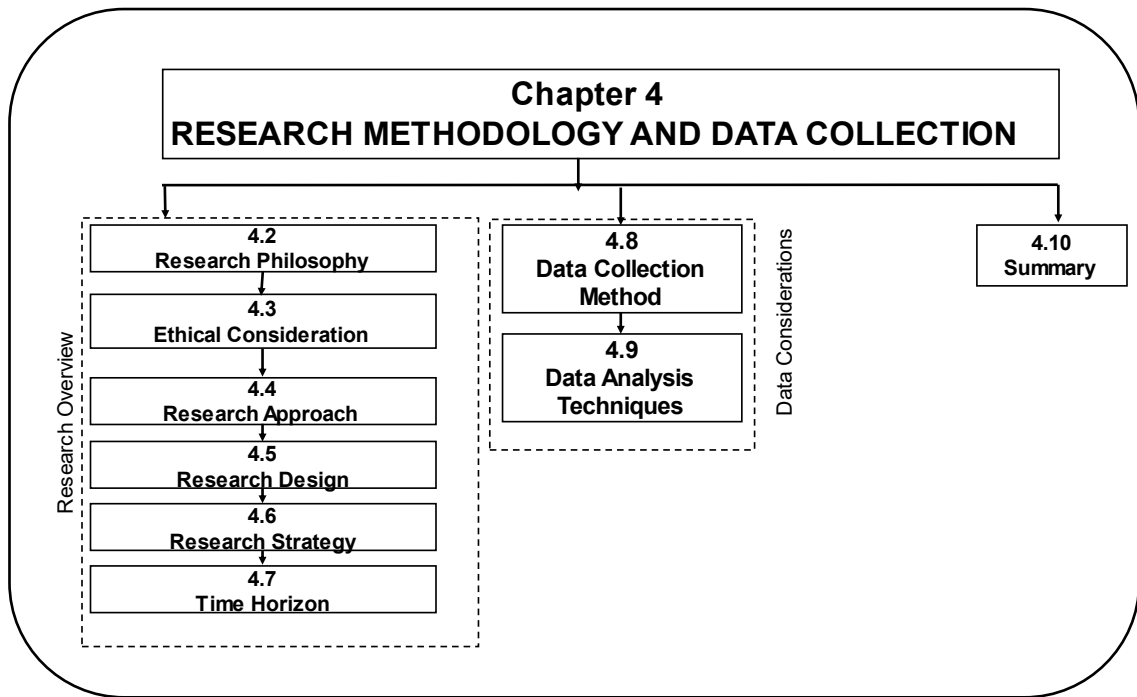
Finally, the collective sense and behaviour associated with the values of Conservation are expected to promote harmony among members of society to maintain a safe and stable society while meeting society's expectations. Therefore, the moderating role of these collective values is explored under the influence of the suggested direct and indirect relationships between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products.

## **Chapter 4 : RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION**

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### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter thoroughly outlines the research methodology and design adopted, which covers the philosophical position of this study, research approaches and the research strategies. This chapter commences by reflecting on the previously mentioned research gaps, objectives and questions as a base for research methodology decisions. Accordingly, the first step presents the research philosophy associated with social sciences and how it is applied to the current research. This is complemented by discussing the ethical considerations followed during this research process. This step is followed by addressing the research approach, design and strategy with a focus on the rationale behind the chosen approach, design and strategy for the current research. Furthermore, this chapter thoroughly explains the adopted data collection method, including the sampling process, questionnaire design and questionnaire administration (pre-test and piloting). This is complemented by a detailed discussion of the quantitative data analysis techniques and a description of the credibility of the research design. The summary section (Section 4.10) highlights the main points discussed in this chapter. Figure 4.1 demonstrates the structure of this chapter.



**Figure 4.1 Structure of Chapter Four**

## 4.2 Research Philosophy

When undertaking research, the philosophy is important to produce reliable research (Creswell and Clark, 2010). The reason behind the importance of being aware of a preferred philosophy and its commitments is that it will have a visible impact on the research itself as well as the realization of the topic being investigated (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). *Research Philosophy* is defined as “the progress of scientific practice based on a system of beliefs and assumptions about the world and development of knowledge” (Collis and Hussey, 2003, p. 46). The adopted research philosophy includes assumptions about how the researcher views the surrounding world and sustains the entire research strategy (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). Basically, three basic assumptions aim to answer four interconnected questions, which are: what is the researcher’s point of view about the nature of reality (Ontology)? How can the researcher gain knowledge about this reality (Epistemology)? How can the research design and result interpretation be affected by research values (role of values) (Axiology)?

And how is the research process conducted (Methodology)? (Sarantakos, 2005; Creswell and Clark, 2010). Each of these assumptions influences the way the researcher thinks (Burrell and Morgan, 1979), and the upcoming sub-sections will further discuss each assumption and how it is represented in the current research.

Initially, the central questions revolve around whether the investigated reality is external to the individual (of an objective nature), internal reality (subjective) (Johnson and Duberley, 2000; Saunders et al., 2019) or pragmatism (accepting both realities) (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). Each sub-section of ontology is further explained in Appendix 3, and Table 4.1 provides a summary of the main characteristics that distinguish each of the three assumptions.

**Table 4.1: Summary of the Main Characteristics of Objectivism, Subjectivism and Pragmatism**

Reality	Explanation
<b>Objectivism</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-It refers to “incorporating the assumptions of the natural sciences, arguing that the social reality that we research is external to us and others (referred to as social actors)” (Saunders et al., 2019, p.135).</li> <li>-Implies that the research will not be influenced by the opinions and/or beliefs of the research participants leading to new causes and effects.</li> </ul>
<b>Subjectivism</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-“incorporates assumptions of the arts and humanities, asserting that social reality is made from the perceptions and consequent actions of social actors (people)” (Saunders et al., 2019, p.137).</li> <li>-The participant’s opinions and/or beliefs may affect that of the researcher, which allows the construction of new laws or theories derived from the participants’ minds apart from the existing ones.</li> </ul>
<b>Pragmatism</b>	Accepting both realities to achieve the required results.

**Source:** Self-developed based on Saunders et al. (2019), Sarantakos (2003), Tashakorri and Teddlie (1998, 2003)

The ontology of this current study is the existing reality related to the relationship between National Identity and Willingness To Pay for local origin products. In the

current study, the research will not be influenced by the opinions and/or beliefs of the research participant. That is, there is an independent relationship between social actors and social entities, which is represented by objectivism. This assumption is considered far from subjectivism, where the researcher focuses more on interpreting the research participants' opinions (in specific situations) to derive new arguments and knowledge. As a result, objectivism is considered the most appropriate viewpoint in answering the research questions and achieving research objectives because this study aims to apply Social Identity Theory which is well established and previously tested. The role of objectivism lies in exploring the effect of National Identity on Willingness To Pay for local origin products through the mediating roles of Evaluation of Foreign Products, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products, Purchase Decision Involvement, Self-Categorisation and Perceived Quality. In addition, the moderating effect of the values of Conservation on these mediated relationships is explored.

Since ontology is the understanding of what reality is, epistemology is the understanding of how to gain knowledge about this reality (Hay, 2006; Bryman and Bell, 2015), i.e., the starting point of the research process. *Epistemology* “concerns what constitutes acceptable, valid and legitimate knowledge, and how we communicate knowledge to others” (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p. 1). This research philosophy includes understanding the acceptable sources and limitations of this knowledge. There are three branches of epistemology which are: Positivism, Interpretivism, and Pragmatism (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Saunders et al., 2019). The description of each branch is presented in Appendix 4, and its major characteristics are summarized in Table 4.2.

The epistemological stance of the current study is value-free (no interaction involved during the research process) and aims at obtaining observable and

measurable knowledge with objective existence. The main target is to generate credible and reliable objective results through theory testing by drawing hypotheses and collecting large samples. The current study adopts a positivist research philosophy because it is based on an existing, well-established, and empirically tested Social Identity Theory. The aim here is to test the formulated hypotheses and use statistical analysis to attain valid and reliable results which are generalizable as well. As a result, adopting a positivist research philosophy allows the researcher to examine the relationship between independent and dependent variables.

**Table 4.2: The Major Characteristics of Positivism, Interpretivism and Pragmatism**

Philosophy	Characteristics
<b>Positivism</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Is related to “the philosophical stance of the natural scientist and entails working with an observable social reality to produce law-like generalizations” (Saunders et al., 2019, p.144).</li> <li>Objectivism.</li> <li>Observable and measurable facts.</li> <li>Law-likes generalizations.</li> <li>Value-free, where the researcher holds a neutral stance and is independent of the research project by maintaining an objective attitude.</li> <li>Deductive approach.</li> <li>Quantitative methods of data collection from large samples in the form of highly structured measurement and analysis.</li> </ul>
<b>Interpretivism</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Emphasizes that “humans are different from physical phenomena because they create meanings” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 148).</li> <li>Subjectivism.</li> <li>Value-bound, where the researcher is a part of the research project and holds a subjective stance.</li> <li>Inductive approach.</li> <li>Qualitative methods of data collection in the form of in-depth interviews and analysis.</li> </ul>
<b>Pragmatism:</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>It asserts that “concepts are only relevant where they support actions” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 151).</li> <li>Mixed views.</li> <li>Hold on to value and maintain objectivity at the same time.</li> <li>Abductive approach.</li> <li>Mixed Methods focus on practical solutions and results.</li> </ul>

**Source:** Self-developed based on Saunders et al. (2019)

On the contrary, the interpretivist research philosophy relies on applying qualitative research using small samples to develop new theories (Meredith,

1998). In fact, this epistemological standpoint argues that social interaction should be taken into consideration and implies that results relying on data and numbers are not enough (Näslund, 2002). Collis and Hussey (2009) remarked that these results are valid with a high degree of generalization but could be considered to be less reliable in comparison to quantitative methods.

Drawing on the large sample that will be collected in order to test the developed hypotheses based on existing theory (Social Identity Theory), the positivist epistemological standpoint is the best choice for the current research. The association between National Identity and Willingness To Pay for local origin products will be explored objectively, as mentioned previously in Table 4.2. Moreover, several previous studies, such as Keillor and Hult (1999), Verlegh (2007), Jossiassen et al. (2011) and Zeugner-Roth et al. (2015), used positivism as their research philosophy.

Furthermore, it is important to highlight the researcher's assumption regarding the role of value in the research. This is represented in the importance of learning the researcher's role within the conducted research (Ponterotto, 2005). Indeed, the researcher could be value-free in terms of being distant from the research process and the result interpretations. Nonetheless, the researcher's values could be involved in the research process and interpretations of results (Saunders et al., 2019). Therefore, it is important to stress that the current value-free study aims to obtain observable and measurable knowledge with objective existence. The main target of this research is to collect large samples to test an existing theory to generate credible and reliable results and generalizable findings.

Finally, the methodological assumptions include the philosophical assumptions and their implications on the research as guidelines to help the researcher to

carry out the research (Sarantakos, 2005). Research methodologies in social and behavioural sciences are classified into *quantitative* and *qualitative* (Sarantakos, 2005; Bryman and Bell, 2015). A summary of the key differences between quantitative and qualitative research methodologies is illustrated in Table 4.3, and further explanation is available in Appendix 5.

**Table 4.3: Differences Between Quantitative and Qualitative Methodology**

	Ontology	Epistemology	Axiology
<b>Quantitative</b>	Objective	Positivist	Value-free
<b>Qualitative</b>	Subjective	Interpretivist	Researcher's values play a significant role in the interpretations of the data results.

**Sources:** Self-developed from (Bryman and Bell, 2003,2015; Neuman, 2006; Collis and Hussey, 2009).

There are three methodological research choices, which are: *mono-method*, *multi-methods*, and *mixed methods* (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998, p. 17 – 19). The mono method involves the use of a single technique (either quantitative or qualitative), the multi-method is characterized by the use of more than one data collection technique and the mixed method is characterized by integrating the use of quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection and analysis (Saunders et al., 2019, p.178). Generally, mixed methods are used in the multi-phased study (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010). Choosing a methodology is determined by the research paradigm, appropriate research approach, compatibility with the research objectives and overall purpose of the research and the expected outcomes (Bryman, 1988; Sarantakos, 2005; Neuman, 2006). As mentioned earlier, the current study adopts a positivistic paradigm because it depends on a well-established and tested theory. Therefore, the mono-method of applying

quantitative research methodology will be applied to achieve the proposed research objectives.

In correspondence to the adopted positivist philosophical orientation and quantitative method of employing a survey (questionnaire) of the current research, the mono method is the appropriate research choice for this study. A questionnaire, as a survey instrument, will be used to collect data about the level of National Identity of Egyptian consumers and its influence on their Willingness To Pay for local origin products.

To sum up, the current study adopts a value-free point of view and employs well established as well as a tested theory in prior studies in the literature for building the research model. This perspective comes in line with the positivist philosophy that is considered appropriate in this highly structured current research, where the theory is well-established, and the constructs are easy to identify (Creswell, 2008). The relationships in the research model will be examined using a quantitative research methodology for data collection in the form of a questionnaire which allows low levels of interaction with the participants to avoid bias. Hence, values will not play a role in this research model. All in all, the current research adopts an objective ontological and value-free axiological standpoint.

### **4.3 Ethical Consideration**

Throughout the current research, Ethical Procedures for Research at the University of Hull (Research Ethics Policy, 2020) were adhered to at all stages. These stages include: “ethical issues during design and gaining access”, “ethical issues during data collection”, and “ethical issues related to analysis and

reporting” (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 236 - 245). Concerning the ethical procedures, the following points were taken into consideration.

Initially, the forms concerned with Hull University Business School (HUBS) Research Ethics Committee were completed, and approval was received prior to conducting the fieldwork. The approval of the form is essential since HUBS Research Ethics Committee must approve all research involving human subjects before conducting any fieldwork. Moreover, regarding the design and access stages, respondents’ right to refuse to participate in the research was respected. For respondents that voluntarily agreed to participate in the research, an informed consent form (Appendix 9) was presented for their viewing and signature. The consent form provides the respondents with information, such as the nature, aims and requirements of the project, as well as the consequences of taking participating and the use of the collected data; they might need to make a decisive decision regarding whether to participate in the research project (Oliver, 2010; Saunders et al., 2012). This aligns with the HUBS Research Ethics Committee regulations, which entail fully informing the respondents about the research before voluntarily participating in the research project.

#### **4.4 Research Approach**

Deciding on a specific research approach is highly dependent on the research philosophy adopted by the researcher and the role of theory in research (Bryman and Bell, 2015). Generally, there are three research approaches which are *deductive* (testing existing theory), *inductive* (creating a theory) (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Miller and Brewer, 2003) and *abductive* (combines exploring existing and new theories) (Saunders et al., 2019). In the case of the researcher being clear about the theory from the beginning and developing hypotheses to

test, this theory shows a deductive approach (Collis and Hussey, 2009; Robson, 2011). In contrast, the inductive approach adheres to collecting data and then developing a theory as a result of the data analysis (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). At the same time, the abduction approach combines deduction and induction approaches by exploring an incomplete observation to develop or modify a theory (Saunders et al., 2019). These three approaches are further discussed in Appendix 6, and their major characteristics are displayed in Table 4.4.

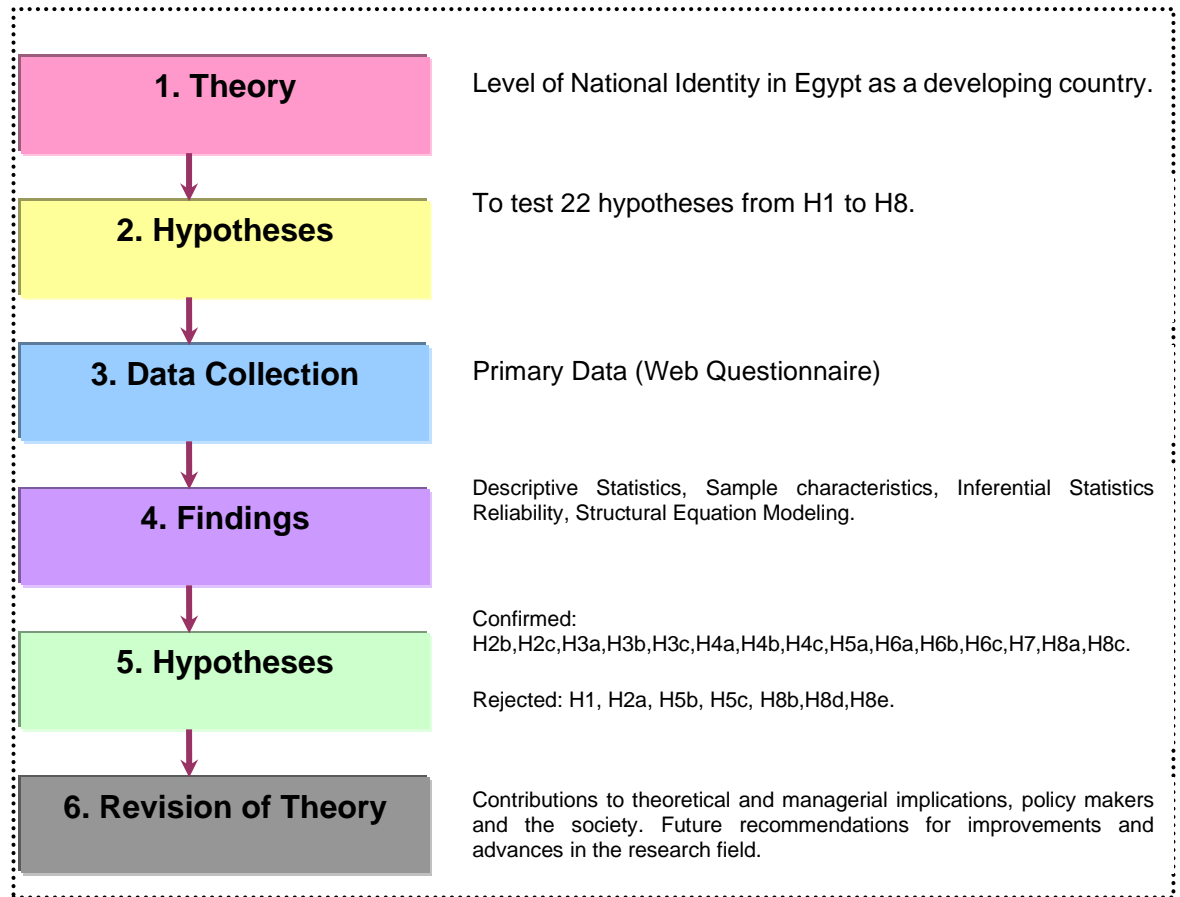
**Table 4.4: Major Characteristics of Deductive, Inductive and Abductive Approaches**

	<b>Approach</b>		
	<b>Deductive</b>	<b>Inductive</b>	<b>Abductive</b>
<b>Characteristics</b>	Existing theory Design research strategy ↓ Test the theory ↓ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Large sample</li> <li>▪ Quantitative data</li> <li>▪ Emphasizes structure, quantification, generalizability, and testable hypotheses.</li> </ul>	Collect data to explore the phenomenon ↓ Generate or build theory  <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Small sample</li> <li>▪ Qualitative data</li> <li>▪ Emphasizes the importance of connections to humanities and subjective interpretations.</li> </ul>	Collect data to explore the phenomenon ↓ Explain patterns Generate a new theory or modify an existing one. ↓ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Large or small</li> <li>▪ Mixed data collection method</li> </ul>
<b>Philosophy</b>	Positivist research philosophy	Interpretivist philosophy	Pragmatism philosophy
<b>Methodology</b>	Quantitative	Qualitative	Mixed

**Source:** Self-developed based on Saunders et al. (2019)

The current research follows a more deductive approach in order to explore the relationship between National Identity and Willingness To Pay for local origin products based on existing theory. Following this, the developed hypotheses from the theory noted in previous studies are tested using a highly structured

quantitative data collection method (questionnaire) to generate results and generalize findings (Saunders et al., 2019, p.154). Figure 4.2 illustrates the steps of the deduction approach in the current research.



**Source:** Self-developed based on Saunders et al. (2019, p.153, 154)

**Figure 4.2 Deductive Approach Stages**

Adopting the deductive approach allows for exploring the relationship between National Identity and Willingness To Pay for local origin products based on existing theory via theoretical hypotheses. This aspect further confirms that adopting the deductive approach in the current research is a coherent decision due to testing existing theories using developed hypotheses through literature review. A deductive approach is usually associated with quantitative research, which is the case in the current research. This approach will be further

complemented by using a survey (questionnaire) for data collection (Collis and Hussey, 2003).

## 4.5 Research Design

The importance of research design lies in being a vital step as it specifies the type of data to be collected and the data collection technique and sampling process (Hair et al., 2003). In order to ensure conducting effective and efficient research, a clear research design must be created (Malhotra and Birks, 2006). The research design must always be consistent and guided by the research questions and objectives (Saunders et al., 2019). Research design is mainly classified into *Exploratory*, *Descriptive* and *Explanatory* (Hair et al., 2003; Saunders et al., 2019). A summary of the major characteristics of the types of research design is illustrated in Table 4.5.

**Table 4.5: Major Characteristics of Exploratory, Descriptive and Explanatory Research Design**

Type of research design	Characteristics
<b>Exploratory</b>	- Understanding the nature of the problem through: (1) Searching literature review for this subject, (2) Interviewing experts in this subject and, (3) Conducting focus groups interviews.
<b>Descriptive</b>	- It is considered to be an extension of the exploratory study. (1) Provides an accurate profile of the people, events or situations investigated. (2) Effective in the case of hypotheses testing and investigating the relationships between defined variables. (3) Involves studying a particular problem at a single point in time (cross-sectional research).
<b>Explanatory</b>	- Focuses on explaining the relationships between variables by analyzing a situation or problem.

**Source:** Self-developed based on Hair et al. (2003); Malhotra and Birks (2006); Saunders et al. (2019, p. 186,187,188)

For the current research, first, an exploratory research design is applied by conducting a comprehensive and Systematic Literature Review (SLR). The evidence-based shift, which started in medical studies and has since moved to the social sciences, aspires to promote theory and practice by giving the best research-based evidence. The SLR strategy is a part of this trend (Boell and Cecez-Kecmanovic, 2015; Morrell, 2008). The process that specifies how to find, pick, evaluate, and synthesise information from the literature makes SLR unique. SLRs are said to offer a "standardised procedure" for literature reviews by following such a process that is repeatable, visible, objective, unbiased, and robust (Boell and Cecez-Kecmanovic, 2015; Oates et al., 2012). Thus, it is suggested that SLRs are better than so-called historical or conventional literature reviewing (Hjorland, 2011). The latter is implicitly regarded to be biased, unsystematic, unreplaceable, unscientific, and lacking in rigour (MacLure, 2005; Morrell, 2008).

The advantages of systematic reviews are numerous. They begin by providing a thorough and lucid summary of the currently available information on a particular subject. Additionally, SLRs aid in locating research voids in relation to our existing knowledge of an area. They might draw attention to methodological issues in research projects that can be utilised to enhance upcoming work in the field (Eagly and Wood, 1994). Last but not least, they can be used to pinpoint issues that already have clear solutions based on the facts at hand, negating the need for additional study (Chalmers and Glasziou, 2009). Specifically, using an SLR in this research allows for attaining initial insights, developing an understanding of the phenomena under investigation, and gaining theoretical knowledge of the constructs being investigated, which the survey will complement. Descriptive research design is considered an extension of the exploratory study (Saunders

et al., 2019, p. 187). Particularly, descriptive research uses scientific methods and procedures to describe existing characteristics (such as behaviours) and collect data from a defined target population (Hair et al., 2003). According to Saunders et al. (2019), a researcher can use both descriptive and explanatory purposes and address this as “descripto-explanatory” studies (p. 188), which means that the research is most likely descriptive, followed by explanatory studies. As a result, exploratory study is utilized as a precursor to the descripto-explanatory research design. The descripto-explanatory study is used to determine whether there are relationships between National Identity and Willingness To Pay for local origin products. This relationship is examined while being mediated (Evaluation of Foreign Products, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products, Purchase Decision Involvement, Self-Categorisation and Perceived Quality) and moderated (values of Conservation) by various variables. Afterwards, collecting data from the targeted population will take place at the data collection stage in section 4.7.

## **4.6 Research Strategy**

Initially, the research strategy links the researcher’s adopted philosophy and all the following choices regarding data collection and analysis (Denzin and Lincoln, 2018). No matter how many research strategies exist (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Creswell, 2003; Yin, 2003), no research strategy is better than the other. In the end, the chosen research strategy has to match the assumptions of the chosen philosophy to enable the researcher to answer the research questions and fulfil and achieve the research aims and objectives (Saunders et al., 2019).

As mentioned earlier, there are many research strategies, and it is important to be mindful of the existing research strategies. Appendix 7 demonstrates and

briefly discusses the various research strategies, which are: Experiment, Survey, Archival and Documentary Research, Case Study, Action Research, Grounded Theory, Ethnography and Narrative Inquiry.

When choosing a particular research strategy, what matters is whether or not it is appropriate for answering the research questions and achieving objectives. Since the current research follows the positivistic philosophy and deductive approach, the chosen research strategy is the survey because it is considered to be a positivistic methodology (Collis and Hussey, 2003, p. 66) and is generally associated with the deductive approach (Saunders et al., 2019, p.193). Moreover, the purpose of the current research is to explore the relationship between National Identity and Willingness To Pay for local origin products among Egyptian consumers, which requires a large number of respondents. The survey strategy allows for collecting a large amount of data from a sizable population in a highly economical manner. It is associated with data collection (often using a questionnaire) for quantitative analysis, and the data are standardized, permitting easy comparison (Saunders et al., 2019). These goals will be achieved through the survey research strategy, which enables collecting data from a large number of respondents where the findings “could possibly be representative of the whole population” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 193, 194). Adding to this, the collected data will be quantitatively analysed, yielding results to investigate the relationship between the independent variable (National Identity) and dependent variable (Willingness to Pay for local origin products) while being mediated by Evaluation of Foreign Products, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products, Purchase Decision Involvement, Self-Categorisation and Perceived Quality and moderated by the values of Conservation.

## 4.7 Time Horizon

According to Saunders et al. (2019), while conducting a study, there are two types of time horizons, which are: *cross-sectional* and *longitudinal*. The difference between cross-sectional and longitudinal studies is illustrated in Table 4.6.

**Table 4.6: Difference Between Cross-sectional and Longitudinal Studies**

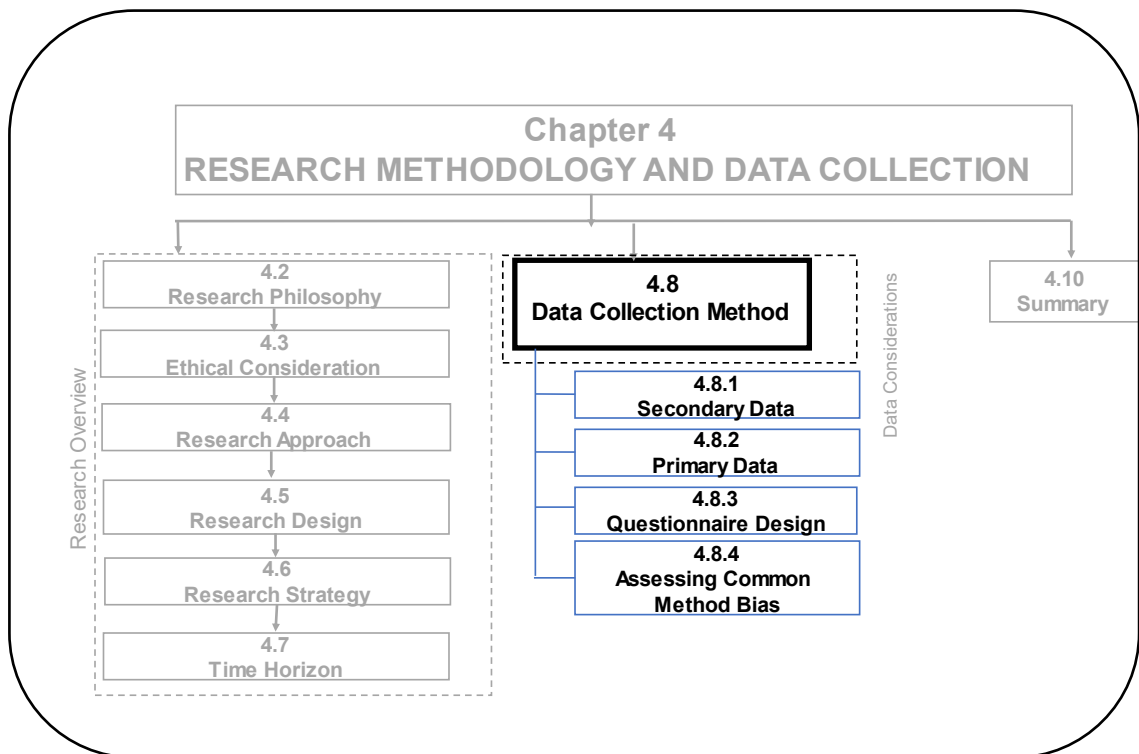
Cross-sectional studies	Longitudinal studies
“Entails the collection of data from more than one case and at a single point in time in order to collect data in connection with two or more variables, which are then examined to detect patterns of association” (Bryman and Bell, 2003, p. 48).	It can be a period of several years and is applied to investigate “variables or group of subjects [over a long period of time]” (Collis and Hussey, 2003, pp. 64).

The current research investigates the relationship between variables at a single point in time and does not consider changes in the association between the variables (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Moreover, researchers conducting cross-sectional research usually adopt a positivist philosophy and often “employ the survey strategy” (Saunders et al., 2019, p.212), which is the case in the current research. Adding to this, the limited time to collect data comes in line with the time constraint associated with cross-sectional research, especially for academic courses (Saunders et al., 2019). It is important to add that cross-sectional research is commonly placed in the quantitative research context and often applied with the survey strategy as suggested by Collis and Hussey (2003), Bryman and Bell (2003), Robson (2011) and Easterby-Smith et al. (2012).

## 4.8 Data Collection Method

In research, there are two basic sources of data, which are: *secondary data* and *primary data* (Saunders et al., 2019). Collecting primary data alone is not enough

to support the structure and background of the current study. Therefore, the current study relies on both secondary and primary data sources. The primary data will include the data collection technique and fieldwork. Figure 4.3 highlights the sub-sections of the data collection method.



**Figure 4.3 Structure of Section 4.7 - Data Collection Method**

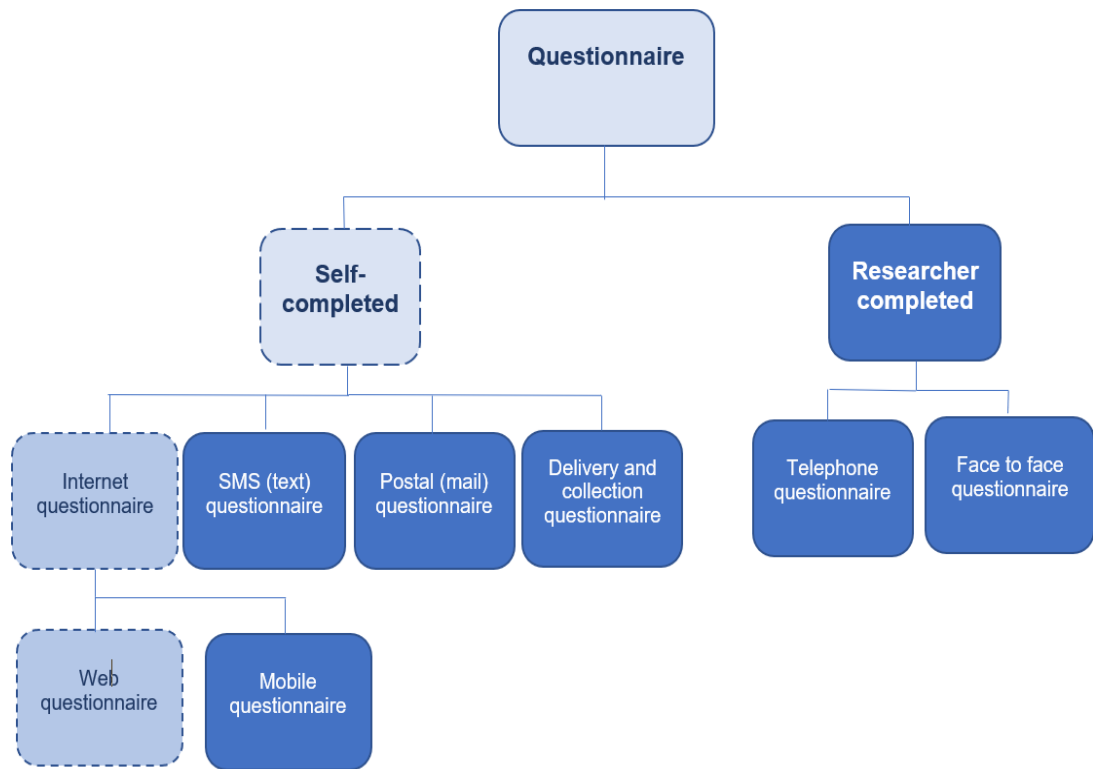
#### 4.8.1 Secondary Data

**Secondary data** is “data that already exists such as books, documents and films” (Collis and Hussey, 2003, p. 355) and were initially collected for some other purpose” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 338). Compared to primary data, secondary data is quicker to acquire and less expensive (Saunders et al., 2019). Secondary data include quantitative and qualitative data and is mainly used in descriptive and explanatory research (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 341). For the current research, secondary data were collected from three sources: documentaries,

multiple sources and surveys. The documentary secondary data depended on written materials, such as journals and newspapers. Multiple sources included area-based resources, such as government publications, books and journals. Moreover, censuses and Ad hoc surveys, including government censuses of population, employment, government surveys and academic surveys were used. In addition to the previous secondary data sources, the university search engines and databases, such as Business Source Premier, ABI inform, Emerald and Science Direct were also used. Appendix 8 provides a summary of the various types of secondary data.

#### 4.8.2 Primary Data

**Primary data** “is new data collected for a specific purpose” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 338). For the purpose of the current study, primary data are collected using the survey method in the form of a questionnaire; to be able to collect a large amount of data within a limited time (Saunders et al., 2019). The various types of questionnaires are demonstrated in Figure 4.4, and further explained in Table 4.7.



Source: Saunders et al., 2019, p. 506.

**Figure 4.4 Types of Questionnaires**

#### 4.8.2.1 Survey Method:

A good questionnaire design is essential in order to generate data that is conducive to the research objectives (De Vaus, 2002; Sarantakos, 2005). The questions exhibited in the questionnaire should be simple and clear, valid, reliable and relevant (Nachmais and Nachmias, 2007; Malhotra, 2010). This means that the questions of the questionnaire must be accurate, and no unnecessary information should be collected to be able to obtain all the required information to solve the problem (this is further discussed in sub-section 4.7.3).

#### 4.8.2.2 Collecting Survey Data:

Survey data collection methods are divided into self-completed and researcher-completed. **Self-completed questionnaires** “are usually completed by the respondents and are often referred to as surveys” (Saunders et al., 2019, p.505, 506). Survey methods include internet (Web and Mobile), SMS (text), postal (mail) and delivery and collection questionnaires. **Researcher completed questionnaires** “are recorded by the researcher or research assistant on the basis of each respondent’s answers” (Saunders et al., 2019, p.506). This includes telephone and face-to-face questionnaires. The four crucial criteria for selecting a survey type are cost, speed, number of questions (length) and response rate (Lancaster, 2005, p.188), as demonstrated in Table 4.7.

**Table 4.7: Types and Characteristics of Questionnaires**

Types of Questionnaires and Explanations	Cost	Collection Speed	Number of questions	Response rate
<b>Self-Completed</b>				
<b>Internet questionnaire (Web and Mobile):</b> Respondents access the questions using a computer (hyperlink to access web browser) or a mobile device (in the form of text messages).	Cheapest	Fastest	Moderate	Moderate
<b>Postal questionnaire:</b> Questionnaires are sent by mail, and respondents return them upon completion.	Cheap	Slowest	Moderate	Lowest
<b>Delivery and collection questionnaire:</b> Questionnaires are delivered to each respondent and then collected at a later time.	Moderate	Fast	Long	Highest
<b>Researcher completed</b>				
<b>Telephone questionnaire:</b> Undertaking the questionnaire through a telephone call.	Moderate	Fast	Short	Moderate

<b>Face-to-face questionnaire:</b>	Expensive	Slow to moderate	Longest	Highest
The researcher personally interviews the respondent and asks the questions.				
<b>Sources:</b> Ibeh and Brock, 2004; Lancaster, 2005; Saunders et al., 2019				

As presented in Table 4.7, the main criteria used for assessing a type of questionnaire are cost, speed, length, number of questions (length) and response rate. Cost-wise, posting the questionnaire by mail and using an internet questionnaire is the cheapest. Moreover, internet questionnaires, telephone interviews, and drop and collect method are considered to be fast speed wise. Face-to-face interviews and drop and collect method allow the researcher to construct a lengthy survey with the greatest number of questions when compared to other types. As for the response rate, drop and collect method, as well as face-to-face interviews, are conceived as the highest.

After listing and explaining the types of questionnaires as well as their selection criteria, the selected type of questionnaire for the current research is the internet (web) questionnaire. Electronically completed surveys for data collection are growing fast throughout most of the world (Dillman et al., 2014) and in social and behavioural sciences (Niessen et al., 2016). The reasons behind this fast growth are the low cost, fast responses, and moderate response rates (Dillman et al., 2014; Saunders et al., 2019). It is worth mentioning that it might not be possible to post the questionnaires to respondents by mail due to factors such as time constraints and unreliable postal services, as well as other logistic constraints that are encountered in developing countries (Ibeh and Brock, 2004).

Another reason behind choosing the web questionnaire method is the impact of the current unforeseen Coronavirus disease pandemic (COVID-19) situation. The priority here is the safety of the researcher and respondents participating in the

current study. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), the following precautions must be taken into consideration to protect oneself and others from the spread and infection (WHO, Coronavirus disease 2019):

1. Regular and thorough handwashing using water and soap or alcohol-based sanitiser,
2. Social distancing by maintaining at least 1 metre between each individual,
3. Avoiding crowded places and gatherings,
4. Avoid touching eye, nose and mouth and follow proper respiratory hygiene (covering mouth and nose while sneezing or coughing),
5. Wear a mask where necessary.

After discussing how the current unforeseen COVID-19 situation impacts the current study and the safety measures that will be taken into consideration, it is important to specify how to benefit from and overcome the drawbacks of using questionnaires in general and web questionnaires in particular.

The main advantages of questionnaires are money and time saving and reduction of bias error (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Nachmias and Nachmias, 2007). On the other hand, not having control over the participant who fills in the questionnaire and the possibility of low response rates are important drawbacks of web questionnaires (Nachmias and Nachmias, 2007). To overcome these drawbacks, several actions should be taken into consideration.

**First**, to ensure that the respondents are knowledgeable, hence, the current study questionnaire is directed to participants with at least a high school education degree to be aware of the required information. In the current study, web questionnaires will be sent out to participants. Therefore, the population in rural areas and lower technological knowledge will be avoided as they may lag

behind in the adoption of the internet (Dillman et al., 2014). The internet questionnaires are distributed to participants by accessing a web browser (such as Chrome, Firefox, Internet Explorer, and Safari) using a hyperlink (Dillman et al., 2014, p. 305). In this case, the suitable target population have to be technologically literate as the web questionnaires will be accessed via a personal computer or any other mobile device with internet access or cellular connection. The researcher (or surveyor) sends out a request (often via email) with the hyperlink for the web survey.

**Second**, the self-completion questionnaires are quicker and easier for the respondents to complete, taking into consideration the rich nature of the questions and the length of the questionnaire that require participants to think profoundly before responding. For internet or web questionnaires, the virtual presentation must be easy to read and fill in responses, be appealing to encourage respondents to answer the questions, while not being too long. Saunders et al. (2019) suggested that “longer questionnaires are best-presented face-to-face” (p. 509). Thus, avoiding a long questionnaire reduces uninformed responses, which is when respondents guess the answers due to insufficient knowledge or experience (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 509). Even more, long questionnaires may pose the risk of respondents losing interest and not completing the survey. Therefore, when it comes to designing web questionnaires, there are several aspects that must be carefully taken into consideration, such as questionnaire design, hosting and implementation and evaluation of the technological capabilities of respondents (Dillman et al., 2014). One of the most important aspects to take into consideration is the number of questions that will be present per page or screen display. The problem here is that such a design might take a longer time to complete. Another preferable web

questionnaire design is resembling a paper-based questionnaire, i.e., all questions are presented on one page, allowing participants to review the entire questionnaire prior to answering the questions. Being able to review the entire questions prior to responding helps the respondents in making an informed decision to complete the survey (Crawford et al., 2001). Adding to this, it is recommended to minimize the scrolling down with not too complex closed questions (Saunders et al., 2019).

**Third**, for web questionnaires, a 30% – 50% response rate is expected (Saunders et al., 2019). Moreover, the time taken to complete collection ranges from 2-6 weeks which is a reasonable time given the restricted time of the current academic study. **Fourth and Last**, the confidentiality and anonymity of the collected data encourage respondents to give genuine answers, which will yield reliable findings.

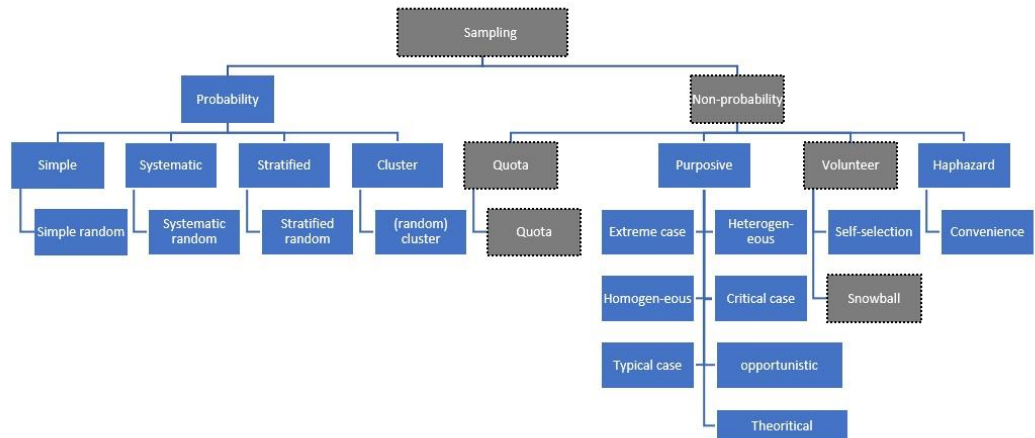
As mentioned earlier, the main reason behind employing the web questionnaire method is the COVID-19 pandemic situation that the whole world is witnessing. Therefore, it is the researcher's duty to ensure the data collected will achieve the required objectives of the current study. Dillman et al. (2014) suggested using mixed-mode survey designs to achieve the desired results in case using a single-mode alone did not achieve the required objectives. Thus, in case the research objectives of this study were not properly met after analysing the data collected from the web questionnaires, a self-completed questionnaire using the drop and collect method could be used. Self-completed questionnaires will be distributed by hand to each respondent and collected after a certain period of time (drop and collect technique). Drop and collect method gives the researcher a chance to review answers to avoid any missing values (Ibeh and Brock, 2004). All this will

be conducted while carefully considering the WHO COVID-19 pandemic prevention advice, as previously stated.

All in all, this survey method (questionnaire) of collecting data is used because it comes in line with the current study's positivistic philosophy and deductive approach. Adding to this, the survey method is relevant to the aim of the current research, which investigates the relationship between National Identity and Willingness To Pay for local origin products through collecting data (large amount) from a sizeable population in the most economical way possible (Saunders et al., 2019). The next step addresses determining the proper number of respondents to include in the survey method.

#### 4.8.2.3 Research Sample and Sampling Method:

“The full set of cases from which the sample is taken” is referred to as **population** (Saunders et al., 2019, p.294). This is considered to be the main approach for collecting a sample from large populations. In order to comply with the objectives of the current study, the sampling technique selected should save time and cost and provide accessibility to respondents. Figure 4.5 provides an overview of the available sampling techniques.



Source: Saunders et al. (2019, p. 297)

**Figure 4.5 Sampling Techniques**

As shown in Figure 4.5, there are two main sampling techniques, probability and non-probability, which have diverse sampling frames (Saunders et al., 2019). For the current study, Sampling, Non-Probability, Snowball and Quota will be employed. Saunders et al. (2019) described **non-probability sampling** as “the probability of each selected case from the total population is not known, and it is impossible to answer the research questions or to address the objectives that require statistical inferences about the characteristics of the population” (p.296). Whereas **probability sampling** offers “a known chance of each case being selected” and it is associated with survey-based (questionnaire) and experiment research strategies (Saunders et al., 2019, p.296). Taking into account the above discussion and based on the quantitative research methodology, the probability sampling technique is usually associated with a data collection survey. However, given the restrictions imposed by the COVID-19 pandemic discussed earlier, non-probability sampling is considered the most practical technique for the current

study. Hence, it is important to clarify that non-probability sampling offers generalisability as well (Teddle and Tashakori, 2009).

There are several other reasons for choosing the non-probability sampling technique for the current study. For instance, non-probability sampling provides a wide range of alternatives for sample selection. In addition, non-probability sampling techniques have grown to be more efficient for web questionnaires (Saunders et al., 2019). The non-probability sampling includes quota, purposive, volunteer, and haphazard sampling and the description and advantages of the four techniques are summarized in Table 4.8. In the case of online panels, quota sampling is considered to be the appropriate sampling technique employed (Baker et al., 2013). Quota sampling is used as an alternative to probability sampling techniques due to the use of an online panel. Online panels allow respondents to participate in the research based on criteria, including their relevance and willingness to participate in the research. Along with the quota technique, the snowball sampling technique will also be employed for the current study.

**Table 4.8: Description and Advantages of Non-Probability Sampling Techniques**

<b>Non-probability Sampling Technique</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Advantages</b>
<b>Quota sampling</b>	Considered to be an alternative to probability sampling in the case of online questionnaires.	The likelihood of the sample being representative is significant because sampling could be controlled using certain characteristics.
<b>Purposive Sampling</b>	Relies on the researcher's judgments to select the cases that will best answer the research questions and meet the research objectives. This is why it is also known as judgmental sampling.	Considered to be useful in the case of working closely with very small samples, such as in a case study.
<b>Snowball Sampling</b>	A form of volunteer sampling, initial contact is done with small members of the desired population, and then these	Beneficial in the case when it is difficult to identify members of the desired population. Therefore, making the initial

	members are asked to identify new cases to participate in the research and so on.	contact with the first member will yield a wider distribution of the data collection tool.
<b>Convenience Sampling</b>	A form of haphazard sampling where the selected sample is selected without coordination with the research questions or objectives. The sample is selected based on availability.	The ease of availability is considered to be the most important benefit of selecting this type of sampling.
<b>Sources:</b> Bryman and Bell (2015); Malhotra et al. (2012); Saunders et al., (2019, p. 323)		

### Sample Size

The chosen sampling techniques for this study are the quota and snowball non-probability techniques. The main objective here is to minimize the likely error as much as possible to be able to draw a conclusion from the targeted population and achieve generalizability. Hence, generalizing the data collected from the target population depends on statistical probability (Saunders et al., 2019). This depends on the confidence level, tolerated margin of error, type of statistical analysis to be applied and most importantly, the size of the target population. The confidence level lies in “the level of certainty that the characteristics of the data collected will represent the characteristics of the target population” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 299). The margin of error is represented in “the accuracy required for any estimates made from the sample” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 299). Normally, most business and management researchers agree on a 95 per cent confidence level (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 300).

Previous studies conducted in Egypt on Egyptian consumers using questionnaires included a sample size of 2000 participants for three major cities, which are Cairo, Alexandria and Port Said (Mostafa, 2016) and 200 questionnaires across Egypt (Tantawy et al., 2009). For the current study, a total

of 957 web questionnaires will be distributed among Egyptian consumers all over Egypt using a survey panel.

All in all, determining the number of respondents from the population is to ensure collecting the required information from only certain members of the population whose characteristics and responses are representative of the selected population. The size of the sample should be large enough and sufficient in order to avoid bias and ensure reliable data to fulfil the analytical methods required for making recommendations and generalizing data to the whole population (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010).

#### 4.8.3 Questionnaire Design

To begin with, it is important to note that the design of the questionnaire affects the response rate, reliability, and validity of the data collected (Saunders et al., 2019, p.505). Prior to designing the questionnaire, the existing measurements of related constructs were identified by intensively studying the existing literature. The purpose behind this is to extract measurement items for the current study that had been previously validated in prior studies and established from 3- and 4-star journals.

Designing a questionnaire is all about obtaining the required information from the targeted respondents. In order to achieve this, the content of the questionnaire should be relevant and accurate (Malhotra and Briks, 2003; Neuman, 2006). The relevance lies in avoiding collecting unnecessary information and focusing on obtaining the required information to solve the research problem. As for accuracy, the information should be reliable and valid. Validity is achieved by employing a pre-test and pilot study of the questionnaire (pre-test and pilot study will be further discussed in the upcoming sub-sections) (Douglas and Craig, 2007). A

researcher should design a questionnaire that is clear about the required information and careful about the choice of question-wording. Adding to this, Neuman (2006) proposed avoiding jargon and technical terms, leading questions (leading the answers of the respondents to what the researcher wants) and loaded questions (p. 278). A good start for a proper questionnaire design is the translation, especially since the current research is collecting data from Egypt, where English is not the first language (Arabic is the mother tongue). This is further discussed in the next sub-section.

#### 4.8.3.1 Translation:

This questionnaire was distributed among Egyptian consumers who are living in Egypt, where the official language is Arabic. The original questionnaire was developed in the English language; hence translation and back-translation were carried out to fit the native language of the respective country. Two highly qualified bilingual (English and Arabic) Egyptian academic staff, who have a strong command of English as well, translated the questionnaire from English to Arabic (the native language of Egypt). This was followed by back-translation, from Arabic to English, by two other highly qualified Egyptian academic staff as well. Back-translation aids in reconciling any differences if present (Craig and Douglas, 2005). The end results confirmed that the versions are consistent, with no differences between the original and translated questionnaires (Appendices 10 and 11). Nonetheless, it is vital to pre-test and pilot the questionnaire before the actual distribution in order to guarantee the robustness of the questionnaire.

#### 4.8.3.2 Pre-Test Study:

Three academic experts (holding PhD degrees) with a wide experience in designing and refining questionnaires carried out a checkup on the scale

indicators used in the questionnaire. The experts provided constructive feedback for modifications. Following the suggestions of Brynman and Bell (2007), the content validity was accomplished by consulting the academic experts on the researched topic about the appropriateness of the measuring scales. Some of these modifications included clarifying ambiguous wording and meanings, eliminating duplicated items, and combining some of the questions to give full meaning and reduce the length of the questionnaire. Reynolds and Diamantopoulos (1998) suggested pretesting the translated instrument. Therefore, the survey link was emailed to 20 academic and non-academic respondents in order to pre-test the translated version of the measurement scale to ensure that there were no difficulties in answering the questions and that all items were comprehensible. Also, it was necessary to pre-test the questionnaire to make sure that the completion time lies within the range of the recommended questionnaire length (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

#### 4.8.3.3 Pilot Testing:

Prior to using the questionnaire, it is important to carry out a pilot study to avoid problems in answering the questions and recording data afterwards (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 540). The pilot test involves one or more experts giving feedback regarding the representativeness and suitability of the survey questions. The experts' feedback brings the questionnaire to its final version, ready to be distributed for data collection.

A total of 87 respondents participated in the pilot test of the current study. For the pilot test, this study used an online survey that was distributed using a link through emails as well as Clickworker online survey platform on Egyptian citizens living in Egypt. A total of 50 responses were acquired from Clickworker online survey

platform and 37 responses via email correspondence. The email correspondence used snowball sampling, where an electronic link of the survey was emailed to several respondents, and they were asked to participate in the survey as well as distribute the electronic link to others and so on. Finally, the acquired sample underwent preliminary analysis such as exploratory factor analysis, validity, and reliability analysis.

Finally, the main study survey was conducted using JISC online survey platform offered by the University of Hull. Even though web questionnaires have several advantages, such as being efficient and covering a wide geographic area (Bynman, 2016), they still have their limitations. For instance, several reminders were regularly sent out to encourage respondents to complete and submit the survey.

#### 4.8.3.4 Research Instrument Development – Measures:

In the current study, previously validated scales were used to measure the research constructs. A total of 68 items are used for the purpose of measuring the main constructs included in the current study through a sample of research targets from Egyptian consumers who are living in Egypt. Table 4.9 demonstrates the operationalisation of the data collection instrument.

##### *National Identity*

In the current study, National Identity was measured using the NATID scale, which includes 17-items developed by Keillor and Hult (1999). NATID scale starts with three items for National Heritage, followed by four items for Cultural Homogeneity and then five items for Belief System. This was complemented by

five items for Consumer Ethnocentrism. Those 17 reflective items were adopted from Keillor and Hult (1999).

### *Country-of-Origin*

The consumer attitudes towards foreign products were measured using seven items for Evaluating Foreign Products adopted from Darling and Arnold (1988). Moreover, six items measuring Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products adopted from Klein et al. (1998) were added.

### *Willingness to Pay*

A total of four items were acquired for Willingness to Pay from Netemeyer et al. (2004); three items enquire about the respondent's opinion on willingness to pay, and one item enquires about how much extra the respondent is willing to pay that range from 0% till 30% or more.

As for the remaining measurement items, eight items for Self-Categorisation were adopted from Stoner et al. (2011), five items for Purchase Decision Involvement from Mittal (1989) and one item was adopted from Michaelidou and Dibb (2006). Consumer Value Orientations were measured using Schwartz Values Survey (SVS), which includes eleven items. Finally, the Perceived Quality of domestic products was measured using five items adopted from Dodds et al. (1991).

The first section of the questionnaire presented items from the National Heritage and Cultural Homogeneity of the NATID scale and Self-Categorisation. The second section consisted of measures for Consumer Ethnocentrism from the NATID scale and Evaluation of Foreign Products and Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products. As for the third section, the measurements covered the constructs of Purchase Decision Involvement, Willingness to Pay and Perceived Quality of

domestic products. Schwartz Value Survey was measured in the fourth section. Finally, basic demographics (age range, gender, income, and education level) were included to complete the questionnaire. The seven-point Likert-type statements ranged from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree', with the exception of Schwartz Value Survey, where six-point Likert-type statements were used.

**Table 4.9: The Operationalisation of the Data Collection Instrument**

No.	Variables	Sources
Demographic variables		
1	Gender	
2`	Age Range	
3	Education Level	
4	Approximate Annual Income	
5	National Identity using NATID scale	
NATID scale - National Heritage		
5.1	Important historical figures in Egypt are admired by people today.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
5.2	One of the strong characteristics of Egypt is that it concentrates on important historical events.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
5.3	Egypt has a strong historical heritage.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
NATID scale - Cultural Homogeneity		
5.4	Egyptian citizens possess unique cultural properties which others do not possess.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
5.5	Egyptians believe in general that they come from a common historical background.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
5.6	Egyptians are proud of their nationality.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
5.7	Egyptians engage in activities specific to them.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
NATID scale - Belief System		

No.	Variables	Sources
5.8	A specific religious philosophy is what makes a person uniquely Egyptian.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
5.9	It is impossible for an individual to be truly Egyptian without taking part in some form of religious activity.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
5.10	Religious education is essential to preserve the cohesiveness of Egyptian society.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
5.11	A specific religious philosophy is not an important part of being Egyptian. <R>	Keillor (1999) and Hult
5.12	A true Egyptian would never reject their religious beliefs.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
<b>NATID scale - Consumer Ethnocentrism</b>		
5.13	We should purchase products manufactured in Egypt, instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
5.14	It is always best to purchase Egyptian products.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
5.15	Egyptian people should not buy foreign products, because foreign products hurt Egyptian business and cause unemployment.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
5.16	It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Egyptian products. <R>	Keillor (1999) and Hult
5.17	Only those products that are unavailable in Egypt should be imported.	Keillor (1999) and Hult
<b>6 Country-of-Origin Effects</b>		
<b>Reluctance to buy foreign products</b>		
6.1	I would feel guilty if I bought foreign products.	Klein et al. (1998)
6.2	I would never buy a foreign-made product.	Klein et al. (1998)
6.3	Whenever possible, I avoid buying foreign-made products.	Klein et al. (1998)
6.4	Whenever available, I would prefer to buy foreign-made products.	
6.5	If two products were equal in quality, but one was made in Egypt and one was foreign-made, I would pay 10% more for the Egyptian-made product.	Klein et al. (1998)
6.6	Buying foreign-made products make me feel guilty.	Klein et al. (1998)
<b>Evaluation of foreign products</b>		
6.7	Foreign-made (products) are carefully produced and have fine workmanship (craft).	Darling and Arnold (1988)

No.	Variables	Sources
6.8	Foreign-made (products) are reliable and durable.	Darling and Arnold (1988)
6.9	Foreign-made (products) are usually reasonably priced in comparison to similar Egyptian-made products.	Darling and Arnold (1988)
6.10	Foreign-made products may be of a lower quality than similar Egyptian-made products available in the market.	Darling and Arnold (1988)
6.11	Whenever available, I would prefer to buy Egyptian-made products.	Darling and Arnold (1988)
6.12	In comparison to Egyptian-made products, as a general rule I have not been very pleased with the foreign-made products I have purchased.	Darling and Arnold (1988)
6.13	I take a great deal of personal pride in the ownership of Egyptian-made products.	Darling and Arnold (1988)

7	Self-Categorisation	
7.1	I am a member of this Egyptian society.	Stoner et al. (2011)
7.2	I consider myself a member of this Egyptian society.	Self-categorisation subscale of identification (Stoner et al., 2011)
7.3	If asked if I belong to this Egyptian society, I would say "Yes."	Stoner et al. (2011)
7.4	I do not consider myself a member of this Egyptian society. (R)	Self-categorisation subscale of identification (Stoner et al., 2011)
7.5	When something bad happens to this Egyptian society, I personally feel hurt.	Stoner et al. (2011)
7.6	When this Egyptian society is in pain, I empathize.	Stoner et al. (2011)
7.7	I have a feeling of connection with this Egyptian society.	Stoner et al. (2011)
7.8	I am personally concerned about what happens to other members of this Egyptian society.	Stoner et al. (2011)

8	Purchase Decision Involvement	
8.1	There are many types and brands of Egyptian-made products in the market when selecting among them, how important is it to choose which one to buy	Mittal (1989)
8.2	Do you think that the various types and brands of Egyptian-made products available in the market are all very alike or are all very different?	Mittal (1989)
8.3	How important would it be for you to make the right choice when buying Egyptian-made products?	Mittal (1989)

No.	Variables	Sources
8.4	In making your selection among the Egyptian-made products, how concerned would you be about the outcome of your choice?	Mittal (1989)
8.5	How important will be the purchase of Egyptian-made products in your life?	Mittal (1989)
8.6	Because of my personal values, I feel that buying Egyptian-made products ought to be important to me.	Michaelidou and Dibb (2006)
<b>9 Willingness to Pay</b>		
9.1	The price of products made in Egypt would have to go up quite a bit before I would switch to foreign-made products.	Netemeyer et al. (2004)
9.2	I am willing to pay a higher price for products made in Egypt than for foreign-made products.	Netemeyer et al. (2004)
9.3	I am willing to pay a lot more for the products made in Egypt than for foreign-made products.	Netemeyer et al. (2004)
9.4	I am willing to pay (0%, 5%, 10%, 15%, 20%, 25%, 30%, or more) more for products made in Egypt than foreign-made products.	Netemeyer et al. (2004)
<b>10 Social Desirability</b>		
10.1	I am always careful about my manner of dress.	Putrevu and Lord (1994)
10.2	I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.	Putrevu and Lord (1994)
<b>11 Schwartz Value Survey</b>		
11.1	It is important to this person to think up new ideas and be creative to do things one's own way. (Self-Direction)	Schwartz (1992)
11.2	It is important to this person to be rich to have a lot of money and expensive things. (Power)	Schwartz (1992)
11.3	Living in secure Surroundings is important to this person to avoid anything that might be dangerous. (Security)	Schwartz (1992)
11.4	It is important to this person to have a good time to "spoil" oneself. (Hedonism)	Schwartz (1992)
11.5	It is important to this person to do something for the good of society. (Benevolence)	Schwartz (1992)
11.5(A)	It is important to this person to help people nearby; to care for their well-being.	Schwartz (1992)
11.6	Being very successful is important to this person to have people recognize one's achievements. (Achievement)	Schwartz (1992)
11.7	Adventure and taking risks are important to this person to have an exciting life. (Stimulation)	Schwartz (1992)

No.	Variables	Sources
11.8	It is important to this person to always behave properly to avoid doing anything people would say is wrong. (Conformity)	Schwartz (1992)
11.9	Looking after the environment is important to this person to care for nature and save life resources. (Universalism)	Schwartz (1992)
11.10	Tradition is important to this person to follow the customs handed down by one's religion or family. (Tradition)	Schwartz (1992)
<b>12</b>	<b><i>Perceived Quality</i></b>	
<b><i>Examples of products: yogurt, chocolate candy bar, oranges, dish detergent, bedsheets, athletic shoes, and winter jackets.</i></b>		
12.1	The likelihood that the products made in Egypt would be reliable is:	Dodds et al. (1991)
12.2	The workmanship of the products made in Egypt would be:	Dodds et al. (1991)
12.3	The products made in Egypt should be of:	Dodds et al. (1991)
12.4	The likelihood that the products made in Egypt are dependable is:	Dodds et al. (1991)
12.5	The products made in Egypt seem to be durable:	Dodds et al. (1991)

#### 4.8.3.5 Assessing the credibility of the Research Design:

Malhotra (2010) stressed three main aspects of the research design to yield credible research findings, which are: reliability, validity, and generalizability. The following sub-sections discuss the three aspects and how they are addressed in the current research.

Construct reliability can be measured using Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ) or Composite Reliability (CR), where the rule of thumb for both is above .70 (Hair et al., 2020). In the current research, Composite Reliability is assessed and reported as it is more accurate than Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al., 2019). While reliability is key to research quality, it is insufficient by itself to guarantee good-quality research. Hence, validity must be attained as well.

#### 4.8.4 Assessing Common Method Bias

The use of a single measurement instrument (questionnaire) for measuring all variables at once can result in a shared variance among the measurement items. This result could have an impact on the results when examining the relationships between the study variables. This effect is known as Common Method Bias (CMB) (Jordan and Troth, 2020).

Academically, significant attention has been paid to the potential effects of CMB by business researchers (e.g., Malhotra et al., 2006; Richardson et al., 2009; Sharma et al., 2009; Lance et al., 2010; Sharma et al., 2010; Williams et al., 2010; Brannick et al., 2010; Conway and Lance, 2010; Spector and Brannick, 2010; Bagozzi, 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2012; Fuller et al., 2015; William and McGonagle, 2016; Malhotra et al., 2017). In particular, marketing researchers realized the effects of CMB because of its ability to “create a false internal consistency, that is, an apparent correlation among variables generated by their common source” (Chang et al., 2010, p. 178; Kohli, 2011; Malhotra et al., 2007; MacKenzie and Podsakoff 2012; Schaller et al., 2015). Therefore, when the same rater responds to items in a questionnaire at a cross-sectional time horizon, the collected data may be susceptible to CMB (Lindell and Whitney, 2001; Malhotra et al., 2017). Table 4.10 presents the major issues and consequences associated with CMB.

**Table 4.10: Major Issues and Consequences of Common Method Bias**

Issue	Description
<b>Consistency motif</b>	- “refers to the propensity for respondents to try to maintain consistency in their responses to questions” (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 882). -This would lead to answers that may not exist at the same level in real life because the respondent attempts to provide consistent responses to similar questions.
<b>Social desirability</b>	-“refers to the tendency of some people to respond to items more as a result of their social acceptability than their true feelings” (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 882). -In this case, spurious relationships may arise due to individuals trying to showcase themselves in a favourable manner

regardless of their actual views or feelings about the area or topic being investigated (Bagozzi and Yi, 1991).

**Acquiescence** -“refer to the propensity for respondents to agree (or disagree) with questionnaire items independent of their content” (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 882; Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 2001; Saris et al., 2010).  
-For example, when individuals rate questions based on common wording regardless of their content.

**Sources:** Bagozzi and Yi (1991); Baumgartner and Steenkamp (2001); Podsakoff et al. (2003); Burton-Jones (2009); Saris et al. (2010)

After recognizing the issues and serious consequences associated with CMB, a view of literature identifies two suggested techniques for avoiding or controlling and minimizing (at an acceptable level) the potential effects of CMB (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2003; Malhotra et al., 2006; Chang et al., 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2012; Williams and McGonagle, 2016; Malhotra et al., 2017). The first is the *Procedural techniques*, which the researcher needs to take into consideration to avoid or reduce the effects of CMB on the data being collected. The procedural techniques are executed during the research design stage to include these remedies in the data collection (Saris et al., 2010; MacKenzie and Podsakoff, 2012). The second is *Statistical techniques* that target estimating the CMB effects and disentangles them, if found, on the data set. The statistical techniques are applied after conducting the research for further assurance regarding any present CMB (Williams and McGonagle, 2016).

The data collected for the current study are self-reported and are collected within a cross-sectional research design. This may lead to CMB, which confounds the true relationships between the investigated theoretical constructs (Chang et al., 2010). As a result, procedural and statistical remedies were applied to control CMB.

### *Procedural Techniques*

For the current research, three procedural techniques were applied and are summarized in Table 4.11.

**The first technique** includes constructing the dependent variable using a different source than that of the independent variable. By constructing the dependent variables using data from different sources than the independent variables, spurious correlations caused by CMB are avoided (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Chang et al., 2010). This could be achieved by using priorly validated construct items from different sources. Also, question-wording (such as balancing between positively and negatively worded items) and the length of the scale (Malhotra et al., 2006) play a role in the research design, which calls for pre-testing and pilot testing. Undertaking pre-tests and pilot testing aimed at reducing any potential ambiguity in the scale items. Even more, by carefully constructing the wording of the scale items, social desirability bias can be reduced. The survey will be distributed online and will be anonymous. These procedural techniques shall reduce the social desirability that can be caused by face-to-face data collection (De Vaus, 2014). In addition, pre-testing and pilot testing have been conducted for further assurance.

**The second technique** carefully considers the questionnaire design in terms of the order of the questions and scale type. The researcher could overcome this by assuring the respondents regarding the anonymity and confidentiality of the conducted study. In addition, the researcher should encourage the respondents to answer as honestly as possible (Chang et al., 2010). All of the previous are included in the cover letter attached at the beginning of the questionnaire for the respondent to review and sign consent (Appendix 9). Moreover, an important

aspect of collecting accurate and valid data lies in collecting the data from well-informed respondents (Sharma et al., 2009).

**The third and last procedural technique** discussed is reducing hypothesis guessing by randomly placing the questionnaire items so that the respondents are unlikely to guess the hypothesis (psychological separation of questions so that they do not match their cognitive maps) (Chang et al., 2010).

**Table 4.11: Summary of Potential Sources of Common Bias and Procedural Techniques**

Potential Source of Common Bias	Steps followed to minimize common bias method
<b>Spurious correlations</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Could be avoided by using priorly validated construct items from different sources.</li> <li>- Careful construction of questionnaire in terms of question-wording and the length of the scale.</li> <li>- Reducing any potential ambiguity in the scale items by undertaking pre-testing and pilot testing.</li> </ul>
<b>Data accuracy and validity</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Assuring the respondents regarding the anonymity and confidentiality of the conducted study.</li> <li>- Assuring those respondents are well informed.</li> </ul>
<b>Cognitive Maps</b>	Random placement of questionnaire items to reduce hypothesis guessing.

**Sources:** Podsakoff et al. (2003); Malhotra et al. (2006); Sharma et al. (2009); Chang et al. (2010)

All in all, in case procedural remedy did not minimize or even totally eliminate the protentional effects of CMB, statistical techniques are employed. Typically, statistical remedies complement procedural remedies.

### *Statistical Techniques*

Statistical techniques are applied to detect (and control if found) any potential CMB. In the current research, the CMB is checked via three statistical approaches, namely, Harman's one factor, Marker Variable and Full Collinearity Assessment.

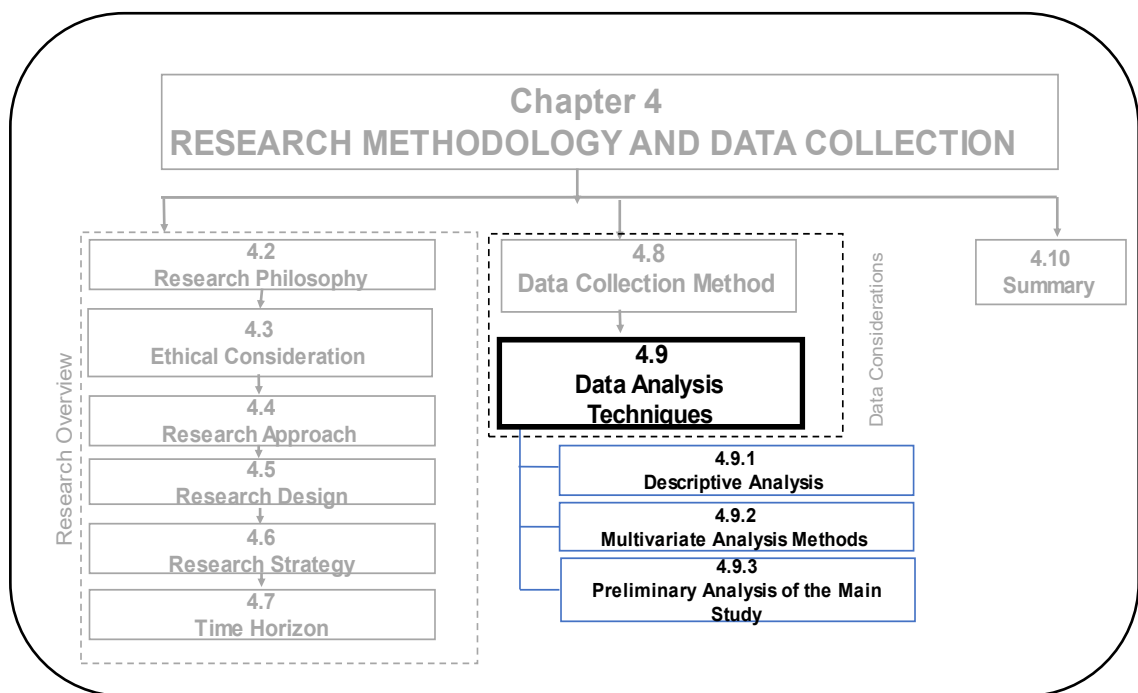
**Harman's Single-Factor Test** is one of the most widely known CMB assessment approach in statistical techniques (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This test is performed because the measures of constructs used in this study were derived from self-reported data, and the analysis involves correlation among them, which poses the risk of CMB. Harman's single-factor test method relies on loading all the items (dependent and independent) obtained from each construct into an exploratory factor analysis. The result should be that one single factor emerges or one general factor accounts for the majority of the covariance among the measure. That is, the researcher must observe if the first factor accounts for the majority of the variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Malhotra et al., 2017). If none of the previous cases emerges, then CMB is not considered a pervasive issue (Malhotra et al., 2006; Chang et al., 2010).

**Marker Variable Technique** (Lindell and Whitney, 2001) was employed for assessing CMB using fantasizing scale items adopted from O'Guinn and Faber (1989). Choosing these items depends on being conceptually unrelated to the dependent and predictor variables of the current study (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). Thus, the marker variables used were "I daydream a lot", "When I go to the movies, I find it easy to lose myself in the film", and "I often think of what might have been" (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989). The results of these analyses shall conclude whether or not CMB poses a major threat in the current study.

**Full Collinearity Assessment** involves generating Variance Inflation Factors that should be equal to or lower than 3.3 to guarantee a CMB free model (Kock, 2015).

## 4.9 Data Analysis Techniques

This study employs quantitative data analysis, which is carried out over two different stages: *Descriptive analysis* and *Multivariate analysis* (Collis and Hussey, 2009; Pallant, 2016). The upcoming sub-sections cover an in-depth explanation of the two stages of the analysis. Additionally, the preliminary analysis of the main study is discussed. Figure 4.6 illustrates the sub-sections of the data analysis techniques.



**Figure 4.6 Structure of Section 4.8 - Data Analysis Techniques**

### 4.9.1 Descriptive Analysis

The application of descriptive statistics targets explaining the sample characteristics and testing the variables against any violation of the assumptions underlying the statistical model used to answer the research questions (Pallant, 2016). When describing quantitative data for the chosen sample, two main **central tendency** measures will be used, which are: the *mean* (the average of

all data values) and the standard deviation (Saunders et al., 2019). Also, other variability measures, such as the range of scores, will be conducted. The preparation of data analysis targets issues including missing values (check for missing data), normality and multicollinearity before going into in-depth analysis. In addition, data analysis preparation covers sample size and sample bias. The aim of using descriptive statistics is to represent the respondents' profiles.

#### 4.9.2 Multivariate Analysis Methods

The multivariate analysis covers reliability, Exploratory Factor Analysis for testing scale reliability, Confirmatory Composite Analysis for testing validity, and Structural Equation Modeling. The upcoming sub-sections provide an in-depth explanation of the main multivariate statistics for the current study using SPSS (Software Program for Social Sciences) version 27 and Smart PLS version 3.3.3. The results of this data analysis are presented in the next chapter (Chapter 5).

##### 4.9.2.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis:

*Exploratory Factor Analysis* is responsible for examining the questionnaire's data sets and excluding duplicated variables, and exploring latent constructs of this research in progress (Hair et al., 2011a). This will support summarizing and reducing unrelated items (Hair et al., 2010). Factor analysis is useful for the current research because the primary data collection is conducted using a questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of several items that will uncover the underlying concept and provide more useful interpretations when reduced to a smaller set (Yong and Pearce, 2013). In order to conduct exploratory factor analysis, some requirements have to be first met.

Initially, sample size and the strength of the relationship between the variables are the two main criteria for determining whether or not the data set is suitable for factor analysis (Pallant, 2010, p.182). The sample size should be large enough to qualify the data for factor analysis. Generally, the larger the sample size, the better because it will diminish any potential errors (Yong and Pearce, 2013). Hair et al. (2010) recommended at least fifty observations for applying exploratory factor analysis. At the same time, Yong and Pearce (2013) recommended a minimum of 300 participants as a sample size. The current study has a sample size of 957, which is considered sufficient for exploratory factor analysis.

With the same importance of the sample size, Bartlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) are used to measure the sample adequacy with a significant value of less than 0.05 (Pallant, 2016). This statistical significance indicates that sufficient correlations exist among the variables (Hair et al., 2010); the value of KMO should be higher than 0.5 (Hair et al., 2013; Field, 2018).

In addition to this, Correlation ( $r$ ) reveals the strength of the relationship between variables (Yong and Pearce, 2013). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested the correlation should be 0.30 and greater; otherwise, a weak relationship between variables is detected. Hence, the loading factor cutoff point will be  $\geq 0.3$ . Factor loading for a variable is "a measure of how much the variable contributed to the factor; thus, high factor loading scores indicate that the dimensions of the factors are better accounted for by the variables" (Yong and Pearce, 2013, p. 81).

#### 4.9.2.2 Confirmatory Composite Analysis:

*Confirmatory Composite Analysis* (CCA) is used in the current research to determine the validity and reliability of the data by analyzing the measurement model. It is considered to be an indispensable step for measurement model

assessment (Henseler et al., 2014). CCA is used for improving the reliability of the item and scale. This improvement aids in identifying the items that require adjustment or even elimination to achieve content validity. In addition to this, CCA assists in attaining convergent and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2020).

#### 4.9.2.3 Structural Equation Modeling:

*Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)* is used to investigate the direct and indirect effects of the variables in the conceptual model of the current study. In marketing and management research, it is common to analyze the cause-effect relation between constructs using SEM to test well-established theories and concepts (Hair et al., 2011b, p. 139; Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 2000; Babin et al., 2008; Henseler et al., 2009). SEM is comprehended as being different from the typically adopted research techniques for data analysis (Bagozzi, 1994; Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 2000). One reason behind this difference is that in the case where the relationship between two variables is not empirically supported, it could be because there “is actually no relationship among the variables, the variables failed to measure what they are intended to measure, or the relationship is concealed behind a measurement error” (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 2000, p. 196). Hence SEM plays an effective role in terms of clarifying any undetected empirical relationship between the variables by focusing on construct operationalization (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 2000). In addition, SEM has the advantage of taking measurement error into account (Bagozzi, 1983). It is common for questionnaire data to contain measurement errors (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 2000) due to the assumed objectivity of the data (Wedel et al., 2000). Such errors are identified and removed from the data through SEM.

In the current research, SEM is used to investigate the direct and indirect effects between the variables in the conceptual model of this study by assessing the relationships between variables of the 22 developed hypotheses. Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) is applied using Smart PLS version 3.3.3 based on the research goals, structural model, and data characteristics. Table 4.12 summarizes the main benefits of applying PLS-SEM to the current study.

**Table 4.12: Benefits of Applying PLS-SEM to the Current Study**

Assessment	Explanation
<b>Research Goals</b>	Exploring the relationships among exogenous and endogenous variables which fits the aims of the current research.
<b>Structural Model</b>	Analyzing various levels of measurement using the same model (Hair et al., 2011b; Hair et al., 2017). Analyzing complex models such as in the current study, which includes various levels of measurement, conditional analysis, and multiple paralleled mediation.
<b>Data Characteristics</b>	Analyzing non-normal data distribution as it is considered to be a non-parametric analysis. This is considered to be common in social sciences (Hair et al., 2011b).

#### 4.9.3 Preliminary Analysis of the Main Study

Response rate and missing data analysis are some of the preliminary analyses that are conducted on the collected data for the main study.

##### 4.9.3.1 Response Rate:

One of the principal concerns of survey research is meeting the minimum requirement of response rates and non-response bias. The concerns regarding the response rate are managed during the data collection by sending friendly reminders to the respondents to guarantee an acceptable response rate. As for

the non-response bias, all questions are mandatory in the online survey so that the respondent cannot continue to the next page or submit the questionnaire with any incomplete answers. Table 4.13 shows the response rate for the main study.

**Table 4.13: Response Rate**

Number of survey respondents	957
Number of respondents that were screened out	163
Number of respondents after data screening and cleaning	794
Respondents after data screening and cleaning	83%

For the current study, a total number of 957 web questionnaires were distributed through a survey panel (Clickworker) targeting Egyptian consumers that are living in Egypt. A total number of 794 complete and valid questionnaires were retained as the current study's population. Accordingly, the current study pertains to a response rate of 83%, which meets the minimum requirement (30% - 50% for web questionnaires) for the response rate for questionnaire data collection (Saunders et al., 2019).

#### 4.9.3.2 Data Screening and Preparations:

Checking for missing data is an essential step prior to conducting factor analysis. During the setting up process of the online survey, several beneficial options were used in order to avoid any missing data. The optionality status of all the questions in the questionnaire was set as "required". Therefore, respondents were required to answer all the displayed questions before proceeding to the next page. In addition, for every question, the minimum number of rows that must be selected was adjusted to match that of the question so that the responder is alerted if any question is missed. All the previous assured that the responder did not miss out

on any questions. As a result, missing values analysis is not considered for the current study. Afterwards, further assurance was guaranteed by going through the general analysis provided by the online survey platform, which confirmed that all questions were answered.

#### **4.10 Summary**

This chapter provides a detailed discussion of the employed research design (research philosophy, research approach, research strategy and time horizon) and methodology (data collection) to achieve the current study's objectives. This discussion started by clarifying the assumptions that underlie the methodology by elaborating on perspectives of the research design. The appropriate research philosophy that explores the causal relationship between variables using a well-established theory was the positivistic branch of the epistemology assumption. Accordingly, the deductive approach was adopted to derive specific hypotheses and test them from existing theories and emphasize generalisability. Thus, the quantitative methodology was chosen for data collection, characterized by being value-free and unbiased, and the nature of the data collected is numeric and reliable. The selected primary data collection method was the survey method (web questionnaire). All the previous was conducted within a cross-sectional time horizon.

The instrument used for primary data collection was examined in detail in this chapter. The questionnaire was considered to be the main method used throughout the current study. As a result, the section concerning the primary data collection included the definition of the questionnaire, the justification behind choosing this particular instrument and an explanation of the questionnaire's construction process. Accordingly, common method bias was highlighted as well

as the suggested remedies for controlling it. Of course, the content validity of the questionnaire was discussed due to its vital role in constructing a valid and reliable instrument, as well as the ethical considerations followed during the research process. Moreover, the limitations of using the questionnaire as a primary data collection method were listed as well as how to effectively overcome these limitations. After explaining the structure and administration of the questionnaire, the research variables' measurement validity and reliability were highlighted. The structure and distribution of the questionnaire followed this. Due to the large population size, the sampling approach was used to determine the proper sample size to collect the survey data. More specifically, non-probability sampling techniques in the form of quota and snowball sampling methods were used. Non-probability sampling technique was considered to be the most practical due to the COVID-19 pandemic and efficient in the case of web questionnaires using online panels.

Finally, data analysis techniques employed in the current study were discussed in detail, covering the descriptive, multivariate analysis and preliminary analysis methods. For descriptive statistics, the two main central tendency measures represented by the mean and standard deviation were used as well as other variability measures. The descriptive statistics were carried out using SPSS version 27. For the current study, multivariate analysis employed exploratory factor analysis for summarizing and reducing unrelated items and confirmatory composite analysis to determine the collected data's validity and reliability. Adding to this, structural equation modeling using Smart PLS version 3.3.3 was used to investigate the direct and indirect effects of the variables of the conceptual model of the current study.

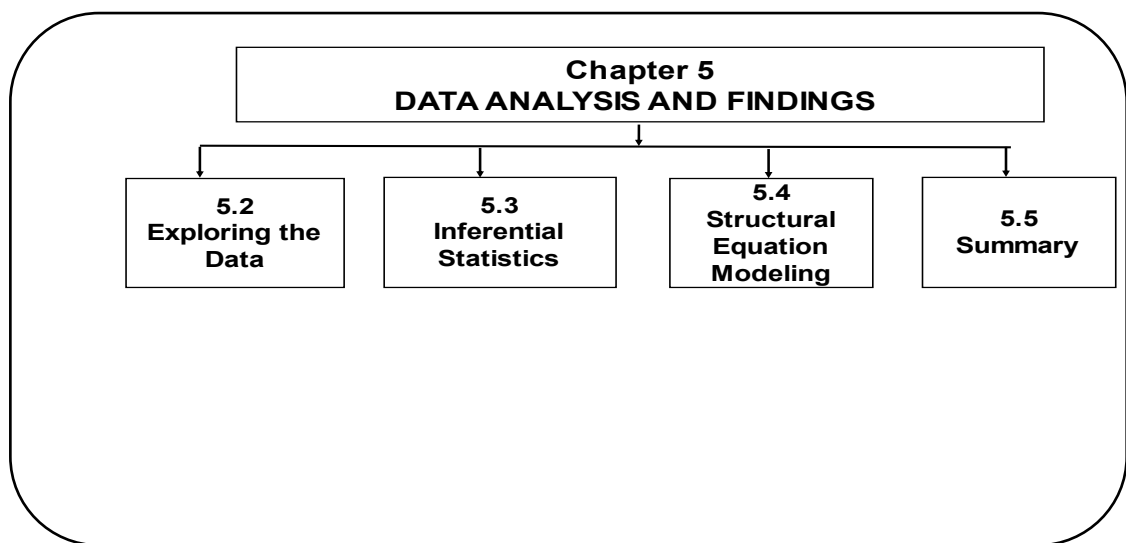
To sum up, this chapter is considered to be the foundation for data collection of the current study, and the following chapter (Chapter 5) covers the data analysis.

## Chapter 5 : DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

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### 5.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 covers the analysis of the collected primary data. This chapter is divided into three main sections. The first section deals with exploring the data in terms of descriptive statistics of the sample characteristics and of the study variables. This is followed by the second section, which presents the inferential statistics, including exploratory factor analysis. The third and final section manages structural equation modeling. This allows conducting the necessary analysis in order to accomplish the objectives of the current study. The summary section (Section 5.5) highlights the main points that have been discussed in this chapter. Figure 5.1 demonstrates the structure of this chapter.



**Figure 5.1 Structure of Chapter Five**

## 5.2 Exploring the Data

Initially, it was essential to evaluate the sample characteristics and carefully explore the collected data using descriptive statistics. This included frequencies to observe the mean and standard deviation and judge the normality using kurtosis and skewness. Consequently, this allows the researcher to point out any data entry errors, such as values outside minimum and maximum scale values, and to observe the normality of the collected data. The upcoming sub-sections cover the descriptive statistics of the sample demographics and characteristics and the measurement variables using the software SPSS version 27.

### 5.2.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Sample Characteristics

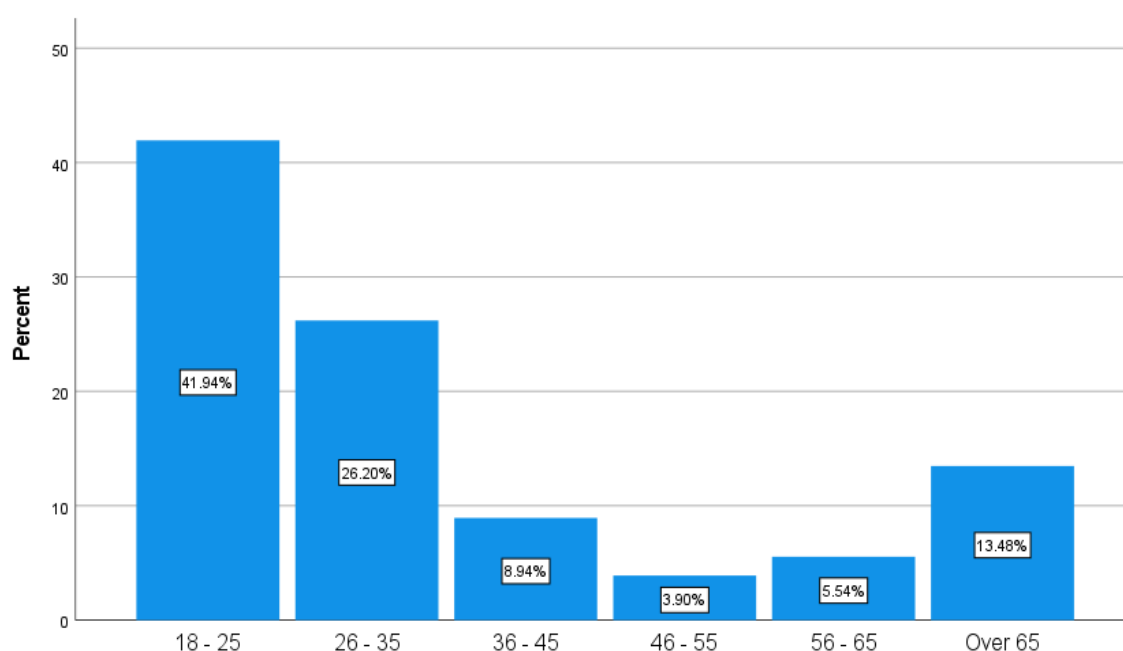
This sub-section covers the descriptive statistics and provides general information about the sample characteristics. This includes information regarding age levels, gender characteristics, level of education and level of income of the respondents. It is essential to gain an insight into the profile of the survey respondents, which is represented in Tables 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4. In addition to this, data collected regarding the relationship status and the number of children in the sample is represented in Table 5.5.

#### 5.2.1.1 Age Levels:

The frequency and percentage of age levels of the respondents are represented in the below Table 5.1 and illustrated in Figure 5.2.

**Table 5.1: Age Profile of Survey Respondents**

Age levels	Frequency	Valid Percent
18 – 25	333	41.9
26 – 35	208	26.2
36 – 45	71	8.9
46 – 55	31	3.9
56 – 65	44	5.5
Over 65	107	13.5
Total	794	100.0



**Figure 5.2 Age Profile of Survey Respondents**

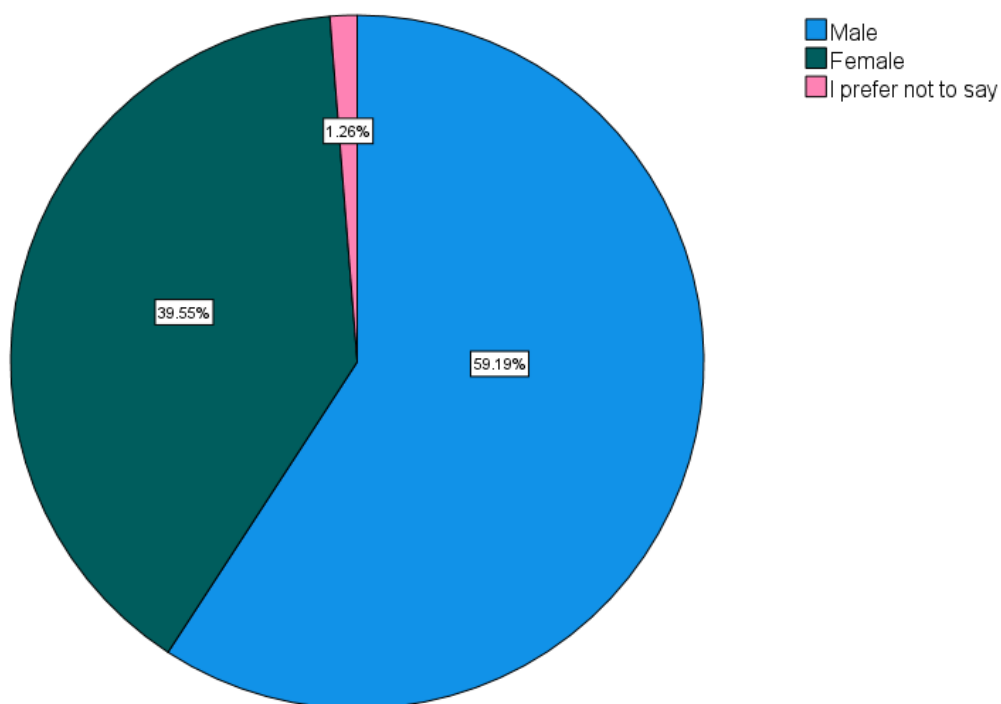
As shown in Table 5.1 and Figure 5.2, the majority of the respondents were 18 to 25 years old at 42%. This was followed by the age range of 26 – 35 years old at 26%. This shows that the majority of the respondents are of young age. The age level of over 65 was represented by 13% of the sample. Respondents between 46 – 55 and 56 – 65 years old represented the minority by scoring 4% and 6%, respectively.

#### 5.2.1.2 Gender Categories:

With respect to the respondents' gender characteristics, about 59% of the respondents were male (470), and approximately 40% were females (314), as shown in Table 5.2 and illustrated in Figure 5.3.

**Table 5.2: Gender Profile of Survey Respondents**

Gender Categories	Frequency	Valid Percent
Male	470	59.2
Female	314	39.5
I prefer not to say	10	1.3
Total	794	100.0



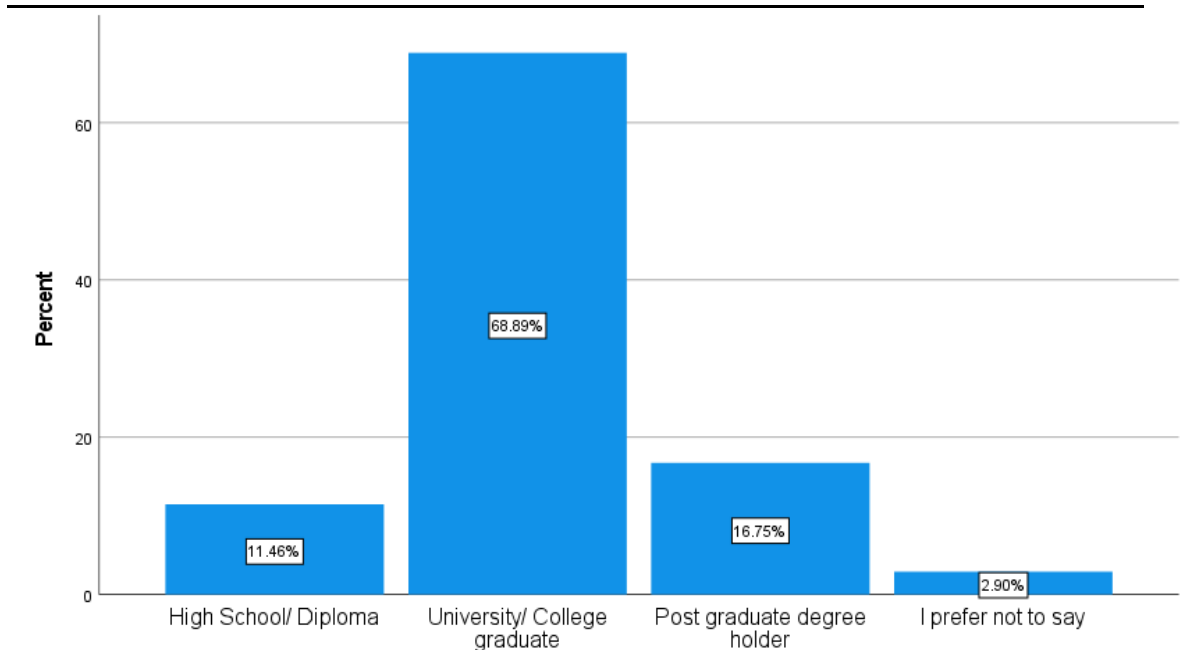
**Figure 5.3 Gender Profile of Survey Respondents**

### 5.2.1.3 Educational Level:

Regarding the education level of the survey respondents, the majority of the respondents were university/college graduates at approximately 69%, as shown in Table 5.3 and illustrated in Figure 5.4. This is probably related to the majority of the age level of 18 – 25 previously stated as being fresh graduates, as demonstrated in Table 5.1. As for respondents with postgraduate degree holders, it accounted for approximately 17%.

**Table 5.3: Educational Level of Survey Respondents**

<b>Educational Level</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Valid Percent</b>
High School/ Diploma	91	11.5
University/ College graduate	547	68.9
Postgraduate degree holder	133	16.8
I prefer not to say	23	2.9
Total	794	100.0



**Figure 5.4 Educational Level of Survey Respondents**

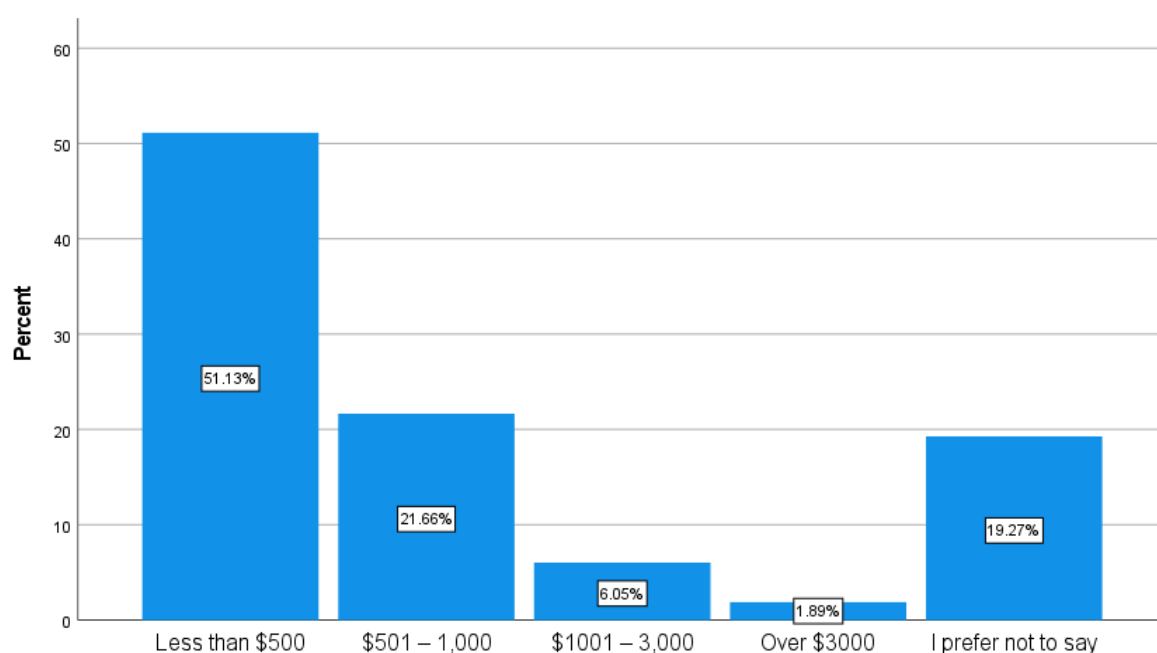
#### 5.2.1.4 Income Level:

In regard to the income levels, the majority (51%) of the respondents accounted for less than \$500 per month. This was followed by the monthly income level ranging from \$501 to \$1,000, represented at 22%, which is considered to be neither low nor high. Other respondents declared that they earned \$1,001 - \$3,000 and over \$3,000, as shown in Table 5.4 and illustrated in Figure 5.5.

**Table 5.4: Income Level of Survey Respondents**

Income Level	Frequency	Valid Percent
Less than \$500	406	51.1
\$501 – 1,000	172	21.7
\$1001 – 3,000	48	6.0
Over \$3000	15	1.9
I prefer not to say	153	19.3
Total	794	100.0

\$1 = EGP 15.6453 (Central Bank of Egypt, 11 March 2021)



**Figure 5.5 Income Level of Survey Respondents**

It is vital to point out that the minimum wage in Egypt was set by the government in 2019 to be as low as EGP 2,000 per month and as high as EGP 7,000 per month (Reuters, 30 March 2019). This means that a monthly income level that is less than \$500 is considered to be low. As for monthly income levels of \$501 - \$1,000 and \$1001 - \$3,000 are considered to be mediocre. Hence, the level of income greater than \$3,000 is conceived as high income.

As mentioned earlier, the majority of the respondents reported a monthly income of less than \$500. The reason behind this observation may be due to the majority of the respondents being of an age range between 18 – 25 and are fresh university/college graduates. Thus, their monthly income level is less than \$500. Therefore, it can be concluded that the majority of the respondents earn low incomes.

#### 5.2.2 Household Characteristics

With regard to the household characteristics of the survey respondents, they are divided into relationship status, the number of children and the number of household members living with the respondents. Table 5.5 displays the cross-tabulation of frequencies and percentages of relationship status number of children, and the number of household members living with the respondents, respectively. The total number of married respondents with children is 302. Four of the respondents were widowed with children, and six were divorced with children.

**Table 5.5: Marital Status vs Number of Children**

Marital Status	Number of children								Total (%)
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	9	
Single	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	432 (54.41%)
Married	38	111	117	57	10	5	1	1	340 (42.82%)
Civil Partnership	10								10 (1.26%)
Divorced	2	1	3	1	1				8 (1.01%)
Widowed			2		1	1			4 (0.5%)
<b>Total (%)</b>									<b>794 (100%)</b>

### 5.2.3 Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables

The detailed descriptive statistics of the study variables as well as their measurement items are illustrated in Table 5.6<sup>3</sup>. In addition, the mean and standard deviation were cited as well as the number of valid responses and minimum and maximum values. Moreover, skewness and kurtosis measures represented the normal distribution measures.

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<sup>3</sup> *NATID*, National Identity; *NH*, National Heritage; *CH*, Cultural Homogeneity; *CE*, Consumer Ethnocentrism; *BS*, Belief System; *EFP*, Evaluation of Foreign Products; *RTBFP*, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products; *PDI*, Purchase Decision Involvement; *SCT*, Self-Categorisation; *PQ*, Perceived Quality; *WTP*, Willingness to Pay; *FA*, Fantasy; *AVG*, Average.

**Table 5.6: Descriptive Statistics of the Measurement Items**

<b>Variables/items</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std.</b>	<b>Skewness</b>	<b>Kurtosis</b>
<i>NATID</i>							
NH_1	794	1	7	5.8	1.3	-1.301	1.537
NH_2	794	1	7	5.9	1.2	-1.433	1.952
NH_3	794	1	7	6.8	.6	-4.690	27.831
AVG_NH				6.2	.9	-1.695	4.226
CH_1	794	1	7	5.9	1.3	-1.202	1.316
CH_2	794	1	7	5.8	1.3	-1.291	1.674
CH_3	794	1	7	5.8	1.4	-1.129	.694
CH_4	794	1	7	5.5	1.3	-.904	.506
AVG_CH				5.7	1	-.898	1.005
CE_1	794	1	7	5.8	1.4	-1.282	1.184
CE_2	794	1	7	5.2	1.4	-.728	-.142
CE_3	794	1	7	4.6	1.6	-.354	-.749
CE_4	794	1	7	5.1	1.3	-.529	.022
CE_5	794	1	7	5.6	1.5	-.993	.078
AVG_CE				5.3	1.1	-.823	.339
BS_1	794	1	7	3.6	1.9	.095	-1.157
BS_2	794	1	7	4.3	1.8	-.334	-1.091
BS_3	794	1	7	5.4	1.5	-1.160	1.096
BS_4	794	1	7	3.9	1.8	.129	-1.235
BS_5	794	1	7	5.4	1.7	-.910	-.041
AVG_BS				4.5	1.1	-.242	.317
AVG_NATID				5.4	.7	-.902	1.260
<i>Willingness to Pay</i>							
WTP_1	794	1	7	3.6	1.6	.373	-.701
WTP_2	794	1	7	3.5	1.6	.437	-.609
WTP_3	794	1	7	3.8	1.7	.200	-.863
<i>Evaluation of Foreign Products</i>							
EFP_1	794	1	7	5.6	1.1	-1.232	2.105
EFP_2	794	1	7	5.5	1.1	-1.017	1.445
EFP_3	794	1	7	4.1	1.8	-.186	-1.172
EFP_4	794	1	7	3.9	1.5	-.069	-.408
EFP_5	794	1	7	5.3	1.4	-.903	.391
EFP_6	794	1	7	3.2	1.4	.727	.270
EFP_7	794	1	7	5.4	1.5	-.943	.196
AVG_EFP				4.7	.7	-.316	.777
<i>Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products</i>							
RTBFP_1	794	1	7	2.6	1.4	.978	.312
RTBFP_2	794	1	7	2.1	1.2	1.556	2.840
RTBFP_3	794	1	7	3.3	1.7	.541	-.821
RTBFP_4	794	1	7	3.8	1.4	.101	-.266
RTBFP_5	794	1	7	4.5	1.8	-.359	-1.144
RTBFP_6	794	1	7	2.8	1.5	.626	-.267
AVG_RTBFP				3.2	.9	.623	.939
<i>Purchase Decision Involvement</i>							
PDI_1	794	1	7	5.5	1.3	-1.276	1.688
PDI_2	794	1	7	3.8	1.2	-.070	-.727
PDI_3	794	1	7	4.4	1.6	-.402	-.892
PDI_4	794	1	7	5.5	1.2	-1.190	1.597
PDI_5	794	1	7	4.7	1.3	-.213	-.091
PDI_6	794	1	7	5.2	1.4	-.999	.728

Variables/items	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.	Skewness	Kurtosis
AVG_PDI				4.9	.7	-.697	.960
<i>Self-Categorisation</i>							
SCT_1	794	1	7	6.3	1.1	-2.035	4.757
SCT_2	794	1	7	6.2	1.2	-1.834	3.489
SCT_3	794	1	7	6.3	1.2	-2.024	4.052
SCT_4	794	1	7	6	1.5	-1.876	2.741
SCT_5	794	1	7	6.3	1.1	-2.263	5.978
SCT_6	794	1	7	6.4	1	-2.500	7.917
SCT_7	794	1	7	6.2	1.2	-1.989	4.284
SCT_8	794	1	7	6.1	1.1	-1.792	3.710
AVG_SCT				6.2	.9	-1.865	4.433
<i>Perceived Quality</i>							
PQ_1	794	1	7	5.3	1.3	-.964	.474
PQ_2	794	1	7	5.3	1.3	-.899	.240
PQ_3	794	1	7	5.5	1.2	-.973	.813
PQ_4	794	1	7	6.3	1	-1.695	3.162
PQ_5	794	1	7	5.1	1.3	-.893	.345
AVG_PQ				5.5	1	-.888	.222
<i>Fantasy</i>							
FA_1	794	1	7	5	1.7	-.795	-.130
FA_2	794	1	7	5.5	1.4	-1.359	1.457
FA_3	794	1	7	5.2	1.8	-.874	-.386
AVG_FA				5.2	1.3	-.781	.146

By referring to Table 5.6, it can be inferred that the number of valid responses per item is 794, implying that the current study sample has no missing data. Furthermore, this study employed a 7-point Likert-type scale where 1 indicates strong disagreement and 7 indicates strong agreement, except for one scale. Accordingly, it can be deduced that the data cleaning and screening process is valid as the minimum value per item is not less than 1, and the maximum value is not more than 7 reflecting the two anchors of the 7-point Likert type scale. The only exception is the anchor for the two dimensions of Schwartz Value Survey (SVS) with a minimum value of 1 and a maximum value of 6, where 1 indicates very much like me and 6 indicates not at all like me. Table 5.6.1 demonstrates the descriptive statistics of SVS.

It should be taken into account that; the descriptive statistics of the current sample show the two lowest means for items related to Reluctance To Buy Foreign Products (RTBFP). RTBFP\_1 is at only  $2.6 \pm 1.4$  out of 7 and is represented in “I

would feel guilty if I bought foreign products”. Also, RTBFP\_2, which is represented in “I would never buy foreign products”, is at  $2.1 \pm 1.2$  out of 7. This could be because the consumers did not see it possible to completely refrain from buying foreign products, especially in the case of the absence of Egyptian-made alternatives (e.g., mobile phones and electronics).

On the contrary, the sample tends to show an item from National Heritage (NH) as the highest mean at  $6.8 \pm .6$  out of 7 and is represented in NH\_3 “Egypt has a strong historical heritage”. Egypt’s historical heritage is documented by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, World Heritage Centre, Egypt). The next highest mean is  $6.4 \pm 1$  out of 7 and is represented in an item for Self-Categorisation (SCT). SCT\_6, which is represented in “When this Egyptian society is in pain, I empathize”. This is because the majority of the sample, which are Egyptian consumers living in Egypt, agreed to empathise with the pain in Egyptian society.

**Table 5.6 1: Descriptive Statistics of Schwartz Values Survey**

Variables/items	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.	Skewness	Kurtosis
<i>Schwartz's Values – Conservation</i>							
SVS_3	794	1	6	1.9	1.3	1.560	1.722
SVS_9	794	1	6	2	1.4	1.423	1.114
SVS_11	794	1	6	2.4	1.6	.922	-.353
AVG_ Conservation				2.1	1.1	1.024	.597
<i>Schwartz's Values - Openness to Change</i>							
SVS_1	794	1	6	2	1.3	1.278	1.085
SVS_4	794	1	6	2.7	1.4	.382	-.837
SVS_8	794	1	6	3.5	1.8	.126	-1.399
AVG_ Openness to Change				2.7	1	.240	-.292

**Abbreviations:** SVS, Schwartz Values Survey

As shown in Table 5.6.1, item SVS\_3 (Security) is represented in “Living in secure surroundings is important to this person to avoid anything that might be

dangerous” with a value of  $1.9 \pm 1.3$  out of 6. This implies that the respondents are very much likely to avoid uncertainty and take risks.

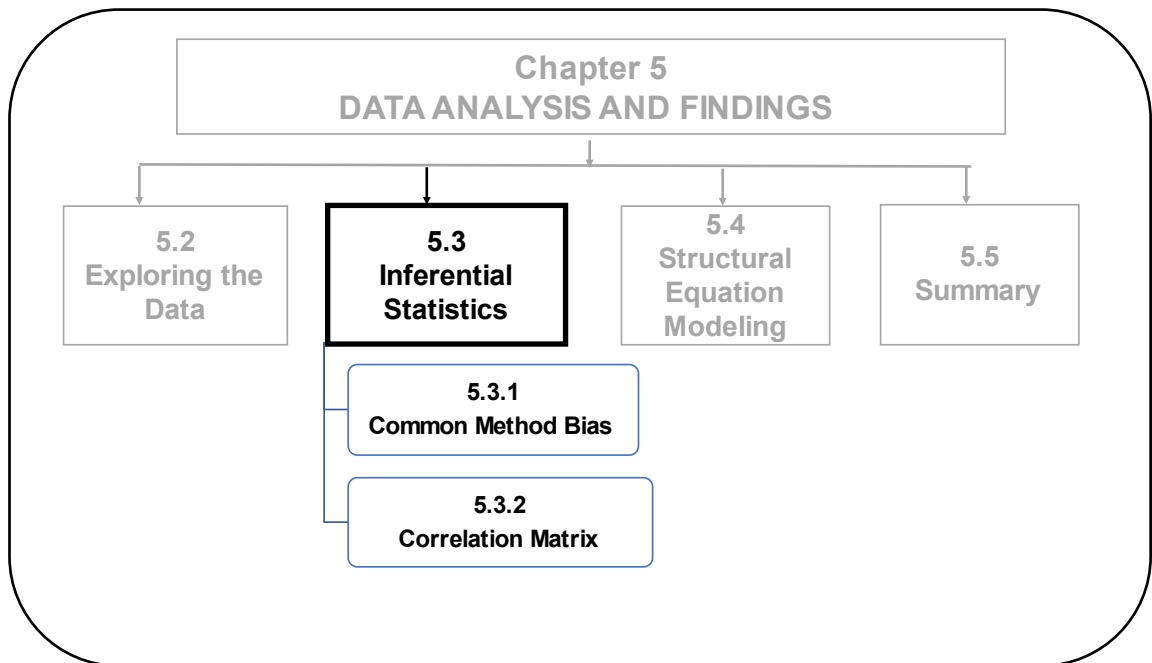
On the other side, the respondents implied that it is not very likely for them to be adventurous and take risks (SVS\_8 Stimulation). SVS\_8 is represented at  $3.5 \pm 1.8$  out of 6. This comes in line with the previous observation about respondents preferring security.

Last but not least, the data distribution per item was observed using the skewness and kurtosis values which are not equal to zero. Hence, it can be concluded that the data distribution (per item) violates the normality assumption. Nevertheless, it is important to note that in social science studies, such as the current study, it is common to violate the assumption of normality because the sampling unit is human. In social sciences, it is uncommon to observe a normal distribution (Pallant, 2016). However, the interpretation of Skewness and Kurtosis, and any risks associated with them, will not cause a prominent variation or effect in the case of a large sample size (more than 200 cases) (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013, p.80). This is complemented by a skewness coefficient ranging between  $-3$  to  $+3$  and a kurtosis coefficient ranging between  $-10$  to  $+10$ , which provides further evidence that there is no serious effect from the non-normal distribution. As a result, only one item out of 66 exceeded the preceding ranges of Skewness and Kurtosis, which is NH\_3. Accordingly, this will be taken into consideration when applying the parametric analyses.

### **5.3 Inferential Statistics**

This section covers the important issue of common method bias and the implications that may impact the results when examining the relationships among

study variables. Also, correlation testing will be conducted to investigate the relationships among the study variables, as well as the Structural Equation Modeling to test the direct and indirect relationships. Figure 5.6 highlights the applied inferential statistics for the current study.



**Figure 5.6 Structure of Section 5.3 - Inferential Statistics**

### 5.3.1 Common Method Bias

The use of a single measurement instrument (questionnaire) for measuring all variables at once can result in a shared variance among the measurement items. This could have an impact on the results when examining the relationships between the study variables. This effect is known as Common Method Bias (CMB) (Jordan and Troth, 2020). Consequently, CMB should be inspected to ensure that using a single measurement instrument for all variables does not lead to a shared variance among the study variables. In the current research, the CMB will be checked via three statistical approaches, namely, Harman's one factor, Marker

Variable and Full Collinearity Assessment. The full collinearity assessment will be assessed in the structural model of the Structural Equation Modeling.

### *Exploratory Factor Analysis*

Initially, CMB is checked by adopting Harman's one-factor approach by including all metric data of the measurement items of the study variables into the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to detect factor variance. Some of the metric data cannot be analysed using parametric analysis, such as EFA, due to the normal distribution violations. Whenever the first factor (i.e., Harman one factor) is less than 50% of the total variance of the overall extracted factors, then CMB is not reported as an issue (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Table 5.7 shows the main EFA results related to CMB.

One item was excluded as it does not have metric data or violates the parametric analyses' assumptions, such as normal distribution. This item is National Heritage-NH\_3 "Egypt has a strong historical heritage".

**Table 5.7: Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis Results**

Component	Total Variance Explained					
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	12.730	24.481	24.481	12.730	24.481	24.481
2	5.197	9.995	34.475	5.197	9.995	34.475
3	2.487	4.782	39.257	2.487	4.782	39.257
4	2.186	4.204	43.461	2.186	4.204	43.461
5	1.946	3.742	47.203	1.946	3.742	47.203
6	1.798	3.457	50.660	1.798	3.457	50.660
7	1.662	3.197	53.858	1.662	3.197	53.858
8	1.478	2.842	56.699	1.478	2.842	56.699
9	1.280	2.462	59.161	1.280	2.462	59.161
10	1.157	2.226	61.387	1.157	2.226	61.387
11	1.021	1.963	63.349	1.021	1.963	63.349

12	.997	1.917	65.266			
13	-	-	-			
-	-	-	-			
-	-	-	-			
-	-	-	-			
-	-	-	-			
52	.080	.154	100.000			

**KMO= .913; Bartlett's test of sphericity: Approx. Chi squared= 22534.198; df= 1326; sig= .000**

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficient is 0.913, which is higher than 0.6, and Bartlett's test is significant at a 99.9% confidence level (Field, 2009). These results show the adequacy of the sample size used in the current study. According to the EFA, all measurement items got extracted on 11 factors. The total variance for the 11 factors is 63.349%, and the variance of the first factor is 24.481%. Since the first factor's variance is less than 50% of the total variance, hence CMB is not considered to be an issue in the current study. Consequently, the current data of all measurement items is adequate for further analysis.

### 5.3.2 Correlation Matrix

In order to explore the relationships between the variables in this study, the Pearson correlation test was applied. Even more, this will enable checking the issue of multicollinearity among the independent variables. The results of the Pearson correlation test and marker variable are illustrated in Table 5.8.

**Table 5.8: Correlation Test Among the Study Variables and Dimensions**

Constructs	NH	CH	CE	BS	NATID	WTP	EFP	RTBFP	PDI	SCT	PQ	MARK
NH	1											
CH	.561**	1										
CE	.420**	.387**	1									
BS	.114**	.102**	.239**	1								
NATID	.716**	.720**	.759**	.564**	1							
WTP	.122**	.173**	.357**	.231**	.333**	1						
EFP	.362**	.404**	.558**	.174**	.546**	.337**	1					
RTBFP	.087**	.128**	.486**	.227**	.356**	.488**	.423**	1				
PDI	.306**	.296**	.415**	.112**	.409**	.151**	.253**	.184**	1			
SCT	.474**	.542**	.482**	.137**	.583**	.186**	.394**	.132**	.326**	1		
PQ	.411**	.452**	.549**	.199**	.584**	.360**	.494**	.312**	.344**	.528**	1	
MARK	.254**	.201**	.167**	.101**	.255**	.104**	.176**	.099**	.141**	.160**	.175**	1

**Abbreviations:** *NATID*, National Identity; *NH*, National Heritage; *CH*, Cultural Homogeneity; *CE*, Consumer Ethnocentrism; *BS*, Belief System; *EFP*, Evaluation of Foreign Products; *RTBFP*, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products; *PDI*, Purchase Decision Involvement; *SCT*, Self-Categorisation; *PQ*, Perceived Quality; *WTP*, Willingness to Pay; *MARK*, Marker Variable.

**Notes:**

\* correlation is significant at 0.05 level (1-tailed)

\*\* correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)

As shown in Table 5.8, the independent variables demonstrate significant relationships with Willingness To Pay. In addition, all the independent variables have a positive relationship with Willingness To Pay for local origin products.

In order to detect the presence of CMB, if any, a three-item Fantasy scale (O'Guinn and Faber, 1989) was employed as a marker variable. The reason behind choosing this three-item fantasy scale is that it is not expected to relate to the variables and dimensions of this study. According to Table 5.8, the correlation coefficients range between .099 and .255, which are weak relationships (less than .3) (Pallant, 2016). The correlation coefficients signify weak correlations among the "unrelated" marker variable and all other variables and dimensions (Lindell and Whitney, 2001).

Furthermore, the correlation coefficients range between .104 and .488 among all possible combinations of the independent variables. These correlation coefficients are less than .5 suggested by Hair et al. (2020). As a result, in this research, multicollinearity is not considered to be an issue among the exogenous variables permitting applying structural equation modeling.

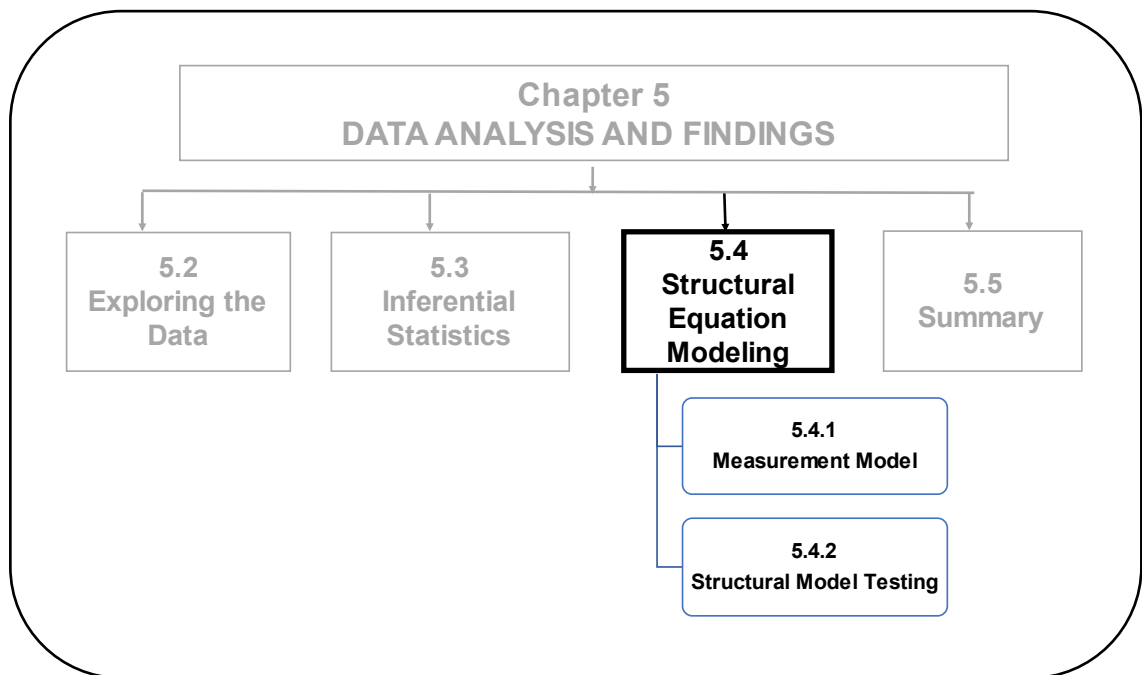
## 5.4 Structural Equation Modeling

In order to test the proposed hypotheses, a Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) is applied. Applying the PLS-SEM allows exploring the relationships among exogenous and endogenous variables, which fits the aims of the current research. One of the main reasons behind applying the PLS-SEM is that it permits the analysis of various levels of measurement using the same model (Hair et al., 2011b; Hair et al., 2017). In addition, the PLS-SEM is considered to be a non-parametric analysis that enables the analysis of non-normal data distribution. Moreover, the use of Smart PLS software for conducting PLS\_SEM has gained widespread among diverse Business Research disciplines, such as Entrepreneurship (Manley et al., 2020), Human Resources Management (Ringle et al., 2018), International Business (Richter et al., 2016), Psychology (Willaby et al., 2015), Strategic Management (Hair et al., 2012a), Marketing (Hair et al., 2012b) and International Marketing (Henseler et al., 2009). Hence, the PLS-SEM will be applied to the current research in two stages.

Smart PLS version 3.3.3 was used to run PLS-SEM (Ringle et al., 2015). The first stage of applying the PLS-SEM targets building a measurement model using Confirmatory Composite Analysis (Hair et al., 2020). This is followed by the second stage, where the main aim is to test the structural model.

The theoretical model was enhanced by removing low-loading items. The Item with the lowest loading was removed, and then the theoretical model was retested. Subsequently, the theoretical model is evaluated by using Confirmatory Composite Analysis (CCA). CCA will be applied to build the measurement model by assessing the item reliability and evaluating construct validity and reliability

(Hair et al., 2020; Hair et al., 2017). Figure 5.7 highlights the two-stages of structural equation modeling applied in the current study, which will be further discussed in the upcoming sub-sections.



**Figure 5.7 Structure of Section 5.4 - Structural Equation Modeling**

#### 5.4.1 Measurement Model

The first step of building the measurement model starts by specifying the theoretical model. Afterwards, the theoretical model is assessed through validity and reliability criteria. Accordingly, if needed, the theoretical model will be improved and further assessed.

In the current research, the guidelines of the two-staged disjoints second order measurement (Sarstedt et al., 2019) were followed to build the second order reflective-reflective measure of National Identity (NATID). The first stage validates 1<sup>st</sup> order of measurement items National Heritage (NH), Cultural Homogeneity (CH), Consumer Ethnocentrism (CE) and Belief System (BS).

Afterwards, the second stage validates 2<sup>nd</sup> order construct, NATID, from the valid latent score of dimensions.

Regarding the reliability of the item, it measures the extent to which the item correlates with its construct. The item loading should be higher than .708, and if it is below .4, then it should be removed (Hair et al., 2020). In case the item loading is between .4 and .708, then it is recommended for retaining if other items' loadings increase, at the same construct, can substitute its decrease. Otherwise, it should be removed.

#### 5.4.1.1 Convergent and Discriminant Validity:

The extent to which measurement items of a construct are correlated together to measure that construct is apprehended as convergent validity (Hair et al., 2014a). Convergent validity is measured through the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). In order to achieve construct convergent validity, AVE should be at least .50 (Hair et al., 2020).

This is complemented by discriminant validity, which measures the extent to which the construct is distinctively measured through its measures (Hair et al., 2014a). Fornell-Larcker's (1981) criterion is used to evaluate discriminant validity. In this case, discriminant validity is achieved for a construct when the AVE value square root of that construct is higher than its correlation with other variables of the same construct. In addition, the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of correlations (HMTM) method for further evaluating discriminant validity was implemented where all values should be less than .90 (Henseler et al., 2015).

#### 5.4.1.2 Composite Reliability:

When it comes to construct reliability, it can be measured using Cronbach's alpha and Composite Reliability (CR). However, in this research, CR will be more accurate for the purpose of SEM (Hair et al., 2014a; Malhotra, 2010). Construct reliability is established when CR is equal to or greater than .7 (Hair et al., 2014a).

Consequently, the process of improving the theoretical model required the removal of the following items: PDI\_2, PDI\_3, PDI\_4, RTBFP\_4, EFP\_1, EFP\_2, EFP\_3 and BS\_4 because of their low loadings. As a result, Table 5.9 shows the item reliability of the measurement model.

Table 5.9: Item Reliability

Items/ dimensions	NATID	WTP	EFP	RTBFP	PDI	SCT	PQ
NH	.720						
CH	.748						
CE	.826						
BS	.576						
WTP_1		.955					
WTP_2		.958					
WTP_3		.586					
EFP_4			.613				
EFP_5			.834				
EFP_6			.644				
EFP_7			.839				
RTBFP_1				.780			
RTBFP_2				.765			
RTBFP_3				.690			
RTBFP_5				.698			
RTBFP_6				.794			
PDI_1					.468		
PDI_5					.845		
PDI_6					.885		
SCT_1						.829	
SCT_2						.866	
SCT_3						.860	
SCT_4_rev						.559	
SCT_5						.759	
SCT_6						.814	
SCT_7						.871	
SCT_8						.783	
PQ_1							.899
PQ_2							.894
PQ_3							.768
PQ_4							.564
PQ_5							.829

**Abbreviations:** *NATID*, National Identity; *NH*, National Heritage; *CH*, Cultural Homogeneity; *CE*, Consumer Ethnocentrism; *BS*, Belief System; *EFP*, Evaluation of Foreign Products; *RTBFP*, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products; *PDI*, Purchase Decision Involvement; *SCT*, Self-Categorisation; *PQ*, Perceived Quality; *WTP*, Willingness to Pay.

The outer loadings of the measurement items are demonstrated in Table 5.9. The loadings of the measurement items are higher than .708. As for the measurement items loadings that fall between .4 and .708, they can be compensated by the increase in their counterparts of the same construct. Afterwards, the validity and reliability evaluation of the measurement variables are reported in Tables 5.10 and 5.10.1.

**Table 5.10: Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Composite Reliability (CR) and Fornell-Larcker's Criterion (Square root of AVE on the diagonal)**

	CR	AVE	Fornell-Larcker						
			WTP	EFP	RTBFP	PDI	SCT	PQ	NATID
<b>WTP</b>	.883	.724	<b>.851</b>						
<b>EFP</b>	.826	.547	.512	<b>.740</b>					
<b>RTBFP</b>	.862	.557	.550	.561	<b>.746</b>				
<b>PDI</b>	.790	.572	.434	.545	.403	<b>.756</b>			
<b>SCT</b>	.933	.638	.212	.410	.186	.385	<b>.799</b>		
<b>PQ</b>	.897	.641	.390	.612	.376	.542	.532	<b>.800</b>	
<b>NATID</b>	.812	.523	.337	.583	.406	.502	.637	.624	<b>.723</b>

**Abbreviations:** *NATID*, National Identity; *EFP*, Evaluation of Foreign Products; *RTBFP*, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products; *PDI*, Purchase Decision Involvement; *SCT*, Self-Categorisation; *PQ*, Perceived Quality; *WTP*, Willingness to Pay.

**Notes:**

Numbers in bold represent the square root of the construct AVE.

As illustrated in Table 5.10, the AVE value for each construct is higher than .5, which establishes convergent validity. Moreover, the square root of the AVE for each construct is higher than its correlation with every other construct, which establishes discriminant validity. Last but not least, each construct has a CR value of at least .7, which proves the composite reliability.

In addition to the Fornell-Larcker's criterion, discriminant validity is also evaluated using Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HMTM), where all values should be less than .9 (Henseler et al., 2015), as shown in Table 5.10.1.

**Table 5.10 1: HMTM Test for Discriminant Validity**

	EFP	RTBFP	PDI	SCT	PQ	NATID	WTP
<b>EFP</b>							
<b>RTBFP</b>	.718						
<b>PDI</b>	.719	.523					
<b>SCT</b>	.446	.198	.503				
<b>PQ</b>	.735	.413	.712	.599			
<b>NATID</b>	.695	.498	.694	.782	.783		
<b>WTP</b>	.652	.642	.540	.230	.435	.400	

**Abbreviations:** *NATID*, National Identity; *EFP*, Evaluation of Foreign Products; *RTBFP*, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products; *PDI*, Purchase Decision Involvement; *SCT*, Self-Categorisation; *PQ*, Perceived Quality; *WTP*, Willingness to Pay.

All in all, the process of the CCA to build the measurement model has been validated as demonstrated in Tables 5.9, 5.10 and 5.10.1.

#### 5.4.2 Structural Model Testing

For the purpose of testing the structural model, four main steps will be followed. First, PLS-CMB will be assessed. Second, the issue of multicollinearity must be addressed. Lack of multicollinearity issues among the exogenous variables should be ensured. The third step is testing the path coefficients. The fourth and last step is testing the predictive ability of the model.

##### 5.4.2.1 Common Method Bias (CMB) in PLS:

At this stage, CMB in PLS should be investigated using two approaches. The first approach is conducting a full collinearity assessment approach to ensure that no shared variance exists between the study constructs of the structural model. The second approach is examining the marker variable  $R^2$ . First,  $R^2$  will be inspected without the marker variable and then will be observed again after including the marker variable. The change in  $R^2$  should be less than .1 (Lindell and Whitney, 2001).

With regard to this, to ensure the lack of CMB in the PLS analysis, the VIF between every pair of constructs should be less than 3.3 (Kock, 2015). In this vein, the Variance Inflation Factors range between 1.458 and 2.385, which is less than 3.3, as referred to in Table 5.11. Therefore, it can be confirmed that CMB is not an issue in the current structural model.

**Table 5.11: Variance Inflation Factor of Full Collinearity Assessment**

	WTP	EFP	RTBFP	PDI	SCT	PQ	NATID
WTP		1.564	1.458	1.579	1.538	1.598	1.564
EFP	2.234		2.040	2.305	2.283	2.090	2.238
RTBFP	1.537	1.584		1.736	1.685	1.711	1.667
PDI	1.647	1.672	1.724		1.683	1.616	1.674
SCT	1.820	1.810	1.646	1.785		1.754	1.468
PQ	2.131	1.974	2.078	2.033	2.066		2.044
NATID	2.384	2.334	2.208	2.385	1.855	2.221	

**Abbreviations:** *NATID*, National Identity; *EFP*, Evaluation of Foreign Products; *RTBFP*, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products; *PDI*, Purchase Decision Involvement; *SCT*, Self-Categorisation; *PQ*, Perceived Quality; *WTP*, Willingness to Pay.

As for the marker variable approach, the marker variable  $R^2$  without a marker variable is for .386, and after including the marker variable, the  $R^2$  value is for .388. This change in  $R^2$  is less than .1, as suggested by Lindell and Whitney (2001).

#### 5.4.2.2 Multicollinearity Assessment:

In regard to the issue of multicollinearity among exogenous variables, Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) test will be employed. The VIF should be less than 3 in order to confirm the lack of multicollinearity issue (Hair et al., 2020). In the current research, the VIF among exogenous variables toward Willingness To Pay (WTP) is represented in Table 5.11.

The VIF among exogenous variables towards Willingness to Pay ranges between 1.537 and 2.384, which is less than 3. As a result, it can be reported that multicollinearity is not an issue in the current research, as shown in the Pearson correlation results in Table 5.8.

### 5.4.2.3 Path Coefficients:

#### 5.4.2.3.1 Direct Hypotheses Testing

As for the path coefficient, it is assessed based on the Beta coefficient and its level of significance. Accordingly, bootstrapping of 5000 subsamples with 300 iteration is conducted, and the results of the path coefficients are depicted in Table 5.12 and Figure 5.8.

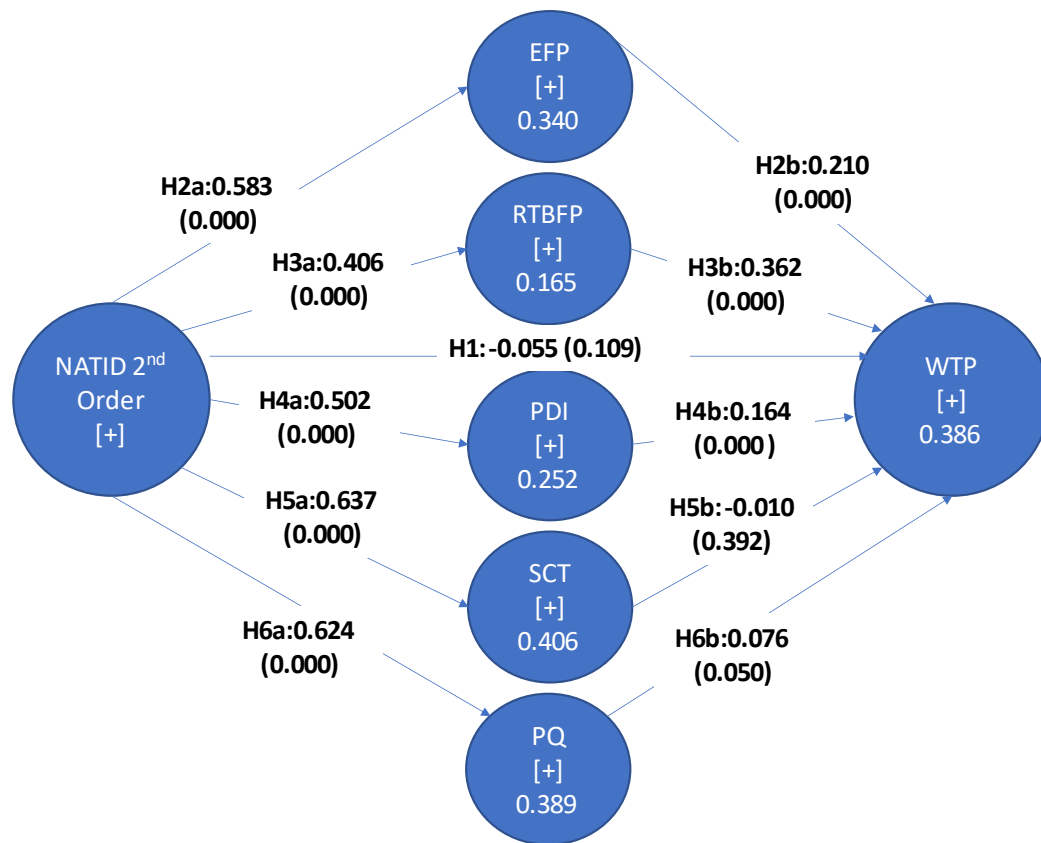
**Table 5.12: Direct Path Coefficients**

	Path	$\beta$	t-value	P Values	F <sup>2</sup>
<b>H1</b>	National Identity -> Willingness to Pay	-.055	1.233	.109	.002
<b>H2.a</b>	National Identity -> Evaluation of Foreign Products	.583	23.804	.000	.514
<b>H2.b</b>	Evaluation of Foreign Products -> Willingness to Pay	.210	4.276	.000	.032
<b>H3.a</b>	National Identity -> Reluctance To Buy Foreign Products	.406	15.332	.000	.198
<b>H3.b</b>	Reluctance To Buy Foreign Products -> Willingness to Pay	.362	8.877	.000	.139
<b>H4.a</b>	National Identity -> Purchase Decision Involvement	.502	15.235	.000	.337
<b>H4.b</b>	Purchase Decision Involvement -> Willingness to Pay	.164	3.911	.000	.027
<b>H5.a</b>	National Identity -> Self-Categorisation	.637	21.620	.000	.685
<b>H5.b</b>	Self-Categorisation -> Willingness to Pay	-.010	.274	.392	.000
<b>H6.a</b>	National Identity -> Perceived Quality	.624	27.425	.000	.637
<b>H6.b</b>	Perceived Quality -> Willingness to Pay	.076	1.650	.05	.004

**Notes:**

(1) The Variance Accounted For mediation (VAF) was calculated by dividing the Total Indirect effect (.393) by the Total effect (.337) (Hair et al., 2014a).

(2) VAF= 1.17



**Figure 5.8 Direct Path Coefficients**

As shown in Table 5.12, National Identity has an insignificant direct negative effect on Willingness to Pay by 5.5% at a confidence level of 95%. Therefore, H1 is not supported. This could be due to the presence of mediating factors.

National Identity has a significant direct positive effect on Evaluation of Foreign Products by 58.3% at a confidence level of 99.9%. Therefore, H2.a is supported. Likewise, Evaluation of Foreign Products has a significant direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay by 21% at a confidence level of 99.9%. Hence, H2.b is supported.

National Identity has a significant direct positive effect on Reluctance To Buy Foreign Products by 40.6% at a confidence level of 99.9%. Therefore, H3.a is supported. Similarly, Reluctance To Buy Foreign Products has a significant direct

positive effect on Willingness to Pay by 36.2% at a confidence level of 99.9%. Hence, H3.b is supported.

National Identity has a significant direct positive effect on Purchase Decision Involvement by 50.2% at a confidence level of 99.9%. Therefore, H4.a is supported. Likewise, Purchase Decision Involvement has a significant direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay by 16.4% at a confidence level of 99.9%. Hence, H4.b is supported.

National Identity has a significant direct positive effect on Self-Categorisation by 63.7% at a confidence level of 99.9%. Therefore, H5.a is supported. However, Self-Categorisation has an insignificant direct negative effect on Willingness to Pay by 1% at a confidence level of 95%. Hence, H5.b is not supported.

National Identity has a significant direct positive effect on Perceived Quality by 62.4% at a confidence level of 99.9%. Therefore, H6.a is supported. Likewise, Perceived Quality has a significant direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay by 7.6% at a confidence level of 95%. Hence, H6.b is supported.

All in all, by confirming all the direct paths, this will satisfy the assumptions of the mediation test.

#### *5.4.2.3.2 Indirect Mediated Relationships Testing*

It is important to point out that when the indirect effect is not significant, the mediator has a non-mediation effect. Nonetheless, it will have a partial effect when the indirect and direct effects are significant. Respectively, full mediation occurs when the indirect effect is significant, but the direct effect is not significant. The results of the direct and indirect effects of the mediation test are shown in

Table 5.13 by using the same setting for extracting the path coefficients and this is done for each path individually (Hair et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2010).

**Table 5.13: Mediation Test**

Path		Direct effect		Indirect effect		Mediation effect
		Beta	P Values	$\beta$ eta	P Values	
<b>H2.c</b>	NATID -> EFP -> WTP	.069	.039	.284	.000	Partial
<b>H3.c</b>	NATID -> RTBFP -> WTP	.145	.000	.224	.000	Partial
<b>H4.c</b>	NATID -> PDI -> WTP	.176	.000	.180	.000	Partial
<b>H5.c</b>	NATID -> SCT -> WTP	.310	.000	.008	.380	None
<b>H6.c</b>	NATID -> PQ -> WTP	.148	.000	.187	.000	Partial

**Abbreviations:** *NATID*, National Identity; *EFP*, Evaluation of Foreign Products; *RTBFP*, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products; *PDI*, Purchase Decision Involvement; *SCT*, Self-Categorisation; *PQ*, Perceived Quality; *WTP*, Willingness to Pay.

**Notes:**

(1) The Variance Accounted For (VAF) was calculated by dividing Specific Indirect Effects by the Total Effects of each path (Hair et al., 2014a).

(2) VAF EFP= 80%, VAF RTBFP= 61%, VAF PDI= 50%, VAF SCT= 2.5%, VAF PQ= 56%

As can be seen from Table 5.13, there is a significant indirect positive effect between National Identity and Willingness to Pay through Evaluation of Foreign Products by 28.4% at a confidence level of 99.9%, as well as the direct effect between National Identity and Willingness to Pay is significant positive by 6.9% at a confidence level of 95%. Therefore, Evaluation of Foreign Products has a complementary partial mediating effect on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay with Variance Accounted For (VAF) by 80%. Thus, H2c is supported.

Furthermore, there is a significant indirect positive effect between National Identity and Willingness to Pay through Reluctance To Buy Foreign Products by 22.4% at a confidence level of 99.9% as well as the direct effect between National Identity and Willingness to Pay is significant positive by 14.5% at a confidence level of 99.9%. Therefore, Reluctance To Buy Foreign Products has a

complementary partial mediating effect on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay with VAF by 61%. Thus, H3c is supported.

In addition, there is a significant indirect positive effect between National Identity and Willingness to Pay through Purchase Decision Involvement by 18% at a confidence level of 99.9% as well as the direct effect between National Identity and Willingness to Pay is significant positive by 17.6% at a confidence level of 99.9%. Therefore, Purchase Decision Involvement has a complementary partial mediating effect on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay with VAF by 50%. Thus, H4c is supported.

Moreover, there is an insignificant indirect positive effect between National Identity and Willingness to Pay through Self-Categorisation by 0.8% at a confidence level of 95%. As for the direct effect between National Identity and Willingness to Pay, it is significant positive by 31% at a confidence level of 99.9%. Therefore, Self-Categorisation has a non-mediating effect on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay. However, the direct effect between National Identity and Willingness to Pay is held at a confidence level of 99.9%. Thus, H5c is not supported.

Finally, there is a significant indirect positive effect between National Identity and Willingness to Pay through Perceived Quality by 18.7% at a confidence level of 99.9%, as well as the direct effect between National Identity and Willingness to Pay is significant positive by 14.8% at a confidence level of 99.9%. Therefore, Perceived Quality has a complementary partial mediating effect on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay with VAF by 56%. Thus, H6c is supported.

#### 5.4.2.4 Moderation Analysis:

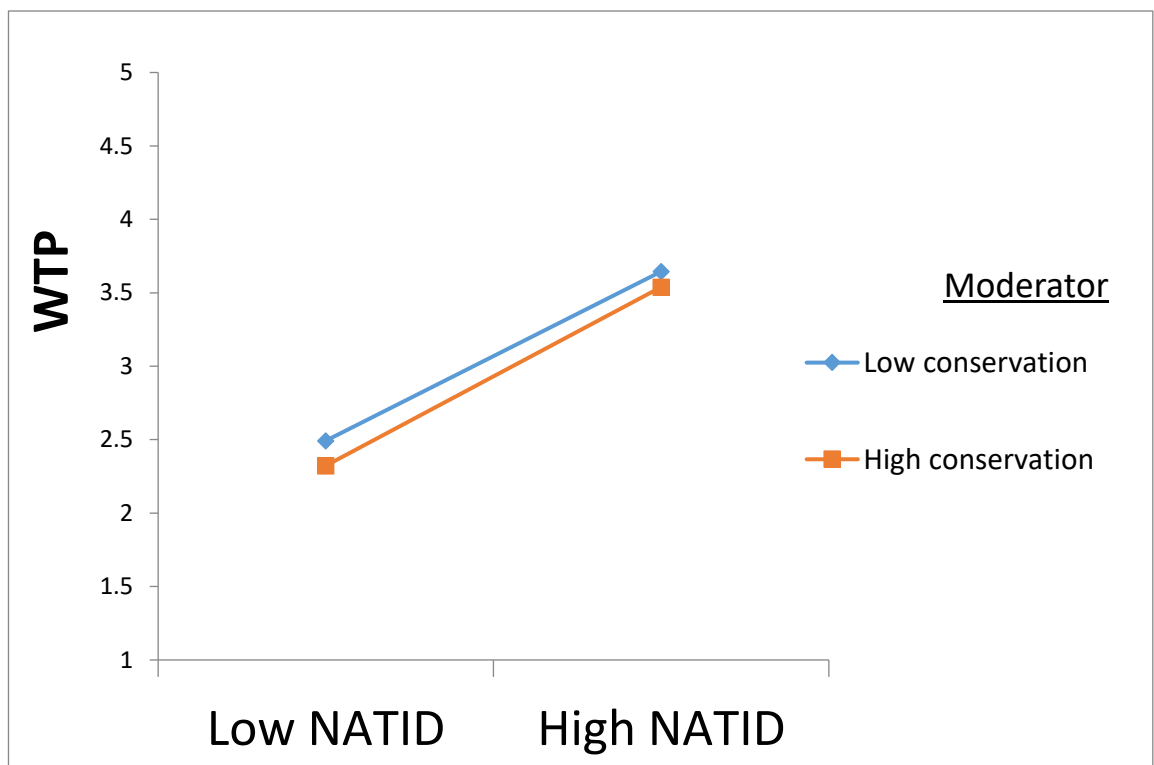
Initially, conservation was assessed as the moderator of the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay. It is important to note that the items of the dimensions of conservation and openness to change are ipsated due to being opposite to each other, as illustrated in the structure of Schwartz Values Circumplex (Dobewall and Strack, 2013). Since this research is conducted in a less developed country (Egypt), this research will support unidimensional rather than bidimensional (Strack and Dobewall, 2012). As a result, only conservation will be included in the moderation and conditional (moderated mediated) analyses instead of the circumplex structure. In addition, conservation is not included in the reliability analysis, such as exploratory factor analysis, composite reliability, and validity analysis, such as average variance extracted analysis, because it is not considered to be a latent construct (McLeay et al., 2020). The values of Conservation (Tradition, Security and Conformity) represent the position of each respondent on Schwartz's value circumplex. They are computed using Dobewall and Strack's (2013, p.4) suggested procedure (i.e., ipsated).

The moderation analysis will be assessed based on the Product Interaction (PI) effect using the two-stage method by depending on multiplying the latent score of the exogenous variables and moderator (Hair et al., 2017), as shown in Table 5.14.

**Table 5.14: Direct Moderation Result**

H	Path	$\beta$ eta	t-values	P-values	Results/ Decision
H7	Conservation*NATID -> WTP	.068	1.689	.046	Moderated

As shown in Table 5.14, conservation has a significant positive moderation effect on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay by 6.8% at a confidence level of 95%. This result suggests that conservation does moderate the effect of National Identity on Willingness to Pay. Hence, H7 is supported. In other words, conservation strengthens the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay, as shown in Figure 5.9.



**Figure 5.9 Relationship between NATID and WTP while being moderated by Conservation**

The Beta value for Openness To Change was reported at  $-.211$ , which supports that Openness To Change is the opposite dimension of Conservation as presented in Schwartz's circumplex (Schwartz, 1992).

#### 5.4.2.5 Conditional Analysis:

Conditional process analysis is “an analytical strategy focused on testing hypotheses to explore whether the mediation is moderated” (Hayes, 2018, p. 2; Preacher, 2013). In other words, moderated mediation explores whether the indirect mediation effect depends on the moderator. The conditional process model in this study suggests that there is an indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable through a mediator, as well as a direct effect of a moderator (Hayes, 2013). More specifically, “First form moderated mediation” (Hayes, 2017, Figure 1, model C), i.e., the effect of the independent variable on the exogenous variable is moderated by a moderating variable. In this case, the strength of the mediating process relies on the moderator (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Muller et al., 2005).

Moreover, the conditional analysis is adopted for the purpose of testing H8, which considers the moderating effects of conservation on the relationship between the National Identity (NATID) and Willingness To Pay (WTP) via various mediators. In this case, the conditional moderated-mediation relationship is represented in the indirect effect among the independent variable and mediator variable while depending on the moderator (Muller et al., 2005)<sup>4</sup>, as shown in Table 5.15.

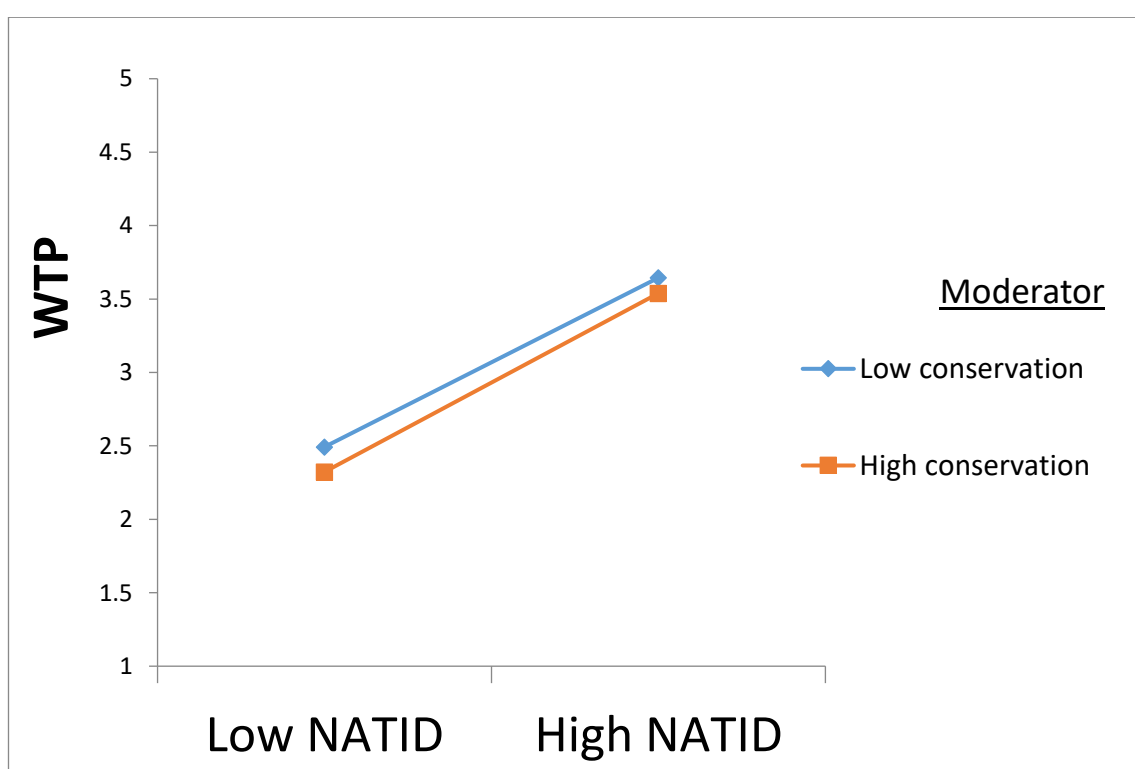
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<sup>4</sup> All paths have been tested using Openness to change instead of Conservation and the results were in the opposite direction of the Conservation paths as expected (Strack and Dobewall, 2012).

**Table 5.15 Moderated Mediated Effect**

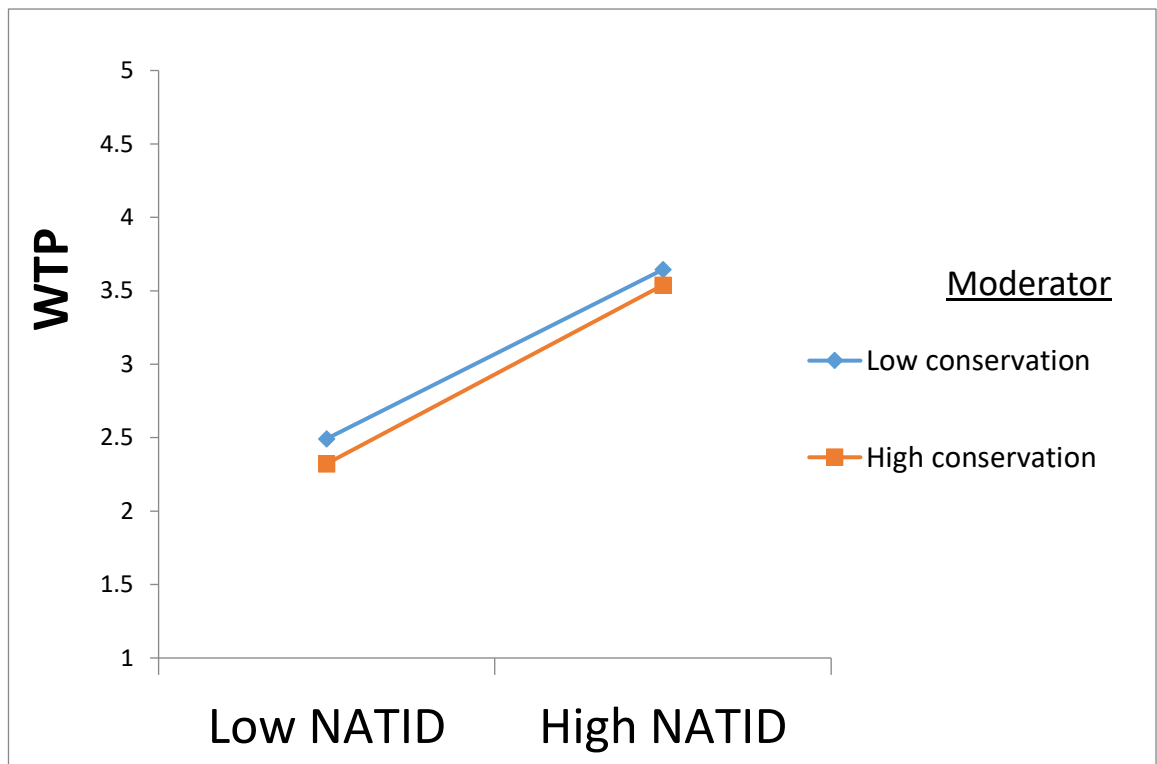
	Path	$\beta$	t-value	P Values	Results/ Decision
<b>H8.a</b>	Conservation*NATID -> Evaluation of Foreign Products	.076	2.301	.011	Moderated
<b>H8.b</b>	Conservation*NATID -> Reluctance To Buy Foreign Products	.006	.162	.436	Not-moderated
<b>H8.c</b>	Conservation*NATID -> Purchase Decision Involvement	.079	1.844	.033	Moderated
<b>H8.d</b>	Conservation*NATID -> Self-Categorisation	.021	.475	.318	Not-moderated
<b>H8.e</b>	Conservation*NATID -> Perceived Quality	.016	.576	.282	Not-moderated

As shown in Table 5.15, there is a significant positive effect of the conservation on the relationship between National Identity and Evaluation of Foreign Products as in Figure 5.10 by 7.6% at a confidence level of 95%. In other words, the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay, via Evaluation of Foreign Products, is strengthened. Hence, H8.a is supported.



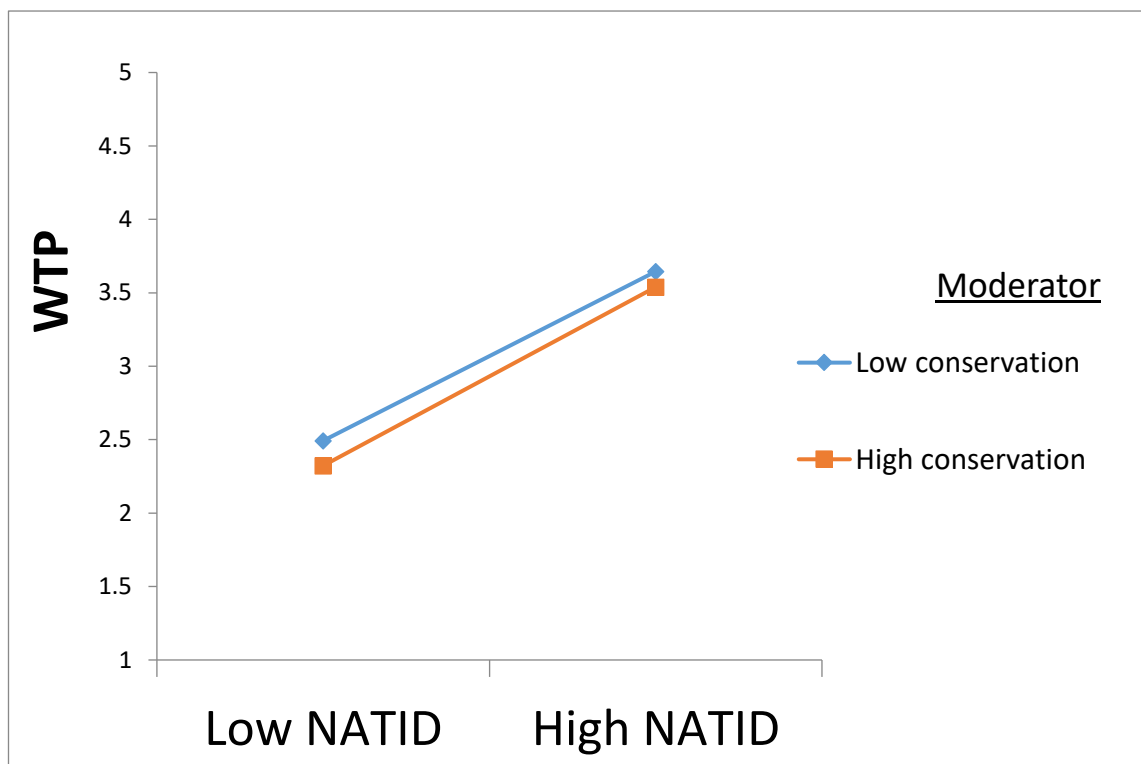
**Figure 5.10 Relationship between NATID and WTP, via EFP while being moderated by Conservation**

However, there is an insignificant positive effect of the conservation on the relationship between National Identity and Reluctance To Buy Foreign Products, as in Figure 5.11 by .6% at a confidence level of 95%. Accordingly, the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay, via Reluctance To Buy Foreign Products, is not moderated. Thus, H8.b is not supported.



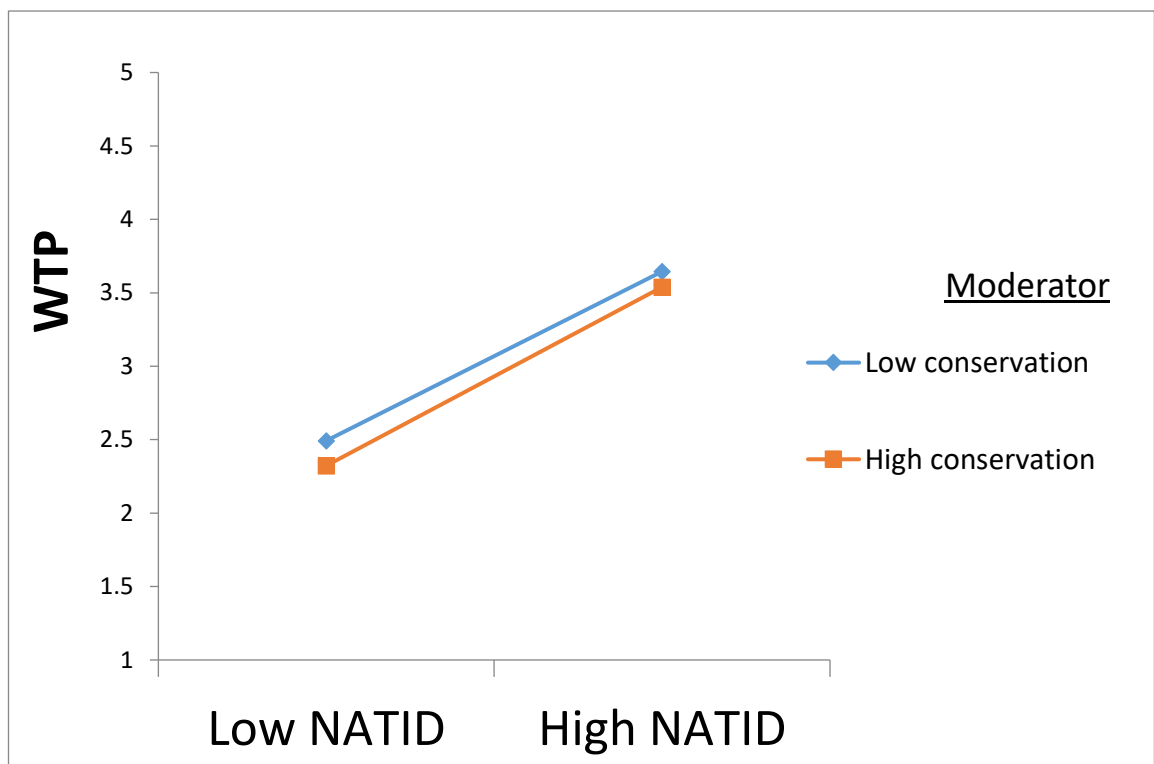
**Figure 5.11 Relationship between NATID and WTP, via RTBFP while being moderated by Conservation**

Moreover, there is a significant positive effect of the conservation on the relationship between National Identity and Purchase Decision Involvement, as in Figure 5.12 by 7.9% at a confidence level of 95%. Consequently, the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay, via Purchase Decision Involvement, is strengthened. Hence, H8.c is supported.



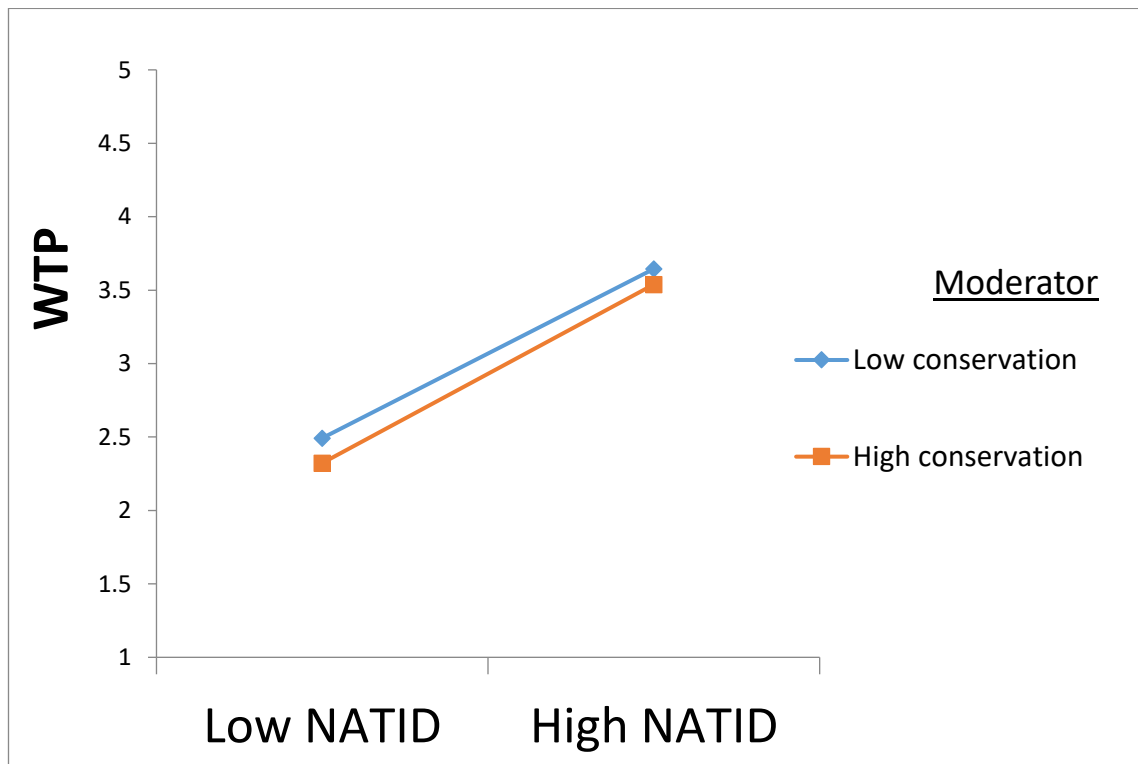
**Figure 5.12 Relationship between NATID and WTP, via PDI while being moderated by Conservation**

Yet, there is an insignificant positive effect of the conservation on the relationship between National Identity and Self-Categorisation as in Figure 5.13 by 2.1% at a confidence level of 95%. In other words, the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay, via Self-Categorisation, is not moderated. Hence, H8.d is not supported.



**Figure 5.13 Relationship between NATID and WTP, via SCT while being moderated by Conservation**

Moreover, there is an insignificant positive effect of the conservation on the relationship between National Identity and Perceived Quality, as in Figure 5.14 by 1.6% at a confidence level of 95%. Accordingly, the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay, via Perceived Quality, is not moderated. Thus, H8.e is not supported.



**Figure 5.14 Relationship between NATID and WTP, via PQ while being moderated by Conservation**

#### 5.4.2.6 Predictive Ability:

For the purpose of assessing the predictive ability of the model of this study, the variance factor of the predictive power ( $R^2$ ) and the predictive relevance ( $Q^2$ ) will be reported. Table 5.16 shows the results of the predictive ability of the structural model. The coefficient of variance ( $R^2$ ) is reflected by being weak when it falls between .25 and .50, moderate when it falls between .50 and .75, and strong for .75 and up (Hair et al., 2014b). As for predictive relevance ( $Q^2$ ), values falling between .02 and .15 are weak, and .15 and .35 are moderate and strong for values above .35 (Hair et al., 2014b).

**Table 5.16: Structural Model Predictive Ability**

Independent variables	$R^2$	$Q^2_{D=7}$
Willingness to Pay	.386	.269
Evaluation of Foreign Products	.340	.174
Reluctance To Buy Foreign Products	.165	.079
Purchase Decision Involvement	.252	.138
Self-Categorisation	.406	.255
Perceived Quality	.389	.246

As can be seen in Table 5.16, the model has a weak predictive power by 38.6% and moderate predictive relevance by 26.9% for Willingness to Pay.

Moreover, the model has a weak predictive power by 38.6% and moderate predictive relevance by 26.9% for Willingness to Pay.

In addition, the model has a weak predictive power by 34% and moderate predictive relevance by 17.4% for Evaluation of Foreign Products.

Also, the model has a weak predictive power by 16.5% and weak predictive relevance by 7.9% for Reluctance To Buy Foreign Products.

Adding to this, the model has a weak predictive power by 25.2% and weak predictive relevance by 13.8% for Purchase Decision Involvement.

Furthermore, the model has a weak predictive power by 40.6% and moderate predictive relevance by 25.5% for Self-Categorisation.

Finally, the model has a weak predictive power by 38.9% and moderate predictive relevance by 24.6% for Perceived Quality.

## **5.5 Summary**

By evaluating the sample characteristics using the software SPSS version 27, results regarding age levels, gender characteristics, level of education, level of income, and relationship status were obtained. Accordingly, the majority of the respondents were males (59%) and were of young age ranging from 18 to 25 years old (42%). Moreover, the majority of the respondents were university/college graduates (69%). Adding to this, the majority of the sample (51%) exhibited earning a low income of less than \$500 per month.

After carefully exploring the collected data using descriptive statistics, the total number of valid responses per item was 794, confirming that the current study sample has no missing data. In addition, the data cleaning and screening process are valid as the minimum value per item is not less than 1 and the maximum value is not more than 7 reflecting the two anchors of the 7-point Likert type scale (with the exception of Schwartz Values Survey with a minimum value of 1 and maximum value of 6). Also, descriptive statistics, including calculating the means and standard deviations of the measurement items, were cited. Finally, as suggested by Pallant (2016), in social sciences, it is uncommon to observe a

normal distribution which was the case with the current study sample, which violates the normality assumption.

As for the inferential statistics, it covered the important issue of common method bias, testing correlation and testing the direct and indirect relationships using Structural Equation Modeling. The common method bias was inspected to ensure that using a single measurement instrument for all variables does not lead to a shared variance among the study variables. Consequently, common method bias was not reported as an issue among the three used approaches (Harman's one factor, Marker Variable and Full Collinearity Assessment). Furthermore, Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling was applied to explore the relationships among exogenous and endogenous variables, which fits the aims of the current research. After enhancing the theoretical model by removing low-loading items, construct validity and reliability were assessed. Construct validity was obtained by measuring the average variance extracted as well as discriminant validity using the Fornell-Larcker's criterion and Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of correlations method. The last part of inferential statistics showed that construct reliability was established as well.

Ultimately, the variance inflation factor test was employed to ensure the lack of multicollinearity issues. Bootstrapping of 5000 subsamples with 300 iteration was conducted to test direct and indirect path coefficients. Accordingly, all direct paths were confirmed, which satisfies the assumptions of the mediation test. Adding to this, the same setting of extracting the path coefficients was conducted for the indirect paths and for each path individually as well.

In the current study, the moderation analysis was assessed based on the Product Interaction effect using the two-stage method by depending on multiplying the

latent score of the exogenous variables and moderator. This was complemented by conditional process analysis to explore whether the mediation is moderated. To be more specific, the strength of the mediating process relies on the moderator. Last but not least, the predictive ability of the model of the current study was reported by assessing the predictive power and predictive relevance.

## Chapter 6 : DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

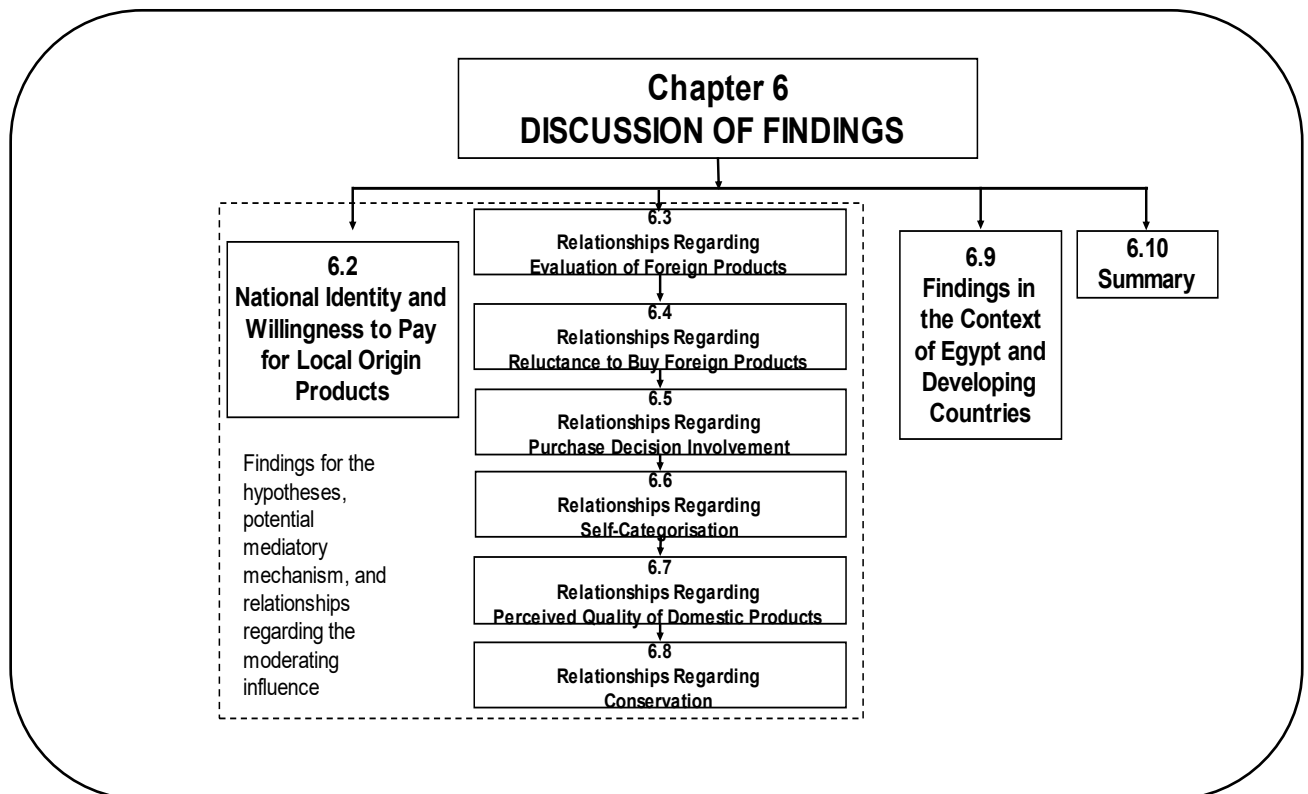
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### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research findings illustrated in Chapter 5. The discussion of these findings will also be linked to the existing literature from Chapters 2 and 3. Accordingly, this chapter discusses the findings related to the 22 hypotheses developed in this research commencing with the direct relationships. This discussion is followed by indirect relationships and parallel mediations. The last part of this chapter covers the findings of the moderation analysis and conditional analysis.

This chapter accentuates the primary research aim, which is to examine the effect of National Identity of Egyptian consumers on the Willingness to Pay for local origin products. This primary research aim is accompanied by three main research objectives: (1) examining the relationship between Egyptian consumers' National Identity and their Willingness to Pay for local origin products; (2) identifying and testing potential mediatory mechanisms (i.e., Evaluation of Foreign Products, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products, Purchase Decision Involvement, Self-Categorisation and Perceived Quality), which explain why National Identity affects Willingness to Pay for local origin products; and (3) to test if, and to what extent, consumer values (especially Conservation) influence the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Hence, this chapter will commence by discussing findings for the hypotheses regarding National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products, then the results of the potential mediatory mechanisms and finally, relationships regarding the moderating influence of the values of Conservation.

The summary section (Section 6.10) highlights the main points that have been discussed in this chapter. Figure 6.1 demonstrates the structure of this chapter.



**Figure 6.1 Structure of Chapter Six**

The current research has put forth an effort to present a unique understanding of the potential impact of regional designation in the sense of "Made in Egypt" on consumers' Willingness to Pay. It highlighted how typical Egyptian individuals would respond to such a local origin marking and how much they would be prepared to spend in a genuine scenario. The current research was purposefully kept broad in light of the extensive body of prior research on Country-of-Origin as well as the relatively unknown impression of the originating sign "Made in Egypt". Moreover, the outcomes of the current study should serve as a starting step in that direction because it has demonstrated that there are, in fact, disparities in how developing nations and their products are portrayed in comparison to those in developed nations. It has also laid the groundwork for potential future research. A framework drawn from the body of literature already in place has been

developed to accomplish this. The research questions led to the development of a total of 22 hypotheses, which were then put to the test.

The results of this study show that, mostly due to their level of National Identity, Egyptian consumers may likely not only develop bias or critical opinions of the imported goods but also be reluctant to buy foreign products (refer to results pertaining to hypotheses H2b, H2c, H3a, H3b, and H3c). This observation would enable people to be more inclined to purchase goods of Egyptian origin. On the contrary, previous research conducted in other developing countries suggested that consumers tend to favour imported and foreign goods over domestic ones because of their bias against their own local products (Bow and Ford, 1993; Sklair, 1994; Agbonifoh and Elimimian, 1999; Batra et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2000). Highlighting such nuances of the Egyptian markets help fill the second theoretical gap of this research, which in turn also acknowledges the first managerial gap by providing basis for segmenting and targeting consumers in the Egyptian market and other markets that share similar values and beliefs.

Also, by paying unique attention to the concept of National Identity and its components and exploring it as an in-group construct, this study answers the calls put forward by many scholars to disentangle consumer ethnocentric tendencies from the sense of National Identity (Josiassen, 2011; Han, 2017; Verlegh, 2007; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015), which also meets the first theoretical research gap highlighted in chapter two.

Likewise, the current research has deepened our knowledge of how identity plays a part in people's decision making. Prior research in the field of marketing has focused on the role that identity plays in influencing buying decisions. Additionally, the current study highlighted that social identity could play a part in motivating

people to promote local origin products by engaging in campaigns like "buy local" (refer to results pertaining to hypotheses H4a, H4b, H4c). This outcome also partly contributes to acknowledging identified managerial gaps 1 and 2.

Further, many studies explained how the variables affecting quality might differ from nation to nation (e.g., ElKhawas, 1998; Middlehurst and Woodhouse, 1995). By adding non-quality brand associations such as National Identity along with quality perceptions to explain the consumer's Willingness to Pay, the results of the current research contributed to further addressing the contradictory findings that incited the researcher to conduct further research on the relationship between perceived quality and Willingness to Pay in a developing market context (refer to results pertaining to hypotheses H6a, H6b, H6c), also partly helping acknowledge theoretical gap 3 as well as managerial gaps 1 and 2.

## **6.2 National Identity and Willingness to Pay for Local Origin Products**

The National Identity Scale (NATID scale) was used to measure National Identity. The four dimensions used for the NATID scale were National Heritage, Cultural Homogeneity, Belief System and Consumer Ethnocentrism. In general, National Identity score demonstrated a strong level of national identification (overall mean score of 21.7) (Keillor and Hult, 1999).

The first proposed hypothesis is intended to examine the influence of National Identity on the Willingness to Pay for local origin products. In the current study, it is proposed that *National Identity has a direct positive effect on Egyptian consumers' Willingness to Pay for local origin products* (H1). The results outlined in Chapter 5 suggested that National Identity does not have a significant direct

positive influence on Willingness to Pay for local origin products ( $\beta = -.055$ ,  $p = .109$ ).

This finding contrasts prior studies, such as Yoo and Lee (2016), Trudel et al. (2016) and Carvalho et al. (2019), who suggested that consumers are willing to pay for local products to satisfy the obligation that arises from the sense of national identification. On the other hand, Lantz (1998) suggested that even if respondents demonstrate a strong sense of National Identity, they may not feel obliged to or able to express their identification in their purchases. Additionally, consumers may not be willing to pay a premium price for local origin products due to reasons affiliated with price and quality concerns (e.g., Supphellen and Rittenburg, 2001; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Klein et al., 2006; Verlegh, 2007).

However, according to the data collected by the current study, some consumers, in the Egyptian context, may not be willing to pay a premium price for local origin products. It can be suggested that even though the outcomes of this study show that the majority of the Egyptian consumers reveal a strong level of National Identity, they may not feel obliged to express their national identification in the form of Willingness to Pay a premium price for local origin products. A possible reason for this finding is that National Identity may not directly influence Willingness to Pay for local origin products due to the presence of mediating factors. The potential influence of mediating factors will be further revealed in the upcoming hypotheses.

Along with the contribution of the current research, these findings reveal that it is necessary to extend our knowledge about National Identity and Egyptian consumers to further explore the direct influence of National Identity on

Willingness to Pay for local origin products. This extension could provide further information about whether the National Identity measurement model is sufficient to explain Egyptian consumers' Willingness to Pay for local origin products.

### **6.3 Relationships Regarding Evaluation of Foreign Products**

The second hypothesis proposed that *National Identity has an indirect effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through decreasing Evaluation of Foreign Products* (H2). Initially, the current study proposes that National Identity has a direct negative effect on Evaluation of Foreign Products (H2a), which in turn increases the Willingness to Pay for local origin products (H2b).

The result of the conducted analysis shows that National Identity has a direct positive effect on Evaluation of Foreign Products ( $\beta = .583$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This finding contradicts previous studies that showed consumers with high scores on National Identity to negatively evaluate foreign products as a form of identity-protecting behaviour (maintaining a positive social identity in society) (Olsen et al., 1994; Lantz and Loeb, 1996; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015).

Furthermore, the results of the current research showed that Evaluation of Foreign Products has a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products ( $\beta = .210$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This result corresponds with previous research that demonstrated the Evaluation of Foreign Products impacts consumer attitudes as well as the Willingness to Pay for local origin products (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2006; Phau and Chao, 2008). Therefore, the findings show that Evaluation of Foreign Products plays a complementary partial mediating role between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products (H2c) ( $\beta = .284$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Accordingly, it is concluded that consumers

with a strong National Identity are expected to negatively evaluate foreign products, which leads to a higher Willingness to Pay for local origin products to maintain a positive social identity, respond to in-group threats and follow moral reasons.

In accordance with the findings, it is important to point out that National Identity is a pro-in-group construct (Mackie and Smith, 1998, Brewer, 1999; Bizumic et al., 2009). This means that consumers with a high sense of National Identity may pay more attention to maintaining a positive social identity among members of the group rather than discriminating against foreign products. This result was previously documented in studies conducted in Lebanon and Kuwait (Zeimnowicz and Bahhowth, 2008; Mostafa et al., 2020), which found that consumers prefer purchasing local products to avoid hurting the economy and causing unemployment despite having no aversion to foreign products.

According to the outcomes of the current study, some respondents pointed out in the comments section that they tend to pay more attention to the quality of the purchased product rather than whether it is foreign or domestic. For instance, one respondent stated that “in general, neither I nor anyone I know focuses on whether a product is Egyptian or foreign. We buy products based on price and quality. Egyptian products, specifically food, can be cheaper, so we typically buy Egyptian food. However, we don't really look at country-of-origin either way” (Respondent's Unique Reference Number 682272-682263-70304951).

## 6.4 Relationships Regarding Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products

The third hypothesis suggested that *National Identity has an indirect effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products* (H3). The first sub-hypothesis proposed that National Identity has a direct positive effect on Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products (H3a), which, in turn, has a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products (H3b).

The results came in agreement with earlier research that suggested consumers may show Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products as a form of reinforcing their National Identity (Brewer, 1979, 1999; Tajfel and Turner, 2004; Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017). Accordingly, National Identity was shown to have a direct positive effect on Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products ( $\beta = .406$ ,  $p < .001$ ). In addition, the findings support previous research showing that reluctance to buy foreign products positively impacts the Willingness to Pay for local origin products ( $\beta = .362$ ,  $p < .001$ ) (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). Therefore, the findings show that Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products plays a complementary partial mediating role between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products (H3c) ( $\beta = .224$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Further investigation of this earlier point revealed that the impact of consumer attitudes towards foreign products in the form of Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products to follow moral reasons had been previously documented (Klein et al., 1998; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004; Khan et al., 2019). Consequently, the sense of National Identity results in identity-protecting behaviour to maintain a positive identity, respond to in-group threats (such as threats to the national economy)

and follow moral reasons. Therefore, National Identity is expected to positively affect consumer attitudes towards foreign products through Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products. Accordingly, consumers may show Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products as a form of reinforcing their National Identity (Fischer and Zeugner-Roth, 2017), hence increasing their Willingness to Pay for local origin products.

However, it is important to note that most of the existing research has been conducted in the developed country context. Some of the earlier research reveals that consumers in developing countries may show a negative bias toward domestic products due to factors related to price, quality and need for self-enhancement (Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999; Verlegh, 2007). It is important to note that having a strong level of National Identity does not necessarily imply refusing foreign products (He and Wang, 2015). Consumers may choose domestic products as a form of maintaining a positive identity rather than discriminating against foreign products. Moreover, the lack of domestic alternatives to the products may be an issue. In this case, consumers may find themselves with only the foreign product due to the absence of a domestic alternative (Nijssen and Douglas, 2004; Siamagka and Balabanis, 2015).

## **6.5 Relationships Regarding Purchase Decision Involvement**

The fourth hypothesis proposed that *National Identity has an indirect effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Purchase Decision Involvement* (H4). This hypothesis is divided into three sub-hypotheses. Initially, the first sub-hypothesis suggested that National Identity has a direct positive effect on Purchase Decision Involvement (H4a) which in turn has a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products (H4b).

The analysis revealed that National Identity has a direct positive effect on Purchase Decision Involvement ( $\beta = .502, p < .001$ ). The outcome supports the previous research that demonstrated the presence of a strong National Identity encourages making the right choice in favour of the in-group's members of the society (Park and Mittal, 1985; Mittal, 1989; Dholakia, 2001; Michaelidou and Dibb, 2008). Additionally, the Purchase Decision Involvement does have a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products ( $\beta = .164, p < .001$ ). As a result, this agrees with previous research that emphasises the role of involvement in explaining and influencing the consumer behaviour associated with a strong Willingness to Pay (Dholakia, 2001; Thomson et al., 2005). Therefore, Purchase Decision Involvement has a complementary partial mediating effect on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products (H4c) ( $\beta = .180, p < .001$ ), and it is assumed that consumers express their National Identity in the form of Willingness to Pay for local products due to high involvement in the purchase decision-making process (Mittal, 1989).

All in all, Purchase Decision Involvement lies in the extent to which a consumer is motivated to make the right choice (Kim and Sung, 2009; Ramadan et al., 2019). This was further supported by the survey respondents of the current study by pointing out the importance of making the right choice when choosing among some Egyptian-made products, which implies a tendency towards high involvement. Accordingly, in the presence of a strong level of National Identity, the affective motive of involvement (Bojanic and Warnick, 2012) may be associated with the symbolic benefits of enhanced self-image resulting from the use of the local product (Kim and Sung, 2009). Moreover, it is important to highlight that in the case of high involvement, the consumer will make an effort in

the purchase decision process because the product has a strong relationship with the individual's self-concept and values. Hence, the self-concept and values are reflected in the form of high involvement, which may increase the Willingness to Pay for local origin products.

## **6.6 Relationships regarding Self-Categorisation**

The fifth proposed hypothesis intended *to examine the indirect influence of National Identity on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Self-Categorisation* (H5). In the current study, it is proposed that National Identity has a direct positive effect on Self-Categorisation (H5a), which in turn has a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products (H5b).

The results outlined in Chapter 5 suggested that National Identity has a direct positive influence on Self-Categorisation ( $\beta = .637$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The result supports the previous findings of consumers with a strong sense of National Identity, making the concerns and goals of the group (that they are a member of) their own and acting to increase the sense of belonging to that group (Carvalho and Luna, 2014; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). The results also revealed that Self-Categorisation has a non-significant direct negative effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products (H5b) ( $\beta = -.010$ ,  $p > .392$ ). This contradicts the previous findings that imply that Self-Categorisation encourages placing oneself into a specific social group and behaving in favour of this group, such as Willingness to Pay for local origin products (Hogg and Terry, 2000; Stoner et al., 2011). Therefore, Self-Categorisation has a non-significant mediating effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products (H5c). Finally, the results of the analysis uncovered that Self-Categorisation has a non-mediating effect on the

indirect relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products ( $\beta = .008$ ,  $p > .380$ ).

One way to explain the non-mediating role of Self-Categorisation is that while National Identity influences Self-Categorisation, being a member of the society does not necessarily influence the Willingness to Pay for local origin products. These findings extend the existing knowledge about the effect of the strong sense of National Identity on Self-Categorisation (e.g. Stoner et al., 2011; Breton, 2015; Trepte and Loy, 2017; Fujita et al., 2018). In other words, the attachment to the nation posited by National Identity stimulates the individual to see him/herself as a part of a group (Phinney and Ong, 2007; Barrett et al., 2004). However, the outcomes of the current research suggest that it does not necessarily encourage or motivate collective behaviour. For instance, some of the survey respondents pointed out that considering oneself as a member of Egyptian society and having feelings of attachment and empathy towards Egyptian society comes naturally. However, it does not necessarily mean that they may be willing to accept poor local product quality at any cost. Another possible reason for the previously mentioned outcome is that the negative effect that Self-Categorisation has on Willingness to Pay a premium price for local origin products may be held only in the sample and cannot be extended to the population. This negative effect, however, appears limited, representing only 10% of the collected sample.

## **6.7 Relationships Regarding Perceived Quality of Domestic Products**

The sixth hypothesis suggests that *National Identity has an indirect positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Perceived Quality* (H6). In the current study, it is proposed that National Identity has a direct

positive effect on Perceived Quality (H6a), which in turn has a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products (H6b).

The findings conform with previous studies documenting that National Identity motivates a tendency to perceive the quality of domestic products as higher to maintain a positive self-image ( $\beta = .624$ ,  $p < .001$ ) (Verlegh, 2007; Le et al., 2013). The results are also in agreement with previous studies that link the high perceived quality of a product and Willingness to Pay for local products ( $\beta = .076$ ,  $p < .05$ ) (Dodds et al., 1991; Zeithaml et al., 2020). Additionally, the analysis revealed that Perceived Quality has a complementary partial mediating effect on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products (H6c) ( $\beta = .187$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This result comes in line with the report by Verlegh (2007), Gürhan-Canli et al. (2018) and Makrides et al. (2021), which considered perceived quality to mediate the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay by perceptions of the quality of local products.

One possible explanation of the mediating role of high Perceived Quality towards domestic products is that high levels of National Identity motivate a tendency for consumers to view domestic products as being of high quality (Le et al., 2013). Favourably biasing the members of the in-group motivates the desire to maintain a positive self-image which leads to a higher tendency of Willingness to Pay more for local origin products. These findings extend the existing knowledge about the effect of a strong sense of National Identity on the Perceived Quality of domestic products. Moreover, it is important to note that the majority of the respondents agreed that food products, including fruits and vegetables and Egyptian cotton products, are the typical local products that they purchase. The perceived high quality of these local products was agreed on by the majority of the respondents, in addition to the reasonable prices in comparison to foreign products.

Nevertheless, for products such as electronic devices and gadgets, cars and mobile phones, the majority of the respondents agreed on choosing foreign ones. This outcome can be attributed to the lack of domestic alternatives, as suggested by the survey respondents of the current study.

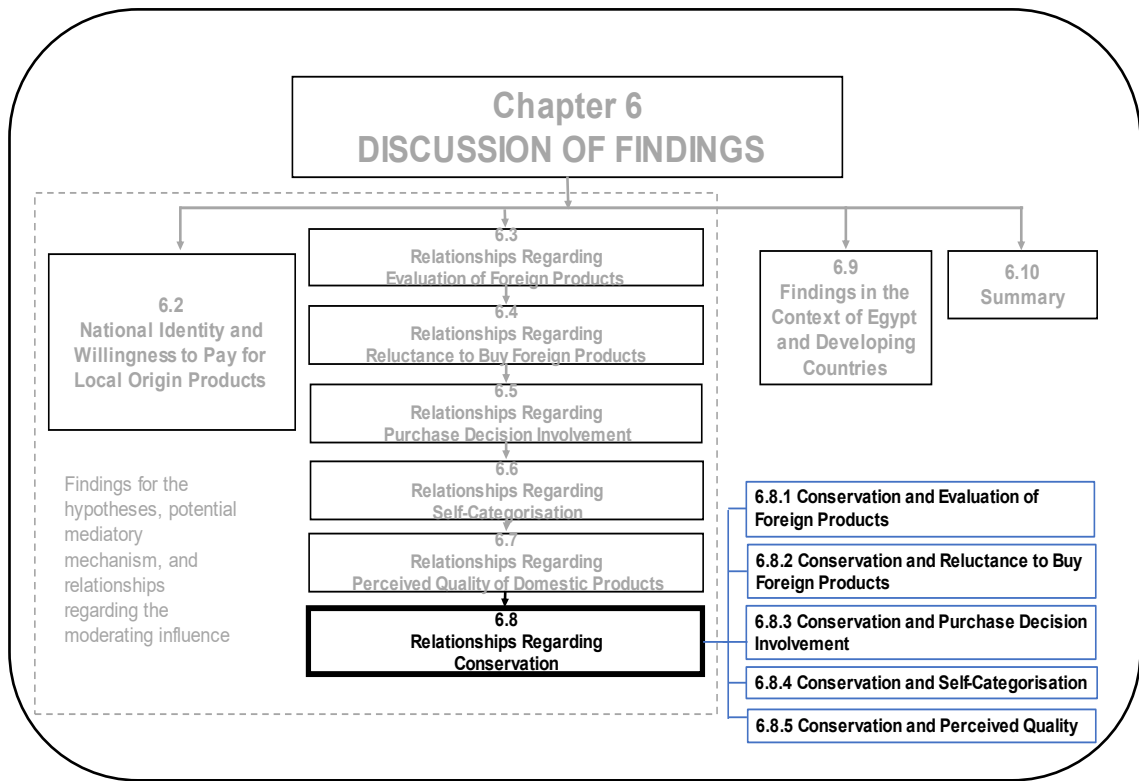
## **6.8 Relationships Regarding Conservation**

The current study includes Conservation as a moderator. It is hypothesised that *the influence of National Identity on Willingness to Pay for local origin products is positively moderated by Conservation, so that the effect is stronger (weaker) when Conservation is high (low) (H7).*

The average mean and standard deviation of Conservation were calculated at  $2.1 \pm 1.1$  out of 6 (1 indicates “very much like me” and 6 indicates “not at all like me”). This result implies that the respondents are very likely to subscribe to the values of Conservation (Tradition, Security and Conformity). Moreover, the data analysis revealed that Conservation has a significant positive moderation effect on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay ( $\beta = .068$ ,  $p < .05$ ). As a result, it can be concluded that Conservation does moderate the effect of National Identity on Willingness to Pay, especially when consumers are very likely to subscribe to the values of Conservation. This result is in agreement with previous research postulating that consumers with strong collectivistic values may favour domestic products to protect and enhance the stability and safety of the home country (Hofstede, 2001; Yoo and Donthu, 2005). Accordingly, Egyptian consumers tend to protect and maintain the national economy by reflecting the collective sense that is enhanced by National Identity.

The relevance behind discussing National Identity and its influence on consumer behaviour while being moderated by values further explains the interaction of the National Identity of an individual and his/her social value system. The values of Conservation (which is related to collectivism) promote harmony among members of society, the importance of meeting society's expectations and promoting a safe and stable society (Becker et al., 2012). Thus, Conservation values (Tradition, Security and Conformity) strengthen the association of an individual within a group and his/her collective behaviour to protect this group. In the case of individuals attributing high importance to Conservation values, as opposed to Openness to Change, identifying with their nation will facilitate attaining their values because it is consistent with the goals of Conservation values (Roccas et al., 2010).

Finally, the following findings on relationships regarding Conservation are discussed in the upcoming sub-sections, covering: evaluation of foreign products; reluctance to buy foreign products; purchase decision involvement; self-categorisation; and perceived quality. Figure 6.2 highlights the structure of section 6.8.



**Figure 6.2 Structure of Section 6.8 - Relationships Regarding Conservation**

#### 6.8.1 Conservation and Evaluation of Foreign Products

The developed hypothesis proposed that *Conservation moderates the strength of the mediated relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Evaluation of Foreign Products, so that the relationship is stronger (weaker) when Conservation is high (low) (H8a)*. The results show that this relationship is moderated by Conservation, where the relationship is stronger when Conservation is high ( $\beta = .076$ ,  $p < .011$ ). The result is in accordance with previous studies that manifest Conservation values to focus on the feeling of belonging to a group with shared interests and commitment to protecting the members of the in-group (Roccas et al., 2010). Moreover, consumers embracing the values of Conservation view foreign products as being a threat to their customs and norms (Balabanis et al., 2002). Accordingly, consumers who attribute high importance to Conservation values tend to negatively evaluate foreign products.

To further explain the findings, it is important to reflect on the direct and indirect relationships from the second hypothesis (H2). National Identity was found to have a direct positive influence on Evaluation of Foreign Products. Even though this contradicted existing literature, which suggests that consumers with high levels of National Identity are expected to negatively evaluate foreign products, it was attributed to National Identity being a pro-in-group construct. In addition, consumers with a high sense of National Identity may pay more attention to maintaining a positive social identity among members of the group rather than discriminating against foreign products. Moreover, the findings revealed that Evaluation of Foreign Products played a complementary partial mediating effect between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products.

The fact that the results incline towards values of Conservation strengthens the collective sense of self and collective behaviour that promotes harmony among members of society for a safe and stable society and meeting society's expectations. Therefore, consumers may view foreign products as being a threat to the local economy and levels of employment (Sharma et al., 1995). In addition, the influence of National Identity on the consumers' preference for domestic products is noted even when foreign products are perceived as being superior. This influence emerges from the motive to maintain a positive social identity among members of the group.

#### 6.8.2 Conservation and Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products

The developed hypothesis proposed that *Conservation moderates the strength of the mediated relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products, so that the relationship is stronger (weaker) when Conservation is high (low)* (H8b). The

results show that this relationship is not significantly moderated by Conservation, and the relationship is not significantly stronger when Conservation is high ( $\beta = .006$ ,  $p < .436$ ). Accordingly, it can be inferred that individuals attributing high importance to Conservation values are likely to place more emphasis on choosing domestic products rather than reluctance to buy foreign products.

To further explain the findings, it is important to reflect on the direct and indirect relationships from the third hypothesis (H3). National Identity was found to have a direct positive influence on Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products as a form of reinforcing National Identity, which in turn positively impacted the Willingness to Pay for local origin products. The sense of National Identity resulted in identity-protecting behaviour to maintain a positive identity, respond to in-group threats (such as threats to the national economy) and follow moral reasons. Therefore, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products played a complementary partial mediating effect between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products.

The collective sense of self and collective behaviour contribute toward achieving the outlook of the society of which an individual is a member. This is enhanced by the values of Conservation. The results show that Egyptian consumers have a high tendency toward the values of Conservation. However, this high tendency does not strengthen the relationship between National Identity and Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products. This finding can be attributed to the fact that having a strong National Identity does not necessarily imply refusing foreign products. Consumers can choose domestic products as a form of maintaining a positive identity rather than discriminating against foreign products. Moreover, the lack of domestic alternatives to the products may be an issue. In this case, the outcome of the current research suggests that the survey respondents may not show

reluctance towards buying foreign products due to the absence of a domestic alternative.

### 6.8.3 Conservation and Purchase Decision Involvement

The developed hypothesis proposed that *Conservation moderates the strength of the mediated relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Purchase Decision Involvement, so that the relationship is stronger (weaker) when Conservation is high (low)* (H8c). The results show that this relationship is significantly moderated by Conservation, where the relationship is stronger when Conservation is high ( $\beta = .079$ ,  $p < .033$ ). These findings are aligned with previous research implying that consumers with a strong National Identity express their collective sense in the form of purchasing local origin products for the welfare of society (Schwartz, 1992; Thuy and Hau, 2010). In that case, consumers with strong Conservation values are most likely to be more involved in buying local origin products for the purposes of doing the right thing (Tarkiainen and Sundqvist, 2009).

To further explain the findings, it is important to reflect on the direct and indirect relationships from the fourth hypothesis (H4). National Identity was found to have a direct positive influence on Purchase Decision Involvement as a form of encouragement to make the right choice in favour of the in-group's members of society, which in turn positively impacted the Willingness to Pay for local origin products. The sense of National Identity resulted in identity-protecting behaviour to maintain a positive identity, respond to in-group threats (such as threats to the national economy) and react based on how important the product is to the consumer. Therefore, Purchase Decision Involvement had a complementary

partial mediating effect on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products.

These results incline towards values of Conservation enhance the collective sense of self and collective behaviour that promotes behaviour that protects and enhances the stability of the home country and doing the right thing. Purchase Decision Involvement is classified under situational involvement, which in turn is represented in a temporary concern or aroused by perceived risk or a need (Park and Mittal, 1985; Mittal, 1989; Michaelidou and Dibb, 2008). Therefore, consumers' involvement can be a consequence of associated risk, how important the product is to the consumer and self-image (Khare and Rakesh, 2010). Hence, Egyptian consumers with high levels of National Identity and high levels of involvement showed a tendency to purchase local products because it reflects their self-concept and values. The self-concept and values are reflected in the form of high involvement, which may increase the Willingness to Pay for local origin products. In summary, the results reveal that Egyptian consumers show a high tendency toward the values of Conservation that promotes the collective behaviour toward a safe and stable society. Therefore, in the presence of a strong National Identity, high Conservation strengthened the relationship between National Identity and Purchase Decision Involvement by promoting protecting and enhancing the stability of the home country and doing the right thing.

#### 6.8.4 Conservation and Self-Categorisation

The developed hypothesis proposed that *Conservation moderates the strength of the mediated relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Self-Categorisation, so that the relationship is stronger (weaker) when Conservation is high (low) (H8d)*. The results show that this

relationship is not significantly moderated by Conservation, meaning that the relationship is not significantly stronger when Conservation is high ( $\beta = .021$ ,  $p < .318$ ). Individuals identify with their nation to attain values by creating a sense of belonging and being part of a collective society with shared interests and goals. However, this relationship does not seem to be enhanced by the values of Conservation.

To further explain the findings, it is important to reflect on the direct and indirect relationships from the fifth hypothesis (H5). National Identity was found to have a direct positive influence on Self-Categorisation as a form of making the concerns and goals of the group (that they are a member of) their own and acting to increase the sense of belonging to that group. However, Self-Categorisation had a non-significant direct negative effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Therefore, Self-Categorisation had a non-mediating effect on the indirect relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products.

The mediation results contradict the previous findings that imply that Self-Categorisation encourages placing oneself into a specific social group and behaving in favour of this group, such as Willingness to Pay for local origin products (Hogg and Terry, 2000; Stoner et al., 2011). In addition, even though the results lean towards embracing the values of Conservation, these values do not seem to enhance the strength of the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products through Self-Categorisation. This outcome could be attributed to the fact that National Identity has a direct influence on Self-Categorisation in terms of an individual having to identify with a nation first before gaining a sense of belonging with other members of the nation. However, this sense of belonging could arise naturally and may not have any

further impact on the Willingness to Pay of Egyptian consumers. Hence, even when consumers attribute high importance to the values of Conservation, this may not promote collective behaviour. These findings suggest that Self-Categorisation may confirm the membership of the individual within society, which comes from the National Identification, but it is not single-handedly sufficient to motivate or encourage behaviours that protect and enhance the stability and safety of the home country.

#### 6.8.5 Conservation and Perceived Quality

The developed hypothesis proposed that *Conservation moderates the strength of the mediated relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products via Perceived Quality, so that the relationship is stronger (weaker) when Conservation is high (low) (H8e)*. The results show that this relationship is not significantly moderated by conservation, which means that the relationship is not significantly stronger when conservation is high ( $\beta = .016$ ,  $p < .282$ ).

To further explain the findings, it is important to reflect on the direct and indirect relationships from the sixth hypothesis (H6). National Identity was found to have a direct positive influence on the Perceived Quality of domestic products as a form of motivation towards perceiving domestic products as of high quality to maintain a positive self-image (Le et al., 2013). This, in turn, positively impacted the Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Therefore, Perceived Quality had a complementary partial mediating effect on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products.

This result implies that even though the personal value systems of consumers explain the association between National Identity and product evaluation, values

of Conservation do not emphasise this relationship. These findings contradict the previous research suggesting that the more important a value is to an individual, the more the individual will work towards the attainment of the goals directed by that value (Schwartz, 1992). In this case, the value-oriented goals directed by Conservation encourage perceiving domestic products to be of high quality to maintain the wellbeing of society (economically and employment rates). Accordingly, in the presence of high Conservation values, consumers were expected to consider the Perceived Quality of domestic products as being high to express their important values of Conservation in the form of Willingness to Pay for local origin products. The lack of moderating effect of the values of Conservation could be attributed to the fact that in developing or emerging countries, domestic products may be viewed as being of lower quality than foreign products (Klein et al., 2006). This pattern can be expected to apply to Egypt as a developing country. Therefore, even in the presence of a high level of National Identity, the tendency toward values of Conservation does not increase the motivation to perceive domestic products as being of high quality. In this case, consumers may compromise their feelings of national attachment if the perceived quality of domestic products is viewed as being inferior in comparison to foreign products. Some of the respondents mentioned in the comments section of the questionnaire how foreign products could be favoured due to the underlying status and prestige associated with those foreign products.

Another possible explanation requires exploring the phenomenon of National Identity within a new context. As previously mentioned, and according to Social Identity Theory, the members of the in-group derive their self-esteem and enhance their status by favouring their in-group products (Mueller et al., 2016). However, it has been argued that members of the in-group may not always derive

status from their own in-group members (Mueller and Broderick, 2010). In developing countries and emerging markets, such as Egypt, it has even been observed that consumers may favour foreign products despite being of lower quality and higher price compared to domestic products (e.g., Batra et al., 2000; Winit et al., 2014). This may be attributed to the construct of Xenocentrism. Consumer Xenocentrism is defined as “an orientation where a person prefers products from a country other than their own and rates products in reference to that foreign country and not their own” (Mueller et al., 2016, p. 74). In other words, individuals may view their own domestic products as being inferior and idealise foreign products from other countries (Prince et al., 2016). This preference towards foreign products may be due to factors such as status and prestige associated with the product from the foreign country (Lawrence, 2012), in line with comments received from the respondents completing the survey.

## **6.9 Findings in the Context of Egypt and Developing Countries**

The influence of the feeling of attachment to an individual's own group and how these feelings are expressed has been discussed by Ma et al. (2020). These influences are expressed in the form of commitment toward purchasing domestic products and have been documented within developed countries (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Samiee, 1994; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2008; Acikdilli et al., 2018) and developing countries (Sklair, 1994; Agbonifoh and Elimimian, 1999; Batra et al., 2000; Wang and Chen, 2004). This is the first study that pulls together these types of constructs and applies them in a developing country context in an attempt to identify the most significant factors influencing consumers' willingness to pay for local origin products. A total of 22 hypotheses were developed and tested, providing in-depth insight into the nature of Egyptian consumers and their tendency to pay for domestic products. The results of this research underline

some findings that contradict those of earlier research and can only be understood from the context of this study. For example, National Identity had a direct positive effect on Evaluation of Foreign Products, which challenges the results of other studies undertaken on developed countries (e.g., Olsen et al., 1994; Lantz and Loeb, 1996; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). Likewise, unlike previous research (e.g., Hogg and Terry, 2000; Stoner et al., 2011), Self-Categorisation was found to have no significant effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products. In turn, Self-Categorisation has a non-mediating effect on the indirect relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin. This result was explained from the context of the Egyptian market by showing how Egyptian consumers' attachment to the nation posited by National Identity may stimulate the individual to see him/herself as part of a group, yet it does not necessarily encourage or motivate collective behaviour. These studies cited above clearly indicates the importance of the context of the research in explaining these relationships, and the necessity for more research on the developing markets.

Prior research documented the positive relationship between the level of economic development and how consumers perceive the quality of domestic products (such as Gaedeke, 1973; Wang and Lamb, 1983; Toyne and Walters, 1989; Reardon et al., 2005; Evanschitzky et al., 2008). For instance, imported products from countries that are economically developed may be perceived to be of a higher quality than those from a developing country or domestic counterparts.

Previous research in developing countries suggested the "patriot's paradox" (Wang, 2008, p. 19). This concept manifests where the domestic products are being compared against potentially cheaper and/or better-quality foreign products (Dong and Tian, 2009; Bi et al., 2012). Ma et al. (2020) suggested that, when it

came to developing countries, consumers' desire to purchase high-quality products may not always be fully satisfied by domestic products. This is because consumers in developing countries may be purchasing products imported from foreign countries to signify high social status or material achievement (Batra et al., 2000; Cleveland et al., 2009) and resemblance to the western lifestyle (Ghose and Lowengart, 2001). In addition, consumers in developing countries may prefer foreign products to benefit from membership in a global community (Strizhakova et al., 2008; Xie et al., 2015). Therefore, consumers in developing countries may have a favourable perception of foreign products. In developing countries, favouring foreign products may be seen as more fulfilling to an individual's distinctiveness needs, while favouring domestic products targets the individual's assimilation need.

The benefits encompassing the perceived globalness of global brands seem to be most apparent within the developing economies' context (Batra et al., 2000; Swoboda et al., 2012). By focusing on developing countries and emerging economies, a clearer understanding of the benefits of the perceived globalness of global brands is acquired. Hence, the current study is conducted in a developing country, in this case, Egypt.

The current research offers respective contributions by focusing on the intriguing contradictions of findings in developing countries. First, the current study systematically assessed the moderating role of the values of Conservation based on Schwartz (1994a). This assessment provided more insight regarding research in developing countries and emerging economies rather than the existing stereotypes. Previous research supports that Schwartz's value orientations capture more cultural aspects to assess individual-level cultural orientations than that of Hofstede's cultural framework (Steenkamp, 2001; Ng et al., 2007). Second,

based on the Social Identity Theory, the current study proposes novel interpretations regarding the influence of National Identity on the Willingness to Pay for local origin products within a developing country context; hence gaining more insight into the consumption patterns of Egyptian consumers.

## 6.10 Summary

In summary, a total of 22 hypotheses were developed and tested, with the end results shown in Table 6.1.

**Table 6.1: Summary of the Results of the 22 Hypotheses**

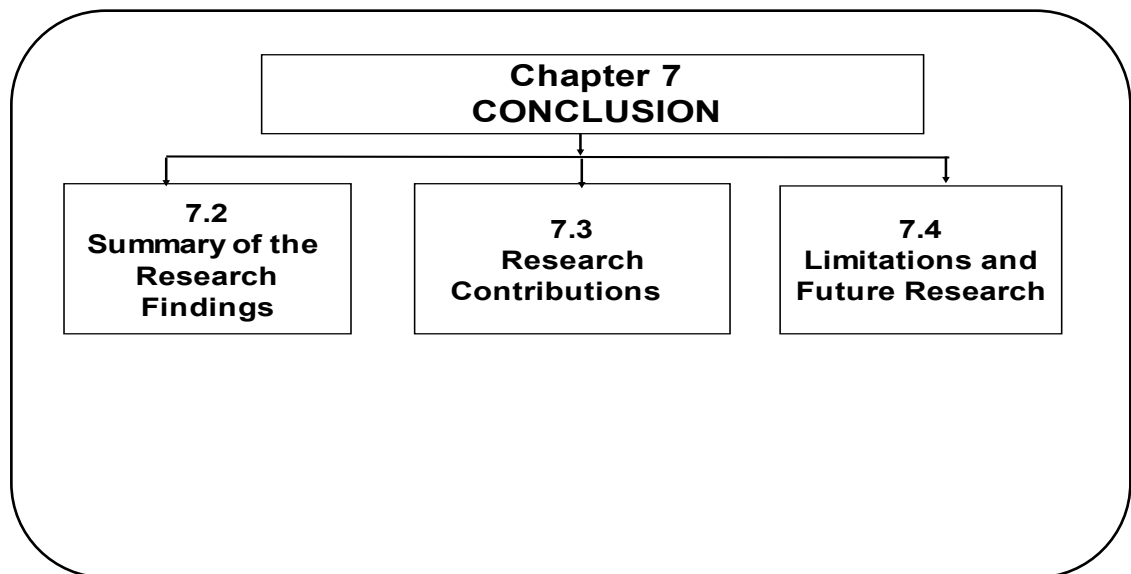
No.	Hypotheses	Result
H1	National Identity has a direct positive effect on Egyptian consumers' Willingness to Pay for local origin products.	Rejected
H2a	National Identity has a direct negative effect on Evaluation of Foreign Products.	Rejected
H2b	Evaluation of Foreign Products has a direct negative effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products.	Accepted
H2c	National Identity has an indirect effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through decreasing Evaluation of Foreign Products.	Accepted
H3a	National Identity has a direct positive effect on Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products.	Accepted
H3b	Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products has a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products.	Accepted
H3c	National Identity has an indirect effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products.	Accepted
H4a	National Identity has a direct positive effect on Purchase Decision Involvement.	Accepted
H4b	Purchase Decision Involvement has a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for Local Origin Products.	Accepted
H4c	National Identity has an indirect effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Purchase Decision Involvement.	Accepted
H5a	National Identity has a direct positive effect on Self-Categorisation.	Accepted
H5b	Self-Categorisation has a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products.	Rejected
H5c	National Identity has an indirect positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Self-Categorisation.	Rejected
H6a	National Identity has a direct positive effect on Perceived Quality.	Accepted
H6b	Perceived Quality has a direct positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products.	Accepted
H6c	National Identity has an indirect positive effect on Willingness to Pay for local origin products through increasing Perceived Quality.	Accepted
H7	The influence of National Identity on Willingness to Pay for local origin products is moderated by Conservation, so that the effect is stronger ( <i>weaker</i> ) when conservation is high ( <i>low</i> ).	Accepted
H8:	Conservation moderates the strength of the mediated relationships between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products via:	
H8a	Evaluation of Foreign Products	Accepted
H8b	Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products	Rejected
H8c	Purchase Decision Involvement	Accepted
H8d	Self-Categorisation	Rejected
H8e	Perceived Quality	Rejected

## Chapter 7 : CONCLUSIONS

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### 7.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present a summary of the key findings of the current study. This summarization will be followed by a section dedicated to research contributions where the theoretical, analytical, managerial, policy-making and societal contributions are highlighted. Also, observed limitations regarding the current research are pointed out to express difficulties and obstacles faced while conducting the study. Finally, future recommendations are provided, which include further improvements and advances in the research field. A detailed discussion will be presented in the upcoming sub-sections. Figure 7.1 demonstrates the structure of this chapter.



**Figure 7.1 Structure of Chapter Seven**

## **7.2 Summary of the Research Findings**

The main research aim is to examine the effect of National Identity of Egyptian consumers on the Willingness to Pay for local origin products. This primary aim is accompanied by four research objectives which were met through the key findings of this study.

One of the objectives of this study is to examine the relationship between Egyptian consumers' National Identity and their Willingness to Pay for local origin products. This study determined that Egyptian consumers have a strong level of National Identity. In addition, the findings reveal a non-significant direct relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Thus, Egyptian consumers did not show a tendency towards Willingness to Pay a premium price for local origin products at any cost. A possible explanation for this finding is that some of the Egyptian consumers that participated in the study expressed the need for reliable local products with high quality and that they may be willing to pay a premium price if the quality is equivalent to the price. Also, the findings reveal that Egyptian consumers may not be willing to pay a premium price for local products due to the existence of mediating factors. Accordingly, this study has provided further understanding of Egyptian consumers' level of National Identity and their Willingness to Pay for local origin products. This finding also encouraged testing of the influence of potential mediatory mechanisms.

The results of the mediatory mechanisms revealed that there are two partially mediated findings related to foreign products and one partially mediated relationship related to Purchase Decision Involvement. Also, the findings revealed a non-mediated relationship between National Identity and Willingness

to Pay for local origin products through increasing Self-Categorisation. In addition, partial mediation was established between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products by increasing the Perceived Quality of domestic products. These results will be further elaborated on within the second objective, which discusses the mediatory mechanisms.

The second objective intended to explain how National Identity affects Willingness to Pay for local origin products in the presence of the mediators. The findings of this study reveal that Egyptian consumers with a high sense of National Identity tend to pay more attention to maintaining a positive social identity among members of their group (society) rather than discriminating against foreign products. This finding is complemented by the need to find products with reliable quality, consistency, and availability of local alternatives. In addition, it was found that Egyptian consumers may respond to in-group threats, such as threats to the national economy or levels of unemployment, by favouring domestic products over foreign ones due to moral reasons. Nevertheless, this does not necessarily imply refusing foreign products in the case of a lack of domestic alternatives or poor quality of domestic products. Also, it is important to note that Egyptian consumers express their high levels of National Identity in the form of purchasing domestic products due to high levels of involvement in the purchase decision making process. This outcome lies in the extent to which the consumer is motivated to make the right choice, in this case, buying domestic products.

In the comments section of the distributed questionnaire, some respondents elaborated on their answers by emphasising that they purchase products based on price in relation to quality and not on the country-of-origin. Several other

respondents inclined toward agreeing that Egyptian products, especially food items, are considered to be of high quality and are cheaper than foreign products.

Notably, a market and finances report showed that 40% of Egyptian consumers reported that they plan on moving towards cheaper and local products in food and beverages (ElAraby, 2017). Furthermore, ElAraby stated that “the ‘home-grown’ advantage cannot be underestimated as local brands start to prove their worth. While price is the main driver, a sense of loyalty in support of the local economy is also emerging, with 33% of consumers stating Patriotism for Egyptian brands, beyond just price” (p. 11).

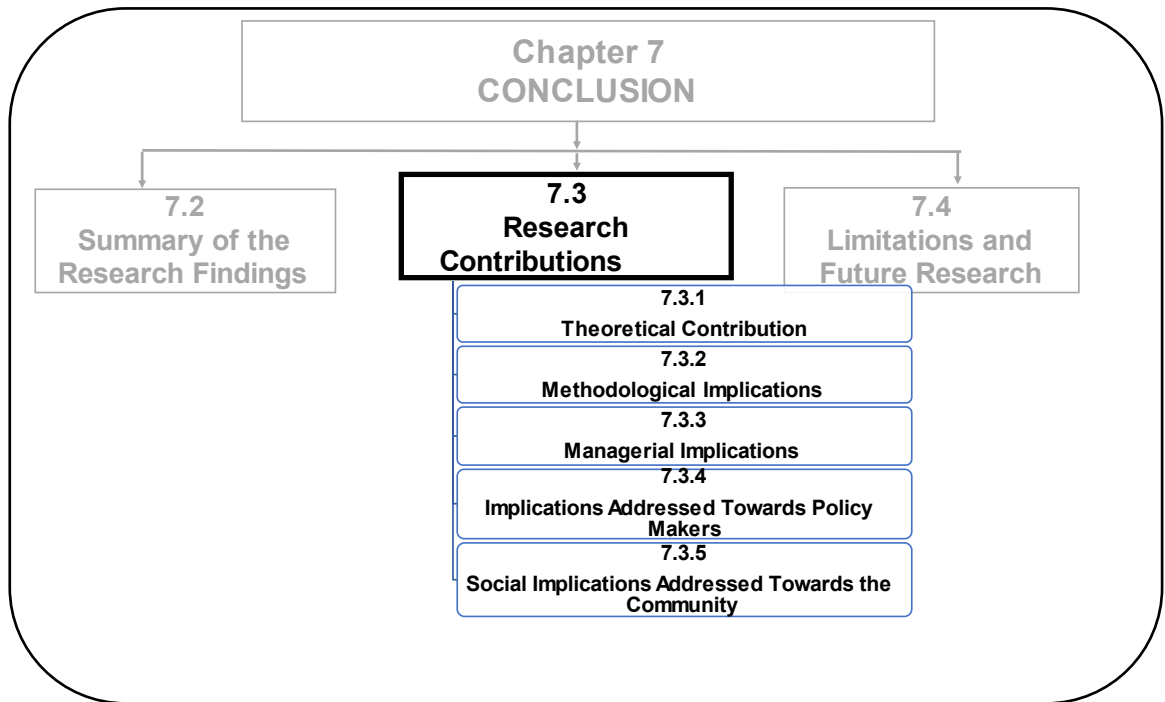
Therefore, it was concluded that Egyptian consumers might seek high-quality products at affordable prices. Some of the typical Egyptian products that they bought were food, day-to-day groceries and fresh produce and Egyptian cotton products. Typical foreign products that they would buy included items such as electronic devices and gadgets, cosmetics and some clothing items. This outcome reveals that Egyptian consumers may face the issue of a lack of availability of domestic alternatives for some products. As a result, this study revealed the indirect influence of National Identity on Willingness to Pay for local origin products in the presence of mediators showing the various mediating or non-mediating influences. This outcome allowed for further exploration of the conceptual model and testing of the moderated-mediation relationships presented in the third objective.

The third objective revolves around if and to what extent consumer values (especially Conservation) influence the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products. The findings show that Egyptian consumers may likely subscribe to the values of Conservation (Tradition, Security

and Conformity). Moreover, values of Conservation were found to enhance the strength of the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products. In fact, it was concluded that the values of Conservation may increase the strength of the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products through maintaining a positive social identity among the members of the collective society to overcome threats to the customs and norms.

### **7.3 Research Contributions**

The original objectives of this research were achieved by investigating the relationships between National Identity and Willingness to pay for local origin products while being mediated by Evaluation of Foreign Products, Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products, Self-Categorisation, Purchase Decision Involvement and the Perceived Quality of domestic products. This mediated relationship was also examined under the moderating effect of the values of Conservation. This study and its findings present several contributions, which can be divided into theoretical contributions, data analysis implications, managerial implications, and implications addressed towards policy-makers and society (community). Figure 7.2 highlights the structure of section 7.3.

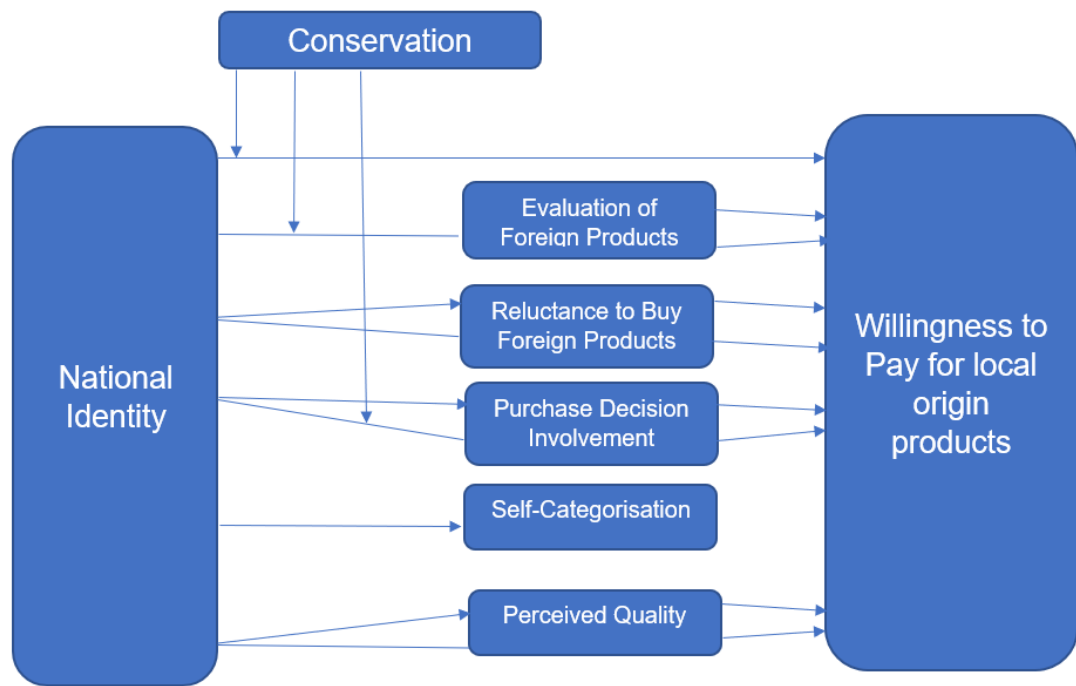


**Figure 7.2 Structure of Section 7.3 - Research Contributions**

#### 7.3.1 Theoretical Contribution

This thesis offers original theoretical contributions which relate to disciplines of National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products in the Egyptian market, as follows:

**First**, One of the foremost contributions of this study is a model that details several important factors that influence consumers' willingness to pay for a local origin product in a developing country such as Egypt. These factors can either directly or indirectly impact the Willingness to Pay. Although no direct relationship is found between National Identity and Willingness to Pay, there are several mediators, as well as moderators to the mediated relationships between the two constructs, as shown in Figure 7.3.



**Figure 7.3 A Framework For The Factors Influencing The Willingness to Pay for Local Origin Products**

The framework illustrated in Figure 7.3 represents the variables directly influencing consumers' Willingness to Pay as mediators between National Identity and Willingness to Pay, including evaluation of foreign products, reluctance to buy foreign products, purchase decision involvement, and perceived quality. More specifically, Egyptian consumers who have a strong National Identity are likely to behave in certain ways. First, they are more likely to form negative or biased evaluations of the foreign products. This outcome would likely drive them to prefer products of the Egyptian origin. Further, to safeguard their identity and ensure it remains positive, Egyptian consumers may be attentive and responsive to their in-groups' perceived threats, such as those pertaining to the national economy. In such cases, Egyptian consumers would attempt to help their country's economy by displaying reluctance to buy foreign products, which, in turn, would drive them to be more willing to pay for the Egyptian origin products.

It is important to note that this, however, necessitates the availability of the domestic alternatives; otherwise, consumers may have to turn to the foreign product to satisfy their needs. Likewise, the more the Egyptian consumer with strong National Identity is encouraged to make the right choice that is in favour of the national economy; the more likely s/he will pay for the Egyptian goods as an affective motive for the decision-making. In other words, by realising the importance of these products to their national values and self-concept, consumers may become more involved in the welfare of their society, which they display by making a purchase decision of the Egyptian products. Finally, the outcomes of the current study show that some Egyptian consumers have the propensity to believe that some domestic goods are of excellent quality because of their strong sense of National Identity. By favouring the other members of their in-group, the consumers' tendency to pay more for products with local origins increases as they are urged to uphold a positive self-image. Among the products that some Egyptian consumers form a positive perception of their quality are fruits, vegetables, and Egyptian cotton products. Nonetheless, due to the lack of a perceived quality alternative, some foreign origin products, such as electronic devices and gadgets, cars, and mobile phones, are still being favoured by some Egyptian consumers despite having a strong National Identity. It has even been previously noted that consumers in some developing countries and emerging markets may favour imported goods even though they are of lower quality and more expensive than local ones (e.g., Batra et al., 2000; Winit et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2021). This pattern can be expected to apply to Egypt as a developing country. Specifically, people could consider their own local items to be subpar and idealise international goods from other nations (Prince et al., 2016). This desire for foreign

goods may be brought on by elements like the status and prestige attached to the foreign product (Lawrence, 2012).

On the other hand, there is an important factor that can strengthen (or moderate) the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay, as well as some of the aforementioned mediated relationships; this factor is Conservation. Specifically, the value of Conservation can strengthen the relationship between consumers' National Identity and their Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Consumers subscribing to the values of Conservation may favour domestic goods to safeguard and improve the stability and security of their home country. As a result, Egyptian consumers frequently reflect the improved sense of belonging brought on by National Identity, thereby preserving and protecting the country's economy. Furthermore, in relation to consumers' evaluation of the foreign products, Egyptian consumers that subscribe to the value of Conservation may likely view imported items as a danger to their norms and habits. Consequently, they may form unfavourable opinions around these foreign goods, as they perceive them as harmful to the national economy and local employment levels. This, in turn, drives them to be more willing to pay for Egyptian products. In a similar manner, in relation to the involvement of Egyptian consumers in the purchase decision, those who have a strong sense of National Identity demonstrate it through their purchases of the goods that were made locally for the benefit of society. Of those, consumers that subscribe to the values of Conservation will have an even stronger urge and interest in purchasing goods of a local origin, likely out of a sense of duty and responsibility. Egyptian buyers' involvement can be a result of the associated risk of their purchase, how essential the product is to them, and their own perception of themselves. Consequently, Egyptian consumers with high levels of National Identity and involvement

exhibited a propensity to buy local goods since they reflect their values and self-concept. Consumers in Egypt have a strong propensity for the values of Conservation, which encourage group behaviour toward a secure society. Therefore, in the presence of a strong National Identity, strong Conservation values may increase the link between National Identity and involvement in the purchase decision to uphold the stability of one's country as a duty or an act of patriotism.

**Second**, this study contributes to the body of knowledge by conducting a systematic literature review that provides insight and contributions to the existing literature. This systematic literature review critically evaluates the existing literature on National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism. Also, this study critically evaluates the literature on Country-of-Origin and values to present valid and reliable definitions.

**Third**, earlier research has commonly examined National Identity within developed countries' contexts (Hammad et al., 2014). Hence, scholars such as Wang and Chen (2004), Paul (2019) and Ma et al. (2020) called for further research on National Identity within developing countries where a lack of research has been conducted. Therefore, this study examined the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products within Egypt, an Arab developing country. The specific focus on Egyptian consumers allowed us to extend our knowledge about National Identity and consumer behaviour to Egyptian consumers, where little research has been conducted. As a result, this study contributes to the existing marketing theory by exploring the construct of National Identity in different countries, which might convey different meanings as suggested by Burgess and Steenkamp (2006), Okazaki and Mueller (2007),

Fastoso and Whitelock (2010 and 2011), Onyancha (2011) and Lages et al. (2015).

**Fourth**, this research provides original incremental contribution by employing existing theory to investigate the relationships between constructs (Conlon, 2002; Corley and Gioia, 2011). Moreover, the findings of this research advance our understanding of the Social Identity Theory. Social Identity Theory is often used to explain how consumers express their National Identity (Carvalho and Luna, 2014). Therefore, in this research, National Identity was viewed as a proxy of the social identity, where the norms associated with this National Identity are considered important factors in determining the attitudes toward out-groups. While Social Identity Theory assumes that individuals receive their positive self-identity by comparing their in-group and out-group while favouring their own group (Tajfel and Turner 2004), the results show how consumers may prefer the products of a foreign country (out-group) in some situations. In particular, the effect of the national identification varies depending on factors such as consumer attitudes towards foreign products, the sense of belonging, the level of involvement and the perceived domestic quality. Specifically, from the Social Identity Theory perspective, the emotional significance for an individual of his/her membership of an in-group encourages him/her to behave in favour of this in-group. Furthermore, as Social Identity Theory posits that individuals tend to engage in identity-protecting behaviours (Tajfel 1974) when they feel that their self-identity is threatened by the out-group (Brewer, 1979; Brewer 1999), this research introduced values of conservation as the basis on which some behaviours are controlled/ restrained (Schwartz, 1996) to protect one's identity (e.g., for buying local origin products instead of the foreign ones). Conservation emphasises the preservation of established customs and promotes stability,

which symbolises dedication to one's in-group (Schwartz, 1994b; Schwartz, 2012); it emphasises order and resistance to change, hence, protection of the familiar identity. Therefore, this research extends an existing understanding by providing original incremental insights, which refer to “advancing our theoretical understanding about a certain topic” (Corley and Gioia, 2011, p. 16).

**Fifth**, several marketing scholars such as Verlegh (2007), Josiassen (2011), Zeugner-Roth et al. (2015) and Han (2017) proposed disentangling consumer ethnocentric tendencies from the sense of National Identity. Accordingly, this study contributes to the existing literature by focusing on the construct of National Identity and its dimensions while exploring National Identity as an in-group construct. This contribution is important for theory development because the idea that people prefer local origin products does not necessarily imply that they discriminate against foreign products.

Moreover, Evaluation of Foreign Products and Reluctance to Buy Foreign Products partially mediated the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Both mediating variables address foreign products, but the results show that consumers with a high level of National Identity place more focus on local products and maintaining a positive social identity among members of their group (society) rather than discriminating against foreign products. These results drive further studying both variables in parallel or sequential mediation mechanisms in a separate model. Hence, the current research contributed to the existing research by supporting National Identity as being a pro-in-group concept and suggests further research to explore how this influences judgments towards foreign products.

**Sixth**, the proposed conceptual framework (figure 3.2) offers the opportunity to investigate the relationships between several related constructs in different contexts, such as countries with similar culture or other developing countries. The proposed conceptual framework enhances our understanding of the mediated and moderated mediated relationships between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products. This study also offers an opportunity for this conceptual framework to be employed by researchers investigating similar relationships. Additionally, gaining more insight into Egyptian consumers allowed testing of the existing National Identity measurement model to determine whether it is sufficient to explain Egyptian consumers' Willingness to Pay for local origin products. This contributes to the existing marketing literature by applying the NATID measurement scale in more Arab countries (Cui and Adams, 2002).

**Seventh**, this research contributes to the existing literature by employing Schwartz's (1992) personal value system of consumers to examine the association between National Identity and the process of product evaluation and Willingness to Pay for local origin products (for Egyptian consumers). Schwartz's personal value system allows focusing on individual-level cultural traits within a country. This contribution extends the existing literature beyond the stereotyped country-level cultural traits, such as Hofstede's cultural framework and cross-country comparisons that are commonly used (Henderson et al., 2013).

In addition, the results revealed that consumers with a strong sense of National Identity make the concerns and goals of the group (that they are a member of) their own and act to increase the sense of belonging to that group (Carvalho and Luna, 2014; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). These results confirmed the direct relationship between National Identity and Self-Categorisation. However, Self-Categorisation was found to neither have a mediating effect nor a moderating

role on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products. This outcome implies that having a strong National Identity may increase the sense of belonging, which lies in Self-Categorisation, but this relationship may not have any further collective behaviour. This was also noticed in the presence of a strong sense of values of Conservation. Therefore, the outcomes of the current research contributed to the existing research by highlighting that considering oneself as a member of society and having feelings of attachment and empathy towards society may come naturally without having to be followed by collective behaviour.

### 7.3.2 Data Analysis Implications

On a statistical analysis level, this study offers several implications by employing several statistical techniques.

**First**, this research included exploratory factor analysis as a statistical technique to investigate the reliability, convergent and discriminant validity of the constructs. This analysis was followed by confirmatory composite analysis to further re-endorse the reliability and validity of all constructs as part of structural equation modeling. Structural equation modeling was used to comprehensively investigate relationships among exogenous and endogenous variables, which fits the aims of this research. To date and to the author's knowledge, the structural equation modeling bootstrap technique has not been previously employed to validate the investigated model.

**Second**, common method bias was checked to eliminate measurement errors or bias, using three statistical approaches: Harman's one factor, Marker Variable and Full Collinearity Assessment. Accordingly, these statistical techniques

yielded final scales for all the researched constructs that can be further employed in other research.

**Third**, partial least squares structural equation modeling was applied to build the measurement model and to test the structural model. This permits the analysis of various levels of measurement using the same model (Hair et al., 2011b; Hair et al., 2017). To date and to the author's knowledge, partial least squares structural equation modeling using Smart-PLS has not been previously employed in this manner to test the investigated model.

### 7.3.3 Managerial Implications

In addition to the theoretical and data analysis contributions, this study highlights several managerial implications that target managerial practices to generate more precise managerial decisions and judgments. The following are the recommendations for managers and global marketers planning to enter developing and emerging markets:

**First**, previous research showed that "buy local" slogans may encourage favourable attitudes towards local products but do not necessarily lead to the actual purchasing of the products (Yildiz et al., 2018). This study provides information suggesting that country-of-origin of the products is not the Egyptian consumer's primary concern. Therefore, local businesses should encourage collective behaviour through a communication strategy that goes beyond the origin of the product. Hence, local businesses could place more emphasis on conveying a societal message to consumers who are committed to their local products to strengthen the protective behaviour of the consumers towards their local society.

**Second**, when entering developing markets, it is inaccurate to assume that all consumers from the same culture share the same cultural values (Ma et al., 2020). The findings of this study contribute to managers' decisions related to market strategies' adjustment by relying on individual-level values. The findings of the current study reveal the importance of focusing on individual-level cultural traits rather than country-level culture when considering developing economies and emerging markets. The findings highlight the potential risks associated with assuming that all consumers from the same culture share the same cultural values. Moreover, focusing on individual-level cultural values enhances managerial judgments yielding more precise decisions. Therefore, the effect of the values of Conservation should not dissuade managers from entering foreign markets. It is advised that managers use a differentiated segmentation scheme rather than a standardized segmentation scheme when entering different markets. Other strategies managers and marketers could consider when entering foreign markets with consumers subscribing to the values of Conservation is the localization strategy. This approach is similar to what McDonald's implements in various countries in order to preserve the traditional practices of its consumers. For example, in Vietnam, to cater to the tastes and preferences of the Vietnamese people, McDonald's had to localise its menu based on Vietnamese culture and the staple ingredients of rice and peanuts. It thus introduced meals like the "McThai," which combines a variety of herbs, veggies, and meats (Tien, 2019).

**Third**, Consumer Ethnocentrism is a dimension of National Identity, which is a pro-in-group construct. This means that it is only concerned with the welfare of the members of the in-group (maintaining a positive social identity) without discriminating against members of out-groups (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015), National Identity. This, in turn, implies that global corporations must consider the

effect of Consumer Ethnocentrism on perceiving foreign products before undergoing any trading agreements. Generally, Consumer Ethnocentrism suggests favouring domestic products while rejecting foreign ones (Ma et al., 2020). Therefore, global marketers may try to overcome the ethnocentric consumer barriers by aspiring to distinctiveness. By highlighting the distinct nature of National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism, this study provides further evidence for marketers to use these constructs as segmentation variables. Likewise, as the result pertaining to purchase-decision involvement reveals, highly involved consumers with strong National Identity will be more inclined to pay for the products. Thus, marketers should get their potential customers more involved in the purchase decision by signalling and emphasizing the importance of their products to the national economy as well as to their own values and self-concept.

**Fourth**, advertisements and promotions featuring messages regarding values of Conservation (Tradition, Security and Conformity) may reinforce a positive effect of National Identity on the consumers. Marketers who choose to overlook the National Identity expressions may be missing an important aspect that influences consumer behaviour that works against factors aimed at erasing boundaries and constraints between countries (Cleveland and Laroche, 2007). For example, an advertising campaign highlighting Belgium's famous history of cheese production was found to enhance the level of National Identity and encourage purchasing (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). Based on the empirical findings of this study, it is suggested that marketers who are targeting the high level of National Identity consumer segment adopt brand positioning strategies that promote positive association with the brand. Hence, promoting Egypt's long-standing reputation

for quality cotton products, for instance, may leverage National Identity among Egyptian consumers and increase purchases.

**Fifth**, empirical evidence from this study also reveals that the perceived quality of domestic products is shown to be a critical issue for Egyptian consumers. Hence, managers may benefit from the perceived quality of domestic products as an opportunity for differentiation in the market. For instance, marketers could focus on a specific product that acts as an indicator of how Egyptian consumers perceive products from different countries. This enables marketers to further understand how Egyptian consumers perceive different products. In the case of products such as electronic devices and gadgets, cars, or mobile phones, the potentially low quality of local alternatives, or lack of thereof, for these products can create a threat in the long run as consumers may adapt to the constant purchase of foreign products. However, it can also present an opportunity for the businesses to grow by diversifying their offering and developing new local products that satisfy the consumers' needs.

**Sixth**, regarding marketing practice and marketing mix, the level and influences of National Identity may provide marketers with useful information to better understand the concept behind Egyptian consumers' Willingness to Pay for local origin products (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015; Trudel et al., 2016). Moreover, marketers can gain better knowledge about the typical type of Egyptian products that Egyptian consumers purchase. For example, Egyptian consumers listed day-to-day products, fresh produce, and Egyptian cotton products as some of the typical local Egyptian products that they purchase.

**Seventh**, global marketers can focus on consumers with high levels of National Identity by understanding what makes these consumers feel special when owning

and consuming that product. This result could be achieved by promoting distinct product characteristics such as high durability, symbolic significance, prestigious image or brand reputation and surpassing functionality.

#### 7.3.4 Social Implications Addressed Towards the Community

As observed from the findings of this research, a strong national identification encourages the desire to protect and support one's own society. Individuals identifying themselves as members of a nation are motivated to satisfy this obligation by acting in favour of the society and its members. Therefore, it is important to sharpen the focus on events and situations that strengthen the sense of national identification and bring members of society together. In other words, it is essential to expel any negativity within the members of society and focus on positive situations. A recent example took place in March 2021 in Egypt when a 1,300ft container ship became lodged sideways across the path of the Suez Canal. Consequently, the traffic for other vessels was blocked in the Suez Canal for over a week (BBC, 2021). Meanwhile, the whole world was watching the incident and calculating the great losses that kept facing the Suez Canal company. Similarly, Egyptians held their breath as they awaited a solution from foreign companies. The container ship was ultimately freed through local efforts and traffic in the Suez Canal resumed as the refloating efforts were branded as a source of Egyptian pride. Such positive situations nourish the sense of national identification and encourage members of society to satisfy obligations towards the nation.

## **7.4 Limitations and Future Research**

It is important to point out that this study is not intended to distinguish between National Identity in developing and developed countries. Nevertheless, despite the popularity of National Identity as a research topic, existing studies were primarily conducted from the perspective of western and developed countries (Hammad et al., 2014). A lack of research undertaken in Egypt (an Arab, developing country) in the field of National Identity encouraged this research to remedy the void in the literature. In fact, the majority of studies conducted to explain Egyptian consumer behaviour covered a limited spectrum of topics, including green consumption (Mostafa, 2006, 2007), environmental friendliness and environmental awareness, ethical consumption (Al-Khatib et al., 1997; Mustafa, 2011), and Corporate Social Responsibility, ethics educational and cause-related marketing (Carrigan and Attalla, 2001; Ellen et al., 2006; Tantawi et al., 2009; El Bassiouny et al., 2011; Kolkailah et al., 2012; Hammad et al., 2014). Therefore, this study contributes to extending our knowledge about National Identity and consumer behaviour to the Egyptian consumer, where a lack of research has been conducted. This study is conducted on Egyptian consumers living in Egypt to examine the influence of National Identity on the Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Hence, the findings cannot be generalised to all developing countries, Middle Eastern or Arab countries without further investigation. This limitation offers potential for future research in other developing countries and emerging markets to be able to nourish the existing research for future reference.

Another limitation of this research involves restraints in sampling large segments of the Egyptian population due to factors such as poverty or challenges with

literacy, mobility or access to the internet. This limitation in research insights was identified by Parameswaran and Pisharodi (2002), stating that residents of the same country may have varying opinions. Therefore, as a future recommendation, larger sample size may act as a future opportunity for more insightful research.

The lack of focus on a specific product is another observed limitation. This limitation gave the study a broader nature. While this limitation did not restrict the research process, it would have enabled Egyptian consumers to specify the products that they value more. Accordingly, by adding various product categories, the research could gain a deeper insight into the structure of the patterns of the preference of Egyptian consumers.

The current research was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic, which imposed multiple constraints. Following guidance from the World Health Organization and local rules and regulations, fieldwork was restricted through social distancing, lockdowns, and stay-at-home orders. As a result, only a web questionnaire was administered as the primary data collection method. In addition, one must take into consideration the possible influence that this pandemic and various economic and social impacts have had on the population, their priorities, availability for surveying, and perspectives in general. Therefore, it would be favourable that future research would capture and analyze consumer perspectives in the absence of major events such as pandemics or recessions. Moreover, it is recommended to include both online and offline questionnaires for future research to be able to benefit from the advantages of online questionnaires, such as efficiency and wider geographic coverage and those of offline questionnaires, such as quicker responses and cheaper cost. Furthermore, follow up interviews with respondents are recommended for future

research to gain deeper insights into their points of view on the collected information.

Moreover, a future recommendation regarding moderated mediation is suggested. In this study, conditional process analysis was applied to test whether the mediation is moderated. The conditional process analysis of this study suggested that there is an indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variables through the mediators using “First form moderated mediation” (Hayes, 2017, figure 1, model C). While this form of conditional analysis did not affect the quality or credibility of this study, it is suggested as a future recommendation to examine moderation using a different model, to be more specific, placing the moderator between the mediating variables and dependent variables using “First form moderated mediation” Figure 1, model D (Hayes, 2017, p. 4).

For future research, it is suggested to explore the effect of Perceived Consumer Effectiveness on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products. Perceived Consumer Effectiveness is defined as “a domain-specific belief that the efforts of an individual can make a difference in the solution to a problem” (Ellen et al., 1991, p.103). Scholars such as Stryker and Serpe (1982); Wicklund and Gollwitzer (1982); Giles and Johnson (1987); Turner (1987); Hinkle and Brown (1990); Hogg (1992) provided evidence supporting that identity can derive behaviour when it becomes salient. Nonetheless, Chan et al. (1986) and Norman and Aron (2003) highlighted that if an individual does not feel that s/he has the power to achieve the ideal identity (helping their own country and members of the in-group), his/her motivation to pursue the ideal identity declines. Therefore, it is important to note that “a person cannot be effective if s/he does not know what to do” (Ellen et al., 1991, p.114).

Keesling and Kaynama (2003) and Cho et al. (2013) highlighted that, to the best of their knowledge, Perceived Consumer Effectiveness has not been considered in local products experimental research. This omission was due to the scarcity of messages for local products that show what differences consumers can make when purchasing local products (even if they cost more). Perhaps consumers could enhance Perceived Consumer Effectiveness by performing small and manageable tasks in the form of Willingness to Pay for local products and emphasising the results at the local level. This is another promising topic of research regarding the role of media.

Egyptian media can play a pivotal role in informing the Egyptian audience about their potential contributions. Kolkailah et al. (2012) assert that most consumers consider media to be dependable and the most trusted source of information. Hence, it is suggested to focus on media that promote actions towards the sense of National Identity through “buy local campaigns”. Furthermore, Darwish and Huber (2003) and Robbins (2005) explained the collectivistic nature of Egypt and how Egyptians view themselves as members of groups that require them to put the needs of that group over their own needs. But when considering “buy local campaigns”, it is critical that practitioners include Perceived Consumer Effectiveness as a feedback parameter of those campaigns. As a result, giving the consumers the feeling of (and even credit for) achieving success would assist in enhancing Perceived Consumer Effectiveness, thus acting in favour of saving the economy. In brief, media messages can target the national sense of identity in an individual by informing them about the existing problem and how s/he can contribute to the solution while using Perceived Consumer Effectiveness as a feedback parameter.

In this study, a variable that had a partial mediating effect on the relationship between National Identity and Willingness to Pay for local origin products is the Perceived Quality of domestic products. The mediating influence was attributed to the high levels of National Identity, which motivates a tendency for Egyptian consumers to view domestic products as being of high quality. This actuates consumers to maintain a positive self-image which leads to a higher tendency of Willingness to Pay more for local origin products. However, this mediated relationship did not prove to be stronger in the presence of a high tendency toward the values of Conservation. This outcome implies that even though Egyptian consumers may show a tendency towards values of Conservation and collectivistic tendencies, it is not enough to drive collectivistic behaviour in the form of Willingness to Pay for local origin products. This finding could be related to Egyptian consumers perceiving day to day domestic products as being of higher quality and better price in comparison to foreign products. But in the case of a lack of domestic alternatives, such as electronics, mobile phones and gadgets, Egyptian consumers may find themselves with no other alternative but foreign ones. Hence, this research suggests combining the variables related to foreign products and the Perceived Quality of domestic products to be further examined in a separate model. This suggestion will enhance the understanding of how Egyptian consumers with high levels of National Identity evaluate foreign products and perceive the quality of domestic products.

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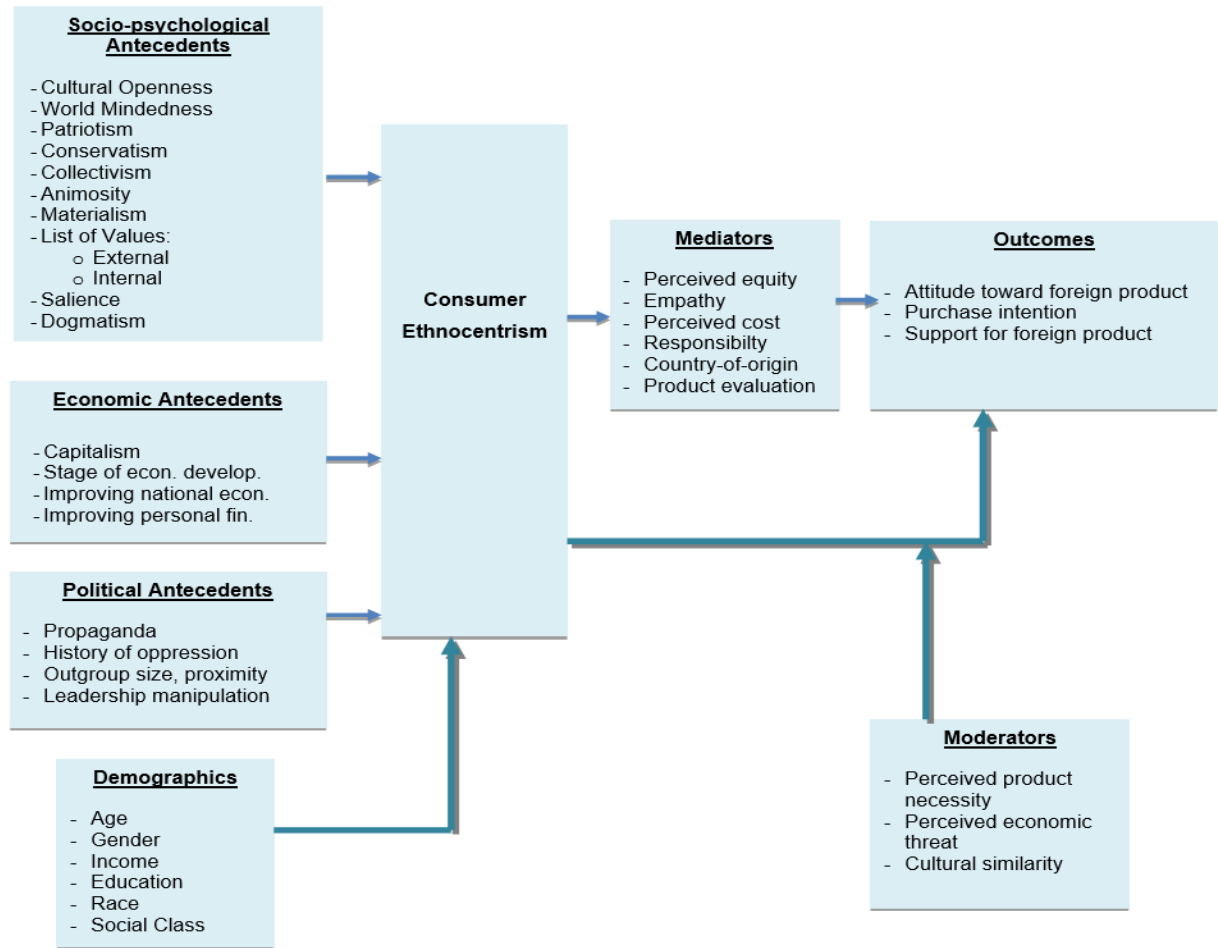
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# Appendices

## Appendix 1: Consumer Ethnocentrism, its Antecedents and Consequences



**Source:** Shankarmahesh (2006)

## Appendix 2: Studies on National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism from 1987 to 2019

Author/Year/ Journal	NI Definition	CE Definition	Sample Characteristics	Research Objectives/Questions	Core finding(s)
<b>Shimp and Sharma (1987)</b> <b>Journal of Marketing Research</b>		- "represents beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness and indeed morality of purchasing foreign-made product" (p.280). -is a uniquely economic form of ethnocentrism. - was formulated as a domain-specific concept for the study of consumer behaviour with marketing implications.	-A series of nomological validity tests. -US consumers.	<b>(1)</b> Introduce concept of CE. <b>(2)</b> Formulate and validate CETSCALE measurement.	A series of nomological validity tests show CE to be moderately predictive of theoretically related constructs.
<b>Sharma et al. (1995)</b> <b>Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science</b>		-CE results from the love and concern for one's own country and the fear of losing control of one's economic interests as the result of the harmful effects that imports may bring to oneself and countrymen. -CE contains the intention or willingness not to purchase foreign products.	-Empirical testing (Survey).  Sample: -N=1500 (Mail) -N=700(School)	<b>(1)</b> Explicate the nature and role of ethnocentrism and tie this construct into a framework of related constructs. <b>(2)</b> Specify the factors that moderate the effect of ethnocentric tendencies on consumers' attitudes toward importing products. <b>(3)</b> Empirically test hypotheses.	Consumer-ethnocentric tendencies play an increasingly influential role when: <b>(1)</b> Products are perceived as relatively unnecessary. <b>(2)</b> Consumers perceive themselves and/or the domestic economy to be threatened by the importation of a particular product.
<b>Keillor et al. (1996)</b>	NI can be most parsimoniously defined as the extent to which a given culture recognizes	-One way to explain consumer preferences in CE involves the perceived	-Empirical study.  Sample: -USA=169	<b>(1)</b> To develop an empirically sound instrument for measuring NI.	Elimination of 38 of the 53 new national identity items and 12 of the CETSCALE

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<b>Journal of International Marketing</b>	and identifies with its "cultural focus" (p.58).	appropriateness of purchasing foreign products (Shimp and Sharma 1987). - Some of the most important antecedents of CE relate directly to NI (Sharma et al., 1995).	-Japan=247 -Sweden=129  1)University students, 2)Academics, 3)Business professionals, 4) Adult female consumers.	<b>(2)</b> To explore the importance placed on a unique NI in the three nations comprising the sample. <b>(3)</b> To consider differences in the underlying dimensions comprising these countries' NI and their impact on marketing strategy.	items leading to the final 17-item NATID scale.
<b>Keillor and Hult (1999) International Marketing Review</b>	-only a few ``core" traits which the culture recognizes as setting it apart from others; that is its ``national identity" (Clark,1990). - The theoretical construct of NI is built around the notion that there are a relatively limited number of unique elements which set the culture apart and enable it to exist, associated with any given culture which makes up its NI (Clark,1990; Huntington, 1997). -NI becomes the ``set of meanings" owned by a given culture which sets	-An ethnocentric tendency is generally considered to be one in which individuals, or societies, make cultural evaluations and attributions using their own cultural perspectives as the baseline criteria. -Ethnocentrism is included in the NI framework as a means of accounting for the importance placed on maintaining culturally-centred values and behaviours (p.69).	Sample: -US=169 -Japan=294 -Sweden=129 -Hongkong=234 -Mexico=183  Survey, NATID 17-items scale.	<b>(1)</b> To develop and measure the NI of several different cultures in order to establish a means by which similarities and differences can be placed into a practically applicable context for international marketing decision making. <b>(2)</b> To establish initial generalizable NI norms for making broad cross-cultural/ cross-national comparisons.	<b>(1)</b> This study shows that groups of respondents across several cultures can be sensitive toward their national heritage and cultural homogeneity but not be particularly ethnocentric in their interactions in the business community and/or the marketplace at large. <b>(2)</b> NATID scores enable the identification of national cultures, which might dictate firm-level operational adjustments.

Author/Year/ Journal	NI Definition	CE Definition	Sample Characteristics	Research Objectives/Questions	Core finding(s)
	it apart from other cultures (p.67).				
<b>Supphellen and Rittenburg (2001)</b> <b>Psychology and Marketing</b>		-“CE implies that buying imports is wrong because it is unpatriotic and detrimental to the domestic economy and employment” (p. 908).	-Survey: CETSCALE  Sample: -N=218 Polish consumers	Explore the concept of CE when foreign brands are often clearly superior to domestic alternatives.	<b>(1)</b> If foreign brands are superior to domestic ones, CE is displayed in more positive perceptions of the domestic brands, with little or no effect on perceptions of foreign brands. <b>(2)</b> CE has greater impact on evaluations of experience qualities than on search qualities.
<b>Thompson (2001)</b> <b>Sociological Review</b>	“individuals are perceived as behaving in a certain way because their belief in collective national values ensures that they do so.” (2001, p.25).		Critically reviewing the sociological work in the areas of nation and NI.	Criticize a good deal of sociological work in this area and suggest the need to more systematically consider how individuals actively organize and account for ideas of nation and NI.	<b>(1)</b> Suggested further analysis of nation and NI to further understand these phenomena. <b>(2)</b> Criticize existing theoretical work on nations and NI. <b>(3)</b> More detailed consideration should be given to the role that individuals play in actively ordering, organizing, and making sense of issues of nation and NI (p.31).
<b>Cui and Adams (2002)</b> <b>International Marketing Review</b>	-the extent to which a given culture recognizes and identifies with a set of focal elements (i.e., “cultural focus” or “core” traits) that set it apart from other cultures by	-CE is the tendency that individuals or societies have to make evaluations and attributes using their own cultural perspectives as the	Sample: -N= 208 Yemeni consumers.  Survey: NATID scale (21 items)	<b>(1)</b> To examine the conceptual strengths and empirical limitations of NATID. <b>(2)</b> Assess the relevance of the NI construct in Yemen.	<b>(1)</b> NATID scale did not fit the Yemeni data. <b>(2)</b> Modification to the NATID scale.

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	exhibiting greater complexity and variation in the institutions of those aspects than others (Clark, 1990; Herskovits, 1948; Huntington, 1997; Keillor et al., 1996).	baseline criteria (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). -CE as a dimension of NI is viewed as a means of accounting for the importance placed on maintaining culturally-centred values and behaviours (Keillor and Hult, 1999).			
<b>Blank and Schmidt (2003)</b> <b>Political Psychology</b>	-“The importance of national affiliation as well as the subjective significance of an inner bond with the nation” (p.296). -NI describes the positive and important emotional bond with a nation (Tajfel and Turner, 1986).		-Empirical tests -The data are based on a representative postal survey carried out in 1996. -N=985 (West) and 372 East German citizens. -N= 396 West and 175 East Germans.	-This paper investigates the ways in which nationalism and patriotism are related to attitudes toward minorities.	<b>(1)</b> Distinguish empirically between nationalism and patriotism with their different associated contents. <b>(2)</b> Showed that both the relationships between items and factors (factor loadings) and the relationships between factors (structural relationships) were invariant between East and West Germans.
<b>Thelen and Honeycott. (2003)</b> <b>Journal of International Marketing</b>	The NI construct is built on basic elements of culture that “tie subcultures together within national boundaries” and provide a “sense” of national character (Keillor and Hult 1999, p. 67).		Sample: -N= 237 Soviet Russians. - N= 141 Contemporary Russians.  -Survey (NATID, CETSCALE)	(1)This research examines the structure of the national identity (NATID) scale in Russia. (2)To provide greater insight into how generations, especially in transitional economies, can have different perceptions of NI.	-This research suggests that the differences are more pronounced in transitional economies in which there have been drastic changes in lifestyles, economic well-being, and overall economic and political security.

Author/Year/ Journal	NI Definition	CE Definition	Sample Characteristics	Research Objectives/Questions	Core finding(s)
<b>Carvalho and Luna (2005)</b> Doctoral dissertation, City University of New York.	NI means that individuals routinely identify themselves as belonging to a nation and are prepared to honour their obligations arising from national identity (p.12).	Salient NI is expressed positively due to affection for the home country (consumer patriotism, consumer ethnocentrism).	Sample: -N= 95 men (53%) -N= 83 women (47%) Brazilians.  Method: -Experiment of NI activation through media context and advertising appeal.	The purpose of this research is to formulate an integrative national identity-based analysis of consumer behavior.	Results show that heightening the salience of individuals' national identity leads them to react more positively to ads and associated products.
<b>Shankarmahesh (2006)</b> International Marketing Review		CE was viewed as a "unique economic form of ethnocentrism that captures the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness and indeed morality of buying a foreign-made product" Shimp and Sharma, (1987, p.280)	Reviewing antecedents and consequences of CE.	To provide an integrative review of the antecedents and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism.	-The compendium of antecedents and consequences of CET can be used by international marketing managers for their segmentation and target marketing strategies.
<b>Verlegh (2007)</b> Journal of International Business Studies	-National identification as a motive for home country bias. -National identification is of socio-psychological nature. It reflects the desire for a positive national identity, created by a need for self-enhancement.	-CE was viewed as a "unique economic form of ethnocentrism that captures the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness and indeed morality of buying a foreign-made product" Shimp and Sharma, (1987, p.280).	Sample: -N= 249 Netherlands and USA.  Method: -Survey	<b>(1)</b> This study establishes economic and socio-psychological motives for this home country bias. <b>(2)</b> Building on social identity theory, this paper shows that home country bias is in part driven by a need for self-enhancement.	<b>(1)</b> The evaluations of foreign goods are negatively influenced by CE but not by national identification. <b>(2)</b> CE and NI are distinct constructs that represent complementary motives for home country bias, although the results also show a weak to modest

Author/Year/ Journal	NI Definition	CE Definition	Sample Characteristics	Research Objectives/Questions	Core finding(s)
		-CE is of economic nature and reflects consumers' desire to protect the domestic economy.			positive relationship between the two. (3)When NI is strong, people are highly committed to supporting their country's economy and welfare.
Josiassen (2011) Journal of Marketing	-Most members of national subgroups struggle with the question of whether to combine their subgroup identity with their NI (Transue 2007). -Such identity clashes may be found among subgroups defined by political views, religion, demographics, interests, values, and attitudes.	"beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness and indeed morality of purchasing foreign-made products" (Shimp and Sharma 1987, p. 280).	Sample: -N= 636 Netherlands.  Method: -Survey	(1)This research provides an initial test of the consumer disidentification (CDI) construct. (2)In contrast with CE, the CDI model predicts that consumers' repulsion toward their domestic country negatively affects the purchase of products made in their domestic country or by domestic firms.	In this study, CE has a direct effect on willingness to buy but no effect on product judgment.
Carvalho and Luna (2014) Journal of Business Research	-As part of the self-concept, NI serves as a form of social identity (Keane, 1994).  -"individuals are perceived as behaving in a certain way because their belief in collective national values ensures that they do so" (Thompson, 2001, p.25)	-Ethnocentric consumers are said to view purchasing foreign products as wrong because of its damage to the domestic economy, causes a loss of jobs, and is simply unpatriotic.	Sample: -N=94 men & 83 women Brazilians.  Method: -Experiment.	This paper investigates the effect of NI salience on responses to ads in two contexts: NI activated through media context and NI activated through advertising appeals.	(1)The results remain consistent with the idea that heightening NI leads individuals to react more positively to representations of that identity. (2)The salience manipulations serve to influence respondents' evaluations of ads and purchase intentions.

Author/Year/ Journal	NI Definition	CE Definition	Sample Characteristics	Research Objectives/Questions	Core finding(s)
					(3)When NI becomes salient, either directly (through the advertising appeals) or indirectly (through the media context surrounding the advertisement), then that particular identity exerts an influence on people's perception and behavior.
Siamagka and Balabanis (2015) Journal of International Marketing		Consumer ethnocentrism serves to provide people with a sense of belonging to a group as well as direction regarding what is appropriate or inappropriate purchasing behaviour (p.68).	UK Survey (1) N=206 (2) N=143 (3) N=110	Critically examines the current conceptualizations of CE and proposes an extension of its conceptual boundaries and measurement.	(1) Identifies new components of CE, including prosociality, reflexiveness, and habituation, and establishes five distinct dimensions. (2)Develops a robust scale to measure CE (CEESCALE) to help researchers identify behavioural intentions more accurately. (3)Establish the CEESCALE's superior predictive validity (to that of the CETSCALE) and offer more confidence to marketing scholars in identifying ethnocentric consumers and predicting their responses to foreign and domestic products

Author/Year/ Journal	NI Definition	CE Definition	Sample Characteristics	Research Objectives/Questions	Core finding(s)
<b>Strizhakova and Coulter (2015)</b> <b>Journal of International Marketing</b>		CE reflects values associated with consumption of local brands and support of local products more generally, and global connectedness reflects a consumer's broader engagement in and affinity with the global world (p.4).	Sample: -N= 2197  Australia, Brazil, China, India, Russia, UK & USA	<b>(1)</b> The framework focuses on ethnocentrism and global connectedness and the identity- and quality-signalling functions of local (relative to global) brands. <b>(2)</b> The authors argue for a contingency approach such that the effects of these local-global consumer values are moderated by country-level of economic development and product category symbolism.	<b>(1)</b> Purchases of local (relative to global) brands are predicated on local-global consumer values, mediated by perceptions of the identity function of local (relative to global) brands and moderated by the country's level of economic development and product category symbolism.
<b>Zeugner-Roth et al. (2015)</b> <b>Journal of International Marketing</b>	-“The importance of national affiliation as well as the subjective significance of an inner bond with the nation” (Blank and Schmidt 2003, p. 296). -Indicates the extent to which people identify with and have a positive feeling of affiliation with their own nation as well as the importance they attach to this feeling (Feather 1981; Tajfel 1978).	-CE is based primarily on an economic motive for domestic country bias and represents a normative belief that it is inappropriate to buy foreign products and that consumers should instead support domestic companies through the purchase of domestic products (Shimp and Sharma 1987). -Home country bias primarily occurs because of	-Survey -Sample: N= 411 Austrian N=405 Slovenian	<b>(1)</b> To assess the relative influence of CE, NI and consumer cosmopolitanism on consumers' product judgments and willingness to buy domestic and foreign products. <b>(2)</b> To develop an empirically based typology of consumer segments using these socio-psychological traits and subsequently profiles them on consumption relevant	The findings reveal several undiscovered patterns regarding the interplay of CE, NI and consumer cosmopolitanism as drivers of consumer behaviour and offer managerial guidance on their relevance as segmentation variables.

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		<p>anti-out-group motives, such as the rejection of foreign products in general and the portrayal of everything foreign as the antithesis (Levine and Campbell 1972; Shimp and Sharma 1987).</p> <p>-Ethnocentric consumers want to protect their economy by purchasing domestic products (e.g., Sharma 2011; Supphellen and Rittenburg 2001), which makes ethnocentrism a pro-in-group as well as an anti-out-group construct (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004; Sharma, Shimp, and Shin 1995).</p>		variables.	
Yoo and Lee (2016) Journal of Advertising	-NI means that individuals routinely identify themselves as belonging to a nation and are prepared to honour their obligations arising from national identity (Carvalho and Luna 2005).		<p>Sample: -N=453 US undergraduate students.</p> <p>Method: -Experiment.</p>	<p>(1)Examine how ethnic minorities negotiate between ethnic and national identities and respond to ads that intend to appeal to consumers through patriotism.</p> <p>(2)Proposed that activating ethnic</p>	<p>(1)The results confirm that a person's NI can be activated through a prime.</p> <p>(2)The heightened salience of NI led consumers to react more positively to ads with a patriotic theme and the advertised brands.</p>

Author/Year/ Journal	NI Definition	CE Definition	Sample Characteristics	Research Objectives/Questions	Core finding(s)
	-One's sense of NI may present itself as a mere expression of attachment, love, or loyalty to one's nation, an expression of superiority to other nations, or protective behaviour toward one's nation.			minorities' NI through a prime would affect their evaluation of ads with a patriotic theme.	<b>(3)</b> NI can be primed and made momentarily salient. <b>(4)</b> The increased NI salience may lead consumers to respond favourably to ads containing patriotic messages.
<b>Bang et al. (2017)</b> <b>Journal of Business Research</b>	"NI is the one among many co-existing and overlapping social identities" (p.67). "NI refers to an individual's feeling of belonging, love and attachment to a national community" (p.67).		Sample: <b>1)</b> N=195 US <b>2)</b> N=221 US  Method: -Experiment.	<b>(1)</b> To examine NI in diverse contexts. <b>(2)</b> Evaluate ads featuring patriotic appeals. <b>(3)</b> Proposed that the activation of NI through different priming contexts would influence the comparative persuasiveness of patriotic ad messages framed by two different regulatory foci.	<b>(1)</b> When a negative NI prime (aroused fear vs sadness), consumers responded more favourably to patriotic ads with a prevention-focused (vs. promotion-focused) patriotic appeal. <b>(2)</b> When a positive NI prime (aroused happiness or relief), consumers showed a more favourable attitude toward the promotion-focused (vs prevention-focused) patriotic appeal.
<b>Fischer and Zeugner-Roth (2017)</b> <b>Journal of Research in Marketing</b>	- "The importance of national affiliation as well as the subjective significance of an inner bond with the nation" (Blank and Schmidt, 2003, p.296).	-is a unique economic form of ethnocentrism where consumers perceive purchasing foreign products as morally inappropriate.	Sample: -N=95 Belgians. -N=82 US consumers.  Method: -Online study.	To further explore the relationship between product ethnicity and NI and CE.	<b>(1)</b> Empirical evidence that the influence of product ethnicity or NI on consumers' preferences is not ubiquitous, but that both factors depend on each other.

Author/Year/ Journal	NI Definition	CE Definition	Sample Characteristics	Research Objectives/Questions	Core finding(s)
					<p><b>(2)</b>The influence of NI on consumers' preferences for domestic products is strong if foreign product ethnicity is high.</p> <p><b>(3)</b>No effect was found in the case of low foreign product ethnicity.</p> <p><b>(4)</b>No interaction was found for CE that impacted preferences directly and independent of foreign product ethnicity.</p> <p><b>(5)</b>Consumers identifying strongly with their country equally opt for the domestic product regardless of whether the foreign product's ethnicity is lower or higher.</p>
<b>Carvalho et al. (2019) Journal of Business Research</b>	"the product of deliberate cultural construction and maintenance via both the regulatory and socializing institutions of the state: in particular, the law, the education system, and the media".	"consumer ethnocentrism" describes purely economic motives for a bias towards the in-group and gives individuals a sense of direction regarding acceptable consumer behaviour	The proposed model focuses only on national identity	- "examined how citizens as consumers make sense of, interpret, and respond to what their nation and their national identity means to them, not only in routine times but also in times of crises when others threaten their national identity. This analysis increases our understanding of how	In spite of the potentially diluting effects of globalization, the force of national identity seems as strong today as it was at the beginning of the last century. However, the feelings and actions associated with national identity have become somewhat more varied and complex.

Author/Year/ Journal	NI Definition	CE Definition	Sample Characteristics	Research Objectives/Questions	Core finding(s)
				consumers position themselves in relation to national symbols or national rhetoric and how this helps shape consumption behaviour". This paper demonstrates the impact of national identity on consumer purchase decisions.	They range from responding to patriotic appeals implied by labels that promote domestically produced goods, to boycotting products of nations that is seen as the home country's "enemy."

### **Appendix 3: Sub-sections of Ontology**

The first assumption is *Objectivism*, which implies that the research will not be influenced by the opinions and/or beliefs of the research participants. For example, objectivism implies that reality (existing theories that have been established and tested by previous studies) is out there to be found and is perceived uniformly by all (these theories act as predetermined laws and logic) (Sarantakos, 2003). As a result, further integration of these theories can lead to new causes and effects. Second is *Subjectivism*, which acknowledges an internal reality independent from the cognitive structures of social actors (e.g., consumers being studied) and that reality is created by social actors, perceptions, and actions (Von Khrog and Roos, 1995). In other words, the participant's opinions and/or beliefs may affect that of the researcher. Subjectivism is based on constructing new laws or theories derived from the participants' minds apart from the existing ones. Meaning that reality is found in individuals' minds and is perceived and interpreted differently by people (Sarantakos, 2003). The third and last ontology assumption is *Pragmatism*, which is accepting both internal and external realities (Tashakorri and Teddlie, 1998, 2003). From a pragmatic point of view, the rejection of either party's point of view is avoided. In other words, pragmatism suggests focusing on the approach that will yield the required achievement and results, as there is no approach superior to another (Tashakorri and Teddlie, 1998).

## **Appendix 4: Branches of Epistemology: Positivism, Interpretivism, and Pragmatism**

Collis and Hussey (2003) explained that two main research philosophies, which are positivism and interpretivism, represent the two extremes on a continuum (p.47).

The first branch is *Positivism*, which is the philosophical approach of “natural science”, using existing theory to develop hypotheses (test and confirm/reject) (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The positivistic paradigm perceives knowledge to be an observable and measurable phenomenon (Collis and Hussey, 2003) and encourages generalizing these measurements (Remenyi et al. 1998, p.32). Using this paradigm, a researcher will use existing theory to develop hypotheses, test hypotheses and confirm/reject hypotheses by collecting data (Saunders et al., 2019). The data collected is analyzed through quantitative and experimental methods to explore the interrelation between the variables and existing theory and test the hypotheses to yield credible results at the end of the research (Remenyi et al., 1998; Collis and Hussey, 2003; Sarantakos, 2005). The second branch is *Interpretivism*, which emphasizes that “humans are different from physical phenomena because they create meanings” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 148). The role of interpretivist studies is to examine these meanings. Generating and building a new theory based on gathered ideas and information. This paradigm emphasizes the importance of understanding the differences between conducting research among humans as social actors rather than objects such as goods (Von Krogh and Roos, 1995; Arbnor and Bjerke, 2008). The last branch is

*Pragmatism*, where a researcher can combine assumptions or methods to enable credible, reliable, and relevant data collection that will advance the research towards attaining the research objectives and answering the research questions. Guba and Lincoln (1994) argue that it is somewhat unrealistic to choose one position. Thus, pragmatism suggests that perhaps no single viewpoint is enough to give the overall picture. In the end, what matters is collecting data, using the method or methods that is credible, reliable, relevant, and well-founded to enable the advancement of the research. For example, the researchers can adopt both positivist and interpretivist assumptions by benefiting from the advantages of each one of them.

## **Appendix 5: Differences Between Quantitative and Qualitative Methodology**

For quantitative research, the reality is objective, and the researcher is independent of what is being researched. Adding to this, quantitative research methodology is characterized by being value-free and unbiased (Bryman and Bell, 2003, p. 25), and the nature of the data collected is numeric (solid) and reliable (Creswell, 1994, p. 5). Quantitative research methodology is mainly affiliated with the positivistic paradigm, where knowledge is perceived to be an observable and measurable phenomenon, and the generalization of this measurement is encouraged (Remenyi et al. 1998, p.32; Collis and Hussey, 2003; Bryman and Bell, 2015).

On the other hand, in the qualitative research methodology, the reality is subjective, and the researcher is involved with what is being researched (Neuman, 2006). This means that the researcher's values play a significant role in the interpretations of the research results (Collis and Hussey, 2009). Moreover, the qualitative research methodology is based on non-numeric and rich data (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Qualitative research methodology is mainly linked to the interpretivist paradigm (Bryman and Bell, 2015).

## **Appendix 6: Major Characteristics of Deductive, Inductive and Abductive Approaches**

First, the *Deductive approach* is linked to positivist epistemology because it argues that researchers can derive specific hypotheses and test them from existing theories and emphasizes generalisability (Saunders et al., 2019, p.154). The deductive approach links to quantitative data analysis methods where testing of theory cause and effect leads to predictions, explanations, and generalization (Creswell, 1994; Collis and Hussey, 2009; Gill et al., 2010).

The second approach is the *Inductive approach*, where the researcher collects data, analyzes the data, and uses the results to develop a theory (Collis and Hussey, 2003). This is achieved by interviewing a sample of the target population to better understand the nature of the problem. This approach is directed towards interpretivist epistemology, which develops new theories based on the analyzed data. This depends on the researcher's role in interpreting the research results (Collis and Hussey, 2003). In this case, the data collection is conducted using qualitative method where rich and deep data is collected (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012).

The third and last approach is the *Abductive approach* which combines deductive and inductive approaches by moving back and forth between the two approaches (Suddaby, 2006). Van Maanen et al. (2007) characterized abduction approach by beginning with observing "a surprising fact" that triggers uncovering and testing theories (Saunders et al., 2019, p.155). The flexibility that the abductive approach offers allows researchers adopting different research philosophies to rely on it when doing research. For instance, a researcher could employ the abductive approach to modify an existing theory.

## Appendix 7: Research Strategies

Research Strategy	Explanation
<b>Experiment</b>	“Is a form of research that owes much to natural sciences” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 190). Predictive hypotheses are used to detect whether or not there is a relationship between variables. An experiment is concerned with studying casual links, if a change in one variable may affect another variable (Hakim, 2000). For instance, studying the chance of an independent variable influencing a dependent variable.
<b>Survey</b>	“Allows collecting data which can be analyzed quantitatively using descriptive and inferential statistics” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 190). The survey method provides an explanation for relationships between variables.
<b>Archival and Documentary Research</b>	Accessing online sources from around the world through “the digitalization of data and the creation of online archives, along with the open data initiative by governments and businesses” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 195). It is considered to be a source of secondary data. For example, online government data archives, annual reports on organizations’ websites, press releases and financial highlights.
<b>Case Study</b>	<p>“A strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context using multiple sources of evidence” (Robson, 2002, p.178).</p> <p>“Is an in-depth inquiry into a topic or phenomenon within its real-life setting” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 196; Yin, 2018). For example, a person, group, an organization, or an event.</p>
<b>Action Research</b>	“It is an emergent and iterative process of inquiry that is designed to develop solutions to real organizational problems through a participative and collaborative approach, which uses different forms of knowledge, and which will have implications for participants and the organization beyond the research project” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 201, 202; Coghlan, 2011; Coghlan and Brannick, 2014).
<b>Grounded Theory</b>	“Can be used to refer to a methodology, a method of inquiry and the result of a research process” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 205; Bryant and Charmaz, 2007; Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Charmaz, 2011; Walsh et al., 2015a). It is the best match for inductive approach as it is useful in developing and building a

Research Strategy	Explanation
	theory (Goulding, 2002). It is particularly useful to predict and explain behaviour in research (Saunders et al., 2012).
<b>Ethnography</b>	“Is used to study the culture or social world of a group” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 199). Like the grounded theory, ethnography is firmly related to inductive approach, with the purpose of explaining and describing the social world of the research subject (Saunders et al., 2019). It is considered to be a qualitative research strategy.
<b>Narrative Inquiry</b>	“A narrative is a story; a personal account which interprets an event or sequence of events” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 209). The storytelling form of narrative inquiry associates with qualitative research strategy.

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**Source:** Self-developed based on Saunders et al. (2019)

## Appendix 8: Types of Secondary Data

Type	Explanation
Raw Data	"Slight or no processing of the data".
Compiled Data	"Data has been summarized in some manner".
Structured Data	"Data that has been organized into a structured (easy to process) form. E.g., spreadsheet including numeric data".
Unstructured Data	"Data that has not been organized into a defined structure. E.g., audio, text and visual data".

**Source:** *Saunders et al. (2019, p. 341)*

## Appendix 9: Questionnaire Cover Letter

Thank you for taking the time to contribute to the success of this research. Your participation is voluntary but of great importance. This study is **an academic research project** at the University of Hull and is conducted under the supervision of Dr. Victoria-Sophie Osburg.

The aim of the project is to better understand what makes consumers buy local origin products.

The questionnaire should take approximately 10 minutes to complete and there are no right or wrong answers. So feel free to **answer all** questions as honestly and accurately as possible. You may withdraw from the study at any time, and if you do so, all your responses will be deleted. You will notice the similarity among some statements, be assured that this is intended for statistical purposes. All the provided responses will be only used for statistical analysis for academic research purposes and are strictly confidential and anonymous as per the policy of the University of Hull. Please also note that there are no known or anticipated risks for you as a participant in this study and that this survey was reviewed and approved by the University of Hull's Ethics Committee.

Should you have any further questions or concerns or if you are interested in the results (once the data analyses have been completed), please contact Ream Kinawy ([R.N.Kinawy-2013@Hull.ac.uk](mailto:R.N.Kinawy-2013@Hull.ac.uk)) or Dr. Victoria-Sophie Osburg ([vs.osburg@montpellier-bs.com](mailto:vs.osburg@montpellier-bs.com)).

**Before participating in this survey, please indicate your consent and that you:**

- 1) have read and understood the above information,
- 2) are 18 years old or older,
- 3) are an Egyptian citizen, and
- 4) participating voluntarily.

Do you consent? \* *Required*

☐ I agree to participate in this survey and agree to how my data will be managed.

## Appendix 10: The Questionnaire (in English)

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \*

*Required*

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Notable personalities from Egypt's past are admired by people today.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
One of the strong characteristics of Egypt is that it concentrates on important historical events.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Egypt has a strong historical heritage.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Egyptians possess unique cultural properties that others do not possess.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Egyptians believe in general that they come from a common historical background.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Egyptians are proud of their nationality.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Egyptians engage in activities that identify them as Egyptians.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \*

*Required*

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I see myself as Egyptian.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am glad that I am Egyptian.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel strong ties with Egypt.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Being Egyptian is important to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \*

*Required*

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I am a member of this Egyptian society.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I consider myself a member of this Egyptian society.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If asked if I belong to this Egyptian society, I would say "Yes."	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I do not consider myself a member of this Egyptian society.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When something bad happens to this Egyptian society, I personally feel hurt.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

When this Egyptian society is in pain, I empathize.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have a feeling of connection with this Egyptian society.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am personally concerned about what happens to other members of this Egyptian society.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \*

Required

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I am always careful about my manner of dress.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
--	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

## Page 4

Please answer with "agree" to this statement: \* *Required*

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Somewhat disagree
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Somewhat agree
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Strongly agree

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \*

*Required*

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
We should purchase products manufactured in Egypt, instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is always best to purchase Egyptian products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Egyptian people should not buy foreign products, because foreign products hurt Egyptian business and cause unemployment.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Egyptian products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Only those products that are unavailable in Egypt should be imported.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \*

Required

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Foreign-made products are carefully produced and have fine workmanship (craft).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Foreign-made products are reliable and durable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Foreign-made products are usually reasonably priced in comparison to similar Egyptian-made products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Foreign-made products may be of a lower quality than similar Egyptian-made products available in the market.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Whenever available, I would prefer to buy Egyptian-made products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

In comparison to Egyptian-made products, as a general rule, I have not been very pleased with the foreign-made products I have purchased.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I take a great deal of personal pride in the ownership of Egyptian-made products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \*

Required

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I would feel guilty if I bought foreign products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I would never buy a foreign-made product.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Whenever possible, I avoid buying foreign-made products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Whenever available, I would prefer to buy foreign-made products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If two products were equal in quality, but one was made in Egypt and one was foreign-made, I would pay 10% more for the Egyptian-made product.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Buying foreign-made products makes me feel guilty.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

For the following questions on this page, you can consider examples of Egyptian-made products such as yogurt, chocolate candy bar, oranges, dish detergent, bedsheets, athletic shoes, and winter jackets.

There are many types and brands of Egyptian-made products in the market when selecting among them, how important is it to choose which one to buy. \* Required

- ☐ I would not care at all as to which one I buy
- ☐ I would not care
- ☐ I would somewhat not care
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ I would somewhat care
- ☐ I would care
- ☐ I would very much care as to which one I buy

Do you think that the various types and brands of Egyptian-made products available in the market are all very different or all very alike? \* Required

- ☐ All very different
- ☐ All different
- ☐ All slightly different
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ All slightly alike
- ☐ All alike
- ☐ All very alike

**In making your selection of Egyptian-made products, how concerned would you be about the outcome of your choice? \*** *Required*

- ☐ Not at all concerned
- ☐ Not concerned
- ☐ Somewhat not concerned
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Somewhat concerned
- ☐ Concerned
- ☐ Very much concerned

**How important would it be for you to make the right choice when choosing among Egyptian-made products? \*** *Required*

- ☐ Not important at all
- ☐ Not important
- ☐ Somewhat not important
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Somewhat important
- ☐ Important
- ☐ Extremely important

**How important will be the purchase of the Egyptian-made products in your life? \*** *Required*

- ☐ Not important at all
- ☐ Not important
- ☐ Somewhat not important
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Somewhat important
- ☐ Important

45 / 60

☐ Extremely important

**Because of my personal values, I feel that buying Egyptian-made products ought to be important to me.** \* Required

- ☐ Not important at all
- ☐ Not important
- ☐ Somewhat not important
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Somewhat important
- ☐ Important
- ☐ Extremely important

**Please answer with "agree" to this statement:** \* Required

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Somewhat disagree
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Somewhat agree
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Strongly agree

**Please indicate the likelihood of each of the following statements.** \* Required

	Very unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Neutral	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
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"The likelihood that Egyptian-made products are reliable is"	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
"The likelihood that Egyptian-made products are dependable is"	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

The workmanship of Egyptian-made products would be: \* *Required*

- ☐ Extremely low
- ☐ Low
- ☐ Slightly low
- ☐ Neither low nor high
- ☐ Slightly high
- ☐ High
- ☐ Extremely high

Egyptian-made products should be of: \* *Required*

- ☐ Extremely poor quality
- ☐ Poor quality
- ☐ Slightly poor quality
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Slightly good quality

- ☐ Good quality
- ☐ Extremely good quality

Egyptian-made products seem to be durable. \* *Required*

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Somewhat disagree
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Somewhat agree
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Strongly agree

**Please indicate your level of agreement on the following statement:** There are Egyptian-made alternatives for the following foreign-made products. \* *Required*

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Yogurt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Chocolate candy bar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Oranges	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dish detergent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bedsheets	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Athletic shoes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Winter jackets	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \*

Required

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I am willing to pay a higher price for products made in Egypt than for foreign-made products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am willing to pay a lot more for the products made in Egypt than for foreign-made products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The price of products made in Egypt would have to go up quite a bit before I would switch to foreign-made products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

I am willing to pay \_\_\_\_\_ more for products made in Egypt than foreign-made products. \*

Required

- |                           |                                     |                           |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> 0%  | <input type="radio"/> 5%            | <input type="radio"/> 10% |
| <input type="radio"/> 15% | <input type="radio"/> 20%           | <input type="radio"/> 25% |
| <input type="radio"/> 30% | <input type="radio"/> More than 30% |                           |

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \*

*Required*

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I daydream a lot.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When I go to the movies I find it easy to lose myself in the film.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I often think of what might have been.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \*

Required

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I purchase Egyptian-made products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I recommend Egyptian-made products to friends.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I will purchase Egyptian-made products again in the future.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \*

Required

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree

I achieved happiness from purchasing Egyptian-made products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Purchasing Egyptian-made products fits my personality traits.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I buy Egyptian-made products as a rule.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Egyptian-made products are cheaper than I expected.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Purchasing Egyptian-made products satisfies my values.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \*

Required

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
--	-------------------	----------	-------------------	----------------------------	----------------	-------	----------------

Buying Egyptian-made products gives me an opportunity for personal progress.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Buying Egyptian-made products gives me an opportunity for personal development.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Buying Egyptian-made products increases my feeling of self-fulfillment.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \*

*Required*

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
--	-------------------	----------	-------------------	----------------------------	----------------	-------	----------------

Generally, I am someone who likes to be a regular customer of a store selling Egyptian products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Generally, I am someone who wants to be a steady customer of a store selling Egyptian products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Generally, I am someone who is willing to "go the extra mile" to purchase at the same store selling Egyptian products.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Even if the store selling Egyptian products is more difficult to reach, I would still keep buying there.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## Page 7

Now I will briefly describe some people. Could you please indicate for each description whether that person is very much like you, like you, somewhat like you, not like you, or not at all like you? **Please rank each statement from "Very much like me" to "Not at all like me".** \* Required

	Very much like me	Like me	Somewhat like me	A little like me	Not like me	Not at all like me
It is important to this person to think up new ideas and be creative; to do things one's own way.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is important to this person to be rich; to have a lot of money and expensive things.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Living in secure surroundings is important to this person; to avoid anything that might be dangerous.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is important to this person to have a good time; to "spoil" oneself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is important to this person to do something for the good of society.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is important to this person to help people nearby; to care for their well-being.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Being very successful is important to this person; to have people recognize one's achievements.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Adventure and taking risks are important to this person; to have an exciting life.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is important to this person to always behave properly; to avoid doing anything people would say is wrong.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Looking after the environment is important to this person; to care for nature and save life resources.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tradition is important to this person; to follow the customs handed down by one's religion or family.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

What are typical Egyptian-made products that you buy? \* Required

What are typical foreign-made products that you buy? \* Required

Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \* Required

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
A specific religious philosophy is what makes a person uniquely Egyptian.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is impossible for an individual to be truly Egyptian without taking part in some form of religious activity.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Religious education is essential to preserve the cohesiveness of Egyptian society.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A specific religious philosophy is not an important part of being Egyptian.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A true Egyptian would never reject their religious beliefs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Age range \* *Required*

- ☐ 18 - 25
 ☐ 26 - 35
 ☐ 36 - 45
- ☐ 46 - 55
 ☐ 56 - 65
 ☐ Over 65

Gender \* *Required*

- ☐ Male
 ☐ Female
 ☐ I prefer not to say

Education level \* Required

- ☐ High School/ Diploma      ☐ University/ College graduate      ☐ Post graduate degree holder
- ☐ I prefer not to say

Approximate Monthly Income \* Required

- ☐ Less than \$500
- ☐ \$501 – 1,000
- ☐ \$1001 – 3,000
- ☐ Over \$3000
- ☐ I prefer not to say

Relationship Status \* Required

- ☐ Single
- ☐ Married
- ☐ Widowed
- ☐ Divorced
- ☐ Separated
- ☐ Civil partnership
- ☐ Other

If you selected Other, please specify:

Number of Children \* Required

How many people live in your household? \* *Required*

Are you responsible for household grocery shopping? \* *Required*

- ☐ Yes  
☐ No

How frequently do you go to the supermarket, local market, etc?

- ☐ Daily  
☐ 2 - 3 times a week  
☐ Once a week  
☐ 2 - 3 times per month  
☐ Once a month or less

**Please indicate your level of agreement on each of the following statements. \***  
*Required*

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree

I fear COVID-19 more than other diseases.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Thinking about COVID-19 causes discomfort to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I worry about COVID-19 frequently.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
COVID-19 scares me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Thank you very much for your participation. If you would like to mention anything else, please let us know.

## Appendix 11: The Questionnaire (in Arabic)

### Page 1: معلومات / موافقة على المشاركة

شكرا على تخصيص بعض الوقت للمساهمة في نجاح هذا البحث. مشاركتك اختياريه ولكنها ذات أهمية كبيرة. هذه الدراسة هي مشروع بحث أكاديمي في جامعة هال، ببريطانيا، وتجرى تحت إشراف دكتورة فيكتوريا أوسبورج

الهدف من المشروع: هو فهم ما يجعل المستهلكين يشترون المنتجات ذات المنشأ المحلي

يستغرق الاستبيان حوالي 10 دقائق لإكماله. لا توجد إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة لذا لا تتردد في الإجابة عن جميع الأسئلة بأمانة ودقة قدر الإمكان. يمكنك الانسحاب من الدراسة في أي وقت ، وإذا قمت بذلك ، فسيتم حذف جميع ردودك. ستلاحظ التشابه بين بعض العبارات ، تأكد من أن هذا مقصود ومخصص للأغراض الإحصائية. سيتم استخدام جميع الردود المقدمة فقط للتحليل الإحصائي لأغراض البحث الأكاديمي وتكون سرية تمامًا ومجهولة الهوية وفقًا لسياسة جامعة هال. يرجى أيضًا ملاحظة أنه لا توجد مخاطر معروفة أو متوقعة لك كمشارك في هذه الدراسة وأن لجنة الأخلاقيات بجامعة هال قد استعرضت هذا الاستطلاع وأقرته. إذا كان لديك أي أسئلة أو استفسارات أخرى أو إذا كنت مهتمًا بالنتائج (بمجرد الانتهاء من تحليل البيانات) ، فيرجى الاتصال بـ

ريم قناوي (R.N.Kinawy-2013@hull.ac.uk)

(vs.osburg@montpellier-bs.com) فيكتوريا أوسبورج

قبل المشاركة في هذا الاستبيان ، يرجى توضيح موافقتك وأنت

قرأت وفهمت المعلومات المذكورة أعلاه 1)

تبلغ من العمر 18 عامًا أو أكثر 2)

مواطن مصري 3)

المشاركة طوعا، بمحض إرادتك 4)

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*Required* \* هل توافق؟

☐ أوافق على المشاركة في هذا الاستبيان وأوافق على ترتيبات إدارة البيانات

*Required* \* هل تعيش في مصر؟

☐ نعم  
☐ لا

*Required* \* يرجى الإشارة إلى مدي موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

لوافق بشدة	لوافق	لوافق إلى حد ما	لا لوافق	لا لوافق بشدة	محايد	لوافق إلى حد ما	لوافق
تتال الشخصيات التاريخية الهامة في مصر إعجاب الناس اليوم	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
من السمات القوية لمصر أنها تركز على الأحداث التاريخية الهامة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
مصر لديها تراث تاريخي قوي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
يمتلك المصريون خصائص ثقافية فريدة لا يمتلكها الآخرون	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
يعتقد المصريون بشكل عام أنهم ينتمون إلى خلفية تاريخية مشتركة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
المصريون فخورون بجنسيتهم	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
يشارك المصريون في الأنشطة التي تحددهم كمصريين	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

*Required* \* يرجى الإشارة إلى مدي موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

لوافق بشدة	لوافق	لوافق إلى حد ما	لا لوافق	لا لوافق بشدة	محايد	لوافق إلى حد ما	لوافق
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أعتبر نفسي مصرياً	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
أنا سعيد لأنني مصري	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
أشعر بروابط قوية مع مصر	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
كوني مصري مهم بالنسبة لي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

*Required* \* يرجى الإشارة إلى مدي موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	أوافق إلى حد ما	محايد	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	لا أوافق بشدة		
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	أنا عضو في هذا المجتمع المصري	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	أعتبر نفسي عضوا في هذا المجتمع المصري	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	إذا سُئلت عما إذا كنت أنتهي إلى هذا المجتمع المصري ، فسأقول نعم	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	لا أعتبر نفسي عضوا في هذا المجتمع المصري	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	عندما يحدث شيء سيء لهذا المجتمع المصري ، أشعر شخصيا بالأذى	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	عندما يتألم هذا المجتمع المصري ، أعاطف معه	

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<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	لدي شعور بالارتباط مع هذا المجتمع المصري	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	أنا شخصيا أقلق بشأن ما يحدث للأعضاء الآخرين في هذا المجتمع المصري	

*Required* \* يرجى الإشارة إلى مدي موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	أوافق إلى حد ما	محايد	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	لا أوافق بشدة		
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	أنا دائما حريص على طريقة ليسي	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	لم أقل أبدا شيئا عن عمد يؤدي مشاعر شخص ما	

Required \* يرجى الإشارة إلى مدى موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	أوافق إلى حد ما	محايد	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	لا أوافق بشدة		
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	يجب علينا شراء المنتجات المصنعة في مصر ، بدلاً من السماح للدول الأخرى بالتراء من خلالنا	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	من الأفضل دائمًا شراء المنتجات المصرية	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	لا يجب على المصريين شراء المنتجات الأجنبية ، لأن المنتجات الأجنبية تضر بالتجارة المصرية وتسبب البطالة	

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<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	قد يكلفني ذلك على المدى الطويل لكنني أفضل دعم المنتجات المصرية	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	يجب استيراد المنتجات غير المتوفرة في مصر فقط	

Required \* يرجى الإشارة إلى مدى موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	أوافق إلى حد ما	محايد	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	لا أوافق بشدة		
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	يتم إنتاج المنتجات الأجنبية بعناية ولديها صناعة حرفية دقيقة	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	المنتجات الأجنبية جديرة بالثقة ومتينة	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	عادة ما يتم تسعير المنتجات الأجنبية بشكل معقول مقارنة بالمنتجات المصنوعة في مصر المماثلة	

قد تكون المنتجات الأجنبية أقل جودة من المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر المماثلة المتوفرة في السوق	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
كلما كان ذلك متاحاً ، أفضل شراء المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
بالمقارنة مع المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر ، كقاعدة عامة لم أكن راض تملما عن المنتجات الأجنبية التي اشتريتها	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
إنني أفتخر كثيراً بملكية المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

*Required* \* يرجى الإشارة إلى مدى موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	محايد	أوافق إلى حد ما	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
شراء المنتجات الأجنبية يجعلني أشعر بالذنب	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
لن أشتري أبداً منتجاً أجنبياً	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

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كلما أمكن ، أتجنب شراء المنتجات الأجنبية	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
كلما كان ذلك متاحاً ، أفضل شراء المنتجات الأجنبية الصنع	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
إذا كان منتج متسولين في الجودة ، ولكن أحدهما مصنوع في مصر والآخر أجنبي الصنع ، فسأدفع 10٪ أكثر للمنتج المصنوع في مصر	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
سأشعر بالذنب إذا اشتريت منتجات أجنبية	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

بالنسبة للأسئلة التالية في هذه الصفحة، يمكنك التفكير في المنتجات  
مصرية الصنع مثل: الزبادي، الشكولاتة، البرتقال، منظف الأطباق،  
ملابس السرير، أحذية رياضية و سترات شتوية

توجد العديد من الأنواع والعلامات التجارية للمنتجات المصنوعة في مصر المتوفرة في السوق، عند الاختيار من بينهم،  
\* Required ما مدى أهمية اختيار أي منها للشراء

- ☐ لا يهمني على الإطلاق
- ☐ لا يهمني
- ☐ لا يهمني إلى حد ما
- ☐ محايد
- ☐ سأهتم إلى حد ما
- ☐ سأهتم
- ☐ سأهتم كثيرا

هل تعتقد أن الأنواع والعلامات التجارية المختلفة للمنتجات المصنوعة في مصر المتوفرة في السوق كلها مختلفة تمامًا  
\* Required أم متشابهة جدًا؟

- ☐ كلها مختلفة تمامًا
- ☐ مختلفة جدًا
- ☐ مختلفة إلى حد ما
- ☐ محايد
- ☐ متشابهة إلى حد ما
- ☐ متشابهة جدًا
- ☐ كلها متشابهة جدًا

*Required* \* في اختيارك للمنتجات المصنوعة في مصر ، ما مدى قلقك حيال نتيجة اختيارك؟

- ☐ غير قلق على الإطلاق
- ☐ غير قلق
- ☐ غير قلق إلى حد ما
- ☐ محايد
- ☐ قلق إلى حد ما
- ☐ قلق
- ☐ قلق للغاية

*Required* \* ما مدى أهمية اتخاذ القرار الصحيح عند شراء المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر؟

- ☐ ليس مهما على الإطلاق
- ☐ غير مهم
- ☐ غير مهم إلى حد ما
- ☐ محايد
- ☐ مهم نوعا ما
- ☐ مهم
- ☐ مهم للغاية

*Required* \* ما مدى أهمية شراء المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر في حياتك؟

- ☐ ليس مهما على الإطلاق
- ☐ غير مهم
- ☐ غير مهم إلى حد ما
- ☐ محايد
- ☐ مهم نوعا ما
- ☐ مهم
- ☐ مهم للغاية

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*Required* \* بناءً على قيمي الشخصية ، أشعر أن شراء المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر يجب أن يكون مهما بالنسبة لي

- ☐ ليس مهما على الإطلاق
- ☐ غير مهم
- ☐ غير مهم إلى حد ما
- ☐ محايد
- ☐ مهم نوعا ما
- ☐ مهم
- ☐ مهم للغاية

*Required* \* الرجاء الإجابة بـ "لوافق" على هذه العبارة

- ☐ لا أوافق بشدة
- ☐ لا أوافق
- ☐ لا أوافق إلى حد ما
- ☐ محايد
- ☐ أوافق إلى حد ما
- ☐ أوافق
- ☐ أوافق بشدة

*Required* \* يرجى الإشارة إلى مدى احتمالية كل من العبارات التالية

مرجح جدا	مرجح	مرجح إلى حد ما	محايد	غير مرجح إلى حد ما	غير مرجح	غير مرجح جدا
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احتمالية أن تكون المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر جديرة بالثقة هي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
احتمالية أن تكون المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر يمكن الاعتماد عليها هي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

*Required* \* الصنعة الحرفية للمنتجات المصنوعة في مصر تكون

- ☐ ليست جيدة علي الاطلاق
- ☐ ليست جيدة
- ☐ ليست جيدة إلى حد ما
- ☐ محايد
- ☐ جيدة إلى حد ما
- ☐ جيدة
- ☐ جيدة جدا

*Required* \* ينبغي أن تكون المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر من النوعية

- ☐ الرديئة جدًا
- ☐ الرديئة
- ☐ رديئة إلى حد ما
- ☐ محايد
- ☐ جيدة إلى حد ما
- ☐ جيدة
- ☐ جيدة جدًا

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*Required* \* تبدو المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر متينة

- ☐ لا أوافق بشدة
- ☐ لا أوافق
- ☐ لا أوافق إلى حد ما
- ☐ محايد
- ☐ أوافق إلى حد ما
- ☐ أوافق
- ☐ أوافق بشدة

\* يرجى الإشارة إلى مدى موافقتك على العبارة التالية: توجد بدائل مصرية الصنع للمنتجات الأجنبية التالية  
Required

لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	محايد	أوافق إلى حد ما	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
الزبادي	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣
الشوكولاتة	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣
البرتقال	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣
منظف الاطباق	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣
ملابس السرير	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣
الأحذية رياضية	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣
السترات الشتوية	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣

\* Required يرجى الإشارة إلى مدى موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	محايد	أوافق إلى حد ما	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
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أنا على استعداد لدفع أسعار أعلى للمنتجات المصنوعة في مصر من المنتجات الأجنبية الصنع	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣
أنا على استعداد لدفع المزيد مقابل المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر أكثر من المنتجات الأجنبية الصنع	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣
يجب أن يرتفع سعر المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر إلى درجة معينة قبل أن أنتقل لشراء المنتجات الأجنبية الصنع	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣	٣

\* أنا على استعداد لدفع \_\_\_\_\_ أكثر مقابل المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر من المنتجات الأجنبية الصنع  
Required

<input type="radio"/> 0%	<input type="radio"/> 5%	<input type="radio"/> 10%
<input type="radio"/> 15%	<input type="radio"/> 20%	<input type="radio"/> 25%
<input type="radio"/> 30%	<input type="radio"/> أكثر من 30%	

\* Required يرجى الإشارة إلى مدى موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	أوافق إلى حد ما	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	لا أوافق بشدة	محايد	أوافق إلى حد ما	أوافق
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أنا أسرح بخيالي كثيراً	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
عندما أذهب إلى السينما، أجد أنه من السهل جداً أن أندمج مع أحداث الفيلم	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
غالباً ما أفكر، لو رجعت في الزمن، يا تري كان هيبقي ايه حالي	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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\* Required يرجى الإشارة إلى مدى موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	أوافق إلى حد ما	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	لا أوافق بشدة	محايد	أوافق إلى حد ما	أوافق
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
أنا أشتري منتجات مصرية الصنع	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
أنا أوصي أصدقائي بالمنتجات المصرية الصنع	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
سوف أشتري المنتجات المصرية الصنع مرة أخرى في المستقبل	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Required \* يرجى الإشارة إلى مدى موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	أوافق إلى حد ما	محايد	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	لا أوافق بشدة		
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	شراء المنتجات المصرية الصنع	حقوق لي السعادة
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	شراء المنتجات المصرية الصنع	يتناسب سمات شخصيتي
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	كقاعدة، أشتري منتجات مصرية الصنع	

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<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	إن المنتجات المصرية الصنع أرخص مما توقعت	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	شراء المنتجات المصرية الصنع	يرضي قلبي

Required \* يرجى الإشارة إلى مدى موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	أوافق إلى حد ما	محايد	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	لا أوافق بشدة		
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	شخصياً، يمنحني شراء المنتجات المصرية فرصة للتقدم	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	شخصياً، يمنحني شراء المنتجات المصرية فرصة للتطور	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	شراء المنتجات المصرية يزيد من شعوري بالرضا عن النفس	

Required \* يرجى الإشارة إلى مدي موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	محايد	أوافق إلى حد ما	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
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بشكل عام ، أنا شخص أحب أن أكون عميلاً منتظماً لمتجر يبيع المنتجات المصرية	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
بشكل عام ، أنا شخص أريد أن أكون عميلاً ثابتاً لمتجر يبيع المنتجات المصرية	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
بشكل عام ، أنا شخص مستعد "لبذل جهد أكثر من العادي" للشراء من نفس المتجر الذي يبيع المنتجات المصرية	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
سأستمر في الشراء من المتجر الذي يبيع المنتجات المصرية حتى لو كان من الصعب الوصول إليه	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

كل عبارة توصف لك نوعية بعض الناس باختصار. ممكن تقولالى لكل وصف منهم إذا كان الشخص ده زيك جدا ، زيك ، مش زيك ولا مش زيك خالص ؟ إجابة واحدة لكل وصف "يرجى تقييم كل عبارة من "زي لوى" إلى "مش زيي خالص" \* Required

مش زيي خالص	مش زيي	زيي شوية	زيي الى حد ما	زيي	زيي لوى	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	مهم للشخص ده إنه يفكر فى أفكار جديدة و يكون مبتكر و يعمل حاجات بطريقته الخاصة
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	مهم للإنسان ده إنه يكون غنى ، تكون عنده فلوس كثير و حاجات غالية
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	إن الواحد يكون عايش فى محيط امن حاجة مهمة للشخص ده علشان يتجنب أى حاجة خطيرة
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	من المهم للشخص ده إنه يقضي وقت كويس، يدلع نفسه
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	من المهم للشخص ده إنه يعمل حاجة نافعة / كويسة للمجتمع
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	من المهم للناس دى إنها تساعد الناس القريبة منها، يهتموا لحالهم
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	كون الواحد ناجح حاجة مهمة جدا للشخص ده، إن الناس تعرف إنجازاته

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<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	المغامرة و المخاطرة حاجة مهمة للشخص ده، إنه يعيش حياة مثيرة
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	من المهم للشخص ده إنه دايمًا يتعامل بأخلاق كويسة، إنه يتجنب إنه يعمل أى حاجة الناس ممكن تقول عليها غلط
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	المحافظة على البيئة حاجة مهمة للشخص ده، الاهتمام بالطبيعة و الحفاظ على موارد الحياة
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	التقاليد حاجة مهمة جدا للشخص ده، إنه يقدر يتبع العادات الموروثة من الدين أو الأسرة

\* Required ما هي المنتجات المصنوعة في مصر التي تشتريها عادة ؟

\* Required ما هي المنتجات الأجنبية الصنع التي تشتريها عادة ؟

\* Required يرجى الإشارة إلى مدى موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	محايد	أوافق إلى حد ما	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
إن الفلسفة الدينية المحددة هي التي تجعل الشخص مصرياً فريداً	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
من المستحيل أن يكون الفرد مصرياً حقاً دون أن يشارك في شكل من أشكال النشاط الديني	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
الثقافة الدينية ضرورية للحفاظ على تماسك المجتمع المصري	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
الفلسفة الدينية المحددة ليست جزءاً مهماً من كونك مصرياً	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

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المصري الحقيقي لن يرفض معتقداته الدينية	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
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*Required* \* الفئة العمرية

- ☐ 18 - 25
- ☐ 26 - 35
- ☐ 36 - 45
- ☐ 46 - 55
- ☐ 56 - 65
- ☐ Over 65

*Required* \* النوع

- ☐ ذكر
- ☐ أنثى
- ☐ انا افضل ان لا اقول

*Required* \* مستوى التعليم

- ☐ المدرسة الثانوية/ شهادة دبلوم
- ☐ خريج جامعة/ كلية
- ☐ حامل لشهادة الدراسات العليا
- ☐ انا افضل ان لا اقول

*Required* \* الدخل الشهري التقريبي

- ☐ أقل من 500 دولار
- ☐ دولار 501 - 1000
- ☐ دولار 1001 - 3000
- ☐ أكثر من 3000 دولار
- ☐ انا افضل ان لا اقول

*Required* \* الحالة الاجتماعية

- ☐ عازب
- ☐ متزوج
- ☐ أرمل
- ☐ مطلق
- ☐ منفصل
- ☐ شراكة مدنيه
- ☐ أخرى

إذا اخترت "أخرى" ، يرجى التحديد

*Required* \* عدد الاطفال؟

*Required* \* كم شخص يعيش معك في نفس البيت؟

*Required \** هل أنت مسؤول عن شراء البقالة المنزلية؟

- ☐ نعم  
☐ لا

*Required \** كم مرة تذهب إلى السوبر ماركت أو السوق المحلي أو البقالة، إلخ؟

- ☐ يومياً  
☐ مرات بالأسبوع 2-3  
☐ مرة بالأسبوع  
☐ مرات بالشهر 2-3  
☐ مرة بالشهر أو أقل

*Required \** يرجى الإشارة إلى مدى موافقتك على كل من العبارات التالية

	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	محايد	أوافق إلى حد ما	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
أخشى فيروس كورونا المستجد (كوفيد-19) أكثر من الأمراض الأخرى	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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التفكير في فيروس كورونا المستجد (كوفيد-19) يسبب لي الانزعاج	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
أنا قلق بشأن فيروس كورونا المستجد (كوفيد-19) بشكل مستمر	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
فيروس كورونا المستجد (كوفيد-19) يخيفني	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

شكراً جزيلاً على مشاركتك. إذا كنت ترغب في ذكر أي شيء آخر ، فيرجى إخبارنا بذلك