

Ethnocentrism Analysis of Indonesian Consumers based on Demographic Factor

Sutisna Muhari¹, Uli Wildan Nuryanto²

^{1,2}Universitas Bina Bangsa, Serang, Indonesia

sutisna0902@gmail.com, uli.wildan11@gmail.com

Abstract

Social class of consumers will be the differentiator of the level of ethnocentrism of consumers, who initially used to buy domestically made products, with an increase in income, their buying behavior changed to prefer foreign-made luxury brands. This study aims to analyze ethnocentrism of Indonesian consumers based on demographic factor. The research design to be carried out is to use a quantitative, verification and conclusive approach. This is based on the existence of research problems that question the influence of one variable on other variables. In addition, the research that will be conducted also intends to verify the hypothesis based on the empirical data that will be collected. In addition to the main approach, this research also uses a descriptive approach, especially to answer descriptive problems. The result of this study that differences in the level of consumer ethnocentrism based on demographic variables indicate that older consumers tend to have higher ethnocentrism levels than younger consumers. Meanwhile, based on gender, there is no significant difference in ethnocentrism between men and women.

Keywords

Ethnocentrism; consumer; demographic factor



I. Introduction

The emergence of the consumptive phenomenon, especially for goods that can be used as symbols and lifestyles such as apparel and footwear with foreign brands or foreign connotations, shows the lack of appreciation and consumer preference for domestic products. Or in other words, the level of ethnocentrism of Indonesian consumers is thought to be low. Ethnocentrism is a consumer's belief about the moral decency to buy imported products or foreign products to ensure/secure their group to survive (Sharma, et.al., 1995 and Shimp and Sharma, 1987). People who are ethnocentric, tend to prefer to refuse to use foreign products. For various reasons, they prefer to use domestic products. Meanwhile, people who are not or less ethnocentric tend to think objectively in using/not using foreign products.

Development is a systematic and continuous effort made to realize something that is aspired. Development is a change towards improvement. Changes towards improvement require the mobilization of all human resources and reason to realize what is aspired. In addition, development is also very dependent on the availability of natural resource wealth. The availability of natural resources is one of the keys to economic growth in an area. (Shah, M. et al. 2020)

Low ethnocentrism will affect the development of domestic industry, because products made in the country are not favored for various reasons. This happens because they hold the belief that buying imported products will damage domestic jobs and damage the domestic economy (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Sharma et.al 1995). Meanwhile, there are still many consumers who think that original products made in Indonesia are of lower quality than products originating from abroad.

If it is related to the huge potential of the domestic market, (more than 220 million people), this phenomenon is counterproductive to developing an industry that mostly relies on exports. In fact, if this huge market potential can be achieved by domestic producers, then Indonesia's dependence on the world economy will be reduced.

The level of ethnocentrism will be different for each consumer group. Consumer grouping can be based on demographic factors such as age, gender, education, income, social class and culture. Several research results show that age, gender, income and education are the differentiating variables for the level of consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Wall, Heslop and Hofstra, 1986; Good and Huddleston, 1995; Shimp et al., 1995).

The phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism in Indonesia can be demonstrated by the emergence of an increasingly large middle class. The World Bank report states that the middle class in Indonesia is currently around 56.5 percent of the total population. According to the 2010 Population Census, Indonesia's population is 237.6 million. This means that the number of middle class people with a daily expenditure of US\$2 (approximately Rp. 18.000,-) to US\$20 (around Rp.180.000,-) is not less than 134 million people (Suweca, 2012). Still according to Suweca (2012), the middle class's appetite for shopping is very large. Even this middle class society has its own style of shopping. According to the World Bank, the value of money spent by the Indonesian middle class is fantastic. Expenditures for clothing and footwear in 2010 reached Rp.113.4 trillion. Household spending and services amounted to IDR 194.4 trillion, overseas spending IDR 50 trillion, and transportation costs IDR. 283.6 trillion.

The increase in the income of the majority of the population, so that they move up to the middle class, encourage changes in product buying behavior patterns. Learning from China, where the middle class population is increasing (500 million), and their consumption patterns have changed drastically, namely trying to buy luxury products such as watches, well-known foreign brands such as LV, Gucci, and others, the pattern consumption of the middle class in Indonesia will not be much different (Yuswohadi, 2012). This phenomenon shows that the social class of consumers will be the differentiator of the level of ethnocentrism of consumers, who initially used to buy domestically made products, with an increase in income, their buying behavior changed to prefer foreign-made luxury brands. If the characteristics of the middle class group are described in more detailed demographic factors, then within the middle class group consumers will appear with higher income levels, higher education levels, and young age levels (Seputar Indonesia, 2011). Litbang Kompas uses expenditure measures rather than income measures. The size that then becomes the basis for grouping is work, education, personal expenses per month, and family expenses to pay for electricity per month (Setiawan, 2012).

II. Review of Literature

2.1 Consumer Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism is a consumer belief regarding the moral decency to buy imported products or foreign products to ensure/secure their group to survive (Sharma, et.al., 1995 and Shimp and Sharma, 1987 in Sutisna and Yusuf, 2020).). Shimp and Sharma (1987) define ethnocentrism as “...the universal proclivity for people to view their own group as the center of the universe, to interpret other social units from the perspective of their own group, and to reject persons who are culturally dissimilar while blindly accepting those who are culturally like themselves” (p. 280).

The concept of ethnocentrism is similar to patriotism, although there are quite clear differences. Patriotism is defined as a strong feeling of loyalty and love for one's country, but without being associated with hostility towards other countries (Balabanis et al., 2001).

In summary, ethnocentrism is a feeling of superiority to other countries and protective behavior in one's own country (Carvalho, 2005). This definition emphasizes the feelings of love, support and protection that consumers have for their country. As a consequence, consumer ethnocentrism tends to overestimate in favor of domestic products, underestimate, and avoid buying products originating from abroad. This happens because they hold the belief that buying imported products will damage domestic jobs and damage the domestic economy (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Sharma et.al 1995).

2.2 Consumer Ethnocentrism and Demographic Factors

As stated in the background of this research, the level of consumer ethnocentrism in Indonesia tends to be low, which is indicated by several phenomena such as the emergence of foreign branded apparel and fashion outlets. The number of factory outlets selling fashion and apparel products with foreign brands or foreign connotations. Of course, this phenomenon will harm the domestic fashion and apparel industry, because consumers prefer products with foreign brands because there needs to be a real effort to overcome this unfavorable situation.

In this study will be revealed about the various variables that affect consumer ethnocentrism. Various theoretical arguments in this study will be disclosed, especially those relevant to various research variables.

The first theoretical argument is that there are many variables that affect the level of consumer ethnocentrism. Boonghee Yoo and Donthu (2005) found that consumer ethnocentrism is positively influenced by most of a consumer's personal cultural orientation, and is related to consumer evaluation and behavior.

Ethnocentric people prefer or like what is in their group far more than what is outside the group. As a marketing implication, Shimp and Sharma (1987) introduced “consumer ethnocentrism” and defined it as the belief held by American consumers about the appropriateness, conscientiousness of morality to purchase foreign-made products.

Previous studies used a scale that focused on the reliability and applicability of the construct across countries (Durvasula, Andrewa, and Netemeyer, 1997; Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein, 1991). The results suggest that although the size of the effect may differ per product category and country, consumers who are more ethnocentric generally evaluate foreign products more negatively and are more reluctant to buy them, than those who are less ethnocentric (Netemeyer et.al, 1991). Each country and product category has different roots of consumer belief, that some countries have the competence to produce certain products compared to other countries. Recently, consumer ethnocentrism research has concentrated on the influence of this construct on the intention

to buy foreign brands (Klein et al., 1998; Supphellen and Rittenburg, 2001), used in the context of developing countries (Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden, Steenkamp) and Rmacahander, 2000).

Research on consumer ethnocentrism has also been carried out by placing demographic and socio-economic variables as antecedent variables (Sheth, 1977). Consumer ethnocentrism tends to vary in certain population segments based on differences in demographic characteristics (Shimp and Sharma, 1987).

Older people will tend to be more conservative, where this view will affect their buying behavior towards imported products (Wall, Heslop and Hofstra, 1986). Meanwhile, the research also found that age has an effect on ethnocentric behavior (Good and Huddleston, 1995; Shimp et.al. 1995). although still controversial and ambiguous, by

looking at the current increasingly massive globalization process, it can be stated that younger consumers will be less ethnocentric than older consumers.

Previous studies that focused on country or origin, patriotism, ethnocentrism and evaluation of foreign and domestic products showed differences between male and female respondents (Bilkey and Ness, 1982; Wall et.al, 1986). Women tend to be more patriotic,

Prefer domestic products and tend to be more ethnocentric. Thus it can be stated that there will be significant differences in ethnocentrism between male consumers and female consumers. The results of a study conducted by Nielsen and Spence (1997) regarding demographic variables and their effect on ethnocentrism, show that women are more ethnocentric than men. Meanwhile, Sharma et.al (1995) found that consumer ethnocentrism was negatively correlated with income. In general, studies on consumer ethnocentrism state that women, less educated, less prosperous people, and older people tend to be more ethnocentric than others (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Good and Huddleston, 1995; Watson and Wright, 2000).

Finally, several authors have emphasized the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and internationalism or cosmopolitanism (Babalanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller, and Melewar, 2001; Riefler, Petra, Adamantios, 2009). Ethnocentrism is also applied in the context of services. The study results show that ethnocentric consumers evaluate foreign services more negatively than less ethnocentric consumers. In more detail, it is also found that there is no difference in the ethnocentric influence on the tangible and intangible dimensions as well as on the different influences on the socio-economic dimension of the exchange of services. Some authors also do not consider the option of multiple exchanges and the development of a service relationship.

With few exceptions, research on consumer ethnocentrism has been limited to products and intranational shopping situations. Piron (2002) has investigated ethnocentrism tendencies in border shopping behavior. He found that the majority of Singaporeans who went abroad at least once a month were generally low in consumer ethnocentrism, and they were driven primarily by economic motivations. They shop not only as tourists, but more on a utilitarian motive and develop relationships with certain shopping areas and certain providers.

III. Research Method

The research design to be carried out is to use a quantitative, verification and conclusive approach. This is based on the existence of research problems that question the influence of one variable on other variables. In addition, the research that will be conducted also intends to verify the hypothesis based on the empirical data that will be collected. In addition to the main approach, this research also uses a descriptive approach, especially to answer descriptive problems.

3.1 Measuring Ethnocentrism and Consumer Demographic Variables

Consumer Ethnocentrism variable will be measured using CETSCALE which has been developed by Shimp and Sharma (1995) which consists of 17 items. CETSCALE has been tested in various countries (New Zealand, Watson and Wright 2000; Turkey, Kaynak and Kara, 2002; South Korea, Sharma, Shimp and Shin, 1995; Suh and Kwon, 2002) and showed reliable results as an instrument to measure the level of consumer ethnocentrism. The previous questionnaire items were translated by linguists and adapted to measure the ethnocentrism of Indonesian consumers. In this study, by considering the total number of questionnaires, only 10 items were used, without compromising the ability of the measuring instrument to measure the consumer ethnocentrism variable. The measurement scale used is a numerical scale with a scale of 1-7.

1.	Consumer Ethnocentrism (Y1)	Consumer ethnocentrism is a consumer belief regarding the moral appropriateness to buy imported products or foreign products to guarantee/safe	1. Buying domestically made products 2. Importing non-existent products in the country 3. First priority create jobs	Interval (questionnaire no. 42 to no. 51)
No.	Variable Name	Definition	1. Indicator	Measurement Scale
		their group to survive (Sharma, et.al., 1995 and Shimp and Sharma, 1987).	1. enrich other countries 2. Buying domestic products is the best behavior 3. minimization of import trade 4. damage domestic businesses 5. import barriers 6. the need for taxation untuk produk luar negeri	
2.	Consumer demographics	Characteristics of consumers consisting of age, gender, income and education	Age Gender Income Education	Nominal

In this study, the research population was all visitors to shopping places in the city of Bandung. In this study, the sampling technique that will be used is simple random sampling or also known as simple random sampling. The use of simple random sampling is based on the assumption that the characteristics of the population tend to be the same, that is, all of them sell clothes and shoes.

3.2 Data Analysis Method

In this research, the data analysis method used is Analysis of variance. The Analysis of variance method is a statistical technique used to see whether the independent variable (nonmetric data) has a significant difference in impact on the dependent variable (metric data). In this study the independent variables are age and gender, and the dependent variable is ethnocentrism.

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	degrees of freedom	Mean Squares	F test.
Between groups	$SS_{between}$	C-1	$\frac{MS_{between}}{c-1}$	$F = \frac{MS_{between}}{MS_{within}}$
Error within groups	SS_{within}	cn-c	$\frac{MS_{within}}{cn-c}$	
Total	SS_{total}	cn-1		

c= the number of groups and n = number of observations in the group.

Source: Zikmund, William G., (1997), "Business Research Methods," Fifth Edition, The Dryden Press, halaman 602.

Analysis of variance is used to test the comparative hypothesis (1st to 4th hypotheses)

IV. Result and Discussion

4.1 Trends in the Level of Consumer Ethnocentrism

The tendency of consumer ethnocentrism in the city of Bandung is quite high. This is indicated by the average score of the ethnocentrism level of 5.05, exceeding the median value of 4. Based on the average score of each indicator, all of them show a score higher than 4. Thus it can be stated that consumers in the city of Bandung have a higher tendency. Quite high in liking domestically made products.

4.2. Domestic Product Brand Image

Overall, the average score of Domestic Product Brand Image is 4.57. This shows that the brand image of domestic products according to consumers in the city of Bandung is at a moderate level. Thus, it can be stated that the Brand Image of Domestic Products is still not considered good by consumers in the city of Bandung.

4.3. Consumer Knowledge About Clothing Brand

In this study, as an effort to confirm the brand image of domestic products, respondents were asked about consumer knowledge of brand origin. Brand origin is the geographical location where a product brand is made or where the location of the marketing office for a product brand is (Balabanis and Diamantopolous, 2008). Based on

this concept, respondents were asked about the knowledge of where the shoe brand and clothing brand came from. The results showed that more than 50% of respondents did not know and were wrong in answering questions about where the shoe and clothing brands came from, whether from within the country or abroad. The results also show that the majority of respondents (more than 75%) think that domestic brands of shoes and clothing are foreign-made. This shows that consumer knowledge of clothing and shoe brands is still low. The assumption is wrong because many brands of domestically-made products use foreign-language brand names, such as Edward Forrer, Poshboy, Executive, Hammer and others, so that consumers suspect that they are brands of foreign-made products. Thus the use of brand names affects consumer confidence. The use of English in product brands is perceived to be of higher quality than Indonesian-language product brands, and evaluations of these product brands are more positive (Citra and Syahlani, 2008). Still according to Citra and Syahlani (2008), the use of English for brand names, will improve brand image, even though the product is made in the country.

Thus, the use of language for brand names plays an important role in enhancing the image of a particular product brand. This situation occurs because some consumers in the city of Bandung still consider brands originating from abroad, especially those from western countries to be superior, and if there are product brands that use English, they will suspect that they are foreign-made, and therefore have better quality.

4.4. Analysis of Differences in Ethnocentrism Levels Based on Consumer Demographic Characteristics

To find out whether there is a difference in the level of consumer ethnocentrism between the age groups of respondents, One-Way ANOVA will be used. ANOVA analysis will also be used to test the research hypotheses. Based on the results of the analysis, it is known that the average score of the level of consumer ethnocentrism among various age groups of consumers is as follows:

Table 1. Differences in Ethnocentrism by Age

Age	N	Mean
Young ($\leq$ 20 years)	177	49.7853
Intermediate (21- 29 years old)	144	49.8958
Old ($\geq$ 30 years)	71	54.2254
Total	392	50.6301

The difference in scores of 4.4 (54.2-49.8) needs to be tested for significance. Therefore, it is necessary to test the hypothesis. The ANOVA results in the table below show that the value of $F_{sig} (0.014) < \alpha$ from 5% or 0.05. Thus, it can be stated that consumers with an older age have a higher level of ethnocentrism than consumers who are younger and middle-aged.

Table 2. ANOVA
Consumer Ethnocentrism Level

	Sum Squares	of df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1121.691	2	560.846	4.304	.014
Within Groups	50687.674	389	130.303		
Total	51809.365	391			

4.5. Differences in Ethnocentrism Levels Based on Gender

Based on the results of the analysis, the average score of male ethnocentrism = 49.4 and the average score of female ethnocentrism is 51.5 (see table 4-41 column 3).

Table 3. Ethnocentrism Differences by Gender

Gender	N	Mean
Man	171	49.4503
Woman	221	51.5430
Total	392	50.6301

Table 4. ANOVA

Consumer Ethnocentrism Level					
	Sum Squares	of df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	422.196	1	422.196	3.204	.074
Within Groups	51387.169	390	131.762		
Total	51809.365	391			

From the ANOVA table, it is known that the value of F sig (significant, namely the probability of an error occurring), is 0.074 or 7.4%. When compared with the acceptable error tolerance level of 5%, then H_0 must be accepted. Thus, hypothesis number 2 is not confirmed by the results of the study, and therefore it can be stated that the level of ethnocentrism of male consumers is not lower than that of female consumers.

4.6. Ethnocentrism Differences Based on Consumer Income

This study also wants to see whether there are differences in the level of consumer ethnocentrism based on income levels.

Table 5. Ethnocentrism Differences by Income

Income	N	Mean
Lower income	275	50.4073
Medium Income	99	50.8990
Higher Income	15	54.0000
Total	392	50.6301

Based on the results of the analysis, it appears that the average ethnocentrism score of lower and middle-income consumers is almost the same, namely 50.4 and 50.9, respectively. Meanwhile, the average ethnocentrism score of high-income consumers is actually higher, namely 54.

ANOVA results are as follows:

Tabel 6. ANOVA

Consumer Ethnocentrism Level					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	275.323	3	91.774	.691	.558
Within Groups	51534.042	388	132.820		
Total	51809.365	391			

The ANOVA results show that the F sig value is 0.558 or 55.8%, meaning that the error probability is 55.8%, still much larger than the tolerable error rate of 5% alpha. Therefore, it can be stated that consumers with lower incomes do not have a higher level of ethnocentrism than consumers with higher incomes.

4.7. Ethnocentrism Differences Based on Education Level

Apart from being based on consumer income, in this study the level of consumer ethnocentrism also wants to be seen based on the level of education. The following are the results of the analysis:

Table 7. Differences in Consumer Ethnocentrism Based on Education

Education	N	Mean
Middle education	195	52.3538
Higher education	197	48.9239
Total	392	50.6301

Based on the table above, it appears that the average score of the ethnocentrism level of consumers with lower education is 52.3 and the average score of the ethnocentrism level of consumers with higher education is 48.9.

Table 8. ANOVA

Consumer Ethnocentrism Level					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1152.922	1	1152.922	8.876	.003
Within Groups	50656.442	390	129.888		
Total	51809.365	391			

The ANOVA results show that the F sig value of 0.003 or 0.3% is much smaller than the alpha of 0.05 or 5%. Thus, the proposed research hypothesis is confirmed by the results of this study, and it can be stated that consumers with lower education have a higher level of ethnocentrism than consumers with higher education.

4.7. Discussion

The results of the analysis of the level of consumer ethnocentrism in the city of Bandung resulted in several findings. First, the results of the study indicate that the tendency of the level of consumer ethnocentrism in the city of Bandung tends to be high. The high level of consumer ethnocentrism is directly proportional to the high self-esteem of consumers which is also high. The high level of consumer ethnocentrism may be because most of the respondents are from the city of Bandung, although there may be respondents from outside the city of Bandung who are shopping in the city of Bandung. As it is known that the city of Bandung is the city that produces the most creative industries. Many distros have sprung up with a number of loyal consumer communities. This situation is very likely to be one factor in the high level of consumer ethnocentrism in this study. Second, differences in the level of consumer ethnocentrism based on demographic variables indicate that older consumers tend to have higher ethnocentrism levels than younger consumers. The results of this study are in line with the results of several previous studies (Wall, Heslop and Hofstra, 1986; Huddleston, 1995; Shimp et.al, 1995). Meanwhile, based on gender, there is no significant difference in ethnocentrism between men and women. The results of this study contradict previous studies (Bilkey and Ness 1982; Wall et.al, 1986; Nielsen and Spence; 1997). The absence of differences in the level of consumer ethnocentrism in the city of Bandung may be due to the tendency that women have started to play a role in various social lives (Sri Fadillah, 2010).

Meanwhile, based on income level, there is no difference in the level of entocentrism between groups of consumers with lower incomes and groups of consumers with higher incomes. When viewed from the level of education, the results of the study show that there are differences in consumer ethnocentrism, namely consumers with higher education, lower levels of ethnocentrism. This indicates that the wider the consumer's insight and knowledge, the more open his mind will be, and will be more open to new values, other cultures, as well as foreign branded products.

The high level of consumer ethnocentrism in the city of Bandung indicates that consumers have a positive mental attitude and morality towards product brands made in the country. Although attitudes to consumer ethnocentrism are contrary to the phenomenon that occurs, which tends to show a lack of liking for domestic product brands, a positive attitude to ethnocentrism can be the foundation for the development of ethnocentrism behavior. In other words, less ethnocentric behavior can be pushed into more ethnocentric behavior based on a positive attitude towards ethnocentrism. As explained earlier that a positive attitude alone is not enough to encourage someone to behave. There are many other factors that are strong enough to drive behavior. If using the theory of Reasoned Action from Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), then another factor that may be more powerful in encouraging behavior is the existence of social norms that move so dynamically. On the one hand, consumers are aware of the importance of protecting domestic product brands by buying local product brands, but on the other hand, the current shifting social norms due to the massive flow of information from various sources, makes it difficult for consumers to behave ethnocentrically. The lack of domestic product brands that are considered quality can also be one of the causes of consumers not behaving ethnocentrically.

V. Conclusion

Differences in the level of consumer ethnocentrism based on demographic variables indicate that older consumers tend to have higher ethnocentrism levels than younger consumers. Meanwhile, based on gender, there is no significant difference in ethnocentrism between men and women. Based on the level of income, there is no difference in the level of ethnocentrism between the consumer group with lower income and the consumer group with higher income. When viewed from the level of education, the results of the study show that there are differences in consumer ethnocentrism, namely consumers with higher education, lower levels of ethnocentrism. Consumers' knowledge about the origin of product brands is still categorized as low, and most of them suspect that brands of domestically-made products are brands of foreign-made products.

5.1. Implications

a. Government

The results showed that the level of consumer ethnocentrism in the city of Bandung tends to be high. This is of course very encouraging, although the high level of consumer ethnocentrism is only at the attitude level, not yet at the behavior level. Therefore, to arrive at ethnocentric behavior, there are still various influencing variables, namely social norms, brand quality of domestically made products, brand quality of foreign-made products, brand campaigns for foreign-made products, brand names of domestically-made products, while on the other hand, the globalization variable has a major influence on consumer ethnocentrism, so the government in this case the Ministry of Trade and the Ministry of Industry needs to make the following efforts:

First, so that the level of consumer ethnocentrism continues to increase, the government needs to continue to carry out campaigns regarding the importance of buying domestic product brands. In conducting campaigns, the government needs to pay attention to themes, figures, content, and frequency and media. From the theme, the government should use a patriotic theme for consumers who buy domestic product brands. part of the people who are helping to save the Country. The use of the right theme will help consumers to be more interested and influenced by the content of the campaign. The use of campaign figures will also determine the success of the campaign. Campaign figures

should use people who are popular and become role models for the community, such as artists, religious leaders, cultural figures, academics or professional figures who are appreciated by the community. Meanwhile, in terms of content, it should be in the form of persuasion or an invitation that is persuasive. Successful campaigns require very frequent repetition with campaign variations. It means don't use the same model, figure and setting for your campaign. The last one is the media. Because the target audience for the ethnocentrism campaign is all Indonesians, all media need to be used. However, it is better to focus more on the media that are commonly read, watched by the upper middle class, because this group of people is certain to have a much higher purchasing power, and therefore the possibility of buying products both domestically and internationally made will be higher too.

b. Marketing Practitioner

The implications of the research results for the managerial interest of a domestic business company are as follows: A high level of consumer ethnocentrism is an excellent market opportunity. This means that consumers already have a positive attitude foundation on domestically made product brands. The problem is that this positive attitude has not been realized in the form of purchasing actions, because consumers still consider the quality of domestic product brands to be inferior to foreign product brands. Therefore, marketing policy makers in domestic business organizations need to make maximum efforts. First, decision makers must create products based on consumer tastes, and therefore market research must be carried out continuously to monitor the movement of consumer tastes. Second, trying to maintain and even improve the quality of products that have been accepted by the market. Consistency and orientation to quality in accordance with consumer expectations is the key to product success in the market.

References

- Balabanis, G., Diamantopoulos, A., Mueller, R. and T. Melewar (2001), "The impact of nationalism, patriotism, and internationalism on consumer ethnocentric tendencies", *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 32 No. 1, pp. 157-75.
- Balabanis, G., Diamantopoulos, A., (2008), "Brand Origin Identification: A Classification Perspective", *Journal of International Marketing*, Vol. 16, pp. 59-71.
- Batra, R., Ramaswamy, V., Alden, D. L., Steenkamp, J. B.-E., & Ramachander, S. (2000). Effects of brand local and nonlocal origin on consumer attitudes in developing countries. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 9, 83-95.
- Bilkey, W. and Nes, E. 1982, 'Country-of-Origin Effects on Products Evaluations', *Journal of International Business Studies*, vol. 12, p. 89.
- Boonghee Yoo dan Naveen Donthu (2005), "The Effect of Personal Cultural Orientation on Consumer Ethnocentrism: Evaluations and Behaviors of U.S. Consumers Toward Japanese Products," *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol 18.
- Carvalho, S.(2005), "Understanding consumption as expression of consumer's national identity," Unpublished Ph.D., City University of New York, United States -- New York.
- Citra, Angia, Clara; Syahlani, Suci Paramitasari, (2008), "Efek Merek Domestik VS Asing dan Informasi Country of Origin Terhadap Persepsi dan Sikap Konsumen," *Jurnal Ekonomi dan Bisnis Indonesia*, vol 23 n0. 2 hal 164-177
- Durvasula, S., Andrews, J. C., & Netemeyer, R. G. (1997). A cross-cultural comparison of consumer ethnocentrism in the United States and Russia. *Journal of International*

- ConsumerMarketing, 9, 73-93.
- Fishbein M dan Ajzen I, (1975), *Belief, Attitude, Intentions and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research*, Boston, Addison Wesley.
- Good, L. and Huddleston, P. (1995), "Ethnocentrism of Polish and Russian Consumers: Are Feelings and Intentions Related?", *International Marketing Review*, 12 (5), 35-48.
- Kaynak E, Kara A (2002), "Consumer perceptions of foreign products: an analysis of product-country images and ethnocentrism," *Eur. J. Mark.*, 36(7/8): 928-949
- Klein, J. G., Ettenson, R., & Morris, M. D. (1998). The animosity model of foreign product purchase: An empirical test in the People's Republic of China. *Journal of Marketing*, 62, 89-100.
- Klein JG, Ettenson R, Krishnan BC (2006), "Extending the construct of consumer ethnocentrism: when foreign products are preferred," *Int. Mark. Rev.*, 23(3): 304-321.
- Netemeyer, R. G., Durvasula, S., & Lichtenstein, D. R. (1991). A Cross-National Assessment of the Reliability and Validity of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 320-327.
- Piron, F. (2002). International outshopping and ethnocentrism. *European Journal of Marketing*, 36, 189-210.
- Riefler, Petram, Adamantios (2009), "Consumer cosmopolitanism: Review and replication of the CYMYC scale", *Journal of Business Research* Volume 62, Issue 4, April 2009, Pages 407-419
- Shimp, T. and Sharma, S. (1987), "Consumer ethnocentrism: construction and validation of the CETSCALE", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 26, August, pp. 280-89.
- Sharma, Subhash, Terence A. Shimp, and Jeongshin Shin (1995), "Consumer Ethnocentrism: A Test of Antecedents and Moderators," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23 (1), 26-37.
- Shah, M. et al. (2020). The Development Impact of PT. Medco E & P Malaka on Economic Aspects in East Aceh Regency. *Budapest International Research and Critics Institute-Journal (BIRCI-Journal)*. P. 276-286.
- Setiawan, Bambang, (2012), "Siapa Kelas Menengah Indonesia?," <http://nasional.kompas.com/read/2012/06/08/13003111/Siapa.Kelas.Menengah.Indonesia>,
- (2012), "Kelas Menengah Menggantungkan Asa pada Negara," <http://nasional.kompas.com/read/2012/06/08/1200246/Kelas.Menengah.Menggantung.Asa.pada.Negara>
- Supphellen, M. & Rittenburg, T. L. (2001). Consumer ethnocentrism: When foreign products are better. *Psychology and Marketing*, 18, 907-927.
- Sutisna, Muhari; Yusuf, Furtasan, Ali, (2020), "Brand Image of Domestic Products: Empirical Evidence From Indonesia," *PSYCHOLOGY AND EDUCATION* (2020) 57(9): 2117-2129
- Suweca, I Ketut, (2012), "Kelas Menengah dan Perilaku Konsumtif," <http://ekonomi.kompasiana.com/bisnis/2012/01/17/kelas-menengah-dan-perilaku-konsumtif/>, diunduh tanggal 17-11-2012, jam 10.12.
- Walker, C. (1996), "Can TV save the planet", *American Demographics*, Vol. 18 (May), pp. 42-9.
- Wall, M and Heslop, L. A. (1986). "Consumer Attitudes Toward Canadian-Made Versus Imported Products". *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*. 14(2), 27-36.
- Watson, J. J. & Wright, K. (2000), "Consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards

domestic and foreign products,” *European Journal of Marketing*, vol. 34, no. 9/10, pp.1149-1166.

Yuswohadi, (2012), “Consumer 3000: Revolusi Konsumen Kelas Menengah Indonesia,” Gramedia Pustaka Utama, 261 hlm, 2012

Zikmund, Willia