MAURITIUS RESEARCH COUNCIL

INNOVATION FOR TECHNOLOGY

AN EVALUATION OF THE DEGREE OF CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM IN MAURITIUS

Final Report

September 2007

MAURITIUS RESEARCH COUNCIL

Address:
La Maison de Carné
Royal Road
Rose Hill
Mauritius

Telephone: (230) 465 1235
Fax: (230) 465 1239
e-mail: mrc@intnet.mu
Website: www.mrc.org.mu

This report is based on work supported by the Mauritius Research Council under award number MRC/RUN-0602. Any opinions, findings, recommendations and conclusions expressed herein are the author's and do not necessarily reflect those of the Council.

An Evaluation of the Degree of Consumer Ethnocentrism in Mauritius

Dr Rooma Roshnee Ramsaran-Fowdar

University of Mauritius

This material is based on work supported by the Mauritius Research Council under award number MRC/RUN-0602. Any opinion, findings and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this publication are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the views of the MRC.

September 2007

An Evaluation of the Degree of Consumer Ethnocentrism in Mauritius

Dr Rooma Roshnee Ramsaran-Fowdar

Senior Lecturer in Management

Faculty of Law and Management

University of Mauritius

This material is based on work supported by the Mauritius Research Council under award number MRC/RUN-0602. Any opinion, findings and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this publication are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the views of the MRC.

September 2007

Table of Contents

List of Tables

Acknowledgements

The conception and completion of this project has necessitated the contribution and precious help of several parties. I wish to express my deepest gratitude to all of them.

My first acknowledgement goes to the Mauritius Research Council for believing in a project of such endeavour for Mauritius and for providing the necessary financial support under the award number MRC/RUN – 0602.

I am also thankful to the University of Mauritius for the logistics support provided throughout the development of this research work.

My sincere appreciation as well goes to my Research Assistant, Mr. Vicky Parianen for his hard work, involvement and dedication showed in this project.

Last but not least, a very special thanks to all the people who have without hesitation provided the necessary information for the successful achievement of this work and for their participation in the survey.

Executive Summary

With globalisation, Mauritian consumers are being exposed more and more to foreign products and are now faced with a variety of buying choices. This study aimed at evaluating the degree of consumer ethnocentrism among the Mauritian consumers. The CETSCALE, an instrument developed to measure consumer ethnocentrism in the USA (Shimp and Sharma, 1987) and which has not been fully validated, nor is it compared in developing country environments (Kaynak and Kara, 2002) was assessed in the Mauritian context to assess its validity. No such study had been conducted in the local context earlier. The study also examined the influence of demographic and lifestyle variables on the level of consumer ethnocentrism. Along the same line of thought, this study also aimed at examining whether consumer ethnocentrism affected the perceptions of Mauritians towards imported products versus domestic products and at investigating whether the country of origin impacts on several dimensions of the product, such as quality, value for money, status and esteem among others.

Data were collected through a basically structured questionnaire, designed following a thorough review of the literature on consumer ethnocentrism. The sample consisted of Mauritian consumers. The personal and telephone interview techniques were used for the administration of the questionnaires. Data were collected from 204 consumers over a two-months period from February to March 2007.

Findings revealed that the CETSCALE instrument developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987) was applicable to Mauritius and that Mauritian people were not highly ethnocentric as regards the purchase of “foreign” or “Mauritian” products. Almost all of the hypotheses put forward were adequately supported. The study finally concludes with the implications of the empirical results. Suggestions are then made regarding both the limitations of the present study and areas for future research.

List of Abbreviations

AIO	–	Activities, Interests and Opinions
CETSCALE	–	Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies Scale
COMESA	–	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
FTAs	–	Free Trade Areas
HACCP	–	Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point
IOR	–	Indian Ocean Rim
ISO	–	International Standards Organisation
MCCI	–	Mauritius Chamber of Commerce and Industry
MMA	–	Mauritian Manufacturers Association
NWEC	–	National Women Entrepreneur Council
SADC	–	Southern Africa Development Community
SD	–	Standard Deviations
SEHDA	–	Small Enterprise and Handicraft Development Authority
SPSS	–	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
VAT	–	Value Added Tax

1.0. Research Background and Objectives

Global trade has changed significantly and has created substantial market opportunities for firms operating in different parts of the globe. Most of these firms are providing variety in their products at competitive prices. Standards of living and lifestyles of consumers are improving worldwide and the increased use of the internet implies that consumers are now being exposed to a wider range of foreign products than earlier. Thus, increased globalisation has attracted interest in country-of-origin (COO) and consumer ethnocentrism research and how they affect decision-making (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993).

Both domestic and foreign firms need to understand consumers' perceptions and evaluations of foreign products against domestic ones. For instance, if a firm wants to expand overseas and if senior management does not fully understand the more subjective and intangible aspects of consumer behaviour in foreign markets, and believes that its own home country's cultural values and expectations are universally acceptable, there are high chances that their corporate strategies will fail to influence consumer choice. Researchers in marketing have started investigating consumer behaviour in cross cultural/national settings more than before. However, despite this increased interest, studies that examine the product perceptions and judgements of consumers in developing countries and newly emerging economies are relatively scarce (Kaynak and Kara, 2002).

With globalisation, Mauritian consumers are being exposed more and more to foreign products and are now faced with a variety of buying choices. This study aims at examining the perceptions of Mauritians towards imported products versus domestic products and at investigating whether the country of origin impacts on several dimensions of the product, such as quality, value for money, status and esteem among others.

Mauritius, a small island economy state, with scarce natural resources, depends heavily on the sugar, textile, tourism and financial services industries. In 2005, the FOB value of its total exports amounted to Rs 59, 248, 028, 863 while the FOB value of its total imports amounted to Rs 84, 751, 613, 305 (Central Statistics Office, 2005). Mauritius therefore depends significantly on imports from overseas markets. It has been noted that our level of imports has been rising drastically and is always higher than our level of exports, resulting in budget deficits.

By examining the degree of consumer ethnocentrism in Mauritius, that is the degree to which Mauritian consumers are patriotic and would like to protect the local economy by refraining from purchasing imported products, this paper wants to find out if there is a need to reduce imports and increase local production. The CETSCALE, an instrument developed to measure consumer ethnocentrism in the USA, will be adapted and used in the Mauritian context. The study also examines the influence of demographic and lifestyle variables on the level of consumer ethnocentrism and also takes into consideration the impact of ethnocentrism on consumers towards products made in a joint venture/licensing agreement.

Hence, this study will not only help local and international producers understand the Mauritian market but will also generate policy measures to achieve a better consumer market in Mauritius.

Accordingly, this study has six main objectives:

1. To evaluate the degree of consumer ethnocentrism in Mauritius;

2. To examine the perceptions of Mauritian consumers towards imported products versus domestic products for different product categories;

3. To examine if these perceptions differed for specific countries from which we import products;

4. To examine if differences in perceptions are based on demographic variables;

5. To relate attitudes towards foreign products/local products made in a joint venture/licensing agreement to the level of consumer ethnocentrism;

6. With consumer ethnocentrism as the focal construct, to identify homogeneous market segments sharing similar lifestyles.

1.1. Methodology

To fulfill the above objectives, a literature search through books and articles was undertaken to gather insights about consumer ethnocentrism. Prior to the design of the structured questionnaire, which was pre-tested before administration to the target audience, in-depth and expert interviews were carried out with Mauritian consumers and professionals in the field of domestic and foreign trade on their attitudes and opinions towards imported and domestic products. This was undertaken so as to adapt the CETSCALE to the local context. The personal interview technique was used since the questionnaires were left with the students of the University of Mauritius and they had to administer to one male and one female, both over 18 years of age and each being an intermediate family member or one of their neighbours or other relative or associate who preferably did their shopping either at supermarkets or hypermarkets. The rest of the questionnaires were administered through telephone interviews through random dialling of phone numbers obtained from the Mauritius Telecom Phonebook, of respondents living in different regions of the island. The sample of the respondents interviewed was considered to be representative of the population. Data were collected from 204 consumers over a two-months period from February to March 2007.

1.2. Structure of the Project

The research report has been structured along the following lines.

Chapter 1 (Introduction) introduces this project and gives an overview of the methodology adopted. It also discusses the main lines along which the project has been structured.

Chapter 2 (Literature Review and Research Hypotheses) provides an overview on aspects such as Country of Origin (COO) effects, sources of ethnocentrism, cultural similarity, global openness, demographic effects, segmentation and lifestyle segmentation. It also reviews the literature on consumer ethnocentrism, its measurement that is the Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies Scale (CETSCALE) and its determinants.

Chapter 3 (Methodology) discusses the survey instrument, measures used, the data collection method, the sampling plan and approach to data analysis.

Chapter 4 (Results of the Study) analyses the data, describes the findings and reports the results of hypotheses testing.

Chapter 5 (Discussion and Implications) summarises the empirical results. A discussion of the results, implications of the results, limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are also included in this chapter.

Chapter 6 (Conclusion) finally summarises the whole study and concludes the project.

2.0. Introduction

This chapter provides an overview on aspects such as Country of Origin (COO) effects, sources of ethnocentrism, cultural similarity, global openness, demographic effects, segmentation and lifestyle segmentation. It also reviews the literature on consumer ethnocentrism and its measurement that is the Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies Scale (CETSCALE) and its determinants.

2.1. Country-of-Origin (COO)

Among the many factors which are believed to influence consumer perceptions of products, country of origin (COO) effects have attracted growing attention (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998; Heslop, Papadopoulos and Bourk, 1998; Tan and Farley, 1987; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). Early studies in the area of COO can be traced back as far as the 1960s. The impact of COO has been studied in a variety of research settings such as field surveys and laboratory experiments. COO has been defined in several ways in the literature. It has been defined as the country of manufacture or assembly (Papadopoulos, 1993; Lee and Schaninger, 1996); as the country where the corporate headquarters of the company marketing the product or brand is found (Ozsomer and Cavusgil, 1991); and as the country of product design (Ahmed, D'Astou and El Adroui, 1994). Elliott and Cameron (1994) broadly defined the COO effect, also known as the "made in" concept, as the positive or negative influence that a product's country of manufacture may have on consumers' decision processes or subsequent behaviour.

Within the realm of consumer decision-making, COO has been defined as an extrinsic cue that acts as a risk mitigant or quality cue for consumers (Cordell, 1992). A brand's COO serves as an extrinsic cue (together with price, brand name, and warranties) that supplements the use of intrinsic cues (perceptions of design, performance, features, tastes etc.) (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Batra *et al.*, 2000). In general, there is a consensus that products made in different countries are evaluated differently (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Peterson and Jolibert, 1995; Samiee, 1994). It has also been found that COO effects include (1) the tendency for consumers to evaluate their own country's products more favourably than imported products (Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983) and (2) the tendency for products from emerging economies to be evaluated negatively (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Cordell, 1992). Other studies have shown a relationship between COO and the level of economic development (Wang and Lamb, 1983); products from developed countries being perceived as more superior to products from undeveloped and developing countries. This is due to COO image having multiple dimensions or facets, such as strength of its economy, nature of its political system, technological competence, cultural systems and so on. Effects of COO have also been found to vary across product classes and consumer types and tend to be smaller when other cues are available to the consumer (Papadopoulos, 1993).

COO serves as a signal for product quality and performance. Erickson, Johansson and Chao (1984) found a "halo effect" of COO: that is, country image affects consumers' beliefs about tangible product attributes, and in turn affects their overall evaluation. Some studies have shown that COO is not merely a cognitive cue. It can also be an affective attribute, which directly influence consumers' decision making. Hong and Wyer (1989) found that COO had symbolic and emotional meaning to consumers, and it played an important role along with other attributes such as quality and reliability in shaping consumers' attitudes towards products. Papadopoulos *et al*. (1993) have suggested that consumer perceptions of a product's COO are based on three components associated with the standard attitude model namely their "cognitions" which include knowledge about specific products and brands, consumer "affect" or favorable/unfavorable attitude towards the COO, and their "conative" behaviour which is related to actual purchase of a foreign brand. Sometimes, the "affect" or emotional component may be given overriding predominance by consumers and overshadow the "cognitive" or rational component in evaluation of a foreign or local brand name. Although some studies have questioned the importance of COO for much consumer decision making

(Elliott and Cameron, 1994; Hugstad and Durr, 1986; Mitchell and Greatorex, 1990; Schooler and Wildt, 1968), recent studies have established that the COO has a significant effect on attitudes toward products and the possibility of purchasing these products, often demonstrating effects that are as strong or stronger than those of brand name, price or quality (Ahmed and d'Astou, 1996; Lantz and Loeb, 1996; Okechuku, 1994).

Moreover, in the modern marketplace as products are typically designed in one country, manufactured in another, and assembled in yet a third, the traditional view of COO effects is fast becoming misleading and confusing (Baker and Michie, 1995; Chao, 1993). As a result, there has been the proliferation of "hybrid products" (Han and Qualls, 1985; Johansson and Nebenzahl, 1986; Han and Terpstra, 1988) where products may involve more than one COO. With the changing strategies of global corporations, hybrid products will be increasingly prevalent in the global marketplace (Chao, 1993).

2.2. Consumer Ethnocentrism

Recent research has linked the COO effect to levels of consumer ethnocentrism. Consumer ethnocentrism helps to understand the way in which consumers compare domestic with foreign products and the reasons that make them develop patriotic prejudices against imports. Highly ethnocentric consumers are biased and over-evaluate domestic products unreasonably, in comparison with imported products. In contrast, highly non-ethnocentric consumers may judge foreign products based on their attributes and/or view them as better because they are not produced in their own country (Durvasula *et al.*, 1997).

Ethnocentrism is a sociological concept first introduced by Sumner (1906) that refers to a tendency to regard the beliefs, standards, and code of behaviour of one's own as superior to those found in other societies. It often serves the socially useful function of encouraging cohesion and solidarity among group members but can also contribute to attitudes of superiority, intolerance, and even contempt for those with different customs and ways of life (Booth, 1979; Levine and Campbell, 1972; Wagley, 1993; Worchel and Cooper, 1979). Ethnocentric individuals tend to prefer their own way of life over all others. It follows that one's own goods are preferred over goods made in other countries. Ethnocentrism implies that purchasing imports is wrong, not only because it is unpatriotic, but also because it is detrimental to the economy and results in loss of jobs in industries threatened by imports.

Consumer ethnocentrism has become a construct that is also important in marketing. Consumer ethnocentrism as used by Shimp and Sharma (1987) represents the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products. Sharma *et al.* (1995) propose that consumer ethnocentrism results from fear of harmful effects imports may have on the economic situation of the individual and that individual's society. This fear prevents individuals from purchasing imported products and causes them to exert pressure on other society members to refrain also. The purchase of imports thus becomes a moral and social issue (Myers, 1995; Ozsomer and Cavusgil, 1991). While country of origin plays a role in the product decisions of ethnocentric consumers, it is the social appropriateness of the act that drives the product decision, rather than the country of origin, *per se*. Consumer ethnocentrism may result in an overestimation of the attributes and overall quality of domestic products and an underestimation of the quality of foreign products (Sharma *et al.*, 1995). Highly ethnocentric consumers are probably most prone to biased judgement by being more inclined to adopt the positive aspects of domestic products and to discount the virtues of foreign-made products (Kasper, 1999).

Empirical results by Shimp and Sharma (1987) showed that for US consumers, attitudes towards imports are negatively correlated with ethnocentric tendencies. The stronger the ethnocentric tendency, the more likely the individual is to own or intend to purchase a domestic car. Individuals whose quality of life is most threatened by imports exhibited the strongest ethnocentric tendencies. Ethnocentric tendencies also seem to be influenced by moderating factors. Sharma *et al*., (1995) indicate that the less necessary a product is perceived to be, the greater the ethnocentric tendencies on attitudes toward importing that product. Also as foreign competition impacts on local employment and economy, imports may not be welcomed, thereby stimulating greater ethnocentric tendencies (Rosenblatt, 1964). The strength, intensity and magnitude of consumer ethnocentrism do vary from culture/country to culture/country. Some authors argue that ethnocentrism is a part of human nature (Mihalyi, 1984; Rushton, 1989; Herche, 1992).

McLain and Sternquist (1991) found that US consumers exhibiting high levels of ethnocentric tendency were no more likely to purchase domestic products than consumers with low levels of ethnocentric tendency. In a study of Russian and Polish consumers by Good and Huddleston (1995), there was no significant relationship between ethnocentric tendency and purchase intent for apparel products from different countries. A study by O'Cass and Lim (2002) found very low levels of ethnocentrism among respondents in Singapore and results indicated that consumer ethnocentric tendencies had no effect on purchase intention.

2.2.1. Consumer Ethnocentrism and Cultural Similarity

With regards to consumer ethnocentrism, Sharma *et al.* (1995) suggest that cultural similarity between countries is one factor that may influence the effect of consumer ethnocentric tendencies on attitudes toward foreign products. The relationship between country similarity and the COO effect has been extensively studied (Johansson *et al.*, 1985; Lantz and Loeb, 1996; Shimp and Sharma, 1987). In their research, Wang and Lamb (1983) found a positive bias towards products from countries regarded as culturally similar to the USA (i.e., some European countries, Australia and New Zealand) whereas, Crawford and Lamb (1981) and Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983) found a greater willingness to purchase products from source nations that are politically and economically similar to home country. Lantz and Loeb (1996) found that highly ethnocentric consumers, in comparison to individuals with low levels of consumer ethnocentrism, have more favourable attitudes toward products from culturally similar countries.

2.2.2. Consumer Ethnocentrism and Domestic Alternative not Available

In the case a domestically manufactured product is not available, the ethnocentric consumer will have no choice but to purchase imported goods. Garland and Coy (1993) and Herche (1992) found that in countries such as New Zealand, the loyalty of consumers to domestic goods cannot encompass all product categories, since the local industry does not manufacture all types of products. As a result, highly ethnocentric consumers display favourable attitude towards a foreign culture but the question remains as to which countries will be the preferred choice of ethnocentric consumers when purchasing goods not manufactured and available locally (Moon, 1996).

Accordingly, Sharma et al. (1995) bring some light to this question. They suggest that ethnocentric consumers may distinguish countries based on their similarity to the home country as either in-group or out-group. Ethnocentric consumers are expected to exhibit a greater preference for products from these in-group countries over products from the out-group countries because of their in-group status. Eventually, this leads to the explanation that in a decision situation where domestically manufactured goods are unavailable, ethnocentric consumers will demonstrate a preference for products from culturally similar countries over those from culturally dissimilar countries.

2.3. Sources of Ethnocentrism

The literature suggests that ethnocentrism is generated from multiple sources, which are both situational and personal.

Societal culture is the first situational factor. It acts as a lens through which community members perceive and interpret the world, and will be culturally bound to some extent (Farjoun and Lai, 1997). As such, they argue that by viewing different cultures through their own culturally defined outlook, such individuals will tend to take for granted cultural similarities existing between other cultures and that of their own culture, while at the same time highlighting any cultural differences which are generally perceived as being inferior.

Cultural distancing is the second factor. Guy and Patton (1996) described it as the degree to which an individual intends to relate to members of a group or country, considered culturally different. The degree of cultural distancing experienced by an individual will vary according to the individual's tolerance and acceptance of the perceived differences existing between their own culture and that of other cultures. These cultural differences may vary in terms of belief, values, the concept of time, communication behaviours, geography and the nature of social rituals among others. Consequently, some individuals, because of perceived similarities between the culture of their own group and that of other groups, will appear to develop a favourable liking for such groups, while at the same time develop a disliking for other groups perceived dissimilar.

2.4. Global Openness and Ethnocentric Tendencies

Globalisation refers to the processes by which the world is being made into a single place with systematic properties (Robertson and Lechner, 1985). Without evidence, it is often said that globalisation has resulted in homogenisation in buying behaviour across the countries (Belk, 1996). Deregulation and free trade have created a new environment for consumers all over the globe whereby they have easier access to the purchase of foreign products than ever before (Walker, 1996). Conversely, a counter argument has emerged to the globalisation in culture of consumption. For instance, Belk (1996) argues that the growing globalism has energised debate as well as resistance including localism, ethnogenesis and neo-nationalism.

Globalisation generally means the long-term effort to integrate the global dimensions of life into each nation's economics, politics and cultural systems. Thus, people globalised to the full extent may be open to other cultures. They may be interested in other cultures, aware of much knowledge about individual nations, sensitive to different points of view based on other cultures. Given that global consumers are considered to be individuals whose cultural and national differences do not affect their buying behaviour, it is reasonable to assume that as the level of importance that an individual attaches to ethnocentric tendencies decreases, the more that individual could be viewed as a globally open consumer (Keillor *et al.*, 2001).

2.5. Consumer Ethnocentrism and Market Segmentation

Along with increased nationalism and heavy emphasis on cultural and ethnic identity, consumer ethnocentrism will be a potent force in the global business environment in the coming years. For the development of marketing strategies for imported products, understanding whether the level of consumer ethnocentrism is differentiating customer characteristics for products originating from overseas is useful.

Smith (1956) first introduced the concept of market segments, which has become an integral part of modern marketing. A market segment is a group within a market that is clearly identifiable based on certain criteria. Consumers within such a sub-market are assumed to be quite similar in their needs, characteristics and behaviours.

Pride and Ferrell (1983) devised the market segmentation process of dividing a market into several market groups. Consumers in each market segment have similar product needs. To satisfy its special consumer needs each segment requires a different mix of strategies. The purpose of dividing a market into several homogeneous markets is so that marketers can aim to satisfy the specific needs of any target market (McCarthy, 1981). The idea of designing marketing strategies for market segments is based on consumers' wants and interests. The purpose of market segmentation is two-fold: to divide a market into several homogeneous sub-markets and to formulate a proper marketing-mix strategy for the sub-market (McCarthy, 1981). Homogeneous sub-markets are defined by predetermined segmentation variables. Traditional demographic variables, such as education, age, gender and income, can be used to explain characteristics of the sub-markets and classify the key factors of a market segment. Traditional demographic variables, however, cannot identify the complete characteristics of the sub-markets because consumers in the same demographic group have very different psychographic makeups (Kotler and Armstrong, 1999).

Demographic dimensions have received broader acceptance and lend themselves easily to quantification and easy consumer classification when it comes to identify homogeneous consumer market segments. However, Wells (1975) argues that demographic profiles have not been deemed sufficient because demographics lack richness and often need to be supplemented with additional data. Social class adds more depth to demographics, but it, too, often needs to be supplemented in order to obtain meaningful insights into audience characteristics.

2.5.1. Consumer Ethnocentrism and Demographic Effects

When examining the effects of demographics on consumer perceptions of imports, results are inconsistent for some variables but fairly consistent for others.

2.5.1.1. Social Class

Engel *et al.* (1993) defined social class as homogeneous and relatively permanent divisions in a society in which individuals and families sharing similar values, interests and behaviour can be categorized. Consumers associate brands of products and services with social classes and this affects what products they buy. Such decisions have a direct impact on whether to buy foreign-made products as opposed to locally manufactured ones. Social classes and status systems are present everywhere. Gilbert and Kahl (1982) identify nine variables that have emerged as most important in determining social class. These include interaction variables (personal prestige, association and socialisation), economic variables (occupation, income and wealth) and political variables (power, class consciousness, mobility). Typically, occupation is the best indicator of social class. The work one does is often a reflection of one's education and affects one's status, consumption and lifestyle, as well as type of family house and neighbourhood choice.

2.5.1.2. Gender

The results of gender as a correlate in country of origin research are mixed. Several studies found that the females tend to rate foreign-made products more favourably than do men (Dornoff *et al.*, 1974; Schooler, 1971; Wang, 1978; Johansson *et al*., 1985) while other studies found no effect (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972). Han (1988) found women to be more patriotic and more patriotic consumers are less likely to choose foreign products. Women were found to exhibit greater ethnocentric tendencies than men (Good and Huddleston, 1995; Nielsen and Spence, 1997; Sharma *et al.*, 1995). McLain and Sternquist (1991) found no relationship between sex and degree of ethnocentrism of consumers.

2.5.1.3. Age

In general, age has been consistently significantly and positively related to attitudes towards products. Younger consumers have more open attitudes about or are more positive towards foreign products (Schooler, 1971; Tongberg, 1972; Wall *et al*., 1988; Wang 1978). Shimp and Sharma (1987) found that the effect of age varies by social class and only older working class individuals manifest ethnocentric tendencies. Han (1988) examined consumer patriotism and its relationship with choice of domestic versus foreign products. He found consumer patriotism influenced customer choice more than cognitive attitudes towards products made in different countries. In addition, he found that “patriotic” consumers were older than less “patriotic” consumers. McLain and Sternquist (1991) examined the relationship between age and ethnocentrism and found older consumers to be more ethnocentric than younger consumers.

2.5.1.4. Education

Education also enjoys fairly consistent results as a correlate with perceptions of products. It has been found to influence the choices of foreign goods by consumers and the higher their level of education, the higher is the tendency to rate foreign or imported products favourably (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Dornoff *et al*., 1974; Schooler, 1971; Wall and Heslop 1986; Wang 1978). Likewise, McLain and Sternquist (1991) found that the lower the level of education, the higher the ethnocentric tendencies. In contrast, Han (1988) found no significant relationship between education and consumer patriotism.

2.5.1.5. Income Level

Wang (1978) and Wall *et al*. (1990) found income level to be directly related to positive attitudes towards foreign products. In line with this, Wall and Heslop (1986) found that the higher the income, the less likely the consumer would buy domestic products. Sharma *et al.* (1995) found a negative relationship between ethnocentric tendencies and income group. Han (1988) and McLain and Sternquist (1991) however found no relationship between income level and ethnocentrism.

2.5.2. Lifestyle Segmentation

'Lifestyle segmentation' has been a useful concept for marketing and advertising planning purposes (Kaynak and Kara, 1996; Wells and Tigert, 1977). One of the earliest studies to suggest lifestyle identification was by Darden and Ashton (1974-75). Lifestyle means 'how one lives'. In marketing, 'lifestyle' describes the behaviour of individuals, a small group of interacting people, and large groups of people (e.g. market segments) acting as potential consumers. The concept of the lifestyle symbolises a set of ideas quite different from that of personality. Lifestyle information is useful for product positioning and market segmentation as well as helping multinationals to understand consumers regardless of their cultural differences (Plummer, 1974; 1977). The lifestyle relates to the economic level at which people live, how they spend their money, and how they allocate their time (Anderson and Golden, 1984).

Products are the building blocks of lifestyles (Solomon, 1999). Customers define their lifestyles by the consumption choices they make in a variety of product categories. Lifestyle can therefore be defined quantitatively and used as a group identity for market segmentation. Moreover, the brand characteristics with which marketers endow their products correspond to consumer personalities. These inferences about a product's characteristics are an important part of brand equity, which refers to the extent to which a consumer holds strong, favorable, and unique associations with a brand in memory (Keller, 1993). Thus, lifestyle and personality variables are effective segmentation variables for identifying sub-market profiles and targeting consumers.

Lifestyle segmentation research measures people's activities in terms of how they spend their time; what interests they have and what importance they place on their environment; their views of themselves and the world around them; and some demographic characteristics (Kucukemiroglu, 1999). The AIO (Activities, Interests and Opinions) rating statements have been the most widely used approach to lifestyle measurements (Wells and Tigert, 1977). It can provide more detailed information about consumers than basic demographic variables. Lifestyle information in Mauritius is lacking.

Several research firms have developed lifestyle classification systems. The most widely used is SRI consulting's values and lifestyles (VALS2) typology (Kotler, 1997; Loudon and Della Bitta, 1993; Kotler and Armstrong, 1999). VALS2 is a psychographic system that links demographics and purchase patterns with psychological attitudes. Using this technique, the American market was classified into eight categories (Loudon and Della Bitta, 1993). This classification considers the time and money consumers spend. Self-orientation and resources are used as the basis for the vertical-horizontal axes to classify consumers into eight groups namely: fulfilled, believers, achievers, strivers, experiencers, makers, actualizers and strugglers. Winters (1992) followed the psychographic classifications of VALS to divide Japanese consumers into five dimensions and ten classes namely: exploration (integrators, sustainers), self-expression (self-innovators, self-adapters), achievement (Ryoshiki "social intelligence" innovators, Ryoshiki adapters), tradition (tradition innovators, tradition adapters) and realist orientation (high pragmatics, low pragmatics).

In general, researchers tend to equate psychographic with the study of lifestyles. Psychographics is an approach used to define and measure lifestyle of consumers. In psychographic segmentation, consumers are divided into different groups on the basis of lifestyle and personality (Kotler, 1997). Customers within the same demographic group can exhibit very different psychographic profiles. Therefore, enterprises making different consumer goods can seek marketing opportunities in lifestyle/personality segmentation (Kim, 1993; Lee and Ferber, 1977). Psychographic research is used by market researchers to describe a consumer segment so as to help an organisation better reach and understand its customers. As such, lifestyle patterns provide broader, more three-dimensional views of consumers so that marketers can think about them more intelligently. Kaynak and Kara (1996) argue that the basic premise of lifestyle research is that the more marketers are knowledgeable and understand their customers, the more effectively they can communicate with and serve them.

2.6. Consumer Ethnocentrism and its Measurement

It is posited that, along with increased nationalism, and heavy emphasis on cultural and ethnic identity, consumer ethnocentrism will be a potent force in the global business environment in the years to come. In recent years, an important contribution to consumer research has been the development of the CETSCALE (Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies SCALE), which represents an accepted means of measuring consumer ethnocentrism across cultures/nations. The CETSCALE was designed to measure consumer ethnocentrism in order to better understand, explain and predict consumers' behavioural tendencies for them and more favourably evaluate domestic products when compared with imported products (Hult and Keillor, 1994). This instrument was developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987). Its authors used the term 'tendency' instead of 'attitude', since the former refers to the more general notion of the disposition to act in some consistent fashion toward foreign products. Through the carrying out of a series of preliminary studies, pre-tests and scale purification techniques, the CETSCALE was created (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). The resulting 17 items scored on a seven-point Likert-type format formed the consumer ethnocentrism measures, all satisfying at least a 0.5 (factor loading) reliability criterion (Sharma, 1996).

Further study by Netemeyer *et al*. (1991) found strong support for the CETSCALE's factor structure, reliability and nomological validity of the scale across four different western countries, namely France, Germany, Japan and the USA. They reported alpha levels as high as 0.91 to 0.95 across the four countries studied. Strong support for the CETSCALE's dimensionality and internal consistency was obtained. Nielsen and Spence (1997) investigated the scale's stability over an eight-week period that included two patriotic events and found that mean scores appeared stable over time when the population was viewed as a whole. Two studies (Marks and Tharp, 1990; Tharp and Marks, 1990) used the CETSCALE as part of an examination of consumer ethnocentrism and of other constructs related to consumer behaviour and they found that the CETSCALE had a high degree of internal reliability.

However, there has been little research which empirically addresses biases encountered in conducting consumer ethnocentrism research (Albaum and Peterson, 1984). Netemeyer *et al.* (1991) and Kaynak and Kara (1996) recommended that researchers translate the CETSCALE into other languages and use it in other countries and regions. However, researchers were cautioned to accurately translate the CETSCALE in foreign languages and use it in other countries and they also raised concerns about the influence of other different cultural/national factors on consumers as well as foreign consumers' personal characteristics which may influence meaningful data interpretation.

Several studies investigated the relationship between ethnocentrism, purchase behaviour and purchase intentions. Herche's (1992) study of US owners of autos and personal computers, found that the CETSCALE was a better predictor of import buying behaviour than demographic variables. Until now, the CETSCALE has not been fully validated, nor is it compared in developing country environments (Kaynak and Kara 2002). In particular, the CETSCALE has not been validated in Mauritius.

2.7. Consumer Ethnocentrism and International Business

International business is different from national business because countries and societies are different. Societies differ because their cultures vary. Doing business in different cultures requires adaptation to conform with the value systems and norms of that culture. An international business must also be constantly on guard against the dangers of ethnocentric behaviour. Ethnocentrism is a belief in the superiority of one's own ethnic group or culture. Hand in hand with ethnocentrism goes a disregard or contempt for the culture of other countries. Ugly as it is, ethnocentrism is a fact of life, one that international businesses must be on continual guard against (Hill, 2004).

2.7.1. Licensing Agreement, Franchising and Joint Venture

A licensing agreement is an arrangement whereby a licensor grants the rights to intangible property to another entity (the licensee) for a specified period, and in return, the licensor receives a royalty fee from the licensee (Contractor, 1982). Intangible property includes patents, inventions, formulas, processes, designs, copyrights, and trademarks. A primary advantage of licensing is that the firm does not have to bear the development costs and risks associated with opening a foreign market.

Franchising is similar to licensing, although franchising tends to involve longer-term commitments than licensing. Franchising is a specialised form of licensing in which the franchiser not only sells intangible property (normally a trademark) to the franchisee, but also insists that the franchisee agree to abide by strict rules as to how it does business (Hill, 2004). The franchiser will also often assist the franchisee to run the business on an ongoing basis. As with licensing, the franchiser typically receives a royalty payment, which amounts to some percentage of the franchisee's revenues. Whereas licensing is pursued primarily by manufacturing firms, franchising is employed primarily by service firms (Dunning and McQueen, 1981).

A joint venture entails establishing a firm that is jointly owned by two or more otherwise independent firms. Establishing a joint venture with a foreign firm has long been a popular mode for entering a new market. A firm benefits from a local partner's knowledge of the host country's competitive conditions, culture, language, political systems, and business systems. Thus, for many foreign firms, joint ventures have involved the foreign company providing technological know-how and products and the local partner providing the marketing expertise and the local knowledge necessary for competing in that country. Research also suggests joint ventures with local partners face a low risk of being subject to nationalisation or other forms of adverse government interference (Bradley, 1977).

In countries where products are manufactured under a licensing or joint venture agreement, these tend to impact on the ethnocentric behaviour of consumers. Highly ethnocentric consumers would view these products as being domestically produced by their local firm and their perceptions about these products may be more favourable and patriotic than for the same product produced elsewhere. On the other hand, low ethnocentric consumers would have the same perceived opinion about the products with the only difference that it is being manufactured on the home soil.

2.8. Research Hypotheses

Further to the literature review, a number of hypotheses have been designed.

2.8.1. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and COO

While some studies indicate that consumer ethnocentrism determines consumers' attitudes towards purchasing imported goods (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Herche, 1992), Sharma *et al*. (1995) found that for Korean consumers the perceived necessity of a product moderated the effect of ethnocentrism on attitudes towards imports. Specifically, Sharma *et al.* (1995) found that the less necessary a product is perceived to daily life, the greater the impact consumer ethnocentrism has on attitudes towards importing that product. In addition, the more that consumers perceive imports to threaten their economic welfare, the greater the role ethnocentrism plays in determining consumer attitudes towards importing products. Consumer ethnocentric attitudes can be rated on a continuum from highly ethnocentric to non-ethnocentric, whereby a consumer at the high end of the spectrum believes that purchasing foreign-made products is morally wrong. In contrast, highly non-ethnocentric consumers may judge foreign products based on their attributes and/or view them as better because they are not produced in their own country (Durvasula *et al.*, 1997; Vida and Fairhurst, 1999). The strength and significance of the ethnocentrism effect is contingent on consumer perceptions of the country of origin of specific goods examined (Herche, 1994; Durvasula *et al*., 1997). Based on these, it is hypothesised that

H1a: Mauritian consumers will perceive the quality of products to be significantly different based on country of origin.

H2b: Mauritian consumers will perceive the quality of products from various countries to be significantly different based on consumers' level of ethnocentrism.

$H3_0$: There is no significant relationship between the ethnocentric tendencies of consumers and intentions to purchase domestic products versus imported products.

$H3_1$: There is a significant relationship between the ethnocentric tendencies of consumers and intentions to purchase domestic products versus imported products.

2.8.2. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Demographic Variables

The literature review points out that numerous variables influence consumer ethnocentrism which in turn plays a mediating role between these variables and the attitudes of consumers in buying foreign-made goods. Demographic dimensions have received broader acceptance and lend themselves easily to quantification and easy consumer classification when it comes to identifying homogeneous consumer market segments. However, Wells (1975) argues that demographic profiles have not been deemed sufficient because demographics lack richness and often need to be supplemented with additional data. Based on this, several hypotheses between demographic variables and consumer ethnocentrism were developed.

2.8.2.1. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Occupation

This research is also concerned with testing the effects of social class on consumer ethnocentrism. Typically, occupation is the best indicator of social class. The work one does is often a reflection of one's education and affects one's status, consumption and lifestyle, as well as type of family house and neighbourhood choice. Based on this, it is hypothesised that

$H4_0$: There is no relationship between occupation and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H4_1$: There is a relationship between occupation and consumer ethnocentrism.

2.8.2.2. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Gender

Several studies found the females tend to rate foreign-made products more favourably than do men (Dornoff *et al.*, 1974; Schooler, 1971; Wang, 1978) while other studies find no effect (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972). Han (1988) found women to be more patriotic and more patriotic consumers are less likely to choose foreign products. McLain and Sternquist (1991) found no relationship between sex and degree of ethnocentrism of consumers. Based on these, it is hypothesised that

$H5_0$: There is no relationship between gender and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H5_1$: There is a relationship between gender and consumer ethnocentrism.

2.8.2.3. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Age

Younger consumers have more open attitudes about or are more positive towards foreign products (Schooler, 1971; Tongberg, 1972; Wall *et al.*, 1988; Wang 1978). Shimp and Sharma (1987) found that the effect of age varies by social class and only older working class individuals manifest ethnocentric tendencies. Han (1988) examined consumer patriotism and its relationship with choice of domestic versus foreign products. He found consumer patriotism influenced customer choice more so than cognitive attitudes towards products made in different countries. In addition, he found that “patriotic” consumers were older than less “patriotic” consumers. McLain and Sternquist (1991) examined the relationship between age and ethnocentrism and found older consumers to be more ethnocentric than younger consumers. Based on this, it is hypothesised that

$H6_0$: There is no relationship between age and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H6_1$: There is a relationship between age and consumer ethnocentrism.

2.8.2.4. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Education

Education has been found to influence the choices of foreign goods by consumers and the higher their level of education, the higher is the tendency to rate foreign or imported products favourably (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Dornoff *et al*., 1974; Schooler, 1971; Wall and Heslop 1986; Wang 1978). Likewise, McLain and Sternquist (1991) found that the lower the level of education, the higher the ethnocentric tendencies. In contrast, Han (1988) found no significant relationship between education and consumer patriotism. Based on this, it is hypothesised that

$H7_0$: There is no relationship between the level of education and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H7_1$: There is a relationship between the level of education and consumer ethnocentrism.

2.8.2.5. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Income Level

Wang (1978) and Wall *et al*. (1990) found income level to be directly related to positive attitudes towards foreign products. In line with this, Wall and Heslop (1986) found that the higher the income, the less likely the consumer would buy domestic products. Sharma *et al.* (1995) found a negative relationship between ethnocentric tendencies and income group. Han (1988) and McLain and Sternquist (1991) however found no relationship between income level and ethnocentrism. Based on this, it is hypothesised that

$H8_0$: There is no relationship between income level and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H8_1$: There is a relationship between income level and consumer ethnocentrism.

2.8.3. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Lifestyle

Lifestyle information is useful for product positioning and market segmentation as well as helping multinationals to understand consumers regardless of their cultural differences (Plummer, 1974; 1977). The lifestyle relates to the economic level at which people live, how they spend their money, and how they allocate their time (Anderson and Golden, 1984). Lifestyle segmentation research measures people's activities in terms of how they spend their time; what interests they have and what importance they place on their environment; their views of themselves and the world around them; and some demographic characteristics (Kucukemiroglu, 1999). The AIO (Activities, Interests and Opinions) rating statements have been the most widely used approach to lifestyle measurements (Wells and Tigert, 1977). It can provide more detailed information about consumers than basic demographic variables. Based on this, it is hypothesised that

$H9_0$: There is no significant relationship between lifestyle and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H9_1$: There is a significant relationship between lifestyle and consumer ethnocentrism.

2.8.4. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Consumer Attitudes Towards Foreign Products/Local Products Made in a Joint Venture/Licensing Agreement

Research suggests that joint ventures with local partners face a low risk of being subject to nationalisation (Bradley, 1977). In countries where products are manufactured under a licensing or joint venture agreement, these tend to impact on the ethnocentric behaviour of consumers. Highly ethnocentric consumers may view these products as being domestically produced by their local firms and their perceptions about these products may be more favourable and patriotic than for the same product produced elsewhere. On the other hand, low ethnocentric consumers would be indifferent about the products' country of origin as the only difference is that it is being manufactured on the home soil. Based on this, it was hypothesised that

$H10_0$: There is no significant relationship between consumer attitudes towards foreign products/local products made in a joint venture/licensing agreement and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H10_1$: There is a significant relationship between consumer attitudes towards foreign products/local products made in a joint venture/licensing agreement and consumer ethnocentrism.

3.0. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the research methodology adopted in fulfilling the objectives set at the outset of this study. The research design has been split into three parts. The first part involves the design of a questionnaire which contains the measurement scales. The second part is the administration of the questionnaire to the sample of respondents. Finally, the third part involves an investigation of the techniques of analysis used.

3.1. Research Background and Objectives

Global trade has changed significantly and has created substantial market opportunities for firms operating in different parts of the globe. Nowadays, Mauritian consumers are being exposed more and more to foreign products and are now faced with an array of buying choices. Given the exposure and the easiness to acquire the foreign products, our level of imports has been rising drastically over the years. This has in turn put at stake local production and domestic products' consumption. Therefore, it would seem beneficial to examine the perceptions of Mauritians towards imported products versus domestic products in order to assess the level of consumer ethnocentrism in Mauritius, that is the degree to which Mauritian consumers are patriotic and would like to protect the local economy by refraining from purchasing imported products. An examination of the influence of the country of origin, demographic and lifestyle variables on the level of consumer ethnocentrism was also undertaken.

Above and beyond, local and international producers have much to gain in understanding the Mauritian market, as this would help them to serve their customers better and understand consumer behaviour. More than before, many researchers have started investigating consumer behaviour in cross-cultural/national settings. However, despite this increased interest, studies that examine the product perceptions and judgements of consumers in developing countries and newly emerging economies are relatively scarce (Kaynak and Kara, 2002). Indeed, there is no research on Mauritian consumer ethnocentrism that has been conducted so far. The CETSCALE, which is the instrument developed to measure consumer ethnocentrism in the USA is adapted and used in the Mauritian context. Until now, the CETSCALE has not been fully validated, nor is it compared in developing country environments (Kaynak and Kara, 2002) and in particular, has not been validated in Mauritius.

There are five basic objectives to this research effort. The first objective is to evaluate the degree of consumer ethnocentrism in Mauritius. The second objective is to examine the perceptions of Mauritian consumers towards imported products versus domestic products for different product categories. The third objective is to examine if these perceptions differed for specific countries from which we import products. The fourth objective sought is to examine if differences in perceptions are based on demographic variables. The fifth objective is to relate attitudes towards foreign/local products made in a joint venture/licensing agreement to the level of consumer ethnocentrism. Finally, the sixth objective sought is to use consumer ethnocentrism as the focal construct, in order to identify homogeneous market segments sharing similar lifestyles.

3.2. Research Approach

The approach for this study was planned as scientifically as possible in the selection of methods and analysis. Literature search through books and articles was undertaken to gather insights about consumer ethnocentrism and country-of-origin. Prior to the design of the structured questionnaire which was pre-tested before administration to the target audience, in-depth and expert interviews were carried out with Mauritian consumers, manufacturers, entrepreneurs and professionals in the field of domestic and foreign trade on their attitudes and opinions towards imported and domestic products. The expert interviews were conducted with officers and executives working at the Ministry of Industry, Small and Medium

Enterprises, Commerce and Cooperatives; the Small Enterprise and Handicraft Development Authority (SEHDA); the National Women Entrepreneur Council (NWEC); the Mauritius Chamber of Commerce and Industry (MCCI), which is also the secretariat for the Mauritian Manufacturers Association (MMA) and finally, the local manufacturers and entrepreneurs. These in-depth and expert interviews were undertaken so as to adapt the CETSCALE to the local context and to delve much deeper into the topic under study.

For the survey, the personal interview and telephone interview techniques were used. Some questionnaires were left with the students of the University of Mauritius and they had to administer to one male and one female, both over 18 years of age and each being an intermediate family member or one of their neighbours or other relative or associate and who preferably did their shopping at supermarkets and/or hypermarkets. Some questionnaires were administered through personal interviews carried out at supermarkets and hypermarkets. The rest of questionnaires were administered through telephone interviews by dialling telephone numbers at random from the Mauritius Telecom Phonebook. The data collection occurred over a two-months period from February to March 2007.

The main study itself was of type hypothesis testing where relationship between and across variables and differences between groups, dependence of variables and nature of relationships were determined to confirm or reject hypothesised relationships between variables identified through secondary data gathering – in line with the hypothetico-deductive model (Sekaran, 2000). A descriptive part was nevertheless included to profile respondent characteristics.

3.3. Data Collection Forms

The questionnaire was considered the optimum instrument for data collection since it allows clarification of doubts, allows the researcher to establish rapport with and motivate respondents and ensures almost 100% response rate (Sekaran, 2000). The survey instrument was a ten-page comprehensive questionnaire (Appendix A, Pg. 103) comprising of seven sections namely; shopping, the CETSCALE, lifestyle of Mauritian consumers, importance of products' country of origin, products manufactured under license/joint venture agreement in Mauritius, respondents' general views and opinions, and finally a set of questions concerning the demographics of the respondents. A cover letter with the University of Mauritius heading was used to provide legitimacy and to increase response rate.

The questionnaire was basically structured – consisting of a series of 7-point itemised, labelled, Likert type statement – to determine variations in extent, with the final demographics section including gender, age, marital status, region, ethnic group, occupational status, level of education and gross monthly household income and monthly expenditure. The labelled scale was chosen because, as Lewis (1993) recommends, the use of scale prevents the use of extreme ends. Also, an argument raised by Babakus and Mangold (1992) suggests that such scales minimise respondents' frustration.

3.4. Questionnaire Design

Before the questionnaire was constructed, several in-depth and expert interviews with Mauritian consumers, manufacturers, entrepreneurs and professionals in the field of domestic and foreign trade were conducted so as to develop an understanding of their attitudes and opinions towards imported and domestic products. In turn, these exercises helped to adapt the CETSCALE to the local context and to delve much deeper into the topic under study. The questionnaire was written in English, the official language of Mauritius. A pilot survey was conducted with a total of 10 consumers. Analysis of the pilot data as well as the information obtained from in-depth and expert interviews showed that the questionnaire was a satisfactory instrument despite some modifications which were undertaken with respect to question phrasing and response format. For instance, in the original CETSCALE, the statement “Curbs should be put on all imports” had to be changed to “Restrictions should be put on all imports” to facilitate understanding of the meaning of the sentence.

3.5. Questionnaire Organisation

The development of the questionnaire involved refining and measuring issues relating to consumer ethnocentrism. The questionnaire was sequenced so that the respondent is led from questions of a general nature to those that are more specific and from questions that are relatively easy to answer to those that are progressively more difficult (Sekaran, 2000). In the literature, this technique has been termed as funnel approach and facilitates ‘*easy and smooth progress of the respondent through the items in the questionnaire*’ (Sekaran, 2000). The final version of the questionnaire is discussed in detail below.

Section A

This section was meant to achieve a smooth introduction and gather some information about the consumers’ shopping habit.

Section B

This part dealt with the adapted CETSCALE statements, using a 7-point, labelled, Likert scale whereby 1 is “strongly disagree” and 7 is “strongly agree” to measure the level of consumer ethnocentrism of consumers.

Section C

This section included activities, interests and opinions (AIO) statements meant to measure the lifestyle of Mauritian consumers. A 7-point Likert scale was used with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 7 being "strongly agree". The information gathered was used to identify consumer market segments sharing similar patterns of social beliefs and behaviours. The AIO statements were obtained from the marketing literature and from the in-depth and expert interviews conducted.

The lifestyle statements are grouped into the four dimensions as follows.

Dimension	Statements Pertaining to the Dimension
Quality Consciousness	Statements 1 – 3
Comparison Shopping	Statements 4 – 7
Brand Consciousness	Statements 8 – 11
Price Consciousness	Statements 12 – 15

Table 3.1: Statements Pertaining to the Lifestyle Dimensions

The quality consciousness statements measure consumer attitudes about product quality in general. The scale was developed by Gaski and Etgar (1986). Higher scores on that scale would indicate that consumers have positive attitudes about general product quality whereas low scores suggest that they think product quality is poor.

The comparison shopping statements measure a person's belief that one should shop around before buying. Hawes and Lumpkin (1984) and Lumpkin (1985) made use of this scale. A score of 6 indicates that a person believes strongly that consumers ought to shop around before buying whereas a 1 implies a person does not think shopping around is important.

The brand consciousness statements measure consumer preferences and loyalty to brands. The statements were obtained from the in-depth and expert interviews conducted. Higher scores on that scale would indicate that consumers have strong preferences towards renowned brands whereas low scores suggest that they are not influenced by brand names of products.

The price consciousness statements measure a person's interest in sales and sensitivity to pricing. This scale was used by Arora (1985), Barak and Stern (1985; 1986), Burnett and Bush (1986), Dickerson and Gentry (1983), Heslop, Moran and Cousinean (1981), Kargaonkar (1984), Schnaars and Schiffman (1984), and Wells and Tigert (1971). A score of 6 indicates that a person actively watches for sales information and checks prices whereas 1 suggests that a person is not very price sensitive.

Section D

This section is concerned with the importance of products' country of origin so as to know whether country of origin has an effect on the purchasing behaviour of consumers. It also assesses the consumers' perceptions of the different countries' images for the different products under study.

Section E

This part deals with the products manufactured under license/joint venture agreement in Mauritius so as to relate the attitudes of consumers towards foreign products/local products made under such agreement. A 7-point Likert scale was used with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 7 being "strongly agree" to rate the statements obtained from the in-depth and expert interviews.

Section F

This section takes into account the general views and opinions of respondents.

Section G

Finally, this part consisted of nine demographic variables.

3.6. Pilot Testing

A pre-test of the research instrument was conducted with 10 respondents through face-to face interview. Indeed, respondents understood both the meaning of the questionnaire as it was meant to and the statement flow was found to be suitable. It took a maximum of one hour to the respondents to complete the questionnaire.

3.7. The Sample

The concept of sampling plays an important role in the process of identifying, developing, and understanding marketing constructs that need to be investigated by researchers (Hair *et al*., 2000). A convenience sample was used in the data collection process. Researchers have justified the use of convenience sampling, which has been widely used in consumer behaviour studies. To achieve an adequate response rate, given the sampling method used, a total of 500 questionnaires were sent to reach the target sample. Owing to the large commuter base of the University of Mauritius, the sample was considered to be representative of the population. In addition, personal interviews were conducted at supermarkets and hypermarkets in different parts of the country. The telephone interview also ensured that people from different regions were selected. Out of a total of 500 survey instruments, 204 duly completed questionnaires were returned, yielding a response rate of 40.8%. No questionnaires were discarded.

3.8. Data Analysis and Interpretation

A mountain of data may be amassed, but it is useless unless the findings are analysed and the results interpreted in light of the problem at hand. Data analysis generally involves several steps.

3.8.1. Editing

First the data forms were scanned through to ensure that they were completed and consistent and that the instructions were followed. The 204 questionnaires that were returned were consistently completed.

3.8.2. Coding

The administered questionnaires had already been pre-coded, that is numbers were assigned to each of the answers so that they may be input easily and analysed by the computer.

3.8.2.1. Coding Missing Data

Missing data can arise because

(a) The data were not required because of skip questions.
(b) The respondent had no opinion on the question asked.
(c) The respondent was unwilling to give his opinion.

Hence, a code was also assigned to each question with missing value in order to record missing data.

3.8.3. Tabulation

This is the final step in analysing the data. It refers to the orderly arrangement of data in a table or other summary format achieved by counting the frequency of responses to each question. At this point, the data may also be cross-classified by other variables. For this research project, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 13.0) and Excel 2000 were used for data analysis. Descriptive statistics were generated for nearly all of the survey items to achieve the research objectives. As such, the data input were summarised in terms of frequencies, means and percentages by both softwares. As several of the questions were designed using rating scales, SPSS 13.0 easily generated tabulation and cross tabulations that examined two or more response categories at the same time.

3.8.4. Hypothesis Testing

Besides descriptive frequencies and percentages to represent respondent characteristics, statistical tests were used to confirm or reject hypotheses. Pearson's coefficient of correlation "*r*" and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used.

Correlation is used to measure linear relationship between variables and that measure is called the Pearson's coefficient of correlation, which is defined by the letter "*r*". When a relationship was expected, two-tailed tests were used. The coefficient of correlation is an abstract measure of the relationship between variables based on a scale ranging between +1 and –1 (Owen and Jones, 1994). Whether "*r*" is positive or negative depends on the nature of the relationship between the two variables. The closer it is to +1 means that the relationship is strong.

However, even though analysis indicates that correlation exists, it does not necessarily mean there is a cause and effect relationship. Sometimes a high correlation is obviously nonsensical. Correlation gives added weight to a relationship that theory suggests exists or even point to promising avenues of investigation. Similarly, a low correlation coefficient does not necessarily mean a low degree of association.

Furthermore, one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is similar to a t-test but is used when there are two or more groups and where there is the need to compare their mean scores on a continuous variable. It is called one way because it is looking at the impact of only one independent variable on the dependent variables.

ANOVA compares the variance between the different groups with the variability within each of the groups. A large F-ratio indicates that there is more variability between the groups, caused by the independent variable. A significant F-test indicates that the null hypothesis should be rejected and which also states that the population sample mean is not equal.

Score for each respondent, on each major questionnaire part have been computed through the Transform – Compute function in SPSS and statistical tests run.

4.0. Introduction

This chapter presents, discusses and analyses the findings of the survey conducted. Descriptive statistics are then presented in the form of means and standard deviations and relationships between theoretically related variables identified through statistical tests.

4.1. Part A – General Analysis

4.1.1. Section A: Shopping

Question 1

The information illustrated in **Table 4.1** shows that the majority of respondents did their shopping at supermarkets (72.5%), hypermarkets (64.2%) and specialised shops (35.3%), for example IV Play, Equateur, Mikado etc. as far as inland shopping was concerned. The proliferation of supermarkets and hypermarkets offering a wider range of facilities and acting as a one stop shop with many shopping outlets for customers may explain the high preference of respondents for these shopping locations. Some 40.7% of respondents did their shopping abroad while 31.4% used the Internet as a shopping tool. In the wake of globalisation and technological advancement, shopping is no longer a difficult task.

Table 4.1: Shopping Locations

Shopping Locations	Number of Respondents	%
Supermarket	148	72.5
Hypermarket	131	64.2
Shopping Malls	56	27.5
Specialised Shops	72	35.3
On the Internet	64	31.4
Abroad	83	40.7

Note: More than one shopping location was chosen by the respondents

Question 2

As shown in **Table 4.2**, it was identified that 95.1% and 69.6% of respondents interviewed preferred to buy imported products and products produced locally under license. Only 54.9% preferred to buy local producers' products.

Table 4.2: Products' Preference

Preferences	Number of Respondents	%
Products that are manufactured locally by local producers	112	54.9
Products that are produced locally under license	142	69.6
Products that are imported	194	95.1
All of the above	99	48.5

Note: More than one product's preference could be chosen by the respondents

4.1.2. Section B: The CETSCALE

Question 3

The table below summarises the means and standard deviations relating to the CETSCALE, which is the scale, used to measure the level of consumer ethnocentrism. The scale is a measure of buying intention (tendency). The last column relates to the ranking of each element based on the value of the mean.

Table 4.3: Consumer Ethnocentrism Means and Standard Deviations (SD) (n=204)

Opinions	Mean	SD	Rank
Buy Mauritian-made products. Keep Mauritius working	4.70	1.493	1
We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country	4.05	1.923	2

We should purchase products manufactured in Mauritius instead of letting other countries get rich from us	3.73	1.759	3
Only those products that are unavailable in Mauritius should be imported	3.72	1.840	4
It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Mauritian products	3.55	1.415	5
Mauritian products, first, last and foremost	3.54	1.463	6
It is always best to purchase Mauritian products	3.47	1.691	7
Mauritian should always buy Mauritian products instead of imports	3.44	1.628	8
There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity	3.33	1.617	9
Mauritians should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Mauritian business and causes unemployment	3.19	1.615	10
It is not right to purchase foreign products because it puts Mauritian people out of a job	3.10	1.690	11
Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry in Mauritius	2.87	1.624	12
A real Mauritian should always buy Mauritian products	2.84	1.829	13
Restrictions should be put on all imports	2.61	1.418	14
Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets	2.56	1.425	15
Mauritian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting fellow Mauritians out of work	2.56	1.499	16
Purchasing foreign-made products is anti-Mauritian	2.49	1.650	17
Average Mean Score	**3.28**		

Respondents were examined for their level of ethnocentrism through an inventory of 17 attitudinal statements comprising an ethnocentrism scale where 1 is “Strongly Disagree” and 7 is “Strongly Agree”. The average mean score across all 17 items as shown in **Table 4.3** is 3.28, indicating that Mauritians are not ethnocentric with regards to the purchase of “foreign” or “Mauritian” products. The highest rating (4.70), was for the item, “Buy Mauritian-made products. Keep Mauritius working”, while the lowest (2.49), was on the item, “Purchasing foreign-made products is anti-Mauritian”. However, since the standard deviations of these statements were all above one, such opinions were not widely shared. It can be deduced that consumer ethnocentrism is not that strong among the respondents. This can be explained because most of the products are not available and manufactured locally. The majority of products are imported and Mauritians are accustomed to this situation since long and it would be difficult for them to stop buying foreign brands which are far more superior in terms of quality, convenience, attractiveness, value for money, norms and standards. Also for manufacturers to produce their products locally, they need to import raw materials from abroad and the presence of foreign products on the local market is needed so as to serve as benchmark and enhance the level of competition with local products such that they achieve the same level of foreign standards.

The purchasing power of the population does also explain the average mean score of 3.28. People prefer to buy foreign brands because they have the perception that foreign brands are much better than local brands. They do not hesitate to pay more because of the quality they are receiving in return and which pays off in the long run. The socio-economic policy put in place by the government also influences the behaviour of consumers in the sense that the government is encouraging foreign investment in the country, eventually the market is being flooded by foreign products and services. Since Mauritian consumers are not strongly ethnocentric, they prefer to adopt imported brands rather than protecting the local industry. Mauritius being a free trade country, member of various regional blocks such as SADC, COMESA and IOR has to open its market to foreign products coming from the other members of these blocks.

The 17 statements were next subject to a reliability test to ascertain the internal consistency of the items. The resulting Cronbach alpha of 0.9030 was relatively high suggesting high internal reliability of the scales of these items as these values were higher than 0.50 as recommended by Sharma (1996). This compares very favourably with earlier tests of the scale that reported alphas ranging from 0.886 to 0.95 (Kucukemiroglu, 1999).

4.1.3. Section C: Lifestyle of Mauritian Consumers

Question 4

The table below relates to the means and standard deviations for the lifestyle of Mauritian consumers.

Table 4.4: Lifestyle Means and Standard Deviations (SD) (n=204)

Lifestyle	Mean	SD	Factor Loading	Cronbach Alpha
Quality Consciousness	**4.76**	**1.111**		0.6734
I am satisfied with most of the products I buy	4.88	1.474	0.814	
Most products I buy last for a long time	4.45	1.463	0.691	
The quality of products I buy has consistently improved over the years	4.97	1.344	0.829	
Comparison Shopping	**4.45**	**1.217**		0.7376
I make it a rule to shop at a number of stores before I buy	4.16	1.643	0.785	
You can save a lot of money by shopping around	4.72	1.599	0.715	
I always check the ads before shopping	4.24	1.612	0.820	
I usually watch advertisements	4.67	1.653	0.672	
Brand Consciousness	**4.43**	**1.165**		0.7520
I always purchase renowned brands	4.42	1.719	0.750	
I am brand loyal	4.42	1.488	0.804	
I always look for the same brands	4.38	1.489	0.675	
My purchases are influenced more by brand names	4.50	1.444	0.806	
Price Consciousness	**4.33**	**1.073**		0.6334
I shop a lot for "specials"	4.56	1.496	0.607	
I find myself checking the prices in the grocery store even for small items	4.07	1.550	0.702	
I usually watch the advertisements for announcements of sales	4.06	1.657	0.771	
A person can save a lot of money by shopping around for bargains	4.62	1.476	0.672	

It was found that Mauritian consumers were very much concerned about quality (4.76), were more prone towards comparison shopping (4.45), were brand conscious (4.43) and much conscious about price (4.33).

Factor analysis as shown in **Table 4.4** was performed on Quality Consciousness, Comparison Shopping, Brand Consciousness and Price Consciousness to assess the dimensionality, as all these measures were adapted from past research whereby respondents were asked how intense or serious was their overall level of agreement over each of these characteristics, describing themselves on a seven-point scale where 1 is “Strongly Disagree” and 7 is “Strongly Agree”. Principal components were chosen as the extraction method and factor rotation was deemed unnecessary as only one factor was extracted for each analysis. All factor loadings were significant and high, which indicates that all 15 items are well represented in the measurement of consumer lifestyle.

Reliability tests were then performed on all variables using Cronbach’s (1960) coefficient alpha. As shown in **Table 4.4**, the coefficients were 0.6734, 0.7376, 0.7520 and 0.6334 for “Quality Consciousness”, “Comparison Shopping”, “Brand Consciousness” and “Price Consciousness” dimensions respectively.

Hence, the four dimensions exhibited well over the 0.50 reliability level suggested by Hair *et al*. (1995) as a minimum score for acceptable reliability and which indicates high internal reliability of the scales of these factors.

4.1.4. Section D: Importance of Products' Country of Origin (COO)

Question 5

As revealed in **Table 4.5**, 27% of Mauritian consumers claimed they "Always" looked for the COO of a brand when buying goods and 31.9% said they "Often" looked for COO on the label. 33.3% of respondents reported they "Occasionally" looked for COO of brands they purchased and 7.8% "Never" consulted the product label for COO. These findings were indicative of the fact that COO is an important decision-making factor in consumer decision affecting purchase behaviour of brands in the Mauritian market.

Table 4.5: Look for "Country-of-Origin" on Product Label

Frequency	% of Respondents
Never	7.8
Occasionally	33.3
Often	31.9
Always Look	27

Question 6

As can be observed in **Table 4.6**, a clear majority of respondents (90.7%) did not attach any special significance to a Mauritian-made label during the purchase of consumer goods, while only 2% of respondents said they "Always" looked for a Mauritian-made product and 7.4% said they "Often" looked for the "made in Mauritius" label. It can be inferred that Mauritian-made products are not a priority in the purchasing list of consumers.

Table 4.6: Look for "Mauritian Made" on Product Label

Frequency	% of Respondents
Never	33.8
Occasionally	56.9
Often	7.4
Always Look	2

Question 7

From the respondents' response, it was concluded that the product's country-of-origin was fairly important to the consumers as a mean score of 5.11 was achieved on a scale of 1 to 7 where 1 is "Not at all Important" and 7 is "Very Important".

Question 8 and Question 8.1

Table 4.7 below depicts the perceptions of consumers with regards to the products' country of origin, which has also been classified into developed and developing countries. The rank of each country based on the value of the mean is illustrated and the last column relates to the percentage of respondents perceiving the country having the best image in terms of overall product assessment.

Table 4.7: Consumers' Perceptions of Products' Country of Origin and Image

Developing Countries		Country of Origin Perceptions			Best Image (%)
		Mean	SD	Rank	
1	Mauritius	4.25	1.396	4	1.5
2	India	4.20	1.276	6	1.5
3	China	4.25	1.455	5	2.9
4	Malaysia	4.39	1.332	1	3.4
5	Madagascar	3.44	1.298	7	0
6	Egypt	4.33	1.199	3	2.5
7	Indonesia	4.37	1.304	2	1.5
Average Mean Score		**4.17**			

Developed Countries		Country of Origin Perceptions			Best Image (%)
		Mean	SD	Rank	
8	Singapore	5.43	1.173	5	7
9	France	6.09	1.068	2	21.6
10	United Kingdom	6.12	1.205	1	39.7
11	South Africa	5.42	1.129	6	7.4
12	Australia	5.75	1.125	3	9.3
13	New Zealand	5.74	1.055	4	2
Average Mean Score		**5.76**			

On a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 is "Very Poor" and 7 is "Excellent" and based on the results in **Table 4.7**, it can be seen that products from developed countries are more highly rated by respondents (5.76) than those coming from developing countries (4.17). The products from the United Kingdom (6.12) and France (6.09) topped the list as those being more superior. On the other hand, Malaysia (4.39) is the country whose products are considered to be of more value among those coming from the developing countries.

Furthermore, among the developed countries, the United Kingdom and France are the countries whose products are considered to have the best image in terms of overall product assessment by 39.7% and 21.6% of respondents respectively, thus supporting the above finding.

Question 8.2

Table 4.8 illustrates the respondents' perceptions of the countries that they consider the best producer of the products listed below. The first three countries in each product category were selected.

Table 4.8: Consumer's Choice of Best Producers

Products	Countries	% of Respondents
Foodstuff	South Africa	25.2
	Australia	17.8
	France	13.4
Household Cleaning	France	25.2
	Mauritius	17.3
	China	8.9
Personal care	France	50
	United Kingdom	22.3
	India	9.4
Clothing/Garments	United Kingdom	26.5
	India	21
	France	19.5
Footwear	United Kingdom	35
	France	20.8
	China	13.7
Dairy Products	Australia	51.5
	New Zealand	35.1
	France	4
Jewelry	India	53.5
	France	11.5
	Egypt	8.5

Approximately 25.2% of respondents viewed South Africa as the best producer of foodstuff. France was considered as the best producer of household cleaning and personal care by 25.2% and 50% of respondents respectively. The United Kingdom was cited by 26.5% and 35% of respondents as the best producer of clothing/garments and footwear in that order. Not surprisingly, Australia was considered as the best producer of dairy products by nearly 51.5% of respondents and finally India with 53.5% of acknowledgement was the country cited as the best producer of jewelry.

It can be noted that consumers did have a good perception of developing countries as producers for goods such as household cleaning, personal care, clothing/garments, footwear and jewelry. Mauritius was one of the top three producers of household cleaning products only among all the goods it produces locally.

Question 9

The information illustrated in **Table 4.9** shows the selected local and foreign brands the respondents buy most often as their usual choice during their shopping.

Table 4.9: Local Brands and Foreign Brands Purchase Preferences

Local Brand	% of Respondents	Foreign Brand	% of Respondents
Foodstuff			
Subana	48.5	Ceres	55.4
Maucob	40.2	LU/Tuc	50
Esko	34.3	Twisties	48.5
Sunny	24.5	Pringles	42.2
Poppies/Curlies	14.7	Bakers	40.2
Household Cleaning			
Javel	64.2	Ariel	50
Crest	63.2	Soupline	49.5

Duck	45.6	Monsieur Propre	39.2
Omo Bleue	21.6	Bonux	37.7
Cernol	11.8	Noble Care	3.4
Personal Care			
Blendax	54.4	Johnson	44.6
Lux	42.2	Nivea	44.1
Eve	32.4	Head & Shoulders	36.8
Malaica	31.4	Fair & Lovely	24.5
Smart	8.8	Belle Color	22.5
Clothing/Garments			
IV Play	43.6	Levis	36.8
Equateur	33.3	Marks & Spencer	26.5
Harris Wilson	30.4	Yves St. Laurent	26.5
Habit	22.1	Giorgio Armani	23
Island Style	16.7	Hugo Boss	22.1
Footwear			
Bata	37.7	Nike	50
Kito	29.4	Adidas	32.8
Dodo	24.5	Paco	24
Island Style	22.1	Reebok	18.1
Napra	9.3	Caterpillar	17.6
Dairy Products			
Yoplait	71.6	Kraft	74
Miko	43.1	Flora	39.2
Dairy Vale	40.2	Sunny South	28.9
Vita	22.5	Meadow Lea	25.5
D’Light	16.7	Plume Rouge	11.3
Jewelry (Manufacturers’ Brands)			
Mikado	39.2	Bought Abroad	43.1
Poncini	26	Quest Net	17.6

Matikola	23.5		
Vendome Prestige	16.7		
Bijouvog	12.3		
Bijouchic	11.3		
Bijoulux	11.3		
Mille & Une Nuit	8.3		
Ravior	5.9		

Note: More than one local and foreign brand were chosen by the respondents

When it comes to foodstuff, the respondents' preferences were mostly for foreign brands. The "Ceres" brand (55.4%) was the foreign brand most often bought by respondents and "Subana" (48.5%) was the local brand most often purchased.

With regards to household cleaning, the local brand "Javel" (64.2%) was the one to be frequently purchased whereas the foreign brand "Ariel" (50%) was the preferred choice of buyers.

In the category of personal care, the brand "Blendax" (54.4%), which is manufactured under license in Mauritius was most often bought by the interviewees while the foreign brand "Johnson" (44.6%), which is available under a wide product mix catering for different segments of the population was the respondents' preferred choice.

Among the clothing/garments choice presented to the respondents, it was observed that their preferences were mostly towards local brands. This is due to the fact that the available choices were of excellent quality and offer value for money. On the other hand, foreign brands were expensive in comparison to the local choices given the fluctuation in foreign currency. The local brand "IV Play" (43.6%) topped the list as the product bought most often. This trademark is also dominating the Mauritian market since the last seven years, as it has been able to adapt itself to the lifestyle trend of the Mauritians. Even foreigners visiting the island do not miss the opportunity to purchase in large quantity local brands such as “Equateur” and “Harris Wilson” which are mostly targeted towards them. On the other hand, the foreign brand “Levis” (36.8%) was usually purchased by the respondents.

Most of the respondents preferred to buy foreign brands when it comes to footwear. Customers’ choice was mostly influenced by the brand names, quality, life span of the products and lifestyle trend in the market. As such, the foreign brand “Nike” (50%) was most often bought by the respondents while “Bata” (37.7%), which is the local manufacturer’s brand, was generally the buyers’ preference.

As far as dairy products are concerned, the local brand “Yoplait” (71.6%) was by and large the respondents’ usual choice while the foreign brand “Kraft” was most often bought by them.

Finally, the majority of respondents (43.1%) were purchasing their jewelry abroad. This was due to the fact that the price and quality of jewelry are much better abroad than those available locally. Nevertheless, the local manufacturer’s brand “Mikado” (39.2%) was the one whose products were bought most regularly.

Question 10

The table below elicits the respondent perceptions on the product dimensions in the case of both “Mauritian” and “foreign” products.

Table 4.10: Mean Rating of Respondent Perceptions on Product Dimensions

	Countries/ Products Dimension	Quality	Design	Branding	Packaging	Price	Status & Esteem	Value for Money
1	Mauritius	4.16	4.33	4.18	4.22	4.36	3.93	4.04
2	India	4.19	4.48	4.09	3.86	5.37	3.77	4.73
3	China	4.41	4.52	4.32	4.17	5.32	4.04	4.81
4	Malaysia	4.43	4.26	4.20	4.47	5.05	4.09	4.74
5	Madagascar	3.27	3.25	3.17	3.52	4.27	3.16	3.94
6	Egypt	4.60	4.40	4.18	4.49	4.54	4.34	4.53
7	Indonesia	4.55	4.48	4.32	4.35	4.77	4.23	4.45
8	Singapore	5.44	5.46	5.21	5.25	4.45	5.20	5.06
9	France	6.11	5.95	5.99	5.85	4.15	6.13	5.44
10	UK	6.23	6.05	6.05	6.02	4.09	6.07	5.45
11	South Africa	5.59	5.37	5.38	5.23	4.62	5.33	5.25
12	Australia	6.02	5.57	5.53	5.63	4.79	5.67	5.33
13	New Zealand	5.62	5.46	5.23	5.30	4.64	5.24	5.20

The respondent perceptions were assessed on a scale of 1 to 7 where 1 is “Very Poor” and 7 is “Excellent”. As illustrated in **Table 4.10**, all other developing countries except for Egypt and Madagascar scored higher on the price dimension. This indicates that the price of the products coming from these developing countries was perceived as very competitive.

Products coming from developed countries were viewed as being of superior quality, design, branding, packaging, status and esteem, and value for money as compared to products coming from developing countries.

Table 4.11: Product Dimensions Differences between Mauritian and Developing/Developed Countries Products: *t* Values and Significance Levels

Product Dimensions	Mauritian Products (Mean Rating)	Developing Countries (Mean Rating)	t Value	Sig. Level	Developed Countries (Mean Rating)	t Value	Sig. Level
Quality	4.16	4.24	- 0.84	NS	5.83	- 17.71	0.05
Design	4.33	4.23	1.02	NS	5.64	- 14.51	0.05
Branding	4.18	4.05	1.64	NS	5.57	- 15.28	0.05
Packaging	4.22	4.15	0.80	NS	5.54	- 12.31	0.05
Price	4.36	4.87	- 4.96	0.05	4.47	- 1.11	NS
Status & Esteem	3.93	3.93	0.00	NS	5.61	- 13.66	0.05
Value for Money	4.04	4.54	- 4.78	0.05	5.29	- 11.25	0.05

Note: Mean rating ranged from “1” (very poor) to “7” (excellent); differences were significant at the p = 0.05 percent level; NS: not significant

In the case of products from developing countries, mean differences were not consistently significant across five dimensions examined namely “quality”, “design”, “branding”, “packaging” and “status and esteem”, implying that these developing countries’ products were in no way delivering better “quality”, “design”, “branding”, “packaging” and “status and esteem” than Mauritian products or vice versa. However, mean differences for “price” and “value for money” dimensions were significant, whereby products from the developing countries were rated more favourably on these dimensions, implying that developing countries products were delivering better “price” and “value for money” than Mauritian products. People are more influenced by imported products when it comes to expenditure on purchase of products.

Furthermore, mean importance ratings in the case of developed countries foreign products, were significantly higher on “quality”, “design”, “branding”, “packaging”, “status and esteem” and “value for money” dimensions with $p = 0.05$. These results indicate that most consumers appeared to prefer buying developed countries products because of their superior quality, design, branding, packaging, value and also the associated status and esteem of foreign products, which is due to their being fashionable and more socially acceptable. This trend has been boosted by the increasing influence of advertising of foreign products on the local media and the access of Mauritian people to satellite television. In fact, the marked prevalence of foreign brands in the developing country markets is largely due to advertising images, which play on their desirability from a status standpoint and emphasize social acceptability. Foreign brands serve as symbolic acquisitions communicative of social distinctions in negotiating status and reputation. This is particularly so, in Mauritius where economic transition and income disparities are high and social mobility magnifies the tendency to claim differential status through the products one consumes and purchases. This salience of status markers in a developing society like Mauritius serves as an explanation for developed countries foreign product names acquiring a higher status than local products.

However, “price” was not a significant differentiating feature in favour of developed countries foreign products. In fact, Mauritian products were rated more favourably on this attribute. This is due since the price of Mauritian products was cheaper than developed countries products, yet the quality and status are not the same or can be compared.

4.1.5. Section E: Products Manufactured under License/Joint Venture Agreement in Mauritius

Question 11

The table below summarises the means and standard deviations relating to the factors that would encourage the respondents to purchase the foreign products manufactured locally under license. The last column relates to the ranking of each element based on the value of the mean.

Table 4.12: Purchase of Foreign Products Manufactured Under License Locally

Statements	Mean	SD	Rank
Quality of product	5.89	1.207	1
Good customer service and after sales service	5.70	1.285	2
Norms and standards of production same as in the parent company	5.53	1.062	3
Price of product	5.50	1.210	4
Product brand	5.45	1.208	5
Reputation of the Company	5.41	1.304	6
Encourage employment of local people	5.41	1.121	7
Advertising and promotional strategies	5.28	1.223	8
Contributing to the local economy	5.10	1.315	9
Raw materials used	5.08	1.532	10
Support to the local industry	4.83	1.394	11
Availability of the products on home soil	4.76	1.571	12
Average Mean Score	**5.33**		

The respondents were assessed on how intense or serious was their overall level of agreement over each of the above statements that would encourage them to purchase foreign products manufactured locally under license, describing themselves on a seven-point scale where 1 is “Strongly Disagree” and 7 is “Strongly Agree”. The average mean score across all 12 statements as shown in

Table 4.10 is 5.33. The highest rating (5.89), was for the statement, "Quality of product", implying that the foreign products manufactured under license locally were preferred because of the quality associated with them while the lowest (4.76), was on the statement, "Availability of the products on home soil". This may be explained by the fact that even if the products were not manufactured locally, they would have been made available on the local market through importation and as such was not a huge influencing factor for the purchase of these products.

4.1.6. Section F: Respondents General Views and Opinions

Question 12

The following table summarises the means and standard deviations relating to the behavioural intentions of the respondents towards Mauritian and foreign products and brands.

Table 4.13: Behavioural Intentions

	Statements	Mean	SD
1	I am against imports and a strong supporter of Mauritian products and brands	2.93	1.255
2	I have a strong willingness to buy domestic products versus imported products	3.48	1.337
3	I prefer to purchase imported products rather than Mauritian products	5.14	1.486

As shown in **Table 4.13**, on a scale of 1 to 7 where 1 is "Strongly Disagree" and 7 is "Strongly Agree", a mean of 2.93 was recorded for statement 1, implying that the respondents were not against imports and not strong supporters of Mauritian products and brands and this is confirmed by the mean score of 3.48 registered on statement 2 which indicates that the respondents do not have a strong willingness to buy domestic products versus imported products. The mean score of 5.14 on statement 3 shows that the respondents indeed prefer to purchase imported products rather than Mauritian products. The quest for quality and renowned products, lifestyle, trends in the market, value and life span of the products, social acceptance and purchasing power are a few factors that might explain why Mauritians prefer to buy imported products rather than local products.

4.1.7. Section G: Demographic Information

The demographic characteristics of the sample interviewed are given below.

Table 4.14: Demographic Variables (n = 204)

Demographic Variables	Percentage (%)
(a) Gender	
Male	49
Female	51
(b) Age	
18-29 years old	27.9
30-39 years old	24
40-49 years old	21.1
50-59 years old	23.5
60 years or older	3.4
(c) Marital Status	
Single	23
Married without children	8.3
Married with children	62.3
Widowed/Divorced/Separated	6.4
(d) Region	
Urban	61.8
Rural	38.2

(e) Ethnic Group	
Hindu	50
Muslim	25
Chinese	15.2
Other	9.8
(f) Occupational Status	
Clerical/Factory Worker/and other White Collar Jobs	17.6
Administrative/Managerial/Professional/Executives	45.6
Retired/Student/Housewife	18.6
Self-Employed	10.8
Others	7.4
(g) Education	
Primary	8.3
Secondary	30.4
Diploma	17.2
Undergraduate degree	27
Postgraduate degree	17.2
(h) Monthly Household Income Before Taxes	
Below Rs 10,000	11.3
Rs 10,001 – Rs 20,000	34.8
Rs 20,001 – Rs 30,000	27
Rs 30,001 – Rs 40,000	16.7
Above Rs 40,000	10.3
(i) Monthly Expenditure on Shopping	
Below Rs 5,000	23
Rs 5,001 – Rs 10,000	28.4
Rs 10,001 – Rs 15,000	25
Rs 15,001 – Rs 20,000	13.2
Above Rs 20,000	10.3

The records in **Table 4.14** show that 49% of the respondents were male and 51% were female consumers. The majority of the consumers (27.9%) came from the age group 18-29 years old followed by those in the age group 30-39 years old (24%). Most of the respondents were married with children (62.3%) and the majority of them belonged to the Hindu community (50%) followed by the Muslim community (25%).

Moreover, most of the participants in the survey lived in the urban region (61.8%) while the rest (38.2%) were from the rural region. Approximately, 30.4% of the consumers had completed secondary education while 27% were holders of an undergraduate degree. The majority of interviewees (34.8%) has a gross monthly household income before income taxes of below Rs 10,001 – Rs 20,000 followed by those whose monthly household income ranged between Rs 20,001 – Rs 30,000 (27%) and at least 45.6% of them held administrative, managerial, professional and executive positions in their jobs.

4.2. Part B – Results of Hypothesis Testing

4.2.1. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and COO

According to Herche (1994) and Durvasula *et al*. (1997), the strength and significance of the ethnocentrism effect is contingent on consumers' perceptions of the country of origin of specific goods examined. Hence, it was hypothesised that

H1a : Mauritian consumers will perceive the quality of products to be significantly different based on country of origin.

H2b : Mauritian consumers will perceive the quality of products from various countries to be significantly different based on consumers' level of ethnocentrism.

$H3_0$: There is no significant relationship between the ethnocentric tendencies of consumers and intentions to purchase domestic products versus imported products.

$H3_1$: There is a significant relationship between the ethnocentric tendencies of consumers and intentions to purchase domestic products versus imported products.

The first hypothesis (H1a) that Mauritian consumers perceive quality of products to be different based on consumer's level of ethnocentrism and country of origin was tested using the repeated measures ANOVA. This method of analysis is appropriate when the behaviours or judgements of the same individuals over a variety of conditions is of interest. There were two within subject factors namely country of origin (India, China, Malaysia, Madagascar, Egypt, Indonesia, Singapore, France, UK, South Africa, Australia and New Zealand) and product quality. The analysis of within subject factors examines an individual's product quality rating scores to see whether the individual rated the product differently based on country of origin. An individual's overall product mean with that individual's score on a particular country's product was compared to determine if there was a significant difference. Based on the results in **Table 4.15**, it was observed that the hypothesis proposing differences in quality based on country of origin (H1a) is supported by the analysis and indeed, the statistical analysis shows that the result is significant. This means that there are differences in product quality ratings within consumers based on country of origin.

Table 4.15: Summary of Analysis of Variance for Two Factors

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig of F
Within Subjects	56.440	176	0.321		
Product x Country	42.854	21	2.041	6.364	0.000

Moreover, the second hypothesis (H2b) assuming that Mauritian consumers will perceive the quality of products from various countries to be significantly different based on consumer's level of ethnocentrism was tested using the Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (r) since both consumer perception of quality and consumer ethnocentrism has been measured through Likert scales. **Table 4.16** lists the key statistics for Pearson's correlation coefficient (r).

Table 4.16: Pearson's Coefficient of Correlation between Consumer Perception of Quality of Products from Various Countries and Consumer Ethnocentrism

Correlations

		Quality Perception	CETSCALE
Quality Perception	Pearson Correlation	1	-.227**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001
	N	199	199
CETSCALE	Pearson Correlation	-.227**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.
	N	199	204

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Since the coefficient is an abstract measure of the relationship between variables based on a scale ranging between +1 and –1, the Pearson's coefficient of correlation value where $r = -0.227$ in **Table 4.16**, suggests that a negative correlation and a significant ($p < 0.05$) indirect effect exists between consumer perception of quality of products from various countries and consumer ethnocentrism. As such, hypothesis H2b is accepted. However, there is a very weak relationship between consumer perception of quality of products from various countries and consumer ethnocentrism. This is because the ethnocentrism effect is contingent on consumer perception of the country-of-origin of specific goods examined. If consumer ethnocentrism is high, people will perceive quality of products produced in their domestic country as high and quality of products from various countries low since they will pride their own superiority first. In contrast, if consumer ethnocentrism is low, people will perceive quality of products from various countries based on merits, attributes and country of origin.

The third hypothesis, which attempted to uncover any significant relationship between the ethnocentric tendencies of consumers and intentions to purchase domestic products versus imported products ($H3_0$ and $H3_1$) was tested using the Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (r). This is because both the ethnocentric tendencies and future intentions have been measured through Likert scales. The following table lists the key statistics for Pearson's correlation coefficient (r).

Table 4.17: Pearson's Coefficient of Correlation between Ethnocentric Tendencies and Intentions to Purchase Domestic versus Imported Products

Correlations

		Purchase of domestic versus imported products	CETSCALE
Purchase of domestic versus imported products	Pearson Correlation	1	.238**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001
	N	204	204
CETSCALE	Pearson Correlation	.238**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.
	N	204	204

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The fact that the coefficient is an abstract measure of the relationship between variables based on a scale ranging between +1 and –1, the Pearson's coefficient of correlation value where r = 0.238 in **Table 4.17**, points out that there is a significant relationship between the ethnocentric tendencies of consumers and intentions to purchase domestic products versus imported products. This implies that the higher the ethnocentricity level of consumers, the latter will protect their local industry by purchasing more local products and be more patriotic. Based on the above results, hypothesis $H3_0$ was rejected and hypothesis $H3_1$ was therefore accepted.

4.2.2. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Demographic Variables

The literature review points out that numerous variables influence consumer ethnocentrism which in turn plays a mediating role between these variables and the attitudes of consumers in buying foreign-made goods. As such, several hypotheses between demographic variables and consumer ethnocentrism were developed and tested. The level of significance used was 5% (0.05). If the level of significance was less than 5%, the hypothesis was accepted meaning that there is a relationship between the two variables. On the contrary, if the level of significance was greater than 5%, the hypothesis was rejected. These hypotheses were tested by analysis of variance (ANOVA). Separate ANOVAs were computed for each demographic variable.

4.2.2.1. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Occupation

Typically, occupation is the best indicator of social class. The work one does is often a reflection of one's education and affects one's status, consumption and lifestyle, as well as type of family house and neighbourhood choice. Hence, it was hypothesised that

$H4_0$: There is no relationship between occupation and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H4_1$: There is a relationship between occupation and consumer ethnocentrism.

As illustrated in **Table 4.18**, the significance level of the test is 0.486 and is greater than 5%. Consequently, hypothesis $H4_1$ is rejected and the null hypothesis $H4_0$ is accepted meaning that there is no relationship between occupation and consumer ethnocentrism.

Table 4.18: Analysis of Variance by Occupational Status

Demographic Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	Sig.
Occupation	3.613	4	0.903	0.866	0.486

4.2.2.2. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Gender

Several studies found that females tend to rate foreign-made products more favourably than do men (Dornoff *et al.*, 1974; Schooler, 1971; Wang, 1978) while other studies found no effect (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972). Based on this, it was hypothesised that

$H5_0$: There is no relationship between gender and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H5_1$: There is a relationship between gender and consumer ethnocentrism.

As shown in **Table 4.19**, the significance value of the test is 0.003 and is less than 5%. Hence, the null hypothesis $H5_0$ is rejected and hypothesis $H5_1$ is accepted. There is a relationship between gender and consumer ethnocentrism. Mauritian males were more ethnocentric than their female counterparts and this is confirmed by the mean scores (3.49 versus 3.07). Indeed, the group of studies that indicated females tended to rate foreign products more favourably than men (Dornoff *et al.*, 1974; Schooler, 1971; Wang, 1978) implies that women may have lower scores on ethnocentrism and the findings of this study point in that direction.

Table 4.19: Analysis of Variance by Gender

Demographic Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	Sig.
Gender	9.143	1	9.143	9.137	0.003

4.2.2.3. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Age

Shimp and Sharma (1987) found that the effect of age varies by social class and only older working class individuals manifest ethnocentric tendencies. McLain and Sternquist (1991) examined the relationship between age and ethnocentrism and found older consumers to be more ethnocentric than younger consumers. Hence, it was hypothesised that

$H6_0$: There is no relationship between age and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H6_1$: There is a relationship between age and consumer ethnocentrism.

As indicated in **Table 4.20**, the significance level of the test is 0.002 and is less than 5% (0.05). As a result, the null hypothesis $H6_0$ is rejected and hypothesis $H6_1$ is accepted. This means that there is a relationship between age and consumer ethnocentrism. As age of the Mauritian consumers increases, the higher is the ethnocentrism score (3.05 for the age group 18 – 29 years old versus 3.54 for the age group 50 – 59 years old). These findings are consistent with McLain and Sternquist (1991).

Table 4.20: Analysis of Variance by Age

Demographic Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	Sig.
Age	17.424	4	4.356	4.472	0.002

4.2.2.4. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Education

Education has been found to influence the choices of foreign goods by consumers and the higher their level of education, the higher is the tendency to rate foreign or imported products favourably (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Dornoff *et al*., 1974; Schooler, 1971; Wall and Heslop, 1986; Wang 1978). In contrast, Han (1988) found no significant relationship between education and consumer patriotism. Accordingly, it was hypothesised that

$H7_0$: There is no relationship between the level of education and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H7_1$: There is a relationship between the level of education and consumer ethnocentrism.

The results shown in **Table 4.21** illustrate that the significance value of the test is 0.051 and is greater than 5% (0.05). Hence, hypothesis $H7_1$ is rejected and the null hypothesis $H7_0$ is accepted meaning that there is no relationship between the level of education and consumer ethnocentrism. This result supports the views of Han (1988) who did not find any significant link between consumer patriotism and education.

Table 4.21: Analysis of Variance by Education Level

Demographic Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	Sig.
Education	9.747	4	2.437	2.406	0.051

4.2.2.5. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Income Level

Wall and Heslop (1986) found that the higher the income, the less likely the consumer would buy domestic products. Sharma *et al*. (1995) found a negative relationship between ethnocentric tendencies and income group. Han (1988) and McLain and Sternquist (1991) however found no relationship between income level and ethnocentrism. Consequently, it was hypothesised that

$H8_0$: There is no relationship between income level and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H8_1$: There is a relationship between income level and consumer ethnocentrism.

As can be seen in **Table 4.22**, the significance level of the test is 0.063 and is greater than 5% (0.05). Thus, hypothesis $H8_1$ is rejected and the null hypothesis $H8_0$ is accepted. This substantiates that there is no relationship between income level and consumer ethnocentrism and at the same time supports the findings of Han (1988) and McLain and Sternquist (1991).

Table 4.22: Analysis of Variance by Income Level

Demographic Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	Sig.
Income	9.208	4	2.302	2.267	0.063

In summary, the demographic hypotheses were rejected for the occupation, education and income variables. Gender and age were the only two significant demographic variables. Mauritians who are more ethnocentric are the males and those in the age group 50 – 59 years old.

4.2.3. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Lifestyle

Lifestyle segmentation research measures people's activities in terms of how they spend their time; what interests they have and what importance they place on their environment; their views of themselves and the world around them; and some demographic characteristics (Kucukemiroglu, 1999). The AIO (Activities, Interests and Opinions) rating statements have been the most widely used approach to lifestyle measurements (Wells and Tigert, 1977). It can provide more detailed information about consumers than basic demographic variables. Based on this, it was hypothesised that

$H9_0$: There is no significant relationship between lifestyle and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H9_1$: There is a significant relationship between lifestyle and consumer ethnocentrism.

This hypothesis was tested using the Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (r). This is because both the lifestyle items and consumer ethnocentrism have been measured through Likert scales. The following table lists the key statistics for Pearson's correlation coefficient, r.

Table 4.23: Pearson's Coefficient of Correlation between Lifestyle and Consumer Ethnocentrism

Correlations

		Lifestyle	CETSCALE
Lifestyle	Pearson Correlation	1	-.016
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.824
	N	201	201
CETSCALE	Pearson Correlation	-.016	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.824	.
	N	201	204

Since the coefficient is an abstract measure of the relationship between variables based on a scale ranging between +1 and –1, the Pearson's coefficient of correlation value where r = –0.016 in **Table 4.23**, suggests that a negative correlation exist between lifestyle and consumer ethnocentrism. Since $p > 0.05$, hypothesis $H9_1$ is rejected and the null hypothesis $H9_0$ is accepted. As such, there is no significant relationship between lifestyle and consumer ethnocentrism.

4.2.4. Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Consumer Attitudes Towards Foreign Products/Local Products Made in a Joint Venture/Licensing Agreement

Research suggests that joint ventures with local partners face a low risk of being subject to nationalisation (Bradley, 1977). In countries where products are manufactured under a licensing or joint venture agreement, these tend to impact on the ethnocentric behaviour of consumers. Highly ethnocentric consumers may view these products as being domestically produced by their local firms and their perception about these products may be more favourable and patriotic than for the same product produced elsewhere. On the other hand, low ethnocentric consumers would be indifferent about the products' country of origin as the only difference is that it is being manufactured on the home soil. Based on this, it was hypothesised that

$H10_0$: There is no significant relationship between Consumer attitudes towards foreign products/local products made in a joint venture/licensing agreement and consumer ethnocentrism.

$H10_1$: There is a significant relationship between Consumer attitudes towards foreign products/local products made in a joint venture/licensing agreement and consumer ethnocentrism.

The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (r) was used to test this hypothesis. This was because consumer attitudes towards product manufactured under a joint venture/licensing agreement and consumer ethnocentrism were measured through Likert scales. The following table lists the key statistics for Pearson's correlation coefficient, r.

Table 4.24: Pearson's Coefficient of Correlation between Consumer Attitudes Towards Foreign Products/Local Products Made in a Joint Venture/Licensing Agreement and Consumer Ethnocentrism

Correlations

		License/Joint Venture	CETSCALE
License/Joint Venture	Pearson Correlation	1	-.274**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	204	204
CETSCALE	Pearson Correlation	-.274**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	204	204

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Since the coefficient is an abstract measure of the relationship between variables based on a scale ranging between +1 and –1, the Pearson's coefficient of correlation value where r = –0.274 in **Table 4.24**, suggests that a negative correlation and a significant ($p < 0.05$) relationship exists between consumer attitudes towards product manufactured under a joint venture/licensing agreement and consumer ethnocentrism. Consequently, the null hypothesis $H10_0$ is rejected and hypothesis $H10_1$ is accepted. However, there is a very weak negative relationship between consumer attitudes towards foreign products/local products made in a joint venture/licensing agreement and consumer ethnocentrism. Since the degree of consumer ethnocentrism in Mauritius itself is low, there is no great difference whether the products are being produced locally through licensing or in a joint venture by a local manufacturer and the same products being imported.

4.3. Consumer Ethnocentrism and Homogeneous Market Segments Sharing Similar Lifestyles

Using consumer ethnocentrism as the focal construct, homogeneous market segments sharing similar lifestyles were identified through factor analysis. In the initial stage of factor extraction, the principal component factor analysis technique was selected because it extracts the maximum variance from the data - all the variance in the observed variable is analysed. The Varimax rotation technique with maximum likelihood method was chosen in the second stage of factor analysis, that is that of factor rotation, because it maximises the variance of the loadings on each factor, thus minimising the complexity of the factors (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989). Only factors with eigenvalues in the sharp descent part of the scree plot were retained and a decision rule of factor loadings in excess of 0.40 was considered.

When principal components extraction was used through SPSS to identify possible factors, 3 components were extracted based on the scree test plot. After rotating the factors, no item with loadings of less than 0.40 was omitted. The total variance extracted by the three factors was 49.425 %. **Table 4.25** illustrates the rotated factor matrices of the consumer ethnocentrism scale. Each of the 3 factors was labeled according to the items loaded onto it. Factor 1 was named Anti-Foreign Buyers; Factor 2 as Made in Mauritius Buyers and finally Factor 3 as Nationalism Champions.

Table 4.25: Rotated Factor Components and Factor Loadings of Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale

ITEMS	F1	F2	F3
F1: Anti-Foreign Buyers			
5. Purchasing foreign-made products is anti-Mauritian	0.693		
6. It is not right to purchase foreign products because it puts Mauritian people out of a job	0.628		

12. Restrictions should be put on all imports	0.515		
13. It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Mauritian products	0.650		
14. Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets	0.663		
15. Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry in Mauritius	0.610		
17. Mauritian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting fellow Mauritians out of work	0.478		
F2: Made in Mauritius Buyers			
1. Mauritian should always buy Mauritian products instead of imports		0.495	
2. Only those products that are unavailable in Mauritius should be imported		0.628	
3. Buy Mauritian-made products. Keep Mauritius working		0.627	
4. Mauritian products, first, last and foremost		0.730	
9. It is always best to purchase Mauritian products		0.456	
F3: Nationalism Champions			
7. A real Mauritian should always buy Mauritian products			0.474
8. We should purchase products manufactured in Mauritius instead of letting other countries get rich from us			0.857
9. There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity			0.484
10. Mauritians should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Mauritian business and causes unemployment			0.501
16. We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country			0.414

Extraction Method: Principal Components Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Bartlett's test of sphericity (**Table 4.26**) revealed a Chi-square at 1720.170, $p<0.000$ which verified that the correlation matrix was not an identity matrix, thus validating the suitability of factor analysis. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.830, exceeding the acceptable level of 0.6.

Table 4.26: Kaiser Meyer Olkin and Bartlett's Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.830
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1720.170
	df	136
	Sig.	.000

Based on the results of the factor analysis whereby consumer ethnocentrism was used as a focal construct, three homogeneous market segments sharing similar lifestyles were identified namely the "Anti-Foreign Buyers", that is those consumers who can be considered as those who will rarely venture out to buy a foreign made products, the "Made in Mauritius Buyers", that is those consumers who will be looking for Mauritian made products first and finally the "Nationalism Champions" that is those consumers who are the guardians and defendants of national interest.

5.0. Introduction

This chapter provides some discussions on the results of the survey conducted on the evaluation of the degree of consumer ethnocentrism in Mauritius. The implications of the results, limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are also included in this chapter.

5.1. Factors Contributing to Low Levels of Consumer Ethnocentrism in Mauritius

This study has shown that Mauritian people are not highly ethnocentric as regards the purchase of “foreign” or “Mauritian” products as evidenced through the low score (3.28) recorded on the 7-point Likert scale. Consumer ethnocentrism *per se*, does not figure as a priority since Mauritian consumers appeared to be amenable towards buying foreign brands. The consumption of imported products and brands is not considered as unpatriotic, non-nationalistic or anti-Mauritian.

5.1.1. Availability of Developed and Developing Countries Foreign Products

Owing to the fact that Mauritius is an open economy, there is a flux of foreign products both from developed and developing countries on the local market. As such, this availability has tended to make Mauritians more addicted to foreign products over time. Indeed, a great majority of local consumers do not attach any special significance to Mauritian-made label products when purchasing consumer goods. In fact, foreign brands from developed countries were perceived to be more reliable in terms of quality, design, branding, packaging, status and esteem and value for money. These products are easily available in hypermarkets and supermarkets around the island. Since most Mauritians do their weekly and monthly shopping in both these markets, it is not surprising to note that they are buying foreign brands more often. These consumers prefer to pay spend more in order to enjoy the quality and the prestige associated with the foreign products. They have become more quality conscious these days and the ownership of foreign brands is viewed as a means of acquiring more status.

On the other hand, foreign brands from developing countries have the edge on Mauritian products even though in terms of quality, design, branding, packaging, and status and esteem, they are of the same standards, since the foreign brands are perceived to deliver better price and value for money than Mauritian products. In this case, the price of the products plays a major part in influencing the consumers' purchase decision. As these products are easily available in the market, they relegate local alternatives to the second rank.

The paradox derived so far is that when it comes to foreign products from developed countries, local consumers are prepared to pay more for the quality and prestige associated with the brands but when it comes to foreign products from developing countries, they are more willing to pay the minimum for the foreign brands instead of buying the domestic available alternative. The foreign brands are perceived to be measurably better than most locally produced brands.

5.1.2. The Economic Situation

In addition, the present economic situation the country is facing has also influenced the degree of consumer ethnocentrism of its population. With an inflation rate estimated at 10.7% in Mauritius for the fiscal year 2006/2007, consumers are seeing their purchasing power reduced drastically day by day. One would presume that as purchasing power decreases, coupled with depreciation of the Mauritian Rupee, the inability to buy foreign products would increase the level of ethnocentricity. However, Mauritians consumers find no viable local substitutes on the local market and they therefore continue to sponsor foreign products since they prefer to spend their disposable income more wisely to enjoy the quality of foreign products.

5.1.3. Consumers' Perceptions and Advertising Effect of Foreign Products

It is also obvious that the long established perceptions in the minds of Mauritian consumers that foreign products are better have considerably impacted on the degree of the Mauritian consumer ethnocentrism. It is difficult overnight to change the perceptions of consumers who with time and experience have become more sophisticated nowadays. Consumers have learnt to plan their shopping well in advance and they like to shop advertisements to see where they can get the very best products at the very best competitive price. The effect of advertising in promoting foreign products on the local market has also contributed in making Mauritian people more attracted to the foreign brands. Moreover, people perceive foreign brands to have superior quality when they come from developed countries.

Although advertising campaigns for local products do exist, they do not have the same motivating effect as for the foreign brands. Much of the local advertisement for domestic products urges the need to protect the local industry by buying Mauritian products but the campaigns are only for short-term periods and are not sustainable over time.

5.1.4. Importation and Local Production

Mauritius being a country with limited resources having only human capital as its most important asset is required to import foreign products to satisfy the local needs and demands. Similarly, all of the basic raw materials that are needed in the manufacture of the seven products taken for this study namely foodstuff, household cleaning, personal care, clothing/garments, footwear, dairy products and jewelry are imported. Consequently, in every aspect of production locally, importation is a necessary evil that cannot be overlooked. These local products with the exception of a few however do not enjoy the same repute as their foreign counterparts since they cannot compete on branding, quality, status and prestige. Some of the local products are only replicas and duplication of what is already available through importation and consumers prefer to buy imported brands.

5.1.5. Erosion of Protection for Domestic Production

Over the years, Mauritian consumers have gained easier access to foreign brands and products. These products are easily available and accessible thanks to the local distributors and to the erosion of protection for local products. Today, local manufacturers do not have adequate protection for their products, which are in direct competition with the imported foreign products. In the 2006/2007 Budget, the maximum duty on some imported products had been brought down from 55% to 30% and the rates applicable to products bearing lower rates were reduced further. As a result, within a two-year period, the maximum protection extended to the local manufacturing sector has gone down from 80% to 30%, while some products are now enjoying a 10-15% protection. These factors have led to increasing production costs for local manufacturers and with no time period to adjust to these changes these have resulted in business closures, loss of jobs and more importantly, loss of confidence among many local operators.

The process of tariff liberalisation to transform Mauritius into a globally competitive economy and to move speedily to a Duty Free Island to serve the African and Indian Ocean region is also responsible for making local manufacturers more vulnerable. These tariff cuts are bringing down the prices on a large range of imported consumer products, thus making these more affordable, especially to the low-income group. Consequently, when it is affordable to buy foreign products, Mauritian consumers forget the need to protect the local industry. In 2006/2007, the tariff cuts concerned mainly biscuits, chocolate, sugar confectionery and honey (foodstuff), “lessives” and detergents (household cleaning), cosmetics and make-up, soap and shampoo (personal care). As such, these foreign products have flooded the Mauritian markets considerably while others are simply being dumped locally at the detriment of local production.

5.1.6. Lack of Control Over the Flow of Foreign Products in the Domestic Market.

Whereas local manufacturers have to adjust to rigorous local legislations implemented by the government such as compliance with the Food Act, adjustment to local quality standards and metrology such as ISO and HACCP, foreign products are not subject to such measures of control and as such it is not surprising to find fictitious, duplicate, below quality standards and products not complying to local Food Act requirements on the domestic market. These products come mostly from the developing countries. There is no level playing field between local production and imported products. Through the exploratory study carried out among local manufacturers, it was found that they firmly believe that imported goods receive more protection than local products from the authorities.

In this study, it was found that most of the Mauritians prefer to purchase their jewelry from abroad because of its superior quality and its competitive price. During the past three years in Mauritius, the price of gold has increased by 75% and since October 2006, Mauritian jewelers are forced to impose the 15% value added tax (VAT) on the sales of jewels to their clients. With these increases, customers prefer to turn to foreign countries where gold price is much cheaper and at the same time they can bypass the imposition of VAT and any forms of customs control when they come back to Mauritius. Under the Jewelry Act of 1990, controls on jewels produced locally are undertaken through the Assay office. The law stands that every dealer has to make a full and true record of every transaction he makes in relation to jewelry. The dealer also has to issue a serially numbered receipt of each purchase, sale or supply to another dealer of jewelry or each item received for remanufacture or repair. However, for jewels manufactured abroad there are no such records with the Assay office and it is indeed difficult to verify the authenticity of the jewels.

The recent scandal involving Quest International, a company practising the multi-level marketing, which is a pyramid hierarchical structure of selling network in which resellers can recruit new sellers and at the same time receiving a commission on the sales achieved by the recruits has brought to light fraud transactions whereby customers were being exploited. Indeed, this company was operating freely in the Mauritian business market through their independent representatives who kept on recruiting naïve and credulous people by persuading them to acquire jewels and numismatic coins through the company website. These are not sales companies, but money transfer schemes that require a huge loss rate based on their designs. Its products are sold through intensive selling meetings where people are repeatedly given the same message until it is ingrained in their brains in a cult-like fashion. Endless chain schemes have almost mystical power over people. They arouse hope, passion and confusion. They promise “unlimited” income, an almost divine power. As at September 2006, there were about 4000 Mauritian members in these chain schemes and about Rs 100 millions invested by the members. While some did receive the products they requested but which were in reality fake and not conform to standards in the case of jewelry, others have not received anything but have seen their money being lost naively.

5.1.7. Globalisation and Free Trade Policy

With the advent of globalisation, Mauritian consumers are being exposed to a wider range of foreign products than ever before. As such, it is almost difficult to have only the products that are not available and produced locally in the domestic market. Mauritius needs to adapt to the global situation since importation is a necessary evil for survival. Technological innovation has also facilitated the globalisation of markets and low-cost global communications networks such as the World Wide Web and email facilities are helping to create electronic global marketplaces. The Web makes it easier for buyers and sellers to find each other, wherever they may be located and whatever their size. Still not widely used in Mauritius, e-commerce is paving its way and in the years to come, it might be a source of purchasing tool for a majority of Mauritian consumers.

Furthermore, it would be impossible to think that importation of foreign products should be reduced or stopped, as this would mean going against the international trade policy. Mauritius being a free trade economy and member of various regional blocks such as SADC, COMESA and IOR, has to open its market to foreign products coming from the other members of these blocks.

5.1.8. No Common Platform for Mauritian Made Products

With the exception of trade fairs organised for local manufacturers and which also features most of the time foreign products, there is no common platform whereby only the local products are exposed and made easily accessible to the Mauritian consumers. Indeed, if such an initiative was undertaken, consumers would have surely developed more patriotic feelings towards their home made products since they would be dealing with a 100% Mauritian establishment. Only recently, local entrepreneurs fairs organised by the Small Enterprise and Handicraft Development Authority (SEHDA) and the National Women Entrepreneur Council (NWEC) are positive signs towards the promotion of domestic made products.

So far, there is a market centre that has been set up at Quatre Bornes to help women entrepreneurs for the marketing of their products. The market centre functions under the NWEC and is used on a rotating basis by women entrepreneurs for the sale of their products and establishing trade links. The women entrepreneurs are also given advice on quality improvement of their products. Similarly, a shop known as “Les Artisanes” has been set up at Grand Bay to accommodate the products of about 175 women entrepreneurs from Mauritius and Rodrigues. The aim is to improve marketing strategies which gears towards a more competitive market and value added products.

Very often, supermarkets and hypermarkets refuse to display and sell local manufacturers' products as they consider them as low value added that will occupy unnecessary space on the shelves. Even if they agree to sell these local products, the products are not easily accessible and visible to consumers as they are placed well below the eye level of buyers on shelves.

5.2. Implications

The factors contributing to low level of consumer ethnocentrism have a lot of implications for the Mauritian economy, the government and players in the manufacturing sector. Some measures of control and support need to be implemented so as to protect the local industry and allow for a fair trade liberalisation policy.

5.2.1. The Call for Minimal Protection

The local manufacturing sector has been adjusting to the dramatic reduction in its level of protection. It will be extremely difficult for the sector to withstand the shock of further cuts in duty. The rate of casualties will be much higher if the level of protection is further reduced. It is only fair that, after the deep cuts in duty over the last two years, the industry be given some time to adjust, although the manufacturing sector needs to move to global competitiveness. The government cannot on the one hand fight so hard for the preservation of preferences on our export markets and in the same breath be so liberal at the expense of the local industry. It deserves some minimal protection at least in the medium term so as to adapt to the changes caused by globalisation and free trade policies. Positively, in the 2007/2008 budget, the government is providing local manufacturers a one-year respite on the way to a Duty Free Island to adjust to these changes.

5.2.2. The Macro-Economic Perspective

Over the past year, although there have been some improvements in the macro-economic situation, the unemployment situation, the state of public finance and the external accounts of the country are all still in the red. Cutting duties further and driving major segments of the local industry to close down will only aggravate the unemployment situation. The cut of duties will also result in loss of revenue for the Exchequer and favour imports, which can only further aggravate the deficit in the balance of trade.

5.2.3. The Need of Antidumping Policies as Safeguard Mechanism

In the context of international trade, dumping is variously defined as selling goods in a foreign market at below their costs of production or as selling goods in a foreign market at below their "fair" market value. Dumping is viewed as a method by which firms unload excess production in foreign markets. Antidumping policies are designed to punish foreign firms that engage in dumping. The ultimate objective is to protect domestic products from "unfair" foreign competition. The local industry has been requesting for the provision of an anti-dumping legislation since years. The countries with the most liberal trade regimes have anti-dumping legislation and other safeguards mechanism in place and they do use them extensively to protect their national economic interests. It will be most unfair to continue to expose the local industry to further competition when these standard defensive mechanisms are not yet in place.

5.2.4. Legislation to Combat Fraud in the Jewelry Business

Jewels are considered to be the best allies of the unlawful. The absence of proper legislation has so far allowed jewelers and customers to escape any means of control and naïve people have been lured by unscrupulous dealers. The new Jewelry Bill presented by the government at the National Assembly in June 2007 brought the corrective measures needed in this industry and at the same time encouraged local people to purchase these items in Mauritius itself and in return allowed the country to save on the currencies that were lost when the purchase was made abroad. This remoulding of the law aims at extending regulations to control the manufacture, importation and sale of jewelry, precious metals and their alloys as well as the verification and grading of precious and semi-precious stones.

Furthermore, an anti-pyramid law should be formulated to combat businesses such as Quest International, since through the multi-level marketing mechanism many people are victimised.

5.2.5. Promoting Entrepreneurship and the Small and Medium Enterprise (SME) Sector

Mauritius is now facing an unprecedented economic crisis with soaring rates of unemployment, negative balance of payments and high rates of inflation. Appropriate measures to overcome these difficulties have been sought over and entrepreneurship has become a potential candidate on the government agenda. Incentives such as the Empowerment Programme have been put forward to construct an economic environment more than ever conducive to promoting entrepreneurship. During the past years, a full range of measures and policies to promote entrepreneurship have been implemented. The SME sector is considered as an effective vehicle for longer-term job creation, for broadening the circle of opportunities, for poverty reduction and for lifting the economic, financial and social status of the unemployed and of the working poor. By encouraging local entrepreneurship, the government aims at cultivating a business climate where entrepreneurs can harness the power of their imagination and creativity to operate competitively and confidently look beyond their shores for markets. The balance of trade is on a downhill trend, as the cost of imports exceeds the proceeds of the exports. In order to reverse this trend and improve the overall wealth of the country, it is vital that local production is stimulated.

5.2.6. Sustainable Sensitisation Campaign in Favour of Mauritian Made Products

Accompanying measures are being designed to support the sugar sector and other schemes have been designed to assist the textile and clothing sector. There is still an absence of a coherent and comprehensive support programme to assist the local manufacturing sector to adjust to the new environment that offers no protection. There is a need for government to provide the necessary support to local manufacturers so that they can promote their products on the local market. Sensitisation campaigns should be initiated with the full support of the government so as to promote the importance of purchasing Mauritian made products. The campaigns should be sustainable and at the same time arouse the patriotic feeling of the population. If local manufacturers are left on their own to pursue such initiative, they are bound to fail, as many of them would not have the necessary finance to implement such activity given the problems they are facing nowadays.

5.2.7. Helping Local Manufacturers to Enhance Capability and Competitiveness

By providing direct support through a provision of Rs 40 million in the 2007/2008 budget to Enterprise Mauritius, a public company whose main objective is to provide "seamless and responsive" services to local companies with a view to enhancing their capability and competitiveness to ensure they can meet the demands of international trading, the government is aiming to consolidate domestic production. Local manufacturers and entrepreneurs will be supported in brand development; innovation; capacity building; product and quality improvement including industrial re-engineering; management and design capacity; and market development with an emphasis on the regional market including for services. This support to the local companies to align themselves to international requirements so that they can develop the required competitiveness can only be beneficial to the country and the consumers. Mauritian made products will be able to compete equally with foreign brands and as such respond in the first instance to Mauritian consumers' quest for quality, innovativeness and value for money products. If the right viable local substitutes are available, only then consumer ethnocentrism will be high on the agenda of the Mauritian consumers.

5.2.8. Redefining the Role of Mauritian Importers

With trade liberalisation, movement of products is more than ever an easy task for importers nowadays. In their quest for more profitability, importers do not care for the local industry, manufacturers and entrepreneurs and they keep importing in bulk products, which could have been substituted by domestic production. These products whereby, the majority of them are simply being dumped on the local market and not respecting health and quality standards regulations, come mainly from the Asian developing countries. Measures of control over the flow of these products on the local market should be implemented and at the same time redirecting importers towards regional markets in which Mauritius has common interest such as COMESA, SADC to promote the agenda of Free Trade Areas (FTAs). Moreover, the aim of the government is that there should be fully effective FTAs between sub-regional groups followed eventually by an FTA covering a majority of the geographical part of Africa. Importers would benefit from duty preferences under the COMESA and SADC protocols, cultural linkages, ease of doing business and freeport facilities. This would bring far more possibilities for South-South trade and foreign direct investment (FDI) and creating new opportunities for Mauritius.

Mauritius itself being a developing nation cannot bypass its dependence on the developed countries' imports due to scarce resources available. Imports from these countries will continue to exist since they serve as a benchmark for local production and use for local needs and consumption. Gradually, with the support provided to local manufacturers and entrepreneurs to adjust to international trading, may be our level of imports would be reduced to some extent. In the immediate run, it would be wise to reduce the importation of the few products that have their viable substitutes in Mauritius so as to protect the local industry.

5.2.9. Multinational Companies and Joint Venture Agreement

Given the low consumer ethnocentrism score recorded whereby Mauritian consumers are not that ethnocentric, there are no barriers which would prevent multinational companies to set up in Mauritius or to sign joint venture agreements with local manufacturers. Besides, it is the present government policy to encourage foreign investors to invest in the country through the provision of all the investment rules, regulations and administrative procedures in Mauritius. Local manufacturers will also benefit from the expertise, technology and brand name that foreign firms bring with them. The production process on home soil would definitely help in reducing the level of imports and hence, the balance of payment deficit.

However, one should not underestimate the importance of local culture. Although consumer ethnocentrism is not that strong, multinational companies need to adjust to Mauritian culture and lifestyle if they want to enjoy success. New and innovative products may work in the short run due to the curiosity of Mauritian people but if the taste is not to their requirement, then business might stifle.

5.3. Limitations and Areas for Future Research

With respect to the limitations of the study, the findings can only be generalised to the product categories assessed. Although results are likely to be similar across all durable products, findings may differ in other product categories. Therefore, the implications are probably of interest to all domestic manufacturers and foreign importers, but they may not be applicable in all industries. Consequently, future research should investigate the influence of ethnocentrism on evaluations in other product categories, both durables and non-durables. In addition, the generalisability of the results is somewhat limited to Mauritius.

The use of Mauritian consumers as a sample in this study was primarily driven by the focus on examining the attitudes and perceptions of this sample towards imported products, their country-of-origin and their degree of ethnocentrism. This sample was also used as convenience of accessibility for data collection since no research on consumer ethnocentrism was conducted in Mauritius prior to this study and much information was needed. More specifically, the CETSCALE was yet to be validated in the Mauritian context. Mauritian consumers were the ideal opinion leaders in providing their views and attitudes explaining their buying behaviour on the market. Being exposed to a variety of foreign products on the market at competitive and value for money pricing, Mauritian consumers are more drifted to choose the foreign and renowned brands as compared to the products manufactured locally. This is probably why a low trend in ethnocentric tendencies is revealed in this study. Nevertheless, the generalisation of the conclusions drawn from this work is limited by the representativeness of the sample.

Future studies could be using a stratified sample of the population who would be representative of the whole population of Mauritius taking into consideration that the Island is a multi-racial country and a sample drawn from each of the ethnic groups could assess the impact of culture on different foreign products to evaluate the attitudes and perceptions of Mauritian consumers with countries of similar cultural background.

For international marketers interested in transitional economies of various levels of economic development, further examination of the issues explored in this study should enhance their decision-making, both with regard to market entry strategy and structure, and attending to culturally sensitive aspects of product mix variables. Providing licensing agreements, forming joint ventures and/or foreign subsidiaries rather than solely exporting the products while clearly communicating this approach to their consumers should prove very effective.

6.0. Conclusion

Mauritians, on the whole, tend to exhibit low ethnocentrism. This appears very rational, as Mauritius is primarily a service-producing country where most consumer goods are imported. Clearly, purchasing the types of consumer goods investigated in this research at home or abroad should not elicit dissonance. Based on the responses of respondents, foreign brands were perceived to be more reliable and were more appreciated than the domestic country brands. Brands made in foreign developed countries had a greater chance of positive perceptions. Consumer ethnocentrism *per se*, does not figure as a priority for Mauritian consumers who appeared to be amenable towards buying foreign brands. Apparently, the consumption of imported products and brands was not considered as unpatriotic or non-nationalistic. Consumer ethnocentrism can therefore, at best be said to have weak explanatory power even when nationalism is a positive contributory factor.

Using consumer ethnocentrism as the focal construct, three market segments sharing similar lifestyles were identified. Although the consumer ethnocentrism score is low, there are still a few consumers who exhibit patriotic feeling and who can be grouped under “Anti-Foreign Buyers”, “Made in Mauritius Buyers” and “Nationalism Champions” segments.

As such, Mauritian manufacturers need to reconsider their own product quality improvements and offer quality products at competitive prices to halt the further penetration of foreign brands. They need to develop strong brand images and enhance the “country of origin” image. Mauritian manufacturers of consumer durable and non-durable products would need to cope with the competitive climate and overcome low levels of consumer ethnocentrism and domestic country bias by considering strategies of cooperation with foreign manufacturers. Such strategies, which are already prevalent to some extent in the Mauritian market, include licensing arrangements or, alternatively foreign collaborations in the form of joint ventures so as to be able to sell under foreign brands names associated with higher status and esteem. This would help in enhancing prestige associations in the minds of Mauritian consumers.

Mauritian manufacturers would have to gain in terms of expertise, goodwill and technology. It would also signal to local manufacturers that in terms of product positioning, their direct competition is not inexpensive products, but rather premium quality brands. As such, they would be in better position to compete with other foreign brands on the local market. This would also reduce the level of imports to some extent. Another method of raising the brand equity of Mauritian products is for domestic companies to use state of the art technologies to manufacture high quality products, so that these are in no way inferior to foreign brands, but are competitively priced, along with providing better value for money. The sustainable support of the government and the various institutions for promoting local entrepreneurship in assisting the local manufacturers is more than vital.

Last but not least, it is shown in this study that the CETSCALE instrument developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987) was applicable to Mauritius. The scale's psychometric properties offer general support for its applicability to a developing economy. This study can be valuable to local institutions, the government and the international marketers by providing empirical information about competitive positions of the products originating from different countries, ethnocentrism levels of Mauritian consumers, and several ideas about how to improve the effectiveness of marketing practices in the Mauritian market.

List of References

- ✍✍ Ahmed S.A. and d'Astou A. (1996), *"Country of Origin and Brand Effects: A Multi-Dimensional and Multi-Attribute Study"*, Journal of International Consumer Marketing, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp. 93-115.
- ✍✍ Ahmed S.A., d'Astou A. and El Adraoui M. (1994), *"Country of Origin Effects on Purchasing Managers' Product Perceptions"*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 23, No. 4, pp. 323-32.
- ✍✍ Albaum G. and Peterson R.A. (1984), *"Empirical Research in International Marketing 1976-1982"*, Journal of International Business Studies, Spring/Summer, pp. 161-73.
- ✍✍ Al-Sulaiti and Baker M. J. (1998), *"Country of Origin Effects: A Literature Review"*, Journal of Marketing Intelligence and Planning, Vol. 16, No. 3, 150-199.
- ✍✍ Anderson W.T. and Cunningham W.H. (1972), *"Gauging Foreign Product Promotion"*, Journal of Advertising Research, Vol. 12, No. 1, pp. 29-34.
- ✍✍ Anderson W.T. and Golden L. (1984), *"Lifestyle and Psychographics: A Critical Review and Recommendation"*, in Kinnear T. (Ed.), *"Advances in Consumer Research"*, XI, Association for Consumer Research, Ann Arbor, MI, pp. 405-11.
- ✍✍ Arora R. (1985), *"Involvement: Its Measurement for Retail Store Research,"* Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol.13 (Spring), pp. 229-241.
- ✍✍ Babakus E. and Mangold W.G. (1992), *"Adapting the SERVQUAL Scale to Hospital Services: An Empirical Investigation"*, Health Services Research, Vol. 26, No. 6, pp. 767-786.
- ✍✍ Baker M.J. and Michie J. (1995), *"Product Country Images: Perceptions of Asian Cars"*, University of Strathclyde, Department of Marketing, Working Paper Series No. 95/3.
- ✍✍ Barak B. and Stern B. (1985/1986), *"Women's Age in Advertising: An Examination of Two Consumer Age Profiles"*, Journal of Advertising Research, Vol. 25 (December/January), pp. 38-47.

- Batra R., Ramaswamy V., Alden D.L., Steenkamp J.E.M., Ramachader S. (2000), *"Effects of Brand Local and Nonlocal Origin on Consumer Attitudes in Developing Countries"*, Journal of Consumer Psychology, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp. 83-95.
- Belk R. (1996), *"Hyperreality and Globalisation: Culture in the Age of Ronald Mc Donald"*, Journal of International Consumer Marketing, Vol. 8, Nos. 3 and 4, pp. 23-32.
- Bilkey W.J. and Nes E. (1982), *"Country of Origin Effects on Product Evaluations"*, Journal of International Business Studies, Vol. 23, pp. 251-70.
- Booth K. (1979), Strategy and Ethnocentrism, Croom-Helm, London.
- Bradley D.G. (1977), *"Managing Against Expropriation"*, Harvard Business Review, July-August, pp. 78-90.
- Burnett J.J. and Bush A.J. (1986), *"Profiling the Yuppies"*, Journal of Advertising Research, Vol. 26 (April/May), pp. 27-35.
- Central Statistical Office (2005), Mauritius.
- Chao P. (1993), *"Partitioning Country of Origin Effects: Consumer Evaluations of a Hybrid Product"*, Journal of International Business Studies, Vol. 24, No. 2, pp. 291-306.
- Contractor F.J. (1982), *"The Role of Licensing in International Strategy"*, Columbia Journal of World Business, Winter, pp. 73-83.
- Cordell V.V. (1992), *"Effects of Consumer Preferences for Foreign Sourced Products"*, Journal of International Business Studies, Vol. 23, pp. 251-270.
- Crawford J. and Lamb C. (1981), *"Source Preferences for Imported Products"*, Journal of Purchasing and Materials Management, Vol. 17, Winter, pp. 28-33.
- Cronbach L.J. (1960), *"Response Sets and Test Validity"*, Educational and Psychological Measurement, Vol. 6, Fall, pp. 475-94.
- Darden W.R. and Ashton D. (1974/1975), *"Psychographic Profiles of Patronage Preference Groups"*, Journal of Retailing, Vol. 50, Winter, pp. 99-112.

✍✍ Dickerson M.D. and Gentry J.W. (1983), *"Characteristics of Adopters and Non-Adopters of Home Computers"*, Journal of Consumer Research, Vol. 10 (September), pp. 225.235.

✍✍ Dornoff R.J., Tankersley C.B. and White G.P. (1974), *"Consumers' Perceptions of Imports"*, Akron Business and Economic Review, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 26-9.

✍✍ Dunning J.H. and McQueen M. (1981), *"The Eclectic Theory of International Production: A Case Study of the International Hotel Industry"*, Managerial and Decision Economics 2, pp. 197-210.

✍✍ Durvasula S., Andrews C.J and Netemeyer R.G. (1997), *"A Cross-Cultural Comparison of Consumer Ethnocentrism in the United States and Russia"*, Journal of International Consumer Marketing, Vol. 9, No. 4, pp. 73-84.

✍✍ Elliott G.R. and Cameron R.C. (1994), *"Consumer Perception of Product Quality and the Country-of-Origin Effect"*, Journal of International Marketing, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 49-62.

✍✍ Engel J.F., Blackwell R.D. and Miniard P.W. (1993), Consumer Behaviour, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Fort Worth, TX.

✍✍ Erickson G.M., Johansson J.K. and Chao P. (1984), *"Image Variables in Multi-Attibute Product Evaluations; Country-of-Origin Effects"*, Journal of Consumer Research, Vol. 11, pp. 694-699.

✍✍ Farjoun M. and Lai L. (1997), *"Similarity Judgements in Strategy Formulation: Role, Process and Implications"*, Strategic Management Journal, Vol. 18, No. 4, pp. 255-73.

✍✍ Garland R. and Coy D. (1993), *"Buying New Zealand Made Groceries: Does Behaviour Match Attitude?"*, New Zealand Journal of Business, Vol. 15, pp. 1-18.

✍✍ Gaski, J.F. and Etgar M.J. (1986), *"The Index of Consumer Sentiment Toward Marketing"*, Journal of Marketing, Vol. 50 (July), pp. 71-81.

✍✍ Gilbert D. and Kahl J.A. (1982), The American Class Structure: A New Synthesis, Wadsworth, Belmont CA.

- ✍✍ Good L.K. and Huddleston P.T. (1995), *"Ethnocentrism and the Eastern European Consumer: Are Feelings and Intentions Related?"*, International Marketing Review, Vol. 12, No. 15, pp. 35-48.
- ✍✍ Guy B.S. and Patton W.E. (1996), *"Managing the Effects of Culture Shock and Sojourner Adjustment on the Expatriate Industrial Sales Force"*, Industrial Marketing Management, Vol. 25, pp. 385-93.
- ✍✍ Hair J.F., Anderson R.E., Tatham R.L. and William C.B. (1995), Multivariate Data Analysis with Readings, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- ✍✍ Hair, J.F. Jr., Bush R.P. and Ortinau D.J. (2000), Marketing Research: A Practical Approach for the New Millennium, Singapore: McGraw-Hill International Companies Inc.
- ✍✍ Han C.M. (1988), *"The Role of Consumer Patriotism in the Choice of Domestic Versus Foreign Products"*, Journal of Advertising Research, Vol. 28, No. 3, pp. 25-32.
- ✍✍ Han C.M. and Terpstra V. (1988), *"Country of Origin Effects for Uninational and Bi-national Products"*, Journal of International Business Studies, Vol. 19 (Summer), pp. 235-255.
- ✍✍ Han C.M. and Qualls W.J. (1985), *"Country of Origin Effects and their Impact Upon Consumers' Perception of Quality"*, in Tan C.T. and Sheth J. (Eds.), Historical Perspectives in Consumer Research: National and International Perspectives, Association for Consumer Research, School of Management, University of Singapore.
- ✍✍ Hawes J.M. and Lumpkin J.R. (1984), *"Understanding the Outshopper"*, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol. 12 (Fall), pp. 200-218.
- ✍✍ Herche J. (1992), *"A Note on the Predictive Validity of the CETSCALE"*, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol. 20, Summer, pp. 261-4.
- ✍✍ Herche J. (1994), *"Ethnocentric Tendencies, Marketing Strategies and Import Purchase Behaviour"*, International Marketing Review, Vol. 11, No. 3, pp. 4-16.

✍✍ Heslop L.A., Moran L. and Cousineau A. (1981), *"Consciousness' in Energy Conservation Behaviour: An Exploratory Study"*, Journal of Consumer Research, Vol. 8 (December), pp. 299-305.

✍✍ Heslop L.A., Papadopoulos N. and Bourk M. (1998), *"An Interregional and Intercultural Perspective on Subcultural Differences in Product Evaluations"*, Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences, Vol. 15, No. 2, pp. 113-127.

✍✍ Hill C.W.L. (2004), Global Business Today, 3rd Ed., International Edition, McGraw-Hill Companies Inc.

✍✍ Hong S.T. and Wyer Jr. R.S. (1989), *"Effects of Country of Origin and Product-Attribute Information on Product Evaluation: An Information Processing Perspective"*, Journal of Consumer Research, Vol. 16, pp. 175-187.

✍✍ Hugstad P., Durr M. (1986), *"A Study of Country of Manufacturer Impact on Consumer Perceptions"*, in Developments in Marketing Science, Academy of Marketing Science, Miami, FL.

✍✍ Hult G.T.M. and Keillor B.D. (1994), *"The Impact of a Social Desirability Bias on Consumer Ethnocentrism Research: A Cross-National Perspective"*, The Journal of Marketing Management, Vol. 4, No. 2, Fall/Winter, pp. 48-55.

✍✍ Johansson J.K. and Nebenzahl I. (1986), *"Multinational Production: Effect on Brand Value"*, Journal of International Business Studies, Vol. 17, pp. 101-26.

✍✍ Johansson J.K., Douglas S.P. and Nonaka I. (1985), *"Assessing the Impact of Country of Origin on Product Evaluations: A New Methodological Perspective"*, Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. 22, November, pp. 388-96.

✍✍ Kasper H. (1999), Services Marketing Management: An International Perspective, John Wiley and Sons, New York, NY.

✍✍ Kaynak E. and Casvugil T.S. (1983), *"Consumer Attitudes Toward Products of Foreign Origin: Do They Vary Across Product Classes?"*, International Journal of Advertising, Vol. 2, pp. 147-57.

✍✍ Kaynak E. and Kara A. (1996), *"Consumer Lifestyle and Ethnocentrism: A Comparative Study in Krygyzstan and Azarbaijan"*, 49th ESOMAR Congress Proceedings, Istanbul, pp. 577-96.

✍✍ Kaynak E. and Kara A. (2002), *"Consumer Perceptions of Foreign Products-An Analysis of Product-Country Images and Ethnocentrism"*, European Journal of Marketing, Vol. 36, Nos. 7 and 8, pp. 928-49.

✍✍ Keillor B., D'Amico M. and Horton V. (2001), *"Global Consumer Tendencies"*, Psychology and Marketing, Vol. 18, No. 1, pp. 1-19.

✍✍ Keller K.L. (1993), *"Conceptualisation, Measuring and Managing Customer-Based Brand Equity"*, Journal of Marketing, Vol. 57, pp. 1-22.

✍✍ Kim J.B. (1993), *"Taking Comfort in Country: After Decade of 80s Excess, Marketers Tap Easy Lifestyle as Part of Ad Messages"*, Advertising Age, Vol. 11, pp. S1-S4.

✍✍ Korgaonkar P.K. (1984), *"Consumer Shopping Orientations, Non-Store Retailers, and Consumers' Patronage Intentions: A Multivariate Investigation"*, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol. 12 (Winter), pp. 1-22.

✍✍ Kotler P. (1997), Marketing Management Analysis, Planning, Implementation and Control, 9th Ed., Prentice-Hall International, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, pp. 257-60.

✍✍ Kotler P. and Armstrong G. (1999), Principles of Marketing, 8th ed., Prentice-Hall International, Englewoods Cliffs, NJ.

✍✍ Kucukemiroglu O. (1999), *"Market Segmentation by Using Consumer Lifestyle Dimensions and Ethnocentrism – An Empirical Study"*, European Journal of Marketing, Vol. 33, Nos. 5 and 6, pp. 470-87.

✍✍ Lantz G. and Loeb S. (1996), *"Country-of-Origin and Ethnocentrism: An Analysis of Canadian and American Preferences Using Social Identity Theory"*, Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 23, pp. 374-8.

✍✍ Lee D. and Schaninger C. (1996), *"Country of Production/Assembly as a New Country Image Construct: A Conceptual Application to Global Transplant Decision"*, Advances in International Marketing, Vol. 7, pp. 233-254.

✍✍ Lee L.C. and Ferber R. (1977), *"Use of Time as a Determinant of Family Market Behaviour"*, Journal of Business Research, Vol. 5, pp. 75-91.

✍✍ Levine R.A. and Campbell D.T. (1972), *"Ethnocentrism: Theories of Conflict, Ethnic Attitudes, and Group Behaviour"*, John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York, NY.

✍✍ Lewis B.R. (1993), *"Service Quality Measurement"*, Marketing Intelligence and Planning, Vol. 11, No. 4, pp. 4-12.

✍✍ Loudon D.L. and Della Bitta A.J. (1993), Consumer Behaviour, 4th Ed., McGraw-Hill Inc., Singapore, pp. 99-107.

✍✍ Lumpkin J.R. (1985), *"Shopping Orientation Segmentation of the Elderly Consumer"*, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol. 13 (Spring), pp. 271-289.

✍✍ Marks L.J. and Tharp M. (1990), *"An Assessment of the Relationship Among Consumer Ethnocentrism, Consumer Compliance and the Components of Subjective Norms"*, in Parasuraman A. and Bearden W. (Eds), American Marketing Association Educators' Proceedings, pp. 50-55.

✍✍ McCarthy J. (1981), *"Basic Marketing: A Managerial Approach"*, 7th ed., Richard D. Irwin, Homewood, IL.

✍✍ McLain S. and Sternquist B. (1991), *"Ethnocentric Consumers: Do They Buy American?"*, Journal of International Consumer Marketing, Vol. 4, Nos. 1 and 2, pp. 39-57.

✍✍ Mihalyi L.J. (1984), *"Ethnocentrism vs Nationalism: Origin and Fundamental Aspects of a Major Problem for the Future"*, Homboldt Journal of Social Relations, Vol. 12, No. 1, pp. 95-113.

✍✍ Mitchell V. and Greatorex M. (1990), *"Consumer Purchasing in Foreign Countries: A Perceived Risk Perspective"*, International Journal of Advertising, Vol. 9, No. 4, pp. 295-307.

✍✍ Moon B. (1996), *"The Roles of Consumer Ethnocentricity and Attitude toward a Foreign Culture in Processing Foreign Country of Origin Advertisements"*, Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 23, pp. 436-9.

✍✍ Myers M.B. (1995), *"Ethnocentrism: A Literature Overview and Directions for Future Research"*, Paper Presented at the Academy of Marketing Science Conference, Summer.

✍✍ Netemeyer R.G.S., Durvasula S. and Lichtensein D.R. (1991), *"A Cross-National Assessment of the Reliability and Validity of the CETSCALE"*, Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. 28, August, pp. 320-7.

✍✍ Nielsen J.A. and Spence M.T. (1997), *"A Test of the Stability of the CETSCALE, A Measure of Consumers' Ethnocentric Tendencies"*, Journal of Marketing, Fall, pp. 68-76.

✍✍ O'Cass A. and Lim, K. (2002), *"Understanding the Younger Singaporean Consumer's Views of Western and Eastern Brands"*, Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, Vol. 14, No. 4, pp. 54-79.

✍✍ Okechuku C. (1994), *"The Importance of Product Country of Origin: A Conjoint Analysis of the USA, Canada, Germany, and the Netherlands"*, European Journal of Marketing, Vol. 28, No. 4, pp. 5-19.

✍✍ Owen F. and Jones R. (1994), Statistics, 4th Edition, Financial Times, Prentice Hall.

✍✍ Ozsomer A. and Cavusgil T.S. (1991), *"Country of Origin Effects on Product Evaluations: A Sequel to Bilkey and Nes Review"*, Paper Presented at the Annual Summer Meeting of the American Marketing Association, Summer.

✍✍ Papadopoulos N. (1993), *"What Product and Country Images Are and Are Not"*, in Papadopoulos N. and Heslop L.A. (Eds.), Product Country Images, New York, N.Y.: Harworth Press.

✍✍ Papadopoulos N. and Heslop L. (1993), Product and Country Images: Research and Strategy, The Haworth Press, New York, NY.

✍✍ Papadoupoulos N., Heslop L.A. and Baossy G. (Eds). (1993), *"Product Country Images: Impact and Role in International Marketing"*, International Business Press, Binghampton, NY.

✍✍ Peterson R.A. and Jolibert A.J.P., (1995), *"A Meta-Analysis of Country of Origin Effects"*, Journal of International Business Studies, Vol. 26, No. 4, pp. 883-900.

✍✍ Plummer J.T. (1974), *"The Concepts and Application of Lifestyle Segmentation"*, Journal of Marketing, Vol. 38, No. 1, pp. 33-7.

✍✍ Plummer J.T. (1977), *"Consumer Focus in Cross-National Research"*, Journal of Advertising, Vol. 6, No. 2, pp. 5-15.

✍✍ Pride W.M. and Ferell Q.C. (1983), Marketing Basic, Concepts and Decision, 3rd ed., Houghton Mifflin, Boston MA.

✍✍ Robertson R. and Lechner F. (1985), *"Modernisation, Globalisation and the Problem of Culture in World-Systems Theory"*, Theory, Culture and Society, Vol. 2, No. 3, pp. 103-18.

✍✍ Rosenblatt P.C. (1964), *"Origins and Effects of Group Ethnocentrism and Nationalism"*, Journal of Conflict Resolution, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp. 131-46.

✍✍ Rushton J.P. (1989), *"Genetic Similarity, Human Altruism, and Group Selection"*, Behavioural and Brain sciences, Vol. 12, pp. 503-59.

✍✍ Samiee S. (1994), *"Consumer Evaluation of Products in Global Markets"*, Journal of International Business Studies, Vol. 25, No. 3, pp. 579-604.

✍✍ Schnaars S.P. and Schiffman L.G. (1984), *"An Application of a Segmentation Design Based on the Hybrid of Canonical Correlation and Simple Crosstabulation"*, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol. 12 (Fall), pp. 177-189.

✍✍ Schooler R.D. (1971), *"Bias Phenomena Attendant on the Marketing of Foreign Goods in the USA"*, Journal of International Business Studies, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 71-80.

✍✍ Schooler R.D. and Wildt A.R. (1968), *"Elasticity of Product Bias"*, Journal of Marketing Research, February, pp. 78-81.

✍✍ Sekaran U. (2000), Research Methods for Business, 3rd Ed., United States: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

✍✍ Sharma S. (1996), Applied Multivariate Techniques, John Wiley and Sons, Inc, New York, NY.

✍✍ Sharma S., Shimp T.A. and Shin J. (1995), *"Consumer Ethnocentrism: A Test of Antecedents and Moderators"*, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol. 23, No. 1, pp. 26-37.

✍✍ Shimp T.A. and Sharma S. (1987), *"Consumer Ethnocentrism: Construction and Validation of the CETSCALE"*, Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. 24, August, pp. 280-9.

✍✍ Smith W. (1956), *"Product Differentiation and Market Segmentation as Alternative Marketing Strategies"*, Journal of Marketing, Vol. 21, pp. 3-8.

✍✍ Solomon M.R. (1999), Consumer Behaviour, 4th Ed., Prentice-Hall International, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, pp. 175-6.

✍✍ Sumner W.G. (1906), *"Folkways: The Sociological Importance of Usages*", Manners, Customs, Mores and Morals, Ginn and Co. New York, NY.

✍✍ Tabachnick B.G. and Fidell L.S. (1989), Using Multivariate Statistics, 2nd ed., Harper Collins Publishers Inc., New York, NY.

✍✍ Tan C.T. and Farley J.U. (1987), *"The Impact of Cultural Patterns on Cognition and Intention in Singapore"*, Journal of Consumer Research, Vol. 13, pp. 540-544.

✍✍ Tharp M. and Marks L.J. (1990), *"An Examination of the Effects Order and Product Order Biases in Conjoint Analysis"*, in Goldberg M., Gorn G. and Pollay R. (Eds), Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 17, Association for Consumer Research, Provo, UT, pp. 563-70.

✍✍ Tongberg R.C. (1972), *"An Empirical Study of Relationships Between Dogmatism and Consumer Attitudes Towards Foreign Products"*, PhD Dissertation, Pennsylvania State University.

✍✍ Verlegh P.W.J. and Steenkamp J.E.M. (1999), *"A Review and Meta-analysis of Country-of-Origin Research"*, Journal of Economic Psychology, Vol. 20, pp. 521-546.

✍✍ Vida I. and Fairhurst A. (1999), *"Factors Underlying the Phenomenon of Consumer Ethnocentricity: Evidence from Four Central European Countries"*, International Review of Retail and Consumer Research, Vol. 9, No. 4, pp. 321-37.

✍✍ Wagley C. (1993), Ethnocentrism, Grolier Publishers, London.

✍✍ Walker C. (1996), *"Can TV Save the Planet"*, American Demographics, Vol. 18, May, pp. 42-9.

✍✍ Wall M. and Heslop L.A. (1986), *"Consumer Attitudes Towards the Quality of Domestic and Imported Apparel and Footwear"*, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol. 14, No. 2, pp. 27-36.

✍✍ Wall M., Heslop L.A. and Hofstra G. (1988), *"Male and Female Viewpoints of Countries as Producers of Consumer Goods"*, Journal of International Consumer Marketing, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 1-25.

✍✍ Wall M., Hofstra G. and Heslop L.A. (1990), *"Imported Versus Domestic Car Owners: Demographic Characteristics and Attitudes"*, Paper Presented at the Conference of the Administrative Sciences Association of Canada, Whistler, BC.

✍✍ Wang C.K. (1978), *"The Effect of Foreign Economics, Political and Cultural Environment on Consumers' Willingness to Buy Foreign Products"*, PhD Dissertation, Texas A&M University.

✍✍ Wang C.K. and Lamb C.W. (1983), *"The Impact of Selected Environmental Forces on Consumers' Willingness to Buy Foreign Products"*, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol. 11, No. 2, pp. 71-84.

✍✍ Wells W.D. (1975), *"Psychographics: A Critical Review"*, Journal of Marketing Research, Vol. 12, May, pp. 196-213.

✍✍ Wells W.D and Tigert D. (1977), *"Activities, Interests and Opinions"*, Journal of Advertising Research, Vol. 11, No. 4, pp. 27-35.

✍✍ Winters L.C. (1992), *"International Psychographics"*, Marketing Research, Vol. 4, pp. 48-51.

✍✍ Worchel S. and Cooper J. (1979), Understanding Social Psychology, The Dorsey Press, Homewood, IL.

UNIVERSITY OF MAURITIUS

February 2007 Ref. No:………………

Dear Participant

We are currently working on a project relating to **"An Evaluation of the Degree of Consumer Ethnocentrism in Mauritius"**. Consumer ethnocentrism helps to understand the way in which consumers compare domestic with foreign products and the reasons that make them develop patriotic prejudices against imports.

The following questionnaire forms a major part of the research and we would highly appreciate if you could kindly complete and return it **by latest 30th March 2007**. It will take you around forty minutes to complete the questionnaire. Please be assured that the information you provide will be strictly confidential and used solely for research purposes.

Thanking you in advance for your time and participation in this study.

Mr. Vicky Parianen
Research Assistant
Faculty of Law and Management
University of Mauritus, Réduit
Email: parianenv@mx.uom.ac.mu
Tel: 4541041 Ext: 1602
Mob: 2533521

Mrs. R. R. Ramsaran-Fowdar
Principal Investigator
Senior Lecturer in Management
Faculty of Law and Management
University of Mauritius, Réduit
Email: rooma@uom.ac.mu
Tel: 4541041 Ext: 1554

<u>Section A:</u> Shopping

1. Where do you do your shopping?

- 1 Supermarket
- 2 Hypermarket
- 3 Shopping Malls
- 4 Specialised Shops
- 5 On the Internet
- 6 Abroad

2. What types of products do you prefer to buy?

- 1 Products that are manufactured locally by local producers
- 2 Products that are produced locally under license
- 3 Products that are imported
- 4 All of the above

<u>Section B:</u> The CETSCALE

3. Please state whether you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the number that best reflects your feelings on the 7-point rating scale.

1 Strongly Disagree; **2** Disagree; **3** Fairly Disagree; **4** Neutral; **5** Fairly Agree; **6** Agree; **7** Strongly Agree

	Statements	**Strongly Disagree**						**Strongly Agree**
1	Mauritian should always buy Mauritian products instead of imports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Only those products that are unavailable in Mauritius should be imported	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Buy Mauritian-made products. Keep Mauritius working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Mauritian products, first, last and foremost	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Purchasing foreign-made products is anti-Mauritian	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	It is not right to purchase foreign products because it puts Mauritian people out of a job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	A real Mauritian should always buy Mauritian products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	We should purchase products manufactured in Mauritius instead of letting other countries get rich from us	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	It is always best to purchase Mauritian products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11	Mauritians should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Mauritian business and causes unemployment	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12	Restrictions should be put on all imports	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13	It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Mauritian products	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry in Mauritius	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17	Mauritian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting fellow Mauritians out of work	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Section C: Lifestyle of Mauritian Consumers

4. Please state whether you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the number that best reflects your feelings on the 7-point rating scale.

1 Strongly Disagree; **2** Disagree; **3** Fairly Disagree; **4** Neutral; **5** Fairly Agree; **6** Agree; **7** Strongly Agree

	Statements	**Strongly Disagree** ... **Strongly Agree**
	Quality Consciousness	
1	I am satisfied with most of the products I buy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2	Most products I buy last for a long time	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3	The quality of products I buy has consistently improved over the years	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
	Comparison Shopping	
4	I make it a rule to shop at a number of stores before I buy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5	You can save a lot of money by shopping around	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6	I always check the ads before shopping	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7	I usually watch advertisements	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

	Brand Consciousness	
8	I always purchase renowned brands	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9	I am brand loyal	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10	I always look for the same brands	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11	My purchases are influenced more by brand names	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
	Price Consciousness	
12	I shop a lot for "specials"	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13	I find myself checking the prices in the grocery store even for small items	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14	I usually watch the advertisements for announcements of sales	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15	A person can save a lot of money by shopping around for bargains	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

<u>Section D:</u> Importance of Products' Country of Origin

5. How often do you look at the product label to see the manufacturer's country-of-origin before you purchase consumer goods?

Never	Occasionally	Often	Always Look
1	2	3	4

6. When purchasing a consumer good would you specifically look for Mauritian made products?

Never	Occasionally	Often	Always Look
1	2	3	4

7. Please state how important the product country-of-origin is to you? (Please circle the appropriate number)

Not at all Important 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **Very Important**

8. Please state how do you perceive products produced in these countries by assigning the value that best reflects your perception in the appropriate grid.

1 Very Poor; **2** Poor; **3** Fairly Poor; **4** Neutral; **5** Fairly Good; **6** Good; **7** Excellent

	Countries	**Very Poor**						**Excellent**
1	Mauritius	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	India	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	China	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Malaysia	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Madagascar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Egypt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Indonesia	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Singapore	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	France	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	United Kingdom	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	South Africa	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Australia	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	New Zealand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8.1. Which of the 13 above countries has the best image in terms of overall product assessment?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………..

8.2. Which of the above 13 countries would you consider the best producer of

(a) Foodstuff: ……………………………………………………………………………...

(b) Household Cleaning: ………………………………………………………………….

(c) Personal Care: ………………………………………………………………………

(d) Clothing/Garments: …………………………………………………………………

(e) Footwear: ……………………………………………………………………………...

(f) Dairy Products: ……………………………………………………………………..

(g) Jewelry: ……………………………………………………………………………..

9. Which of the following local and/or foreign brands do you buy most often? Please tick the appropriate grid ?☞?for each of your usual choice.

(a) Foodstuff

Subana	Esko	Maucob	Sunny	Poppies/Curlies
Bakers	Ceres	Lu/Tuc	Pringles	Twisties

(b) Household Cleaning

Javel	Crest	Duck	Omo Bleue	Cernol
Noble Care	Bonux	Ariel	Soupline	Monsieur Propre

(c) Personal Care

Blendax	Eve	Malaica	Lux	Smart
Johnson	Nivea	Belle Color	Fair & Lovely	Head & Shoulders

(d) Clothing/Garments

Equateur	IV Play	Habit	Island Style	Harris Wilson
Yves St Laurent	Levis	Hugo Boss	Giorgio Armani	Marks & Spencer

(e) Footwear

Bata	Dodo	Napra	Island Style	Kito
Nike	Paco	Addidas	Caterpillar	Reebok

(f) Dairy Products

Yoplait	Miko	Dairy Vale	D'Light	Vita
Sunny South	Kraft	Flora	Meadow Lea	Plume Rouge

(g) Jewelry

Matikola	Mikado	Poncini	Ravior	Vendome Prestige
Bijoulux	Bijouvog	Bijouchic	Mille & Une Nuit	
Quest Net	Jewelry bought abroad			

10. Please state how do you perceive these products' dimensions based on their country-of-origin by assigning the value that best reflects your perception in the appropriate grid.

1 Very Poor; **2** Poor; **3** Fairly Poor; **4** Neutral; **5** Fairly Good; **6** Good; **7** Excellent

	Countries/ Products Dimensions	Quality	Design	Branding	Packaging	Price	Status & Esteem	Value for Money
1	Mauritius							
2	India							
3	China							
4	Malaysia							
5	Madagascar							
6	Egypt							
7	Indonesia							
8	Singapore							
9	France							
10	United Kingdom							
11	South Africa							
12	Australia							
13	New Zealand							

Section E: Products Manufactured under License/Joint Venture agreement in Mauritius

11. Which of these factors below encourage you to purchase the foreign products manufactured locally under license. Please state whether you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the number that best reflects your feelings on the 7-point rating scale.

1 Strongly Disagree; **2** Disagree; **3** Fairly Disagree; **4** Neutral; **5** Fairly Agree; **6** Agree; **7** Strongly Agree

	Statements	**Strongly Disagree**						**Strongly Agree**
1	Availability of the products on home soil	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Reputation of the Company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Norms and standards of production same as in the parent company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Product brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Price of product	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Quality of product	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Raw materials used	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Support to the local industry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Contributing to the local economy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Encourage employment of local people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Advertising and promotional strategies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Good customer service and after sales service	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section F: Respondents General Views and Opinions

12. Please state whether you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the number that best reflects your feelings on the 7-point rating scale.

1 Strongly Disagree; **2** Disagree; **3** Fairly Disagree; **4** Neutral; **5** Fairly Agree; **6** Agree; **7** Strongly Agree

	Statements	**Strongly Disagree**						**Strongly Agree**
1	I am against imports and a strong supporter of Mauritian products and brands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I have a strong willingness to buy domestic products versus imported products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I prefer to purchase imported products rather than Mauritian products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section G: Demographic Information

13. Please tell me about yourself by ticking the appropriate category. This information will only be used for classification purposes.

(a) You are

- 1 Male
- 2 Female

(b) You are

- 1 18 – 29 years old
- 2 30 – 39 years old
- 3 40 – 49 years old
- 4 50 – 59 years old
- 5 60 years or older

(c) Your marital status is

- 1 Single
- 2 Married without children
- 3 Married with children
- 4 Widowed/Divorced/Separated

(d) You live in

- 1 Urban region
- 2 Rural region

(e) Your ethnic group is

- 1 Hindu
- 2 Muslim
- 3 Chinese
- 4 Others

(f) Which one of the following best describes your present occupational status?

- 1 Clerical/Factory Worker/and other White Collar Jobs
- 2 Administrative/Managerial/Professional/Executives
- 3 Retired/student/housewife
- 4 Self-Employed
- 5 Others

(g) The highest level of education you have completed is

- 1 Primary
- 2 Secondary
- 3 Diploma
- 4 Undergraduate degree
- 5 Postgraduate degree

(h) Your gross monthly household income before income taxes is approximately

- 1 Below Rs 10,000
- 2 Rs 10,001 – 20,000
- 3 Rs 20,001 – 30,000
- 4 Rs 30,001 – 40,000
- 5 Above Rs 40,000

(i) Your monthly expenditure on shopping is approximately

- 1 Below Rs 5,000
- 2 Rs 5,001 – 10,000
- 3 Rs 10,001 – 15,000
- 4 Rs 15,001 – 20,000
- 5 Above Rs 20,000

End of questionnaire
Thank you again for your valuable time and co-operation