

Investigating the effect of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intention for foreign products

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Abstract

Background: Broadly defined as preference for another country rather than your own, xenocentrism in the context of consumer and consumption refers to willingness to purchase foreign products even if there are equivalent domestic products that are similar or even better in quality.

Purpose: The aim of this study is to determine the effect of consumer xenocentrism on Iraq-Kirkukian consumers' purchase intention for Turkish products. In addition, the study also examines the differences between the demographic variables and xenocentrism.

Study design/methodology/approach: To achieve these purposes, a survey was administered to a sampling consisting of 450 individuals selected by using convenient sampling method, and 418 of these surveys were included in the analyses. This sampling consisted of Turkmens, Arabs and Kurds. T-test and ANOVA test were performed to identify the differences between demographic information about the participants and xenocentrism. Factor analysis was done for the scales used in the study, and multiple regression analysis was done later to obtain the effect of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intention for Turkish products.

Findings/conclusions: The results of the study reported a positive and significant effect of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intention for Turkish products. In addition, consumer xenocentrism in Kirkukian consumers did not differ according to gender and ethnic identity.

Limitations/future research: The research was conducted in the city of Kirkuk, Iraq, which was under adverse political and security conditions and face-to-face survey was limited. The results cannot be generalized since Kirkuk has the most diverse ethnic identity in Iraq and is a place where Turkmens live more densely than other cities. Therefore, conducting this research in other countries would yield different results. In particular, examining the structure of consumer xenocentrism in developed economies would provide additional information about the prevalence and impact of xenocentric tendencies in these countries. It is also important to investigate the impact of consumer xenocentrism on other variables such as product decisions, risk perceptions and willingness to pay.

Keywords

xenocentrism; foreign products; purchase intention; consumption; Kirkukian consumers

Introduction

Xenocentrism is a term derived from the Greek word “xenos” (Gr.: *xénos* Eng.: ZEE-no;), which literally means “foreign visitor” or “stranger”. This notion refers to one’s perception of their own culture as inferior to others and preference to appreciate other cultures’ elements and customs rather than those of his own culture (Najmaldin, 2020). To illustrate, this phenomenon might be used to explain problems encountered by a tourist or a student who returned from a foreign country after staying there for a few years or months in terms of associating themselves with their own society. In this respect, xenocentrism is not a notion simply confined only to non-material cultures; it is also applicable to material cultures. Xenocentrism might also lead to cultural diffusion, which is a term referring to spread of material and non-material elements of a culture from one culture to another (Najmaldin, 2020; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016).

In the field of marketing and consumption, xenocentrism is conceptualized as consumer xenocentrism (CX) while explaining insistent willingness to purchase foreign products despite the presence of their high-quality domestic equivalents (Kent & Burnight, 1951; Mueller et al., 2016). Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2016) define consumer xenocentrism as consumers’ beliefs about inferiority of domestic products and their tendency to prefer foreign products as an instrument to improve their social status. Consumer xenocentrism is an actual trendy topic of study dealing with consumer behaviors, purchase intention and factors affecting their willingness to buy domestic and foreign products. The first research focusing on this issue was a theoretical study by Mueller and Broderick (2008), titled “Consumer xenocentrism: an alternative explanation for Foreign product bias”. The study dealt with xenocentrism from a socio-psychological point of view and introduced research questions that are critical for international marketing strategy.

Another study carried out by Lawrence (2012) on consumer xenocentrism determined behaviors of consumers adopting global purchasing habits. Within the scope of the study, he developed a consumer xenocentrism scale that measures consumers’ willingness to buy foreign products. The results showed that consumers with high level of income have higher xenocentrism tendency when compared to young consumers and

consumers with high social status. The related studies using this scale found that Chinese consumers psychologically or sociologically prefer foreign products to domestic ones (Mueller & Broderick, 2008).

Still another study conducted in India examined the effect of country of origin on young consumers’ purchasing behavior. According to the findings, foreign products are perceived superior to domestic ones by consumers and they display behaviors reflecting xenocentrism (Kala & Chaubey, 2016). Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2016) made a two-dimensional conceptualization of consumer xenocentrism: perceived inferiority and social aggrandizement. They also developed a strong measurement tool for xenocentric behaviors displayed by consumers. Another study examined the effect of consumer xenocentrism on ethnocentrism and cosmopolitanism, product category, and purchase intention for domestic and foreign original and counterfeit brands according to System Justification Theory. The findings revealed that consumer xenocentrism tendency affects ethnocentrism and cosmopolitanism. In addition, the results showed that consumer xenocentrism could not account for consumers’ intention to purchase (foreign) counterfeit products (Diamantopoulos et al., 2019). Mueller et al. (2020) determined the validity of the consumer xenocentrism scale adapted to wine consumption in Brazil. Hyun and Lee (2022) aim to evaluate how perceived authenticity of ethnic restaurants interacts with personality traits (ethnocentrism and xenocentrism) to predict behavioral intentions. A total number of 581 valid responses are analyzed via regression analyses. Findings show that both ethnocentrism and xenocentrism have positive impact of perceived authenticity on behavioral intention.

High degree of environmental concern and trust in sustainable producers were found as the antecedents of consumer xenocentrism by Ghaffar et al. (2023) leading to sustainable consumption behavior. Jiang and Christian (2023) proposed a theoretical framework identifying antecedents for the emergence of consumer xenocentrism. Areiza-Padilla and Cervera-Taulet (2023) aim to examine the effect of global and foreign brands, ethnocentrism and xenocentrism related to the consumer. In addition, it evaluates the impacts of xenocentrism, dogmatism and national identity in ethnocentrism. A total number of 778 valid responses collected from developing and developed countries are analyzed via structural

equation modeling. Findings demonstrate that while xenocentrism positively affects the image of global and foreign brands, ethnocentrism does not always negatively affect the image of global and foreign brands. Additionally, while xenocentrism negatively affects the ethnocentrism, national identity and dogmatism have positive impact on ethnocentrism.

It is not always possible to account for prejudices towards foreign products through superior product features and functionality; the reason lying behind these prejudices might also be successful representation of an ideal or value that might be aspired and defined by consumers. The related research also reports that most consumers - especially in developing markets - tend to buy foreign products due to socio-psychological factors such as earning respect. In addition, a biased attitude towards foreign products might reflect association with social and economic ideals criticizing his own national system (Mueller & Broderick, 2008).

This study aims to investigate the effect of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intention of Iraq-Kirkukian consumers for Turkish products. The conceptual framework of the study and hypothesis development are structured in the first part. Sampling, scales of the study and data analysis are presented in the second section. While results are presented in the third part, the discussion and conclusion comprise the remaining two sections.

1. Background and hypothesis

1.1. The effect of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intention

The study conducted by Dachs-Wiesinger (2018) with Austrian consumers reported that consumer xenocentrism positively affects foreign product purchase intention. Similarly, Diamantopoulos et.al. (2019) carried out a study with Russian consumers and found that consumer xenocentrism positively affects original foreign product purchase intention and negatively affects domestic product purchase intention. The research by Rettanai Kannan (2020) also revealed that consumer xenocentrism positively affects original foreign product purchase intention and negatively affects domestic product purchase intention. Another study conducted in Iran reported a negative and significant effect on purchase intention for Iranian products (Sheikhepoor et al., 2020).

A similar study carried out in Iran also revealed

that consumer xenocentrism had a significant effect on foreign product purchase intention (Ghafourian et al., 2021). Rojas-Méndez and Chapa (2019) also concluded that high levels of xenocentrism result in higher willingness to purchase foreign products and low levels of xenocentrism leads to higher tendency to purchase domestic products. Camacho et al. (2020) found that consumer xenocentrism has a positive effect on willingness to purchase imported products. In a study conducted with Colombian consumers, Camacho et al. (2020), measured direct and indirect relationship between consumer xenocentrism and foreign product purchase intention. The authors suggested that consumer xenocentrism has a positive direct effect on imported product purchase intention, perceived product quality and product evaluation (Camacho et al., 2020). According to Pham and Nguyen (2020) consumer cosmopolitanism and xenocentrism have positive impact on consumers' purchase intention toward foreign products. Nguyen and Pham (2021) found that cosmopolitanism and xenocentrism attitudes positively affect consumer preference for foreign products in terms of Vietnamese consumers. Besides patriotism, wordmindedness, and materialism are stated as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, and xenocentrism, respectively.

According to the results of the study made by Mahmoud et al. (2023), all other factors (country of origin, self-confidence, self-esteem) except country image and interpersonal influence positively affect consumer intention to purchase foreign products. Zhang and Zhang (2023) proposed a hypothesis model related to Chinese consumer xenocentrism in electronics industry by utilizing structural equation modeling.

Accordingly, the following hypothesis has been formed:

H₁: Consumer xenocentrism has an effect on willingness to purchase foreign products.

1.2. Consumer xenocentrism and demographic variables

It is acknowledged that demographic variables serve as a significant factor in decision making processes of consumers (Batra et al., 2000; Belk, 2000). The related studies often dealt with a variety of variables affecting attitude towards foreign products such as age, economic differences and urban and rural differences. The related studies revealed that young consumers display more

xenocentric behaviors than elderly consumers, (Batra et al., 2000) which is an indication of freedom of young people as defined by Kent and Burnight (1951). In their study conducted with Chinese consumers, Mueller et al. (2016) aimed to explain their willingness to purchase foreign products even when domestic products are better in terms of quality and price. The findings showed that consumers with a high-income level, young consumers and those with a high social status have higher levels of consumer xenocentrism.

Thus, it is quite possible that there is a positive correlation between income and xenocentrism (Kisawike, 2015). The studies revealed that consumers with high levels of income bought foreign products more (Belk, 2000). In other words, consumers with a high income are more xenocentric in preferring foreign products. However, some researchers suggest that individuals do not have to be in high-level income group in order to purchase expensive foreign products since those in the high-level income group sometimes purchase relatively less expensive foreign products or counterfeit products (Kisawike, 2015). Similarly, the findings regarding the impacts of urban and rural differences showed that consumers living in cities were more xenocentric than those living in rural areas. The reason lying behind this situation is that people living in urban areas are exposed to foreign products more than people living in rural areas and they are more familiar with these products. For instance, consumers living in cities in India purchase foreign products to enhance their prestige when compared to those living in rural areas (Mueller & Broderick, 2008).

In their study aiming to analyze the effect of country origin of a product on purchase intention of young Indian consumers, Kala and Chaubey (2016) examined consumer ethnocentrism and consumer xenocentrism. The study also found that young Indian consumers perceived foreign products superior to domestic products and were more xenocentric (Kala & Chaubey, 2016).

According to the results of the study made by Arora et al. (2019) while low power distance, individualist, and masculine cultures show strong and positive relationships between consumer xenocentrism and negative electronic word-of-mouth; high power distance, collectivist, and less masculine (or feminine) cultures show positive relationships between xenocentrism and positive electronic word-of-mouth.

Sheikhpoor et al. (2020) examined consumer

xenocentrism and consumer purchasing behaviors for Iranian products. The study reported a low level of xenocentrism among Iranian consumers for beverages. The studies also found that there was a significant difference between consumer xenocentrism levels and age and marital status; however, they reported the lack of a significant difference between consumer xenocentrism and gender, income and educational background (Sheikhpoor et al., 2020).

Ethnic identity is a label adopted by groups degraded to minority status. It has a political content as well as social one; however, ethnic identity often involves a political content rather than social one when the basic reference points taken by this minority groups are cultural, political, lingual and religious. Foreign products are sometimes used by some groups to highlight their ethnic identity against a national one. The following hypotheses can be formulated in order to determine differentiations between consumer xenocentrism and demographic variables:

H_{2a} : Xenocentrism tendencies differ according to gender in terms of “brand trust for Turkish brands”

H_{2aa} : Xenocentrism tendencies differ according to gender in terms of “feeling proud of Turkish brands”

H_{2b} : Xenocentrism tendencies differ according to ethnic identity in terms of “brand trust for Turkish brands”

H_{2bb} : Xenocentrism tendencies differ according to ethnic identity in terms of “feeling proud of Turkish brands”

H_{2c} : Xenocentrism tendencies differ according to age groups in terms of “brand trust for Turkish brands”

H_{2cc} : Xenocentrism tendencies differ according to age groups in terms of “feeling proud of Turkish brands”

H_{2d} : Xenocentrism tendencies differ according to income levels in terms of “brand trust for Turkish brands”

H_{2dd} : Xenocentrism tendencies differ according to income levels in terms of “feeling proud of Turkish brands”

H_{2e} : Xenocentrism tendencies differ according to educational background in terms of “brand trust for Turkish brands”

H_{2ee} : Xenocentrism tendencies differ according to educational background in terms of “feeling proud of Turkish brands”

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Sampling

The participants of the study were determined by using convenient sampling method. Turkmens, Arabs and Kurds who are older than 18 years old and live in Kirkuk, a city located in northern Iraq, were the population of the study. There are mainly two ethnic groups involved in the study. The first group consists of Turkmens and the participants in the second group are non-Turkmen, namely Arabs and Kurds. In fact, that the number of Turkmens, Arabic and Kurdish people living in Kirkuk are supposedly equal. The reason lying behind the absence of accurate data is that not a census had been carried out in the city for a long time. Also, the reason why there were more Turkmens among the participants is that the Kirkuk residents with Arabic and Kurdish ethnic origin were reluctant to participate in the study when they saw the phrase “Turkish products” in the survey. Although censuses were occasionally conducted in the country; the estimated population of Kirkuk was taken as 1.600.000 in the present study since no census was carried out in the city since 1997. The data related to the study were obtained via a survey. A total of 450 participants responded to the survey; however, 418 of them were included in the analyses due to missing or wrong information in some replies.

The participants were analyzed in terms of their ethnic identity, age, income level and educational background. Accordingly, 35% of them were male and 64.6% female. In addition, 65.6% of the participants were Turkmens and 25.6% Arabs and 8.9 % Kurds. As for the age variable, 33% of the participants were in 18-25 age group, 48.3% in 26-35, 12.4% in 36-45, 3.6% in 46-55, and 2.6% of them were 56 years old and older. In addition, 2.9% of the participants were primary school graduates, 9.1% high school, 22% of them graduated from associate degree programs, 79.4% undergraduate programs and 8.6% from graduate programs. Finally, the data regarding income levels were analyzed under four different categories: low income (0-121,000 ID), low-mid (122,000-560,000 ID), mid-high (561,000-960,000 ID) and high (961,000 ID and above).

2.2. Scales of the study

Xenocentrism tendencies of Kirkukian consumers were measured by using C-XENSCALE, which was developed by Lawrence (2012) and later revised based on the principles of

System Justification Theory proposed by Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2016) in accordance with C-XEN structure (Diamantopoulos et al., 2019; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016).

The study was piloted by administering the survey to 30 people in Iraq-Kirkuk. The surveys were given to these people face-to-face and collected back within a 10-day period. The obtained data were then analyzed to determine whether the scale was suitable for a larger sampling. According to the results of the reliability analysis, the item “There are few domestic products that are as high quality as Turkish products” was removed from Consumer Xenocentrism Scale (Diamantopoulos et al., 2019; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016). The scale was finalized after the detailed analysis. It was prepared both in Turkish and Arabic and administered online. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the consumer xenocentrism scale was calculated as $(\alpha)=0,87$ and the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of purchase intention scale as $(\alpha)=0,88$.

2.3. Data analysis

The collected data were analyzed by using SPSS 25 software at 95% degree of confidence. T-test and ANOVA test were performed to determine the correlations between demographic variables and xenocentrism. Factor analysis was done for the scales used in the study and multiple regression analysis was made to explore the effect of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intention for Turkish products.

3. Results

3.1. Factor analysis for consumer xenocentrism

The factor analysis performed for consumer xenocentrism revealed a KMO value of 0.89, which suggests that the sampling was suitable for factor analysis ($KMO>0,5$). In Barlett globality test, x^2 value was calculated as 1841,48 and it was statistically significant ($p<0,05$). Therefore, the data were suitable for factor analysis according to the results of KMO and Barlett test.

Table 1 presents the results of the factor analysis for consumer xenocentrism. Xenocentrism scale has two factors. The first one is called “Trust in Turkish Brands” and consists of 5 items whose factor loads vary between 0.85 and 0.69. This factor explains 37.20 of the variance and

its reliability coefficient is 0.69. The second factor is “Feeling proud of Turkish products”, which consists of 4 items whose factor loads range between 0.79 and 0.74. This factor accounts for 28.73% of the total variance and has a reliability coefficient of 0.86.

Table 1 Exploratory factor analysis for consumer xenocentrism

	Factors Loads
Factor1: Trust in Turkish Brands Explained Variance: 37.20%; eigen value: 4.64; Alpha α :0,86	
I trust Turkish companies more than domestic ones since they are more experienced and have more resources.	0,85
I trust Turkish products more than domestic ones.	0,82
Turkish products perform better than domestic ones in most of the product categories.	0,81
I prefer to buy Turkish products.	0,81
I cannot think of a domestic brand that is as good as Turkish ones.	0,69
Factor2: Feeling proud of Turkish brands Explained Variance: 28.73%; eigen value: 1.28; Alpha α :0,80	
Those who buy a domestic product are recognized by others less.	0,79
I feel more modern when I buy Turkish products, I buy foreign products to stand out among other people.	0,78
I prefer Turkish products to domestic ones since most of the people I know buy Turkish products.	0,76
Buying Turkish products boosts my self-esteem	0,74
Total Explained Variance: 65%; Cronbach Alpha value: α :0,86	

Source: the authors

3.2. Factor analysis on purchase intention for Turkish products

The factor analysis performed for purchase intention for Turkish products revealed a KMO value of 0.70, which indicates that the sampling was suitable for factor analysis (KMO>0,5). In Barlett globality test, χ^2 value was found to be 769.52 and statistically significant ($p < 0,05$). Therefore, the data were suitable for the factor analysis according to the results of KMO and Barlett test.

Table 2 Exploratory factor analysis for intention to buy Turkish products

	Factor Loads
Factor1: Intention to buy Turkish products Explained Variance: %81.44; eigen value: 2.44; Alpha α :0,88	
I prefer to buy Turkish products	0,93
I consider buying Turkish products	0,92
It is highly possible that I buy Turkish products.	0,85

Source: the authors

Table 2 displays the results of the factor analysis performed for purchase intention for Turkish products. The scale has one factor, which consists of 3 items whose factor loads vary between 0.85 and 0.93. The factor explains %81.44 of the total variance and its reliability coefficient is 0.88.

3.3. The Effect of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intention for Turkish products

Multiple regression analysis was performed to analyze the effect of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intention for Turkish products. The regression analysis assumptions were tested prior to the analysis. The correlation coefficients between the variables were examined in order to test the presence or absence of multicollinearity. Correlations with a value of 0.80 or higher indicate the presence of multicollinearity (Kalaycı, 2010). In the present study, the correlation coefficients between the variables ranged between 0.47 (Trust in Turkish brands) and 0.48 (Feeling proud of Turkish brands). The correlation coefficients were lower than 0.80. Tolerance and VIF values were also examined while evaluating multicollinearity, which were calculated as 0.66 and 1.50 respectively. A VIF value higher than 10 indicates a multicollinearity; therefore, it was concluded that there was not a multicollinearity in the present study. In addition, Durbin Watson statistics were utilized to determine the autocorrelation value, which was calculated as 1.94. A DW value ranging between 1.5 and 2.5 shows the presence of autocorrelation. Therefore, the value calculated for this study indicates the lack of autocorrelation.

Table 3 The effect of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intention for Turkish products

Independent Variables	Dependent Variable					
	Purchase intention for Turkish Products					
	Std β	t	p	R	R ²	F
Factor1: Trust in Turkish Products	0,59	13,64	0,01**	0,68	0,47	186,72**
Factor2: Feeling proud of Turkish Products	0,14	3,28	0,01**			
Constant		10,25	0,01**			

* $p < 0,05$; ** $p < 0,01$

Source: the authors

According to the results of the regression analysis, the obtained values ($F = 186,72$; $p < 0,01$) show that the effect of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intention for Turkish products is significant (H_1 hypothesis). The factors of

consumer xenocentrism explain 47% of the dependent variable “Purchase intention for Turkish products”. When we examine the standardized beta (β) values regarding regression, we can conclude that “Trust in Foreign (Turkish) products” factor ($\beta = 0,59$; $p < 0,01$) and “Feeling proud of foreign (Turkish) products” factor ($\beta = 0,14$; $p < 0,01$) influence purchase intention for Turkish products.

3.4. Differences in consumer xenocentrism according to participants' demographic features

3.4.1. Differences in consumer Xenocentrism according to gender variable

T-test was performed to determine whether consumer xenocentrism factors differ according to gender, and the results were displayed in Table 4.

Table 4 Differences in consumer xenocentrism according to gender variable

Factors	Gender	n	Mean	df	t	p
Factor 1: Trust in Turkish Products	Male	148	3,62	416	0,40	0,68
	Female	270	3,58			
Factor 2: Feeling Proud in Turkish Products	Male	148	3,08	416	2,88	0,01**
	Female	270	2,80			

* $p < 0,05$; ** $p < 0,01$

Source: the authors

According to Table 4, there is not a significant difference ($t=0,40$; $p=0,68$) between gender and “Trust in Turkish Products”, which is a factor of consumer xenocentrism. However, gender significantly differs according to the factor “Feeling proud of Turkish products” ($t=2,88$; $p=0,01$ **). Thus, H_{2a} hypothesis was rejected while H_{2aa} hypothesis was accepted. The findings regarding “feeling proud of Turkish products” revealed that males who buy Turkish products feel proud of with Turkish products more than females.

3.4.2. Differences in consumer xenocentrism according to the participants' ethnic identities

The researchers used t-tests in order to determine whether consumer xenocentrism factors differ according to participants' ethnical background. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 5 below.

Table 5 Differences in consumer xenocentrism according to ethnic identity

Factors	Ethnic Identity	n	Mean	df	t	p
Factor1: Trust in Turkish products	Turkmen	274	3,82	416	8,29	0,01**
	Non-Turkmen	144	3,15			
Factor2: Feeling Proud in Turkish products	Turkmen	274	3,10	416	6,32	0,01**
	Non-Turkmen	144	3,50			

* $p < 0,05$; ** $p < 0,01$

Source: the authors

As shown in Table 5, the factors “Trust in Turkish brands” ($t=4,95$, $p=0,01$ **) and “Feeling proud of Turkish brands” ($t=4,95$, $p=0,01$ **) differ significantly according to ethnic identity. Thus, H_{2b} and H_{2bb} hypotheses are accepted. As for the differences between the ethnic identities, the study revealed that Turkmens trust and feel proud of Turkish brands more than the participants in the other ethnic group.

3.4.3. Differences in Consumer Xenocentrism According to Age Groups of the Participants

ANOVA analysis was done in order to determine whether consumer xenocentrism factors differ according to age groups.

Table 6 Differences in consumer xenocentrism according to age groups

Factors	Age Groups	n	Mean	df	F	p
Factor1: Trust for Turkish Products	18-25	138	3,49	4	1,56	0,18
	26-35	202	3,59			
	36-45	52	3,78			
	46-55	15	3,81			
	56 +	11	3,82			
Factor2: Feeling Proud of Turkish Products	18-25	138	2,81	4	0,62	0,64
	26-35	202	2,90			
	36-45	52	2,98			
	46-55	15	3,08			
	56 +	11	3,11			

* $p < 0,05$; ** $p < 0,01$

Source: the authors

As seen in Table 6, there is not a significant difference between age groups and “Trust in Turkish products” ($F=1.56$, $p=0.18$) and “Feeling proud of Turkish products” ($F=0.62$, $p=0.64$). Therefore, H_{2c} and H_{2cc} hypotheses are rejected.

3.4.4. Differences in consumer xenocentrism according to participants' income levels

ANOVA Test was performed in order to determine whether consumer xenocentrism factors differ according to participants' income levels of the. The results are displayed in Table 7 below.

Table 7 Differences in consumer xenocentrism according to income levels

Factors	Income levels	n	Means	df	F	p
Factor1: Trust in Turkish products	0-120.000 ID	104	3,48	3	1,88	0,13
	121.000-560.000ID	123	3,55			
	561.000-960.000 ID	129	3,73			
	961.000 ID and above	61	3,57			
Factor2: Feeling proud of Turkish products	0-120.000 ID	104	3,01	3	1,98	0,11
	121.000-560.000ID	123	2,74			
	561.000-960.000 ID	129	2,98			
	961.000 ID and above	61	2,83			

*p < 0,05; **p < 0,01

Source: the authors

Table 7 indicates the absence of a significant difference between income levels and the factors “Trust in Turkish products” (F=1,88 p=0,13) and “Feeling proud of Turkish products” (F=1,98, p=0,11). Accordingly, hypotheses H_{1d} and H_{1dd} were rejected, which signifies that consumer xenocentrism do not differ between income levels.

3.4.5. Differences in consumer xenocentrism according to participants' educational background

ANOVA Test was done in order to determine whether consumer xenocentrism factors differ according to participants' educational backgrounds. Table 8 below presents the results.

Table 8 Differences in consumer xenocentrism according to educational background

Factors	Education Levels	n	n	df	F	p
Factor1: Trust for Turkish products	Primary school	12	3,58	3	1,16	0,91
	High school	38	3,60			
	University	332	3,58			
	Graduate degree programs	36	3,69			
Factor2: Feeling proud of Turkish products	Primary school	12	2,91	3	0,05	0,98
	High school	38	2,92			
	University	332	2,89			
	Graduate degree programs	36	2,95			

*p < 0,05; **p < 0,01

Source: the authors

According to Table 8, “trust for Turkish products” (F=1,16 p=0,91) and “feeling proud of Turkish products” (F=0,05, p=0,98) do not significantly differ according to educational backgrounds of participants. Therefore, H_{1e} and H_{1ee} hypotheses were rejected. In other words, consumer

xenocentrism do not differ between educational backgrounds.

4. Discussion

There are a lot of factors affecting xenocentrism such as social status, modernity, reverse purchasing behavior, ethnical identity, collectivism, individualism and demographic features of consumers. The present study examines the effect of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intention for Turkish products and how consumer xenocentrism differs according to demographic variables. The factor analysis done for consumer xenocentrism scale revealed a two-factor structure: trust for Turkish products and feeling proud of Turkish products, which is also consistent with the results of the similar studies (Diamantopoulos et al. 2019; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016). The study reported a positive and significant effect of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intention for Turkish products. This finding is supported by the studies concluding a positive effect of consumer xenocentrism and purchase intention for foreign products (Diamantopoulos et al. 2019; Dachs-Wiesinger, 2018; Rettanai Kannan, 2020; Camacho et al., 2020).

In addition, consumer xenocentrism differed according to gender; males were more xenocentric than females. In addition, men felt proud of Turkish brands more than women. This finding is supported by similar studies; indeed, they reported a higher xenocentric tendency – foreign product bias- in male-oriented or male-focused cultures or societies.

Another significant finding regarding demographic variables is that consumer xenocentrism differed according to ethnic identity. It was found that Turkmen consumers are more xenocentric than Arabic and Kurdish ones. This finding is consistent with the statement “idealizing cultures, values and countries of their own ancestors and justifying their behaviors” as specified in the study by Kent and Burnight (2002). It is clear that Turkmens preferred to buy Turkish products and more xenocentric than non-Turkmen consumers because they see Turkey as their mainland and speak the same language and adopt the same culture and values. On the other hand, Arabic and Kurdish consumers were less xenocentric than Turkmens in their purchase intention for Turkish products although they sometimes use them, which is believed to be due to historical, political and socio-economic reasons. Indeed, there is still an ongoing and long-lasting hatred among Arabs and Kurds towards Turks and

Turkey reacted against the Kurds' attempts to found their independent state. Thus, they do not like, even hate, Turks although they use Turkish products. According to some researchers, it might be assumed that individuals living in societies experiencing economic, social and political constraints will be more xenocentric (Mueller & Broderick, 2008).

The present study did not reveal a difference according to age variable. This finding contradicts with that of the study by Batra et al., (2000), which stated that young consumers are more xenocentric than elderly ones. According to Kent and Burnight (2002), the reason for this tendency is the attempts of young people to voice their freedom. Similarly, consumer xenocentrism did not differ according to income level, which is not consistent with the findings of similar studies. These studies reported a positive correlation between xenocentrism and income level and those with a high income (rich people) have a higher tendency to be xenocentric (Kisawike, 2015).

The average income in Kirkuk is between 3400-4000 ID, which is considered as low income in Iraq economic standards. Although Kirkuk houses 4% of total world oil reserve, insufficient employment opportunities and young population unemployment, absence of international companies and private business enterprises in the city, and unstable political conditions might be among the reasons of this low-income level. Some studies reported that consumers with low income display a higher tendency for xenocentrism. Consumer xenocentrism did not differ according to educational background. In conclusion, consumer xenocentrism had a significant effect on purchase intention and differed according to demographic variables due to high volume of trade between two countries. This finding might be valuable and guiding for the entrepreneurs of both countries. The results of the present study might play a role in market segmentation of such a market involving consumers with different ethnic identities.

5. Conclusion

Although xenocentrism was introduced to sociology literature by Kent and Burnight (1951), it was regarded as a relatively new issue in marketing literature. Despite the increase in the number of studies on this issue as of 2008, field studies are still insufficient in number when the richness and comprehensive content of the literature on consumer behaviors are considered (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Rojas-

Méndez & Chapa, 2019). Therefore, this study is expected to contribute to the literature with its invaluable data. In addition, the study is significant since it is one of the few studies aiming to determine which variables and factors affect purchase intentions.

The most challenging constraints in this study were time and financial ones. The researchers could not make use of some sources effectively while determining the participants since there was limited time, the study was not supported financially and the study was conducted in Kirkuk which has the most ethnic identity in Iraq and is a place where Turkmen live more densely than other cities Iraq, so the results cannot be generalized and conducting this research in other countries will yield different results. For future studies, examining the structure of consumer xenocentrism in developed economies would provide additional information about the prevalence and impact of xenocentric tendencies in these countries. Additionally, it can be investigated the impact of consumer xenocentrism on other variables such as product decisions, risk perceptions and willingness to pay.

Acknowledgments: This study is adapted from Gulhan Sabah Najmaldin's master's thesis titled "Country of origin and the effect of consumer xenocentrism on the intention to buy Turkish branded products: an application on Kirkuk"

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