ETHNOCENTRISM ROLE ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LOCAL/GLOBAL IDENTITY AND CUSTOMER ATTITUDE TOWARD LOCAL/GLOBAL POSITIONING AS PERCEIVED BY YOUNG INDONESIAN

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ABSTRACT

There is a tendency for young people to identify themselves with global identity while also consuming local products. Our study aims to test whether ethnocentrism mediates the relationship between local identity and customer attitude toward local/global product positioning. The ethnocentrism measurement adapted CETSCALE with seven-point semantic differential scale. Data analysis adopted cluster and descriptive analysis. The respondents are two hundred young people, aged 17-34. This research found that global identity does not influence customer attitude toward products with global positioning. Ethnocentrism fully mediates the relationship between local identity and attitude toward products with local positioning. This research supports previous research that local identity positively influences ethnocentrism, while customer attitude toward products with global positioning does not correlate with ethnocentrism.

Keywords: Ethnocentrism, Global/Local Positioning, Customer Attitude

JEL classification: A1, E2

1. INTRODUCTION

The practice of global marketing, attracts many researcher on understanding customer behavior and global costumer culture. It is interesting to understand how is the impact of global positioned product on customer preferences and choice, life style, as well as its marketing communication(Alden, Steenkamp, dan Batra 1999, 2006; Kjelgaard dan Askegaard 2006). In global marketing, a lot of attention is aimed at identifying global market segments, where consumers from various countries show similarities in convergent consumer preferences and behavior. However, in addition to convergence, individual attention to consumers has also received attention so that even in global marketing there are relatively high adaptation decisions besides standardization, both concerning product decisions and marketing communication decisions.

1.1 Local/ Global Identity

The vast spread of globalisation is partly supported by the development of internet and global media. The culture of global consumers is growing (Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra 1999, 2006; Holt, Quelch, & Taylor 2004). This global culture is characterised by the increased interest in global products and brands. Consistent with this statement, consumers tend to use global brands to assimilate themselves into the global consumer culture (Steenkamp, Batra, & Alden 2003), motivated by the desire to be a part of the "*global village*" (Strizhakova, Coulter, &Price 2008).

However, Crane (2002) found that local consumer culture currently still holds a dominant role. Local-oriented consumers attempt to put more meaning into their life by consuming local products. Steger (2003) noted that globalization is also starting to put higher appreciation towards local products, particularly consumers who reject the homogeneity of westernized products, services, and symbols.

A study on young global segments found that members of the group interpreted and adapted local cultural practices to their local context (Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006). More understanding is needed regarding consumer identification in the practice of consuming local or global products (Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra, 1999; Steenkamp, Batra & Alden, 2003), or a combination of both (Kjelgaaard & Askergaard, 2006) and the consequences of such behavior.

Previous studies investigated the collective impact of global/local identity (Westjohn, Singh, & Magnusson, 2012; Zhang & Khare, 2009), and global "world-mindedness" orientation (Nijssen & Douglas, 2011) on global consumer product positioning and local positioning (Local Consumer Product Positioning). Zhang and Khare (2009) found that diagnostics moderated global/local identity and global/local product evaluation. Nijssen and Douglas (2011) examined how ethnocentrism moderate global orientation and global/local product positioning (GCPP / LCPP).

Research on ethnocentrism found that it influenced domestic/local product preferences. (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004; Vida, Dmitrovic, & Obadia 2008; Nijssen & Douglas 2004; Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995; Suh & Kwon 2002). The study conducted by Jossiassen (2011), found that there was a factor outside of ethnocentrism called Consumer Disidentification (CDI) that influenced consumer trends towards global/local products.

Research that refers to national disidentification (Verkuyten & Yildiz, 2007), shows the reaction and tendency for consumers to oppose their country of origin (Ogbu, 1993). Consumer Disidentification (CDI) is defined as active consumer rejection, or 'keeping distance' from a typical perceived general consumer. Consumers with high CDI do not identify themselves with consumers in the countries where they live and categorize themselves differently from the majority of groups. In other words, consumers with high CDI levels avoid domestic products because they want to separate themselves or look different than the typical domestic consumers.

Steenkamp and De Jong (2010) found that attitudes toward global and local products do not lie in a polarity attitude, in the sense that positive attitudes to global products will be in line with negative attitudes to local products and vice versa (Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra 2006). However, consumers can combine positive or negative attitudes towards global products with positive or negative attitudes towards local products referred to as glocals.

Josiasen, Assaf, and Karpen (2011) observed the effect of age on the level of one's ethnocentrism. The study found that there was a gap in explaining the influence of age at the level of one's ethnocentrism. The survey conducted by Shankarmahesh in Josiasen et al. (2011) found that older consumers tended to be more ethnocentric than younger consumers. However, a study conducted by Banniester (1978) and Schooler (1971) in Josiasen et al. (2011), found adifferent fact, that the level of consumer ethnocentrism in young consumers was higher than that of older consumers.

Different research conducted by Shah (2012) proves that consumers in developing countries prefer local products. This is due to the increasing local identity among the youth, boredom of foreign product advertisements, and the existence of an "opinion leader" that influences the decision of consumers to choose local products. Shah (2012) also revealed the fact that the local identity of consumers in developing countries, especially in Southeast Asia, is changing.

This study intends to identify the level of ethnocentrism in the young age segment. Young age according to (Jernigan, Ostroff, & Craig-Ross, 2005) includes ages 12-34 years. Shankarmahesh (2006) in Josiaen, et al., said that young age tends to be more ethnocentric.

Arnett (2002) argues that consumers today tend to have a local or global identity or both. A local identity consists of a representation of the attitude in which consumers have an obedience/loyalty and respect local traditions and customs. Simply put, being a local community means identifying itself with the local community around it.

Global identity is a representation of attitudes in which consumers believe in the positive effects of globalization, recognize similarities versus differences between people around the world, and are interested in global events. Being a global society means identifying yourself with people all over the world. Conceptually, local and global identities do not need to negate each other, one can have both identities.

Understanding consumer identity could be useful for positioning strategies because someone tends to develop attitudes and behaviors that strengthen their identity. Zhang and Khare (2009) found that global and local identities influence consumer attitudes in global and local brands. The process of consolidating this identity is known as self-verification.

1.2 Local/Global Product Positioning

The difference in consumer identity is very influential in consumers' perceptions of viewing advertisements, turning into an interesting topic related to advertising strategies (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2010). Research on consumer identity mostly refers to social identity, which will shape one's self-concept in determining consumer attitudes, emotions, and behavior (Hogg, 2003). This is done through the process of self-verification, where one tries to strengthen his identity through certain attitudes and behaviors (Swann, 1983). Self-verification is based on one's preferences to show their consistency and stability in forming a behavior pattern. Therefore, the theory of self-verification shows that attitudes toward the positioning of a product (e.g., global/local positioning) will be positive when the position is related to their identity (global/local identity).

Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra (1999) found evidence that the ad positioning strategy would be different if it included elements of global/local identity. The GCPP Strategy (Global Consumer Product Positioning) is defined as a strategy that "identifies brands as pre-existing global cultural symbols" (Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra 1999). The consequence of this product advertising is to create an association that "consumers around the world choose to consume the same brand" or that brands are "channels to feel part of the global culture" (Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra 1999). The GCPP (Global Consumer Product Positioning) strategy is contrasted with LCPP (Local Consumer Product Positioning), which is defined as a strategy to market products to "associate brands with local culture, reflect cultural norms and local identities. It is described as products consumed by local communities in national culture, and/or described as locally produced products for local communities "(Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra 1999).

In the context of this study, people with global identity will have a positive attitude towards products that have a global image (GCPP), while people with local identities will have a positive attitude towards local image products (LCPP). In each case, product positioning (global or local) will strengthen individual identity. Thus, people with a glocal identity will show a positive attitude towards positioning a product both globally and locally.

Based on previous empirical findings, consumers who have global identities show more positive attitudes towards global brands (Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra 2006; Steenkamp & De Jong 2010). Conversely, consumers who are oriented towards national/local identity tend to strengthen ethnocentrism (Keillor et al. 1996), and consumers will provide a positive assessment in evaluating products that are influenced by cultural synergies between products and their own identities (Steenkamp, Batra, & Alden 2003; Steenkamp & De Jong 2010). Consumers with global (local) identity will show a high preference for global (local) products (Zhang & Khare, 2009). Whereas Orth, Malkewitz, and Bee (2010), found that people will show a consistent attitude towards the brand that describes their identity. Thus, by the theory of self-verification and in line with related empirical evidence, we formulate the following hypotheses:

H1: Global identity positively influences consumer attitudes to global products.
H2: Local identity positively influences consumer attitudes towards local products.

1.1 The Role of Ethnocentrism

Previous research has proven the role of ethnocentrism (CET) as a concept related to the pattern of consumption of foreign and domestic branded products. Ethnocentrism, in the context of consumer identity, is "the consumer's belief in conformity, the perception of the morality of purchasing foreign-made products" (Shimp & Sharma 1987). Thus, consumers who have more ethnocentrism are less interested in purchasing foreign product goods and services with the belief that the purchase of goods and services produced at the domestic level is morally wrong and detrimental to the domestic economy.

There is in-depth research on ethnocentrism (CET) in the context of purchasing preferences of foreign brands rather than local brands. Some researchers have linked CET to domestic/local brand preferences (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2004; Supphellen & Rittenburg 2001; Vida, Dmitrovic, & Obadia 2008). Some researchers (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998; Kwak, Jaju, & Larsen, 2006; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004; Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995; Suh & Kwon, 2002) found an adverse effect between consumer ethnocentrism on the choice of foreign brands.

Research on young consumer segments has shown that their CET rates are low (Nijssen & Douglas 2004; O'Cass & Lim, 2002; Suh & Kwon 2002) and the impact on brand preferences can be neglected if consumer evaluations of meaning brands (i.e., quality and status) are included in the assessment. Also, O'Cass and Lim (2002) did not find the effect of ethnocentrism on preferences in choosing brands from different countries of origin between young people in Singapore. However, Kinra (2006) found that Indian consumers showed a high level of ethnocentrism and favoritism for local brands but their evaluations and preferences for foreign brands were positive and strong. The latest findings in India reinforce the theory of the emergence of a "glocal" identity in modern consumers who are ethnocentric but show their global identity through the preference for global brands (Kjeldgaard & Askegaard 2006). The influence of ethnocentrism on diverse or non-consistent global/local product preferences. This study seeks to test ethnocentrism as a mediating variable that mediates the relationship between local/global identity and consumer attitudes to global/local advertising. Thus the third hypothesis, predicts that:

H3a: Consumer ethnocentrism mediates the relationship between local identity and consumer attitudes towards products that are positioned locally / globally.

H3b: Consumer ethnocentrism mediates the relationship between global identity and consumer attitudes to product advertisements that are positioned locally / globally.

2. RESEARCH METHOD

2.1 Sample and Procedure

The scale used has been developed and validated in previous studies. To measure local identity and global identity, a scale developed by Zhang and Khare is used (2009), almost the same as those written by Der-Karabetian and Ruiz's (1997) for American Immigrants. 7 Likert-type scale answer points (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) are used to measure global and local identity. Measurement of local identity with four questions but one item whose item correlation to overall is smaller than 0.5 was deleted. These three questions are that I believe that I am a member of the local community, I believe that globalization will improve local habits, and I prefer local news rather than world news (μ: 4.4 α: 0.150). Six questions measure global Identity, and this study only uses five questions whose overall item correlation is more than 0.5. That is, I really understand information about global events, I identify myself with the global community, I strongly believe that I am part of a global society, I want to know that people in other countries, being part of a global society have an impact on how I see the world around me (μ: 5.39 α: 0.730).

A Likert-type scale with seven answers (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) was used to measure the level of ethnocentrism by referring to CETSCALE developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987). The statement item adopted from CETSCALE consists of six items, i.e. I choose Indonesian products compared to foreign products; buying foreign products is an anti-nationalism attitude; buying foreign product is wrong because it will increase unemployment in Indonesia; we must purchase genuine Indonesian products foreign products will benefit other countries; we may buy foreign products with the condition that these products cannot be produced in Indonesia; and consumers who buy foreign products are responsible for increasing unemployment in Indonesia (μ: 4.19 α: 0.834).

The attitude towards local positioning products and global positioning products is measured by one question. This scale aims to measure the emotional reaction of respondents after exposure to local and global advertising. Seven semantic differential scale points (Based on Wells, 1964) are used to measure this variable, namely: I think the product is interesting.

2.2 Advertisement Selection

This study uses advertisements that communicate local and global positioning as products that are local and global. The local and global advertising was selected through the following procedure: Initially, four advertisements were chosen by researchers, each of which was two advertisements for global positioning and two advertisements for local positioning. Ads were selected from print advertisements in magazines. The four advertisements consist of two banking service advertisements that are positioned as global products and two advertisements for daily consumption products, namely coffee. In this case, the chosen ads were Top Coffee and Starbucks. Ads were selected based on clear local/global positioning and availability of the product in Indonesia.

Ads can be classified as local or global-oriented ads, among others, assessed using the dimensions proposed by Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra (1999). These dimensions include the endorser ethnic background, the language used, the environment or atmosphere that appears in the advertisement, and the overall impression of the symbols used in the marketing communication. Of the four advertisements, two ads were chosen which gave the highest score, one representing the local positioning and one representing the global positioning

The pretest regarding representation of local/global advertising was carried out on a group of students. These advertisements were shown to groups of students consisting of 5 people using Focus Group Discussion who were then asked to rate which ads could represent local position products and global positioning products. Coffee product advertisements are considered to be more representative of local and global positioning products than banking service product advertisements that researchers ask students. Furthermore, two advertisements, each product representing local and global position products, were used in the survey.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Statistics show that the average global identity (M = 5.39; STD = 0.85) is higher than the local identity (M = 4.40; STD = 0.91) in the respondents of this study. Cross tabulation is carried out between local identity and global identity by dividing local / global identity variables into high / low local / global identities with split medians (Table 1).

Table 1
Cross-tabulation of Local Identity and Global Identity (N = 200)

	Local Identity (M=4,40; STD=0,91)		Total
Global Identity (M=5,39; STD=0,85)	Low	High	
Low	54 (27%)	47 (23.5%)	101 (50.5%)
High	26 (13%)	73 (36.5%)	99 (49.5%)
Total	80 (40%)	120 (60%)	200 (100%)

Source: Data (processed)

Cross-tabulation analysis showed that there were 54 respondents (27%) with low global identities and low local identities, while there were 47 respondents (23.5%) with low global identities and high local identities. There were 26 respondents (13%) with high global identities and low local identities and 73 respondents (36.5%) with high local and global identity. This shows that the highest proportion of respondents are respondents with high local and global (glocal) identities.

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     The process of grouping respondents based on local/global identity begins with hierarchical cluster analysis. The results of the dendrogram indicate the appearance of three different clusters. The process continued with K-Mean cluster analysis with three clusters and found that the three groups differed significantly (Wilk's = 0.004, F = 1,008,401; p <0.001). The three clusters show high global and local identity, high local identity but low global identity, and high global identity but low local identity (Table 2). Each of these clusters named consumers with glocal identities, consumers with local identities and consumers with global identities in sequence according to previous findings (Steenkamp & de Jong, 2010, Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006, and Varman & Belk, 2009)

Table 2
Cluster Analysis Results (N = 200)

	Consumer Identity			Overall Mean	F-Value
	Glocal Consumers	Local Consumers	Global Consumers		
	N=86 (43%)	N=59 (23,5%)	N=55 (22,5%)	N=200 (100%)	
Local Identity	5.21[a]	3.84[b]	3.73[b]	4.40	149.274***
Global Identity	5.80[a]	3.78[b]	5.85[a]	5.39	142.883***

Source: Data (processed)

where:
    Different letters show differences in variables that are significant (p <0.05) between clusters.
    *** p<.0,001

     The largest clusters are glocal consumers (43%) with local identities (5.21) and the equally high global consumers (5.80). Local consumer clusters (23.5%) and global consumers (22.5%) are almost as many. However, local and global consumers show a trend toward unique local and global identities. Local identity in the local consumer segment (3.84) and global consumer (3.78) are almost the same and do not show a statistically significant difference, but the global identity in the global consumer segment (5.85) is much higher than global identity in local consumers (4.38), even higher than the global identity of glocal consumers.

     Testing of univariate ANOVA in all clusters shows a significant difference in local and global identity (Table 2 on the mean and value of F). Specifically, global consumerism shows the strongest global identity but does not differ significantly from the global identity of the glocal consumer segment. While the glocal consumer segment has a strong local identity compared to the other two segments, this finding shows that local consumers actually do not have different local identities from global consumers, but local consumers significantly have a global identity far lower than global consumers. On the other hand, the highest local identity is shown by glocal consumers, while local and global consumers do not show different local identities. This finding supports the tendency to combine the consumption of local products or cultures in consumers who have a high global culture (Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price 2008).

     Anova testing was also conducted to examine differences in attitudes towards local and global products based on consumer clusters. Statistics show that there is no significant difference between attitudes towards local position products (Local = 5.10; Local = 4.68; Mglobal = 4.64) and attitudes towards global positioning products (Local = 4.37; Local = 4.07 ; Mglobal = 4.65) in the glocal, local and global consumer segments.

     Before testing the hypothesis with regression, we examined the correlation between variables with Pearson-Correlation (Table 3). Although not all correlations between variables are significant, the association shows the expected pattern.

Table 3
Correlation Table

Correlation	Local Identity	Global Identity	Ethnosentrism	Consumer attitudes to local products	Consumer attitudes to global products
Local Identity	1	0,357[NS]	0,239**	0,167*	-0,045 [NS]
Global Identity	0,357[NS]	1	-0,029	0,067	0,107
Ethnocetrism	0,239**	-0,029	1	0,418**	-0,276**
Consumer attitudes to local products	0,167*	0,067	0,418**	1	-0,144*
Consumer attitudes to global products	-0,045 [NS]	0,107	-0,276**	-0,144*	1

Source: Data (processed)

where:

*$p <,05$
***$p <,001$
[NS] : Not Significant

Before testing the hypothesis by regression, we first carried out bivariate correlation analysis using the Pearson-Correlation test, which resulted in a correlation of -0.029. Variables of consumer attitudes towards global products also do not correlate positively with ethnocentrism (-0,276). On the other hand, we did not find a significant relationship between global identity and local identity (0.357).

Regression analysis (Table 4) shows that local identity has an influence on consumer attitudes to local position products (β: 0.31; p <0.05). On the other hand, global identity has no effect on consumer attitudes to global positioning products (β: 0.24, p <NS). This finding supports some of the findings of Zhang and Khare (2009). In their studies local identity influences local product preferences, while global identity influences global product preferences.

Table 4
Mediation Analysis - Ethnocentrism (N = 200)

Paths/Effect	B	SE	95% Confidence interval
Model 1: Local Identity and Attitudes towards Local Positioned Products			
c (Local Identities→ Attitude towards Local Positioned Products)	0,31*	0,13	
a (Local Identities→ Ethnocentrism)	0,34***	0,10	
b (Ethnocentrism→Attitude towards Local Positioned Products)	0,53***	0,09	
c'	0,13[NS]	0,12	
a x b (Mediating Effect)	0,18	0,06	0,07 – 0,31
Model 2: Global Identity and Attitudes towards Global Positioning Products			
c (Global Identities→Attitude towards Global Positioned Products)	0,24[NS]	0,16	
a (Global Identities→ Ethnocentrism)	-0,04 [NS]	0,11	
b (Ethnocentrism →Attitude towards Global Positioned Products)	-0,40***	0,10	
c'	0,22 [NS]	0,15	
a x b (Mediating Effect)	0,01 [NS]	0,05	-0,10 – 0,11

Source: Data (processed)

where:
   $*p <,05$
   $***p <,001$
   ^{NS} : Not Significant
   Estimates are nonstandard coefficients.

Intervals of a x b use 1000 samples of boostrap sampling with replacement. Intervals that do not contain zero support the rejection of the hypothesis that a x b is not equal to zero.

The mediation test follows the procedure suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) to test the mediation of ethnocentrism on the relationship between local/global identity and attitudes toward local and global products. However, we conducted an indirect effect test by calculating confidence intervals with the standard error suggested by Sobel (1982) and performed bootstrapping with 1,000 sample with replacements to overcome the assumptions of the normal distribution of indirect effects that are often not met (MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). Table 4 Model 1 shows the results as predicted. The influence of local identity on attitudes toward products with local positions becomes insignificant after ethnocentrism is revised along with local identity. The mediating effect of 0.18 is included in the 95% confidence interval, which means that the indirect effect of local identity on attitudes toward products with a local position is significant.

Model 2 in Table 4 does not show the expected results. Because the influence of global identity on attitudes toward products with a global position is not significant, the first requirement for testing mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004) namely the existence of a correlation between both mediated variables was not fulfilled. Thus the mediation testing procedure could not be continued.
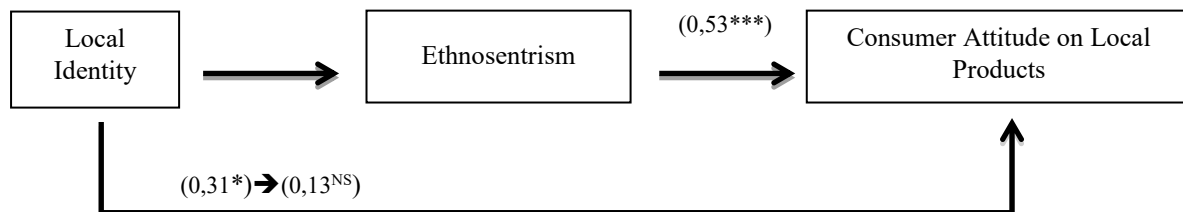
4. CONCLUSIONS

The results of this study provide the conclusion that global identity does not affect consumer attitudes toward global positioning products. This is a new finding that indicates that consumers with global identities experience a change in preferences in their consumption behavior, namely by tending to choose local products. Cluster analysis shows that the majority of young consumers studied were glocal consumers.

In terms of mediation, ethnocentrism has been proven to fully mediate the relationship between local identity and attitudes towards locally positioned products. The results of this study also reinforce previous studies that local identity has a positive effect on ethnocentrism, consumer attitudes toward global products do not correlate positively with ethnocentrism and the indirect effect of local identity on attitudes toward products with a significant local position.

Our research still has limitations regarding the methodology and the number of samples taken. Therefore, as a suggestion for the next study, the number of question items needs to be added, especially regarding attitudes towards local and global products. The number of samples that are more representative and different tests can be carried out further on cluster variations in the identified youth segment. Consumer characteristics of these segments along with purchasing behavior of local/global products are to be further investigated to assist marketing decisions on local/global positioning products. The use of online surveys also has limitations in measuring the validity of answers to questions. It is suggested that the next questionnaire is distributed using "hard-copy" or an offline method so that researchers can re-check the responses to survey respondents. Another thing that needs to be considered is the amount of social desirability that can exist in the current research.

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