

Examining Consumer Ethnocentrism Across Different Demographic Variables

Geeta Khanchi^{*1}, Dr. Divya Verma² and Professor R.K. Mittal²

¹ Research Scholar, University School of Management Studies, GGSIPU, Dwarka, Delhi and Assistant Professor, Government College Gharaunda, Karnal, Haryana

² Professor, University School of Management Studies, GGSIPU, Dwarka, Delhi

³ Professor, University School of Management Studies, GGSIPU, Dwarka, Delhi, khainchigeeta3@gmail.com, divya.ipu@gmail.com, dr123mittal@yahoo.com

How to cite this article: Geeta Khanchi, Divya Verma, R.K. Mittal (2024) Examining Consumer Ethnocentrism Across Different Demographic Variables. *Library Progress International*, 44(3), 22185-22199.

ABSTRACT

The objective of this paper is to analyze the influence of demographic variables on consumer ethnocentrism. The study examines the direct impact of demographic variables (gender, age, income, education, occupation, and marital status) on consumer ethnocentric tendencies. Data were collected from 521 consumers in the Northern region of India. Data was analyzed using an Independent t-test and One-way ANOVA test. These findings indicate that ethnocentric tendencies among consumers are influenced by age, income, and gender. However, there is no significant difference in the context of occupation, education, and marital status. The study provides valuable implications for marketers and policymakers.

Keywords:- Consumer ethnocentrism, Northern Region, demographic variables, ethnocentric tendency.

Introduction

The world has transformed into a small village where all goods are easily available. Firms view the entire world as their marketplace, and the massive size of the global market creates an unavoidable opportunity. Firms used this opportunity to supply their products both domestically and internationally. Manufacturers try to influence consumer decisions regarding their products, and governments persuade people to buy locally-produced goods. The availability of domestic markets for foreign goods introduces consumers to the variety of goods offered globally, and now consumers are exposed to a large number of goods imported from other nations more frequently (Wong et al., 2008). Currently, consumers can purchase more products with attractive features, new designs, and technical advancements at lower prices. Customers may occasionally prefer imported goods to native ones (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004). However, buyers exhibit negative dispositions toward a nation, its citizens, and the products it produces (Klein et al., 1998). Consumers also consider buying goods from other nations immoral and ungenerous, and it is preferable to purchase products made domestically instead (Netemeyer et al., 1991; Sharma et al., 1995; Shimp & Sharma, 1987) due to ethnocentric tendencies among consumers.

Ethnocentric tendencies have become a significant and crucial factor for multinational corporations as a result of the rising globalization of markets (Cheah & Shimul, 2018). Marketers are increasingly fascinated by comprehending the variables influencing consumer behaviour toward buying foreign products. Consumer ethnocentrism plays a significant role in selecting domestic and foreign products (Alam et al., 2022).

Ethnocentrism is the belief that purchasing foreign-made products is not morally good, unlike buying domestically-produced goods. It has significant implications for marketers in a highly diverse country like India. Like citizens of every developed country, Indians are patriotic and favour indigenous goods, but they also tolerate imports from other nations (Agbonifoh & Elimimian, 1999). Being the world's most populated country with

diverse cultures and consumer backgrounds (Price et al., 1995), India has been involved actively in the dynamics of globalization over the years. Every state of India has different habits, languages, and consumer preferences; even within the state, the income gap is very severe (Jin & Son, 2013). India is expected to add one billion individuals to middle-class consumers worldwide and become the fifth largest consumer market by 2039 (Atsmon qtd. in Javalgi & Grossman, 2016). Therefore, multinational corporations must recognise these customers whose preferences, tastes and aspirations are evolving. The consumer market in India has vast demographic diversity, including variations in age, gender, education, income, and occupational backgrounds. Scholarly investigations have uncovered significant variations in the thought processes and actions of consumers based on three demographic attributes: age, gender, and income (Cooil et al., 2007; Crask et al., 1978; Fisher & Dubé, 2005; Lambert-Pandraud et al., 2005; Meyers-Levy, 1988; Meyers-Levy & Maheswaran, 1991).

Customer demographics are frequently used in marketing practice as segmentation variables indicate how important these distinctions are. Employing demographic characteristics as the antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism will benefit marketers to separate consumers according to their inclination towards foreign or domestic products (Shankarmahesh, 2006). These variables can play a significant role in shaping Indian consumer ethnocentric tendencies. There is still a dearth of studies conducted on the impact of demographic factors on consumer ethnocentrism in India, even though it is essential to know how these variables influence consumers' ethnocentric tendencies. This dimension of ethnocentrism is not much explored in India. Most of the research has been conducted in this context in Western countries; these nations have different cultures and demographic dynamics, such as India. Therefore, this paper analyzes the influence of demographic variables (gender, educational qualification, marital status, occupational status, age, and income level) on Indian consumer ethnocentrism. The findings of this paper could assist Indian marketers in segmenting customers according to their attitudes and planning their market strategy according to their behaviours. It also helps policymakers to facilitate domestic industries and promote healthy competition in the global marketplace.

Review of Literature and Hypotheses Development

Consumer Ethnocentrism

The term "Ethnocentrism" was proposed by William Graham Sumner in 1906, over a century ago. Sumner (1906) has defined ethnocentrism as "the view of things in which one's own group is the centre of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with references to it. Each group nourishes its own pride and vanity, boasts itself superior, exalts its own divinities and looks with contempt on outsiders." Sumner has explained the ethnocentrism in context of two dimensions: one is related to a positive disposition toward one's own group and a negative disposition towards others. The core idea of Sumner behind ethnocentrism is the fundamental connection between the favouritism of in-groups and bias against out-groups. This idea of Sumner sparked discussion among scholars afterward.

Shimp and Sharma (1987) were the firsts to introduce the "consumer ethnocentrism" concept in the area of marketing, and defined it as "the beliefs held by American consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products." They confirmed that highly ethnocentric customers would believe that it is immoral and unethical to buy foreign made products; doing so is both harmful to the domestic economy and unpatriotic. Ethnocentrism was incorporated in the area of marketing as a potential element which influenced consumer behaviour (Javalgi et al., 2005). Since then it has been regarded as a human characteristic that can affect buyers' decisions for purchasing products in different situations (Bojei et al., 2010). Ethnocentric customers would believe that purchasing foreign made products is immoral (Camacho et al., 2022) because it would create unemployment in the economy (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). According to Hales and Edmonds (2019), ethnocentrism indicates favourable attitudes towards persons of the same ethnic background, while it is an unfavourable towards individuals of different ethnicities.

Earlier researchers claimed that ethnocentric tendency cannot only differ among buyers (Durvasula et al., 1997; Shimp, 1984) but also vary between regions within a nation (Shimp & Sharma, 1987), and it may change from one nation to another (Becis, 2016; Huddleston et al., 2001).

Earlier researchers (Alam et al., 2022; Han, 2017; Josiassen et al., 2011) confirmed the impact of income, gender, education qualification, occupational status, marital status, and age on the intensity of consumer ethnocentrism. Researchers (Acikdilli et al., 2018; Shankarmahesh, 2006) also described the gender, income, age, and education as demographic antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism through in-depth literature review. Even Huddleston et

al. (2001) assert the significance of the association between ethnocentrism and demographical antecedents for marketers to ascertain the sensitivity of local purchaser for specific brands.

The main benefit of including the demographic variables in the research is that these are easily measurable and highly useful for market predictions. Therefore, to examine the demographic characteristics in consumer behaviour research enhances the managerial relevance (Homburg & Giering, 2001).

Role of Gender

Many studies underline the significant difference between men and women regarding their ethnocentric beliefs. Earlier scholars claim that male buyers are more ethnocentric than females (Bannister & Saunders, 1978). On the contrary, many studies agreed that females are highly ethnocentric (Balabanis et al., 2001; Bruning, 1997; Good & Huddleston, 1995; Kucukemiroglu, 1999; Sharma et al., 1995) and patriotic (Josiassen et al., 2011) compared to men. Past literatures have also testified that females are more conformist, conservative (Eagly, 1978; Han, 1988), and collective-minded (Triandis et al., 1985) because collective-mindedness and conservativeness lead to a higher propensity toward ethnocentrism among consumers. Another study, by Han (2018), analyzed the impact of gender on ethnocentrism in 28 countries; it concluded that males have a higher ethnocentric tendency than females in three countries (Russia, Mexico, and Turkey). However, the differences between male and female ethnocentric tendencies are inconsistent across nations. Further, many studies reported no relationship between gender and ethnocentrism (Caruana, 1996; Jain et al., 2013; Kilders et al., 2021). There are conflicting results related to consumer ethnocentrism and gender. Indian society is patriarchal (Brokaw & Lakshman, 1995; Mullaiti, 1995; Webster, 2000). In India, males dominate the labour force and are the prime income earner for their families. Consequently, men manage their family expenditures and earn income (Gupta, 2011). Chadda and Deb (2013) mentioned in their study that women are the primary breadwinners in their families, though they have little influence on decision-making in the family. Sometimes, this leads to a disorganized power structure and role resentment within the family. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H₁:-Male consumers are less ethnocentric than female consumers.

Role of Age

The results are mixed when exploring the relationship between ethnocentrism and age in consumer behaviour research. Age has significantly influenced consumer ethnocentrism. People of different ages exhibit varying degrees of ethnocentric tendency due to disparities in upbringing, culture, and exposure to the external environment. Han (2018) has claimed a positive association between age and ethnocentrism in the case of three countries (Chile, Taiwan, and Spain) out of the 28 countries. Earlier studies (Bannister & Saunders, 1978; Mittal & Tsiros, 1995; Schooler, 1971) revealed that ethnocentric tendencies are higher in younger customers than older ones. However, other studies obtained contrary findings (Balabanis et al., 2001; Sharma et al., 1995), claiming that ethnocentric tendency is higher among older customers. Pentz Chris D. et al. (2014) also found a positive relationship between age and ethnocentrism. The positive relationship is due to increased cosmopolitanism and its socio-cultural impact on the younger generation's belief system (Shankarmahesh, 2006). However, Bojei et al. (2010) examined that the age of consumers is not a critical factor in deciding their level of ethnocentric tendency because the level of the ethnocentric tendency among consumers is affected by other factors like profession, gender, salary, education levels and their experience regarding the use of imported products (Sharma et al., 1995). Usually, older persons are more rigid, nationalistic, and hostile to foreign cultures. They have this perspective because they have experienced war and the devastation caused by military occupation. Meanwhile, younger people were more vulnerable to global culture as compared to older people (Gupta, 2013). Therefore, the subsequent hypothesis is proposed.

H₂:- Young customers are less ethnocentric than older ones.

Role of Income Level

Researchers are not unanimous on the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and income level. Some literature reported a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and income (Bruning, 1997; Caruana, 1996; Kilders et al., 2021; Pentz Chris D. et al., 2014; Sharma et al., 1995). On the contrary, other studies have claimed a positive relationship (Balabanis et al., 2001; Tan & Farley, 1987). However, some studies have found no relationship (Caruana, 1996; Han, 1988; Jain et al., 2013). Shimp and Sharma (1987) also confirmed that people who belong to lower socio-economic groups are more ethnocentric than those belonging to higher groups

because they fear losing jobs in their home country to foreign rivals. Pentz et al. (2014) discovered the negative relationship between ethnocentrism and income in the context of black and white consumers. A thorough literature review indicates no consensus among researchers regarding age as a demographic factor for differentiating ethnocentric consumers. People from higher-income brackets were more receptive to the culture of the outside world. Individuals from higher-income groups exhibited greater exposure to global culture and global brands; their income allowed them to try out the international lifestyle (Khare, 2014). Keeping in mind all these findings, we proposed the following hypothesis.

H₃:- Higher income consumers are less ethnocentric than lower income.

Role of Occupational Status

Working professionals and students exhibit a less ethnocentric attitude than those who are homemakers and retired. Working people are more receptive to new lifestyles and ideas (Kucukemiroglu, 1999). These consumers interact with the outside world and get more exposure. Therefore, we proposed the hypothesis:-

H₄:- There is a significant difference in ethnocentric tendencies among consumers from different occupational categories.

Role of Education

Past literature has found a negative relation between consumer ethnocentrism and education level, which refers to individuals with higher education exhibiting a lower level of ethnocentrism (Caruana, 1996; Good & Huddleston, 1995; Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Sharma et al., 1995). Kvasina et al. (2018) found that educated and high school-passed customers are more ethnocentric than consumers with other qualifications. Scholars have examined that educated persons are more likely to accept diverse cultures and values from other nations and buy products manufactured in these countries. Consumers with higher education are also less conservative and open-minded because they are more approachable to Western culture (Balabanis et al., 2001; Klein & Ettenson, 1999). Conversely, less educated consumers, due to ignorance and lack of knowledge, show strong ethnocentric feelings by refraining from foreign products. However, some researchers found no relation between consumer ethnocentrism and level of education (Guo & Bunchapattanasakda, 2020; Jain et al., 2013; Javalgi et al., 2005). The findings are mixed. Therefore, subsequent hypothesis is proposed.

H₅ = There is no significant difference between education level and ethnocentrism.

Marital Status

Past studies confirmed that married customers are more ethnocentric (Akbarov & Cafarova, 2020) because unmarried people tend to exhibit more tolerance to diverse cultures and are more liberal. In contrast, a married person focuses more on their family (Kucukemiroglu, 1999). Some earlier studies also claimed that married and unmarried respondents differ in ethnocentric tendencies (Akbarov & Cafarova, 2020; Alam et al., 2022; Ishii, 2009). The following hypothesis is constructed.

H₆:-There is a significant difference between marital status in terms of ethnocentrism.

Research Methodology

The sample data for the present study was collected from three states and two union territories from the northern region of India. The three states (Punjab, Haryana and Uttar Pradesh) and two union territories (Chandigarh and Delhi) are highly developed and populated. Researchers have selected urban consumers for the present study because urban consumers have more exposure to foreign products and brands due to the existence of shopping malls and multinational shops in urban areas (Mai & Smith, 2012). This exposure makes the consumers consider and prefer foreign products. They are even more materialistic than rural people. The study used snowball sampling techniques to collect a sample from the urban population because it was very challenging to identify consumers who purchased and used Chinese products. Therefore, snowball sampling was an appropriate technique for identifying the sample unit for the present study.

The study used Yamane's (1967) formula to calculate the minimum sample size. The minimum sample size for the present research should be 399.99. The responses were collected from the respondents between the periods

from January 2022 to July 2022. Researchers explained all the details related to the research objectives to the respondents, and their confusion and queries were also cleared individually. Scholars assured respondents that their privacy would not be revealed to anyone. A Google Form was created and sent to 750 individuals for data collection. However, only 526 responses were obtained, which means the response rate was over 70 percent. Five responses were excluded after scrutinizing the responses. The remaining sample size was 521, which is much higher than the minimum sample size.

In the present study, independent t-test and One-way ANOVA were employed to evaluate the impact of demographic variables on customers' ethnocentrism. In the present study, the two demographic variables (gender and marital status) have two independent groups. To compare these groups, independent sample t-test was employed. On the other side, to evaluate three or more than three independent groups, One-way ANOVA (Gerber & Malhotra, 2008) test was used. These variables are: education, age, occupation, and income.

Measures

The consumer ethnocentrism scale was adapted from Klein et al. (1998) and it contains six items. Originally, the scale was adopted from Shimp and Sharma (1987). The measurement items employ a 5-point Likert scale where 1 represents "strongly disagree" and 5 represents "strongly agree." The scale employs items such as "It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Indian out of jobs" and "Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Indian." The Table-1 shows the mean score of all six items of consumer ethnocentrism. The item of consumer ethnocentrism, "We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country," got the highest mean score (3.86), and the item "Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Indian" got the lowest mean score (3.13). The total mean of all items' mean is 3.58, which indicates that Indian consumers are highly ethnocentric and have negative attitudes towards products imported from foreign countries.

Table-1: Mean score of each item and percentage of every point for each statement

Variable	Statement	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)	Mean Score
CE1	It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Indian out of jobs.	6.7	13.8	25.5	20.9	33	3.60
CE2	Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Indian.	20.3	13.1	19.4	27.4	19.8	3.13
CE3	Indian products, first, last, and foremost.	5.8	12.7	22.3	23.4	35.9	3.71
CE4	Products should be purchased which are manufactured in India instead of letting other countries get rich off of us.	4.8	15.2	14.6	26.1	39.3	3.80
CE5	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country	5.4	10.9	17.7	24.2	41.8	3.86
CE6	Indian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Indians out of work.	10.2	16.7	22.6	25.1	25.3	3.39
Total Mean							3.58

The reliability of scale meets the threshold criteria ($\alpha= 0.91$).

Sample

The first part of the survey's questionnaire was designed for the collection of the respondents' demographic statistics and Table-2 reveals the details. Majority of the responses received were from male respondents (51.4%).

Approximately forty-one per cent respondents belonged to the young age group of 25-34. Nearly all of the respondents had a higher degree of education, making up more than 80% of the participants. A family income of over Rs. 50,000 per month was reported by forty-one per cent of respondents. 30.7 per cent respondents were students and majority of the responses received were from government employees (40.3%). Among the consumer respondents, 324 (62.2%) were married, compared to 197 (37.8%) who were not.

Table-2: Demographic profile of respondents

Demographic Characteristics	Levels	Total Frequency	Frequency Percentage
Gender	Male	268	51.4
	Female	253	48.6
Education	Secondary	4	0.8
	Senior Secondary	18	3.5
	Graduation	106	20.3
	Post Graduation	332	63.7
	Ph.D.	61	11.7
Occupation	Government Employee	210	40.3
	Student	160	30.7
	Private Employee	103	19.8
	Businessman	29	5.6
	Home Maker	19	3.6
Marital Status	Married	324	62.2
	Unmarried	197	37.8
Income	Below 10000	157	30.13
	10000-30000	66	12.7
	30000-40000	46	8.8
	40000-50000	37	7.1
	50000-100000	165	31.7
	Above 100000	50	9.6
	Total		521

Analysis and Discussion

Consumer Ethnocentrism and Gender

An Independent t-test was performed to check the significant difference between males and females. The mean value of CE is 3.69 for female consumers and 3.48 for male consumers, where $t = 2.28$ and $p\text{-value} = 0.023$, which supports H_1 . Thus, it is confirmed that male respondents are significantly different from female respondents regarding their ethnocentric level, which can comply with the finding (Akbarov, 2022). The table shows that female consumers (mean = 3.69) in India are highly ethnocentric than their male counterparts (mean = 3.48). The result of the Independent t-test indicates a significant difference between the two groups (0.023). This result is analogous to the findings of earlier researches (Bruning, 1997; Kucukemiroglu, 1999; Sharma et al., 1995). Therefore, the result supported the H_1 hypothesis.

Table-3: Group statistics (Gender)

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Purchase	Female	253	3.6904	1.02	0.063
Intention	Male	268	3.4789	1.10	0.067

Source: Author’s own calculation

Table-4: Findings of Independent t-test indicating the difference between male and female

		Levene’s Test for Equality of variances		T test for equality of means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed				2.280	519	0.023
Equal variances not assumed		2.912	0.089	2.285	518.85	0.0023

Source: Author’s own calculation

Consumer Ethnocentrism and Age

The ANOVA result shows a significant difference in the mean values of various age categories ($p = 0.022$). As shown in the table, ethnocentrism score varies across various age groups. Young Indians are comparatively less ethnocentric, with the mean value of age groups 18-24, 25-34 and 35-44 years being 3.68, 3.48 and 3.52 respectively. In all older age groups, the observed mean values are larger than the mean value for the younger consumers, such as 3.99 (45-54 yrs), and 4.19 (Above 55). Thus, hypothesis H_2 is supported. It can, therefore, be concluded that older consumers exhibit higher ethnocentric tendency than younger ones, and the result is similar to the outcome of earlier studies (Balabanis et al., 2001; Han, 1988; Jain et al., 2013; Josiassen et al., 2011).

Table-5: Age-wise one-way analysis of mean scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
18-24	115	3.6812	1.026		
25-34	212	3.4811	1.059		
35-44	150	3.5167	1.130		
45-54	35	3.9857	0.853	2.90	.022*
Above 55	9	4.1852	0.556		
Total	521	3.5816	1.062		

Note: * Statistically significant at $p \leq 0.05$

Source: Author’s own calculation

Consumer Ethnocentrism and Income

The study has found statistically significant variation among consumers from different income levels; thereby, the H_3 hypothesis is supported. The current study revealed that ethnocentrism is higher among consumers from lower income groups (Rs. 10000-30000 and Below Rs. 10000). It is followed by higher income consumers (Above Rs. 100000); middle-class consumers (Rs. 40000-50000, Rs. 50000-100000 Rs. 30000-40000) show less ethnocentric tendency. Further, the mean value differs for respondents from different income groups. The mean value for lower income groups (Rs. 10000-30000 and below 10000) is higher at 3.81 and 3.69 respectively. The mean value decreases in the higher income group (mean value for income brackets Above Rs. 100000 and Rs. 50000-100000 is 3.64 and 3.47 respectively). The consumers in the income group Rs. 30000-40000 have the lowest mean score (3.23). The result of ANOVA shows a significant F-value of 2.389 ($p = 0.037$). Therefore, hypothesis H_3 is also

supported.

Table-6: Group statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Below 10000	157	3.69	0.899		
10000-30000	66	3.81	0.899		
30000-40000	46	3.23	1.281	2.389	.037
40000-50000	37	3.58	1.096		
50000-100000	165	3.47	1.063		
Above 100000	50	3.64	1.008		
Total	521	3.58	1.062		

Source: Author's own calculation

Consumer Ethnocentrism and Occupation

There is insignificant difference in the mean values of consumers belonging to different occupational categories. The ANOVA results show the F-value = .606 (p = 0.659). The mean scores of different occupational groups are close to each other. Therefore, hypothesis H_4 is not supported.

Table-7: Group statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Student	160	3.558	1.125		
Private Employee	103	3.659	0.947		
Government Employee	210	3.550	1.061	.606	.659
House Maker	19	3.877	0.871		
Businessman	29	3.529	1.230		
Total	521	3.581	1.062		

Source: Author's own calculation

Consumer Ethnocentrism and Education Qualification

The result shows no significant difference in the mean values of consumers with different educational qualifications. The ANOVA result shows the F-value =1.469 (p = 0.210). Thus, hypothesis H_5 is supported. The result is analogous to the findings of earlier literature (Han, 1988; Jain et al., 2013), which claimed that ethnocentric tendency is the same among all consumers from different educational backgrounds. However, the finding of the present research is not supported by some earlier studies (Caruana, 1996; Klein & Ettenson, 1999).

Table-8: Group statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Secondary	4	3.2917	1.03972		
Senior Secondary	18	3.6296	.96771		
Graduation	106	3.7390	1.03715		
Post Graduation	332	3.5768	1.07321	1.469	0.210
Ph.D	61	3.3388	1.05715		
Total	521	3.5816	1.06248		

Source: Author's own calculation

Consumer Ethnocentrism and Marital Status

In the case of marital status, unmarried respondents are not significantly different from married ones in terms of ethnocentric level. Thus, H_6 hypothesis is not supported. The F-value is 0.566 (p = 0.455), which shows that ethnocentric tendency between married and unmarried people are same. The results contradicted the finding of Akbarov and Cafarova (2020), and Kucukemiroglu, (1999).

Table-9: Group statistics

	Marital Status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Consumer	Married	324	3.62	1.05	.058
Ethnocentrism	Unmarried	197	3.52	1.09	.077

Source: Author’s own calculation

Table-9: Findings of Independent t-test indicating the difference between married and unmarried consumers regarding their ethnocentric tendency

	Levene’s Test for Equality of variances		T test for equality of means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed			.955	519	.340
Equal variances not assumed	.560	.455	.948	403.19	.344

Source: Author’s own calculation

Discussion

The current research provides significant insight into the consumer behaviour through the influence of demographic variables on consumer ethnocentrism in India which is culturally very diverse. The study used the One-way ANOVA and Independent t-test for analyzing the data. The findings reveal that ethnocentric tendency is significantly different among consumers belonging to different genders, age groups and income levels. However, in case of marital status, occupational category and educational qualification, ethnocentric tendency are same among consumers. The results found that Indian women are more ethnocentric than men (H_1) because the latter have the responsibility of earning money to take care of their family expenses (Gupta, 2011). Whereas females are not allowed to work or go outside at all because of conservative social standards (Biswas, 2023). Women also have primary responsibility of taking care of their families (Kumar et al., 2011). Sen (2020), in her article, mentioned that Indian people believe that the absence of women at home adversely affects the overall well-being of the family, domestic duties, and the children’s upbringing. Some families even dislike women’s efforts to achieve financial independence (Sen, 2020). She also stated that previously, men disapproved of their wives and daughters going outside for earnings. Even they believe that working with other males is equivalent to jeopardizing women’s safety and purity.

The current study identified the significant difference in the consumer’s ethnocentric tendency across different age groups (H_2). The results found that older customers have higher ethnocentric tendency than younger ones. The finding is consistent with previous findings (Balabanis et al., 2001; Han, 1988; Jain et al., 2013; Josiassen et al., 2011). Consumers aged between 25-34 exhibit lowest tendency of ethnocentrism consumers aged 18-24, and 35-44 show higher ethnocentric tendency, while consumers over 45 had the highest level of customers’ ethnocentrism. Scholars stated that individuals exhibit increasing ethnocentric tendencies as they age (Good & Huddleston, 1995; Maison & Maliszewski, 2016). Indian youth are more aware about the recent trends and events in the western worlds because of the widespread use of social media (Roy, 2006). Younger people may be more receptive to products imported from foreign nations because they have grown up in a more open world. However, older people are more connected to their national identity and traditional values.

The study has also found significant difference among consumers from different income groups regarding their ethnocentric tendency (H_3). The consumers from lower income groups are highly ethnocentric than middle and higher income consumers. The results are consistent to the findings of previous studies (Bruning, 1997; Caruana, 1996; Pentz Chris D. et al., 2014; Sharma et al., 1995). Balabanis et al., (2001) argued that consumers with higher

income are well-travelled and cosmopolitan therefore they are less ethnocentric. Even in some earlier studies (Batra et al., 2000; Ger & Belk, 1996) claimed that consumers from developing countries adapt the consumption patterns and lifestyles from economically more advanced nations. Gupta, (2013) also confirmed in context of India that Indian people from high-income groups prefer to buy foreign brands than the people who belongs to lower-income groups. Because of high-income, consumers are able to try foreign brands.

Study also confirmed the insignificant relation of occupational status with ethnocentrism (H_4). The findings are consistent with the finding of Caruana, (1996). The current study claimed that buyers have same ethnocentric tendency within consumers from different educational qualification (H_5). The finding of the research is consistent with the previous studies' findings (Guo & Bunchapattanasakda, 2020; Jain et al., 2013; Javalgi et al., 2005). The study reported that collectivism is a prominent characteristic of Indian society, which also promotes social dependency and solidarity (Chadda & Deb, 2013).

The study found insignificant differences between married and unmarried respondents regarding their ethnocentric tendencies (H_6). The results are consistent with the findings of earlier researchers. Indian society is conservative and traditional; giving higher importance to already established socio-cultural norms in India (Kapadia, 1955; Karve, 1953). Communal and family values are intricately woven into a person's identity from a very young age in India, and these values remain strong irrespective of marital status. Even the majority of persons are socialized within a common cultural framework that frequently promotes the maintenance of traditional beliefs and values in society, regardless of whether the person is married or unmarried.

Implications, Limitation and Future research Area

In the present study, female, older, and lower-income consumers are ethnocentric; therefore, Indian marketers can benefit from ethnocentric consumers. They can focus on manufacturing products for female, older, and lower-income consumers. Policymakers can utilize targeted social media campaigns and raise awareness about the advantages of buying domestic products, ultimately encouraging consumers to make more informed purchasing decisions that benefit their local communities. The study selected the three states and two union territories from the Northern Region of India, and the sample size is very small. Therefore, we cannot generalize the findings from this study to all consumers from different regions of the country. Further, the study covered only urban consumers and neglected rural ones. The research findings are time-sensitive because consumers' behaviours can change when the country's cultural, economic, and political factors change.

Future researchers can also include other states and union territories from different regions of India to improve understanding of consumer behaviours. Further, they can take a sample of rural consumers in their study and expand the sample size. Researchers can also compare their findings with the findings of the current research.

Conclusion

The present research aims to analyze the impact of demographic variables on consumer ethnocentrism. The study was conducted in selected states and UTs from the northern region of India. The 521 urban consumers are chosen for analysis purposes. The study found a significant difference in context of gender, age, and income regarding consumer's ethnocentric tendencies. This shows that these demographic variables are crucial in consumers' behaviour and shaping attitudes toward foreign vs domestic products. On the contrary, the research established insignificant differences in context of occupational status, educational qualification, and marital status. This indicates that these variables are not much influential in shaping consumers' preferences. However, this study provides valuable insights to marketers and policymakers.

Abbreviation

CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism
ANOVA= Analysis of variance

Acknowledgments

Not Applicable

Author Contribution

All authors contributed to the study

Conflict of Interest

The authors declared that they have no conflicting interests.

Ethics Approval

Approval has been taken for the ethnocentrism scale.

Funding

Not received any type of funding from any government or private departments.

References

- Acikdilli, G., Ziemnowicz, C., & Bahhouth, V. (2018). Consumer Ethnocentrism in Turkey: Ours are Better than Theirs. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 30(1), 45–57. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08961530.2017.1361882>
- Agbonifoh, B. A., & Elimimian, J. U. (1999). Attitudes of Developing Countries Towards “Country-of-Origin” Products in an Era of Multiple Brands. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 11(4), 97–116. https://doi.org/10.1300/J046v11n04_06
- Akbarov, S. (2022). Consumer ethnocentrism and purchasing behavior: Moderating effect of demographics. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, 13(4), 898–932. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JIMA-02-2020-0047>
- Akbarov, S., & Cafarova, A. (2020). The Influence of Consumer Ethnocentrism on Buying Behavior—The Case of Azerbaijan. *SCHOLEDGE International Journal of Multidisciplinary & Allied Studies*, 7(10), 188–193. <https://doi.org/10.19085/sijmas071001>
- Alam, Md. A., Roy, D., Akther, R., & Hoque, R. (2022). Consumer ethnocentrism and buying intentions on electronic products: Moderating effects of demographics. *South Asian Journal of Marketing*, 3(2), 82–96. <https://doi.org/10.1108/SAJM-03-2021-0032>
- Balabanis, G., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2004). Domestic Country Bias, Country-of-Origin Effects, and Consumer Ethnocentrism: A Multidimensional Unfolding Approach. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 32(1), 80–95. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0092070303257644>
- Balabanis, G., Diamantopoulos, A., Mueller, R. D., & Melewar, T. C. (2001). The Impact of Nationalism, Patriotism and Internationalism on Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(1), 157–175. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490943>
- Bannister, J. P., & Saunders, J. A. (1978). UK Consumers’ Attitudes towards Imports: The Measurement of National Stereotype Image. *European Journal of Marketing*, 12(8), 562–570. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000004982>
- Batra, R., Ramaswamy, V., Alden, D. L., Steenkamp, J.-B. E. M., & Ramachander, S. (2000). Effects of Brand Local and Nonlocal Origin on Consumer Attitudes in Developing Countries. In *Journal of Consumer Psychology: Vol. 9(2)* (pp. 83–95).
- Becis, M. (2016). An Assessment of Consumer Ethnocentrism Tendencies Scale among University Students: The case of Turkish and Bosnian Students. *Inquiry-Sarajevo Journal of Social Science*, 2(1), 119–130.
- Biswas, S. (2023, March 3). Why half of India’s urban women stay at home. *British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC)*. <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-asia-india-64810339>
- Bojei, J., Tuah, S. N. A., Alwie, A., & Ahmad, M. (2010). Local vs. Foreign Made: Are Malaysians Ethnocentric? *IUP Journal of Marketing Management*, 9(3), 6–23.
- Brokaw, S. C., & Lakshman, C. (1995). Cross-Cultural Consumer Research in India: A Review and Analysis. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 7(3), 53–80. https://doi.org/10.1300/J046v07n03_04
- Bruning, E. R. (1997). Country of origin, national loyalty and product choice: The case of international air travel. *International Marketing Review*, 14(1), 59–74. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02651339710159215>
- Camacho, L. J., Ramírez-Correa, P., & Salazar-Concha, C. (2022). Xenocentrism and Formal Education: Evaluating Its Impact on the Behavior of Chilean Consumers. *Journal of Risk and Financial Management*, 15(4), 166. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jrfm15040166>

- Caruana, A. (1996). The effects of dogmatism and social class variables on consumer ethnocentrism in Malta. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 14(4), 39–44. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02634509610121569>
- Chadda, R., & Deb, K. (2013). Indian family systems, collectivistic society and psychotherapy. *Indian Journal of Psychiatry*, 55(6), 299. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0019-5545.105555>
- Cheah, I., & Shimul, A. S. (2018). Consumer Ethnocentrism, Market Mavenism and Social Network Analysis. *Australasian Marketing Journal*, 26(3), 281–288. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ausmj.2018.05.017>
- Cooil, B., Keiningham, T. L., Aksoy, L., & Hsu, M. (2007). A Longitudinal Analysis of Customer Satisfaction and Share of Wallet: Investigating the Moderating Effect of Customer Characteristics. *Journal of Marketing*, 71(1), 67–83. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.71.1.067>
- Crask, Melvin, R., & Fred, D. R. (1978). An indepth profile of the department store shopper. *Journal of Retailing*, 54(2), 23–32.
- Durvasula, S., Andrews, J. C., & Netemeyer, R. G. (1997). A Cross-Cultural Comparison of Consumer Ethnocentrism in the United States and Russia. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 9(4), 73–93. https://doi.org/10.1300/J046v09n04_05
- Eagly, A. H. (1978). Sex differences in influenceability. *Psychological Bulletin*, 85(1), 86–116. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.85.1.86>
- Fisher, R. J., & Dubé, L. (2005). Gender Differences in Responses to Emotional Advertising: A Social Desirability Perspective. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(4), 850–858. <https://doi.org/10.1086/426621>
- Ger, G., & Belk, R. W. (1996). Cross-cultural differences in materialism. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 17(1), 55–77. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-4870\(95\)00035-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-4870(95)00035-6)
- Gerber, A., & Malhotra, N. (2008). Do Statistical Reporting Standards Affect What Is Published? Publication Bias in Two Leading Political Science Journals. *Quarterly Journal of Political Science*, 3(3), 313–326. <https://doi.org/10.1561/100.00008024>
- Good, L. K., & Huddleston, P. (1995). Ethnocentrism of Polish and Russian consumers: Are feelings and intentions related. *International Marketing Review*, 12(5), 35–48. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02651339510103047>
- Guo, X., & Bunchapattanasakda, C. (2020). Impacts of consumer ethnocentrism on purchasing intention of electric vehicles: A case study of Henan Province, China. I, 13(3), 1-59. *International Business Research*, 13(3), 1–59.
- Gupta, N. (2011). Globalization does lead to change in consumer behavior: An empirical evidence of impact of globalization on changing materialistic values in Indian consumers and its aftereffects. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 23(3), 251–269. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13555851111143204>
- Gupta, N. (2013). Understanding acculturation of consumer culture in an emerging market: An analysis of urban, educated, middle-class Indian consumers. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 8(1), 24–40. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17468801311297264>
- Hales, D., & Edmonds, B. (2019). Intragenerational Cultural Evolution and Ethnocentrism. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 63(5), 1283–1309. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022002718780481>
- Han, C. M. (1988). The role of consumer patriotism in the choice of domestic versus foreign products. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 28, 25–31.

Han, C. M. (2017). Cosmopolitanism and ethnocentrism among young consumers in emerging Asia: Chinese vs Koreans towards Japanese brands. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 29(2), 330–346. <https://doi.org/10.1108/APJML-07-2016-0113>

Han, C. M. (2018). Demographic Antecedents of Consumer Cosmopolitanism and Ethnocentrism: A Country-Level Analysis with Twenty-Eight Countries. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 2(5), 30–35. <https://doi.org/10.26666/rmp.ijbm.2018.5.5>

Homburg, C., & Giering, A. (2001). Personal characteristics as moderators of the relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty? an empirical analysis. *Psychology and Marketing*, 18(1), 43–66. [https://doi.org/10.1002/1520-6793\(200101\)18:1<43::AID-MAR3>3.0.CO;2-I](https://doi.org/10.1002/1520-6793(200101)18:1<43::AID-MAR3>3.0.CO;2-I)

Huddleston, P., Good, L. K., & Stoel, L. (2001). Consumer ethnocentrism, product necessity and Polish consumers' perceptions of quality. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 29(5), 236–246. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09590550110390896>

Ishii, K. (2009). Nationalistic Sentiments of Chinese Consumers: The Effects and Determinants of Animosity and Consumer Ethnocentrism. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 21(4), 299–308. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08961530802282232>

Jain, S. K., Jain, R., & University of Delhi. (2013). Consumer Ethnocentrism and Its Antecedents: An Exploratory Study of Consumers in India. *Asian Journal of Business Research*, 3(1). <https://doi.org/10.14707/ajbr.130001>

Javalgi, R. G., Khare, V. P., Gross, A. C., & Scherer, R. F. (2005). An application of the consumer ethnocentrism model to French consumers. *International Business Review*, 14(3), 325–344. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2004.12.006>

Jin, B., & Son, J. (2013). Indian consumers: Are they the same across regions? *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 8(1), 7–23. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17468801311297255>

Josiassen, A., Assaf, A. G., & Karpen, I. O. (2011). Consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy: Analyzing the role of three demographic consumer characteristics. *International Marketing Review*, 28(6), 627–646. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02651331111181448>

Kapadia, K. M. (1955). Marriage and family in India. *Indian Branch, Oxford University Press*, 3.

Karve, I. (1953). Deccan College Monograph Series. *Deccan College Post-Graduate and Research Institute*.

Khare, A. (2014). How cosmopolitan are Indian consumers?: A study on fashion clothing involvement. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 18(4), 431–451. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMM-05-2013-0066>

Kilders, V., Caputo, V., & Liverpool-Tasie, L. S. O. (2021). Consumer ethnocentric behavior and food choices in developing countries: The case of Nigeria. *Food Policy*, 99, 101973. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodpol.2020.101973>

Klein, J. G., & Ettenson, R. (1999). Consumer Animosity and Consumer Ethnocentrism: An Analysis of Unique Antecedents. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 11(4), 5–24. https://doi.org/10.1300/J046v11n04_02

Klein, J. G., Ettenson, R., & Morris, M. D. (1998). The Animosity Model of Foreign Product Purchase: An Empirical Test in the People's Republic of China. *Journal of Marketing*, 62(1), 89–100. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224299806200108>

- Kucukemiroglu, O. (1999). Market segmentation by using consumer lifestyle dimensions and ethnocentrism: An empirical study. *European Journal of Marketing*, 33(5/6), 470–487. <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090569910262053>
- Kumar, A., Fairhurst, A., & Kim, Y.-K. (2011). Ethnocentric tendencies of Indian consumers: Impact on preference for domestic versus foreign products. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 21(4), 323–341. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09593969.2011.595496>
- Kvasina, A., Crnjak Karanović, B., & Tucak, A. (2018). The impact of demographic and socio-psychological characteristics on consumers' ethnocentric tendencies: Evidence from Croatia. *Management: Journal of Contemporary Management Issues*, 23(2), 47–64. <https://doi.org/10.30924/mjcmi/2018.23.2.47>
- Lambert-Pandraud, R., Laurent, G., & Lapersonne, E. (2005). Repeat Purchasing of New Automobiles by Older Consumers: Empirical Evidence and Interpretations. *Journal of Marketing*, 69(2), 97–113. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.69.2.97.60757>
- Mai, N. T. T., & Smith, K. (2012). The Impact of Status Orientations on Purchase Preference for Foreign Products in Vietnam, and Implications for Policy and Society. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 32(1), 52–60. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0276146711421786>
- Maison, D., & Maliszewski, N. (2016). “Worse but Ours,” or “Better but Theirs?” – The Role of Implicit Consumer Ethnocentrism (ICE) in Product Preference. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01830>
- Meyers-Levy, J. (1988). The Influence of Sex Roles on Judgment. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14(4), 522. <https://doi.org/10.1086/209133>
- Meyers-Levy, J., & Maheswaran, D. (1991). Exploring Differences in Males' and Females' Processing Strategies. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18(1), 63. <https://doi.org/10.1086/209241>
- Mittal, V., & Tsiros, M. (1995). Does Country of Origin Transfer Between Brands? *Advances in Consumer Research*, 22(1), 292–296.
- Mullaiti, L. (1995). Families in India: Beliefs and Realities. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 26(1), 11–25. <https://doi.org/10.3138/jcfs.26.1.11>
- Netemeyer, R. G., Durvasula, S., & Lichtenstein, D. R. (1991). A Cross-National Assessment of the Reliability and Validity of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 28(3), 320. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3172867>
- Pentz Chris D., Terblanche Nic S., & Boshoff Christo. (2014). Demographics and consumer ethnocentrism in a developing country context: A South African study. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 17(4), 412–426. <https://doi.org/10.10520/EJC157808>
- Price, L. L., Arnould, E. J., & Deibler, S. L. (1995). Consumers' emotional responses to service encounters: The influence of the service provider. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 6(3), 34–63. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09564239510091330>
- Roy, S. (2006). An Exploratory Study in Celebrity Endorsements. *Journal of Creative Communications*, 1(2), 139–153. <https://doi.org/10.1177/097325860600100201>
- Schooler, R. (1971). Bias Phenomena Attendant to the Marketing of Foreign Goods in the U. S. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 2(1), 71–80.
- Sen, S. (2020, February 20). Why Many Women in India stay Away From The Workforce? *Rights of Equality Promoting Gender Equality and Women Empowerment*. <https://www.rightsofequality.com/why-so-many-women-do-not-work-in-india/>

- Shankarmahesh, M. N. (2006). Consumer ethnocentrism: An integrative review of its antecedents and consequences. *International Marketing Review*, 23(2), 146–172. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02651330610660065>
- Sharma, S., Shimp, T. A., & Shin, J. (1995). Consumer Ethnocentrism: A Test of Antecedents and Moderators. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23(1), 26–37. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0092070395231004>
- Shimp, T. A. (1984). Consumer ethnocentrism: The concept and a preliminary empirical test. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 11(1), 285.
- Shimp, T. A., & Sharma, S. (1987). Consumer Ethnocentrism: Construction and Validation of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24, 280–289.
- Sumner, W. G. (1906). *Folkways: A study of the sociological importance of usages, manners, customs, mores, and morals*. Wiley, New York.
- Tan, C. T., & Farley, J. U. (1987). The Impact of Cultural Patterns on Cognition and Intention in Singapore. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13(4), 540. <https://doi.org/10.1086/209087>
- Triandis, H. C., Leung, K., Villareal, M. J., & Clack, F. I. (1985). Allocentric versus idiocentric tendencies: Convergent and discriminant validation. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 19(4), 395–415. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-6566\(85\)90008-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-6566(85)90008-X)
- Webster, C. (2000). Is spousal decision making a culturally situated phenomenon?. *Psychology & Marketing*, 17(12), 1035–1058.
- Wong, C. Y., Polonsky, M. J., & Garma, R. (2008). The impact of consumer ethnocentrism and country of origin sub-components for high involvement products on young Chinese consumers' product assessments. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 20(4), 455–478. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13555850810909759>