universität wien

MASTERARBEIT / MASTER'S THESIS

Titel der Masterarbeit / Title of the Master's Thesis

The Impact of Consumer Xenocentrism and Ethnocentrism on Purchase Intention: Exploring the role of Brand Stereotypes

verfasst von / submitted by

Goran Luburic

angestrebter akademischer Grad / in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science (MSc)

Wien, 2020 / Vienna 2020

Studienkennzahl lt. Studienblatt / degree programme code as it appears on the student record sheet:	A 066 915
Studienrichtung lt. Studienblatt / degree programme as it appears on the student record sheet:	Masterstudium Betriebswirtschaft
Betreut von / Supervisor:	Univ.-Prof. DDr Adamantios Diamantopoulos
Mitbetreut von / Co-supervisor:	Dr. Ilona Szőcs

Acknowledgements

Firstly, I would like to express my sincerest gratitude to the co-supervisor of my master thesis, Dr. Ilona Szőcs. It has been a pleasure to work with her all along the process of writing my thesis, where her guidance and advices were of great value for me.

Further, I want to express my appreciation to Univ.-Prof. DDr Adamantios Diamantopoulos for the opportunity in the first place to write the thesis at the Chair of International Marketing.

I would also like to thank the entire Chair of International Marketing for their professionalism and motivation during the whole master program, and as well as the knowledge that I have gained throughout lectures.

Finally, my deepest gratitude goes to my family and friends for their unconditional love and encouragement without which this journey would be impossible.

Thank you!

Abstract

This work addresses the vivid interest in consumer's positive dispositions towards foreign or domestic brands and their impacts on consumer behaviour. Hence, it was investigated on influences of consumer xenocentrism and ethnocentrism on the process of brand stereotyping, and consequently purchase intentions. An empirical study was conducted among consumers in Bosnia and Herzegovina using brands from three different product categories, where all brands were convenience goods. In line with previous literature, the results confirm that consumer xenocentrism has a positive effect on the purchase intentions for foreign brands. Further, consumer ethnocentrism has the positive effect on purchase intentions for domestic, and negative for foreign brands. Moreover, the impact of brand stereotypes on purchase intentions is always positive, regardless to the brand origin. The novelties that this study brings, are findings that warmth and competence, as brand stereotypes dimensions, play a significant mediating role between consumer xenocentrism and purchase intentions for foreign brands, as well as between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions for domestic brands. Besides the theoretical contribution, this master thesis discusses possible managerial implications of the results.

Keywords: xenocentrism, ethnocentrism, brand stereotypes, warmth, competence, purchase intention

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Abbreviations

C-XEN	Consumer Xenocentrism
CET	Consumer Ethnocentrism
BS	Brand Stereotypes
PI	Purchase Intention
BF	Brand Familiarity
PCI	Product Category Involvement
PS	Price Sensitivity
SCM	Stereotype Content Model
BIAF	The Brands as Intentional Agents Framework
BiH	Bosnia and Herzegovina
et al.	and others (Latin: et alii)
e.g.	for example (Latin: exempli gratia)
i.e.	that is (Latin: id est)

1. Introduction

This chapter gives the reader a preface of the topic of this master thesis and its theoretical background. Further, the chapter reveals potential research gap in the international marketing literature and explains the purpose of the study. Finally, it gives an insight into the structure of the whole paper.

1.1. Background

Due to the influential process of globalization, we are witnessing that local and national economies are being quickly integrated into one and global market economy. This process represents an interaction among companies, governments and people worldwide and as a result we can observe the growth of international trade, cultural exchange, improvements in transportation, communication and many other fields (Guttal, 2007). Globalization is on the rise since the 1970s in all economic, social and political dimensions (Swiss-Economic-Institute, 2018). From the economic point of view, the world changed vastly in a relatively short time, since the globalization meant a liberalization of the economic activities (e.g. removal of Cross-Border Trades barriers accelerated exchange of goods and funds). For companies, global markets became more feasible, so consumers across the world now have access to a huge variety of domestic and foreign products (Levitt, 1983).

Nowadays, in a more competitive market than ever before, consumers purchase is not only determined by criteria such as product's price, quality and value (Zeithaml, 1988), but also by reliability, functionality and product design (Bloch, 1995). Further, consumers give importance to the brand image and country-of-origin image as well (Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch and Palihawadana, 2011). Also, they appreciate social (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001) and environmental responsibility (Wells, Ponting and Peattie, 2011), etc. Therefore, an immense number of factors influence consumers' behavior and some of them could be very complex to measure and understand like feelings, biases and identities. All this puts a lot of pressure on the top management of the companies to create a proper market strategy not only to attract the customers, but also to keep the old ones. Interestingly, there is also a pressure on the academic researchers to explore and define new constructs and marketing models to understand and predict consumer behavior.

Subsequently, firms today face a very dynamic and demanding new market environment and one of the biggest challenges is to approach different customers across different territories. Despite the globalization process, countries, regions and consumers as individuals have kept some of their specific characteristics. According to Steenkamp (2001), the global culture is something shared between individuals within countries, while the micro culture retains some of country specifics with development of its own unique behavior patterns. Hence, international marketing researchers have great interest in consumers' identities, beliefs, orientations, and attitudes. Eventually, the aim is to have better understanding of consumer perceptions and preferences for domestic, foreign and global products (Bartsch, Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2016).

Researchers shown a big interest and put a lot of effort investigating on this topic. The extant literature depicts different constructs, which mostly have positive disposition towards domestic products and negative towards the foreign ones such as consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma, 1987), economic nationalism (Baughn and Yaprak, 1996), national identity (Verlegh, 2007), consumer animosity (Klein, Ettenson and Morris, 1998) or even consumer racism (Ouellet, 2007). Some formulations show openness and affection for other countries and their products like consumer cosmopolitanism (Cleveland, Laroche and Papadopoulos, 2009), global consumption orientation (Alden, Steenkamp and Batra, 2006) or consumer affinity (Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset, 2014). Indeed, there are nineteen different constructs that define positive tendency towards the globalization and foreign countries/products (Bartsch, Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2016). Yet, there is an impression that present literature is not fully explaining the great success of some brands across markets and the evidence of preferences towards foreign products in some countries (Lawrence, 2012), even when domestic products are qualitatively similar or even better (Mueller et al., 2016). Preference for foreign products was usually explained as a result of low and bad product offer in a local market, and this was mainly in relation with foreign (global) products in developing countries (e.g. products from western countries in Eastern Europe). Further, in a similar way, as a dominance in a specific industry or product category, academic researchers explained success of foreign products in developed countries (e.g. German or Japanese car manufacturers in the US). For some time, researchers in a way rejected to change their approach and conduct in-depth analysis why consumers have such preferences. International marketing literature has largely overlooked this phenomena, focusing instead on the consumers tendency to favor domestic products and negative

feelings to the foreign ones (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016; Oberecker and Diamantopoulos, 2011).

Lately, researchers have begun to investigate more on predictors of foreign purchase intentions and for instance, consumer ethnocentrism is not shown to be a good one (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004). However, into argument researchers also included consumer xenocentrism as a relevant construct and an alternative explanation for foreign product bias (Mueller, Broderick and Kipnis, 2009). Xenocentrism is a belief that foreign is the best, while domestic is inferior in comparison to others (Kent and Burnight, 1951). It captures favoritism for the foreign products and derogation of value for the domestic ones (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016) and as a consumer disposition it should have a relevance in explaining consumer outcomes (Bartsch, Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2016). Nevertheless that general opinion is that consumers are more xenocentric in developing countries (Batra et al., 2000), xenocentrism could be considered as an universal phenomenon since recent researches showed its appearance in Greece (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016), China (Mueller et al., 2016), Russia (Diamantopoulos, Davydova and Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, 2018), as well as Canada and the US (Cleveland and Balakrishnan, 2018).

Research on consumer's attitudes towards the purchase of foreign or domestic products is therefore more applicable now than ever. With markets being open and with wide range of available products, sometimes is hard to distinguish which ones are foreign and which domestic. Still, some companies are able to position themselves on the market and to be perceived in such way (e.g. "domestic manufacturer" or "big global brand").

Companies are using different channels of communication to advertise their products and to inform their potential customers, but in a today's world, people are overwhelmed with information on a daily basis about different topics. In order to organize and systemize input they receive, they tend to categorize information, make them plainer and generalize their definitions and purpose through process of stereotyping (Tajfel, 1981). Stereotypes are socially shared, oversimplified and generalized set of beliefs about the subject matter (Greenwald and Banaji, 1995). Since, consumers now have access to tremendous number of different brands and a lot of information about them, as a consequence the brand stereotypes are formed, which present consumer's beliefs about brands (Kervyn, Fiske and Malone, 2012). Such beliefs could guide consumers' perceptions, intentions and eventually their behavior (Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic and Diamantopoulos, 2018).

1.2. Research Gap

When researching on consumer's attitudes towards the purchase of foreign or domestic products it is advised to capture the full consumption context, especially for managerial implications. Thus, the first observed research gap is that some aforementioned constructs like cultural openness or internationalism do not adequately address the (consumption) topic. Further, ethnocentrism is widely investigated but still it does not explain totally consumer attitudes for foreign products, while consumer affinity is aimed only to a specific country, etc. All this, leaves consumer xenocentrism as a consumer disposition which could explain some part of consumer behavior, but it was not sufficiently explored.

Even though that the term "xenocentrism" was coined almost 70 years ago, the literature on consumer xenocentrism is scarce, which awakens curiosity to find more about this topic. Until today, using exploratory studies, some works were mainly focused on conceptualizing the consumer xenocentrism (Mueller, Broderick and Kipnis, 2009) and better understanding of xenocentric behavior (Mueller et al., 2016). From a quantitative perspective of view, researchers managed to develop a measurement scale (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016) and investigate on the influence of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intentions (Diamantopoulos, Davydova and Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, 2018). Indeed, this topic got some attention in recent few years but still there is a huge potential to investigate its effects in various ways, especially with regards to empirical studies.

The second gap directs into investigation of consumer xenocentrism influence on purchase outcomes, since very little is known to which extent is xenocentrism effective predictor of any consumer responses (Bartsch, Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2016). Even though that they are not totally opposite constructs, it would be interesting to compare effects of consumer xenocentrism and consumer ethnocentrism, since literature on ethnocentrism is quite extensive.

The originality of the thesis truly lies in the fact that brand stereotyping has never been before put in a relationship with consumer xenocentrism (and ethnocentrism). Idea is to look into the effects of the two different consumer dispositions on process of brand stereotyping, and eventually on consumer purchase behavior. Herewith, brand stereotypes have a function of a mediator between mentioned constructs. A mediator represents the mechanism through which focal variable influences the outcome, meaning that to some extent it accounts for the relation between the predictor and the criterion (Baron and

Kenny, 1986). The mediator transmits the effect of an independent on a dependent variable (MacKinnon, Fairchild and Fritz, 2007). With no regards to the significance of the direct impact of the independent variable to the outcome variable, a mediation simply means that indirect path of influence (predictor → mediator → outcome) has a statistical significance (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

1.3. Purpose of the study

Investigating on this topic has both theoretical and practical (managerial) implications.

Theoretical relevance of this study mainly lies within filling the gap in literature on the topic of consumer predispositions in order to understand better consumer purchase behavior. In that sense, the objective is to explore the effects of consumer xenocentrism and consumer ethnocentrism on brand stereotypes and consequently on the purchase outcome. From the theoretical point of view it would be important to understand which consumer disposition is more influential and which one explains better consumer preferences.

Additionally, usage of C-XENSCALE (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016) to measure consumers' xenocentric tendencies will give a further validation of this (relatively new) scale in the research area.

Moreover, this study could motivate further work to explore positive dispositions toward foreign products in detail (in other countries or even to conduct a cross-country analysis).

Since the data collection would be taken in Bosnia and Herzegovina, when talking about practical implications, the main issue is related to the companies seeing this country as a potential market for their products (or other similar developing countries). Knowledge about preferences and behavior of potential customers plays a crucial role in creating marketing strategies, hence this work could help foreign companies to exploit the phenomena of xenocentrism to have a swift penetration in the new market. On contrary, domestic companies could make a good market segmentation, target customers and emphasize their domestic origin and capitalize on it. In practical terms this means that, depending on the findings, companies could include COO-effect in their marketing strategies.

Furthermore, policy makers and domestic leading economists need to be aware of this in creating business environment in a way to protect the local economy and jobs, since the significant level of consumer xenocentrism can disadvantage local firms (Mueller, Broderick and Kipnis, 2009). Consequently, they should impose the awareness of importance of domestic product usage in the general public.

Studies that investigate consumer's behaviour are relatively scarce for developing (Kaynak and Kara, 2002), as well as for emerging economies (Fastoso and Whitelock, 2011), with the exception of China in the recent period, due to the huge size of the market. This thesis has a goal to increase the awareness of importance of these markets, especially for small and developing countries. Additionally, this work could give us a better picture of a situation in under-researched market of this particular country.

1.4. Structure of the Thesis

After the introduction part, this paper is structured in a way to give the meaningful presentation of the given topic. Firstly, in the Chapter 2, the review of the existing literature is conducted and all important concepts and terms are defined. The Chapter 3 presents the research question, gives an insight into hypotheses development process and describes the whole research model. After that, in the Chapter 4, the methodology is explained in detail (sample, data, variables, measurement, etc.). This is followed by presentation of data analysis in the Chapter 5 and the discussion about findings in the Chapter 6. Finally, the Chapter 7 conducts theoretical and managerial implications, as well as limitations and suggestions for the future research. The paper also includes the list of references and the appendix with additional information and explanations how the empirical part is carried out.

2. Literature Review

This chapter gives a literature review on central aforementioned concepts and terms, and it is divided into four sections. First two sections are covering the two main consumer constructs that are in the center of interest in this thesis – consumer xenocentrism and consumer ethnocentrism. The third section is concern with brand stereotypes, while the last one briefly describes purchase intention.

2.1. Consumer Ethnocentrism

The term "Ethnocentrism" is mentioned for the first time at the beginning of the XX century as a sociological concept, where one's own group is considered as superior and it is put in the center, while everything else is scaled and rated with reference to it (Sumner, 1906). Around 80 years later, this term was introduced into consumption context and the term "Consumer ethnocentrism" was established as "consumer beliefs about appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products" (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Morality usually lies with the logic that the foreign product purchase hurts local (domestic) economy, which leads to unemployment, and overall that act is unpatriotic. Ethnocentric consumer believes that buying foreign-made product is just wrong, irrespective to quality and price (Bi et al., 2012) or value of a given product (Herche, 1992). This consumer disposition includes overestimation of domestic products quality and hence underestimation of foreign ones (Sharma, Shimp and Shin, 1995). As a result, ethnocentric consumers believe that domestic products are the best (Klein, Ettenson and Morris, 1998) without comparison, since this country affection is based on the fact that their culture is part of their identity (Gaur, Bathula and Diaz, 2015).

Ethnocentrism is theoretically underpinned by the Social Identity Theory, which focuses on the identification with the in-group and hostility towards out-groups (Tajfel and Turner, 1986). In that sense, consumer ethnocentrism is in a strong relationship with patriotism, collectivism, nationalism and conservatism (Siemieniako et al., 2011). Empirically tested antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism are categorized into four groups: socio-psychological, economic, political and demographic (Shankarmahesh, 2006). Starting from the inner belief and love for own country, consumer ethnocentrism leads to conscious preference for local products, thus directly influencing consumer behavior (Sharma, Shimp and Shin, 1995).

Consumer ethnocentrism is widely researched construct in the international marketing field. For instance, it has an effect on consumer product evaluations and purchase intentions (Klein, 2002). Findings show that it significantly and positively affects domestic product judgment and willingness to buy domestic products (Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar and Diamantopoulos, 2015). On contrary, consumers with ethnocentric tendencies are less willing to buy foreign products (Kaynak and Kara, 2002). Further, consumer ethnocentrism has a positive effect on attitudes toward domestic brands (Balabanis, Stathopoulou and Qiao, 2019). Also, it is positively related with preferences for domestic products, and negatively with foreign ones (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004). Likewise, consumer ethnocentrism is significantly and positively related to domestic purchase behavior and domestic product appraisal (Dmitrovic, Vida and Reardon, 2009).

2.2. Consumer Xenocentrism

Xenocentrism was based and first mentioned in sociology field as a counterpart to ethnocentrism, and it was defined as a biased view "where a group other than one's own is the center of everything, and all others, including one's own group, are scaled and rated with reference to it" (Kent and Burnight, 1951). It could be also described as unreflected and disproportionate focus on "the other" (Stier, 2010). While ethnocentric person has a clear preference for its own culture and nation, person with xenocentric tendencies show negation of its own culture without preference for any particular foreign society (Kent and Burnight, 1951). Regarding their own group, ethnocentric sees virtues where none exist, while xenocentric sees faults where none exist, which means that both have biased and subjective points of view (Kent and Burnight, 1951). Contrary to the definition of ethnocentrism, out-group favoritism is observed in the case of xenocentrism. There are few researchers who described this (or similar) phenomena using different terms, such as negative ethnocentrism (Swartz, 1961) or autonomous non-members for individuals who are negatively oriented to their own nation (Fishbein, 1963). This topic stayed under-researched for more than fifty years after the term xenocentrism was coined and it stayed only in the connection with sociology (Mueller, Broderick and Kipnis, 2009).

Consumer xenocentrism is defined as a "preference for foreign goods even when domestic products are qualitatively similar or better" (Mueller, Broderick and Kipnis, 2009). Hence, xenocentric consumer is "a person who prefers products from a country

(or region) other than their own and who rates and scales products in reference to the foreign country and not their own" (Mueller, Broderick and Kipnis, 2009).

Even though, ethnocentrism and xenocentrism are firstly defined as polar (Kent and Burnight, 1951), consumer ethnocentrism and consumer xenocentrism could not be considered as totally opposite constructs since there is possibility that two of them co-exist together (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016). Also, consumer ethnocentrism is based on the Social Identity Theory, while consumer xenocentrism is built on the System Justification Theory (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016). System-justification is a psychological process that legitimize existing social arrangements at all costs, meaning that the status quo should be preserved at the expense of any group of interest (Jost and Banaji, 1994). In line with this theory, members of the lower social groups in society should show out-group favoritism and in-group derogation (Jost and Burgess, 2000) and therefore accept and justify their own inferiority (Jost and Banaji, 1994).

Formation of xenocentric feelings could have its roots in the individual frustration, social isolation or inferior social position (Kent and Burnight, 1951), as well as feeling of marginalization within society (Prince et al., 2016). Every society, has individuals or social groups who feel underprivileged, hence xenocentrism could be considered as a universal phenomenon. However, consumer xenocentrism is vividly more present in developing and emerging market countries (Mueller, Broderick and Kipnis, 2009). If xenocentrism is prevailing among group members it could have a negative effect on the whole society (e.g. national group, country), because it could lead to reducing the collective esteem of the group (Mueller et al., 2016).

Taking all mentioned before into account, consumer xenocentrism consists of perceived inferiority of the domestic products and corresponding preferences for foreign products for social aggrandizement purposes (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016). Perceived inferiority reflects negative self-stereotyping and tendency to underestimate local culture, values and products, while social aggrandizement pictures the symbolic value of foreign products, which "elevates" consumer's social status (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016). Foreign product represents an ideal that individual aspires, emphasizes novelty, modernity and a life style and accords status of prestige (Mueller, Broderick and Kipnis, 2009) and serve as a marker for a social status (Mueller et al., 2016).

To fully understand the construct of consumer xenocentrism it is important to understand its similarities and differences to other consumer dispositions. Very similar construct to

xenocentrism is xenophilia, which is defined as "love for strangers and foreigners… and an implicit or explicit disrespect for or hatred of one's own sociological reference group" (Perlmutter, 1954). Like a xenocentric person, also a xenophilic person has hostile attitudes towards in-group and positive imagery towards out-group (Perlmutter, 1954). Xenophilia describes a belief about a general superiority of foreign country, represented in education, manners, and personality (Perlmutter, 1954). Both constructs, consumer xenocentrism and xenophilia are defined as individual's orientation, with the distinction that xenophilia represents interest in and admiration of foreign countries (general belief), while consumer xenocentrism shows preference for foreign products (consumption context) (Bartsch, Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2016).

Internationalism is another individual orientation that "focuses on international sharing and welfare, and reflects an empathy for the people of other countries" (Kosterman and Feshbach, 1989). Similarly to xenocentrics, internationalists are more likely to purchase foreign (imported) goods than domestic (Balabanis et al., 2001). Internationalism has a general scope, openness to multiple countries and in contrast to xenocentrism, it has no specific valence towards the home country (Bartsch, Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2016).

Cosmopolitanism is a specific set of belief when people orientate themselves outside of their community, rather than being influenced only by local tradition and values (Merton, 1957). Cosmopolitanism represents preference for plurality and diversity, openness to different cultures and willingness to engage with "other" (Hannerz, 1990). Cosmopolitans want to immerse themselves in other cultures (Cleveland and Laroche, 2007) and thus they are more likely to purchase and use product from other (foreign) countries (Cleveland, Laroche and Papadopoulos, 2009). A cosmopolitan consumer is "an open-minded individual whose consumption orientation transcends any particular culture, locality or community and who appreciates diversity including trying products and services from a variety of countries" (Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2009). The most important difference to a xenocentric consumer is that a cosmopolitan consumer does not "exclude" domestic goods from product consideration, since they are not perceived as inferior to the foreign ones, *per se*.

As already mentioned in the previous chapter (see *1. Introduction*), the literature on consumer xenocentrism is scarce and it only got researchers attention recently, but still, there are some interesting findings so far. Consumer xenocentrism is negatively related to consumers' willingness to buy domestic products, and positively for foreign ones

(Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016). Similarly, consumer xenocentrism has a positive influence on foreign, and negative on domestic purchase intentions (Diamantopoulos, Davydova and Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, 2018). Also, consumer xenocentrism has a more positive effect on attitudes toward foreign than domestic brands and a more positive effect on loyalty to foreign than domestic brands (Balabanis, Stathopoulou and Qiao, 2019). Furthermore, there is a negative correlation between consumer xenocentrism and ethnocentrism, and also a positive connection between consumer xenocentrism and cosmopolitanism (Prince et al., 2016). In China, consumer xenocentrism is dominant among the new emerging wealthy classes, younger consumers, and the local elite (Mueller et al., 2016).

2.3. Brand Stereotypes

Stereotypes are "socially shared set of beliefs about traits that are characteristic of member of a social category" (Greenwald and Banaji, 1995). In simple words, they are oversimplified and generalized thoughts about the subject matter. Generalization and categorization are the normal processes of a human mind and they are developing from very early childhood (Allport, 1954). After some time they become automatic responses to the information from close environment (Fiske, 1998), and they could be activated in less than milliseconds (Bargh, 1997). Stereotypes develop over time, and they change rather slowly. Process of stereotyping tells us that if a person is perceived to belong to a certain group, all characteristics of that group will be translated to that particular person (Devine, 1989). Stereotypes have positive repercussions, since we can simplify reality in a very complex environment, and we can speed-up decision-making with predictions (Macrae, Milne and Bodenhausen, 1994) and speed-up communication using short-cuts (Fiske, 1998). On the other hand, stereotypes lead to prejudice (Fiske et al., 2002), which could often be inaccurate and discriminative, especially to the out-groups (Allport, 1954), so they also have a negative connotation. Stereotypes are part of our culture and lifestyle, so we can observe them in a daily speech, jokes, movies, advertisements, etc. Stereotypes are very often the topic of socio–psychological investigations and researchers tried to explain their formation and effects through the development of different theories and models.

According to the Stereotype Content Model (SCM), individual's perception of social groups has two dimensions – warmth and competence, and these dimensions are outcome of interpersonal and intergroup interactions (Fiske et al., 2002). Positive social traits are associated with warmth dimension, while competitive social traits are connected with competence (Antonetti and Maklan, 2016). The warmth dimension is connected with "the intention" and captures notions like friendliness, good-nature, safety, honesty, altruism and kindness, while the competence dimension defines "the ability to carry out the intention" and reflects expertise, capability, efficiency, strong desire for success, determination and intellect (Fiske et al., 2002). The authors of the model had a simple idea that people want to know others' intent and their capability to pursue it. Warmth and competence are shown to be reliable and consistent dimensions of social judgment across stimuli, places, cultures and time (Fiske, Cuddy and Glick, 2007; Fiske, 2018).

The SCM has two dimensions which are measured on a low-high scale, so the SCM matrix (2x2) shows four combinations of different levels of warmth and competence, and they stimulate different feelings (Fiske et al., 2002):

- high warmth and high competence levels stimulate feelings of admiration and pride,
- high warmth, but low competence levels result in feelings of pity,
- low level of warmth, but high level of competence elicit feelings of envy and
- low warmth and low competence levels lead to contempt and disgust.

The model has its wide use, since people differentiate other by (dis)liking (warmth dimension) and (dis)respecting (competence), no matter if they judge individuals (Fiske, Cuddy and Glick, 2007), social groups (Cuddy, Fiske and Glick, 2004) or even different cultures on a country-level (Cuddy et al., 2009).

The SCM is heavily used and replicated in later studies, not only by sociologists, but also by economic researchers. For example, Aaker, Vohs and Mogliner (2010) used the SCM model to capture perceptions of firms and found that consumers perceive nonprofit companies as warmer, but as less competent than profit companies. Indeed, stereotypes are not only used to judge other people. We are also able to attribute different mental states to non-social objects (Kervyn, Fiske and Malone, 2012), and to use existing social frameworks which are used for individuals or social groups to perceive nonhuman entities (Ivens et al., 2015). People anthropomorphize objects or symbols, develop emotions for them, and establish a specific kind of identification with them (Epley, Waytz and Cacioppo, 2007). In that way, people attach different human characteristics to a particular

brand, thus brand personality is formed (Aaker, 1997). Hence, people are able to develop connections with brands in a similar way they develop relationships with other people (Fournier, 1998). Relationship with a particular brand could have a very specific meaning for a consumer who engages in it (Fournier, 2009). According to Mark and Pearson (2001), brands use archetypal imagery to present themselves to the customers and they use the power of archetypes to build communication around them. Therefore, brand stereotypes present consumer's set of beliefs about brands characteristics (Kervyn, Fiske and Malone, 2012), and these stereotypes further initiate emotional reactions toward the brand (Ivens et al., 2015). The process of brand stereotyping is activated in the moment when consumers come in contact with brand-related features or cues, such as price, name, packaging, advertisement, and so on (Davvetas and Halkias, 2019).

Building on the SCM model, Kervyn, Fiske and Malone (2012) created The Brands as Intentional Agents Framework (BIAF), which suggests that consumer-brand interactions and relationships are also driven by the two fundamental dimensions, only they changed the dimensions names, from "warm" and "competent" to "intentions" and "ability", respectively. Now, brands could be perceived as able/unable and well-/ill-intentioned. In the BIAF matrix, depending on the dimensions level, we can observe four quadrants and four brand types (Kervyn, Fiske and Malone, 2012):

- well-intentioned and high ability quadrant – popular brands (elicit admiration),
- well-intentioned and low ability quadrant – paternalized brands (pity),
- ill-intentioned and high ability quadrant – envied brands (envy) and
- ill-intentioned and low ability quadrant – troubled brands (contempt).

According to Kervyn, Fiske and Malone (2012), brands as agents are carrying specific intentions and abilities. Indeed, the perception of a brand is easily transferred to its users. For example, consumption choices that are connected to higher social groups are often copied by other groups (Antonetti and Maklan, 2016). Same brand consumption could even form a brand community, which members demonstrate negative stereotyping of users of rival brands (Hickman and Ward, 2013). Brand stereotypes have an influence on the buyer's brand perception, and consequently on consumer attitudes and behavior (Ivens et al., 2015). Warmth and competence dimensions affect purchase intentions, especially in situations where brands are marked high in both dimensions (Aaker, Garbinsky and Vohs, 2012). Also, warmth and competence are shown to be critical mediators of the relationship between brand personality and consumers emotions (Ivens

et al., 2015). Global brands are stereotyped as more competent than warm, while local brands as more warm than competent (Davvetas and Halkias, 2019).

2.4. Purchase Intention

Purchase intention is a likelihood that a consumer will buy a product, and it is related to what consumer gets in return in terms of value, quality, performance and features (Gaur, Bathula and Diaz, 2015). Purchase intention is one of the most investigated constructs in the marketing literature and one of the primary inputs that managers use to predict future sales (Morwitz, 2014).

Researchers and especially managers are interested what impacts consumer's willingness to really execute the purchase. Purchase intention is hence often used as a dependent variable in research models.

3. Research Model

The aim of this chapter is to present research questions, the conceptual and the research model of the study, define its variables and show the hypotheses development process. The model is constructed in a way to explain relationships between the main constructs in the study.

3.1. Research questions

Drawing on the observed research gap (see *1.2. Research gap*), and in line with the purpose of the study (see *1.3. Purpose of the study*) and the presented literature review (see *2. Literature review*), this study seeks to answer the following two research questions:

1. How consumer xenocentrism and consumer ethnocentrism influence brand stereotypes?
2. Which consumer predisposition, through brand stereotyping, has bigger impact on purchase intention?

3.2. Variables and Model

As aforementioned, the ultimate goal of this work is to investigate the effects of consumer xenocentrism and consumer ethnocentrism on the brand stereotypes, and through it on the purchase intention of the given brands. Therefore, the purchase intention is a dependent variable in this model, subsequently consumer xenocentrism and consumer ethnocentrism are independent variables, while brand stereotypes have a mediating role in this setup. *Figure 1* shows the conceptual model and assumed directions of effects between main constructs in this study.

Figure 1 – Conceptual model

Drawing on this conceptual model, the full research model is developed (see *Figure 2*). The idea is to capture direct impact of both consumer dispositions, consumer xenocentrism and consumer ethnocentrism, on the brand stereotypes and it's both dimensions, warmth and competence. A direct relation between consumer dispositions and purchase intention is already researched in the literature and in this setup it will be tested for the completeness of the analysis. Further, to capture mediating role of brand stereotypes, there is a link between both brand stereotypes dimensions and purchase intention. Finally, to obtain more accurate statistical estimations we need to include few control variables in the model, as well.

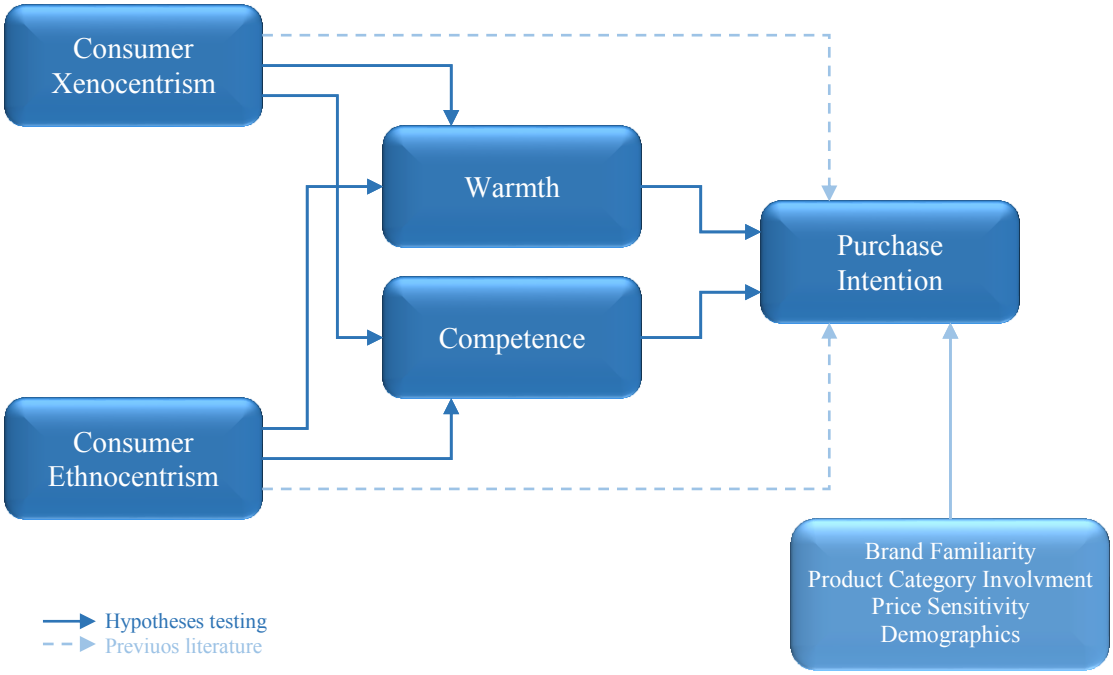


Figure 2 – Research model

The model is controlled for a brand familiarity, which is defined as "the number of product-related experiences that have been accumulated by the consumer" (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). Frequent exposure to a specific brand (e.g. advertisement repetition effect) leads to a creation of positive tendencies towards that particular brand (Zajonc and Markus, 1982). Hence, brand familiarity has a positive impact on the consumer behavior (Davvetas and Diamantopoulos, 2016). Laroche, Kim and Zhou (1996) showed that brand familiarity has a direct and significant effect on brand attitudes and purchase intention, which was also proven by other researchers (Kent and Allen, 1994; Park and Stoel, 2005). In a similar setup, Diamantopoulos, Davydova and Arslanagic-Kalajdzic (2018) are also using brand familiarity as a control variable in their model.

The next used control variable in the model is a product category involvement, which is defined as "a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interests" (Zaichkowsky, 1985). High or low level of involvement cannot be assigned to a specific product or a product category (Park, Lee and Han, 2007), since involvement as a motivational state can be triggered by a specific stimulus, given situation, or a decision task (Mittal, 1989). Involvement represent a consumer's motivation during the purchase decision process to extent information search and length of the choice process, to compare multiple brands and to initiate communication about product with others (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985). Low product category involvement could lead to absence of motivation for information processing about the product (Dens and Pelsmacker, 2010), hence consumers' behavior heavily depends on their level of involvement within a specific product category (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985). A study by Traylor and Joseph (1984) shows that brand selection is heavily impacted by product involvement.

Further, a price sensitivity is also used as a control variable in the model, since consumers respond to changes in product pricing (Goldsmith and Newell, 1997). This variable is defined as "the weight attached to price in a consumer valuation of a product's overall attractiveness or utility" (Erdem, Swait and Louviere, 2002). Justification for including this control variable lies in the fact that price is one of the most influencing factors on purchase decisions (Karmarkar, Shiv and Knutson, 2015). Also, purchase decision process could be determined by price differences for foreign and domestic products (Winit et al., 2014). The results from a study by Somervuori and Ravaja (2013) suggest that low prices induce higher positive emotions compared to high prices. Also, there is a lot of evidence in the literature that consumers are more sensitive to increase than decrease in pricing, which is in line with the Prospect theory, introduced by Kahneman and Tversky (1979). These authors suggest, that individuals react more to losses (price increases) than to gains (price decreases). Other findings show that consumers, who buy products often and in high volumes, are more sensitive to changes in price levels, than those who buy products rarely and in low volumes (Kim and Rossi, 1994).

Additionally to aforementioned control variables, demographic parameters will be included in the model, such as gender, age, highest achieved education, present occupation and average monthly net income. Inclusion of demographic parameters as control variables is a standard procedure in an economic research. For example, the usage of this data could depict us better which social groups are more prone to xenocentric or ethnocentric tendencies.

3.3. Hypotheses

Based on the xenocentric tendencies for out-group favoritism (Kent and Burnight, 1951) and preferences for foreign goods (Mueller, Broderick and Kipnis, 2009) which have a symbolic value for consumers (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016), this paper suggest the link between consumer xenocentrism and consumer perception and beliefs about foreign products – brand stereotypes. According to Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2016), two dimensions of consumer xenocentrism are perceived inferiority of the domestic products and preferences for foreign products for social aggrandizement purposes. Also, Balabanis, Stathopoulou and Qiao (2019) showed that xenocentric consumers have more positive attitudes toward foreign than domestic brands. Therefore the argument is that consumer xenocentrics will stereotype brands in a specific, biased way in both dimensions, warmth as well as competence. This means that consumers with xenocentric tendencies will stereotype foreign products in a more positive way than domestic ones. Consequently, the first hypothesis that will be tested is:

H1a: Consumer xenocentrism is positively related to the warmth dimension of the foreign brands.

H1b: Consumer xenocentrism is positively related to the competence dimension of the foreign brands.

On the other hand, consumer ethnocentrism should have the opposite impact, since these two consumer orientations have almost opposite definitions. Consumer ethnocentrism includes overestimation of domestic products quality (Sharma, Shimp and Shin, 1995; Klein, 2002) and obvious preference for domestic over foreign products (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004). This means that consumers with ethnocentric tendencies will stereotype domestic products in more positive way than foreign ones. Taking all this into consideration, and using hypothesis formulation like for the *H1*, the second hypothesis is defined as:

H2a: Consumer ethnocentrism is positively related to the warmth dimension of the domestic brands.

H2b: Consumer ethnocentrism is positively related to the competence dimension of the domestic brands.

The first two hypotheses are exploring the effect of consumer dispositions on brand stereotyping. To investigate mediating role of brand stereotyping, the next step is to define its impact on the purchase intention for the given products. From previous studies, we know that brand stereotypes dimensions, warmth and competence, have an impact on the consumers emotions, brand perception, and hence on consumer attitudes and behavior (Ivens et al., 2015). Alongside with the findings in a study by Aaker, Garbinsky and Vohs (2012), which show that warmth and competence affect purchase intentions, the next hypothesis is formulated as:

H3a: Warmth dimension is positively related to the purchase intention for a given domestic brand.

H3b: Warmth dimension is positively related to the purchase intention for a given foreign brand.

H3c: Competence dimension is positively related to the purchase intention for a given domestic brand.

H3d: Competence dimension is positively related to the purchase intention for a given foreign brand.

Leaning on the first three hypotheses, further model exploration means introducing a bit more complex proposal and inclusion of more variables in relation. Earlier studies showed that consumers with xenocentric tendencies will value more foreign than domestic products (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016), which will eventually result in increased purchase intentions for foreign ones (Diamantopoulos, Davydova and Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, 2018). Hence, in the line with the *H1* and *H3*, the next proposal is built in a way that:

H4a: Consumer xenocentrism is positively related with purchase intention for foreign brands, through mediating role of warmth dimension of brand stereotyping.

H4b: Consumer xenocentrism is positively related with purchase intention for foreign brands, through mediating role of competence dimension of brand stereotyping.

H4c: Consumer xenocentrism is negatively related with purchase intention for domestic brands, through mediating role of warmth dimension of brand stereotyping.

H4d: Consumer xenocentrism is negatively related with purchase intention for domestic brands, through mediating role of competence dimension of brand stereotyping.

Using previous findings in the literature and the same logic as for *H4* development, the assumption for other consumer disposition is created, only now in line with *H2* and *H3*. Since, consumer ethnocentrism has an effect on purchase intentions (Klein, 2002) and willingness to buy domestic products (Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar and Diamantopoulos, 2015), the last hypotheses are:

H5a: Consumer ethnocentrism is positively related with purchase intention for domestic brands, through mediating role of warmth dimension of brand stereotyping.

H5b: Consumer ethnocentrism is positively related with purchase intention for domestic brands, through mediating role of competence dimension of brand stereotyping.

H5c: Consumer ethnocentrism is negatively related with purchase intention for foreign brands, through mediating role of warmth dimension of brand stereotyping.

H5d: Consumer ethnocentrism is negatively related with purchase intention for foreign brands, through mediating role of competence dimension of brand stereotyping.

4. Methodology

In this chapter, the reader gets an overview of the planed empirical part of the study. This means that information on research setting, pretesting, chosen brands, measurement scales and data collection process will be given.

4.1. Research setting

This study was designed to obtain primary quantitative data from individuals for a specific research goals. Participants were faced with the structured questionnaire, which answers gave the insight about main constructs in the study. The study uses a mixture of within-group and between-group design. On the one hand, within-group design means that each questionnaire contains questions about two brands, one domestic and one foreign, in the same product category (real brands are used). This type of research design has advantages in creating a more natural or real setup, better internal validity and greater statistical power (Charness, Gneezy and Kuhn, 2012). On the other hand, the study has also a between-group character, since three different product categories are used and participants are randomly assigned to these product categories. This type of research design has advantages in having higher external validity and lower level of confounds (Charness, Gneezy and Kuhn, 2012).

Since there are three product categories, there are also three different questionnaires. All versions are created in the same way, consisting five sections. The first section is about consumer dispositions, hence this part has questions about ethnocentric and xenocentric consumer tendencies. The second section is about the given product category, consisting questions about product category involvement and price sensitivity. The third section is about one brand, so there are questions about brand awareness, familiarity, origin, stereotypes and purchase intention. The fourth section is about the second brand with the same questions like in the previous section. Randomly domestic and foreign brands are appearing in the second or in the third section, to reduce priming effect. The fifth section is about personal consumer information (demographics), where participants needed to state their residence, gander, age, level of education, occupation and income. With the intention of avoiding order bias, detailed thought is given to the process of questionnaire creation and sequence of questions (Perreault, 1975). Further, in line with the recommendations from the literature (Brislin, 1970; Behling and Law, 2000), a

questionnaire was firstly created in English and then translated into Serbian, and then again translated back into English to ensure linguistic validity.

Research country is Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH), a relatively small state in South-East Europe, on the Balkan Peninsula. The country belongs to the group of developing countries with economies in transition. There are few reasons for choosing this country. Firstly, according to Mueller, Broderick and Kipnis (2009) we can expect xenocentric tendencies in a developing country. Also, BiH is a post-war[1] and multi-ethnic state, where one's affiliation to clearly identifiable ethnic group forms strong ethnocentric consumer tendencies (Vida, Dmitrović and Obadia, 2008). Further, BiH is considered as under-researched market, hence a study like this could bring closer country's characteristics to the international audience. On the grounds that BiH is an ex-Yugoslavian country, and due to similarities with culture, language and mentality, the results of this work could be valid for other countries in the west Balkan region, like Slovenia, Croatia, Serbia, North Macedonia or Montenegro. Finally, due to author's relatively easy access to the potential respondents and possibly representative sample of population, the country seems to be a good choice for this research project.

4.2. Pretest

Pretesting was executed with the aim to find proper brands for the study. The idea is that both brands, domestic and foreign, are available in the research country, that respondents can distinct brand origin and that product categories are not limited to the certain age, gender, income group or any other demographic category. Pretesting was organized in two stages, where the first stage was used for identifying possible product categories and the second for choosing which brands in the given categories are going actually to be used in the survey.

In the first stage participants were asked to state five foreign and five domestic brands that are available in the country, regardless to which product category they belong. Reasoning behind such question was to identify which product categories are the most familiar for the participants. A phone interview was conducted with 16 people (6 female; 10 male; average 34.9 years old; 25-61 age span). Stated domestic brands were mostly

[1] The breakup of Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia in 1991, resulted with a civil war in the multi-ethnic Socialist Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina from April 1992 until December 1995.

from food industry (e.g. chocolate, flour, oil; 5 different brands were mentioned 14 times in total), beer (2 brands, 12 times), cleaning products or detergents (5 brands, 11 times) and bottled water (4 brands, 9 times). Also, often named brands were coffee, tea, cheese, wine or meat products (4-6 times). Named foreign brands were mostly from high-tech industry (6 brands, 18 times), then confectionery (6 brands, 11 times), car (5 brands, 8 times) and clothing or garment industry (6 brands, 8 times). Besides, body care, soft drink, coffee, tea, beer and cleaning products were also often mentioned (4-6 times). Some categories were mentioned only for domestic brands, such as bottled water, wine or cheese, while some were mentioned only for foreign brands like personal hygiene, chewing gums or condoms. Also, some products are coming from industries that are not developed at all in BiH, like car or high-tech industry. All these product categories that do not have a match (both mentioned domestic and foreign brand) were excluded from further consideration. Eventually, three product categories that were the most often noted where elected and chosen as suitable for the study: beer, detergent and coffee (see *Table 1*). These products are convenience goods, meaning that they are affordable and well-known to the majority of population.

	Product	Domestic		Foreign		Total times mentioned
		Times Mentioned	Different Brands	Times Mentioned	Different Brands	
Chosen	**Beer**	12	2	5	3	**17**
	Detergent	11	5	4	4	**15**
	Coffee	6	3	5	2	**11**
Not chosen	*Soft drink*	*5*	*1*	*5*	*3*	*10*
	Tea	*5*	*2*	*4*	*3*	*9*
	Clothing	*1*	*1*	*8*	*6*	*9*
	Cigarettes	*2*	*2*	*1*	*1*	*3*
	Finance	*1*	*1*	*1*	*1*	*2*
Excluded	*High tech*	-	-	*18*	*6*	*18*
	Bottled water	*9*	*4*	-	-	*9*
	Car	-	-	*8*	*5*	*8*
	Personal hygiene	-	-	*6*	*5*	*6*
	Wine	*4*	*4*	-	-	*4*
	Cheese	*4*	*4*	-	-	*4*

Table 1 – Pretest stage 1 (product categories)

The second stage of pretesting was also organized as a short and small interview, but now with different people than in the first stage. Participants were supposed to name six different brands in total, two brands for each product category that was found suitable in

the first stage of pretesting (beer, detergent and coffee). In this stage, 9 participants stated only domestic brands (4 female; 5 male; 35.1 year old; age span 21-59) and 14 participants only foreign brands (7 female; 7 male; 40.5 years old; age span 20-60). The aim in this stage was to notice which brands are stated more often than other, which indicates brand familiarity within the country and fitness for the study. Indeed, the result show that some brands are "more popular" than other (see *Table 2*). The results from this stage, gave us pairs in all product categories, *Nektar – Heineken* (beer), *Violeta – Ariel* (detergent) and *Omcafé – Nescafé* (coffee), and they will be used in the final online survey.

Domestic brands			**Foreign brands**		
Beer	Detergent	Coffee	Beer	Detergent	Coffee
Nektar (9 times)[2]	**Violeta (5)**	**Omcafé (6)**	**Heineken (8)**	**Ariel (9)**	**Nescafé (7)**
Sarajevsko (4)	*Arix (2)*	*Grand kafa[3] (4)*	*Tuborg (4)*	*Tide (5)*	*Lavazza (5)*
Preminger (2)	*Duel[4] (2)*	*Zlatna džezva (2)*	*Staropramen (3)*	*Persil (4)*	*Jakobs (4)*
Tuzlansko (1)	*Bonux[5] (2)*	*Minea (2)*	*Stella Artoa (2)*	*Faks (4)*	*Illy (3)*
Gorštak (1)	*Plavi radion[6] (1)*	*Bel kafa (1)*	*Budweiser (1)*	*Lenor (2)*	*Franck (3)*

Table 2 – Pretest stage 2 (domestic and foreign brands)

4.3. Chosen brands

Nektar is a lager beer with long tradition from one of the oldest breweries in the country, founded in 1873. *Banjalučka pivara* is the brewery with the biggest installed production capacity in Bosnia and Herzegovina. *Nektar* is the best-selling beer in the country, with sales of 45.6 million liters of beer a year, which counts for 49.7% of total country beer production and a bit less than 20% of the BiH market share. This beer is exported to the regional countries such as Serbia, Croatia and Slovenia, but also in smaller volumes to other European countries, like Italy, Austria and Sweden and all the way to Australia and the USA. *Nektar* is recognized as a very successful and strong domestic brand and in 2018

[2] All nine participants mentioned *Nektar* brand for beer product category.
[3] *Grand kafa* is stated as a domestic brand, but is actually a foreign brand, originally created in Serbia, but now owned by Croatian company *Atlantic grupa*.
[4] *Duel* is stated as a domestic brand, but it is a foreign brand of Serbian company *Beohemija*.
[5] *Bonux* is a foreign brand, product of American multinational company *Procter & Gamble*.
[6] *Plavi radion* is a foreign brand, product of Croatian company *Saponia*.

it was placed in 100 "Must have" brands of Bosnia and Herzegovina. In 2018[7], the company had a total revenue of €23.6 million and EBITDA[8] of €1.3 million (Banjalucka pivara - Official financial reports, 2018). Since 2006, the company is majority owned by British investment fond *Altima Partners*.

Heinenken is produced by the Dutch brewing company *Heineken International* and it is introduced to the market in 1873. Today, it is one of the most famous beer brands in the world, being sold in more than 170 countries across the globe. In 2019, 41.8 thousand million liters of *Heineken* brand beer was sold worldwide, while the total sales of all beers owned by *Heineken International* was 241.4 thousand million liters in that year, generating the total revenue of €28.5 billion, with EBITDA of €5.7 billion (Heineken - Official financial reports, 2019). Assessment based on a few different sources and statements from officials, *Heineken* has around 15% of the market share in the country.

Violeta is a detergent brand from the BiH company of the same name, which is founded in 2002 for import, production and distribution of hygiene and food products. The company was practically an immediate success, managing to become a domestic market leader with around 50% market share in the industry before its 10th birthday. Today, the company is considered as a successful regional player, since it opened new factories and took a piece of the market share in the neighboring countries as well. Regarding just detergent products, the company is the biggest domestic producer. In 2018, *Violeta* company yielded €119.6 million in total revenue, with EBITDA of €16.2 million (LRC Business information and analyses, 2019).

Ariel is a British manufacturer brand of laundry detergents, owned by the American multinational company Procter & Gamble. It was introduced to the market in 1967 and it is P&G's flagship brand for the whole world with exception of the US. In 2019, P&G had a total revenue of €61.9 billion, with EBITDA of €3.6 billion (P&G's Anual report, 2019). *Ariel* is now for a long period present in BiH market, and considered as a high quality foreign product among detergents.

Omcafé is a coffee brand of the *Bom impeks* company, founded in 1990 in Bosnia and Herzegovina. *Omcafé* is established as a good domestic brand and now being in period of transition where it seeks for penetration to other markets, with emphasis on neighboring

[7] In moment of writing this study, the last published data were for the year 2018.
[8] EBITDA stands for Earnings before interest, taxes, depreciation, and amortization.

Serbian market. In 2019, *Bom impeks* company yielded €8.9 million in total revenue, with EBITDA of €1 million (LRC Business information and analyses, 2019).

Nescafé is a coffee brand made by a Swiss multinational company *Nestlé* and it was introduced to the market in 1938. Nowadays, *Nescafé is* reaching to customers in more than 180 countries and has become one of the world's favorite coffees. In 2019, *Nestlé* had a total revenue of €87.7 billion, with EBITDA of €15.4 billion (Nestlé - Annual review, 2019).

4.4. Data collection process

An online survey was chosen as a data collection method, since it provides easy and fast data gathering with relatively low costs, which is in line with recommendations from Babin and Zikmund (2016). Professional online software – SoSci Survey[9] was used in online survey creation.

Questionnaires were distributed using a snowball or referral sampling technique (Craig and Douglas, 2005), sending survey link to personal contacts, like friends, family and colleagues, who shared the link further. The link was sent via phone, social networks and email. A potential respondent had to be citizen of BiH or living in the country for at least the past five years and over 18 years old. Data collection process started on the 18th of March, 2020 and lasted until the 28th of March, 2020. During this time, link was opened 1294 times, ending with 406 completed questionnaires (see *Appendix C – Data analysis output / Responsive rate statistics*). Unfortunately, not all of these cases were valid, hence some of them ought to be excluded from the dataset. Three of them were deleted since answers were given in less than 3 minutes, because it is practically impossible to read all questions fully concentrated and answer on them for such short time, since generally respondents needed 9 minutes on average to complete the survey. Further, on the question about residence (*Have you been living in BiH for at least the past 5+ years?),* sixteen people answered negatively, meaning that they were not in the target group for this study, so these cases were also deleted. Finally, in four situations, participants answered negatively on question about brand awareness (*Do you know the brand from the picture?*) for both brands (domestic and foreign), and due to their lack of knowledge about the brands, their answers were irrelative and excluded too. Questionnaire was created in such

[9] https://www.soscisurvey.de/

way that participant needs to answer on all questions on the page to proceed further to the next page and eventually finish the survey, so there were no missing values in the data. At the end, the dataset consisted of 383 valid questionnaires. During this procedure, the randomization function was used to assign participants to one of three versions of the questionnaires, yielding to three equally distributed subsamples with 127, 126 and 130 cases for beer, detergent and coffee, respectively.

Opened questionnaires	1294
Completed	**406** *(31% response rate)*
Excluded	23 *(6%)*
Valid	**383** *(94%)*

Final dataset (3 questionnaires)		
Beer	**Detergent**	**Coffee**
127 *(33%)*	126 *(33%)*	130 *(34%)*

Table 3 – Data collection statistics

4.5. Measurement scales

Questionnaire was mostly created in a such way, that participant has seven choices from the degree of agreement to disagreement for every statement – Likert scale. Questionnaire had only few questions with simple yes/no or multiple choice answers and two open questions to state the brand country origin. Coding was created in a such way, that higher numbers on scales meant that participants are more xenocentric, ethnocentric and price sensitive, they have higher product category involvement and brand familiarity, they perceive brands as more competent and warmth, and that they have higher purchase intention for a given brand.

Xenocentric tendencies are measured with C-XENSCALE (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016). This is a ten-item scale, and it is constructed with two dimensions, perceived inferiority and social aggrandizement, both captured with five statements. Consumer ethnocentrism was measured with adopted five-item CETSCALE (Verlegh, 2007), originally developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987). The measures for the brand stereotypes' dimensions of warmth and competence are both four-item scales (Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic and Diamantopoulos, 2018) and they were adapted from the original scales of Fiske et al. (2002). To measure purchase intention, a three-item scale was used, previously developed by Putrevu and Lord (1994). For brand familiarity, the three-item semantic differential scale was used (Diamantopoulos et al., 2017). Product category involvement was measured with the five-item scale (Mittal, 1989). The last

construct in this model is price sensitivity, and it was captured with three-item scale developed by Wakefield and Inman (2003).

Despite the fact that all relevant constructs in the study were measured with already established scales in the literature, measurement reliability and validity procedures ought to be done (Field, 2013). To check the reliability for one-dimensional scales, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated, which is a measure of internal consistency (Cronbach, 1951). To measure reliability for multi-dimensional scales, a reliability procedure for linear composites was used (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Further, to assess scales' dimensionality, principal axis analysis with oblique rotation was carried out. Summarized data for all constructs are presented in *Table 4* and *Table 5* below.

Construct	Number of items	α[10]	KMO[11]	Number of dimensions	Variance explained	Determinant
Consumer Ethnocentrism	5	0.863	0.844	1	65.0%	0.097
Purchase Intention	3	0.888	0.726	1	81.9%	0.168
Brand Familiarity	3	0.865	0.714	1	79.1%	0.211
Product Category Involvement	5	0.931	0.867	1	78.4%	0.016
Price Sensitivity	3	0.806	0.714	1	72.1%	0.378

Table 4 – One-dimensional's construct reliability

Construct	Number of items	r[12]	KMO	Number of dimensions	Variance explained	Determinant
Consumer Xenocentrism	10	0.818	0.867	2	52.5%	0.057
Brand Stereotypes	8	0.928	0.915	2	80.3%	0.002

Table 5 – Two-dimensional's construct reliability

Since scales are considered reliable if measure for reliability (α or r) is above 0.7 (Babin and Zikmund, 2016; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994), all measurement scales in this study are highly reliable with values above 0.8 (for consumer Xenocentrism, Consumer Ethnocentrism, Purchase Intention, Brand Familiarity and Price Sensitivity) and above 0.9 (Brand Stereotypes and Product Category Involvement). Also, all-positive inter-item correlations for all constructs are showing that the items measure the same thing.

Principal axis analysis with oblique rotation for every construct gave us supporting results, since all Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin values, which is a measure for sample adequacy, were higher than 0.7 (Field, 2013). Also, the Bartlett's test of sphericity for all constructs

[10] α = Cronbach's Alpha
[11] KMO = Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin values
[12] *r* = reliability for linear combination

had p-value of 0.000, indicating that items within constructs are related and therefore suitable for structure detection, so the factor analysis is definitely useful for this dataset. This analysis showed that there are two constructs with two dimensions, which is in line with the theory, since consumer xenocentrism is constructed of "inferiority" and "social aggrandizement" (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016), while brand stereotypes are formed of "warmth" and "competence" (Fiske et al., 2002; Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic and Diamantopoulos, 2018). All other constructs are one-dimensional. Constructs are explaining from around 52% (Consumer Xenocentrism) up to almost 82% (Purchase Intention) of the common variance. Also, all determinants were greater than 0.00001, meaning that there was no problem with multicollinearity.

Overall, it can be concluded that all scales are suitable for measurement of the given constructs.

5. Data Analysis

This chapter shows the insight into obtained data from the questionnaires. Firstly, the sample information are presented, and later on, the main findings from testing hypotheses. The chapter is consisted of main characteristics, while the full report of the analysis with detailed tables is placed in the Appendices (see *Appendix C – Data analysis output*).

5.1. Sample description

The final sample consisted of 383 respondents. Overall, 54% participants were female (206 of 383) and 46% male (177 of 383).

The mean age of respondents was 36.7 years old with standard deviation of 10.9 years, and with span of 47 years, since the youngest participant was only 18, while the oldest was 65 years old. The age structure by gender is relatively equal, since female participants have 35.4 years on average with standard deviation of 10.5 years, while males have 38.2 years on average and standard deviation of 11.1 years. This age distribution balance by gender is proven by cross tabulation with Chi-square test ($\chi^2=7.718;\ p=0.102 > \alpha=0.05$) The biggest age group in the sample is one with 26-35 years and it counts for 47% of all respondents, following with group of 36-45 years with 24%, while three other groups are smaller and with relatively same size with 11%, 10% and 8% for 18-25 years, 56-65 years and 46-55 years, respectively (see *Figure 3a*).

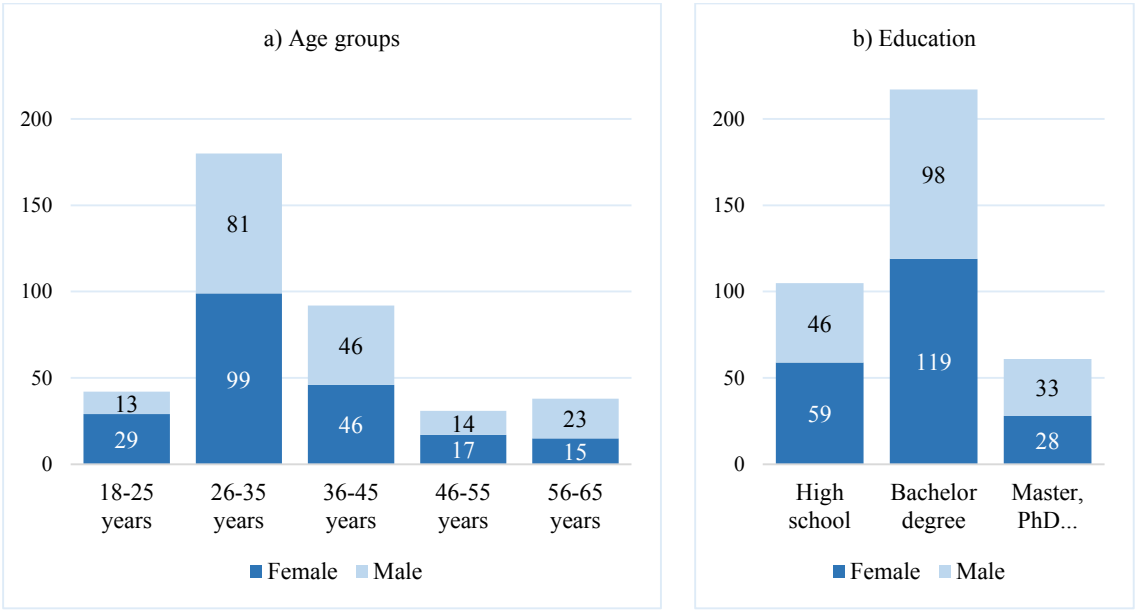


Figure 3 – Age groups and Education by Gender

A majority is well educated, where 27% have high school diploma, as much as 57% with Bachelor's and 16% with Master's, PhD of higher degree (see *Figure 3b*). Education by gender is equally distributed in the sample (Chi-square test: $\chi^2=1.866;\ p=0.393$).

Regarding occupation, a huge majority of 72% are employed for wages, around 9% are students, 9% self-employed, 6% unemployed and 4% retired (see *Figure 4a*). Occupation is not equally distributed by gender (Chi-square test: $\chi^2=13.361;\ p=0.010$), since there is a bigger number of women registered as unemployed and student, and a lower number as employed, self-employed and retired than expected. On contrary, there is a lower number of men registered as unemployed and student, and a higher number as employed than expected.

In respect of income, in overall sample 17% earn less than 300€, 31% are with income 301-600€, 24% with 601-900€, 13% with 901-1200€ and around 15% with more than 1200€ monthly (see *Figure 4b*). Interestingly, the income distribution by gender is not equal (Chi-square test: $\chi^2=30.376;\ p=0.000$), since 82% of women and 60% of men earn up to 900€, while only 18% women earn more than 900€, which is the case for 40% men. Furthermore, the men's monthly income is around 30% higher on average, and this difference in earnings between genders is statistically significant and proven by independent samples t-test (*sig. 2-tailed 0.000*).

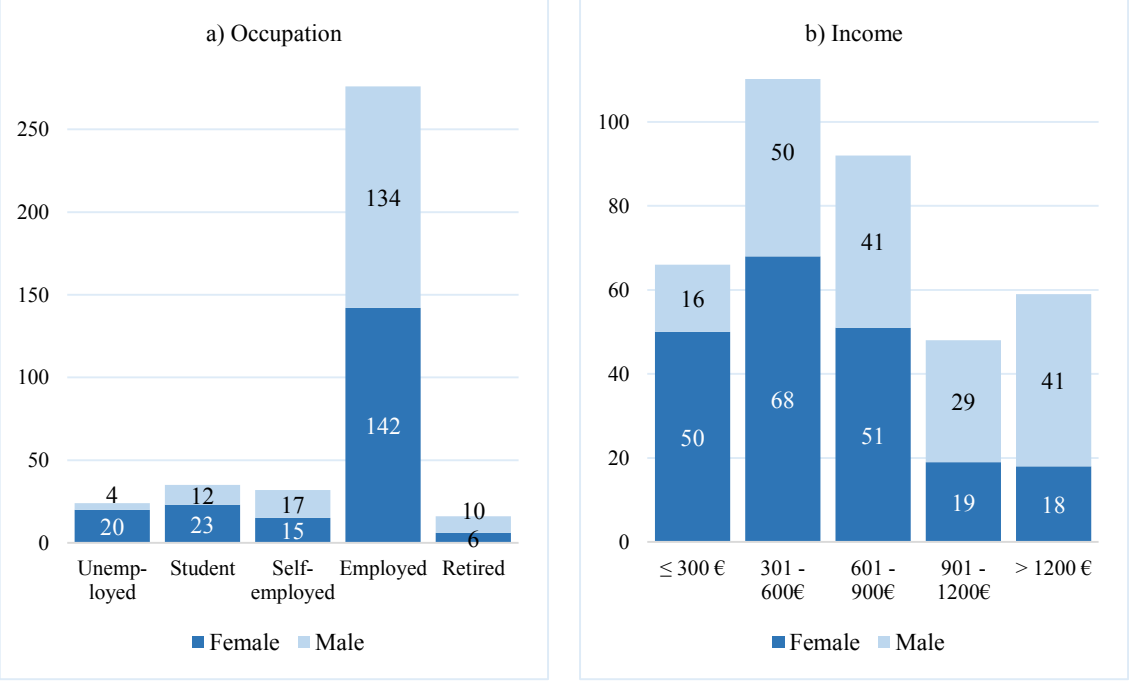


Figure 4 – Occupation and Income by Gender

In the *Table 6* below, all sample statistics are summarized and compared with official data for BiH population (Population census in BiH, 2013; Agency for Statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2019). We can see that gender and age are very similar in sample and population, and that population's average net income for 2019 is 470€ and the biggest income group in the sample is one with 301-600€ with 31%, but other demographics contain some differences. Namely, a bit higher level of education is reported in the sample due to snowball sampling procedure of data collection, resulting that respondents were mostly from urban areas. On contrary, there is still a huge amount of population of around 2 million people living in rural areas, where education level is pretty low especially for older women, e.g. 111266 women of 55+ years old (around 3% of total population) have no formal education at all (Population census in BiH, 2013). The second noticeable discrepancy between sample and population is in numbers of employed people (sample 72% vs. population 35%). Partially this could be explained with the fact that unemployment rate is higher in rural areas. The other reason is that a lot of people still work in grey economy and they are not registered as employed in official publications, but they state their employment in anonymous surveys like this.

	Sample	Population
Size	383 Respondents	3 531 159 Citizens
Gender	Female 54%; Male 46%	Female 51%; Male 49%
Age	Average 36.7 years old	Average 39.5 years old
Education	High school 27%; Bachelor 57%; Master, PhD or higher 16%	No education 5%; Elementary 27%; High school 53%; University 15%
Occupation	Unemployed 6%; Students 9%; Employed 72%; Self-employed 9%; Retired 4%	Unemployed 11%; Students 9%; Employed 35%; Housewife 15%; Retired 20%; Other 10%
Income	≤300€ 17%; 301-600€ 31%; 601-900€ 24%; 901-1200€ 13%; ≥1200€ 15%	Average net income for 2019 470€

Table 6 – Sample vs. Population statistics

The sample is consisted of three almost identical subsamples in size, where 127 participants filled out the first questionnaire version with beer brands, 126 the second one with detergents and 130 the third version with coffee brands. For further analysis, the demographics distribution balance between these three subsamples was tested. Results are showing that gender ($\chi^2=0.502;\ p=0.778$), age ($\chi^2=6.188;\ p=0.626$), education ($\chi^2=6.733;\ p=0.151$), occupation ($\chi^2=4.162;\ p=0.842$) and income ($\chi^2=11.526;\ p=0.174$) have all a non-significant Pearson Chi-square value (higher than 0.05), which means that there are no statistically significant differences in demographics across subsamples.

5.2. Constructs' statistics

All measurement scales are consisted of multiple items, and since they are all proven to be valid and reliable (see *4.5. Measurement scales*), for further analysis composite measures are calculated (an average value of the items).

The data from the *Table 7* show that people have more ethnocentric consumer tendencies (*CET=4.51*; 246 ethnocentric people in the sample[13]) than xenocentric (*CXEN=2.79*; 51 xenocentric and 324 not xenocentric). This difference is proved by paired samples t-test (*diff=-1,71*; *p=0.000*). To support the theory that CXEN and CET have opposite characteristic (Prince et al., 2016), the analysis showed significant negative correlation between constructs (*r=-0,131; p=0,0100*). However, in line with findings from Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2016) that these consumer dispositions could co-exist together, 27 people are scoring high on both measures (both *CET* and *CXEN* higher than 4). There is no influence of gender, age, education, occupation and income on consumer dispositions (all a non-significant Pearson Chi-square values in cross tabulation analysis).

Construct	Label	**Mean**	Mean < 4	Mean = 4	Mean > 4
Consumer Xenocentrism	*CXEN*	2.79	324	8	51
Perceived inferiority	*CXEN_PI*	*3.48*	*242*	*16*	*125*
Social aggrandizement	*CXEN_SA*	*2.11*	*365*	*5*	*13*
Consumer Ethnocentrism	*CET*	4.51	119	18	246

Table 7 – Consumer dispositions' statistics

Consumer xenocentrism is constructed of two dimensions, perceived inferiority and social aggrandizement, which are not equally strong in this case (*CXEN_PI=3.48 > CXEN_SA=2.11*). Respondents are showing consumer xenocentric tendencies mainly through one dimension – perceived inferiority of domestic products (about 33% of participants have *CXEN_PI* higher than 4). This means that they have tendency to more denigrate and undervalue domestic products, than to give a symbolic value to foreign products as way of enhancing their social status.

Generally, participants are more familiar with domestic than with foreign brands (*BF_D=5.60 > BF_F=5.15*), and they are also showing higher purchase intention for domestic than for foreign brands (*PI_D=5.13 > PI_F=4.58*). Furthermore, domestic

[13] Since the consumer ethnocentrism was measured with a 7-point Likert scale, where higher numbers indicate higher level of agreement with statements, people are considered ethnocentric if their CET value is higher than 4, undecided if it is equal to 4 and not ethnocentric if this value is lower than 4. The similar logic stands for all other constructs when their values are higher or lower than 4.

brands are stereotyped as more warm than foreign (*W_D=4.98 > W_F=4.48*). All these differences between domestic and foreign brands are statistically significant (proven by paired sample t-tests). However, foreign brands are only a bit more competent than domestic (*C_F=5.17 > C_D=5.05*), but this small difference is not statistically significant. Interestingly, both domestic and foreign brands are considered significantly more competent than warm (*C_D=5.05 > W_D=4.98; C_F=5.17 > W_F=4.48*), which is only partially in line with findings from Davvetas and Halkias (2019), who argue that global (in this case foreign) brands are being stereotyped as more competent than warm, while opposite stands for local (domestic) brands, being more warm than competent. Means of these constructs are presented in the *Table 8* below.

Construct	Label	Mean	
		Domestic	**Foreign**
Brand Familiarity	*BF*	5.60	5.15
Competence	*C*	5.05	5.17
Warmth	*W*	4.98	4.48
Purchase Intention	*PI*	5.13	4.58

Table 8 – Constructs' means for Domestic and Foreign brands

Nevertheless, to look more in detail, these constructs were observed from the angle of different product categories (see *Table 9*). Regarding beer, people are more familiar with domestic than with foreign brand, and they have higher intention to purchase it. Domestic beer brand is valued higher in warmth dimension than foreign, while foreign is considered as more competent than warm. As for detergents, domestic brand is more warm than foreign, and both domestic and foreign are viewed as more competent than warm. Concerning coffee, we have again a dominance in warmth dimension of domestic brand over foreign, including higher purchase intention for domestic than for foreign brand. Once more, both domestic and foreign brands are viewed as more competent than warm.

Construct's mean	Label	**Beer**		**Detergent**		**Coffee**	
		D[14]	F	D	F	D	F
Brand Familiarity	*BF*	6.28	5.03	5.18	5.23	5.33	5.19
Competence	*C*	5.06	5.27	5.09	5.14	5.01	5.11
Warmth	*W*	5.11	4.41	4.97	4.47	4.86	4.57
Purchase Intention	*PI*	5.50	4.38	4.80	4.81	5.09	4.55
Product Category Involvement	*PCI*	4.09		4.46		4.58	
Price Sensitivity	*PS*	3.16		3.66		2.71	

Table 9 – Constructs' means by Product category

[14] D = domestic and F = foreign

Additionally, participants have a slightly higher level of involvement on average for all product categories (*PCI_beer=4.09; PCI_det=4.46; PCI_cof=4.58*), with no statistically significant difference between these three product categories. On contrary, respondents have a lower level of sensitivity to changes in pricing for all three categories, with significance difference across all product categories, where coffee has the lowest and detergent the highest level of the price sensitivity (*PS_cof=2.71; PS_beer=3.16; PS_det=3.66*).

Awareness for all brands individually is extremely high, since the majority of respondents answered positively on the brand awareness question (*Do you know the brand from the picture?*). The lowest awareness has the domestic detergent brand *Violeta* with 95% of people stating that they are aware of the brand, while the highest has the foreign detergent brand *Ariel* with 100% of awareness.

Even though the brand awareness was high for all brands, participants had different responses regarding statement about brand's country of origin (see *Table 10*). Respondents had much more clear picture about origin for domestic than for foreign brands. For domestic beer brand (*Nektar*) 98% stated the country of origin correctly, for 93% of them it was extremely easy to state the country and 85% of them were 100% confident that they stated the country correctly. Further, about 80% stated correctly the origin for domestic detergent (*Violeta*) and coffee (*Omcafé*), but with a bit lower level of confidence than for domestic beer. Respondents stated correctly the origin of foreign beer (*Heineken*) in 7 of 10 cases, where for around 60% of them it was easy or extremely easy to name the country. The problems were with two other foreign product categories. For coffee (*Nescafé*) 42% and for detergent (*Ariel*) only 27% stated the origin country correctly with relatively low level of confidence, where one of three respondents expressed some level of difficulty to name the country. Interestingly, the most common error in stating country of origin for domestic brands was Serbia, while for foreign brands it was Germany. This could be explained with Serbia being the biggest country in the Balkan's region, while Germany is the biggest economy in Europe, where both countries have a long historical, cultural and economic connections with Bosnia and Herzegovina. There is a presence of many brands from these countries on the BiH market, since these two countries are among three most important trade partners of BiH (Agency for Statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2019).

Product category		Country of origin	
		Correct	Incorrect
Domestic	Beer	98% *(BiH)*	2% *(Serbia 2%)*
	Detergent	82% *(BiH)*	18% *(Serbia 14%, Croatia 2%, Germany 2%)*
	Coffee	78% *(BiH)*	22% *(Serbia 16%, Italy 3%, Brazil 2%)*
Foreign	Beer	72% *(Netherlands)*	28% *(Germany 20%, Austria 2%, Denmark 2%)*
	Detergent	27% *(UK 11%, USA 16%)*	73% *(Germany 41%, Austria 6%, Czech 6%)*
	Coffee	42% *(Switzerland)*	58% *(Germany 12%, Serbia 9%, Brazil 7%, Italy 6%)*

Table 10 – Brands' country of origin

To investigate the influence of brand origin, a new dummy variable was created, which contained information about stated country of origin, difficulty to state the country and confidence about the statement. Respondents, who stated the country correctly, reported that it was easy for them to state the country (marked numbers from 5 to 7 on the difficulty/easy scale) and had high level of confidence that the stated country is the correct answer (above 70% of confidence), were all grouped on the one side (*origin=yes*), while all other where in the other group (*origin=no*). This variable was calculated for domestic and foreign brands making possible to measure differences between these two groups. In the *Table 11*, the data about influence of origin on different constructs are given for the whole sample, as well as for xenocentric and ethnocentric respondents.

Construct's mean	Label	Sample		Xenocentric		Ethnocentric	
		Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Competence domestic	*C_D*	5.17	4.71	*5.11*	*4.64*	5.29	4.75
Warmth domestic	*W_D*	5.11	4.59	*5.22*	*4.56*	5.24	4.63
Purchase Intention domestic	*PI_D*	5.38	4.42	*5.20*	*4.83*	5.55	4.57
Competence foreign	*C_F*	5.54	5.00	*5.83*	*5.21*	5.59	5.01
Warmth foreign	*W_F*	*4.57*	*4.44*	*4.89*	*4.61*	*4.67*	*4.47*
Purchase Intention foreign	*PI_F*	*4.74*	*4.51*	*5.63*	*4.98*	*4.71*	*4.44*

Table 11 – Country of origin and construct's mean[15]

Consumer xenocentrics have a bit higher mean's values for foreign than domestic brands, with no significant difference between groups who know the country of origin and those who do not. This is perfectly in line with the prior literature on effects of consumer xenocentrism on foreign and domestic brands (Diamantopoulos, Davydova and Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, 2018; Balabanis, Stathopoulou and Qiao, 2019) and tendencies of xenocentric person to express negation of its own, without specific preference for any other foreign country (Kent and Burnight, 1951). On contrary, ethnocentrics have a clear

[15] Mean number written in italic are not significantly different.

and strong preference for domestic products (Klein, 2002), hence ones who did recognize domestic brands, expressed significantly higher levels in brand stereotyping and purchase intentions for them.

5.3. Main analysis

5.3.1. Regression setup

The central topic of this study is exploring the mediating role of brand stereotyping between consumer dispositions and purchase intention. Hence, for the main part of the analysis, the parallel mediation Model 4 of the PROCESS routine was used, with two mediators (Hayes, 2017).

This regression model (see *Figure 5*) is consisted of one independent variable (*X*), two mediators (*M1* and *M2*) and one dependent variable (*Y*), with possibility of adding few covariates (control variables; *CV*). This setup gives an opportunity to check the effects of independent variable on the both mediators ($X \rightarrow M1 = a_1$ and $X \rightarrow M2 = a_2$), then the effects of mediators on the dependent variable ($M1 \rightarrow Y = b_1$ and $M2 \rightarrow Y = b_2$), as well as the direct effect ($X \rightarrow Y = c'$) and the indirect effects ($X \rightarrow M1 \rightarrow Y = c_1 = a_1 \times b_1$ and $X \rightarrow M2 \rightarrow Y = c_2 = a_2 \times b_2$) of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Additionally, all this is feasible with controlling for few other possibly effective variables ($CV_i \rightarrow Y = d_i$).

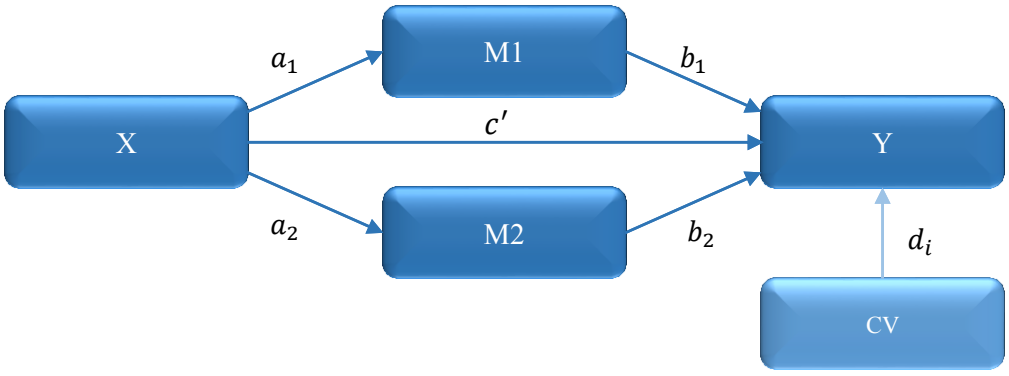


Figure 5 – Parallel mediation Model 4 with two mediators (PROCESS routine)

In this study, the independent variable is a consumer disposition (consumer xenocentrism or consumer ethnocentrism), mediators are brand stereotype dimensions (warmth and competence), while dependent variable is purchase intention. Having two different

independent variables, and domestic and foreign brands, to test all hypotheses using this setup, four regressions were executed in total:

1. Consumer Xenocentrism and Domestic brands (*CXEN* → *BS_D* → *PI_D*)
2. Consumer Xenocentrism and Foreign brands (*CXEN* → *BS_F* → *PI_F*)
3. Consumer Ethnocentrism and Domestic brands (*CET* → *BS_D* → *PI_D*)
4. Consumer Ethnocentrism and Foreign brands (*CET* → *BS_F* → *PI_F*)

Control variables are the same in every setup, and they are brand familiarity (*BF*), product category involvement (*PCI*) and price sensitivity (*PS*). Domestic (*BF_D*) and foreign brand familiarity (*BF_F*) are used with domestic and foreign brands, respectively.

5.3.2. Statistical assumptions

To assure accurate and meaningful results, before running the main regressions, some relevant statistical assumptions were tested. The sample size (*N=383*) is a sufficiently large and all variables in the model are measured on an interval scale. All other assumptions such as independence of observations, linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, outliers and normality are checked for every regression individually (for details, see *Appendix C – Data analysis output / Statistical assumptions*).

Due to the values of 1.868, 2.020, 1.847 and 2.237 for Durbin-Watson test for the four regressions, respectively, and recommendations from Field (2013) that this test statistic close to 2 has meaning that the residuals are uncorrelated, the assumption of independent errors is met. Further, the collinearity assumption is also met, since all values in all four regressions for Tolerance are higher than 0.2 and all values for VIF are significantly smaller than 10 (Field, 2013). The scatterplots for the standardized residuals and the standardized predicted values showed a random displacement of scores, with no systematic pattern or clustering, meaning that the assumption of homoscedasticity is also met. Moreover, the frequency histograms of regression standardized residuals are similar to the normal distribution (bell-shaped curve). Also, the most of the data lay on or near the 45-degree line on P-P plots of regression standardized residuals, meaning that the assumption of normality is met. With absence of strong correlations in a correlation matrices (above 0.8 or 0.9), we can state that the assumption of no multicollinearity is met. Finally, investigation for possible outliers showed that the regression models are fairly reliable and have not been unduly influenced by some cases (e.g. no outliers).

5.3.3. Findings

After all assumptions were met (see previous section *5.3.2. Statistical Assumptions*), the regressions were executed with 10000 bootstrap resamples and 95% percentile-based confidence intervals to test the research hypotheses.

The first regression (see *Figure 6*) tested the influence of consumer xenocentrism (*CXEN*) on domestic brands' purchase intention (*PI_D*) through mediation role of warmth (*W_D*) and competence (*C_D*) dimensions of the given domestic brands. As previously mentioned, control variables are domestic brand familiarity (*BF_D*), product category involvement (*PCI*) and price sensitivity (*PS*).

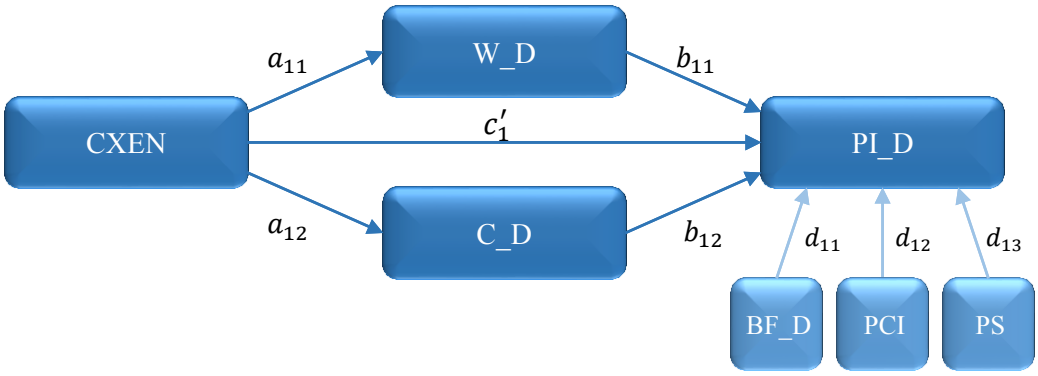


Figure 6 – Regression 1 (Consumer xenocentrism & Domestic brands)

The results from this regression tested hypotheses *H3a* (*W_D* → *PI_D*, i.e. the path b_{11}), *H3c* (*C_D* → *PI_D*, path b_{12}), *H4c* (*CXEN* → *W_D* → *PI_D*, path $c_{11} = a_{11} \times b_{11}$) and *H4d* (*CXEN* → *C_D* → *PI_D*, path $c_{12} = a_{12} \times b_{12}$). This model explained 29.7% of the variance in the outcome variable. Consumer xenocentrism has a negative effect on both brand stereotypes dimensions for domestic brands, while only the effect on the competence is statistically significant (a_{12}*=-0.1128; p=0.0412*). The direct effect of CXEN on the purchase intention for domestic products is negative, but not statistically significant. The effects of warmth (b_{11}*=0.2482*; *p=0.0060*) and competence (b_{12}*=0.3822*; *p=0.0000*) on purchase intention for domestic brands are both positive and significant, providing valid support for hypotheses *H3a* and *H3c*. Finally, the indirect effects of the CXEN on the purchase intention for domestic brands through warmth (*LLCI=-0.0493*; *ULCI=0.0198*) or competence (*LLCI=-0.1081*; *ULCI=0.0015*) are not significant, meaning that the hypotheses *H4c* and *H4d* are not supported. Also, domestic brand familiarity is found to be significant and positive predictor of domestic purchase intention (d_{11}*=0.4654; p=0.0000*), while other control variables had no significant effect.

To capture the real effect of the model, the effect size is calculated, which is an objective and standardized measure of the magnitude of observed effect (Field, 2013). This measure give us an opportunity to compare effects of different models or variables (even across different studies). Cohen's f^2 is a measure of effect size used for a multiple regression, where values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, indicate small, medium, and large effect, respectively (Cohen, 1988). This particular regression has a large effect size ($f^2=0.42$), while individual standardized effect size of consumer xenocentrism on purchase intention for domestic brands is not calculated, since this effect is not significant.

The second regression (see *Figure 7*) checked the influence of consumer xenocentrism (*CXEN*) on foreign brands' purchase intention (*PI_F*) through mediation role of brand stereotypes dimensions of the given brands (*W_F* – warmth and *C_F* – competence).

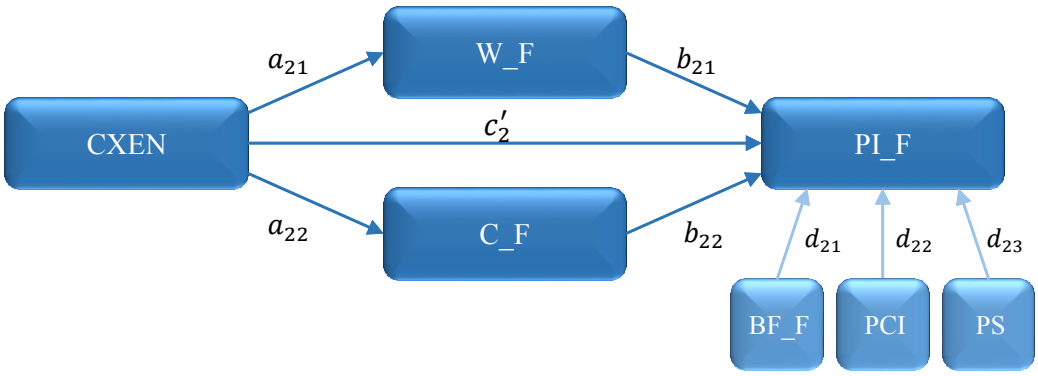


Figure 7 – Regression 2 (Consumer xenocentrism & Foreign brands)

This regression tested hypotheses *H1a* (*CXEN* → *W_F*, a_{21}), *H1b* (*CXEN* → *C_F*, a_{22}), then *H3b* (*W_F* → *PI_F*, b_{21}), *H3d* (*C_F* → *PI_F*, b_{22}), *H4a* (*CXEN* → *W_F* → *PI_F*, $c_{21} = a_{21} \times b_{21}$) and *H4b* (*CXEN* → *C_F* → *PI_F*, $c_{22} = a_{22} \times b_{22}$). The regression explained 19.2% of the variance of the purchase intention for the foreign brands. Consumer xenocentrism has a positive and significant effect on the both stereotype dimensions for foreign brands, warmth (a_{21}*=0.1212; p=0.0304*) and competence (a_{22}*=0.1174; p=0.0239*). Hence, we can say that hypotheses *H1a* and *H1b* are statistically supported, and can be accepted. Further, the effects of warmth and competence dimensions on purchase intention for foreign brands are both positive and significant (b_{21}*=0.2290* and *p=0.0031*; b_{22}*=0.2263* and *p=0.0066*), meaning that hypotheses *H3b* and *H3d* are also supported. The total effect of CXEN on the purchase intention for foreign brands is positive and significant, meaning that if other variables are constant, with increase in CXEN, the purchase intention will increase as well. The CXEN effects purchase intentions either directly (c_2'*=0.1582*; *p=0.0291*) or indirectly through

warmth (c_{21}=*0.0277*; *LLCI=0.0012*; *ULCI=0.0636*) or competence (c_{22}=*0.0266*; *LLCI=0.0004*; *ULCI=0.0637*). The indirect significant effects are showing that brand stereotypes dimensions are having a mediating role between consumer xenocentrism and purchase intention for foreign brands, therefore supporting *H4a* and *H4b* hypotheses. Regarding control variables, foreign brand familiarity (d_{21}=*0.2837; p=0.0000*) and product category involvement (d_{22}=*0.1372; p=0.0018*) have a positive and significant effect on the outcome variable. The second regression has a higher medium effect size (f^2=*0.24*), while CXEN as individual predictor has a small effect size (f^2=*0.01*).

The effect of CET on domestic brands' purchase intention (*PI_D*) through mediation role of brand stereotypes (*W_D* and *C_D*), was tested with the third regression (see *Figure 8*).

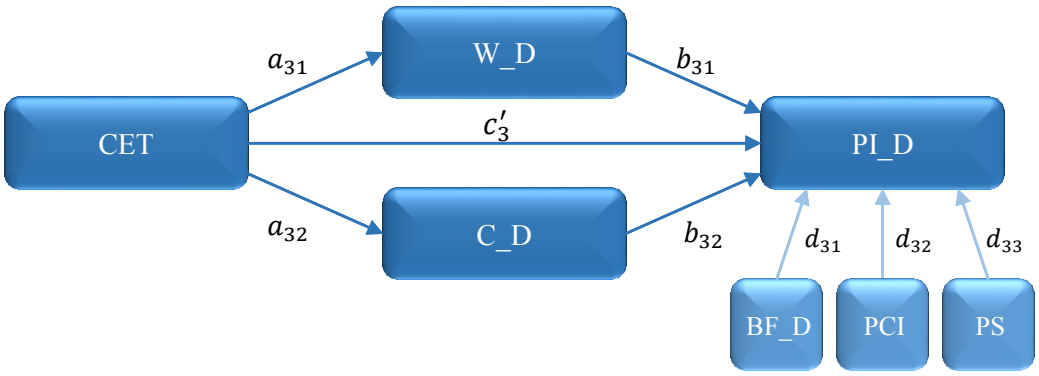


Figure 8 – Regression 3 (Consumer ethnocentrism & Domestic brands)

The third regression tested hypotheses *H2a* (*CET → W_D*, a_{31}), *H2b* (*CET → C_D*, a_{32}), *H5a* (*CET → W_D → PI_D*, c_{31}) and *H5b* (*CET → C_D → PI_D*, c_{32}). Also, this setup gave us another audit on *H3a* (*W_D → PI_D*) and *H3c* (*C_D → PI_D*). The total model was significant and explained 32% of the variance of the dependent variable (*PI_D*). Consumer ethnocentrism has a positive and significant effect on warmth (a_{31}=*0.1428; p=0.0002*) and competence (a_{32}=*0.1238; p=0.0012*) dimensions for domestic brands, thus supporting *H2a* and *H2b* hypotheses. The direct effect of the consumer ethnocentrism on the purchase intention for domestic brands is positive and significant (c_3'=*0.1108*; *p=0.0085*), meaning that with increase in CET by one unit, the purchase intention for domestic brands will increase by 0.1108. Moreover, CET has a significant and positive indirect effect on purchase intention through warmth (c_{31}=*0.0311*; *LLCI=0.0040*; *ULCI=0.0711*) or through competence (c_{32}=*0.0482*; *LLCI=0.0143*; *ULCI=0.0940*). This result proves that warmth and competence have the function of mediators in this model, giving a valid support for hypotheses *H5a* and *H5b*. The effects of both brand stereotypes dimensions on purchase intention for domestic brands are

positive and significant (b_{31}=*0.2178* and *p=0.0152; b_{32}=0.3894* and *p=0.0000*), providing a valid support for hypotheses *H3a* and *H3c*, once again. Lastly, domestic brand familiarity is once more found to be a significant and positive predictor of domestic purchase intention (d_{31}=*0.4597; p=0.0000*), while other control variables had no significant impact. For this regression, the effect size is large (f^2=*0.47*), while CET as individual predictor of domestic purchase intention has a small effect size (f^2=*0.01*).

The fourth and the last regression that was executed, (see *Figure 9*) tested the influence of consumer ethnocentrism (*CET*) on purchase intention for foreign brands (*PI_F*) through mediation role of warmth (*W_F*) and competence (*C_F*).

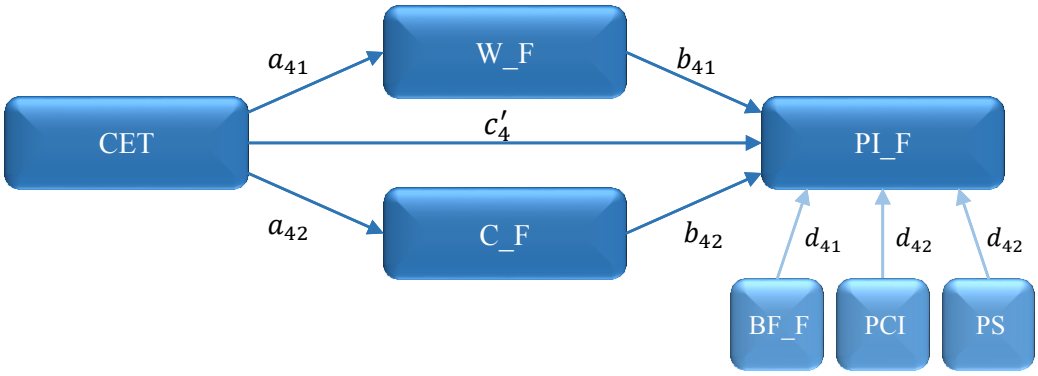


Figure 9 – Regression 4 (Consumer ethnocentrism & Foreign brands)

This regression model tested hypotheses *H5c* (*CET → W_F → PI_F*, i.e. the path c_{41}) and *H5d* (*CET → C_F → PI_F*, c_{42}), while giving us another checkup on hypotheses *H3b* (*W_F → PI_F*) and *H3d* (*C_F → PI_F*). This regression explained 18.4% of the variance of the purchase intention for foreign products. Consumer ethnocentrism does not have a significant effect on warmth (*p=0.2299*) or competence (*p=0.2211*) dimensions for foreign brands. Further, CET has only a direct significant negative effect on the purchase intention for foreign brands (c'_4=*-0.1095*; *p=0.0292*), while indirect effects through brand stereotypes dimensions are not significant. This means that the mediation role of warmth and competence are irrelevant in this setup, hence the hypotheses *H5c* and *H5d* are not supported. The effects of warmth (b_{41}=*0.2578*; *p=0.0009*) and competence (b_{42}=*0.2185*; *p=0.0090*) on the purchase intention for foreign products are both positive, so hypotheses *H3b* and *H3d* are supported once again. Finally, foreign brand familiarity (d_{41}=*0.2871; p=0.0000*) and product category involvement (d_{42}=*0.1529; p=0.0005*) are significant and positive predictors of foreign purchase intention, while price sensitivity had no significant impact. The fourth regression has a higher medium effect size (f^2=*0.23*), while CET as individual predictor of foreign purchase intention has a small effect size (f^2=*0.01*).

In total, this analysis yielded with twelve supported hypotheses and four being not supported (see *Table 12*). Detailed SPSS output from all regressions is available in Appendices (see *Appendix C – Data analysis output / Findings*).

	Hypothesis	Outcome
H1a:	Consumer xenocentrism is positively related to the warmth dimension of the foreign brands.	Supported
H1b:	Consumer xenocentrism is positively related to the competence dimension of the foreign brands.	Supported
H2a:	Consumer ethnocentrism is positively related to the warmth dimension of the domestic brands.	Supported
H2b:	Consumer ethnocentrism is positively related to the competence dimension of the domestic brands.	Supported
H3a:	Warmth dimension is positively related to the purchase intention for a given domestic brand.	Supported
H3b:	Warmth dimension is positively related to the purchase intention for a given foreign brand.	Supported
H3c:	Competence dimension is positively related to the purchase intention for a given domestic brand.	Supported
H3d:	Competence dimension is positively related to the purchase intention for a given foreign brand.	Supported
H4a:	Consumer xenocentrism is positively related with purchase intention for foreign brands, through mediating role of warmth dimension of brand stereotyping.	Supported
H4b:	Consumer xenocentrism is positively related with purchase intention for foreign brands, through mediating role of competence dimension of brand stereotyping.	Supported
H4c:	Consumer xenocentrism is negatively related with purchase intention for domestic brands, through mediating role of warmth dimension of brand stereotyping.	Not supported
H4d:	Consumer xenocentrism is negatively related with purchase intention for domestic brands, through mediating role of competence dimension of brand stereotyping.	Not supported
H5a:	Consumer ethnocentrism is positively related with purchase intention for domestic brands, through mediating role of warmth dimension of brand stereotyping.	Supported
H5b:	Consumer ethnocentrism is positively related with purchase intention for domestic brands, through mediating role of competence dimension of brand stereotyping.	Supported
H5c:	Consumer ethnocentrism is negatively related with purchase intention for foreign brands, through mediating role of warmth dimension of brand stereotyping.	Not supported
H5d:	Consumer ethnocentrism is negatively related with purchase intention for foreign brands, through mediating role of competence dimension of brand stereotyping.	Not supported

Table 12 – Hypotheses testing outcome

6. Discussion

This section brings together the reviewed literature, hypothesized statements and all analyzed data, and tries to come out with some meaningful statements about significant findings.

The results from this study are in line with the premise that consumer ethnocentrism and consumer xenocentrism are in negative correlation (Prince et al., 2016), and that their effects on consumer behavior are going in opposite directions. Ethnocentric consumers stereotyped domestic brands a bit higher than xenocentric ones in both dimensions, having also higher purchase intention for domestic brands (see *Figure 10*). On contrary, xenocentric consumers stereotyped foreign brands higher, reporting higher purchase intention for those brands as well (see also *Figure 10*). Even though, some of these differences are not statistically significant, they all together perfectly depict the direction of influence of both consumer dispositions on consumer behaviour.

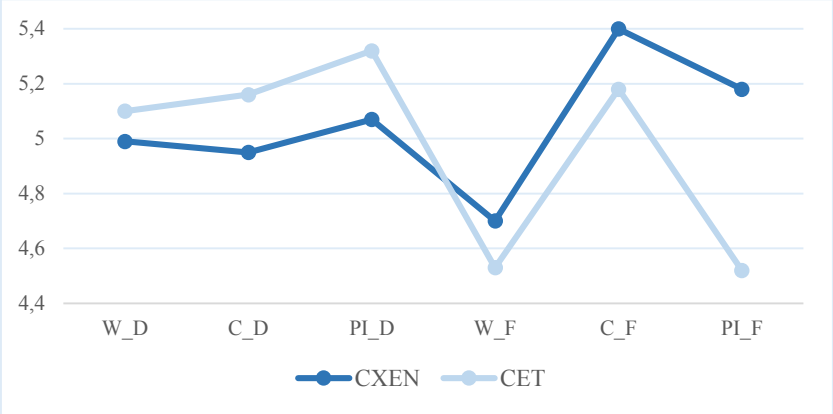


Figure 10 – Xenocentric vs. Ethnocentric consumers

On the one hand, consumer xenocentrism has a positive and significant effect on both stereotype dimensions for foreign brands (*H1a* and *H1b*, both supported). Also, the direct and indirect effect of CXEN on the purchase intentions for foreign brands is positive and significant (*H4a* and *H4b*, both supported), which is in line with findings from Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2016) and Diamantopoulos, Davydova and Arslanagic-Kalajdzic (2018). On the other hand, consumer ethnocentrism has a positive and significant effect on warmth and competence for domestic brands (*H2a* and *H2b*, both supported). Further, CET has the positive direct and indirect effects on the purchase intentions for domestic brands (*H5a* and *H5b*, both supported), which corresponds to results of Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar and Diamantopoulos (2015). Therefore, we can argue that consumer xenocentrism

is a good predictor of the consumer behavior regarding foreign products, while consumer ethnocentrism captures their behavior in relation to domestic products.

Interestingly, consumer xenocentrism has a negative significant effect only on the dimension of competence for domestic brands, while the direct, as well as indirect effect of CXEN on the purchase intention for domestic products is not statistically significant (*H4c* and *H4d*, both not supported). Consequently, we could argue that this consumer dispositions is not available to explain consumer behavior regarding domestic products at all. Moreover, consumer ethnocentrism does not have a significant effect on warmth or competence for foreign brands. CET has only a small direct negative effect on the purchase intention for foreign brands, which is similar to findings from Kaynak and Kara (2002), while the indirect effects through brand stereotypes dimensions are not significant (*H5c* and *H5d*, both not supported). This means that consumer ethnocentrism cannot fully explain consumer behavior for foreign products, which is already argued in previous literature (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004).

The effect of brand stereotyping dimensions on purchase intention are always significant and positive, regardless to the domestic or foreign brand origin, meaning that the higher levels of warmth and competence always result in higher purchase intention for a given brand (*H3a*, *H3b*, *H3c* and *H3d*, all supported). Moreover, the warmth and competence play a role of a mediator only in two cases, between consumer xenocentrism and purchase intentions for foreign brands (*H4a* and *H4b*, both supported) and between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions for domestic brands (*H5a* and *H5b*, both supported).

Regarding control variables, brand familiarity is found to be significant and positive predictor of purchase intentions for domestic and foreign brands, which verifies results from prior research (Laroche, Kim and Zhou, 1996). Product category involvement shown to have a positive and significant effect only on the purchase intention for foreign brands, while price sensitivity had no significant impact on the purchase intention regardless to the brand origin. Insignificance of the last control variable could be explained with the low level of sensitivity for changes in pricing for all three product categories that were used in the study.

The analysis was conducted on a sample of 383 respondents from Bosnia and Herzegovina, who showed to be a fairly representative sample of the country's population. The products that were used in the study are convenience goods or utilitarian

products, such as beer, detergent and coffee. Hence, the conclusions from this study could be generalized to the whole population with attention for used product categories, since there is a possibility that these conclusions do not stand for all products, like luxury goods or hedonic products (Crowley, Spangenberg and Hughes, 1992; Lim and Ang, 2008).

7. Conclusion

The final chapter of this paper will present possible theoretical as well as managerial implications of the findings, and provide information about limitations of the study and suggestions for the future research.

7.1. Theoretical Implications

This is the first study so far to put in relation brand stereotyping with consumer xenocentrism and consumer ethnocentrism. Addressing this gap, the study especially broadens knowledge about xenocentrism phenomenon, which is perceived as under researched in international marketing literature (Mueller, Broderick and Kipnis, 2009; Bartsch, Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2016).

Brand stereotypes were tested for their mediating role between two consumer dispositions and purchase intentions. Warmth and competence, as brand stereotypes dimensions, indeed play a significant role as mediators between mentioned variables, but only in the setup where consumer xenocentrism impacts consumer's behavior regarding foreign brands and where consumer ethnocentrism impacts behavior towards domestic brands. Positive relations between xenocentric tendencies and foreign brands or ethnocentric tendencies and domestic brands are already known in the literature, so these results besides reveling new information, also verify some previous findings.

Further, measuring consumers' xenocentric tendencies with C-XENSCALE (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016) gave another positive scale validation in the marketing research area.

7.2. Managerial Implications

Since the study was conducted in Bosnia and Herzegovina, for the practical implications of the findings are mainly interested managements of domestic and foreign companies who see this country as a target market. Also, the results from the study may be relevant for some other similar countries in size and level of development, especially in the region.

For example, the majority of 64% respondents shown to have high ethnocentric tendencies, which are proven to have a positive influence on brand stereotyping and purchase intentions for domestic brands and negative on purchase intentions for foreign brands. Local companies need to create consumer value and try to exploit this advantage on the market (Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010), but it is not enough to emphasize their domestic origin and create strong relationship with the local communities. Many domestic brands already have a high level of awareness, brand familiarity and they dominate foreign brands in warmth dimension (as shown in the study), but still many foreign brands are market leaders in their product categories. For instance, around 60-70% of food products are imported (Agency for Statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2019). Domestic brands obviously need to improve their level of competence, product quality and price positioning, developing an innovative perspective, a global and local vision (Ger, 1999).

To support remarks from Batra et al. (2000) that we can expect higher levels of consumer xenocentrism in developing countries, a little more than 13% of respondents indeed have xenocentric tendencies. Consumer xenocentrics are dispersed across the whole sample with no influence of any demographic characteristics, meaning that they are less noticeable, but still form a substantial part of all consumers. Formation of xenocentric feelings could have many possible causes. Bosnia and Herzegovina went through a very tough path during 90's, where the civil war and embargo took place, hence many people felt isolated, inferior and frustrated, which are all roots of xenocentrism, according to Kent and Burnight (1951). Respondents expressed their consumer xenocentric tendencies predominantly through perceived inferiority of domestic products, meaning that regardless to objective quality of products on the market, foreign brands are in an obvious advantage. Foreign brands ought to emphasize their competence and dominance in quality, and communicate associations of prestige (Steenkamp, Batra and Alden, 2003), as long with enhancing their connections with local communities and possible improvements and adaptations of their products to local needs (Swoboda, Pennemann and Taube, 2012).

Regarding specific brand origin, analysis showed that consumer xenocentrics do not care from which foreign country the product comes, e.g. the knowledge or absence of knowledge about country of origin does not play an important role. Xenocentric are more drawn to the "foreignness" of the product, hence foreign companies could simply label their products as "imported" rather than "made in…". They should perform foreign positioning in the market, communicating high quality, prestige and foreign lifestyle to

their potential consumers (Alden, Steenkamp and Batra, 1999). However, if they want to win the ethnocentric market segment, they could perhaps open a factory in the country, create new jobs and play on the card that foreign quality product is now produced in local community and consequently the product receives some "domestic" characteristics. They could also try to develop new local brands (Schuiling and Kapferer, 2004). On contrary, domestic companies have an opposite market strategy, to try to disguise themselves and pretend to be a foreign brand (e.g. foreign name, different market positioning, higher prices, quality packaging) and in that way to approach to xenocentric consumers. For ethnocentric consumer's segment, domestic companies obviously need to have some campaign ongoing about appropriateness to buy domestic product (e.g. "homemade", "let's buy local").

7.3. Limitations and Future research

The study was conducted in Bosnia and Herzegovina, a small and developing country in Europe, and the findings may be relevant only for this or some other similar countries, but the generalizations and comparisons to the western developed countries or some other larger developing and emerging economies, may be very questionable. Recommendations for future researchers are to replicate the study in a different environment, e.g. developed country, or to conduct a cross country research.

Brands that were used in the study belong to three different product categories (beer, detergent and coffee), but still they are all convenience goods, so the obtained results should be valid also for other often and wide-used product, but not to ones that are perceived as hedonistic or luxury goods. Also, all brands were leaders in their markets, so the consumers are to some level biased with previous usage and already established attitudes towards these brands. So, the suggestions for the future investigations would be inclusion of high-end, high-tech and luxury brands. Also, in another setup it would be interesting to see how consumers will react to less salient brands.

References

Aaker, J.L. (1997) 'Dimensions of brand personality', *Journal of marketing research*, vol. 34, no. 3, pp. 347-356.

Aaker, J.L., Garbinsky, E.N. and Vohs, K.D. (2012) 'Cultivating admiration in brands: Warmth, competence, and landing in the "golden quadrant"', *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 191-194.

Aaker, J., Vohs, K.D. and Mogilner, C. (2010) 'Nonprofits are seen as warm and for-profits as competent: Firm stereotypes matter', *Journal of Consumer Research*, vol. 37, no. 2, pp. 224-237.

Agency for Statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina (2019), [Online], Available: http://www.bhas.gov.ba.

Alba, J.W. and Hutchinson, J.W. (1987) 'Dimensions of consumer expertise', *Journal of consumer research*, vol. 13, no. 4, pp. 411-454.

Alden, D.L., Steenkamp, J.-B.E. and Batra, R. (1999) 'Brand positioning through advertising in Asia, North America, and Europe: The role of global consumer culture', *Journal of marketing*, vol. 63, no. 1, pp. 75-87.

Alden, D.L., Steenkamp, J.-B.E. and Batra, R. (2006) 'Consumer attitudes toward marketplace globalization: Structure, antecedents and consequences', *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 227-239.

Allport, G.W. (1954) *The nature of prejudice*, Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Antonetti, P. and Maklan, S. (2016) 'Hippies, greenies, and tree huggers: How the "warmth" stereotype hinders the adoption of responsible brands', *Psychology & Marketing*, vol. 33, no. 10, pp. 796-81.

Babin, B.J. and Zikmund, W.G. (2016) *Exploring marketing research*, 11th edition, Boston, MA : Cengage Learning.

Balabanis, G. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2004) 'Domestic country bias, country-of-origin effects, and consumer ethnocentrism: a multidimensional unfolding approach', *Journal of the academy of marketing science*, vol. 32, no. 1, pp. 80-95.

Balabanis, G. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2016) 'Consumer xenocentrism as determinant of foreign product preference: A system justification perspective', *Journal of International Marketing*, vol. 24, no. 3, pp. 58-77.

Balabanis, G., Diamantopoulos, A., Mueller, R.D. and Melewar, T.C. (2001) 'The impact of nationalism, patriotism and internationalism on consumer ethnocentric tendencies', *Journal of international business studies*, vol. 32, no. 1, pp. 157-175.

Balabanis, G., Stathopoulou, A. and Qiao, J. (2019) 'Favoritism Toward Foreign and Domestic Brands: A Comparison of Different Theoretical Explanations', *Journal of International Marketing*, p. 1069031X19837945.

Banjalucka pivara - Official financial reports (2018), [Online], Available: https://www.banjaluckapivara.com/s/BLPV-izvjetaj-za-2018-godinu-sa-miljenjem-revizora.pdf.

Bargh, J.A. (1997) 'The Automaticity of Everyday Life', in Wyer, R.S.J. (ed.) *Advances in Social Cognition*, 10th edition, Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Baron, R.M. and Kenny, D.A. (1986) 'The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations', *Journal of personality and social psychology*, vol. 6, no. 51, pp. 1173-1182.

Bartsch, F., Riefler, P. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2016) 'A taxonomy and review of positive consumer dispositions toward foreign countries and globalization', *Journal of International Marketing*, vol. 24, no. 1, pp. 82-110.

Batra, R., Ramaswamy, V., Alden, D.L., Steenkamp, J.-B.E. and Ramachander, 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.

Baughn, C.C. and Yaprak, A. (1996) 'Economic nationalism: Conceptual and empirical development', *Political Psychology*, pp. 759-778.

Behling, O. and Law, K.S. (2000) *Translating questionnaires and other research instruments: Problems and solutions*, 133rd edition, Sage.

Bi, X., Gunessee, S., Hoffmann, R., Hui, W., Larner, J., Ma, Q. and Thompson, F.M. (2012) 'Chinese consumer ethnocentrism: A field experiment', *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, vol. 11, no. 3, pp. 252-263.

Bloch, P.H. (1995) 'Seeking the ideal form: Product design and consumer response', *Journal of marketing*, vol. 59, no. 3, pp. 16-29.

Brislin, R.W. (1970) 'Back-translation for cross-cultural research', *Journal of cross-cultural psychology*, vol. 1, no. 3, pp. 185-216.

Charness, G., Gneezy, U. and Kuhn, M.A. (2012) 'Experimental methods: Between-subject and within-subject design', *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, vol. 81, no. 1, pp. 1-8.

Cleveland, M. and Balakrishnan, A. (2018) 'Appreciating vs venerating cultural outgroups: The psychology of cosmopolitanism and xenocentrism', *International Marketing Review*.

Cleveland, M. and Laroche, M. (2007) 'Acculturaton to the global consumer culture: Scale development and research paradigm', *Journal of business research*, vol. 60, no. 3, pp. 249-259.

Cleveland, M., Laroche, M. and Papadopoulos, N. (2009) 'Cosmopolitanism, consumer ethnocentrism, and materialism: An eight-country study of antecedents and outcomes', *Journal of International Marketing*, vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 116-146.

Cohen, J. (1988) *Statistical Power Analysis for the Social Sciences*, 2nd edition, Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Craig, C.S. and Douglas, S.P. (2005) *International Marketing Research*, 3rd edition, John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Cronbach, L.J. (1951) 'Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests', *Psychometrika*, vol. 16, no. 3, pp. 297-334.

Crowley, A.E., Spangenberg, E.R. and Hughes, K.R. (1992) 'Measuring the hedonic and utilitarian dimensions of attitudes toward product categories', *Marketing letters*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 239-249.

Cuddy, A.J., Fiske, S.T. and Glick, P. (2004) 'When professionals become mothers, warmth doesn't cut the ice', *Journal of Social issues*, vol. 60, no. 4, pp. 701-718.

Cuddy, A.J., Fiske, S.T., Kwan, V.S., Glick, P., Demoulin, S., Leyens, J., Bond, M.H. and others (2009) 'Stereotype content model across cultures: Towards universal

similarities and some differences', *British Journal of Social Psychology*, vol. 48, no. 1, pp. 1-33.

Davvetas, V. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2016) 'How product category shapes preferences toward global and local brands: a schema theory perspective', *Journal of international marketing*, vol. 24, no. 4, pp. 61-81.

Davvetas, V. and Halkias, G. (2019) 'Global and local brand stereotypes: formation, content transfer, and impact', *International Marketing Review*, Available: https://doi.org/10.1108/IMR-01-2018-0017.

Dens, N. and Pelsmacker, P.D. (2010) 'Consumer response to different advertising appeals for new products: The moderating influence of branding strategy and product category involvement', *Journal of Brand Management*, vol. 18, no. 1, pp. 50-65.

Devine, P.G. (1989) 'Stereotypes and prejudice: Their automatic and controlled components', *Journal of personality and social psychology*, vol. 56, no. 1, pp. 5-18.

Diamantopoulos, A., Davydova, O. and Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, M. (2018) 'Modeling the role of consumer xenocentrism in impacting preferences for domestic and foreign brands: A mediation analysis', *Journal of Business Research*.

Diamantopoulos, A., Florack, A., Halkias, G. and Palcu, J. (2017) 'Explicit versus implicit country stereotypes as predictors of product preferences: Insights from the stereotype content model', *Journal of International Business Studies*, vol. 48, no. 8, pp. 1023-1036.

Diamantopoulos, A., Schlegelmilch, B. and Palihawadana, D. (2011) 'The relationship between country-of-origin image and brand image as drivers of purchase intentions: a test of alternative perspectives', *International Marketing Review*, vol. 28, no. 5, pp. 508-524.

Dmitrovic, T., Vida, I. and Reardon, J. (2009) 'Purchase behavior in favor of domestic products in the West Balkans', *International Business Review*, vol. 18, no. 5, pp. 523-535.

Epley, N., Waytz, A. and Cacioppo, J.T. (2007) 'On seeing human: a three-factor theory of anthropomorphism', *Psychological review*, vol. 114, no. 4, pp. 864-886.

Erdem, T., Swait, J. and Louviere, J. (2002) 'The impact of brand credibility on consumer price sensitivity', *International journal of Research in Marketing*, vol. 19, no. 1, pp. 1-19.

Fastoso, F. and Whitelock, J. (2011) 'Why is so little marketing research on Latin America published in high quality journals and what can we do about it? Lessons from a Delphi

study of authors who have succeeded', *International Marketing Review*, vol. 28, no. 4, pp. 435-449.

Field, A. (2013) *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*, Sage.

Fishbein, M. (1963) 'The perception of non-members: A test of Merton's reference group theory', *Sociometry*, pp. 271-286.

Fiske, S.T. (1998) 'Stereotyping, prejudice, and discrimination', *The handbook of social psychology*, vol. 2, no. 4, pp. 357-411.

Fiske, S.T. (2018) 'Stereotype content: Warmth and competence endure', *Current directions in psychological science*, vol. 27, no. 2, pp. 67-73.

Fiske, S.T., Cuddy, A.J. and Glick, P. (2007) 'Universal dimensions of social cognition: Warmth and competence', *Trends in cognitive sciences*, vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 77-83.

Fiske, S.T., Cuddy, A.J., Glick, P. and Xu, J. (2002) 'A model of (often mixed) stereotype content: competence and warmth respectively follow from perceived status and competition', *Journal of personality and social psychology*, vol. 82, no. 6, pp. 878-902.

Fournier, S. (1998) 'Consumers and their brands: Developing relationship theory in consumer research', *Journal of consumer research*, vol. 24, no. 4, pp. 343-373.

Fournier, S. (2009) 'Lessons learned about consumers' relationships with their', in MacInnis, D.J., Park, C.W. and Priester, J.W. *Handbook of brand relationships*, N.Y: Society for Consumer Psychology and M. E. Sharp.

Gaur, S.S., Bathula, H. and Diaz, C.V. (2015) 'Conceptualising the influence of the cultural orientation of latin americans on consumers' choice of US brands', *European Business Review*, vol. 27, no. 5, pp. 477-494.

Ger, G. (1999) 'Localizing in the global village: Local firms competing in global markets', *California Management Review*, vol. 41, no. 4, pp. 64-83.

Goldsmith, R.E. and Newell, S.J. (1997) 'Innovativeness and price sensitivity: managerial, theoretical and methodological issues', *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, vol. 6, no. 3, pp. 163-174.

Greenwald, A.G. and Banaji, M.R. (1995) 'Implicit social cognition: attitudes, self-esteem, and stereotypes', *Psychological review*, vol. 102, no. 1, p. 4.

Guttal, S. (2007) 'Globalisation', *Development in Practice*, vol. 17, no. 4-5, pp. 523-531.

Hannerz, U. (1990) 'Cosmopolitans and locals in world culture', *Theory, culture & society*, vol. 7, no. 2-3, pp. 237-251.

Hayes, A.F. (2017) *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*, Guilford publications.

Heineken - Official financial reports (2019), [Online], Available: https://www.theheinekencompany.com/sites/theheinekencompany/files/Investors/financial-information/results-reports-presentations/heineken-nv-hnv-2019-annual-report.pdf.

Herche, J. (1992) 'A note on the predictive validity of the CETSCALE', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 261-264.

Hickman, T.M. and Ward, J.C. (2013) 'Implications of brand communities for rival brands: negative brand ratings, negative stereotyping of their consumers and negative word-of-mouth', *Journal of Brand Management*, vol. 20, no. 6, pp. 501-517.

Ivens, B.S., Leischnig, A., Muller, B. and Valta, K. (2015) 'On the role of brand stereotypes in shaping consumer response toward brands: an empirical examination of direct and mediating effects of warmth and competence', *Psychology & Marketing*, vol. 33, no. 8, pp. 808-820.

Jost, J.T. and Banaji, M.R. (1994) 'The role of stereotyping in system-justification and the production of false consciousness', *British journal of social psychology*, vol. 33, no. 1, pp. 1-27.

Jost, J.T. and Burgess, D. (2000) 'Attitudinal ambivalence and the conflict between group and system justification motives in low status groups', *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, vol. 26, no. 3, pp. 293-305.

Kahneman, D. and Tversky, A. (1979) 'Prospect theory: An analysis of decision under risk', *Econometrica*, vol. 47, no. 2, pp. 263–291.

Karmarkar, U.R., Shiv, B. and Knutson, B. (2015) 'Cost conscious? The neural and behavioral impact of price primacy on decision making', *Journal of Marketing Research*, vol. 52, no. 4, pp. 467-481.

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, no. 7/8, pp. 928-949.

Kent, R.J. and Allen, C.T. (1994) 'Competitive interference effects in consumer memory for advertising: the role of brand familiarity', *Journal of marketing*, vol. 58, no. 3, pp. 97-105.

Kent, D.P. and Burnight, R.G. (1951) 'Group centrism in complex societies', *American Journal of Sociology*, vol. 57, no. 3, pp. 256-259.

Kervyn, N., Fiske, S.T. and Malone, C. (2012) 'Brands as intentional agents framework: How perceived intentions and ability can map brand perception', *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 166-176.

Kim, B.-D. and Rossi, P.E. (1994) 'Purchase frequency, sample selection, and price sensitivity: The heavy-user bias', *Marketing Letters*, vol. 5, no. 1, pp. 57-67.

Klein, J.G. (2002) 'Us versus them, or us versus everyone? Delineating consumer aversion to foreign goods', *Journal of international business studies*, vol. 33, no. 2, pp. 345-363.

Klein, J.G., Ettenson, R. and Morris, M.D. (1998) 'The animosity model of foreign product purchase: An empirical test in the People's Republic of China', *Journal of marketing*, vol. 62, no. 1, pp. 89-100.

Kolbl, Ž., Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, M. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2018) 'Stereotyping global brands: Is warmth more important than competence?', *Journal of Business Research*.

Kosterman, R. and Feshbach, S. (1989) 'Toward a measure of patriotic and nationalistic attitudes', *Political psychology*, pp. 257-274.

Laroche, M., Kim, C. and Zhou, L. (1996) 'Brand familiarity and confidence as determinants of purchase intention: An empirical test in a multiple brand context', *Journal of business Research*, vol. 37, no. 2, pp. 115-120.

Laurent, G. and Kapferer, J.-N. (1985) 'Measuring consumer involvement profiles', *Journal of marketing research*, vol. 22, no. 1, pp. 41-53.

Lawrence, S.J. (2012) 'Consumer Xenocentrism And Consumer Cosmopolitanism: The De-Velopment And Validation Of Scales Of Constructs Influencing Attitudes Towards Foreign Product Consumption'.

Levitt, T. (1983) 'The globalization of markets', *Harvard Business Review*, vol. 61, no. 3, pp. 91-102.

Lim, E.A.C. and Ang, S.H. (2008) 'Hedonic vs. utilitarian consumption: A cross-cultural perspective based on cultural conditioning', *Journal of business research*, vol. 61, no. 3, pp. 225-232.

LRC Business information and analyses (2019), [Online], Available: http://www.lrcbh.com/.

MacKinnon, D.P., Fairchild, A.J. and Fritz, M.S. (2007) 'Mediation analysis', *Annu. Rev. Psychol.*, vol. 58, pp. 593-614.

Macrae, C.N., Milne, A.B. and Bodenhausen, G.V. (1994) 'Stereotypes as energy-saving devices: A peek inside the cognitive toolbox', *Journal of personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 66, no. 1, pp. 37-47.

Mark, M. and Pearson, C.S. (2001) *The hero and the outlaw: Building extraordinary brands through the power of archetypes*, New York NY: McGraw-Hill.

Merton, R.K. (1957) *Social Theory and Social Structure*, The Free Press: Glencoe Illinois.

Mittal, B. (1989) 'A Theoretical Analysis of Two Recent Measures of Involvement', in Srull, T.K. *NA - Advances in Consumer Research (pp. 697-702)*, Provo, UT : Association for Consumer Research.

Morwitz, V. (2014) 'Consumers' purchase intentions and their behavior', *Foundations and Trends® in Marketing*, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 181-230.

Mueller, R.D., Broderick, A.J. and Kipnis, E. (2009) 'Consumer xenocentrism: an alternative explanation for foreign product bias', *Unpublished Working Paper, College and University of Charleston, South Carolina, USA*.

Mueller, R.D., Wang, G.X., Liu, G. and Cui, C.C. (2016) 'Consumer xenocentrism in China: an exploratory study', *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, vol. 28, no. 1, pp. 73-91.

Nestlé - Annual review (2019), [Online], Available: https://www.nestle.com/sites/default/files/2020-03/2019-annual-review-en.pdf.

Nes, E.B., Yelkur, R. and Silkoset, R. (2014) 'Consumer affinity for foreign countries: Construct development, buying behavior consequences and animosity contrasts', *International Business Review*, vol. 23, no. 4, pp. 774-784.

Nunnally, J.C. and Bernstein, I.H. (1994) *Psychometric theory*, 3rd edition, New York: McGraw-Hill.

Oberecker, E.M. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2011) 'Consumers' emotional bonds with foreign countries: does consumer affinity affect behavioral intentions?', *Journal of International Marketing*, vol. 19, no. 2, pp. 45-72.

Ouellet, J.-F. (2007) 'Consumer racism and its effects on domestic cross-ethnic product purchase: An empirical test in the United States, Canada, and France', *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 71, no. 1, pp. 113-128.

P&G's Anual report (2019), [Online], Available: https://www.pg.com/annualreport2019/index.html#/.

Park, D.-H., Lee, J. and Han, I. (2007) 'The effect of on-line consumer reviews on consumer purchasing intention: The moderating role of involvement', *International journal of electronic commerce*, vol. 11, no. 4, pp. 125-148.

Park, J. and Stoel, L. (2005) 'Effect of brand familiarity, experience and information on online apparel purchase', *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, vol. 33, no. 2, pp. 148-160.

Perlmutter, H.V. (1954) 'Some characteristics of the xenophilic personality', *The journal of psychology*, vol. 38, no. 2, pp. 291-300.

Perreault, W.D. (1975) 'Controlling order-effect bias', *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, vol. 39, no. 4, pp. 544-551.

Population census in BiH (2013), [Online], Available: http://www.popis.gov.ba/.

Prince, M., Davies, M.A., Cleveland, M. and Palihawadana, D. (2016) 'Here, there and everywhere: A study of consumer centrism', *International Marketing Review*, vol. 33, no. 5, pp. 715-754.

Putrevu, S. and Lord, K.R. (1994) 'Comparative and noncomparative advertising: Attitudinal effects under cognitive and affective involvement conditions', *Journal of Advertising*, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 77-91.

Riefler, P. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2009) 'Consumer cosmopolitanism: Review and replication of the CYMYC scale', *Journal of Business Research*, vol. 62, no. 4, pp. 407-419.

Schuiling, I. and Kapferer, J.-N. (2004) 'Executive insights: real differences between local and international brands: strategic implications for international marketers', *Journal of international Marketing*, vol. 12, no. 4, pp. 91-112.

Sen, S. and Bhattacharya, C.B. (2001) 'Does doing good always lead to doing better? Consumer reactions to corporate social responsibility', *Journal of marketing Research*, vol. 38, no. 2, pp. 225-243.

Shankarmahesh, M.N. (2006) 'Consumer ethnocentrism: an integrative review of its antecedents and consequences', *International marketing review*, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 146-172.

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, no. 3, pp. 280-289.

Siemieniako, D., Kubacki, K., Glińska, E. and Krot, K. (2011) 'National and regional ethnocentrism: a case study of beer consumers in Poland', *British Food Journal*, vol. 113, no. 3, pp. 404-418.

Somervuori, O. and Ravaja, N. (2013) 'Purchase behavior and psychophysiological responses to different price levels', *Psychology & Marketing*, vol. 30, no. 6, pp. 479-489.

Steenkamp, J.E. (2001) 'The role of national culture in international marketing research', *International Marketing Review*, vol. 18, no. 1, pp. 30-44.

Steenkamp, J.-B.E., Batra, R. and Alden, D.L. (2003) 'How perceived brand globalness creates brand value', *Journal of International Business Studies*, vol. 34, no. 1, pp. 53-65.

Steenkamp, J.-B.E. and De Jong, M.G. (2010) 'A global investigation into the constellation of consumer attitudes toward global and local products', *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 74, no. 6, pp. 18-40.

Stier, J. (2010) 'The blindspots and biases of intercultural communication studies: A discussion on episteme and doxa in a field', *Journal of Intercultural Communication*, vol. 24, no. 3.

Sumner, W.G. (1906) *Folkways*, New York: Ginn.

Swartz, M.J. (1961) 'Negative ethnocentrism', *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, vol. 5, no. 1, pp. 75-81.

Swiss-Economic-Institute (2018) *KOF Globalisation Index*, [Online], Available: https://www.kof.ethz.ch/en/forecasts-and-indicators/indicators/kof-globalisation-index.html.

Swoboda, B., Pennemann, K. and Taube, M. (2012) 'The effects of perceived brand globalness and perceived brand localness in China: empirical evidence on Western, Asian, and domestic retailers', *Journal of International Marketing*, vol. 20, no. 4, pp. 72-95.

Tajfel, H. (1981) *Human groups and social categories: Studies in social psychology*, CUP Archive.

Tajfel, H. and Turner, J.C. (1986) 'The Social Identity Theory of Intergroup Behavior', *in Psychology of Intergroup Relations, 2nd ed, Stephen Worchel and William G. Austin, eds. Chicago: Nelson-Hall*, pp. 7-24.

Traylor, M.B. and Joseph, W.B. (1984) 'Measuring consumer involvement in products: developing a general scale', *Psychology & Marketing*, vol. 1, no. 2, pp. 65-77.

Verlegh, P.W. (2007) 'Home country bias in product evaluation: the complementary roles of economic and socio-psychological motives', *Journal of International Business Studies*, vol. 38, no. 3, pp. 361-373.

Vida, I., Dmitrović, T. and Obadia, C. (2008) 'The role of ethnic affiliation in consumer ethnocentrism', *European journal of marketing*.

Wakefield, K.L. and Inman, J.J. (2003) 'Situational price sensitivity: the role of consumption occasion, social context and income', *Journal of Retailing*, vol. 79, no. 4, pp. 199-212.

Wells, V.K., Ponting, C.A. and Peattie, K. (2011) 'Behaviour and climate change: Consumer perceptions of responsibility', *Journal of Marketing Management*, vol. 27, no. 7-8, pp. 808-833.

Winit, W., Gregory, G., Cleveland, M. and Verlegh, P. (2014) 'Global vs local brands: how home country bias and price differences impact brand evaluations', *International Marketing Review*, vol. 31, no. 2, pp. 102-128.

Zaichkowsky, J.L. (1985) 'Measuring the involvement construct', *Journal of consumer research*, vol. 12, no. 3, pp. 341-352.

Zajonc, R.B. and Markus, H. (1982) 'Affective and cognitive factors in preferences', *Journal of consumer research*, vol. 9, no. 2, pp. 123-131.

Zeithaml, V.A. (1988) 'Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: a means-end model and synthesis of evidence', *Journal of marketing*, vol. 52, no. 3, pp. 2-22.

Zeugner-Roth, K.P., Žabkar, V. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2015) 'Consumer ethnocentrism, national identity, and consumer cosmopolitanism as drivers of consumer behavior: A social identity theory perspective', *Journal of international marketing*, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 25-54.

Zhou, L., Yang, Z. and Hui, M.K. (2010) 'Non-local or local brands? A multi-level investigation into confidence in brand origin identification and its strategic implications', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, vol. 38, no. 2, pp. 202-218.

Appendices

Appendix A – Questionnaire (English version)

The following questionnaire is conducted by the Chair of International Marketing, University of Vienna, and it is being coordinated by a master student, Goran Luburic, for purposes of his master thesis. This is purely an academic study and serves no commercial purpose whatsoever.

Your participation is completely voluntary and it will take approximately 10 minutes of your time. We are interested in your opinions regarding consumer behavior and your completion of the questionnaire would be very valuable to us.

Please read the questions carefully and follow the relevant instructions. There are no right or wrong answers, we are only interested in your personal views about the specific topics, so please give us your honest opinions. There is no time constraint, so take your time to fill out the questionnaire. All information you provide will be used anonymously and you will not be identified at any point.

For any further information about this study, please contact us at the following e-mail:
a01468970@unet.univie.ac.at

Thank you very much for your participation in this study!

Section 1 (Consumer xenocentrism and Consumer ethnocentrism)[16]

To which extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?	Totally disagree						Totally agree
There are few domestic products that are of equal quality to foreign products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I cannot think of any domestic brands that are as good as the foreign ones I purchase.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I trust more foreign than domestic companies, because they are more experienced and have more resources.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In most product categories, foreign brands outperform domestic ones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I trust foreign products more than domestic ones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Using foreign products enhances my self-esteem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
People that buy domestic products are less regarded by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I prefer foreign to domestic brands as most of my acquaintances buy foreign brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Buying foreign products makes me trendier.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I purchase foreign brands to differentiate myself from others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Consumer xenocentrism (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016)

People from Bosnia and Herzegovina shouldn't buy foreign product because this harms the local economy and increases unemployment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is not right to purchase foreign products, because jobs are lost in BiH.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A true citizen of BiH should only buy products from BiH.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Even if I had to pay more I would rather buy a product from BiH.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
We should purchase products from BiH, otherwise we make other countries rich.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Consumer ethnocentrism (Verlegh, 2007)

Section 2 (Product category involvement and Price sensitivity)[17]

I have a strong interest in beer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beer is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would choose my beer very carefully.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Choosing beer is an important decision for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Which beer I buy matters to me a lot.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Product category involvement (Mittal, 1989)

I am willing to make an extra effort to find a low price for beer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will change what I had planned to buy in order to take advantage of a lower price for beer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am sensitive to differences in prices of beer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Price sensitivity (Wakefield and Inman, 2003)

[16] This section is the same for all three versions of the questionnaires.
[17] In other versions of questionnaires, in this section the word "beer" is replaced with "detergent" or "coffee".

Section 3 (The first brand)[18]

Do you know the brand *Nektar* (from the picture)?
Yes No

Brand awareness

To which extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements? *(Number 7 stands for strong agreement with the statement on the right side, while 1 stands for strong agreement with one on the left side. Please choose one number from 1 to 7, which best reflect your opinion about the brand.)*		
I am not at all familiar with *Nektar*.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	I am very familiar with *Nektar*.
I believe I am not at all informed about *Nektar* brand.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	I believe I am very informed about *Nektar* brand.
I consider myself to be inexperienced with regards to *Nektar*.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	I consider myself to be experienced with regards to *Nektar*.

Brand familiarity (Diamantopoulos et al., 2017)

What country do you think *Nektar* comes from?		
How easy was it for you to state where *Nektar* comes from?		
Extremely difficult	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Extremely easy
How confident are you that the country you have mentioned above actually represents where *Nektar* comes from?		
Not at all confident	0% 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100%	Extremely confident

Brand origin identification (Zhou, Yang and Hui, 2010)

To which extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements? I think most people in BiH consider *Nektar* as a…	Totally disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Totally agree
…competent brand.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
…capable brand.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
…efficient brand.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
…intelligent brand.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
…friendly brand.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
…good-natured brand.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
…kind brand.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
…warm brand.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Brand stereotypes (Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic and Diamantopoulos, 2018)

It is very likely that I will buy *Nektar*.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I will purchase *Nektar* next time I need a beer.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I will definitely try *Nektar*.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Purchase intention (Putrevu and Lord, 1994)

[18] In this section, the picture of a brand is shown with questions about that specific brand.

Section 4 (The second brand)[19]

Products for other versions of the questionnaires (detergents and coffee)

Section 5 (Demographics)

Have you been living in BiH for at least the past 5+ years?	Yes	No

Residence

Are you … ?	Female	Male

Gender

How old are you? *(Please state in years)*	

Age

What is your highest education?		
o No education	o High school	o Master's degree, PhD or higher
o Elementary school	o Bachelor's degree	

Education

Are you currently … ?		
o Unable to work (disabled)	o Student	o Employed for wages
o Unemployed	o Self-employed	o Retired

Occupation

What is your personal average net monthly income?		
o No personal income	o 301 – 600 €	o 901 – 1.200 €
o Less than 300 €	o 601 – 900€	o More than 1.200 €

Income

[19] Questions in this section are the same as in the section 3, only brand name is changed to the one from the picture below. Randomly, domestic and foreign brands are appearing in third or fourth section.

Appendix B – Questionnaire (Serbian version)

Ovaj upitnik sprovodi katedra za Međunarodni marketing Univerziteta u Beču, a koordinira ga Goran Luburić, za potrebe svog master rada. Ovo je u potpunosti akademsko istraživanje i ne služi u komercijalne svrhe.

Vaše učešće je dobrovoljno i trajaće otprilike 10 minuta. Cilj upitnika je upoznavanje sa ponašanjem potrošača, te bi nam Vaše mišljenje bilo veoma dragocjeno.

Molimo pažljivo pročitajte pitanja i slijedite odgovarajuća uputstva. Nema tačnih ili netačnih odgovora, zanimaju nas samo Vaši lični stavovi o određenim temama, te Vas molimo da uvijek iznesete Vaše iskreno mišljenje. Ne postoji vremensko ograničenje, zato iskoristite koliko god vremena Vam je potrebno da ispunite upitnik. Sve informacije koje pružate su anonimne i Vaš identitet neće biti otkriven ni u jednom trenutku.

Za sve dodatne informacije o ovoj studiji, kontaktirajte nas na sledeću e-mail adresu:
a01468970@unet.univie.ac.at

Hvala Vam puno na učešću u ovoj studiji!

Following questions are only a part of the beer questionnaire version, consisting questions about consumer dispositions, domestic beer brand and demographics. Due to repetition of questions and sparing space, the questions for foreign brand and other product categories were not disclosed.

U kojoj se mjeri slažete ili ne slažete sa sljedećim izjavama?	Uopšte se ne slažem						Potpuno se slažem
Mali je broj domaćih proizvoda koji su jednako kvalitetni kao i strani proizvodi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ne mogu da se sjetim nijednog domaćeg brenda koji je dobar koliko i strani brendovi koje kupujem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Više vjerujem stranim nego domaćim kompanijama, jer su iskusnije i imaju više resursa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kod većine kategorija proizvoda, strani brendovi nadmašuju domaće.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Vjerujem stranim proizvodima više nego domaćim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Korišćenje stranih proizvoda poboljšava moje samopouzdanje.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ljudi koji kupuju domaće proizvode su manje cijenjeni od strane drugih ljudi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Više volim strane brendove od domaćih, jer većina mojih poznanika kupuje strane brendove.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kupovina stranih proizvoda čini da uvijek budem u trendu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kupujem strane brendove da bih se razlikovao/la od drugih.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Građani BiH ne bi trebalo da kupuju strane proizvode, jer to šteti domaćoj ekonomiji i povećava nezaposlenost.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nije ispravno kupovati strane proizvode, jer se tako gube radna mjesta u BiH.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pravi BiH građanin uvijek treba kupovati proizvode iz BiH.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Čak i kad bih morao/la da platim više, radije bih kupio/la proizvod iz BiH.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Trebalo bi da kupujemo proizvode iz BiH, jer u suprotnom činimo druge zemlje bogatim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Jako me interesuje pivo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pivo mi je veoma važno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Veoma pažljivo biram pivo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Izbor piva je važna odluka za mene.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mnogo mi znači koje pivo kupujem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Voljan/a sam da uložim dodatni napor da pronađem jeftinije pivo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Predomislio/la bih se oko onoga što sam planirao/la da kupim kako bih iskoristio/la nižu cijenu piva.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Osjetljiv/a sam na razlike u cijenama piva.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Da li ste upoznatim sa brendom *Nektar* (sa slike iznad)?	Da	Ne

U kojoj se mjeri slažete ili ne slažete sa sljedećim izjavama? *(Broj 7 podrazumijeva izrazitu saglasnog sa izjavom sa desne, a broj 1 sa izjavom sa lijeve strane. Molimo Vas da izaberete jedan broj na skali od 1 do 7, koji najbolje odražava Vaše mišljenje o brendu.)*		
Uopšte mi nije poznat brend *Nektar*.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Veoma mi je poznat brend *Nektar*.
Mislim da uopšte nisam informisan/a o brendu *Nektar*.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Mislim da sam veoma informisan/a o brendu *Nektar*.
Smatram da nemam iskustva sa brendom *Nektar*.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Smatram da imam iskustva sa brendom *Nektar*.

Iz koje zemlje mislite da brend *Nektar* dolazi?												
Koliko je bilo lako za Vas da navedete iz koje zemlje *Nektar* dolazi?												
Veoma teško	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Veoma lako				
Koliko ste sigurni da zemlja koju ste naveli zaista predstavlja zemlju iz koje brend *Nektar* dolazi?												
Nimalo	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%	Veoma

Mislim da većina ljudi u BiH smatra da je *Nektar*…	Uopšte se ne slažem						Potpuno se slažem
…kompetentan brend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
…sposoban brend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
…efikasan brend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
…inteligentan brend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
…prijateljski brend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
…dobronamjeran brend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
…plemenit brend.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
…srdačan brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

U kojoj se mjeri slažete ili ne slažete sa sljedećim izjavama?	Uopšte se ne slažem						Potpuno se slažem
Vrlo je vjerovatno da ću u budućnosti kupiti *Nektar*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sljedeći put kad mi bude trebalo pivo, kupiću *Nektar*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Definitivno ću probati *Nektar*.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Da li živite u BiH najmanje zadnjih 5 godina?	Da	Ne

Pol?	Žensko	Muško

Starost? *(Molimo navedite godine)*	

Koje je Vaše najviše stečeno obrazovanje?	
○ Bez obrazovanja	○ Osnovne diplomske studije
○ Osnovna škola	○ Postdiplomske studije (master, doktor…)
○ Srednja škola	

Trenutno zanimanje?	
○ Onemogućen/a za rad (nesposoban/a)	○ Samozaposlen/a
○ Nezaposlen/a	○ Zaposlen/a
○ Student/kinja	○ Penzionisan/a

Kolika su Vaša (lična) prosječna primanja na mjesečnom nivou?	
○ Nemam ličnih primanja	○ 1.201 – 1.800 KM
○ Ispod 600 KM	○ 1.801 – 2.400 KM
○ 601 – 1.200 KM	○ Više od 2.400 KM

Appendix C – Data analysis output

Responsive rate statistics

Date: 28.03.2020, 15:19

Questionnaire	clicks	Data sets finished	interviews total	valid cases (download)
Random qnr1	1294	0	1294	0
Beer1 qnr2	77	66	77	66
Beer2 qnr3	80	71	80	71
Detergent1 qnr4	74	67	74	67
Detergent2 qnr5	88	65	88	65
Coffee1 qnr6	80	72	80	72
Coffee2 qnr7	73	65	73	65
Overall	1766	406	1766	406

Measurement scales

C-XEN - Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings[a]
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	3,918	39,181	39,181	3,918	39,181	39,181	3,345
2	1,334	13,344	52,525	1,334	13,344	52,525	2,935
3	,873	8,730	61,255				
4	,814	8,141	69,396				
5	,687	6,871	76,267				
6	,581	5,814	82,081				
7	,532	5,321	87,401				
8	,469	4,688	92,089				
9	,435	4,351	96,440				
10	,356	3,560	100,000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

CET - Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3,252	65,042	65,042	3,252	65,042	65,042
2	,680	13,591	78,633			
3	,428	8,567	87,200			
4	,330	6,598	93,798			
5	,310	6,202	100,000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

PI - Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2,457	81,898	81,898	2,457	81,898	81,898
2	,344	11,457	93,355			
3	,199	6,645	100,000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

BS - Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings[a]
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	5,320	66,503	66,503	5,320	66,503	66,503	4,663
2	1,101	13,763	80,267	1,101	13,763	80,267	4,384
3	,362	4,521	84,788				
4	,285	3,556	88,344				
5	,270	3,373	91,717				
6	,238	2,980	94,697				
7	,214	2,671	97,368				
8	,211	2,632	100,000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

BF - Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2,374	79,121	79,121	2,374	79,121	79,121
2	,410	13,659	92,780			
3	,217	7,220	100,000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

PCI - Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3,919	78,384	78,384	3,919	78,384	78,384
2	,434	8,678	87,063			
3	,252	5,046	92,109			
4	,233	4,657	96,765			
5	,162	3,235	100,000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

PS - Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2,164	72,136	72,136	2,164	72,136	72,136
2	,433	14,448	86,584			
3	,402	13,416	100,000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Sample description

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	206	53,8	53,8	53,8
	Male	177	46,2	46,2	100,0
	Total	383	100,0	100,0	

Statistics

Age

N	Valid	383
	Missing	0
Mean		36,66
Median		33,00
Mode		31
Std. Deviation		10,898
Variance		118,768
Skewness		,952
Std. Error of Skewness		,125
Kurtosis		,357
Std. Error of Kurtosis		,249
Range		47
Minimum		18
Maximum		65

Age Group

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-25	42	11,0	11,0	11,0
	26-35	180	47,0	47,0	58,0
	36-45	92	24,0	24,0	82,0
	46-55	31	8,1	8,1	90,1
	56-65	38	9,9	9,9	100,0
	Total	383	100,0	100,0	

Age Group * Gender Crosstabulation

			Gender		Total
			Female	Male	
Age Group	18-25	Count	29	13	42
		Expected Count	22,6	19,4	42,0
	26-35	Count	99	81	180
		Expected Count	96,8	83,2	180,0
	36-45	Count	46	46	92
		Expected Count	49,5	42,5	92,0
	46-55	Count	17	14	31
		Expected Count	16,7	14,3	31,0
	56-65	Count	15	23	38
		Expected Count	20,4	17,6	38,0
Total		Count	206	177	383
		Expected Count	206,0	177,0	383,0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,718[a]	4	,102
Likelihood Ratio	7,845	4	,097
Linear-by-Linear Association	5,616	1	,018
N of Valid Cases	383		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14,33.

Education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High school	105	27,4	27,4	27,4
	Bachelor's degree	217	56,7	56,7	84,1
	Master's degree	61	15,9	15,9	100,0
	Total	383	100,0	100,0	

Education * Gender Crosstabulation

			Gender		Total
			Female	Male	
Education	High school	Count	59	46	105
		Expected Count	56,5	48,5	105,0
	Bachelor's degree	Count	119	98	217
		Expected Count	116,7	100,3	217,0
	Master's degree	Count	28	33	61
		Expected Count	32,8	28,2	61,0
Total		Count	206	177	383
		Expected Count	206,0	177,0	383,0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,866[a]	2	,393
Likelihood Ratio	1,861	2	,394
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,341	1	,247
N of Valid Cases	383		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 28,19.

Occupation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Unemployed	24	6,3	6,3	6,3
	Student	35	9,1	9,1	15,4
	Self-employed	32	8,4	8,4	23,8
	Employed for wages	276	72,1	72,1	95,8
	Retired	16	4,2	4,2	100,0
	Total	383	100,0	100,0	

Occupation * Gender Crosstabulation

			Gender		Total
			Female	Male	
Occupation	Unemployed	Count	20	4	24
		Expected Count	12,9	11,1	24,0
	Student	Count	23	12	35
		Expected Count	18,8	16,2	35,0
	Self-employed	Count	15	17	32
		Expected Count	17,2	14,8	32,0
	Employed for wages	Count	142	134	276
		Expected Count	148,4	127,6	276,0
	Retired	Count	6	10	16
		Expected Count	8,6	7,4	16,0
Total		Count	206	177	383
		Expected Count	206,0	177,0	383,0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13,361[a]	4	,010
Likelihood Ratio	14,330	4	,006
Linear-by-Linear Association	10,671	1	,001
N of Valid Cases	383		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7,39.

Income

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 300 €	66	17,2	17,2	17,2
	301 - 600 €	118	30,8	30,8	48,0
	601 - 900 €	92	24,0	24,0	72,1
	901 - 1.200 €	48	12,5	12,5	84,6
	More than 1.200 €	59	15,4	15,4	100,0
	Total	383	100,0	100,0	

Income * Gender Crosstabulation

			Gender		Total
			Female	Male	
Income	Less than 300 €	Count	50	16	66
		Expected Count	35,5	30,5	66,0
	301 - 600 €	Count	68	50	118
		Expected Count	63,5	54,5	118,0
	601 - 900 €	Count	51	41	92
		Expected Count	49,5	42,5	92,0
	901 - 1.200 €	Count	19	29	48
		Expected Count	25,8	22,2	48,0
	More than 1.200 €	Count	18	41	59
		Expected Count	31,7	27,3	59,0
Total		Count	206	177	383
		Expected Count	206,0	177,0	383,0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	30,376[a]	4	,000
Likelihood Ratio	31,341	4	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	28,500	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	383		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 22,18.

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Income	Female	206	2,45	1,204	,084
	Male	177	3,16	1,310	,099

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Income	Equal variances assumed	3,208	,074	-5,542	381	,000	-,712	,129	-,965	-,460
	Equal variances not assumed			-5,507	360,853	,000	-,712	,129	-,967	-,458

Demographics across subsamples

Gender * PC: Product category Crosstabulation

			PC: Product category			Total
			Beer	Detergent	Coffee	
Gender	Female	Count	67	71	68	206
		Expected Count	68,3	67,8	69,9	206,0
	Male	Count	60	55	62	177
		Expected Count	58,7	58,2	60,1	177,0
Total		Count	127	126	130	383
		Expected Count	127,0	126,0	130,0	383,0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,502[a]	2	,778
Likelihood Ratio	,502	2	,778
Linear-by-Linear Association	,006	1	,939
N of Valid Cases	383		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 58,23.

Age Group * PC: Product category Crosstabulation

			PC: Product category			Total
			Beer	Detergent	Coffee	
Age Group	18-25	Count	18	10	14	42
		Expected Count	13,9	13,8	14,3	42,0
	26-35	Count	59	58	63	180
		Expected Count	59,7	59,2	61,1	180,0
	36-45	Count	28	30	34	92
		Expected Count	30,5	30,3	31,2	92,0
	46-55	Count	12	11	8	31
		Expected Count	10,3	10,2	10,5	31,0
	56-65	Count	10	17	11	38
		Expected Count	12,6	12,5	12,9	38,0
Total		Count	127	126	130	383
		Expected Count	127,0	126,0	130,0	383,0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6,188[a]	8	,626
Likelihood Ratio	6,127	8	,633
Linear-by-Linear Association	,033	1	,855
N of Valid Cases	383		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10,20.

Education * PC: Product category Crosstabulation

			PC: Product category			Total
			Beer	Detergent	Coffee	
Education	High school	Count	36	40	29	105
		Expected Count	34,8	34,5	35,6	105,0
	Bachelor's degree	Count	77	66	74	217
		Expected Count	72,0	71,4	73,7	217,0
	Master's degree	Count	14	20	27	61
		Expected Count	20,2	20,1	20,7	61,0
Total		Count	127	126	130	383
		Expected Count	127,0	126,0	130,0	383,0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6,733[a]	4	,151
Likelihood Ratio	6,843	4	,144
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,823	1	,051
N of Valid Cases	383		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 20,07.

Occupation * PC: Product category Crosstabulation

			PC: Product category			Total
			Beer	Detergent	Coffee	
Occupation	Unemployed	Count	7	9	8	24
		Expected Count	8,0	7,9	8,1	24,0
	Student	Count	14	10	11	35
		Expected Count	11,6	11,5	11,9	35,0
	Self-employed	Count	7	10	15	32
		Expected Count	10,6	10,5	10,9	32,0
	Employed for wages	Count	94	91	91	276
		Expected Count	91,5	90,8	93,7	276,0
	Retired	Count	5	6	5	16
		Expected Count	5,3	5,3	5,4	16,0
Total		Count	127	126	130	383
		Expected Count	127,0	126,0	130,0	383,0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,162[a]	8	,842
Likelihood Ratio	4,138	8	,844
Linear-by-Linear Association	,062	1	,803
N of Valid Cases	383		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5,26.

Income * PC: Product category Crosstabulation

			PC: Product category			
			Beer	Detergent	Coffee	Total
Income	Less than 300 €	Count	21	29	16	66
		Expected Count	21,9	21,7	22,4	66,0
	301 - 600 €	Count	38	43	37	118
		Expected Count	39,1	38,8	40,1	118,0
	601 - 900 €	Count	30	26	36	92
		Expected Count	30,5	30,3	31,2	92,0
	901 - 1.200 €	Count	17	9	22	48
		Expected Count	15,9	15,8	16,3	48,0
	More than 1.200 €	Count	21	19	19	59
		Expected Count	19,6	19,4	20,0	59,0
Total		Count	127	126	130	383
		Expected Count	127,0	126,0	130,0	383,0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11,526[a]	8	,174
Likelihood Ratio	11,822	8	,159
Linear-by-Linear Association	,368	1	,544
N of Valid Cases	383		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15,79.

Constructs' statistics

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
CXEN	383	2,7940	,92558
CET	383	4,5065	1,32346
BF_D	383	5,5962	1,58893
C_D	383	5,0522	1,08350
W_D	383	4,9785	1,09109
PI_D	383	5,1349	1,44577
BF_F	383	5,1523	1,51155
C_F	383	5,1717	1,00069
W_F	383	4,4811	1,05003
PI_F	383	4,5822	1,47348
Valid N (listwise)	383		

Descriptive Statistics[a]

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
PCI	127	4,0929	1,75929
PS	127	3,1627	1,42655
BF_D	127	6,2808	1,21093
C_D	127	5,0610	1,22341
W_D	127	5,1102	1,18131
PI_D	127	5,5013	1,34903
BF_F	127	5,0341	1,57013
C_F	127	5,2697	1,12494
W_F	127	4,4075	1,12149
PI_F	127	4,3832	1,53793
Valid N (listwise)	127		

a. PC: Product category = Beer

Descriptive Statistics[a]

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
PCI	126	4,4571	1,58692
PS	126	3,6614	1,47632
BF_D	126	5,1799	1,60646
C_D	126	5,0853	,93870
W_D	126	4,9702	,92120
PI_D	126	4,8069	1,25174
BF_F	126	5,2275	1,42651
C_F	126	5,1369	,87613
W_F	126	4,4683	1,01636
PI_F	126	4,8122	1,24900
Valid N (listwise)	126		

a. PC: Product category = Detergent

Descriptive Statistics[a]

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
PCI	130	4,5800	1,77962
PS	130	2,7128	1,17302
BF_D	130	5,3308	1,68568
C_D	130	5,0115	1,07602
W_D	130	4,8577	1,14371
PI_D	130	5,0949	1,62942
BF_F	130	5,1949	1,53780
C_F	130	5,1096	,98536
W_F	130	4,5654	1,01135
PI_F	130	4,5538	1,58620
Valid N (listwise)	130		

a. PC: Product category = Coffee

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	CXEN & CET	383	-,131	,010

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	CXEN - CET	-1,71253	1,71179	,08747	-1,88451	-1,54055	-19,579	382	,000

CXEN_GROUP

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not xenocentric	324	84,6	84,6	84,6
	Undecided	8	2,1	2,1	86,7
	Xenocentric	51	13,3	13,3	100,0
	Total	383	100,0	100,0	

CET_GROUP

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not ethnocentric	119	31,1	31,1	31,1
	Undecided	18	4,7	4,7	35,8
	Ethnocentric	246	64,2	64,2	100,0
	Total	383	100,0	100,0	

CXEN_CET

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	CXEN & CET	27	7,0	100,0	100,0
Missing	System	356	93,0		
Total		383	100,0		

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	BF_D - BF_F	,44386	1,86303	,09520	,25669	,63104	4,663	382	,000
Pair 2	PI_D - PI_F	,55265	2,03576	,10402	,34813	,75718	5,313	382	,000
Pair 3	C_D - C_F	-,11945	1,28686	,06576	-,24874	,00984	-1,817	382	,070
Pair 4	W_D - W_F	,49739	1,20739	,06169	,37609	,61869	8,062	382	,000
Pair 5	C_D - W_D	,07376	,64689	,03305	,00877	,13875	2,231	382	,026
Pair 6	C_F - W_F	,69060	,94804	,04844	,59535	,78585	14,256	382	,000

Paired Samples Test[a]

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	BF_D - BF_F	1,24672	1,59154	,14123	,96724	1,52620	8,828	126	,000
Pair 2	PI_D - PI_F	1,11811	1,91510	,16994	,78181	1,45441	6,580	126	,000
Pair 3	C_D - C_F	-,20866	1,44570	,12828	-,46253	,04521	-1,627	126	,106
Pair 4	W_D - W_F	,70276	1,30046	,11540	,47439	,93112	6,090	126	,000
Pair 5	C_D - W_D	-,04921	,74538	,06614	-,18011	,08168	-,744	126	,458
Pair 6	C_F - W_F	,86220	1,08183	,09600	,67223	1,05218	8,982	126	,000

a. PC: Product category = Beer

Paired Samples Test[a]

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	BF_D - BF_F	-,04762	1,84257	,16415	-,37249	,27725	-,290	125	,772
Pair 2	PI_D - PI_F	-,00529	1,81156	,16139	-,32470	,31411	-,033	125	,974
Pair 3	C_D - C_F	-,05159	1,07486	,09576	-,24110	,13793	-,539	125	,591
Pair 4	W_D - W_F	,50198	1,08880	,09700	,31001	,69396	5,175	125	,000
Pair 5	C_D - W_D	,11508	,55286	,04925	,01760	,21256	2,337	125	,021
Pair 6	C_F - W_F	,66865	,87626	,07806	,51415	,82315	8,565	125	,000

a. PC: Product category = Detergent

Paired Samples Test[a]

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	BF_D - BF_F	,13590	1,88365	,16521	-,19097	,46276	,823	129	,412
Pair 2	PI_D - PI_F	,54103	2,21158	,19397	,15726	,92480	2,789	129	,006
Pair 3	C_D - C_F	-,09808	1,31534	,11536	-,32633	,13017	-,850	129	,397
Pair 4	W_D - W_F	,29231	1,19679	,10497	,08463	,49998	2,785	129	,006
Pair 5	C_D - W_D	,15385	,61426	,05387	,04726	,26044	2,856	129	,005
Pair 6	C_F - W_F	,54423	,85048	,07459	,39665	,69181	7,296	129	,000

a. PC: Product category = Coffee

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
PCI	Between Groups	16,416	2	8,208	2,801	,062
	Within Groups	1113,320	380	2,930		
	Total	1129,736	382			
PS	Between Groups	57,595	2	28,797	15,492	,000
	Within Groups	706,356	380	1,859		
	Total	763,951	382			

Statistical assumptions

First regression (*CXEN → BS_D → PI_D*)

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,680[a]	,463	,454	1,06785	1,868

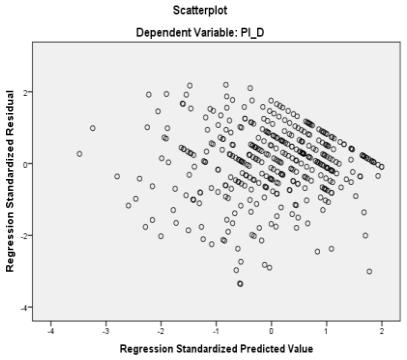
a. Predictors: (Constant), PS, C_D, CXEN, PCI, BF_D, W_D

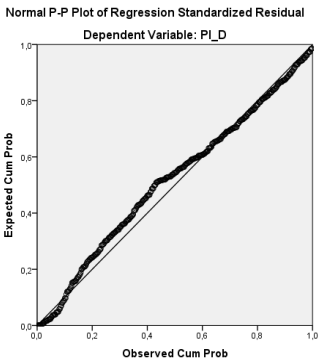
b. Dependent Variable: PI_D

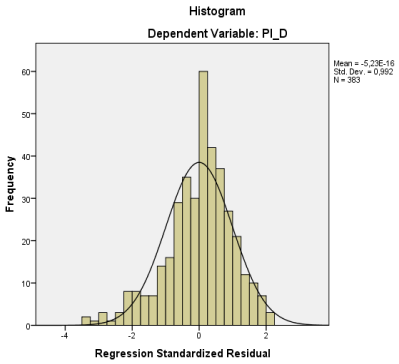
Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,832	,386		2,154	,032	,072	1,592		
	CXEN	-,071	,065	-,045	-1,090	,276	-,199	,057	,958	1,043
	W_D	,324	,096	,245	3,362	,001	,135	,514	,315	3,176
	C_D	,489	,098	,367	5,001	,000	,297	,681	,310	3,221
	BF_F	,006	,042	,006	,146	,884	-,076	,088	,882	1,134
	PCI	,047	,038	,056	1,229	,220	-,028	,122	,807	1,239
	PS	,057	,044	,055	1,282	,201	-,030	,144	,892	1,121

a. Dependent Variable: PI_D







Correlations

		PI_D	CXEN	W_D	C_D	BF_D	PCI	PS
Pearson Correlation	PI_D	1,000	-,064	,563	,587	,530	,167	,133
	CXEN	-,064	1,000	-,019	-,077	,006	,125	,121
	W_D	,563	-,019	1,000	,823	,390	,137	,142
	C_D	,587	-,077	,823	1,000	,404	,178	,085
	BF_D	,530	,006	,390	,404	1,000	,181	,103
	PCI	,167	,125	,137	,178	,181	1,000	,287
	PS	,133	,121	,142	,085	,103	,287	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PI_D	.	,106	,000	,000	,000	,001	,005
	CXEN	,106	.	,359	,067	,452	,007	,009
	W_D	,000	,359	.	,000	,000	,004	,003
	C_D	,000	,067	,000	.	,000	,000	,048
	BF_D	,000	,452	,000	,000	.	,000	,022
	PCI	,001	,007	,004	,000	,000	.	,000
	PS	,005	,009	,003	,048	,022	,000	.
N	PI_D	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	CXEN	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	W_D	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	C_D	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	BF_D	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	PCI	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	PS	383	383	383	383	383	383	383

Second regression (*CXEN → BS_F → PI_F*)

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,508[a]	,258	,246	1,27908	2,202

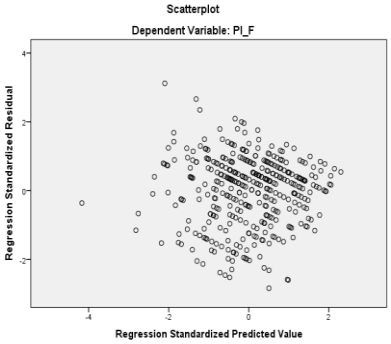
a. Predictors: (Constant), PS, W_F, CXEN, BF_F, PCI, C_F

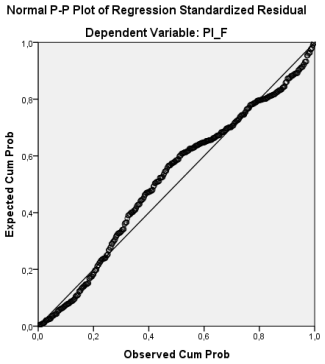
b. Dependent Variable: PI_F

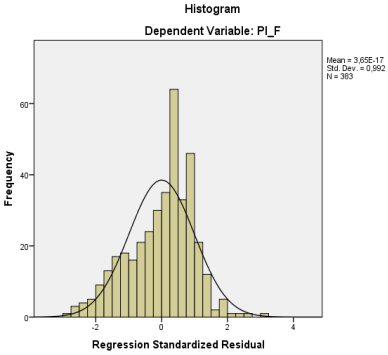
Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,211	,408		,517	,605	-,591	1,013		
	CXEN	,158	,072	,099	2,190	,029	,016	,300	,958	1,044
	W_F	,229	,077	,163	2,976	,003	,078	,380	,656	1,524
	C_F	,226	,083	,154	2,730	,007	,063	,389	,622	1,607
	BF_F	,195	,049	,200	3,995	,000	,099	,290	,790	1,265
	PCI	,113	,042	,132	2,683	,008	,030	,196	,817	1,224
	PS	,074	,049	,071	1,532	,126	-,021	,170	,907	1,102

a. Dependent Variable: PI_F







Correlations

		PI_F	CXEN	W_F	C_F	BF_F	PCI	PS
Pearson Correlation	PI_F	1,000	,188	,356	,370	,366	,295	,178
	CXEN	,188	1,000	,142	,150	,086	,125	,121
	W_F	,356	,142	1,000	,573	,294	,203	,078
	C_F	,370	,150	,573	1,000	,368	,202	,112
	BF_F	,366	,086	,294	,368	1,000	,330	,134
	PCI	,295	,125	,203	,202	,330	1,000	,287
	PS	,178	,121	,078	,112	,134	,287	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PI_F	.	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	CXEN	,000	.	,003	,002	,046	,007	,009
	W_F	,000	,003	.	,000	,000	,000	,063
	C_F	,000	,002	,000	.	,000	,000	,014
	BF_F	,000	,046	,000	,000	.	,000	,004
	PCI	,000	,007	,000	,000	,000	.	,000
	PS	,000	,009	,063	,014	,004	,000	.
N	PI_F	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	CXEN	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	W_F	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	C_F	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	BF_F	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	PCI	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	PS	383	383	383	383	383	383	383

Third regression (*CET → BS_D → PI_D*)

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,686[a]	,471	,462	1,06034	1,847

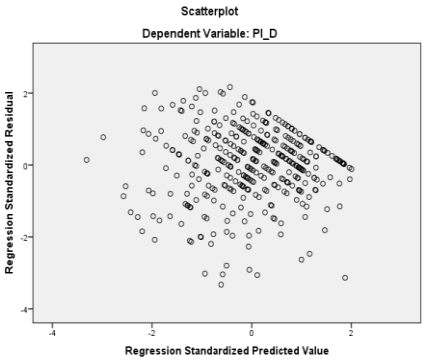
a. Predictors: (Constant), PS, CET, BF_D, PCI, W_D, C_D

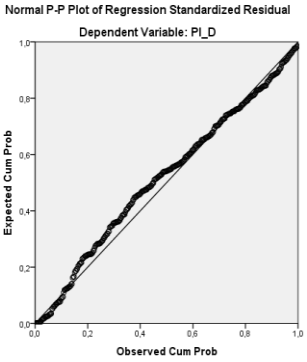
b. Dependent Variable: PI_D

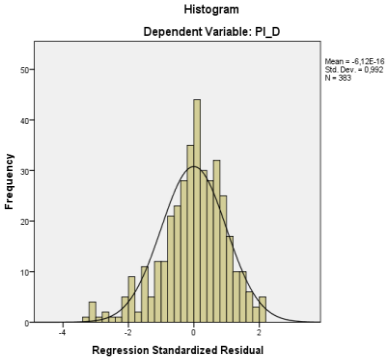
Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-,307	,331		-,929	,353	-,958	,343		
	CET	,111	,042	,101	2,644	,009	,028	,193	,956	1,046
	W_D	,218	,089	,164	2,439	,015	,042	,393	,310	3,227
	C_D	,389	,090	,292	4,319	,000	,212	,567	,308	3,242
	BF_D	,305	,038	,335	8,058	,000	,231	,380	,812	1,231
	PCI	,010	,034	,012	,306	,760	-,056	,076	,879	1,138
	PS	,044	,040	,043	1,075	,283	-,036	,123	,898	1,113

a. Dependent Variable: PI_D







Correlations

		PI_D	CET	W_D	C_D	BF_D	PCI	PS
Pearson Correlation	PI_D	1,000	,209	,563	,587	,530	,167	,133
	CET	,209	1,000	,200	,181	,059	,072	,039
	W_D	,563	,200	1,000	,823	,390	,137	,142
	C_D	,587	,181	,823	1,000	,404	,178	,085
	BF_D	,530	,059	,390	,404	1,000	,181	,103
	PCI	,167	,072	,137	,178	,181	1,000	,287
	PS	,133	,039	,142	,085	,103	,287	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PI_D	.	,000	,000	,000	,000	,001	,005
	CET	,000	.	,000	,000	,125	,079	,225
	W_D	,000	,000	.	,000	,000	,004	,003
	C_D	,000	,000	,000	.	,000	,000	,048
	BF_D	,000	,125	,000	,000	.	,000	,022
	PCI	,001	,079	,004	,000	,000	.	,000
	PS	,005	,225	,003	,048	,022	,000	.
N	PI_D	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	CET	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	W_D	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	C_D	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	BF_D	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	PCI	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	PS	383	383	383	383	383	383	383

Fourth regression (*CET* → *BS_F* → *PI_F*)

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	,508[a]	,258	,246	1,27908	2,237

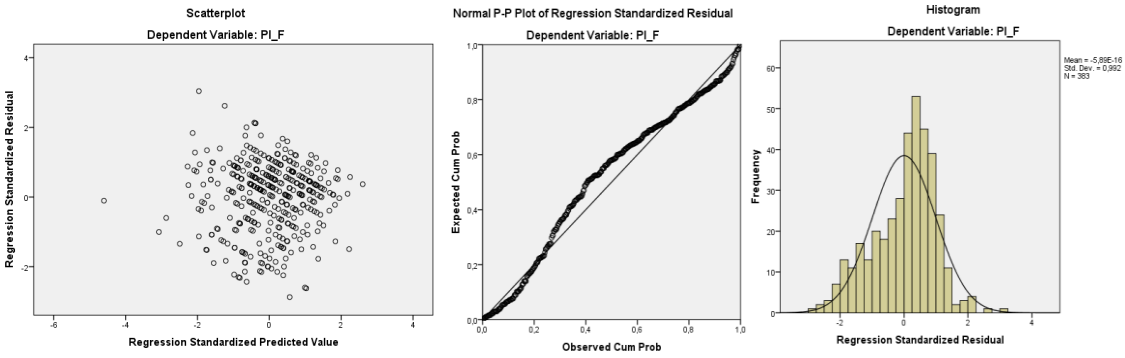
a. Predictors: (Constant), PS, CET, W_F, BF_F, PCI, C_F

b. Dependent Variable: PI_F

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,977	,447		2,187	,029	,098	1,856		
	CET	-,109	,050	-,098	-2,189	,029	-,208	-,011	,978	1,023
	W_F	,258	,077	,184	3,336	,001	,106	,410	,651	1,537
	C_F	,218	,083	,148	2,625	,009	,055	,382	,618	1,619
	BF_F	,193	,049	,198	3,963	,000	,097	,289	,790	1,265
	PCI	,125	,042	,146	2,962	,003	,042	,208	,817	1,224
	PS	,086	,048	,083	1,775	,077	-,009	,181	,913	1,095

a. Dependent Variable: PI_F



Correlations

		PI_F	CET	W_F	C_F	BF_F	PCI	PS
Pearson Correlation	PI_F	1,000	-,080	,356	,370	,366	,295	,178
	CET	-,080	1,000	,067	-,051	-,001	,072	,039
	W_F	,356	,067	1,000	,573	,294	,203	,078
	C_F	,370	-,051	,573	1,000	,368	,202	,112
	BF_F	,366	-,001	,294	,368	1,000	,330	,134
	PCI	,295	,072	,203	,202	,330	1,000	,287
	PS	,178	,039	,078	,112	,134	,287	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PI_F	.	,059	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	CET	,059	.	,095	,161	,495	,079	,225
	W_F	,000	,095	.	,000	,000	,000	,063
	C_F	,000	,161	,000	.	,000	,000	,014
	BF_F	,000	,495	,000	,000	.	,000	,004
	PCI	,000	,079	,000	,000	,000	.	,000
	PS	,000	,225	,063	,014	,004	,000	.
N	PI_F	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	CET	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	W_F	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	C_F	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	BF_F	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	PCI	383	383	383	383	383	383	383
	PS	383	383	383	383	383	383	383

Findings

First regression (*CXEN → BS_D → PI_D*)

```
Model: 4        Y: PI_D     X: CXEN     M1: W_D     M2: C_D
Covariates:     BF_D     PCI     PS
Sample Size:    383

************************************ OUTCOME VARIABLE: W_D ************************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,4067      ,1654     1,0041    18,7291     4,0000   378,0000      ,0000

              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     3,3128      ,2626    12,6165      ,0000     2,7965     3,8291
CXEN         -,0451      ,0561     -,8035      ,4222     -,1553      ,0652
BF_D          ,2551      ,0329     7,7612      ,0000      ,1904      ,3197
PCI           ,0301      ,0317      ,9518      ,3418     -,0321      ,0924
PS            ,0732      ,0381     1,9223      ,0553     -,0017      ,1480

************************************ OUTCOME VARIABLE: C_D ************************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,4288      ,1839      ,9682    21,2930     4,0000   378,0000      ,0000

              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     3,5376      ,2578    13,7199      ,0000     3,0306     4,0446
CXEN         -,1128      ,0551    -2,0484      ,0412     -,2210     -,0045
BF_D          ,2602      ,0323     8,0624      ,0000      ,1967      ,3236
PCI           ,0716      ,0311     2,3023      ,0219      ,0105      ,1328
PS            ,0190      ,0374      ,5071      ,6124     -,0545      ,0924

************************************ OUTCOME VARIABLE: PI_D ************************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,6805      ,4630     1,1403    54,0378     6,0000   376,0000      ,0000

              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant      ,2527      ,3450      ,7326      ,4642     -,4256      ,9310
CXEN         -,0766      ,0602    -1,2720      ,2042     -,1950      ,0418
W_D           ,2482      ,0897     2,7650      ,0060      ,0717      ,4246
C_D           ,3822      ,0914     4,1821      ,0000      ,2025      ,5619
BF_D          ,3027      ,0381     7,9374      ,0000      ,2277      ,3776
PCI           ,0191      ,0341      ,5619      ,5745     -,0479      ,0862
PS            ,0479      ,0409     1,1716      ,2421     -,0325      ,1283

************************ TOTAL EFFECT MODEL - OUTCOME VARIABLE: PI_D ************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,5447      ,2967     1,4857    39,8638     4,0000   378,0000      ,0000

              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     2,4269      ,3194     7,5985      ,0000     1,7989     3,0550
CXEN         -,1309      ,0682    -1,9191      ,0557     -,2650      ,0032
BF_D          ,4654      ,0400    11,6423      ,0000      ,3868      ,5440
PCI           ,0540      ,0385     1,4016      ,1618     -,0218      ,1297
PS            ,0733      ,0463     1,5838      ,1141     -,0177      ,1643

*********************** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y ***********************
Total effect of X on Y
     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI       c_ps       c_cs
     -,1309      ,0682    -1,9191      ,0557     -,2650      ,0032     -,0905     -,0838

Direct effect of X on Y
     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI      c'_ps      c'_cs
     -,0766      ,0602    -1,2720      ,2042     -,1950      ,0418     -,0530     -,0490

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
TOTAL     -,0543      ,0400     -,1389      ,0179
W_D       -,0112      ,0172     -,0493      ,0198
C_D       -,0431      ,0280     -,1081      ,0015

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
TOTAL     -,0375      ,0270     -,0935      ,0125
W_D       -,0077      ,0115     -,0327      ,0140
C_D       -,0298      ,0190     -,0738      ,0006

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
TOTAL     -,0348      ,0252     -,0876      ,0111
W_D       -,0072      ,0106     -,0307      ,0127
C_D       -,0276      ,0178     -,0686      ,0005

******************************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS ********************************
Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output: 95,0000
Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:  10000
```

Second regression (*CXEN → BS_F → PI_F*)

```
Model: 4        Y: PI_F     X: CXEN     M1: C_F     M2: W_F
Covariates:     BF_F     PCI     PS
Sample Size:    383

*********************************** OUTCOME VARIABLE: W_F ************************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,3319      ,1102      ,9915    11,6992     4,0000   378,0000      ,0000

              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     2,9619      ,2451    12,0829      ,0000     2,4799     3,4438
CXEN          ,1212      ,0558     2,1733      ,0304      ,0115      ,2308
BF_F          ,1728      ,0358     4,8285      ,0000      ,1024      ,2431
PCI           ,0657      ,0326     2,0165      ,0445      ,0016      ,1298
PS            ,0009      ,0378      ,0235      ,9812     -,0734      ,0752

*********************************** OUTCOME VARIABLE: C_F ************************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,3950      ,1560      ,8541    17,4657     4,0000   378,0000      ,0000

              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     3,4597      ,2275    15,2063      ,0000     3,0123     3,9070
CXEN          ,1174      ,0517     2,2681      ,0239      ,0156      ,2191
BF_F          ,2191      ,0332     6,5970      ,0000      ,1538      ,2844
PCI           ,0404      ,0303     1,3356      ,1825     -,0191      ,0999
PS            ,0247      ,0351      ,7049      ,4813     -,0442      ,0937

********************************** OUTCOME VARIABLE: PI_F ************************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,5082      ,2583     1,6360    21,8244     6,0000   376,0000      ,0000

              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant      ,2109      ,4079      ,5170      ,6055     -,5911     1,0128
CXEN          ,1582      ,0722     2,1901      ,0291      ,0162      ,3002
W_F           ,2290      ,0769     2,9758      ,0031      ,0777      ,3802
C_F           ,2263      ,0829     2,7297      ,0066      ,0633      ,3893
BF_F          ,1945      ,0487     3,9951      ,0001      ,0988      ,2903
PCI           ,1130      ,0421     2,6831      ,0076      ,0302      ,1957
PS            ,0744      ,0486     1,5320      ,1264     -,0211      ,1700

*********************** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL - OUTCOME VARIABLE: PI_F ************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,4387      ,1924     1,7719    22,5162     4,0000   378,0000      ,0000

              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     1,6718      ,3277     5,1017      ,0000     1,0275     2,3162
CXEN          ,2125      ,0745     2,8511      ,0046      ,0660      ,3591
BF_F          ,2837      ,0478     5,9308      ,0000      ,1896      ,3777
PCI           ,1372      ,0436     3,1476      ,0018      ,0515      ,2228
PS            ,0802      ,0505     1,5881      ,1131     -,0191      ,1796

********************** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y ***********************
Total effect of X on Y
     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI       c_ps       c_cs
      ,2125      ,0745     2,8511      ,0046      ,0660      ,3591      ,1442      ,1335

Direct effect of X on Y
     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI      c'_ps      c'_cs
      ,1582      ,0722     2,1901      ,0291      ,0162      ,3002      ,1074      ,0994

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
TOTAL      ,0543      ,0249      ,0073      ,1068
W_F        ,0277      ,0162      ,0012      ,0636
C_F        ,0266      ,0163      ,0004      ,0637

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
TOTAL      ,0369      ,0169      ,0051      ,0729
W_F        ,0188      ,0110      ,0008      ,0432
C_F        ,0180      ,0112      ,0003      ,0435

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
TOTAL      ,0341      ,0156      ,0047      ,0670
W_F        ,0174      ,0101      ,0008      ,0393
C_F        ,0167      ,0103      ,0002      ,0402

****************************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *************************************
Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output: 95,0000
Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:  10000
```

Third regression (*CET → BS_D → PI_D*)

```
Model: 4        Y: PI_D     X: CET     M1: C_D     M2: W_D
Covariates:     BF_D     PCI      PS
Sample Size:    383

************************************ OUTCOME VARIABLE: W_D ************************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,4402      ,1937      ,9700    22,7080     4,0000   378,0000      ,0000

             coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     2,6264      ,2693     9,7532      ,0000     2,0969     3,1559
CET           ,1428      ,0382     3,7352      ,0002      ,0676      ,2179
BF_D          ,2501      ,0323     7,7367      ,0000      ,1865      ,3137
PCI           ,0212      ,0310      ,6828      ,4951     -,0398      ,0822
PS            ,0681      ,0373     1,8286      ,0682     -,0051      ,1414

************************************ OUTCOME VARIABLE: C_D ************************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,4444      ,1975      ,9521    23,2591     4,0000   378,0000      ,0000

             coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     2,7634      ,2668    10,3579      ,0000     2,2388     3,2879
CET           ,1238      ,0379     3,2688      ,0012      ,0493      ,1982
BF_D          ,2568      ,0320     8,0192      ,0000      ,1939      ,3198
PCI           ,0598      ,0307     1,9454      ,0525     -,0006      ,1203
PS            ,0101      ,0369      ,2724      ,7855     -,0625      ,0826

************************************ OUTCOME VARIABLE: PI_D ************************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,6860      ,4706     1,1243    55,6981     6,0000   376,0000      ,0000

             coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     -,3075      ,3308     -,9294      ,3533     -,9580      ,3430
CET           ,1108      ,0419     2,6438      ,0085      ,0284      ,1932
W_D           ,2178      ,0893     2,4390      ,0152      ,0422      ,3935
C_D           ,3894      ,0902     4,3190      ,0000      ,2121      ,5666
BF_D          ,3052      ,0379     8,0580      ,0000      ,2307      ,3797
PCI           ,0103      ,0337      ,3058      ,7599     -,0559      ,0765
PS            ,0435      ,0405     1,0749      ,2831     -,0361      ,1231

********************** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL - OUTCOME VARIABLE: PI_D ***********************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,5656      ,3199     1,4366    44,4481     4,0000   378,0000      ,0000

             coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     1,3406      ,3277     4,0907      ,0001      ,6962     1,9850
CET           ,1901      ,0465     4,0872      ,0001      ,0987      ,2816
BF_D          ,4597      ,0393    11,6849      ,0000      ,3824      ,5371
PCI           ,0382      ,0378     1,0114      ,3125     -,0361      ,1124
PS            ,0623      ,0453     1,3731      ,1705     -,0269      ,1514

********************** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y ***********************
Total effect of X on Y
     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI       c_ps       c_cs
      ,1901      ,0465     4,0872      ,0001      ,0987      ,2816      ,1315      ,1740

Direct effect of X on Y
     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI      c'_ps      c'_cs
      ,1108      ,0419     2,6438      ,0085      ,0284      ,1932      ,0767      ,1015

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
TOTAL      ,0793      ,0269      ,0306      ,1362
W_D        ,0311      ,0171      ,0040      ,0711
C_D        ,0482      ,0204      ,0143      ,0940

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
TOTAL      ,0548      ,0184      ,0214      ,0935
W_D        ,0215      ,0118      ,0028      ,0492
C_D        ,0333      ,0139      ,0101      ,0642

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
TOTAL      ,0726      ,0244      ,0279      ,1242
W_D        ,0285      ,0157      ,0037      ,0649
C_D        ,0441      ,0184      ,0133      ,0848

****************************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *******************************
Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:  95,0000
Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:  10000
```

Fourth regression (*CET → BS_F → PI_F*)

```
Model: 4        Y: PI_F     X: CET     M1: C_F     M2: W_F
Covariates:     BF_F      PCI      PS
Sample Size:    383

********************************** OUTCOME VARIABLE: W_F ***********************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,3201      ,1025     1,0000    10,7899     4,0000   378,0000      ,0000

              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     3,0346      ,2695    11,2620      ,0000     2,5048     3,5644
CET           ,0466      ,0388     1,2025      ,2299     -,0296      ,1229
BF_F          ,1774      ,0359     4,9395      ,0000      ,1068      ,2480
PCI           ,0684      ,0327     2,0916      ,0371      ,0041      ,1328
PS            ,0072      ,0378      ,1901      ,8493     -,0672      ,0815

********************************** OUTCOME VARIABLE: C_F ***********************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,3846      ,1479      ,8623    16,4013     4,0000   378,0000      ,0000

              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     3,9158      ,2502    15,6498      ,0000     3,4238     4,4077
CET          -,0441      ,0360    -1,2255      ,2211     -,1149      ,0267
BF_F          ,2213      ,0333     6,6372      ,0000      ,1558      ,2869
PCI           ,0482      ,0304     1,5877      ,1132     -,0115      ,1080
PS            ,0326      ,0351      ,9271      ,3544     -,0365      ,1016

********************************** OUTCOME VARIABLE: PI_F ***********************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,5082      ,2583     1,6361    21,8234     6,0000   376,0000      ,0000

              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant      ,9773      ,4470     2,1865      ,0294      ,0984     1,8562
CET          -,1095      ,0500    -2,1891      ,0292     -,2078     -,0111
W_F           ,2578      ,0773     3,3359      ,0009      ,1058      ,4097
C_F           ,2185      ,0832     2,6252      ,0090      ,0548      ,3821
BF_F          ,1930      ,0487     3,9629      ,0001      ,0972      ,2888
PCI           ,1247      ,0421     2,9623      ,0032      ,0419      ,2075
PS            ,0860      ,0484     1,7753      ,0767     -,0093      ,1812

************************ TOTAL EFFECT MODEL - OUTCOME VARIABLE: PI_F ************************
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
      ,4292      ,1842     1,7899    21,3440     4,0000   378,0000      ,0000

              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     2,6150      ,3605     7,2541      ,0000     1,9062     3,3238
CET          -,1071      ,0519    -2,0641      ,0397     -,2091     -,0051
BF_F          ,2871      ,0480     5,9755      ,0000      ,1926      ,3815
PCI           ,1529      ,0438     3,4935      ,0005      ,0669      ,2390
PS            ,0949      ,0506     1,8767      ,0613     -,0045      ,1944

*********************** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y ************************
Total effect of X on Y
     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI       c_ps       c_cs
     -,1071      ,0519    -2,0641      ,0397     -,2091     -,0051     -,0727     -,0962

Direct effect of X on Y
     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI      c'_ps      c'_cs
     -,1095      ,0500    -2,1891      ,0292     -,2078     -,0111     -,0743     -,0983

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
TOTAL      ,0024      ,0183     -,0317      ,0413
W_F        ,0120      ,0122     -,0084      ,0395
C_F       -,0096      ,0094     -,0303      ,0067

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
TOTAL      ,0016      ,0125     -,0216      ,0282
W_F        ,0082      ,0083     -,0057      ,0270
C_F       -,0065      ,0064     -,0205      ,0046

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
TOTAL      ,0021      ,0164     -,0289      ,0371
W_F        ,0108      ,0109     -,0076      ,0356
C_F       -,0087      ,0085     -,0274      ,0061

****************************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *******************************
Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:  95,0000
Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:  10000
```

Appendix D – Abstract (German version)

Diese Arbeit befasst sich mit dem lebhaften Interesse an der positiven Einstellung des Konsumenten gegenüber ausländischen oder inländischen Marken und deren Auswirkungen auf das Konsumentenverhalten. Daher wurde der Einfluss von Konsumenten-Xenozentrismus und -Ethnozentrismus auf den Prozess der Markenstereotypisierung und folglich auf Kaufintention untersucht. Unter Konsumenten in Bosnien und Herzegowina wurde eine empirische Studie durchgeführt, in der Marken aus drei verschiedenen Produktkategorien verwendet wurden, bei denen alle Marken Convenience-Produkte waren. In Übereinstimmung mit der bisherigen Literatur bestätigen die Ergebnisse, dass sich der Konsumenten-Xenozentrismus positiv auf die Kaufintention ausländischer Marken auswirkt. Darüber hinaus wirkt sich der Konsumenten-Ethnozentrismus positiv auf die Kaufintention für inländische und negativ auf ausländische Marken aus. Darüber hinaus ist der Einfluss von Markenstereotypen auf Kaufintention unabhängig von der Herkunft der Marke immer positiv. Die Neuheiten, die diese Studie mit sich bringt, sind Erkenntnisse, dass Wärme und Kompetenz als Dimensionen von Markenstereotypen eine wichtige Vermittlerrolle zwischen dem Konsumente-Xenozentrismus und den Kaufintention für ausländische Marken sowie zwischen dem Konsumenten-Ethnozentrismus und den Kaufintention für inländische Marken spielen. Neben dem theoretischen Beitrag werden in dieser Masterarbeit mögliche Auswirkungen der Ergebnisse auf das Management erörtert.