

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

**Consumer motives to purchase
regional products: the relationship
with regional cultural differences
and demographic variables**

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for the Degree of PhD in Marketing

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this thesis is to propose a scale for measuring purchase intention of regional products (REGIOSCALE) to complement the currently used CETSCALE, which was developed to measure ethnocentrism, rather than region-specific purchase intention. Its findings provide insights into the motives of consumers who buy regional products and how such motives are related to individual factors. These include demographic variables as well as regional (within-country) cultural value differences.

Design/methodology/approach – This thesis is divided in three parts, each of which will focus on one research question. Firstly, what motivates consumers to purchase regional products? This question is answered by analysing forty semi-structured interviews.

Secondly, does the consumer region-centric scale (REGIOSCALE) derived from the interviews have more power to explain consumer motives than the original CETSCALE? This second question is answered by conducting a principal component analysis to start the scale development process of the REGIOSCALE, followed by regression analysis to evaluate which scale is the more significant predictor of consumer motives to purchase regional products based on 1027 surveys.

Thirdly, is there a relationship between individual factors (regional cultural values and demographic variables) and the regio-centric scale (REGIOSCALE)? This third question is designed to evaluate what, if any, predictive power individual factors can have on consumer motives to purchase regional products. Answering this consisted of two steps: the first step was to evaluate regional cultural differences by applying the Kruskal-Vallis ChiSQ test based on secondary data, which showed that regional (within-country) cultural value differences exist. The second step was to use a regression analysis based on the 1027 surveys from the second research question to evaluate the relationship between individual factors and the REGIOSCALE. This second step demonstrated that the strongest predictor

of consumer motives to purchase regional products in the majority of regions was provided by the cultural value of “Self-Transcendence”.

Originality/value – This thesis’ originality and value is threefold. Firstly, it identifies and evaluates consumer motives to purchase regional products in Germany and England, which leads to the development of the new REGIOSCALE. Secondly, it provides empirical evidence that cultural value differences exist on a regional level within countries (not just on a national level). Thirdly, it shows that cultural values can have a significant impact on consumers’ motives to purchase regional products, while consumers’ demographic variables (like age, gender, education level and income) appear not to influence purchase intentions consistently.

Findings – The findings are also threefold. Firstly, the REGIOSCALE has a more significant predictive power of consumers’ motives of regional products than the current CETSCALE. Secondly, regional within-country cultural differences exist within Germany and England. Thirdly, consumers’ demographic variables do not show the consistent relationships with consumer motives to purchase regional products that the regional (within-country) cultural value differences do.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CETSCALE	Consumer Ethnocentric SCALE
REGIOSCALE	Consumer Regio-centric SCALE
WVS	World Value Survey
NUTS	Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics

1 Introduction

1.1 Background of the Research

An increasing number of retailers appear to be listening to customers' demands for more regionally sourced products. In England, for example, slogans such as "support your region", "sourced with integrity" and "making a positive difference to our community" are used by large supermarket chains such as Tesco, Sainsbury's, and Morrison's, while brands such as Carling, John West and Walkers also seek to communicate their regional purchase policies to their customers (Mintel, 2013d). Similarly, German supermarkets such as Edeka and Real use slogans such as "Gutes aus der Heimat" [English translation: Good from home], Lidl uses "Ein gutes Stueck Heimat" [English translation: A good piece of home], and Rewe uses "Regional" [English translation: Regional] to emphasise their regional purchase policies in order to attract consumers wanting to purchase regional goods (Nestlé, 2012; Handelsblatt, 2012; Erste, 2014). Many global companies, such as German based dairy company Mueller, offer products labelled as being sourced from the regions within which they are sold in order to appeal to consumers who prefer to purchase regional products (Mintel, 2012).

One YouGov poll reports that 48% of consumers prefer to buy meat and poultry produced regionally (YouGov, 2012). In another example, the fast food chain "Chipotle Mexican Grill", which has restaurants in the USA, UK, Canada and France, reflects this trend internationally by emphasizing "food with integrity", which is sourced from within the regions it is sold in (Chipotle Mexican Grill, 2012). This trend towards buying regional products is not limited to food. According to Mintel's trend forecast, other examples include furniture and especially textile production (Mintel, 2013a). Even the pet food industry in the UK identified regional ingredients for pet food as a Unique Selling Point (USP) (Mintel, 2013b).

Based on these examples, it is timely and relevant to identify and evaluate which motives encourage consumers to purchase regional products and to what extent the demographics of consumers and regional cultural values

combine to influence consumers' motives. I examine this here by studying consumers in four regions, two each within Germany and England. The reasons to examine Germany and England are twofold. Firstly, doing so ensures that the scale is not only applicable in one region within one country. Secondly, these two countries are culturally close, both being located in Kale's (1995) Germanic cluster. Examining culturally close countries rather than culturally very dissimilar countries eliminates other factors such as economic development or different regulatory systems (Engelen and Brettel, 2010), as potentially highly significant cultural factors.

It should be noted that the term "regional" is not used consistently by advertisers and consumers. Very often the terms "local" and "regional" are used interchangeably. It is therefore necessary to briefly discuss the terms. A study by Brown (Brown, 2003) found evidence that shoppers use terms such as "locally produced food" to describe essentially regional geographical concepts. In an online survey conducted in Germany by the "Stiftung Warentest" (an independent German organisation conducting research into goods and services) consumers were asked how they would define the term "regional product". The majority of answers (78%) were almost equally divided between the geographical regions within a country, prominent natural areas (for example the Black Forest in Germany) and counties (Stiftung Warentest, 2013). This result demonstrates the level of confusion among consumers about what regional products actually are. Within the context of this research, the term "region" refers to regions within a country defined by the European Union under the heading of NUTS 1 (Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics) (European Union, 2012). When talking about regional products, this thesis refers to products from the specific regions in which consumers are resident.

By "regional cultural differences" this thesis refers to value differences across regions within a country (not at the national level). It will also use the term "regional (within country)" to distinguish those regions from any trans-national regions such as Eastern Europe or Sub-Saharan Africa.

Much has been published regarding drivers and barriers to regional and national food, but despite this trend, less emphasis has been placed on consumers' motives for buying regional products. Since the body of literature around regional products is small, this thesis draws upon related literature, including the literature around consumer ethnocentrism and organic product purchase. Some of the consumer ethnocentric literature has already applied the consumer ethnocentric scale (CETSCALE) to measure consumers' intent to purchase regional products (Schnettler et al., 2011; Fernández-Ferrín and Bande-Vilela, 2013). Fernández-Ferrín and Bande-Vilela did not test for the variance in Galicia (Spain) (2013) but Schnettler et al. claimed that the CETSCALE explains 61.5 per cent of the variance in Chile (2011). However the scale (CETSCALE) is meant to measure consumers' perceptions towards the purchase of imported products (Sharma et al., 1995). It is therefore important to question whether the motives from the CETSCALE actually reflect consumers' motivations to purchase regional products.

The consumer ethnocentric literature has also reported that relationships exist between individual factors (demographic variables and regional cultural (within-country) differences) and consumers' levels of ethnocentrism (Good and Huddleston, 1995; Durvasula et al., 1997; Balabanis et al., 2001; Balabanis et al., 2002; Yoo and Donthu, 2005; Javalgi et al., 2005; Othman et al., 2008; Tsai et al., 2013). Thus, it is probable that similar relationships exist between individual factors and consumers' motives for purchasing regional products. This warrants further investigation.

Because of these questions, it would be helpful to gain an understanding of the extent to which individual factors (demographic and cultural values) can help predict consumers' motives to purchase regional products. Doing so would provide a more in-depth understanding of the impact factors have on consumer motives to purchase regional products as well as for practitioners trying to segment their markets.

1.2 Research Objectives

The overarching Research Objective (RO) is:

RQ: Develop a scale to measure consumer motives to purchase regional products and determine the relationship individual factors have on those motives.

In order to meet this research objective, the research process has been divided into three research phases, which will be presented in three individual chapters. Each chapter covers a research phase and will be divided as follows: the chapter will contain a review of the relevant literature, before discussing the methodology, presenting the results and engaging in a discussion related to the research question answered in that chapter.

To measure consumers' motives for purchasing regional products, to develop a scale and determine the relationship individual factors have on those motives, the research process encompasses the following three research phases.

The first phase addresses the following question:

RQ1: What are the different motives of consumers to purchase regional products?

This phase covers the field work in which forty semi-structured interviews (twenty in Germany and twenty in England) were conducted. These interviews explored the reasons consumers had for buying regional products. The semi-structured interviews were conducted with consumers who covered different demographics (male and female; differing age groups; and being from either the north or the south of each of the two countries) to ensure that the findings would be generalizable beyond one region in one country.

The second phase addresses the following question:

RQ2: Which motive areas form the new region-scale (REGIOSCALE) and does it predict consumer motives to purchase regional products?

This phase covers the field work for the scale development process. It goes from the development of the questionnaire, through sampling, to data analysis. The analysis of the survey data led to a three dimensional

consumer regio-centric scale (REGIOSCALE), which seems to have a stronger prediction power of consumer motives to purchase regional products than the original CETSCALE.

The third phase addresses the following question:

RQ3: Is there a relationship between individual factors (regional cultural values and demographic variables) and the regio-centric scale (REGIOSCALE)? If so what is it?

This phase covers the secondary data analysis to evaluate regional (within-country) cultural differences followed by the second part of the primary data analysis (the primary data from the second phase) to evaluate the impact individual factors have on the REGIOSCALE.

This section has reviewed the research objective and how the research process is divided in three parts. After identifying the consumer motives to buy regional products in **phase one** and developing and evaluating the REGIOSCALE in comparison to the originally applied CETSCALE in **phase two**, **phase three** evaluates if regional (within-country) cultural differences exist and the relationship between individual factors and the REGIOSCALE motives.

1.3 Theoretical Contributions

This research project will make three main theoretical contributions to the literature. Firstly, it will contribute to the consumer motive literature, specifically by identifying and evaluating consumer motives to purchase regional products. Secondly, it will add to the research methods for exploring consumers' motivations to purchase regional products, as no existing study in this area has applied the mixed method approach. Thirdly, it will contribute to cross cultural research, by evaluating regional (within-country) cultural differences based on the cultural value theory developed by Schwartz.

The contributions provided by the first and second research phases are grounded in the body of literature of consumer motives and should be of primary interest to scholars researching consumers' motivations to purchase

regional products. In addition, some of the findings, particularly the ones from the third research phase, may be of interest to scholars investigating regional (within-country) cultural differences.

There is a debate in academia as to what a real contribution actually is. The debating parties can be divided into supporters of three main areas of contribution: the revelatory contribution supporter, the incremental contribution or traditional gap spotting supporter, and the replication contribution supporter. The main contribution of this research project lies within the area of revelatory contribution. This will be described below, followed by the ways in which the thesis also makes a traditional gap spotting contribution.

The revelatory contribution to literature comes in research phase one and two of this research project. This research identifies and tests consumers' motives to purchase regional products. According to Okhuysen and Bonardi (2011); Suddaby et al (2011); Sandberg and Alvesson (2011); Alvesson and Sandberg (2011) a revelatory contribution to literature involves giving a revelatory insight through challenging an underlying assumption. The currently underlying assumption in the literature which will be investigated in this research project is that the CETSCALE covers the motives to predict why consumers purchase regional products.

The gap spotting or incremental contribution to the literature comes in all three research phases. Traditional researchers argue the only true contribution lies within a gap of the literature (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2011, 2013; Sandberg and Alvesson, 2011). This traditional gap spotting can be split into three different areas. These three areas are neglect spotting, confusion spotting and context spotting. The first, neglect spotting, refers to areas in the literature which are under-researched, whether in terms of the methodology, the concept or even the theories. The second area is confusion spotting, which describes situations where the literature, and specifically papers, cannot reach consistent results and disagree on certain topics. The third area is context spotting, where the researcher applies an existing theory

and identifies a situation in which this theory has not been applied before (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2011).

The gap spotting contribution of this research project can be divided in two parts. First, there is a neglect spotting contribution. This research project provides a methodological contribution, because none of the existing studies considered here evaluating consumers' motives to purchase regional products applied the mixed method approach. Second, there is an element of contextual gap spotting, which implies that the researcher applies an existing theory, but identifies a situation in which this theory has not been applied before. Regional cultural differences have been evaluated by a small number of researchers (Kaasa et al., 2013; Schnettler et al., 2011), including work in Germany and England, but none of the work to date has been based on the secondary data of the World Value Survey (WVS), which offers representative data for both countries and allows researchers to split up the data into the various regions within countries. This kind of contribution is important to offer marketers and practitioners the most suitable method/context to overcome their research issues (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2011; Sandberg and Alvesson, 2011).

This section explored the three theoretical contributions made in this research project. The next section will explore the work's practical contribution. It is important to anticipate a balance of practical and scientific use; indeed, the American Marketing Association has suggested that it is essential to get academic and practical work together under one marketing umbrella (Ringold and Weitz, 2007).

As such, the next section will highlight the practical value derived through completion of this research project.

1.4 Practical Contributions

This research project will make two main practical contributions, which should be applicable to a wide selection of companies ranging from the small to multinational levels. Firstly, it should be of interest to marketers who are engaged in understanding consumer motives to purchase regional products.

This is important because it will assist marketers to develop their product positioning and marketing strategies. Secondly this research will enable marketers to get a better understanding of customers' cultural (within-country) value differences in Germany and England. This is important because it can be used as a way of segmenting the market.

This research hopes to make these practical contributions in a number of ways. Firstly, it may increase marketers' understanding of customers' motives for purchasing regional products. Regional companies in particular could use the knowledge thus gained about consumer motives to purchase regional products as a Unique Selling Point (USP) and this could prove to be an advantage when competing against multinational companies with no such regional connection. This advantage over multinational companies could also have a positive effect on the regional economy, for example boosting regional farmers' markets or regional butchers. Improved marketing of regional products to consumers could also generate benefits for the environment due to reductions in the distance to market (thus creating a lower carbon footprint), and result in better product quality, for instance in perishable food product categories. Understanding the reasons why consumers buy regional products allows marketers to emphasise the most important points in both the advertising of their products and in their communication strategies.

This research may also be of interest to marketers within multinational companies who wish to adapt their marketing strategy to gain regional branding, perhaps by involving regional businesses. The company Mueller, for example, involves regional businesses to brand their products as being from a particular region within a country (Mintel, 2012). Understanding which motives motivate customers to purchase regional products will be one deciding factor when it comes to choosing which regional businesses to get involved with.

Secondly, this research will enable marketers to see customers' cultural (within-country) value differences in Germany and England. This understanding of regional cultural differences within a country could lead to

the understanding that for multinational companies a nationwide adapted marketing strategy might not achieve the most efficient outcome. Therefore it could be lucrative, not just to blindly adapt a marketing strategy considering existing national cultural theories, but to also take into account differences on the regional level. The general impression that for multinational companies marketing strategies adopted on a national level do not achieve the most efficient outcomes has been supported by several studies (Douglas and Craig, 2011a; Schwartz and Ros, 1995; Chen et al., 2005; Lenartowicz et al., 2003). Various academics have also identified culture as one of the factors which causes problems when marketing strategies are standardised across a whole country (MacNab et al., 2010; Connerley and Pedersen, 2005; Yoo et al., 2011; Thelen et al., 2006; Kaasa et al., 2013; Dou et al., 2006; McNeill, 2006; Song et al., 2012). However, while the previous studies have highlighted a problem, they have not yet delivered a simple solution that will allow marketers to identify these regional (within-country) cultural differences. This is done in the third research phase of this study in the form of maps showing the regional (within-country) cultural value differences based on Schwartz's cultural dimensions.

In summary, the practical contribution of this thesis comes from its potential usefulness for a wide range of companies, including both small and multinational businesses. It could potentially prove vital for companies that want to get a better understanding of consumer motives to purchase regional products. Additionally, this research project could be of use for businesses which want to get a better understanding of consumer value differences within Germany and England, rather than just the value differences between those two countries.

So far, this chapter has featured an introduction to the topic and explained why it is of interest to both academics and practitioners to understand consumers' motives to purchase regional products. This will be followed up with an overview of the structure of the research project, a process that will be repeated throughout the research project to guide the reader through this research.

1.5 Structure of the Thesis

The previous sections of this chapter have set out the scope of this research project as well as its academic and practical implications. This research project is constructed with eight chapters and is divided into three main research phases. These chapters are as follows:

Chapter 1 introduces this research. It describes the research objectives and research questions with an emphasis on the theoretical and practical contributions.

Chapter 2 is used to set the research into the context of the literature, followed by this research project's overall research philosophy, which is the mixed method approach.

Chapter 3 is the first research phase of this research project. It starts with a literature review about consumer motives and ethnocentric consumer behaviour. It demonstrates that previous studies have attempted to evaluate consumers' motives to purchase regional products with the consumer ethnocentric scale. The methodology follows, starting with a description and analysis of the 40 semi-structured interviews which were used in phase one to identify the motives of consumers for purchasing regional products. The conclusion for this phase of the research considers a link between consumer motives to purchase regional and organic products.

Chapter 4 covers the second research phase of this research project. It starts with a literature review of consumer motives to purchase organic products, which the results of phase one suggest are related to those for regional products. The methodology follows, covering the description and analysis of the consumer surveys of N:1025 surveys from two regions in Germany and two regions in England. The conclusion for this phase of the research considers a potential link between consumers' demographic or regional cultural value differences and their motives for purchasing regional products.

Chapter 5 covers the third research phase of this research project. It starts with a literature review of individual factors affecting consumer ethnocentrism and organic product purchase. A detailed discussion follows, where cultural values emerge and the various methods to measure cultural values are examined. This is followed by the methodology, covering the description and analysis of secondary data from the World Value Survey demonstrating that regional cultural differences exist, along with the description and analysis of the survey data to evaluate the relationship regional cultural values and demographic variables have with consumer motives to purchase regional products.

Chapter 6 ties together the findings of chapters 3-5, along with the literature review, to provide the overall conclusion of this research project. It also highlights the contribution of this research project to academia and practitioners.

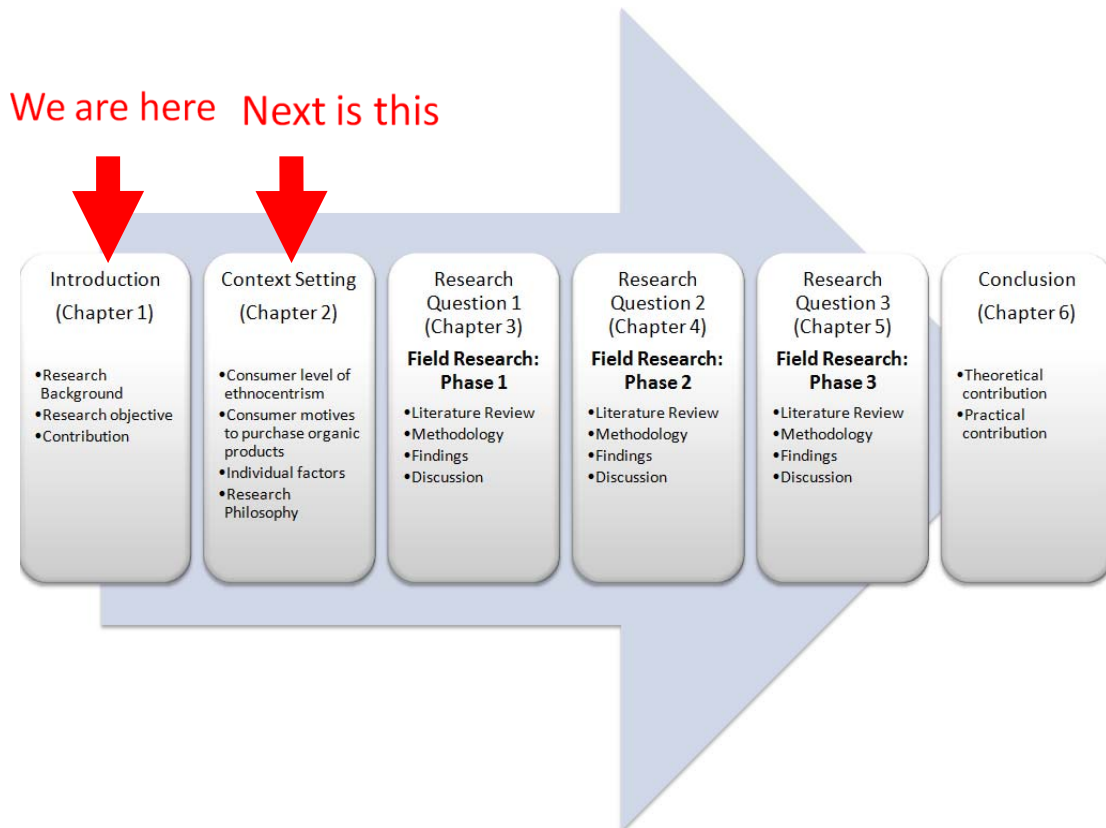
Chapter 7 covers the limitations of this research project.

Chapter 8 describes suggestions for future studies in this area.

Chapter 9 examines the ethical issues that were faced in this research as well as exploring how those ethical issues were minimised.

The diagram in Figure 1 summarises the structure of the research project.

Figure 1: Structure of the research project



2 Context Setting

This thesis sits within the context of literature on consumer ethnocentricity and consumer motives to purchase organic and regional products. The aims are to identify and evaluate which motives persuade consumers to purchase regional products and to what extent demographics and regional cultural value differences have a relationship with consumer motives to purchase regional products.

As mentioned in chapter one, much has been published regarding drivers and barriers to purchases of national food, but despite this trend, less emphasis has been placed on consumers' motives for buying regional products. Since the body of literature around regional products is small this thesis will look into related literature, in this case into the literature around consumer ethnocentrism and organic product purchase.

2.1 Consumer Ethnocentrism

There is a considerable body of research on consumer ethnocentrism and 'the appropriateness, of purchasing foreign-made products' (Shimp and Sharma, 1987: p.280). The highly ethnocentric consumer believes it is inappropriate to purchase foreign-made products even if they are cheaper or better quality, as that would have a negative effect on the domestic economy and jobs (Sharma et al., 1995). The term "consumer ethnocentrism" was adapted from the general term "ethnocentrism", introduced by Sumner around 1906 (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Shrimp and Sharma (1987) developed the consumer ethnocentric scale (CETSCALE), because the classic sociological conceptualisation of ethnocentrism is not applicable to consumer behaviour. The CETSCALE was first developed to examine American consumers' perceptions towards the purchase of imported products (Teo et al., 2011). Since its origin in 1987, the CETSCALE has become widely accepted as a tool for measuring ethnocentric consumer behaviour, and its validity and reliability have been tested across various countries (Teo et al., 2011; Siemieniako et al., 2011; Thelen et al., 2006; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010; Evanschitzky et al., 2008).

Balabanis et al. (2001) stated that consumers' levels of ethnocentrism can be a powerful indicator of consumers' preferences for domestic and foreign products. Schnettler et al. (2011) applied the consumer ethnocentric scale (CETSCALE) on a regional level in two cities in Chile to evaluate consumer typologies with different degrees of ethnocentrism, age, frequency of purchase, etc. Fernandes Ferrin and Bande-Vilela's (2013) obtained a sample of 138 consumers from Galicia (Spain) and concluded that the CETSCALE can not only explain preferences for national or non-national products but can also be applied to evaluate non-regional product purchase (2013). Furthermore, Fernandes Ferrin and Bande-Vilela (2013) highlighted the importance for future studies of being able to 'analyse consumer ethnocentrism at a regional level,' (2013: p.306) and pointed out that with the CETSCALE 'consumers' moral obligation to support the regional business,' (2013: p.306) is 'an underlying factor when it comes to purchasing decisions' (2013: p.306) thus drawing attention to a research gap and showing the need for further research to evaluate the other factors which motivate consumers to purchase regional products.

So, on one side, there is some literature highlighting the importance of further investigation into consumer motives to purchase regional products, paired with anecdotal evidence from a national survey called "Mintel" (Mintel is a Global Market Intelligence agency) which evaluated, in one of their projects, factors influencing consumers' buying intentions of food and non-alcoholic drinks in March 2013 (N:1500 internet users aged 16+). The survey found that consumers were influenced by many other factors, such as animal welfare standards, freedom from pesticides, regional origin, environmental friendliness and traceability (Mintel, 2013d). Table 1 lists the motives of the Mintel survey on the left and the motives covered by the CETSCALE on the right.

Table 1: Mintel versus CETSCALE

Consumer motives to purchase food and non alcoholic drinks in March 2013 (Mintel, 2013c)	Motives covered by the CETSCALE according to Shimp and Sharma (1987) buying imported products is wrong
---	---

	because:
Animal welfare standards	It harms the national economy
Freedom from pesticides	Gives rise to job losses
Regional origin	It is not patriotic
Environmental friendliness	
Traceability	

However, none of the factors from the Mintel survey have to date been integrated with those from the CETSCALE. This seems like a particular gap when applying the CETSCALE to evaluate consumers' intention to purchase regional products. Those neglected factors lead to the possibility that there might be more motives than those covered by the CETSCALE involved when consumers make a regional product purchase, and these potential additional motives must be examined to gain an effective understanding of why consumers buy regional products.

This gap in the CETSCALE literature will be filled by challenging the underlying assumption that the CETSCALE is sufficient to evaluate consumer motives to purchase regional products. To gain a better understanding of why consumers actually buy regional products this thesis' first research question is as follows:

RQ1: What are the different motives of consumers to purchase regional products?

To gain a more detailed understanding of consumer motives to purchase regional products, the first research phase of this thesis involved 40 interviews to identify consumer motives to purchase regional products. During the interviews various motives to purchase regional products were identified. Some are similar to the CETSCALE motives whereas other motives represent additions to those presented by the CETSCALE. Additionally, this first research phase considers a link between consumer

motives to purchase regional and organic products, which will be followed up in the second research phase literature review.

2.1.1 Organic Product Purchase

This second research phase will start by taking a closer look at organic food product purchase motives, since the body of literature around regional products is small. There have been various studies which have looked into consumers' motives to purchase organic food (Harper and Makatouni, 2002; Hughner et al., 2007; Pino et al., 2012; Pearson et al., 2011; Padilla et al., 2013; Hjelm, 2011; Aertsens et al., 2009; Gracia and de Magistris, 2007; Davies et al., 1995).

Hugner et al (2007) conducted a systematic literature review on organic food consumption between 1985 and 2005 and put together a combined list with all the motives which the research papers studied had noted in that period. At the top of the list are health and nutrition, followed by concerns for the environment and belief in the superior quality of organic food products. The prevalence of environmental concerns in particular has been supported by later studies (Padilla et al., 2013; Hjelm, 2011; Aertsens et al., 2009; Gracia and de Magistris, 2007). The motive of buying organic products because of concerns over animal welfare was supported by Padilla et al. (2013) and Hjelm (2011), while the motive of purchasing organic products for perceived superior quality was supported by Hjelm (2011) and Aertsens et al. (2009). These motivations to purchase organic products, especially the desire to save the environment and concern for animal welfare, reflect more strongly the motives discovered by the national Mintel survey than the CETSCALE. This further goes to show that the CETSCALE may not reflect all of the potentially important motives for consumers to purchase regional products.

In conclusion, the 40 interviews showed some overlaps with the organic product purchase literature. However, these 40 interviews also added additional motives, which are not covered by either consumer motives to purchase organic products or the literature on ethnocentric consumer behaviour literature. So after identifying the motives to purchase regional

products, in the second research phase, the motives to purchase regional products are evaluated and their prediction power to purchase regional products based on N:1027 surveys is compared to the prediction power of the CETSCALE motives.

The second research phase answers the questions:

RQ2: Which motives form the new region-scale (REGIOSCALE) and does it predict consumer motives to purchase regional products?

This second research phase is about establishing that the region-centric scale has a stronger prediction power than the CETSCALE. The results from the second research phase also show that customers in different regions have different motives to purchase regional products. Because of this, it is necessary to discuss the extent to which individual factors (demographic variables and cultural value differences) might impact the REGIOSCALE's motives, exploring whether those individual factors could be one explanation why consumers in different regions have different motives to purchase regional products. When reviewing the consumer ethnocentric and organic product purchase literature it is apparent that individual factors seem to have a prediction power of consumer motives (Dreezens et al., 2005; De Boer et al., 2007; Aertsens et al., 2009; Verain et al., 2012; Sangkumchaliang and Huang, 2012; Padilla et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2013; Good and Huddleston, 1995; Balabanis et al., 2002; Yoo and Donthu, 2005; Javalgi et al., 2005; Josiassen et al., 2011; Tsai et al., 2013).

2.1.2 Individual Factors Impacting Consumer Motives

A number of factors that might impact on consumers' motives have been discussed in the literature of organic product purchase and ethnocentric consumer behaviour. Demographic variables and cultural value differences both suggest some relationship between consumers' purchases of organic food products and their ethnocentric tendencies (Dreezens et al., 2005; De Boer et al., 2007; Aertsens et al., 2009; Verain et al., 2012; Sangkumchaliang and Huang, 2012; Padilla et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2013; Good and Huddleston, 1995; Balabanis et al., 2002; Yoo and Donthu, 2005; Javalgi et

al., 2005; Josiassen et al., 2011; Tsai et al., 2013). Therefore, this thesis predicts similar outcomes for the motives to purchase regional products.

Next, there follows a more detailed discussion of what relationship demographic and cultural value differences have with consumers' intent to purchase organic products.

2.1.2.1 Demographic Variables

Academics have come to a number of different conclusions about the relationship demographic variables have with consumer ethnocentric behaviour. For example, when talking about the relationship gender has with that behaviour, some studies state that males are more ethnocentric than females (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Shankarmahesh, 2006), other studies state that females are more ethnocentric than males (Josiassen et al., 2011; Othman et al., 2008; Chambers et al., 2007; Chung et al., 2009; Javalgi et al., 2005; Schnettler et al., 2011) while others state that gender has no predictive power when it comes to consumers' levels of ethnocentrism (Schooler, 1971; Upadhyay and Singh, 2006). When reviewing the organic product purchase literature the results are similarly contradictory. Some studies state that females are more likely to purchase organic products (Padilla et al., 2013; Davies et al., 1995; Magnusson et al., 2001; Aertsens et al., 2009) another study contradicts that, stating that males are more likely to purchase organic products (Briz and Ward, 2009), while again other studies state that gender has no predictive power for consumer motives to purchase organic products (Gracia and de Magistris, 2007; Thompson and Kidwell, 1998; Dettmann and Dimitri, 2009; Sangkumchaliang and Huang, 2012). The same range of findings applies to age (Othman et al., 2008; Alfnes, 2004; Huddleston et al., 2001; Verbeke and Ward, 2006; Schnettler et al., 2011; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010; Sharma et al., 1995; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Thompson and Kidwell, 1998; Davies et al., 1995; Magnusson et al., 2001; Dettmann and Dimitri, 2009; Briz and Ward, 2009; Sangkumchaliang and Huang, 2012; Padilla et al., 2013), education level (Othman et al., 2008; Verbeke and Ward, 2006; Schnettler et al., 2011; Javalgi et al., 2005; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010; Keillor et al.,

2001; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Dettmann and Dimitri, 2009; Briz and Ward, 2009; Sangkumchaliang and Huang, 2012; Thompson and Kidwell, 1998) and income (Shoham and Brenčič, 2003; Sharma et al., 1995; Keillor et al., 2001; Javalgi et al., 2005; Schnettler et al., 2011; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010; Balabanis et al., 2001; Davies et al., 1995; Gracia and de Magistris, 2007; Briz and Ward, 2009). Because of these contradictory findings, it is important to evaluate the relationship that individual factors have with consumer motives to purchase regional products.

2.1.2.2 Cultural Value Differences

In comparison to the research on demographic variables and their impact on both consumer ethnocentrism and organic product purchase, the body of research on the ways cultural value differences have an impact on consumer ethnocentrism and organic product purchase intention is much smaller. It is, however, also less contradictory in its findings.

The majority of studies looking into consumers' purchase intention of organic products have applied Schwartz's cultural value dimensions, and this approach appears to be generally successful, especially for Schwartz's dimension of "Self-Transcendence". The majority of studies evaluating cultural value differences and their impact on organic product purchase revealed a positive relationship with the values "Universalism" (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Lea and Worsley, 2005; Thøgersen, 2009; Dreezens et al., 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; De Boer et al., 2007) and "Benevolence" (Lea and Worsley, 2005; Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Balabanis et al., 2002). "Universalism" and "Benevolence" combine to form Schwartz's cultural dimension of "Self-Transcendence".

The research for the other three dimensions of Schwartz's cultural values is less clear cut, however. "Openness to Change" (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Dreezens et al., 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2013), "Self-Enhancement" (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Dreezens et al., 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2013) and "Conservation" (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Dreezens et al., 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2013) are all more contradictory. For these three dimensions, some studies argued that

the value dimensions “Openness to Change”, “Self-Enhancement” and “Conservation” do have an impact on consumers purchase intention of organic products (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Dreezens et al., 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2013) while others concluded that they do not (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Aertsens et al., 2009; Dreezens et al., 2005).

The third research phase therefore answers the question:

RQ3: Is there a relationship between individual factors (regional cultural values and demographic variables) and the regio-centric scale (REGIOSCALE)? If so what is it?

After consumer motives to purchase regional products were identified in the first research phase and the second research phase evaluated consumer motive dimensions to purchase regional products, the third research phase evaluates whether those motives have any relationship with individual factors (demographic variables or regional cultural differences). The reasons for this interest are derived from the literature discussing consumers’ ethnocentrism and consumer motives to purchase organic products, because the factors which seem to impact consumers’ levels of ethnocentrism and consumers’ motives to purchase organic products are individual factors like demographic variables and cultural values (Good and Huddleston, 1995; Durvasula et al., 1997; Balabanis et al., 2001; Balabanis et al., 2002; Yoo and Donthu, 2005; Javalgi et al., 2005; Othman et al., 2008; Tsai et al., 2013). However the literature has so far provided contradictory findings, which means that it is important to evaluate the relationship between the individual factors and consumer motives to purchase regional products.

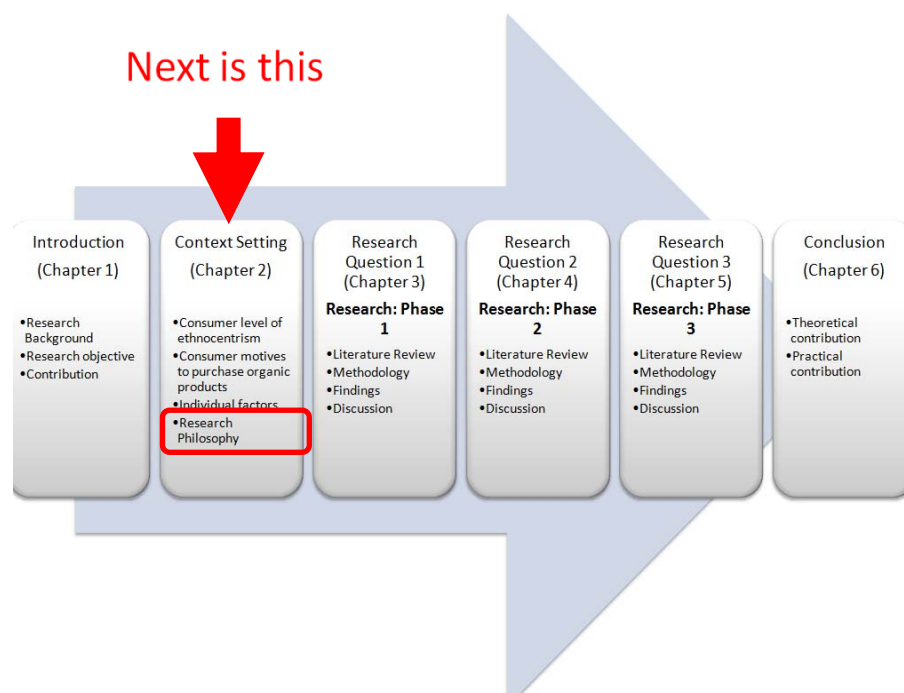
Based on the above research context and to fill the research gap of why consumers buy regional products, this thesis research is divided in three sequential phases:

1. The first research phase covers the process and findings of 40 semi-structured interviews. These interviews were conducted to identify consumer motives to purchase regional products.

2. The second research phase covers the development of the survey (N:1027). This survey was conducted to evaluate consumer motives to purchase regional products.
3. The third research phase covers the evaluation of the relationship between individual factors (demographic variables and cultural value differences) and consumer motives to purchase regional products.

Each of these three research phases features a literature review followed by a research methodology tailored for each specific research phase. That leads to the findings and the conclusion of each phase. A final conclusion chapter ties all three phases together. The whole structure can be seen in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Structure of the thesis



2.2 Research Philosophy

This section will provide a description of the paradigm or research philosophy of this thesis, which gives an understanding of the research process, as can be seen in Figure 3 (Malhotra and Birks, 2007; Ponterotto, 2005). The research philosophy is of importance to produce sound research (Creswell and Clark, 2010). It guides the researcher through the process of what and how they learn throughout the thesis (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002).

Figure 3: Research Design

Self produced based on (Gray, 2009)

In marketing research, two main research paradigms exist, which are used to create new knowledge, based on researchers' ontology (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Each of them rejects the other point of view. However, a more recent development in research philosophy suggests, not the rejection of either of the parties' points of view, but rather the rejection of the idea of a single point of view (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Nielsen, 1991).

2.2.1 Ontology

Ontology describes the nature of reality. More precisely, it makes researchers think about what they believe is reality for them (Arndt, 1985; Saunders et al., 2012). This paper works with the definition that ontology can be divided in three sub-sections: internal (subjectivism), external reality (objectivism) (Saunders et al., 2012; Johnson and Duberley, 2000) and pragmatism (which accepts both realities) (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). I will now briefly describe each of the sub-sections of ontology followed by an explanation of the approach that will be taken here.

2.2.1.1 Subjectivism

Subjectivism suggests that there is nothing like an external reality outside humans' cognitive structures. It argues that any perceived reality is effectively created by social actors, actions and perceptions (Ortner, 1984; Geertz, 1983; Von Krogh and Roos, 1995). Those who subscribe to this approach may defend the opinion that, for example, culture is an independent phenomenon which is the result of adjustment to the unique external environment as well as to other individuals and, as such, it does not exist when humans are not together (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2008; Earley and Singh, 1995; Watkins, 2010)

2.2.1.2 Objectivism

Objectivism acknowledges an external reality, independent from cognitive structures of social actors (humans). In this model, there is a reality when consumers are not around; reality exists not just in the heads of consumers but in and of itself (Saunders et al., 2012; Yeganeh et al., 2004). As an objective, external element, it can be measured and investigated since it does not vanish when consumers are not interacting with one another (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2008). Adopting this approach means that concepts like consumer motives and cultural differences can be measured and investigated even when consumers do not directly interact with another, in the form of surveys, for example (Hall and Hall, 1990; House et al., 2004; Minkov, 2007; Rogers et al., 2002; Schwartz and Bardi, 2001; Taras et al., 2010; Trompenaars and Woolliams, 2004; Hofstede et al., 2010; Inglehart and Welzel, 2011).

2.2.1.3 Pragmatism

Pragmatism avoids the rejection of either party's point of view. From a pragmatic point of view, reality is made of two parts: the external reality which is consistent with the beliefs of positivists, and also a more subjective element. Pragmatists do not say that one explanation of reality is better than another, or claim that one approach is superior to another, rather focussing on the approach that is required to achieve the desired results. So in summary, pragmatists argue that the way to the truth is the one which provides the definitions and constructs that are "best" to answer the research question (Cherryholmes, 1992; Nielsen, 1991; Greene, 1994; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). My own point of view is that there is a reality out there but that to get the closest understanding of the truth I will decide which methods to use to most efficiently answer the research questions on a case by case basis, in an essentially pragmatic approach.

2.2.2 Epistemology and Axiology

Epistemology is the researcher's perception of what represents knowledge. More precisely, it is the nature of the accepted knowledge as well as understanding the accepted sources and limitations of this knowledge. In

combination with exploring what represents knowledge, it is important to explore the researcher's role within the research itself, the so called axiological consideration (Ponterotto, 2005). In this way, the epistemological orientation helps to design the rest of the thesis (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

These philosophies can again be divided into three main approaches. The first one is the interpretive and the second the realist/positivist philosophy (Saunders et al., 2012; Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The third is a combination of both (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). I will now briefly describe each of the sub-sections of epistemology and axiology followed by an explanation of the approach being applied in this thesis.

2.2.2.1 Interpretivism

Advocates of interpretivism emphasise that it is essential to understand the differences, feelings, emotions and relationships between humans and it is too simple to assume that these complex relationships can be defined, measured and reduced to general statements (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2008; Romani et al., 2011; Von Krogh and Roos, 1995). Interpretivistic axiology argues that the researcher's experiences cannot be separated from the research. It also suggests that the researcher should always highlight where their values and beliefs come in but not attempt what they argue is the impossible task of detaching them completely from their research (Ponterotto, 2005). Interpretivism is a lens used in this thesis wherever a problem occurs, such as when the variables of ethnocentrism on a regional level needed to be redefined. This redefinition occurred because the ethnocentric variables used were not enough to capture the increasing interest in regional products that was demonstrated in the literature review. Within this thesis, a broader theoretical understanding of ethnocentric product purchase on regional level is attempted by applying an interpretivistic approach throughout the first research phase (Albert, 1995; Popper, 2002).

2.2.2.2 Positivism

Advocates from the positivism side hold the opinion that reality is measurable and these measurements can be generalised, often comparing the approach to the scientific method (Remenyi et al., 1998; Hunt, 1983; Hunt, 1990,

1991; Hunt, 1993). This research is normally based on existing theories which lead to a hypothesis which is then tested through the research. It is important for this kind of research that it is as value free as possible (Hofstede et al., 2010; Taras et al., 2010; Inglehart and Welzel, 2011). Positivist axiology maintains that the researcher's values and beliefs should not be connected at all to the research itself. This is done by applying standardised and systematic methods to conduct the research (Ponterotto, 2005).

Looking at previous research on cultural values, ethnocentrism and consumers' product purchase intention of organic products, it is evident that both philosophies have been applied, but the positivist epistemology approach seems to be the most commonly occurring (Ivanitz, 1999; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2001; Okely, 1994). Various researchers argue, however, that it is naive to believe that when analysing such complex concepts in a quantitative way to generate reliable results they need to be studied in a social context (Arbnor and Bjerke, 2008; Ivanitz, 1999; Earley and Singh, 1995; Watkins, 2010). By replication of various studies, for example those of Hofstede, Schwartz, and Shimp and Sharma, researchers have shown that it is indeed possible to generate reliable cultural and consumer behavioural based data by applying a positivist approach (Von Krogh and Roos, 1995; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2001; Schwartz et al., 2001). Therefore to evaluate which motive dimensions are stronger in which of the four regions the second research phase will apply a positivist approach.

As shown above this thesis needs to apply both approaches, the interpretivist and positivist philosophies. Applying both philosophies is widely discussed and will be explained in the following sub-section.

2.2.2.3 Pragmatism

Advocates from the pragmatist side argue that researcher can be both objective and subjective in their epistemological orientation and interpretivistic and objectivistic in their ontological orientation. They see the value in knowledge derived from qualitative data as well as quantitative data. In other words they can trust words and numbers when researching to answer to their

research question. This applies in the case of this research. There is a need to conduct interviews to get a more detailed understanding of why consumers purchase regional products but there is also value to be found in testing those motives on a bigger scale to evaluate the generalizability of the identified motives.

Pragmatist axiology, as described by Tashakkori and Teddlie, does not suggest that the researcher is completely subjective for half their research before becoming completely objective. Instead, they believe it to be a more fluid process, where the researcher experiences phases where they are more subjective and aware of influencing the research and phases where the research is more objective and the researcher's values have a minimal impact on the research itself (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998, 2003).

Various academics (such as Johnson and Cassell, 2001; Jogulu and Pansiri, 2011), have challenged the idea that researchers need to be either objective or subjective, including the concomitant paradigm. Other authors (for instance Creswell and Clark, 2010; Easterby-Smith et al., 2002) argue that this restriction on research methods is based more on the researchers' personal ontological and epistemological understanding. In social science research, the acknowledgement of reality is therefore not always accepted as being beneficial. Instead, researchers should focus on the research questions and objectives to determine the most suitable research method to solve the addressed problems (Patton, 2002; Rallis and Rossman, 2011; Jogulu and Pansiri, 2011). They agree on the option of choosing research methods from different traditional paradigms; the so-called "mixed method" (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Haack and Lane, 2006; Creswell and Clark, 2010). The great advantage of this is that it enables the researcher to apply inductive and deductive approaches, like qualitative research, to develop or extend theories (consumer motives to purchase regional products) before using quantitative research to test the results, as is done here with the new scale (REGIOSCALE) (Malhotra and Birks, 2007; Creswell and Clark, 2010; Teddlie and Yu, 2007).

Cresswell describes nine kinds of mixed methods, which are split into four main designs (2008) :

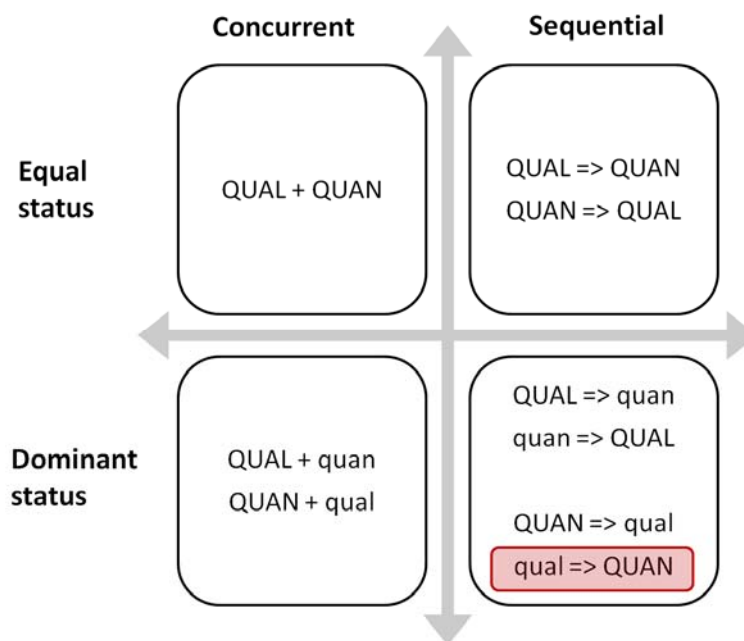
1. Concurrent/parallel or simultaneous studies. This refers to the researcher who conducts both the qualitative and quantitative method at the same time
2. Sequential research, which refers to the researcher who conducts qualitative research followed by quantitative research or vice versa, one after another. To count as sequential research, the first phase of the research needs to be finished before the second can start.
3. Equal design, which describes the weighing of the qualitative and quantitative in such a way as to be equal. With this approach, both methods are equally important to understand the phenomenon studied and answer the research objective.
4. Dominant status design. This is where the research focuses mainly on one method to answer the main part of the research question and just uses the second method in a limited way. For example, a researcher might use the other approach to confirm the first method's results.

Figure 4 gives an overview of the different kinds of mixed methods, based on Creswell's four main mixed method designs. At the top left, qualitative research is being done at the same time as quantitative research and both have an equal impact on the research outcome. Moving to the top right, the researcher puts the same weight on qualitative and quantitative research but after one another, meaning first that thesis starts with quantitative research and confirms or explains those findings with qualitative research or vice versa. At the bottom left there are two options but in this case, both ways to collect data take place at the same time, but one of the two has a bigger impact and the other on is there to support the findings. Finally, the bottom right corner covers four different ways of conducting mixed method research. In the top one, a thesis starts with qualitative research which has a bigger impact on the thesis followed by the quantitative research which is an add on. Next is the case where the researcher starts with quantitative research

followed by a big qualitative research phase, then by a big quantitative study which leads to a qualitative research phase.

Finally, there is the approach that represents the way in which this thesis was conducted. I started by first carrying out semi structured interviews followed up by an extensive survey to test the generalizability of the data collected with the semi structured interviews. That means that the quantitative part of the thesis carries a bigger weight than the qualitative part. The interviews were needed to identify the reasons why consumers might purchase regional products. These findings were then generalised and analysed based on a bigger sample in two regions within each of the two countries. A visualisation of this matrix can be seen in Figure 4, below.

Figure 4: Combining Quantitative and Qualitative research



Note: “qual” stands for qualitative, “quan” stands for quantitative; “+” stands for concurrent; “=>” stands for sequential; capital letters –“QUAL” and “QUAN” denote high priority or weight; lower case letters-“qual” and “quan” denote lower priority or weight. The red square indicates the chosen mixed method for this thesis.

Source: (Jogulu and Pansiri, 2011) adapted from (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Creswell, 2008; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Pansiri, 2005)

2.2.3 Methodology

Several definitions of methodology exist. In this paper, the definition chosen is one that will divide the term into a non-scientific approach to explore and generate theories and a scientific approach to create knowledge (Hackley, 2009; Yeganeh et al., 2004). The research methodology used at any given time reflects the extent to which a particular researcher is developing theories by analysing the collected data or developing and testing hypotheses based on existing theories. Moreover it reflects their school of thought and their chosen philosophy (Saunders et al., 2012).

2.2.3.1 Induction

The inductive approach is often linked to the interpretivist epistemology, which develops new theories based on data analysis. This approach is all about the nature of a problem that can be identified by using qualitative data collection method (Saunders et al., 2012; Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). This approach would apply to the first research phase, where the aim is to identify why consumers purchase regional products, because at that stage a new theory is being developed.

2.2.3.2 Deduction

The deductive approach, on the other hand, is linked to positivist epistemology and argues that certain theories do exist and from those specific hypotheses can be derived and tested through the research. It is used to explain causal relationships between variables, since it is a highly structured approach which equates to quantitative data analysis methods (Collis and Hussey, 2009; Gill et al., 2010; Robson, 2011). Based on the elements created in the first research phase, the second research phase conducts surveys to test the theory (consumer motives to purchase regional products) on a bigger scale, and so follows a more deductive approach.

2.2.3.3 Pragmatism

Krathwohl introduced the term chain of reasoning to describe the natural cycle each research question goes through on its journey to be answered (1993). The difference between inductive and deductive is seen here as the

position the research question is in within this chain of reasoning. Some studies that follow the inductive approach start from observation and interviews to identify constructs and relationships, which then leads to the development of theories. These theories might then be examined by applying a deductive approach to derive hypotheses which are then tested, potentially leading to general laws others can apply. This shows that there is not just one direction research has to follow or one point where it needs to start within this chain of reasoning. But whereas inductive and deductive studies acknowledge or conduct just partial travels through this circle pragmatists know they can use both approaches in various intensities and orders to find the best solution from their perspective to answer the overall research objective (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998).

This pragmatic approach is the most suitable one for this thesis, and so is the one applied throughout. An additional reason for choosing the pragmatic approach is that this thesis is based on existing bodies of theory, such as ethnocentric consumer behaviour, organic product purchase and cultural dimensions (Collis and Hussey, 2009; Gill et al., 2010; Kovács and Spens, 2005; Robson, 2011), as well as aiming to reveal potential additional reasons for consumers to purchase regional products. This approach is a mixed method one, and more precisely sequential exploratory research starting with a comparably smaller qualitative part (40 interviews) to identify the themes which will then be tested in an extensive quantitative part (a survey with around 1000 consumers) (Creswell and Clark, 2010).

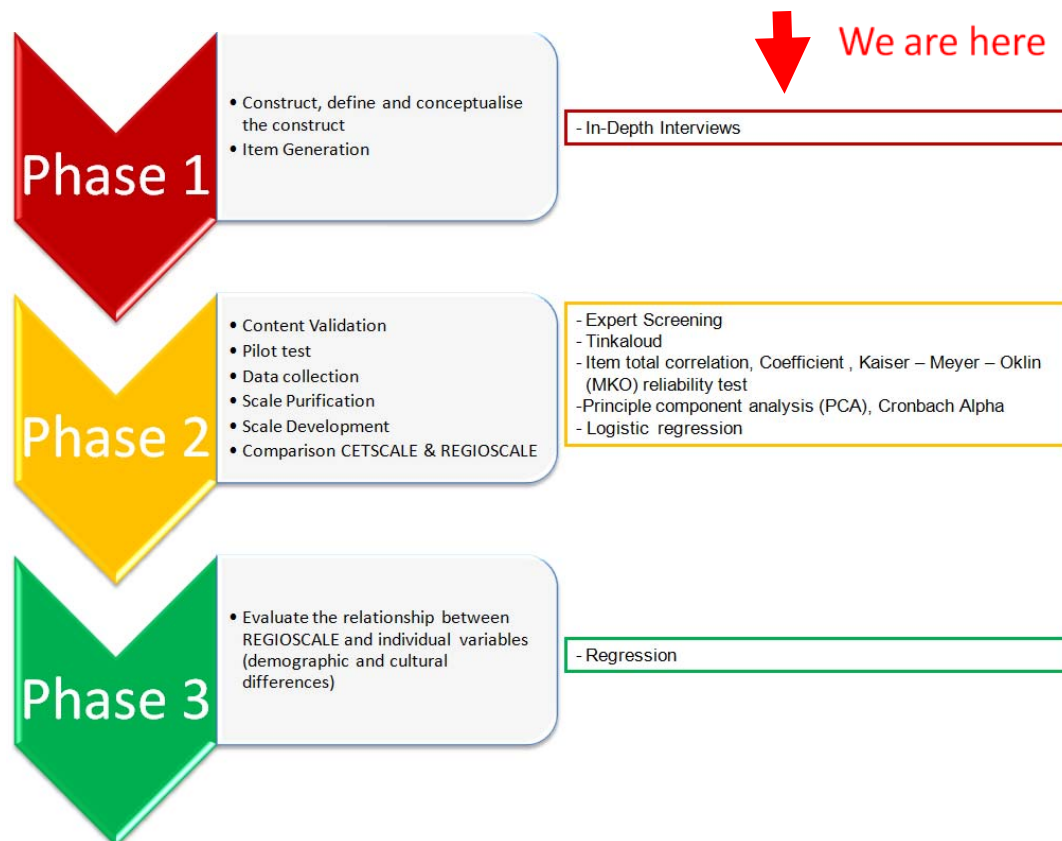
2.2.4 Methods

Depending on the chosen research approach, there are many methods which can be applied to gather the needed data. Some of these are quantitative/deductive methods which include, for example, experiments, surveys and survey-based secondary data, but there are also qualitative/inductive methods, which include, for example, semi or non-structured interviews or observations. This thesis will use three different kinds of methods to answer the research questions (Saunders et al., 2012).

This thesis is divided into three research phases. The **first phase** applies in depth semi-structured interviews to identify consumers' motives to buy regional products. The **second phase** uses surveys to evaluate whether the motives from the interviews can be generalised and if those motives' explanatory power is stronger than that of the CETSCALE. The **third phase** conducts additional analysis of the survey data to evaluate the extent to which individual factors (demographic variables like age, gender, education level and income and regional cultural values) predict consumers' motives to purchase regional products.

These phases are put into visual form in a way proposed by other researchers applying mixed methodologies to enable reviewers to gain a quick understanding of the study's procedures. This visualisation is combined with a brief description of the steps of the research process (Steckler et al., 1992; Creswell, 1999; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). The visualisation of the mixed method research steps is shown in figure 5.

Figure 5: Visualisation of the mixed research method steps



3 Research: Phase One

The first field work phase consists of an exploratory study to develop a list of motives why consumers buy regional products. It is designed to answer research question one, and to provide in-depth insights into why consumers buy regional products.

RQ1: What are the different motives of consumers to purchase regional products?

This chapter starts with a literature review on consumer motives with a focus on consumer ethnocentrism, as previous studies applied the CETSCALE to measure regional product purchase intention. This chapter's position in the structure of this thesis can be seen in figure 6.

Figure 6: Structure of the thesis



3.1 Literature review

3.1.1 Motives

Motives are the outcome of needs the consumer wants to satisfy. As such, exploring consumers' motives equates to understanding the "why" of consumers' behaviour (Dibb et al., 2005).

One previous study used the CETSCALE to evaluate consumers' typologies with different degrees of ethnocentrism on a regional level in two cities in Chile (Schnettler et al., 2011) another study pointed out the importance of being able to 'analyse consumer ethnocentrism at a regional level,' (Fernández-Ferrín and Bande-Vilela, 2013: p.306). To gain a better understanding of the term "ethnocentrism", the next sub-section will start with the concept of ethnocentrism and how these motives can influence consumers in regards to the purchase of regional products.

3.1.2 Motives: Ethnocentrism

The use of the term "ethnocentrism" in relation to consumer behaviour was introduced in 1987 by Shimp and Sharma (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). The purpose of the term and the subsequent CETSCALE developed by Shimp and Sharma was to get a better understanding of why some consumers buy products from their own country rather than imported products (1987). This sub-section aims to argue that the CETSCALE is not sufficient to evaluate consumer motives to purchase regional products. In order to do so this section starts with a detailed description and a more detailed definition of both the term "ethnocentrism" and the CETSCALE to enable the discussion of the actual purpose of the scale and why it is not appropriate to explain regional product purchases.

3.1.2.1 Definitions of Ethnocentrism

The term, and understanding of, "consumer ethnocentrism" was adapted from the general term "ethnocentrism", which first appeared in the literature in work by Sumner (1906). Derived from the original term and transferred into the marketing discipline, this concept describes the consumer's motives:

‘...about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign made products.’ (Shimp and Sharma, 1987: p.280)

A strongly ethnocentric consumer believes purchasing products from abroad is wrong (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Purchasing products from within their country, in this model, gives the consumer a sense of belonging, satisfying a need for self-enhancement and identification with his country or region (Saffu and Walker, 2005; Verlegh, 2007). However ethnocentrism might not be the only motive which impacts consumers’ purchase of regional products, and this view is supported by Fernandes Ferrin and Bande Vilela’s request of further research to ‘analyse consumer ethnocentrism at a regional level,’ (2013: p.306) and in them pointing out that with the CETSCALE ‘consumers’ moral obligation to support the regional business,’ is ‘an underlying factor when it comes to purchasing decisions.’ (2013: p.306). Their work draws attention to a research gap for further work to evaluate the other factors which motivate consumers to purchase regional products.

3.1.2.2 Conceptualisation of Ethnocentrism

Shrimp and Sharma developed the CETSCALE to enable academics and practitioners to measure consumer ethnocentrism (1987). They developed the CETSCALE in America to evaluate the average American consumer’s perceptions regarding purchasing imported products on a national level (Teo et al., 2011). Shrimp and Sharma combined aspects of nationalism, solidarity, morality and perceived threats as elements in their CETSCALE (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Teo et al., 2011). Although other scales have been developed, the CETSCALE is still the most commonly used scale to measure consumer ethnocentric tendencies to purchase imported products from other countries (Chryssochoidis et al., 2007; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010).

While the CETSCALE was developed in the USA, it has been successfully applied to research in other countries, including Malaysia (Nazlida and Razli, 2004; Yeong et al., 2007; Teo et al., 2011), the United Kingdom (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004), Canada and Russia (Saffu and Walker, 2005), Indonesia (Elliott, 2006), Greece (Chryssochoidis et al., 2007), Germany (Evanschitzky et al., 2008), North Cypress (Nadiri and Tümer, 2010),

Australia (Josiassen et al., 2011), Chile (Schnettler et al., 2011) and Bangladesh (Chowdhury and Ibn Rahman, 2014). The complete list of research discussed in this sub-section is in table 1. These studies contributed to the literature by validating the CETSCALE applicability across various countries across the globe.

Table 2: Articles about CETSCALE

Year	Country	Research Method	Sample	Results
2004	Malaysia	Questionnaire (CETSCALE)	175	High income leads to low ethnocentrism; excluding cars and personal computers. Demographics have no significant impact.
2004	The United Kingdom	Questionnaire (CETSCALE-10 item version)	465	Ethnocentric tendency depends on product category and country of origin of imported products
2005	Canada and Russia	Questionnaire (CETSCALE)	144 students + 119 students	Moderate ethnocentric
2006	Indonesia	Questionnaire (CETSCALE)	547	High ethnocentric; ethnocentrism depends on COO effect of the imported products
2007	Greece	Questionnaire (CETSCALE)	274	Marginally ethnocentric, the level of ethnocentrism and the COO effect are related.
2008	Germany	Questionnaire (CETSCALE 10 item version)	674	Level of ethnocentric tendencies depends on the product category in combination with demographic variables. It explains product preferences better than in England (replication of England study from 2004).
2008	Malaysia	Questionnaire (CETSCALE 10 item version)	319 (convenience)	Married Malay (not Chinese or Indian) female, with less education and low income highly ethnocentric.
2010	North	Questionnaire	484	Older, highly educated and

	Cypess	(CETSCALE)		lower income consumer show a higher level of ethnocentric tendency but gender is neutral
2011	Australia	Questionnaire (CETSCALE)	361 random shoppers in a mall	Older females showed the highest ethnocentric tendencies income was neutral
2011	Chile	Questionnaire (CETSCALE)	800 supermarket shoppers	Young consumers with high income have low tendencies towards ethnocentric consumer behaviour.
2011	Malaysia	Questionnaire (CETSCALE)	398 young consumers 16-30	Significantly ethnocentric
2014	Bangladesh	Questionnaire (CETSCALE)	788	Is applicable in Bangladesh & shows a moderate level of ethnocentrism

Self-produced based on (Saffu and Walker, 2005; Teo et al., 2011; Josiassen et al., 2011; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Chryssochoidis et al., 2007; Evanschitzky et al., 2008; Elliott, 2006; Nazlida and Razli, 2004; Yeong et al., 2007; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010; Schnettler et al., 2011; Thelen et al., 2006; Siemieniako et al., 2011; Chowdhury and Ibn Rahman, 2014)

After supplying evidence which validates the CETSCALE, the next section explores how recent academics have applied the CETSCALE to a new context to evaluate consumers' regional product purchase intention instead of consumers' motives about the appropriateness of purchasing foreign made products.

3.1.2.3 Ethnocentrism Versus Regiocentrism

As highlighted in the introduction, there seems to be an increasing demand for regional products. Despite this trend, only scant academic research exists on consumers' motives for buying regional products. However, there is a considerable body of research on consumer ethnocentrism. In 2001 Balabanis et al. evaluated that consumer ethnocentrism has a significant impact on consumers, who favour domestic before foreign made products. Following this result, some academics have used the CETSCALE to measure levels of ethnocentrism and draw conclusions about consumers' purchase intentions towards regional products (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Schnettler

et al. (2011) applied the CETSCALE on a regional level in two cities in Chile, looking at habitual supermarket shoppers. They concluded that consumers with a higher level of ethnocentrism were more likely to buy regional products rather than imported ones (Schnettler et al., 2011). More recently, Fernandes Ferrin and Bande-Vilela's (2013) conducted a study in Spain (Galicia) based on 138 consumers and showed that consumer ethnocentrism is an important factor regarding consumers purchase intention. Additionally they highlighted the importance for future studies that they, 'analyse consumer ethnocentrism at a regional level,' (2013: p.306) and point out that with the CETSCALE 'consumers' moral obligation to support the regional business,' (2013: p.306) is, 'an underlying factor when it comes to purchasing decisions.' (2013: p.306) This draws attention to a research gap for further research to evaluate the other factors which motivate consumers to purchase regional products. (Fernández-Ferrín and Bande-Vilela, 2013). Both of these studies concluded that consumers who view purchasing imported and non-regional products as inappropriate would rather buy regional products (see table 2).

Table 3: Articles about CETSCALE applied to a regional level

Year	Country	Research Method	Sample	Results
2011	Chile	Questionnaire (CETSCALE)	800 supermarket shoppers	Two cities in Chile. Consumers with high levels of ethnocentrism exhibit increased regional product purchase.
2013	Spain (Galicia)	Questionnaire (CETSCALE)	139 individuals	Evaluated that the CETSCALE can measure a preference to buy regional products.

Based on (Schnettler et al., 2011; Fernández-Ferrín and Bande-Vilela, 2013)

However, factors like 'buying imported products is wrong because it harms the national economy, gives rise in job loss and it is not patriotic'; which are the aspects covered by the CETSCALE, seem unlikely to be the only factors impacting consumer intentions to purchase regional products. There is some literature highlighting the importance of further investigation into consumer motives to purchase regional products (Schnettler et al., 2011; Fernández-

Ferrín and Bande-Vilela, 2013) paired with anecdotal evidence from the respected marketing institute Mintel. A recent national survey in England conducted on behalf of Mintel evaluated factors influencing consumers buying food and non-alcoholic drinks (N:1500 internet users aged 16+) and found that consumers were influenced by factors including animal welfare standards, freedom from pesticides, regional origin, environmental friendliness and traceability (Mintel, 2013d). None of these factors has yet been integrated into the CETSCALE (see table 3). Therefore it is necessary to conduct interviews to identify the various motives which lead consumers to purchase regional products.

Table 4: Mintel and CETSCALE

Consumers' motives to purchase food and non-alcoholic drinks in March 2013 (Mintel, 2013c)	Motives covered by the CETSCALE according to Shimp and Sharma (1987) 'Buying imported products is wrong because...'
Animal welfare standards	It harms the national economy
Freedom from pesticides	Gives rise to job losses
Regional origin	It is not patriotic
Environmental friendliness	
Traceability	

The interviews could identify additional motives than just the ones covered by the CETSCALE, as the Mintel survey showed. The Mintel survey includes elements like 'animal welfare standards and freedom from pesticides.' These additional motives lead to the possibility that there could be more motives when discussing why consumers buy regional products.

Since the CETSCALE does not seem to cover all the consumer motives to purchase regional products, regional product purchase is an area of neglect and a revelatory gap which this thesis seeks to fill.

Because of this, the objective of field work phase one is to explore the additional motives consumers have for purchasing regional products.

3.1.3 Justification of this thesis country selection

This thesis will conduct research into two regions within each of Germany and England. The reasons to examine Germany and England are twofold. Firstly, by applying the research in more than one region, it shows that the scale is not only applicable in one region within the chosen countries. Secondly, both countries are culturally close, with both being located in Kale's (1995) Germanic cluster. This approach divides Europe in three different groups. One is the "Germanic cluster" and includes Germany, Austria, Switzerland, England and Ireland. Since language has a big impact on culture (Hofstede et al., 2010), Ireland was not considered, as it has two official languages, Irish (Gaelic) and English (BBC, 2014). Switzerland was not be considered within this research because it is divided into four areas where consumers speak French, German, Romansh and Italian respectively (The Federal Constitution of the Swiss Condederation, 2012). Austria presents similar problems with four different official languages. The majority of Austrians do speak Bavarian, a dialect of German, however Hungarian, Burgenland Croatian and Slovene are also official languages (Austria, 2001). Based on this, the chosen countries are Germany and England, as they both have only one official national language and are additionally culturally close.

The narrow sampling of two countries which are culturally close may limit the ability to generalise this study's findings, but it will still add to the limited literature within the cross cultural research of culturally close countries (Craig and Douglas, 2006). Also, analysing two extremely different countries is potentially problematic, since not just their culture differs but there are also usually differences in the structure of their macroeconomic development and regulatory systems (Engelen and Brettel, 2010).

Before starting to discuss the research methodology in more detail, the next section provides a short summary of what has been discussed in the literature review for phase one of the first research phase and what will follow next in this phase.

Research phase one's research objective is to identify motives why consumers purchase regional products. Based on the literature review it can be concluded that there is currently a lack of understanding of consumers' motives to purchase regional products. This has been highlighted by two articles (Schnettler et al., 2011; Fernández-Ferrín and Bande-Vilela, 2013) in combination with anecdotal evidence (Mintel, 2013c).

Discussion of the research method will follow, starting with a detailed description of the qualitative research field work including 40 semi-structured interviews (20 in Germany and 20 in England). The semi-structured interviews were conducted with consumers who covered different demographics (male and female; different age groups and being from either the north or the south of each of the two countries). These interviews were necessary to explore the question of:

Why consumers buy regional products (why they buy products from the regions where they are currently living). Figure 7 summarises the structure of the thesis and highlights what has been done, where we are now and what will come next.

Figure 7: Structure of the thesis



3.2 Research Methodology

3.2.1 Introduction

The literature review highlighted a gap in the literature, namely that the CETSCALE is being used to measure consumer motives to purchase regional products when it does not seem to cover all the consumer motives to purchase regional products. Therefore this section aims to answer research question one: 'What are the different motives of consumers to purchase regional products in Germany and England?' To fill this knowledge gap, 40 interviews, 10 in each of the four regions were conducted and analysed (two regions in Germany and two regions in England).

3.2.2 Interviews

Interviews are a method of qualitative data collection with the aim to collect rich data to understand what people do and why (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). The aim in phase one of this thesis is to identify consumer motives to purchase regional products. There are other qualitative methods of data collection which would have been suitable to identify consumer motives such as focus groups, however there are two reasons why interviews were chosen over focus groups. Firstly, the study's aim is to investigate individual motives to purchase regional products and not the motives a group of people together can come up with. Secondly, it represented the more practical option, as it was easier and more comfortable for the participants to meet at their own homes for the interview instead of having to travel to a meeting point. Interviewees comfort should not be underestimated since it can have an impact on the quality of participation (Myers, 2013; Merriam, 2014). For those reasons individual interviews were the chosen method for the first research phase.

There are three types of individual interviews, which are structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. Each of them comes with their own advantages and disadvantages. Structured and semi-structured interviews were taken into consideration here because the aim of this research phase was clear: to gather as many motives for consumers to purchase regional

products as possible (Merriam, 2014). Following the pre-testing it was identified that semi-structured interviews were the most suitable approach to use to identify the reasons why consumers buy regional products, because the flow of the interviews was a lot more natural than with structured interviews (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). In the semi-structured interviews it was possible to react to the participants' answers and adapt the order of the questions to the flow of the conversation. Additionally, when new topics were raised in the interview by the participants the interviewer had the flexibility to add follow-up and probing questions to gather as many motives why consumers buy regional products as possible (Merriam, 2014). The following section explores issues which are associated with semi-structured research and how those issues have been addressed in this thesis.

The disadvantages of semi-structured interviews are that the quality of the outcome depends on the interviewer and the ability to think up well worded questions during the interview while listening to the responses. This disadvantage was addressed by practicing interviews prior to the actual data collection for this thesis (Myers, 2013).

The quality of the outcome of the interviews also depends on how well the respondent is able to articulate themselves. This issue was addressed by conducting semi-structured interviews in which the researcher could probe until the interviewee's response was clear enough. Additionally, the interviewer needs to be very careful not to give out unconscious signals to the respondent that might impact on their answer (Saunders et al., 2012). To overcome this disadvantage for this thesis, the researcher practised various interview approaches before starting to collect the data and intentionally worked to reduce potential signals to a minimum throughout the interviews.

As well as the above mentioned difficulties, this process to gather data is potentially very time consuming and expensive (Myers, 2013). In this case the researcher needed to travel to conduct the interviews in two countries. The whole process took around three months including the data analysis and finances were put to one side at the beginning of the research to allow for it.

Another issue can arise because the respondent could be lying and the interviewer just does not know it. The respondent could even give inaccurate information without being conscious of it based on imperfect recall of the real behaviour. This is particularly true if consumers are being asked about things which took place days or weeks ago. The possibility of consumers lying or not being able to recall their real action is always a possible problem for all researchers (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). However this issue is not as relevant here because the main purpose of this part of the thesis is to identify as many potential motives why consumers might purchase regional products as possible for the main survey. Even if some motives provided do not apply to some of the participants it would not have any impact because at this stage of the research the aim was to gather as many motives as possible nothing more and nothing less.

It is crucial when conducting interviews to guarantee confidentiality to the consumer and to keep ones word, which in qualitative research can be a lot more difficult than it is in quantitative research (Saunders et al., 2012). Confidentiality was guaranteed in this instance by using pseudonyms for each interviewee so that no other than the researcher knows the consumer's identity. Even the participants will probably find it difficult to link pseudonyms to data since the pseudonyms are paired only with separate quotes within the thesis, and these could also have been given by other consumers.

Having discussed the potential disadvantages of this method, it is also important to discuss its advantages, along with the reasons why this method was still applied.

The most important advantage is that the interviewer can ask questions in the order that it seems most appropriate in each interview, where a very structured question order could make an interview very stiff and unnatural. It might also lead to repeating questions the consumer might feel uncomfortable about answering (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). In addition, the wording can be adapted to the interviewer's preferred wording and therefore makes the interview seem a lot more natural, which can help to produce a more relaxed interviewee.

The results of this approach generally have a high validity because consumers have the chance to talk about the interview topic in depth, while the interviewer can add probing questions to gain further insights into meanings behind the initial answers (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Additionally, semi-structured interviews help to overcome problems of pre-judgment in the research design. With structured interviews, the researcher needs to predetermine which questions will or will not be asked, potentially allowing their biases to creep in through choices about what seems more or less important. With a semi-structured approach featuring fewer, more general questions, the interviewee has more opportunities to lead the conversation and the researcher's pre-judging about what seems more or less important is resolved (Saunders et al., 2012).

However, there is still some structure. By retaining a basic number of questions, just in an interchangeable order, each interview guarantees a form of consistency and allows a certain level of comparability of the answers (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

In conclusion, when identifying consumer motives to purchase regional products, qualitative methods are more suitable than quantitative ones because qualitative methods collect rich data to understand what people do and why (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). There are various methods to collect qualitative data, such as using documents, observation, focus groups and interviews (Merriam, 2014), however not all methods are equally useful for this study.

For this study, either focus groups or interviews were suitable because they enabled the researcher to ask probing questions to specifically identify the motives for consumers to purchase regional products. It was then decided to apply interviews as the research method to collect data because the aim was to investigate individual reasons to purchase regional products not socially acceptable motives, which could have been the outcome in group settings. Additionally it was more convenient and comfortable for the interviewees to be interviewed in their homes rather than a shared focus group setting, because they were unfamiliar with both the interviewer and this type of

research. The idea was to make sure that they at least felt comfortable in the environment the interview was conducted in. While this might sound like a minor point, Merriam (2014) and Myers (2013) both emphasise not underestimating interviewees comfort, since it can have an impact on the quality of participation. The aspect of comfort was also a deciding factor in choosing semi-structured interviews over structured interviews. Using semi-structured interviews enabled the research to probe and follow up on statements made by the interviewees and overall produced interviews that had a much more natural flow (Saunders et al., 2012; Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Considering the advantages, the semi-structured interview appeared to be a very effective tool to gather data for this thesis.

3.2.3 Sampling

Qualitative researchers do not focus on large sample sizes to generate their results (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Instead, the size is dependent on the amount of interviews which are needed to achieve theoretical saturation to answer the research question (Marshall, 1996). The applied sampling technique here was non-random, judgment sampling. More precisely, the convenience and snowball sampling approaches were applied to collect data from 20 English and 20 German consumers. The reason for conducting 20 interviews in each of England and Germany is because at that number theoretical saturation was achieved in both countries (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) meaning no new information was gained from a new interview (Merriam, 2014). For this study, the respondents had to be born and be currently living in the selected region. This was done to reduce the potential impact cultural value differences could have on the respondents' answers. According to both Hofstede and Schwarz, the place where people were born and are currently living could both have an impact on consumer values (Hofstede et al., 2010; Schwartz, 2006b), which according to the literature can have an impact on consumer motives to purchase organic products (Zhou et al., 2013; Aertsens et al., 2009; Verain et al., 2012) and consumer ethnocentrism (Balabanis et al., 2001; Tsai et al., 2013; Javalgi et al., 2005). Additionally, it was important for this study that the respondents represented different age groups as well as both genders, because according to Myers

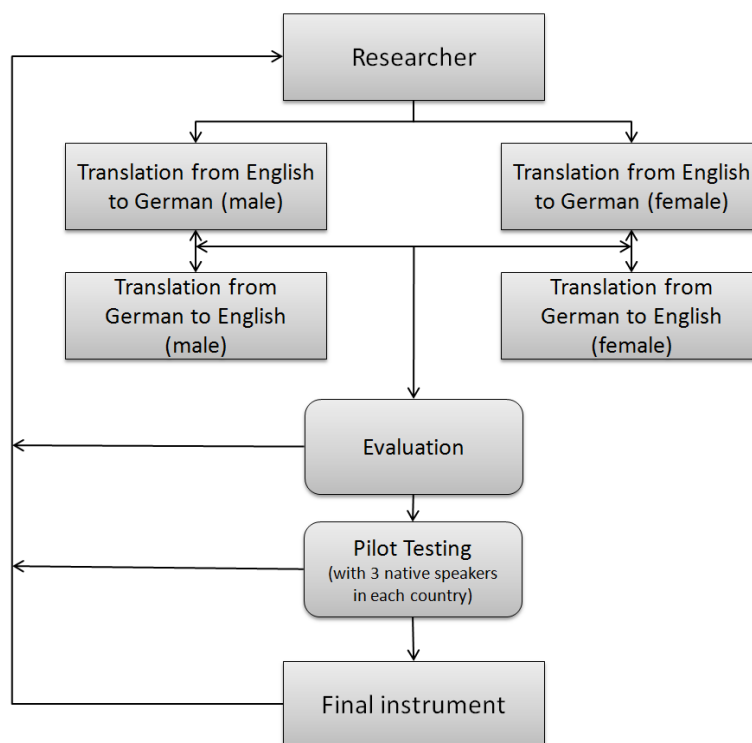
and Newman it is more important to generate interviewees who represent various voices than a specific sample size (2007).

3.2.4 Translation

Conducting research in different countries needs special care when translating questions and instructions. A word by word translation does not guarantee that the question really means the same thing in another language (Massoubre et al., 2002).

There are various ways to translate questionnaires, including direct translation, back-translation, parallel translation and mixed techniques. Some academics suggest that simple back translation or any other method applied alone is not sufficient (Massoubre et al., 2002; Tran, 2009). Massoubre et al. (2002) evaluated that a pre-test using a combination of natives as well as bilingual speakers is necessary to avoid missing out on small details. Tran (2009) combined most of these potential elements in his “cross cultural translation process”, which is explained in figure 8 (Tran, 2009).

Figure 8: Cross-Cultural Translation Process



Self-produced based on (Tran, 2009; Massoubre et al., 2002)

The interview protocols were designed in English than translated by two bilingual individuals (bilingual being defined in this case as people who can speak both languages fluently, being able to express themselves effortlessly in each language), one female and the other male, before being back translated into English by two native speakers, one male and one female (Tran, 2009). The different genders were used because Tran's research (2009) has shown that there is a translation difference related to people's gender. Translated interviews were subsequently pre-tested in from of two in-depth interviews and no further changes needed to be made.

3.2.5 Measurements & Scales

An interview guideline was used, which was written down to guarantee that the interviewer covered every topic (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). The actual interview was as follows:

1. Which products do you associate with your region?
2. Which of those have you bought recently?
 - a. Why did you or did you not buy those?
 - b. What needs to change for you to buy regional products from your home region?
 - c. Why did you buy them initially?
 - d. Why did you buy them repeatedly?
 - e. What would make you stop buying those products?
 - f. If a product from another region or country were the same price which would you buy?
 - g. If the price of the (regional product) reduced by half would you be more inclined to buy it or less?
3. What reasons would other consumers from your region give when **buying** or **not buying** regional products from your home region (in your opinion)?
 - a. If a product from another region or country were the same price which would they prefer?
 - b. If the price of the (regional product) reduced by half would they be more inclined to buy it or less (what do you think)?
4. Did we miss anything?

It was important when developing the interview guidelines to make sure that the questions were short to reduce misunderstandings (Kvale, 1996). Additionally, the questions were in a logical order to enable a more natural

interview process. The interview generally started with an explanation of the purpose of the interview, including what both parties would get out of the interview and what the interview process consisted of (Rallis and Rossman, 2011). This was a necessary step to develop the items for the questionnaire, which was conducted after the analysis of the interviews. The main interview started with two easy, introductory questions to ease the interviewee into the next questions. '1. Which products do you associate with your region?' and '2. Which of those have you bought recently?' These open questions were used to lay the foundation for questions that followed and asked the interviewee about more specific memories to get to the main motives why consumers do or do not buy regional products (Kvale, 1996). They were also there to ensure that the interviewees had the same understanding of "regional products" as the research intended: that regional products were products coming from their home region within England/Germany. The following questions formed the heart of the interview guide, aiming to gather the motives of why consumers, in this case the interviewees, buy or do not buy regional products:

- a. Why did or did you or did not buy those?
- b. What needs to change for you to buy regional products from your home region?
- c. Why did you buy them initially?
- d. Why did you buy them repeatedly?
- e. What would make you stop buying those products?
- f. If a product from another region or country were the same price which would you buy?
- g. If the price of the (regional product) reduced by half would you be more inclined to buy it or less?"

The above questions are follow up questions to the two initial questions. The most important points which were considered were that the above questions should be clear (Cicourel, 1964), ask for one thing at the time (Patton, 2002), be open ended to encourage the interviewee to elaborate (Patton, 2002), and additionally be supported by moments of silence during the interviews to encourage to interviewee to fill the silence with their answers (Leech, 2002). Furthermore, an indirect question was added:

3. Which reasons would other consumers from your region give when **buying** or **not buying** regional products from your home region (in your opinion)?
 - a. If a product from another region or country were the same price which would they prefer?
 - b. If the price of the (regional product) reduced by half would they be more inclined to buy it or less (what do you think)?

This indirect question was aimed to gain additional motives that the interviewees might not share or admit to being motivated by. Those included motives which the interviewee might think were not desirable by society (Kvale, 1996). For example, they might say, 'I have a friend, she does not buy regional products because she just does not care or because they are too expensive.' They also included motives that the interviewee did not feel influenced by, but which might influence others. These were just as important for this stage of the research, as other subjects/individuals in the same region as the interviewee might have had other motives which differed from the motives of the interviewee, and the aim was simply to gather as many potential motives as possible.

The next question was part of the overall conclusion in which the interviewer summarised the main points of the interview and asked:

4. Did we miss anything?

That question was included as it can lead to further insights or trigger additional memories of the interviewee (Myers, 2013).

If the interviewees were rather quiet or shy, probing questions were used. For example (Malhotra and Birks, 2007; Myers, 2013; Merriam, 2014):

- What do you mean by ...?
- Why do you say that?
- Tell me more about ...
- That is interesting, can you tell me more?
- Would you like to add anything?

3.2.6 Credibility of the Research

'Reducing the possibility of getting the answer wrong,' (Saunders et al., 2009: p.156) increases the credibility. Validity is an indicator of whether the measurements really measure what they are supposed to (Saunders et al., 2012).

To reach the highest possible reliability for this research phase, the data collection techniques and protocols were standardised as much as possible. Silverman (2009) proposed that researchers should tape record their interviews to reduce interviewer bias when analysing the data, which was done in this research. The interviewer also took notes to summarise the main points made during each interview, and to enable the interviewee to review the notes to verify the conclusions and information the research drew and collected during the interview session (Labuschagne, 2003).

The respondent could talk freely and in detail about their motives to purchase regional products, so that their intentions and the reasons why they do or do not care about regional products should be revealed. The interviewer took notes during each interview in detail to achieve highest possible descriptive validity (Labuschagne, 2003). In the next step, citations of the consumers were one of the main elements used to interpret the data, so as to aim for a high interpretive validity (Saunders et al., 2012; Maxwell, 2005; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Weber, 1990; Weber, 1983; Duriau et al., 2007; Vitouladiti, 2014; Kabanoff and Holt, 1996). The next section discusses the decisions on the most appropriate data analysis technique for this research project.

3.2.7 Data Analysis

There are various ways to analyse qualitative data. Since the first research phase involved conducting interviews, some of the methods which can help to analyse that approach will be listed and assessed (Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2008).

One approach is conversation analysis. In this, the main focus of the analysis is on the behaviour of the interviewee instead of what he/she says, mainly

applied in focus groups. Discourse analysis, by contrast, focuses on the use of language, and the structure of how the words are organised.

There is another method which seemed more applicable to this first research phase in order to generate reasons why consumers buy regional products, which is classic content analysis. Content analysis has various advantages in comparison to other data analysis techniques. These advantages are in its ability to identify trends or themes among a sample group (Weber, 1990). Although it is a type of qualitative analysis, it also achieves high reliability among the data analysis tools for qualitative research (Labuschagne, 2003; Vitouladiti, 2014; Duriau et al., 2007; Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009). With this technique, the researcher needs to break the data into big pieces and code so that each motive becomes one element of code. This is needed to identify the motives which interviewees mentioned during their interviews to identify as many reasons why consumers buy regional products as possible (Herring, 2010; Krippendorff, 2004; Easterby-Smith et al., 2008; Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2008). This approach to content analysis does have some disadvantages, however, they are either irrelevant or can be minimised in the context of this study. The major disadvantage, for example, is that this is a purely descriptive method. It does not give any further insights into a topic regarding any underlying motives. However, in the case of the first field work phase this disadvantage is irrelevant because this first research phase's aim was purely to identify consumer motives to purchase regional products, not underlying constructs or reasons for those (Vitouladiti, 2014).

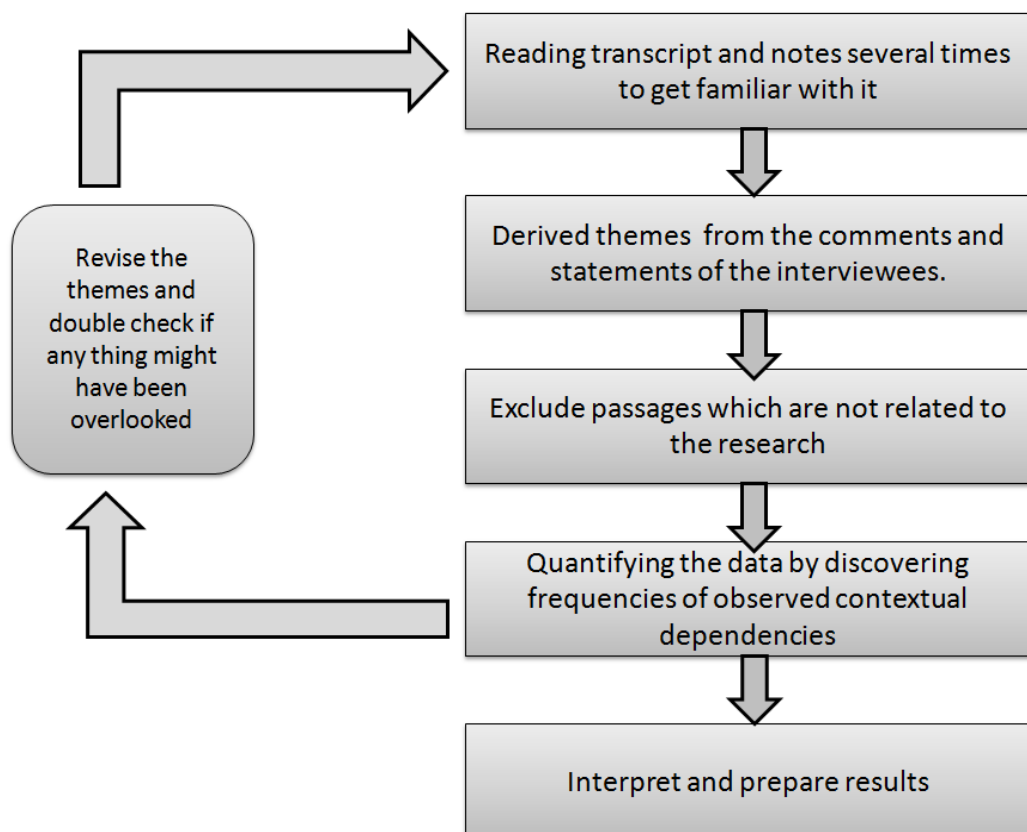
The final issues which need to be considered are the reliability and validity issues potentially arising from vagueness of words and meanings used, both by the researcher and the participants (Weber, 1990). This is a general issue with qualitative research and this limitation was minimized here by asking the participants probing questions.

It was also necessary to take care when it came to coding the data for the content analysis. There are two main methods here. One is prior coding, in which the themes or categories for the coding are defined prior to reading the

interviews (Weber, 1990). However, this approach was not useful for this first research phase, because the aim was to gain the themes from the interviews. As such, the second method, emergent coding, was applied. To do so the research followed a mix of steps outlined by Detmar et al. (2006), Elo and Kyngäs (2008) and Zhang and Wildemuth (2009). Based on this decision the data analysis proceeded as follows: The full interviews were recorded, transcribed and conceptually content-analysed. After reading the transcripts multiple times to gain increasing familiarity with the interviews, themes and words were used to identify the themes/motives of why consumers purchase regional products.

This first research phase followed defined steps for the data analysis (see figure 9).

Figure 9: Schematic flow chart of the qualitative analysis



Sources: Self-produced based on (Detmar et al., 2006; Elo and Kyngäs, 2008; Malhotra and Birks, 2007)

The first step was data assembly, gathering the data from the interviewees, including the recorded interviews, as well as some notes taken during the interviews (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

The second step was to choose a method to apply a structured data analysis, which is the content analysis. It made it possible to look at the data and see which themes emerged by asking what consumers talk about the most. Moreover, it potentially increased the ability for replication, and validity, of this data (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002; Krippendorff, 2004; Labuschagne, 2003; Weber, 1990; Weber, 1983).

The third step was to prepare and make sense of the data by reading through it several times so as to become familiar with it, making it possible to identify common statements (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Burnard, 1991; Elo and Kyngäs, 2008).

The fourth step was to identify comments and statements which were categorised regarding the research questions (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008).

The fifth step was to identify phrases to gain insight into the interviewees' responses (Weber, 1990). In this way, the data was reduced, which made it easier to work with, and also made it possible to identify trends/patterns by counting similar words/ phrases (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

The sixth step was to quantify the data by discovering the frequency of observed contextual dependencies, which improved the quality of the interpretation (Holsti, 1969), and also highlighted potential dimensions (Krippendorff, 2004).

The seventh step was to identify the right tools to analyse the data. Traditionally NVIVO, NU*DIST or Atlast-ti could be applied, and they have received widespread acceptance in research academia (Silverman, 2009). However they count frequency without considering quality, and moreover, these tools still need the application of the researcher's judgement. As such, the above software applications have not been used for this thesis. Instead, the transcribed interview responses were edited in Word by highlighting the

motives mentioned by each of the interviewees. (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002).

The findings derived from the seven steps were used to identify the motives consumers have to buy regional products and compare those to the existing CETSCALE to identify if the CETSCALE covers all the motives or not. These new motives were then tested in a survey. The position of this within the research can be viewed in figure 10.

Figure 10: Structure of the thesis



3.3 Findings

40 interviews were conducted, 10 in each of the four regions studied. Two of these regions were in England and two were in Germany. Details of the interviewees are given in table 4. Fourteen of the interviewees were under 35 years old, twenty-one were between 35 to 54 years old and five were above 55 years old. Out of the 40 interviews, 26 interviewees were female and 14 male. More details can be found in the table below.

The first column in table 4 shows the consumers' pseudonyms, which were used in the rest of the research project. The second column shows the age group each consumer fit in. The third column shows the gender of each consumer. The fourth column gives the education level of each consumer. The fifth column shows the consumer's income level. The sixth column shows the region where each interview was conducted, which was also the region that the consumers came from. The seventh and final column shows the country each consumer was from.

Table 5: Demographics

Consumer	Age	Sex	Education Level	Income	Region	Country
1 England N	Under 35	F	Advanced degree	Over £40,000	Northwest	England
2 England N	Under 35	M	Secondary school	Over £40,000	Northwest	England
3 England N	35-54	F	Advanced Degree	Over £40,000	Northwest	England
4 England N	35-54	M	Secondary School	16,000-28,000	Northwest	England
5 England N	35-54	F	Advanced Degree	Over £40,000	Northwest	England
6 England N	Under 35	F	Advanced Degree	Refused	Northwest	England
7 England N	35-54	F	Advanced Degree	£28,000-40,000	Northwest	England
8 England N	35-54	M	Secondary school	£28,000-40,000	Northwest	England
9 England N	Under 35	F	Advanced Degree	Less than £16,000	Northwest	England
10 England N	Under 35	F	Advanced Degree	Less than £16,000	Northwest	England
1 England S	35-54	F	College	Over £40,000	Southeast	England

2 England S	35-54	M	University Degree	Over £40,000	Southeast	England
3 England S	55 and older	F	University Degree	£28,000- 40,000	Southeast	England
4 England S	55 and older	M	University Degree	£16,000- 28,000	Southeast	England
5 England S	35-54	F	College	Less than £16,000	Southeast	England
6 England S	35-54	F	Advanced Degree	Over £40,000	Southeast	England
7 England S	35-54	M	Advanced Degree	Refused	Southeast	England
8 England S	Under 35	F	University Degree	Less than 16,000	Southeast	England
9 England S	35-54	F	Secondary school	£28,000- 40,000	Southeast	England
10 England S	35-54	M	Secondary school	£28,000- 40,000	Southeast	England
1 G N	Under 35	F	Advanced Degree	Less than £16,000	Northwest	Germany
2 G N	Under 35	F	University Degree	Less than £16,000	Northwest	Germany
3 G N	Under 35	F	Advanced Degree	Less than £16,000	Northwest	Germany
4 G N	35-54	F	Secondary school	Over £40,000	Northwest	Germany
5 G N	35-54	M	Secondary school	Over £40,000	Northwest	Germany
6 G N	35-54	F	Secondary school	£28,000- 40,000	Northwest	Germany
7 G N	55 and older	M	Secondary school	Refused	Northwest	Germany
8 G N	Under 35	F	University Degree	Over £40,000	Northwest	Germany
9 G N	Under 35	M	University Degree	Over £40,000	Northwest	Germany
10 G N	Under 35	M	University Degree	Over £40,000	Northwest	Germany
1 G S	35-54	F	Advanced Degree	Over £40,000	Southeast	Germany
2 G S	35-54	F	Advanced Degree	Over £40,000	Southeast	Germany
3 G S	35-54	M	No formal	Over £40,000	Southeast	Germany

			education			
4 G S	35-54	F	Advanced Degree	Less than £16,000	Southeast	Germany
5 G S	35-54	M	Secondary school	£28,000-40,000	Southeast	Germany
6 G S	35-54	F	Secondary school	£16,000-28,000	Southeast	Germany
7 G S	Under 35	M	Secondary school	£16,000-28,000	Southeast	Germany
8 G S	55 and older	F	Secondary school	£28,000-40,000	Southeast	Germany
9 G S	55 and older	F	Secondary school	£16,000-28,000	Southeast	Germany
10 G S	Under 35	F	University degree	£16,000-40,000	Southeast	Germany

The interviews led to seven motive areas and the subareas are presented in table 5.

Each row lists one of the seven main motive areas and is further divided into three sub-rows. The two top rows show the number of responses which emerged from the content analysis in more detail. First are the collated answers of the North-West of England, the South-East of England, an overall figure for England, the North-West of Germany, the South-East of Germany and the overall total of the motives for Germany. In the row below are the sub-areas which constitute each of the main motive areas. These sub-areas were derived from the results which will be described more in detail in the following sections.

Table 6: Summary of the motive areas raised from the 40 interviews

Support and Feel Regional	England-N	England-S	England	G - N	G- S	Germany
	17	9	26	6	7	13
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Buying regional products saves local jobs. • I buy regional products to support local industry. • I buy regional products to feel the local connection. • I buy regional products for the regional identity. • I only want to buy regional products (patriotic reasons). 					
Environment	England-N	England-S	England	G - N	G- S	Germany
	10	3	13	22	16	38
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional products are more environmentally friendly (e.g. reduce carbon footprint air miles). 					

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I buy regional products to avoid long transport ways for my products. • Regional products have better standards (e.g. no chemicals used in the production). • Regional products are more organic. 					
Quality & Trust	England-N	England-S	England	G - N	G- S	Germany
	4	3	7	8	17	25
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional products are of high quality. • Regional products have a good reputation. • I buy regional products because I trust the regional official seals more. • Regional products taste better. • Regional products are better in general. • Regional products are easily traceable • I buy regional products because I know where they are from. 					
Familiarity	England-N	England-S	England	G - N	G- S	Germany
	1	9	10	3	5	8
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I buy regional products because I grew up with them. • I buy regional products because I have a personal closeness to them. • I buy regional products because I was always told to buy them. 					
Health	England-N	England-S	England	G - N	G- S	Germany
	0	1	1	2	0	2
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional products are healthier (e.g. no harmful substances). 					
Unique - authentic	England-N	England-S	England	G - N	G- S	Germany
	3	0	3	0	0	0
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional products have distinct attributes (e.g. taste, look, design) • Special regional products are not available from other regions. 					
Convenience	England-N	England-S	England	G - N	G- S	Germany
	3	0	3	1	2	3
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is more convenient for me to buy regional products. 					
TOTAL	38	25	63	42	47	89

Although the table provides a broad understanding of the seven motive areas that emerged from the interviews, the next sections provide more detailed descriptions of those motive areas.

3.3.1 Support and Feel Regional

The in-depth semi structured interviews were conducted to provide better insights into consumer motives to purchase regional products. The exploratory nature of this first research phase aimed to examine various motives in the contemporary market and development of unexplored areas. The following sections will description of the major findings of the qualitative research phase and draw conclusions of consumer motives to purchase regional products.

'I think it is good for the local economy to support, you know, local workers. If you buy something which is manufactured and packaged and sold here than it benefits the local community.' (1 England N);

'To keep my money in the community and more jobs in the community' (10 England S);

„Außerdem will ich ja auch die Leute unterstützen die hier wohnen und arbeiten.“ (2 G S) [translated into English: *'I also want to support the consumers who live here and work.'*] (2 G S)

The statements all suggest that consumers buy regional products to support the regional job market, which led to the first survey statement:

6b: Buying regional products saves regional jobs.

Similarly to this, several of the interviewees also felt they were supporting the regional industry by purchasing regional products

'...which are not necessarily cheaper but it keeps the local economy going.' (2 England N);

'I think if you support your local economy you make the money stay in the area and hopefully local jobs.' (9 England S);

'I do buy local milk from our local farmer and dairy because obviously it supports the local area and we need all the help we can get.' (5 England S).

The above statements mention motivations to buy regional products to support the regional economy which led to the following survey statement:

13c: I buy regional products to support regional industry.

Others highlighted the regional connection they feel when purchasing regional products, and particularly the good feeling they get out of it.

'...because you kind of have loyalty to your local area.' (6 England N);

'...regional identity...' (1 England S);

„...denn es ist ja auch Bestandteil meiner Umwelt und natürlich sag ich mal das Heimatgefühl.“ (5 Germany S) [Translated into English: *'...because it is also part of my environment and also of course the sense of home.'*]

The above comments led to the following two statements for the survey:

13f: I buy regional products to feel the regional connection

13g: I buy regional products for the regional identity.

The final statement under the category of “Support and Feel Regional” was from a man who was very passionate about his region and emphasised that he would only buy products from his own region.

'...like think patriotic I only want things from my area...' (4 ENGLAND N).

The comment about patriotism as a motive to purchase regional products led to the next survey statement:

13b: I only want to buy regional products (patriotic reasons).

These motives can be categorised under the general motive area of “Support and Feel Regional”, but there were also motives related to other areas, the next of which is “Environment”.

3.3.2 Environment

Since climate change is a big topic on the news, consumers' awareness of their carbon footprints has increased in recent years, which was reflected in the interview comments:

'Save the water, save the air, save the world our children have to live here later too.' (4 England S);

'Well I suppose the carbon footprint issue can be overcome by buying products which are made here...' (1 England N);

'A lot of consumers are becoming more environmentally aware. For food miles or more of a social conscience.' (10 England N);

'...reduce the carbon footprint.' (4 England S);

These statements about environmentally friendly behaviour as a motive to purchase regional products led to the survey statement:

6d: Regional products are more environmentally friendly (e.g., reduce carbon footprint, food miles).

Other consumers specifically highlighted that they were against long transport chains for products which they could equally well obtain from regional stores.

'I don't like the idea of it being transported hundreds of miles.' (9 England N);

'... it does make sense to buy things which have not been transported very far from a green point of view...' (3 England S);

"Weil ich es doof finde wenn Sachen quer durch Deutschland gefahren werden." (2 Germany S) [Translated into English: *'Because I do not like it when products are being transported across Germany.'*]

Those statements about avoiding long transport routes as a motive to purchase regional products led to the following item for the survey:

13k: I buy regional products to avoid long transport ways for my products.

Another reason was that consumers perceived regional products to have higher standards with regard to animal welfare and safety, and saw that regional products were not genetically enhanced, which one of the interviewees in particular appeared to have strong feelings about.

“...weil ich damit unterstellen kann ob zum Beispiel mit Genmanipulierten Sachen gearbeitet wird oder ob es industriell oder raffiniert behandelt wird. „ (5 Germany S) [Translated into English: ‘...because I can assume for example that the products are not genetically enhanced or if the product is treated in an industrial or processed way.’]

„Artgerechte Haltung, das war der Anfang ...“ (4 Germany N) [Translated into English: ‘Animal Welfare, that was the beginning...’].

These comments about better standards as a motive to purchase regional products led to the following survey statement:

6c: Regional products have better standards (e.g. no chemicals).

One consumer, again from the south of Germany, emphasised that he buys regional products because there is:

„...eine Wirtschaft die mir ökologischen Anbau garantiert“ (5 G S) [Translated into English: ‘...an economy which guarantees organic crop growing.’].

The statement that regional products are more organic led to the final statement regarding the motive area “Environment”:

6g: Regional products are more organic.

These motives can be categorised under the term “Environmental” motives. The next section deals with motives related to product quality.

3.3.3 Quality & Trust

Quality was mentioned in both countries as a motive to buy regional products. Several of the consumers interviewed perceived regional products to be of higher quality.

'Because you associate them with quality,' (1 England N)

'Its good quality,' (2 England N);

'...personal benefits...' (6 England N);

'It could be any products like clothes, anything I can buy... Because of the quality.' (8 England N);

'Quality is local so they buy quality if they have the money for it only if they are poor they buy shit.' (10 England S).

The above statements about quality as a motive to purchase regional products led to the following statement for the survey:

6 a: Regional products are of high quality.

The ninth consumer in the south of Germany emphasised that regional products have a better reputation and that is why that person buys regional products.

„Lebensmittel und so haben einen guten Ruf.“ (9 G S) [Translation into English: *'food items and others have a good reputation.'*]

The German consumer talking about good reputation as a motive to purchase regional products led to the following statement:

6h: Regional products have a good reputation.

Another German consumer emphasised that she trusts regional marks more and she feels better buying regional products for that reason.

„Die Leute vertrauen unseren Siegeln mehr.“ (1 Germany S)
[Translated into English: ‘*The consumer trusts our regional official seals more.*’].

Another German consumer mentioned trust in the regional official seals as a motive to purchase regional products, which led to the statement:

13l: I buy regional products because I trust the regional official seals more.

Some consumers in Germany and England associated regional products specifically with food items and highlighted that they perceived regional products as tastier.

‘*They tasted all right, they were good,*’ (9 England S);

„Gleichen Gründe sind frischer und schmecken besser und denke mir Leute die selber kochen achten drauf weil sie merken das es Geschmacklich und frischer ist. Aber sogar in Restaurants gibt nun regionale Speisekarten!“ (6 Germany N) [Translation into English: ‘*Same reasons are fresher and taste better and I think consumers who cook for themselves pay attention and care about it because they taste better and are fresher. But even restaurants offer now regional menus!*’]

„Das Schmeckt man schon genau das ich zum lokalen Metzger gehe“ (8 Germany N) [Translation into English: ‘*You can taste it that I go to the local butcher.*’]

The above comments from English and German consumers in regards to better taste as a motive to purchase regional products led to the next statement:

6f: Regional products taste better.

Another person said she buys regional products just because she perceives them as better.

„Weil es einfach besser ist ...“ (7 Germany S) [Translation into English: *‘Just because it is better...’*]

This comment made by a German consumer led to the statement for the survey:

6l: Regional products are better in general.

Three interviewees in the south of Germany emphasised the importance of the traceability of the products.

„Also wenn man Sachen aus der Region kauft weiß man halt auch wo sie her kommen“(3 Germany S) [translated into English: *‘Also when you buy products from your region consumers know where those products are from.’*]

„Erstens damit ich weiß woher es kommt...“ (6 Germany S) [Translated into English: *‘First so I know where they are from...’*]

„Weil es für mich überschau bar ist woher die ProdEnglandt kommen,...“ (5 Germany S) [Translated into English: *“...because I know where the product is from”*];

The above comments mentioned knowing where the products are from as another motive to purchase regional products, which led to the following two statements in the survey:

6e: Regional products are easily traceable

13e: I buy regional products because I know where they are from

These reasons all relate to ideas about “Quality and Trust”. The next answers are clustered under the motive area “Familiarity and Habit”.

3.3.4 Familiarity and Habit

For the next motive area, “Familiarity and Habit”, the first statement is that consumers buy regional products because they grew up with those products.

'...historically. Part of my familiarity and habit.' (2 England S);

'...this is what I want and what my parents had...' (8 England S);

„Meine Mutter hat mich immer mit geschleppt zum Markt. So bin ich damit aufgewachsen.“ (7 Germany S) [Translated into English: *'My mum always dragged me with her to the market, so I grew up with it.'*]

„Man ist damit aufgewachsen und kennt diese ProdEnglandte!“ (8 Germany S) [Translation into English: *'I grew up with it and know these products.'*]

'It's how you grew up...' (2 Germany N);

“Meine Mutter hat es auch viel gemacht.” (7 Germany N) [Translated into English: *'My mum also did it a lot.'*]

The above statements point out that consumers buy regional products because they are familiar with their own regional products from their childhood, which led to the survey comment:

13d: I buy regional products because I grew up with them.

The next reason was that consumers felt a personal closeness to the products which they purchased from their own region.

„Also Z.B. meine Mama kennt in ihrem Dorf den Milchbauern persönlich und kauft dann auch bei ihm im Hofladen die Sachen direkt weil sie ihn einfach kennt.“ (2 G S) [Translated into English: *'So for example my mum knows in her village the milk farmer personally and buys the milk from his little farm shop directly just because she knows him.'*]

To examine the importance of consumers' personal closeness to their purchase regional products, the following comment was used in the survey:

13J: I buy regional products because I have a personal closeness to them.

The final reason under the heading of “Familiarity and Habit” was only mentioned once, by a consumer from the South of England who said the reason for buying regional products was:

‘I was always told to buy British.’ (8 England S)

To evaluate how heavily the fact weighs that consumers have been told to buy a certain product the next statement was added:

13i: I buy regional products because I was always told to buy them.

3.3.5 Health

The next motives for consumers to buy regional products were all in the area of “Health”, as they perceived regional products to be healthier and more natural

‘...they are supposed to give health benefits...’ (9 England S);

“...es sei gesünder. Keine Chemikalien oder andere Zusatzstoffe...” (1 Germany N) [Translation into English: *‘...it is supposed to be healthier. No chemicals or other additives.’*]

To measure how important the belief that regional products are healthier is for consumers to buy regional products, the following statement was added to the survey:

6k: Regional products are healthier (e.g. no harmful substances).

3.3.6 Unique-Authentic

The next element was included in the survey because the interviews revealed that some consumers buy regional products for their distinct attributes like, taste, looks or designs. One interviewee said that:

‘You can get like specific pies from specific places with specific taste and recipes from those areas. There are few products which are like that which certain type of rhubarb coming from the certain type of area.’ (6 England N).

To determine how important the distinct attributes of taste, look and design are to consumers to purchase regional products the following statement was added to the survey:

6i: Regional products have distinct attributes (e.g. taste, look, design).

Another consumer argued that regional products from his own region were not available from any other region.

'I guess the same thing is just not available from other regions.' (10 England N).

The above quote is not, strictly speaking, a motive to purchase regional products, but it might show a factor impacting consumers' decisions to purchase regional products. As such, the following statement was added to the survey:

6j: Special regional products are not available from other regions.

3.3.7 Convenience

One of the consumers suggested that they would buy regional products just because it was convenient for them, since a regional store was on the way back from work, stating that a reason for buying regional products was:

'...convenience; you go to the local small shops not to the big supermarkets.' (2 England N).

Therefore the next statement was included in the survey:

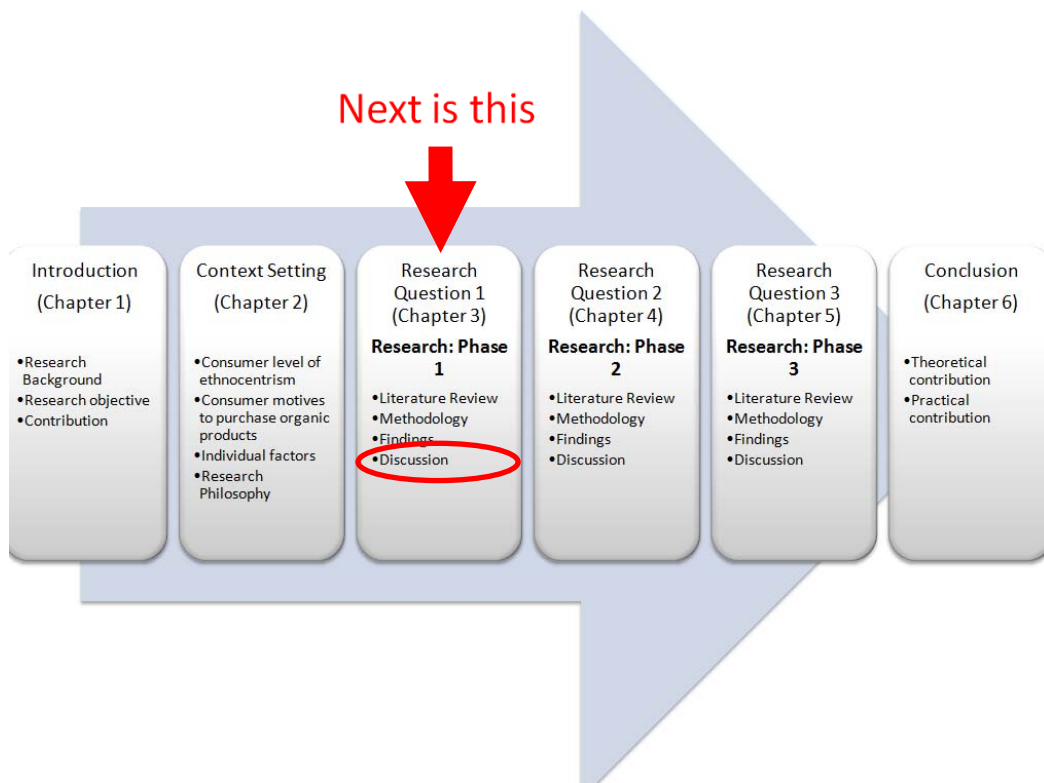
13a: It is more convenient for me to buy regional products.

One additional area was added at the end of section 13 in the survey, which was "Others". If consumers had any other reasons for buying regional products which have not been revealed in the interviews, those consumers had the chance to add them.

In conclusion, the interviews assisted in formulating the motives for the survey, exploring why consumers buy regional products. The interviews also

helped with the right wording of the questions for the survey. All together the interviews led to 23 motives which were covered in the survey. Next is the discussion of this first research phase, summarising and discussing the findings of the semi-structured interviews. The following step can be viewed in the context of the overall structure of the thesis in figure 11.

Figure 11: Structure of the thesis



3.4 Discussion

The purpose of the first research phase was to identify motives why consumers might purchase regional products. Overall, 23 motives were identified, which were split into seven motive areas.

Each row in table 6 lists one of the seven main motive areas and is further divided into two rows. The top rows show the number of responses which emerged from the content analysis in more detail. First are the collated answers from England and Germany to the questions on why the interviewees buy regional products. In the row below are the sub-areas, which constitute each of the main motive areas. These sub-areas were derived from the results described above.

Table 7: Summary of the motive areas raised by the 40 interviews

	England 26	Germany 13
Support and Feel Regional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Buying regional products saves local jobs. • I buy regional products to support local industry. • I buy regional products to feel the local connection. • I buy regional products for the regional identity. • I only want to buy regional products (patriotic reasons). 	
	England 13	Germany 38
Environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional products are more environmentally friendly (e.g. reduce carbon footprint air miles). • I buy regional products to avoid long transport ways for my products. • Regional products have better standards (e.g. no chemicals used in the production). • Regional products are more organic. 	
	England 7	Germany 25
Quality & Trust	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional products are of high quality. • Regional products have a good reputation. • I buy regional products because I trust the regional official seals more. • Regional products taste better. • Regional products are better in general. • Regional products are easily traceable • I buy regional products because I know where they are from. 	
	England 10	Germany 8
Familiarity & Habit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I buy regional products because I grew up with them. • I buy regional products because I have a personal closeness to them. • I buy regional products because I was always told to buy them. 	
	England 1	Germany 2
Healthier	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional products are healthier (e.g. no harmful substances). 	
	England 3	Germany 0
Unique authentic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional products have distinct attributes (e.g. taste, look, design). • Special regional products are not available from other regions. 	

Convenience	England 3	Germany 3
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is more convenient for me to buy regional products. 	
TOTAL	63	89

It can be seen from table 6 that the motives cited by the interviewees were similar in Germany and England, but the data presented in the German columns is richer, particularly with regard to the number of times each area was mentioned. This may be due to the German vocabulary being wider, as suggested by Baker (2004) or to more widespread consumption of regional food over a longer period of time in Germany, resulting in greater familiarity and a wider “regional product” vocabulary, hence more areas being mentioned more frequently. In addition, different motive areas were frequently mentioned across the regions and countries, which could be due to cultural differences (Baker et al., 2004).

Furthermore, a closer examination of the table above suggests, not just an overlap with the consumer ethnocentric literature, but also with consumer motives to purchase organic products. For example, the interviews provided statements such as ‘Regional products are more environmental friendly (e.g. reduce carbon footprint and air miles)’ which is also mentioned in Hjelmars (2011) research, conducting in depth interviews in Denmark and Padilla et al.’s work (2013) based on secondary data (N:13.074) from Germany.

This overlap will be further investigated in the literature review of research phase two since the body of literature around regional products is small, but there have been various studies which have looked into consumers’ motives to purchase organic food (Harper and Makatouni, 2002; Hughner et al., 2007; Pino et al., 2012; Pearson et al., 2011; Padilla et al., 2013; Hjelmars, 2011; Aertsens et al., 2009; Gracia and de Magistris, 2007; Davies et al., 1995). After this, research phases two’s methodology covers the description and analysis of the consumer surveys of N:1025 surveys (which is based on the consumer motives derived from the interviews), the screening of the results to increase the content validity, the pilot test activities to limit the problems after distributing the surveys, the scale purification to eliminate weak items, the scale development and finally the comparison of the

prediction power of the CETSCALE to the REGIOSCALE. The next step of this thesis is highlighted in figure 12.

Figure 12: Structure of the thesis



4 Research: Phase Two

The first research phase addressed the question “What are the different motives of consumers to purchase regional products?” That phase covered the field work in which forty semi-structured interviews (twenty in Germany and twenty in England) were conducted. This was done to identify as many motives for consumers to purchase regional products as possible. Research phase two starts by investigating further overlaps between the organic product purchase motives and the motives identified in the 40 interviews. The methodology follows, which focuses on developing a scale based on the motives identified in the interviews, the consumer regio-centric scale (REGIOSCALE). This is followed by an attempt to determine which scale (the CETSCALE or REGIOSCALE) is the more significant predictor of consumer motives to purchase regional products based on 1027 surveys.

4.1 Literature Review

In the previous chapter of this thesis, the motives of ethnocentrism were discussed in relation to regional product purchases. After conducting interviews, 23 motives were identified, which will be further evaluated in this second research phase. However, after analysing the results of the qualitative data collection, it became evident that those motives from the interviews fit into the goods classification ‘credence’ products. Credence products according to Darby and Karni (1973) are products, which value even after being used by consumers, are difficult or impossible to determine. The credence product category is different from the ‘search’ and ‘experience’ product categories because according to Nelson (1974) in case of a ‘search’ product, consumers can determine the added value before the actual purchase for example a car. A consumer can compare different cars and know exactly what the added value of one car is in comparison of other cars. Experience products according to Nelson (1974) and Klein (1998) are products which added value can only be determined after purchase. Therefore credence products are distinctively different from search and experience products (Girard et al., 2003).

Previous researchers who looked into credence products and the characteristics why consumers would buy those identified organic and locally grown being valued highly by consumers (Dentoni et al., 2009; Zepeda and Li, 2006; Raab and Grobe, 2005; Darby et al., 2008; Wirth et al., 2011; Mabiso et al., 2005).

First this literature review will cover motives to purchase organic food followed by a section about motive to purchase local food derived from the credence product literature.

4.1.1 Motives to Purchase Organic Food

The words “organic food” primarily describe the farming standards under which the food was produced (Davies et al., 1995). Most consumers are unfamiliar with the specifics of these farming standards. They do, however, grasp the main concept that organic products are intended to be “chemical-free” (Hughner et al., 2007).

There have been various studies which have looked into consumers’ motives for purchasing organic food, including those of Harper and Makatouni, who looked into consumer perceptions of organic food production and farm animal welfare (2002); Hughner et al. who looked into why people purchase organic food (2007); Pino et al., who analysed determinants of regular and occasional consumers' intentions to buy organic food (2012); and Pearson et al., who looked into what we know (and do not know) about consumers of organic food (2011).

A 1994 study conducted in Scotland by Tregear et al. and a 1995 study by Davies et al. in Northern Ireland both concluded that the main motives for consumers to buy organic products were that they were perceived as healthier, more environmental friendly and as tasting better than non-organic food. The main reason for non-purchase was the price (Tregear et al., 1994). The study from Northern Ireland added the variables gender, age and parenthood to the list of factors impacting organic product purchase behaviour. It suggested that organic product purchases were especially likely for mothers aged 30-45 (Davies et al., 1995).

Another study published in 2002 and conducted in England applied a qualitative approach (interviews) to collect motives why consumers buy organic products, with a focus on 40 parents with children in the age range of 4-12. This study concluded that, for parents in one city in England (Reading), the main motives to buy organic products were health aspects, animal welfare and environmental concerns. The health and the environmental elements were similar to those found by the first two studies, but this study from England emphasised the aspect of consumers' concerns for animal welfare as an additional motive for consumers to purchase organic products (Makatouni, 2002).

In the same year Harper and Makatouni published another paper, which was based on four focus groups with 6-8 consumers each and no specific focus on parents. That study concluded that, even when excluding the variable of being a parent for young children, the motives to buy organic food products were still the same, focusing on food safety (health aspects) and ethical issues (animal welfare). However, this study also supported a new motive, which was the quality, as consumers perceived organic products to have personal benefits (Harper and Makatouni, 2002).

In (2007), Hughner et al. conducted a systematic literature review of all research on organic food consumption between 1985 and 2005 and put together a list featuring all the motives research papers had come up with in that period. The five most researched motives for consumers to purchase organic products according to Hughner et al.'s paper are ranked as follows (2007):

1. The most researched motive is health and nutrition. Consumers perceive organic products to contain fewer chemicals and as therefore being better for their health.
2. The second most researched motive is consumers' concern for the environment. Consumers perceive organic products to have a lower carbon footprint than imported products (either from other regions or countries).

3. The third most researched motive is the superior quality of organic products in comparison to non-organic products. Consumers perceive organic products to taste better and generally be of better quality.
4. The fourth most researched motive is consumers' concern for animal welfare. Consumers believe that the animal welfare rules and regulations are more elaborate in the production of organic foods than for non-organic food products, and that the conditions in which animals are kept are better.
5. The fifth most researched motive for consumers to purchase organic products is to support the regional economy. Consumers feel good when they buy organic products because by doing so they believe that they support the regional economy.

Some less extensively researched motives were that consumers bought organic products because they were more wholesome, because of nostalgia, having grown up with them, because they were curious about the trend or because they saw buying organic food products as fashionable (Hughner et al., 2007).

Gracia and Magistris conducted a study in the South of Italy and came to the conclusion that there, health and environment were the two main motives. This is in line with the two most researched motives identified by Hughner et al. (2007). Gracia and Magistris also supported the study from Northern Ireland and Scotland by concluding that the variable of higher income had a positive impact on the purchase of organic food products (Gracia and de Magistris, 2007).

Another review by Aertsens et al. of personal determinants of organic food consumption not only supported the idea that the main motives to buy organic products were health, environmental friendliness and superior taste but also suggested that the consumers' core cultural values could positively influence attitudes towards organic food consumption. This paper was one of the first to extensively discuss the impact value theory (and specifically the cultural values put forward by Schwartz) could have on the theory of planned behaviour in relation to the consumption of organic food products (Aertsens

et al., 2009). None of the previously discussed papers had explored cultural values as a variable with potential impact on consumer motives to purchase organic products.

Hjelmar's study from 2011 conducted sixteen in-depth interviews in Denmark to evaluate consumer motives to purchase organic food products. The four core motives were health, followed by animal welfare, environmental aspects and the perceived better taste of organic products in comparison to non-organic products. (Hjelmar, 2011). This is in line with the top four most researched motives identified by Hughner et al.'s (2007) literature review and the two motives found in Gracia and de Magistris' (2007) findings in Italy.

A more recent study, based on a representative sample from Germany (N:13,047) supported previous studies. It suggested that the motives to purchase organic products were firstly environmentally based, followed by concerns over animal welfare standards. Furthermore, the study conducted in Germany showed that consumer motives to purchase organic products have a much higher prediction power of whether consumers purchase organic products than demographic variables (Padilla et al., 2013). This finding contradicted the results by Gracia and Magistris (2007) from Italy, Davies et al. (1995) from Northern Ireland and Tregear et al. (1994) from Scotland. All three papers concluded that a higher income made it more likely that consumers would purchase organic products. This study from Germany specifically contradicts the additional findings from the study by Davies et al. (1995) from Northern Ireland because that study also concluded that the variables gender, age and parenthood had an impact on organic product purchase behaviour.

In summary, existing research reveals that organic food is perceived to be "chemical" and "growth hormone" free, so that organic food is seen as more natural in comparison to non-organic food (Davies et al., 1995; Schifferstein and Oude Ophuis, 1998). Additional research revealed that consumers' main reasons to buy organic food were for health reasons; they perceive it to be better for their children because it contains fewer chemicals (Latacz-Lohmann and Foster, 1997; Davies et al., 1995; Tregear et al.,

1994; Hjelm, 2011; Magnusson et al., 2001; Padilla et al., 2013). Other studies reported additional motives including higher animal welfare standards, better taste, being similar to home-grown food, and being both BSE and additive free (Harper and Makatouni, 2002; Makatouni, 2002; Fotopoulos et al., 2003; Cicia et al., 2002). Additional studies listed consumers' concerns for the environment (Padilla et al., 2013; Hjelm, 2011; Aertsens et al., 2009; Gracia and de Magistris, 2007; Hughner et al., 2007; Makatouni, 2002; Davies et al., 1995; Tregear et al., 1994), and for animal welfare (Padilla et al., 2013; Hjelm, 2011; Hughner et al., 2007; Harper and Makatouni, 2002; Makatouni, 2002), suggested that they bought organic products to support the regional economy (Hughner et al., 2007), that they saw them as more wholesome (Hughner et al., 2007), or that they bought them because of nostalgia (Hughner et al., 2007), having grown up with them (Hughner et al., 2007), because they were curious (Tregear et al., 1994) about the trend or because they saw buying organic food products as fashionable (Hughner et al., 2007). A summary of the studies discussed above can be found in table 7.

Table 8: Articles about Organic food purchase motives

Article	Method	Motives
Padilla B.C., Cordts A., Schulze B. and Spiller A. (2013)	Secondary data (N: 13.074) Germans	-Environmental -Animal welfare
Hjelm U. (2011)	16 In-depth interviews in Denmark	-Health -Animal welfare -Environmental -Taste
Aertsens J., Verbeke W., Mondelaers K. and Van Huylenbroeck G. (2009)	Literature review	-Health -Environmental -Taste
Gracia A. and de Magistris T. (2007)	Survey (N:200)	-Health -Environmental
Hughner R.S., McDonagh P., Prothero A., Shultz II C.J. and Stanton J. (2007)	Systematic Literature review (1985-2005)	-Health and nutritional concern -Taste -Environmental -Animal welfare -Support of local economy -More wholesome

		-Nostalgia -Fashionable/curious
Harper and Makatouni, (2002)	Focus groups (six-eight consumers, all parents), ENGLAND	-Food safety -Quality of the food -Ethical issues (animal welfare)
Makatouni A. (2002)	40 interviews (all parents), ENGLAND	-Environmental and animal welfare motives -Health
Davies et al (1995)	Three studies: 1) 150 shoppers in Belfast; 2) 1,033 rural and urban consumers; 3) 1,002 urban and rural consumers	-Environmental -Health -Taste
Tregear A., Dent J.B. and McGregor M.J. (1994)	National survey (N:262)	-Health -Environmental -Additives concern -Curiosity

Self-produced based on (Padilla et al., 2013; Hjelmar, 2011; Aertsens et al., 2009; Gracia and de Magistris, 2007; Hughner et al., 2007; Harper and Makatouni, 2002; Makatouni, 2002; Davies et al., 1995; Tregear et al., 1994)

4.1.2 Motives to Purchase Local Products

Previous studies researching consumers motives to purchase credence products identified factors like locally grown as important. Furthermore those studies identified certain attributes consumers associate with locally grown which are listed below.

According to (Darby and Karni, 1973) locally grown products are being associated with the superior quality of the product which is supported other researchers (Mabiso et al., 2005; Raab and Grobe, 2005). Klein contributed the motives regional products safe local jobs and are tastier in (1998). These attributes are all motives for consumers to purchase credence products but locally ones in particular. Wirth et al. argue that one reasons for the increase in purchase of credence products is the growing need of customers to be assured of the product safety and short transport ways (2011). With all the scandals consumers are scared of food borne illnesses and at the same time associate freshness and taste with locally grown products. Mabiso et al. study demonstrates that some consumers are willing to pay higher prices for local products because they associate those with safety, quality because

they come from a trusted source (2005). For example, locally grown products being valued as a cue for freshness and improved quality additionally small proximity implies that less fuel is used to transport products from A to B, which is important for customers with environmental concerns. Furthermore some customers buy local food because they associate to support local farmers and the local economy according to Zepeda and Li's study (2006). This was partly supported by Dentoni et al. (2009) who conclude that consumers associate freshness and environmental friendliness with locally produced products. Hartman Group's study in (2004) added the factor health to the factors of why consumers purchase locally grown products.

A summary of the studies discussed above can be found in table 8.

Table 9: Articles about credence product purchase motives

Article	Method	Motives
Wirth et al. (2011)	Conjoint analysis N: 1,218 (Pennsylvania) USA (online survey)	- safety - lack of transit - fresher - tastier
Dentoni et al. (2009)	University students (Michigan) USA N:60 (online survey)	- Freshness - environmental friendliness
Mabiso et al. (2005)	Survey N:311 (Florida) USA	- Safety - quality characteristics from - trusted sources
James et al. (2009)	Choice experiment N:1,521 mail survey (Pennsylvania) USA	Organic, local, no sugar, low fat: peoples willing to pay more for locally grown in comparison to organic, no sugar or low fat
Wang and Sun (2003)	Conjoint analysis N:519 (Vermont) USA mail survey	Organic, locally or not: most important is the price, then organic and then location.
Group (2004)	National food survey US market N:796	- healthier
Zepeda and Li (2006)	National survey of food shoppers (Lancaster)	- quality - lower fuel costs - environmental concerns

	England N:956 (N:522 mail survey and 434 telephone)	- support local farmers - the local economy
--	--	--

Self-produced based on (Wirth et al., 2011; Dentoni et al., 2009; Mabiso et al., 2005; James et al., 2009; Wang and Sun, 2003; Group, 2004; Zepeda and Li, 2006)

4.1.3 Linking Motives to Purchase Organic Food and Purchase Local Products to Motives Derived from the Interviews

When comparing the motives derived from the above literature review in this chapter with the 23 motives derived from the interviews from the previous chapter, clear overlaps with the credence product literature become apparent. For example Hughnes et al (2007) showed that some consumers' motives to buy organic food included a desire to support the regional economy. The same applies to customers who purchase local products as stated by Zepeda et al. (2006) they evaluated that customers associate to support local farmers by buying local products. This is a direct link to the consumer motive area "**Support and Feel Regional**" derived from the interviews in the first phase of the research field work. Consequently, it is important to discuss the remaining motives derived from the interviews and their links with the credence product literature.

4.1.3.1 Interview Motives- "Environment"

Another motive area mention during the interviews is "**Environment**". British and German consumers mention four main sub-motives to purchase regional products which can be linked to environmental reasons. Two of these motives were also mentioned in the literature on consumers' purchase intention of organic products. The first is that:

- 'Regional products are more environmental friendly (e.g. reduce carbon footprint and air miles)'

This was mentioned by Tregear et al. (1994) based on a national survey in Germany; by Davies et al. (1995) who conducted a study in Belfast; by Makatouni (2002), who produced similar results in England based on 40 interviews conducted with parents; by Hughner et al.'s (2007) systematic

literature review; by Gracia and Magistris' (2007) survey, Aertsens et al. (2009) literature review, Hjelmar's (2011) in depth interviews from Denmark and Padilla et al. (2013) based on secondary data (N:13,074) from Germany. Furthermore by Zepeda et al (2006) who analysed a national survey in England and Dentoni et al. (2009) questioning university students in America.

The second environmental reason supported by the literature is:

- 'Regional products have better standards (e.g. no chemicals used in the production)'

This was first mentioned in relation to organic product purchase in Makatounis' study (2002) based on 40 parents interviewed in England, but is also mentioned by Harper and Makatouni (2002) based on four focus groups with parents in England, Hughner et al.'s (2007) systematic literature review, Hjelmar's (2011) in depth interviews from Denmark, Padilla et al. (2013) based on secondary data (N:13,074) from Germany and Mabiso et al. (2005) from the USA.

The other two environmental motives cannot be linked to the existing literature on consumer motives to purchase organic products. Instead, they represent additional motives, and are:

- 'I buy regional products to avoid long transport distances for my products.'

One study around credence products which was looking into the importance of search versus credence product attributes concluded that one factor associated with local products would be the lack of transit according to a conjoint analysis conducted in America by Wirth et al. (2011).

- 'Regional products are more organic.'

4.1.3.2 Interview Motives- "Quality & Trust"

Another motive area derived from the interviews is "**Quality & Trust**". British and German consumers mentioned seven sub-motives to purchase regional products that fit within this area. Three of these motives were also mentioned

in the literature on consumers' purchase intention of organic products. The first of these is that:

- 'Regional products are of higher quality.'

This was mentioned by Harper and Makatouni (2002) when conducting focus groups with parents in England to evaluate motives for organic product purchase. There seem to be overlaps with the motives derived from the interviews and the ones from the organic product literature. However it is important to keep in mind that the definitions of what makes a product organic are clearly defined in terms of practices that might relate to the quality of the food production processes. Therefore it is obvious that people might buy organic products because they are of higher quality. However the same does not apply to regional products. There is no clear definition of what makes a product regional but the interviews have shown that higher quality is still a motive for consumers to purchase regional products which is supported by the study from Mabiso et al. (2005) who conducted a survey in America and Zepeda and Li (2006) who conducted a survey in England.

The second motive is that:

- 'Regional products taste better.'

This was first mentioned by Davies et al. (1995) when asking shoppers in Belfast, and has also been identified by Hughner et al. (2007) in a literature review from studies conducted between 1985 and 2005, stating that superior taste is one of the motives for consumers to purchase organic products over non organic ones. Aertsens et al. (2009) also came to the conclusion that superior taste is one of the motives. So did Hjelmars (2011), who conducted in-depth interviews in Denmark.

Third is the statement that:

- 'Regional products are better in general.'

Again, this was mentioned in the literature of motives to purchase organic products by Harper and Makatounis (2002) in their study based on English

focus groups. Additionally, this study's interviews identified new sub-motives fitting under the heading of **"Quality & Trust"** among consumers in England and Germany, which were not covered by the literature on ethnocentrism or organic product purchase intention. These are:

- 'I buy regional products because I trust the regional official seals more.'
- This was also identified by Mabiso et al.'s study (2005) conducted in the USA they concluded that product safety and the seals from trusted sources increased customers willingness to pay more for apples and tomatoes.
- 'Regional products have a good reputation.'
 - 'Regional products are easily traceable.'
 - 'I buy regional products because I know where they are from.'

4.1.3.3 Interview Motives- "Health"

A further motive area derived from the interviews is that of **"Health"**. British and German consumers mention one sub-motive under the motive area health which motivates them to purchase regional products. This motive is also named in the consumer literature around consumers' purchase intention of organic products. It is that:

- 'Regional products are healthier (e.g. no harmful substances).'

In the literature around organic product purchase intention, health has been said to be the most important factor explaining why consumers buy organic products. It was first mentioned by Tregear et al. (1994) based on the German national survey, then by Davies et al. (1995) based on his data in Belfast, then again by Makatouni (2002) based on data from England, then in Hughner et al (2007) and Aertsens et al.'s (2009) literature review. Gracia and Magistris (2007) also supported the findings that the health motives have the strongest impact on consumers' choice to purchase organic products and again this was reflected in Hjelmars' (2011) study in Denmark. Same was result were supported by the article from the Group (2004) who concluded

that consumer buy local products because they associate it with being healthier.

Based on the organic product purchase literature it was expected that “Health” would again be a high priority for consumers when it came to regional products. However, that does not seem to be the case, because “Health” (mentioned three times in the 40 interviews) other topics like “Support and feel regional” (mentioned 39 times in 40 interviews) and “Environmental” (mentioned 52 times in 40 interviews) were all mentioned more often in comparison and therefore might be more important to consumers as motives to purchase regional products. This will be further investigated in the data analysis of the second research phase.

The motive areas “Support and Feel Regional”, “Environment”, “Quality and Trust” and “Health” are linked to the literature around motives to purchase organic products. The other three motive areas “Familiarity & Habit”, “Unique-Authentic” and “Convenience” are additions derived from the 40 interviews, which are not linked to the literature of consumer ethnocentrism or to that on organic product purchase.

4.1.3.4 Interview Motives- “Familiarity & Habit”

An extra motive area mentioned during the interviews falls under the motive area of “**Familiarity & Habit**”. In this area, British and German consumers mentioned three main sub-motives to purchase regional products. None of these motives were mentioned in the literature on ethnocentric consumer behaviour nor any credence product literature.

- ‘I buy regional products because I grew up with them.’
- ‘I buy regional products because I have a personal closeness to them.’
- ‘I buy regional products because I was always told to buy them.’

4.1.3.5 Interview Motives- “Unique–Authentic”

Another motive area derived from the interviews is that which can be labelled “**Unique–Authentic**”. British and German consumers mentioned that some regional products have a distinctive taste. This motive was not mentioned in

the literature on consumers' purchase intention of organic products, nor was it covered by the work on ethnocentric consumer behaviour or credence product literature.

- 'Regional products have distinct attributes (e.g. taste, look, design).'
- 'Special regional products are not available from other regions.'

4.1.3.6 Interview Motives- "Convenience"

One more motive area mentioned during the interviews is that of "**Convenience**". British and German consumers mentioned that it can sometimes simply be more convenient to purchase regional products than non-regional products, depending on when and where they do their shopping. This motive was not mentioned in the literature on consumers' purchase intention of organic products, nor was it covered by the motives presented by research on ethnocentric consumer behaviour. However, it still seems relevant, because it was mentioned six times in the course of 40 interviews. The aim of the interviews was to collect as many motives as possible and later on to use the survey to assess if it was possible to generalise from them and apply them to a bigger sample. So the motive is:

- 'It is more convenient for me to buy regional products.'

In conclusion the 40 interviews from phase one of the study showed some overlaps with the ethnocentric consumer behaviour and credence product literature particularly with organic product purchase motives and motives to purchase local products. However, these 40 interviews also added additional motives, which are not covered by either the work on consumer motives to purchase organic products or the ethnocentric consumer behaviour literature.

For example:

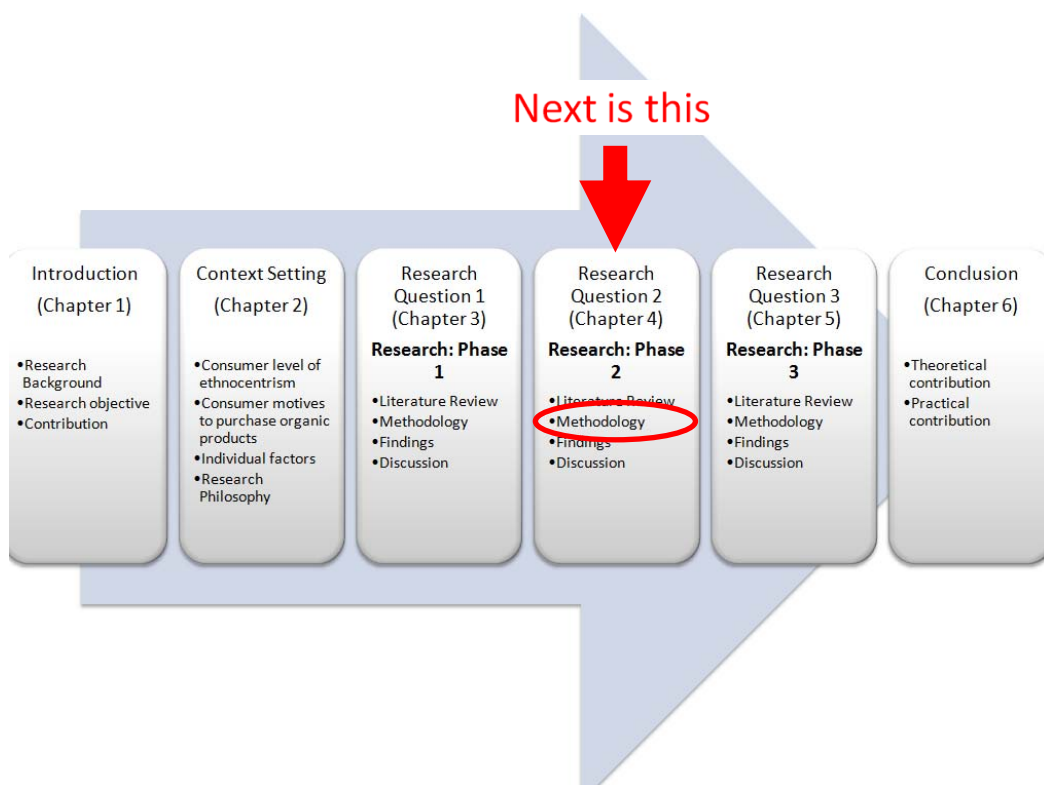
- I buy regional products because I know where they are from.
- Regional products are more organic.
- Regional products have a good reputation.
- Regional products are easily traceable

- I buy regional products because I grew up with them.
- I buy regional products because I have a personal closeness to them.
- I buy regional products because I was always told to buy them.
- Regional products have distinct attributes (e.g. taste, look, design).
- Special regional products are not available from other regions.
- It is more convenient for me to buy regional products.
- I buy regional products for no specific reason.

After identifying the motives to purchase regional products in the first research phase, in the next, the motives to purchase regional products will be evaluated and their prediction power for consumers' purchases of regional products will be compared to the prediction power of the CETSCALE motives. This will be done by testing the motives from the interviews in a wider survey.

Having reviewed the related literature, the next section discusses the methodology used to fill the discussed gaps in the literature (see figure 13).

Figure 13: Structure of the thesis

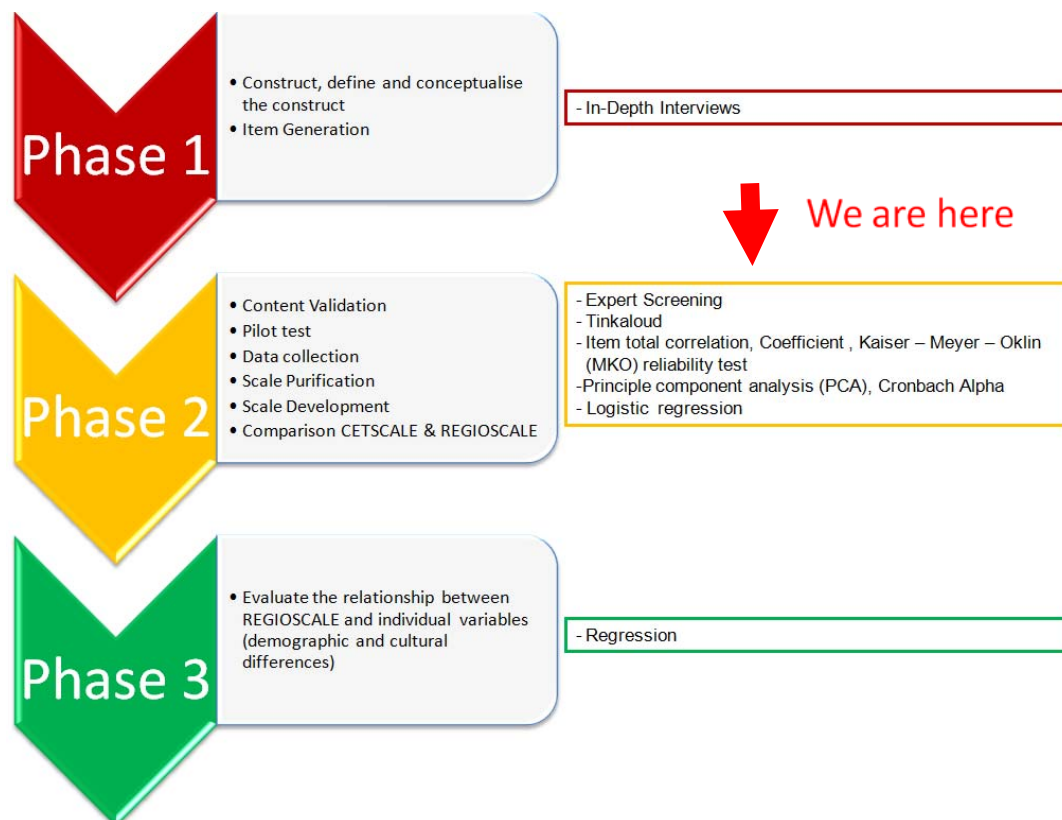


4.2 Research Methodology

This chapter will provide a description of the steps taken to develop the new scale based on the motives derived from the 40 interviews of phase one, followed by an evaluation to determine the prediction power of the REGIOSCALE in comparison to the CETSCALE.

This will be done to answer Research Question 2: “Which motive areas form the new region-scale (REGIOSCALE) and does it predict consumer motives to purchase regional products?” The steps taken in the second research phase are highlighted in figure 14.

Figure 14: Visualisation of the mixed research method steps



4.2.1 Survey Application

Using a survey has a variety of advantages and disadvantages when compared to other research methods. One advantage is the high representativeness surveys produce, letting them cover a large population size in a cost and time effective way (Saunders et al., 2012). Surveys also enable the researcher to evaluate statistical significance by taking multiple

variables into consideration (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). They also leave little or no room for researcher bias and are one of the most objective tools with which to gather statistical data to support and evaluate hypotheses (Mitchell and Jolley, 2012).

The drawbacks of surveys include their inflexibility, so consumers are forced to reshape their opinion to fit one of the provided answers. This can lead to results which do not completely reflect the reality (Saunders et al., 2012). That can partly be overcome by covering a large enough sample size. A more major problem with surveys is that their results are dependent on factors including the respondents' motivation, honesty, memory and ability to respond (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). To minimise this problem the questionnaire in this case was as short and simple as possible, as well as having an emotional appeal in the sense that consumers were asked face-to-face "To help a student with their PhD dissertation" which can help to give consumers the extra motivation to help (Mitchell and Jolley, 2012).

One last thing needs to be kept in consideration: the so called Interviewer effect. Various academics have established that the race, gender and body weight of an interviewer all have an impact on consumers' answers (Hill, 2002; Anderson et al., 1988). For this research phase, which is being conducted in two different countries and asks for views of products from consumers' home regions, race could potentially have the biggest interviewer effect of these factors. To counter this, the surveys were distributed and conducted by thoroughly briefed individuals who were originally from the regions in question. This was important so that the interviewers would have the same accent as the locals and the interviewer effect would be reduced to a minimum.

This section talked about the advantages and disadvantages of gathering data by conducting surveys and the challenges of the interviewer effect. Now follows the reasoning behind the sampling approaches chosen for the survey.

4.2.2 Sampling

This section deals with this study's sampling technique and sample size. Data was collected using the "mall-intercept" survey technique (Bush and Hair Jr, 1985; Evangelista et al., 2012). According to Blimitationsir (1985) 'the mall intercept would be a useful method for studies seeking information on forms of desirable and/or undesirable behaviours.' (p.166), which evaluating consumer motives to purchase or not purchase regional products can be classed as. The 'mall-interception approach can result in a sample, which, while not strictly representative, may nonetheless be relatively free of any systematic bias.' (Balabanis et al., 2001: p.165). One of the biggest limitations of this method is the potential for an unrepresentative sample. One suggested way to overcome this issue is to conduct the data collection in multiple locations and at different times to ensure that the variability within the population of interest is represented (Lavrakas, 2008; Blair, 1983). In order to take this into account, for this research, questionnaires were collected on main streets and/or squares in the main shopping districts in the regions. Surveys were collected in the mornings, afternoons and evenings during the week and the weekends over the period of a month (March 2013) in each of the four regions (Blair, 1983; Lavrakas, 2008).

A representative sample size can be calculated in various ways. One highly acknowledged way is that suggested by Sekaran and Bougie (2010). This research applies the Sekaran and Bougie formula in the second research phase with a confidence level of 95% and a margin error of 5%. According to Sekaran and Bougie's formula, the overall sample size for the survey would be N:384 completed questionnaires, which would result in only N:96 surveys from each of the four regions.

Another approach to calculate a representative sample size besides Sekaran and Bougie's formula is to focus on the sample size to independent variable ratio (Field, 2009; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). According to Field this means to collect 10 surveys for each variable that will be analysed in the study (2009). While, according to Sekaran, it would have been sufficient to collect 96 surveys per region, that could have led to a limited statistical data

analysis because of a lack of filled in surveys. As such, the alternative of independent variable to sample size ratio of 23 times 10 was applied for each of the four regions. In total a minimum of 230 completely filled in surveys were collected to achieve a representative sample and enable the correlations and regression analysis for each of the four regions, leading to an overall minimum sample size of N:920 (see table 8).

Table 10: Population and sample size in Germany

Germany		
Region	Population (2007)	N from this second research phase
Nordrhein-Westfalen (North)	17,996,621	263
Bayern (South)	12,520,332	251
England		
South East	8,295,500	250
North West	6,863,700	262
SUM	45,676,153	1027

Self-produced based on (Wahlrecht, 2007; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010; Office for National Statistics, 2011).

Table 8 shows the final outcome, which is a sample size of N:1027. A minimum of 250 completely filled in surveys were collected in each of the four regions. Overall, 1201 surveys were collected but 174 were not filled in correctly and therefore not analysed any further. That gives a complete sample size of N:1027. That number still guarantees a minimum of 250 surveys per region, which is still 30 more surveys than necessary to perform the statistical analysis for this second research phase.

4.2.3 Item Generation

According to Netermeyrs et al. (2003) and Churchill (1979), generating the initial pool of items includes three main steps, which are, in no specific order: an extensive literature review, expert interviews with the target group and further investigation with outsiders with special knowledge in the researched area (such as academics) to gain content and face validity. At this stage it was also emphasised by Netermeyrs et al.'s (2003) and Churchill's (1979) research that for the initial pool of items there is nothing like a redundant variable. Instead, it is about gathering as many items as possible.

All three steps have been addressed in this thesis. For the first step, an extensive literature review was conducted in research phases one and two on ethnocentric consumer behaviour and consumer motives to purchase credence products. The second step was accomplished by conducting 40 interviews, which were collected in research phase one. The content and face validity were then assessed in the third step through an expert screening that consisted of asking nine academics who were either advanced PhD students (3), lecturers (3), or academics who had published in this area (3), for their opinions in regards to item clarity and relevance (DeVellis, 2011). Each academic was given a description of what constituted regional products. The sample size for the content validity is based on the number of academics I had access to, which according to Lynn (1986) is sufficient. Besides generating the items in this phase of the research, Haynes et al. (1995) suggest it is important to consider the wording of the items. For survey questions, it is important to formulate the questions neutrally to avoid pushing the participant in a specific direction (Haynes et al., 1995).

4.2.4 Measurements and Scale Development

This sub-section gives an explanation of the measurements and scales used and analysed in the second research phase.

The questionnaire began with a cover letter, which highlighted the significance of the thesis, in order to offer consumers a reason to complete the survey. This cover letter also needed to be signed by each consumer to gain their consent (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

As suggested by Saunders the questionnaire started with a simple question, also referred to as an ice breaker question, to make consumers feel more comfortable and capable of filling in the questionnaire (2012). This was followed by a multi-item approach, meaning that various questions in the survey applying the same scale followed one another, which according to Wilson (2001) would increase the reliability and simultaneously decrease the measurement error of those questions. See figure 15 below for an example.

Figure 15: Example of the multi-item approach

1. Do you agree or disagree with the sentences below? [1= *Strongly agree* – 6= *Strongly disagree*]

	1	2	3	4	5	6
a) Regional products are of higher quality	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) Buying regional products saves local jobs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) Regional products have better standards (e.g. Safety, animal welfare, no genetically enhanced products)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) Regional products are more environmentally friendly (e.g. reduce carbon footprint air miles)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e) Regional products are easily traceable	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f) Regional products taste better	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g) Regional products are more organic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h) Regional products have a good reputation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
i) Regional products have distinct attributes (e.g. taste, look, design)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
j) Special regional products are not available from other regions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
k) Regional products are healthier (e.g. no harmful substances)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
l) Regional products are better in general	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

This multi-item approach was used as a way to display the questions about the cultural value dimensions (from the World Value Survey), the motives identified during the interviews and the CETSCALE questions.

The World Value Survey (WVS) is an extended version of the European Value Study (EVS), first carried out in 1981 (Inglehart et al., 2005; Li and Bond, 2010). At first, the EVS was very limited, but the interest in this information about attitudes, values and belief changes of consumers over time led to a survey which was conducted in more than 100 countries, covering around 90% of the total world population, and is now called the WVS, with the president being R. Inglehart and the Vice President C. Welzel (Inglehart et al., 2005; World Values Survey Association, 2009). The WVS includes, among other scales, a cultural values scale based on Schwartz's cultural values, which were incorporated in the survey by Schwartz and Inglehart (Held et al., 2009).

In addition to the questions related to the motives identified during the interviews, there was an open ended question attempting to identify

supplementary reasons for regio-centric consumer tendencies and an extra question 8h) I buy regional products for no specific reasons to cover all potential motives for consumer to purchase regional products.

The majority of the questions in this survey were closed questions, which according to Malhotra and Birks takes much less time for the consumer, the interviewer and the researcher. Additionally the response rate is also higher in comparison to open-ended questions in a questionnaire (2007). Additionally the CETSCALE was taken from the literature available in English (see table 9) and German (see table 10). The complete survey is shown in the appendix.

Table 11: English 10-item CETSCALE

10-item CETSCALE	Original CETSCALE
Only those products that are unavailable in the USA should be imported.	2
American products, first, last, and foremost.	4
Purchasing foreign-made products is un-American.	5
It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Americans out of jobs.	6
A real American should always buy American-made products.	7
We should purchase products manufactured in America instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	8
American should not buy foreign products, because this hurts American business and causes unemployment.	11
It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support American products.	13
We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	16
American consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Americans out of work.	17

Sources:(Shimp and Sharma, 1987)

Table 12: German 10-item CETSCALE

10-item CETSCALE	Original CETSCALE
Bayern sollten sich immer für ProdEnglandte aus Bayern entscheiden, anstatt importierte ProdEnglandte zu kaufen.	2
Bayrische ProdEnglandte sind das einzig Richtige.	4
Der Kauf von ProdEnglandten aus anderen Regionen ist „un-Bayrisch“.	5
Es ist nicht richtig, ProdEnglandte aus anderen Regionen zu kaufen, weil dadurch Leute aus Bayern arbeitslos werden.	6
Ein echter Bayer kauft nur ProdEnglandte aus Bayern.	7
Wir sollten ProdEnglandte aus Bayern kaufen, anstatt es zuzulassen, dass andere Regionen sich auf unsere Kosten bereichern.	8
Bayern sollten keine ProdEnglandte aus anderen Regionen kaufen, weil es Unternehmen in Bayern schadet und Arbeitslosigkeit hervorruft.	11
Es mag sein, dass es langfristig teurer ist, aber ich ziehe es vor, ProdEnglandte aus Bayern zu kaufen.	13
Wir sollten aus anderen Regionen nur jene ProdEnglandte kaufen, die wir in der eignen Region nicht bekommen.	16
Bayrische Konsumenten, die ProdEnglandte aus anderen Regionen kaufen, sind verantwortlich dafür, dass ihre Mitbürger arbeitslos werden.	17

Sources: (Rudolf, 1999)

The survey was sent out for the first round of the pilot study to 10 consumers in Germany and 10 in England. The “think aloud” approach was applied, in which the consumers described what they read, as well as how they understood it, allowing the researcher to clarify any misunderstandings (this could also be described as an intensive interview). This approach, according to Czaja, helps to reveal misinterpretation, as well as questions which could be made more effective (1998). After that round first amendments took place. The first amendment was to change the order of the questions. In the original version of the survey all the multiple block questions followed one another (see figure 16-Before). During the pilot test it was highlighted that this was perceived as overwhelming. Therefore it was changed to smaller sections of multiple blocks (see figure 16-“After”).

Figure 16: Before and after (left to right)

Before	After																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																					
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[1 = Very much like me – 6 = Not at all like me]</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; text-align: center;"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>1</th> <th>2</th> <th>3</th> <th>4</th> <th>5</th> <th>6</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr><td>a) It is more convenient for me to buy regional products</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>b) I only want to buy regional products (patriotic reasons)</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>c) I buy regional products to support local industry</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>d) I buy regional products because I grew up with them</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>e) I buy regional products because I know where they are from</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>f) I buy regional products to feel a local connection</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>g) I buy regional products for its regional identity</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>h) I buy regional products for no specific reason</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>i) I buy regional products because I was always told to buy them</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>j) I buy regional products because I have a personal closeness to them</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>k) I buy regional products to avoid long transport ways for my products</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>l) I buy regional products because I trust the regional official seals more</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>m) I buy regional products for other reasons (please name them):</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> </tbody> </table>		1	2	3	4	5	6	a) Regional products are of higher quality							b) Buying regional products saves local jobs							c) Regional products have better standards (e.g. Safety, animal welfare, no genetically enhanced products)							d) Regional products are more environmentally friendly (e.g. reduce carbon footprint air miles)							e) Regional products are easily traceable							f) Regional products taste better							g) Regional products are more organic							h) Regional products have a good reputation							i) Regional products have distinct attributes (e.g. taste, look, design)							j) Special regional products are not available from other regions							k) Regional products are healthier (e.g. no harmful substances)							l) Regional products are better in general								1	2	3	4	5	6	a) It is more convenient for me to buy regional products							b) I only want to buy regional products (patriotic reasons)							c) I buy regional products to support local industry							d) I buy regional products because I grew up with them							e) I buy regional products because I know where they are from							f) I buy regional products to feel a local connection							g) I buy regional products for its regional identity							h) I buy regional products for no specific reason							i) I buy regional products because I was always told to buy them							j) I buy regional products because I have a personal closeness to them							k) I buy regional products to avoid long transport ways for my products							l) I buy regional products because I trust the regional official seals more							m) I buy regional products for other reasons (please name them):						
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j) Consumers from the South East of the UK, who purchase products made in other regions, are responsible for putting their fellow regional inhabitants out of work.																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																						
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The next amendments were to add more detailed descriptions to the survey. This included descriptions such as, ‘When talking about regional products we are talking about products from the North West of the UK’ (for the surveys distributed in the North West of the UK). Obviously, this sentence was adapted to each of the four different regions. It helped to prevent any potential misunderstanding of the sort which was picked up on during the “think out loud” approach.

The final amendment was made for one of the demographic questions. Originally it covered the following answer options:

Demographics: Education level

- a) No formal education
- b) Primary School

- c) Secondary School
- d) Advance degree
- e) Others

This was changed to:

Demographics: Education level:

- a) No formal education
- b) Primary School
- c) Secondary School
- d) Advance degree
- e) Further: A-levels (college)
- f) Higher: Degrees (University)

The new versions were compared and translated by two bilingual individuals (one female and one male) and pilot tested again. No new amendments needed to be made at that stage, so it was possible to start the process of data collection.

4.2.5 Credibility and Equivalence of the Research

'Reducing the possibility of getting the answer wrong,'(Saunders et al., 2009: p.156) increases the credibility of research. Credibility can be broken down into two main concepts: reliability and validity (Saunders et al., 2012). The reliability level describes the extent to which the research is replicable (Robson, 2011), while validity is an indicator of whether the measurements really measure what they are supposed to (Saunders et al., 2012). The equivalence is particularly important in cross cultural research to ensure that the same concept is measured in different cultures or in other words it ensures that the research does not compare "... apples and oranges..." (Van de Vijver and Tanzer, 2004: p.121).

There are three main reliability issues in regards to surveys:

- 1) Subject or consumer error. This potential error was overcome here by pre-testing the questionnaire.
- 2) Subject or consumer bias. The survey was designed in such a way as to ensure that there are no obvious right or wrong answers.

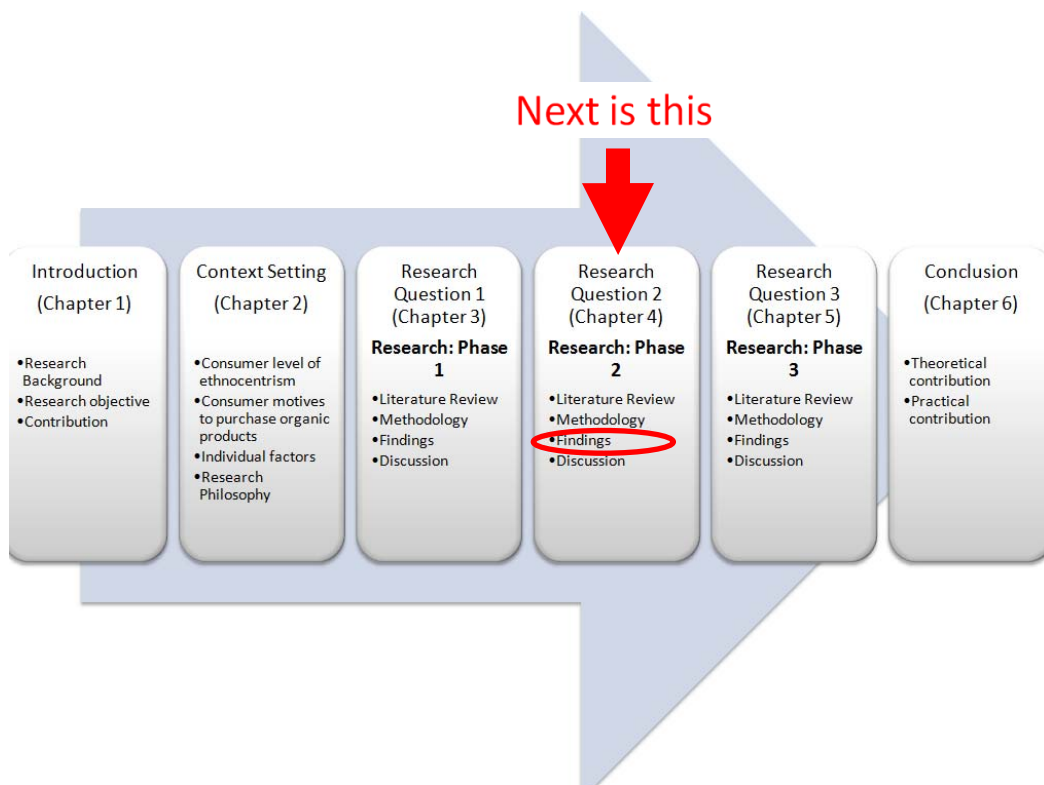
- 3) Observer error. The cover letter explained everything, so that the interviewers' influence was reduced to a minimum (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

Validity was aimed for by using the same wording as the World Value Survey for cultural values (World Values Survey, 2012), and applying those values on a regional level. All other measurements were drawn from the related literature (Collis and Hussey, 2009). For the motives developed from the interviews, the validity will be tested during the second research phase of this thesis, but will also need to be tested further in future studies.

Construct equivalence can be achieved in two ways which are convergence approach (you develop multiple measurements (one in each country under observation) and distribute each in all countries)). However, that would lead to a rather lengthy survey and could put participants off to fill it in. Therefore, interviews to generate the items were conducted in both countries (Germany and England) and the items which came up in both countries were kept for the survey (Werner and Campbell, 1970) this approach is called decentring. This was followed up by multi level translation process in line with Trans' (Tran, 2009) and Massoubre et al. (2002) model of translation and back translation process, for more details see Figure 8 on page 61. Finally a think-aloud pilot test was conducted to identify culture specific difficulties to fill in the survey (Czaja, 1998; He and van de Vijver, 2012). This is a very crucial step because it can point out item bias because of cultural use of language for example (Van de Vijver and Tanzer, 2004).

So far the methodology for research phase two has covered the discussion on the advantages and disadvantages of surveys, the sample method and size applied in this second research phase, item generation, measurement and scale development, and finally the credibility issues considered in this research phase.

The section on data analysis and findings follows next. The data analysis step is highlighted in red to show where this research is within the overall thesis (see figure 17).

Figure 17: Structure of the thesis

4.3 Data Analysis and Findings

The data analysis of the work was split into seven parts using SPSS version 20. In the first step the data was coded and entered.

4.3.1 Descriptive Data Analysis

The second step was an explorative and descriptive data analysis to identify potential errors within the data set (Wittenberg and Cramer, 2003; Field, 2009; Pallant, 2011). Additionally it was used to get an idea of the sample group. This is shown in the table below. The sample size is Germany – NRW N: 263 ; Germany – Bavaria N: 251; England – North West N: 262 ; England – South East N: 250. The overall sample size is N:1027 and the distribution of the demographics follows in table 11.

Table 13: Survey- Demographics

	Germany				England			
	NRW		Bavaria		North West		South East	
	(%)	Frequ ency	(%)	Frequ ency	(%)	Frequ ency	(%)	Frequ ency

Gen der	Female	49.2	130	53.8	135	56.9	149	51.6	129
	Male	49.8	131	45.4	114	43.1	111	48.0	120
	Would prefer not to say	1.6	2	0.8	2	0	0	0.4	1
Age	Below 35	36.7	97	55.8	140	51.1	134	36.8	92
	35-54	36.0	95	24.7	62	24.0	63	32.0	80
	Above 55	26.9	71	19.5	49	24.8	65	31.2	78
Edu cati on level	No formal education	0	0	0.4	1	0.4	1	0.8	2
	Primary School	9.8	26	10.8	27	0	0	2.0	5
	Secondary School	24.6	65	22.7	57	18.3	48	29.6	74
	Further: A-levels (college)	44.0	113	45.8	115	30.9	81	31.6	79
	Higher: Degree (University)	21.6	57	20.3	51	49.2	129	34.8	87
Inco me	Less than £16,000	31.4	83	47.4	119	23.7	62	27.6	69
	£16,000-40,000	32.9	87	30.6	77	48.5	127	51.6	129
	Over £40,000	23.1	61	15.1	38	23.7	62	16.4	41

As shown in the table, a few more females have filled in the survey than males. According to Adua and Sharp, this is common, and it is still balanced overall (2010).

A less even distribution was achieved across age groups, which can be explained by the method applied to conduct the surveys: the “mall-intercept survey technique”. It appears that a higher proportion of the younger generation goes to the city and specifically to malls for shopping. The second research phase achieved a good distribution for both education level and income level. Those two variables seem to reflect the age group distribution in one respect, however, because the majority have less than £16,000 available per year.

When conducting the descriptive data analysis the open question was potentially very important. In this case, in the 64 responses from N:1027 that included such additional responses, the majority of the responses were repetitions of answers from the questions already asked in the survey, such

as 'because they are unique' (England N 10) or 'regional products are more sustainable and environmentally friendly' (England S 139). However, one new variable emerged because of this open question, which was that regional products are 'cheap', which was put forward five times altogether. Therefore, future research should add the statement "I buy regional products because they are cheaper" as a potential motive to purchase regional products.

4.3.2 Factor Analysis

The third step was a factor analysis. It was used to summarise the data, rather than to determine if one group of consumers was significantly different from another. It was solely used to identify groups based on correlations of certain variables and also to examine the scale's validity. This type of factor analysis is used to explore the data (Field, 2009).

With this in mind, confirmatory factor analysis could be useful for future studies to test specific hypotheses and generalise the findings. Another applicable technique could be Principal Components Analysis (PCA), which is similar to factor analysis. Both approaches mostly produce similar results. However, academics are still divided as to which approach is superior. PCA considers the total variance of variables (common, unique and error variances). Common variance is the variance of a variable shared with all other variables in the factor analysis. Practically, common variance equals communality. Specific or unique variance is the variance associated only with the variable itself; it cannot be explained by correlation with other variables in the analysis. Error variance also cannot be explained by correlation with other variables in the analysis but refers to unreliability in data collection process, measurement error or random error. PCA takes all these variances into account, whereas common factor analysis takes account of common variance only (Pallant, 2011; Field, 2009). Because of this, the second research phase uses principal component analysis (PCA). There are three main steps which need to be performed before conducting PCA. Those are as follows:

- Determine sample size. This study's sample size for the factor analysis is N:1027. The risks of skewedness and underestimation of the variance are reduced with a large sample (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007), and a sample size of more than 1000 is described as "excellent" (Field, 2009: p.647).
- Ensure that factorability of the correlation matrix assumption is supported. More details can be found in the following section.
- Outliers were identified when looking at the histogram and then the box plot. Each of the outliers was closely examined and none proved to be because of a data entry mistake. In the next step the 5% trimmed mean was compared to the original mean and since they differed less than 0.1, which is similar (Pallant, 2011), the few outliers stayed in the data set.

The 23 motives why consumers buy regional products were subjected to exploratory factor analysis using SPSS Version 20. Prior to the analysis, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed that two items did not show any correlation (6j "Special regional products are not available from other regions" and 13h "I buy regional products for no specific reasons") and were therefore taken out of the analysis, because even if they were to describe other dimensions they should still show some correlation (Field, 2009). According to Stevens (2009), who developed a guideline for sample sizes and appropriate loading, in this second research phase the loading would have to be greater than 0.5 for each variable. This led to the exclusion of an additional variable (13a "It is more convenient for me to buy regional products."). After that, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (MKO) value was calculated and showed a value of .973, exceeding the recommended value of .6 and being high enough to be described as a superb result. As such, the factor analysis should reveal distinct and reliable factors and the sample is adequate for the factor analysis (Field, 2009; Kaiser, 1970, 1974). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: χ^2 (231)= 12255.107, $p < .001$, indicates that correlations between items were sufficiently large for PCA and therefore supports the assumption of factorability of the correlation matrix (Bartlett Maurice Stevenson, 1954).

The PCA revealed the presence of three factors with eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of one and in combination they explain 72.85 percent of the

variance. Using Cattell's screen test, it was decided to retain all three factors for further investigation (1966). The three factor solution explained a total of 72.85 per cent of the variance, with factor one contributing 63.4 per cent, factor two contributing 5.2 per and factor three contributing 4.2 per cent. To aid the interpretation of these three factors, Varimax rotation was performed to simplify the interpretation of factors. The rotated solution revealed the presence of simple structures (Thurstone, 1947; Pallant, 2011), with all three factors showing a number of strong loadings according to Stevens' guidelines (Field, 2009). The items that clustered on the same components suggested that component one represents the association and reasons to gain **"Environmental Benefits and Trust"**, component two represents the association with gaining **"Personal Benefits"** and component three represents an association with **"Familiarity and Habit"**. Table 12 shows each of the three dimensions (Environmental Benefits and Trust, Personal Benefits and Familiarity and Habit) and their sub-motives. The first column contains the dimensions and the second column contains each dimension's sub-motives, which are between six and eight sub-motives or variables.

Table 14: Three dimensions why consumers buy regional products

Environmental Benefits and Trust (7 variables)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Buying regional products saves local jobs - Regional products are more environmentally friendly (e.g. reduce carbon footprint/air miles) - Regional products are easily traceable - I buy regional products to support local industry - I buy regional products because I know where they are from - I buy regional products because I trust the regional official seals more - I buy regional products to avoid long transport ways for my products
Personal Benefits (8 variables)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Regional products are of high quality - Regional products have better standards (e.g. no chemicals) - Regional products taste better - Regional products are more organic - Regional products have distinct attributes (e.g. taste, look, design) - Regional products are healthier (e.g. no harmful substances) - Regional products are better in general - Regional products have a good reputation
Familiarity and	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I only want to buy regional products (patriotic reasons)

Habit (6 variables)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I buy regional products because I grew up with them - I buy regional products to feel a local connection - I buy regional products for their regional identity - I buy regional products because I was always told to buy them - I buy regional products because I have a personal closeness to them
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4.3.3 Cronbach Alpha

After evaluating the three dimensions which will form the REGIOSCALE, the fourth step in the data analysis was to test the reliability of the three dimensions. The “Environmental Benefits and Trust”, “Personal Benefits” and “Familiarity and Habit” reasons to buy regional products all had high reliabilities, as for all three, Cronbach’s Alpha was higher than .7 for the complete data set as well as for the countries and regions separately.

This result was supported by the corrected correlation table, which showed that none of the variables within each of the three dimensions had a correlation with a total score higher than .3 and also that the alphas if an item were deleted would all be above .7. This meant no item needed to be removed, because all of them had a high reliability within their dimensions (Field, 2009). Table 13 shows the reliability (Cronbach Alphas) for each of the three motive dimensions, the reliabilities which have been evaluated for the complete data set of N:1027, and also for each country and each region within the two countries. The first column shows the three dimensions, the second column shows the results for the reliability test for the complete data set, the third column shows the results for Germany (the data from the North and the South), the fourth column shows the reliability results for just the North of Germany, the fifth column shows the results for the South of Germany, the sixth column shows the reliability for each of the dimensions for the whole of England data set (North and South), the seventh column shows the reliability of each of the three dimensions for the data collected in the North of England and the eighth column shows the results for the South of England.

Table 15: Cronbach Alpha

	Complete data set	Germany	Germany North	Germany South	England	England North	England South
Environmental benefits and trust	.768; N:753	.951; N:502	.951; N:257	.953; N:245	.969; N:479	.960; N:241	.975; N: 238
Personal Benefits	.873; N:751	.964; N:491	.962; N:255	.965; N:236	.986; N:486	.981; N:247	.990; N:239
Familiarity and Habit	.794 N:759	.909; N:499	.906; N:257	.911; N:242	.943; N:488	.927; N:252	.953; N:236

4.3.4 CETSCALE versus REGIOSCALE

After developing the REGIOSCALE, it is necessary to compare the prediction power of the original CETSCALE to the REGIOSCALE by analysing consumer behaviour of who buys regional products.

4.3.4.1 Logistic Regression

After the descriptive and explorative data analysis, the fifth step of the data analysis was a logistic regression analysis to evaluate if the explanation power of the CETSCALE was higher than the explanation power of the REGIOSCALE. It also offered an indication of the comparative contribution of each dimension on its own, complemented by the statistical significance of the results (Pallant, 2011; Field, 2009). This was done region by region, each compiled with a minimum of N:250 consumers.

There is a choice of different methods with which to conduct a logistic regression analysis. One is the stepwise method, which is purely based on mathematical decisions, but can lead to non-replicable results. The other option is known as forced entry, also called entry method, where the researcher needs to give good reasons for each of the entered variables. The difference here is that no decision needs to be made on which order to enter the variables in. Some researchers argue that it is the most appropriate method for theory testing because no pre selection of topics has to take place, therefore the researcher or literature's biased view does not push the results in a direction they would not naturally go (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2011).

The first step is to test the generalizability of the results to see the extent to which conclusions can be drawn beyond the collected sample. To determine if the model is generalizable, or if the results are influenced by outliers, residuals or other influential cases need to be determined.

Checking the standardized residual N:1027 some 69 cases were not within ± 2 , which was more than 5% of the total. Ideally, no more than 1% of these 1027 should have been above or below 2.5 however, from those 69 cases 49 were above 2.5. More worrying still is the fact that 7 cases were above 3. Therefore it was necessary to look more closely at those 69 cases. Cook's distance was checked for those 69 cases. It showed that each of the cases exceeded a value of 1, which was good because it meant that none of the cases had an undue influence of the model, suggesting no major problems with any residuals or outliers.

4.3.4.2 Checking the Assumption (Generalizability)

- 1) Linearity. To test if the assumption of linearity was violated each predictor (independent variable) needed to be transformed into the log of itself (Hosmer Jr et al., 2013). This needed to be done to test if there were any interactions between each predictor and the log of itself. If those interactions were significant it would violate the assumption of linearity of the logistic regression. In the case of this research, all interactions had significant values greater than 0.05, indicating that the assumption of linearity of the log was met for the REGIOSCALE and the CETSCALE (Field, 2009).
- 2) Multicollinearity. The predictors (Have you ever bought regional products intentionally) didn't show much relationship with the dependent variable for either the REGIOSCALE or CETSCALE. The multicollinearity was acceptable for all variables. The REGIOSCALE and CETSCALE showed tolerance values in table coefficients that were above 0.5, which was greater than the 0.10 required. As such, the multicollinearity assumption was not violated. This was also supported by the VIF which was less than 1, when the limit would be 10. (Menard, 2002; Myers, 1990)
- 3) Independence of errors. The Durbin-Watson test was used to test for serial correlations between errors and so demonstrate whether adjacent

residuals were correlated. In this test, the values can vary between 0 and 4 with a value of 2 meaning they are not correlated. A value below two means there is a positive and above two a negative correlation. Durbin and Watson (Durbin and Watson, 1950) suggest as a rule of thumb that a value between 1 and 3 should be of no concern which applied in this case (Field, 2009).

- 4) Sample size regression. The rule of thumb here is the bigger the sample the better. Research phase two contained around 250 responses per region, which was enough as has been discussed in the sample section.
- 5) Evaluate the Model. There are two steps here. The first is evaluating each of the independent variables. Details are described according to each topic. The second is the coefficient test. This evaluates the relationship between the individual variables and the dependent variable. If there is a significant relationship, the individual variables help to predict the dependent variable. The next step is to check the unstandardized coefficient's B. When this value is positive, the model predicts that an increase in the individual variable will result in an increase in the dependent variable by a predictable amount of units, holding all other individual variables fixed.

4.3.4.3 Have You Ever Bought Regional Products Intentionally?

To evaluate the "goodness of fit" of our model, this second research phase conducted four tests:

The first one was to check the model's chi-square statistic. In the second research phase the model's sig. is below 0.05. Therefore this model is predicting whether a customer buys regional products intentionally or not significantly better than it was with only the constant included. The chi-square can be seen as the equivalent F-test in the linear regression (Field, 2009). For the data set from Germany-NRW it shows that both the CETSCALE and the REGIOSCALE have a significant chi-square test.

The second and third tests are the Cox & Snell R Square and the Nagelkerke R Square (also referred to as the pseudo R squares) which were used in the multiple regression analysis. These pseudo R squares are only

approximations of R square. As such, they are inexact and disputable but they also give us a general idea of the goodness of fit of the model. These two provide an indication of how well this model predicts the dependent variable (Field, 2009), or in other words, how often the REGIOSCALE or the CETSCALE predicts whether the consumer bought regional products intentionally. The CETSCALE explained between 29.0 per cent and 53.9 per cent of the variability with its set of variables. However, the REGIOSCALE explained between 35.9 per cent and 65.6 per cent of the variability which is between 6.9 per cent and 11.7 per cent more variance (Pallant, 2011). Based on 1000 consumers, this would mean that the REGIOSCALE would explain the behaviour of 69 to 117 consumers better than using the CETSCALE motives would. This is enough extra consumers to make a difference for businesses.

The fourth and most reliable SPSS test for model of fit is the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test (Pallant, 2011). This test works in a reversed manner, so that here, if the significant level were higher than 0.05 the model would be supported. In this research phase the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test showed a significant level of 0.000 for the CETSCALE which means no support for the model but the REGIOSCALE showed a significant level of 0.244 which means the model fits. It can be concluded from this that the REGIOSCALE predicts whether consumers buy regional production intentionally in the NRW sample in a significant way whereas the CETSCALE does not (Field, 2009).

After the Pseudo R^2 , it was necessary to look at the *b*-value which is equivalent to the *b*-value of the linear regression. The *b*-value tells us in which direction the relationship goes, so a positive *b*-value stands for an increasing chance that consumers buy regional products intentionally (Pallant, 2011). So, the more consumers said they bought regional products for environmental reasons, for example, the greater the possibility that they bought regional products intentionally.

Next is the odds ratio Exp (B). Here, "Environmental Benefits and Trust" was the only significant predictor, according to the sig value ($p < 0.05$). The odds ratio for this variable was 6.16, which meant the odds for a person to buy

regional products intentionally were 6.16 times higher for someone who purported to buy regional products for environmental reasons than for someone who did not, all other factors being equal (Field, 2009).

After evaluating the odds ratio, the next step was to look at the 95 percent confidence interval (95% CI for EXP (B)) providing an upper and lower value to see how accurately the odds ratio represented the true value and so how small the confidence interval was. In this second research phase the interval ranged from 1.98 to 19.16 so the true odds ratio fell between these two numbers (Pallant, 2011).

A summary of the tests to evaluate the goodness of fit for this module is shown in table 14.

Table 16: Logistic regression – Intentional purchase of regional products- Germany- NRW

		Pseudo R ²					95% CI for Odds Ratio	
	Model X ²	Cox & Snell	Nagelkerke	Hosmer & Lemeshow	B (SE)	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
CETSCALE	86.79*	29.0%	53.9%	.000	-1.88* (0.27)	0.15	0.09	0.26
REGIOSCALE	108.26*	35.9%	65.6%	.422*				
Environmental benefits and trust					1.82* (0.58)	6.16	1.98	19.16
Personal Benefits					-0.51 (0.51)	0.60	0.22	1.61
Familiarity and Habit					-0.29 (0.46)	0.75	0.31	1.83

*significant

The next region to analyse is Bavaria in the South of Germany.

To evaluate the “goodness of fit” of our model this second research phase used the same four tests.

The first was to check the model’s chi-square statistic referred to as the “goodness of fit test”. In this second research phase the model sig was below

0.05, therefore our model was predicting whether a customer bought regional products or not significantly better than it was with only the constant included. The chi-square can be seen as the equivalent F-test in the linear regression (Field, 2009). For the data set from Germany-Bavaria it showed that the CETSCALE as well as the REGIOSCALE both had a significant chi-square test.

The second and third tests were Cox & Snell R Square and Nagelkerke R Square. For the CETSCALE between 28.2 per cent and 47.2 per cent of the variability was explained by this set of variables. However, the REGIOSCALE explained more, at between 32.5 per cent and 53.8 per cent (Pallant, 2011). This, based on 1000 consumers, would mean that the REGIOSCALE explained the behaviour of 43 to 54 consumers in a better way than the CETSCALE.

The fourth and most reliable SPSS test for goodness of fit is the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test (Pallant, 2011). Again, if the significant level is higher than 0.05 the model is supported. In this second research phase the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test showed a significant level of 0.015 for the CETSCALE, which meant no support for the model but the REGIOSCALE showed a significant level of 0.871 which meant the model fit. It can be concluded that the REGIOSCALE predicted whether consumers bought regional products intentionally in the Bavarian sample in a significant way, while the CETSCALE did not (Field, 2009).

Next is the odds ratio Exp (B), which for the “Environmental Benefits and Trust” dimension produced a significant value ($p < 0.05$). The odds ratio for this variable was 3.29 which means the odds for a person to buy regional products intentionally were 3.29 times higher in Bavaria for someone who stated that they bought regional products for environmental reasons than for someone who did not, when all other factors were equal (Field, 2009).

The 95 per cent confidence interval (95% CI for EXP (B)) provides an upper and lower value to see how accurately the odds ratio represents the true value and so how small the confidence interval is. In this case, the interval

ranged from 1.48 to 7.32 so the true odds ratio fell between these two numbers (Pallant, 2011).

The summary of the tests to evaluate the goodness of fit for this module is shown in table 15.

Table 17: Logistic regression – Intentional purchase of regional products- Germany- Bavaria

		Pseudo R ²			B (SE)	Exp(B)	95% CI for Odds Ratio	
		Cox & Snell	Nagelkerke	Hosmer & Lemeshow			Lower	Upper
CETSCALE	78.18*	28.2%	47.2%	.015	1.67* (0.25)	5.33	3.26	8.73
REGIOSCALE	89.71*	32.5%	53.8%	.871*				
Environmental benefits and trust					1.19* (0.41)	3.29	1.48	7.32
Personal Benefits					-.07 (0.35)	0.93	0.47	1.84
Familiarity and Habit					-.22 (0.37)	0.80	0.39	1.64

*significant

The data for Germany revealed that for both NRW and Bavaria the “Environmental Benefits and Trust” dimension contributed significantly to the predictive ability of the model. It also showed that the ‘goodness of fit’ for the CETSCALE was not significant.

Applying the same approaches to the two regions in England yielded the following results:

Applying the chi square to the data set from England-North West showed that the CETSCALE as well as the REGIOSCALE both had a significant chi-square test.

The second and third tests were the Cox & Snell R Square and Nagelkerke R Square also referred to as pseudo R square. For the CETSCALE in this case, they suggested that between 23.6 per cent and 32.8 per cent of the

variability was explained by this set of variables. However, the REGIOSCALE explained more, at between 40.1 per cent and 55.3 per cent (Pallant, 2011). Based on 1000 consumers, this would mean that the REGIOSCALE explained the behaviour of 65 to 225 consumers in a better way than the CETSCALE motives.

The Hosmer and Lemeshow Test showed a level of 0.000 for the CETSCALE which means no support for the model, while the REGIOSCALE showed a significant level of 0.306 which means the model fits. It can be concluded that the REGIOSCALE predicted whether consumers would buy regional products intentionally in the North West sample in a significant way, whereas the CETSCALE did not (Field, 2009).

Next is the odds ratio Exp (B). Here the “Familiarity and Habit” dimensions were significant predictors, according to the sig value ($p < 0.05$). The odds ratio for this variable was 1.63 which means the odds for a person to buy regional products intentionally were 1.63 times higher in the North West of England for someone who purported to buy regional products for “Familiarity and Habit” reasons, all other factors being equal (Field, 2009).

For the 95 per cent confidence interval (95% CI for EXP (B)) providing an upper and lower value to see how accurately the odds ratio represents the true value, and so how small the confidence interval is, the interval ranged from 1.01 to 2.64, so the true odds ratio fell between these two numbers (Pallant, 2011).

The summary of the tests to evaluate the goodness of fit for this module is shown in table 16.

Table 18: Logistic Regression – Intentional purchase of regional products- England - North West

		Pseudo R ²			B (SE)	Exp(B)	95% CI for Odds Ratio	
		Cox & Snell	Nagelkerke	Hosmer & Lemeshow			Lower	Upper
CETSCALE	64.31*	23.6%	32.8%	.000	0.86*	2.35	1.83	3.03

					(0.13)			
REGIOSCALE	116.16*	40.1%	55.3%	.306*				
Environmental benefits and trust					0.35 (0.30)	1.42	0.80	2.55
Personal Benefits					0.21 (0.24)	1.24	0.77	1.99
Familiarity and Habit					0.49* (0.25)	1.63	1.01	2.64

*Significant

Evaluating the “goodness of fit” of this model for the South East of England, the four tests yielded the following results:

For the chi-square statistic, the model sig was below 0.05. Therefore our model was predicting whether a customer bought regional products or not significantly better than it was with only the constant included. For the data set from England-South East the test showed that the CETSCALE as well as the REGIOSCALE had a significant chi-square test.

With Cox & Snell’s R Square and Nagelkerke’s R Square, for the CETSCALE the South East of England gave a result that between 33.4 per cent and 44.5 per cent of the variability was explained by this set of variables. However, the REGIOSCALE explained more, at between 42.3 per cent and 56.5 per cent (Pallant, 2011). Based on 1000 consumers, this would mean that the REGIOSCALE explained the behaviour of 89 to 120 consumers in a better way than the CETSCALE.

For the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test (Pallant, 2011) there was a level of 0.000 for the CETSCALE, which means no support for the model, but the REGIOSCALE showed a significant level of 0.304 which means the model fits. Because the CETSCALE did not fit any region it was excluded from further investigations. It can be concluded that the REGIOSCALE predicted the outcome of consumer behaviour, at least in terms of whether they would buy regional products intentionally. In the South East sample it did so in a significant way, whereas the CETSCALE did not (Field, 2009).

After the Pseudo R^2 , follows the b -value which is equivalent to the b -value of the linear regression. None of the REGIOSCALE elements had significant b -values in this region, meaning none of the dimensions were significant predictors for the South East of England.

The summary of the tests to evaluate the goodness of fit for this region is shown in table 17.

Table 19: Logistic regression – Intentional purchase of regional products- England- South East

		Pseudo R^2					95% CI for Odds Ratio	
	Model X^2	Cox & Snell	Nagelkerke	Hosmer & Lemeshow	B (SE)	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
CETSCALE	97.13*	33.4%	44.5%	.000	-1.08* (0.14)	2.94	2.25	3.84
REGIOSCALE	123.13*	42.3%	56.5%	.304*				
Environmental benefits and trust					0.429 (0.36)	1.54	0.77	3.08
Personal Benefits					0.23 (0.27)	1.26	0.74	2.15
Familiarity and Habit					0.26 (0.26)	1.30	0.77	2.18

*Significant

The data for England revealed that for the North West, the motives of “Familiarity and Habit” had a significant impact when consumers bought regional products intentionally. However for the South East none of the dimensions had a significant impact, while the CETSCALE model did not even pass the goodness of fit test for any of the four regions, based on this study’s sample.

This sub-section supported the idea that the REGIOSCALE, based on the logistic regression, seemed to have a better predictive power of whether consumers bought regional products intentionally than the original CETSCALE. Additionally, it showed that there seemed to be regional

differences in the motives why consumers bought regional products. One explanation for the regional differences could be due to value differences (regional cultural values) or the impact of demographic factors. This will be discussed in more detail in research phase three.

For now, it is necessary to take these findings and relate them to the existing literature to see where they sit within the overall context of this field. This step is highlighted in red to show where this sub-section is within the overall thesis (see figure 18).

Figure 18: Structure of the thesis



4.4 Discussion

4.4.1 The Three Regional Motives

The first part of the survey results are the new dimensions, which are shown in table 18.

Table 20: REGIOSCALE-items

Environmental benefits and trust (7 variables)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Buying regional products saves local jobs - Regional products are more environmentally friendly (e.g. reduce carbon footprint air miles) - Regional products are easily traceable - I buy regional products to support local industry - I buy regional products because I know where they are from - I buy regional products because I trust the regional official seals more - I buy regional products to avoid long transport ways for my products
Personal Benefits (8 variables)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Regional products are of high quality - Regional products have better standards (e.g. safety, animal welfare, no genetically enhanced products) - Regional products taste better - Regional products are more organic - Regional products have distinct attributes (e.g. taste, look, design) - Regional products are healthier (e.g. no harmful substances) - Regional products are better in general - Regional products have a good reputation
Familiarity and Habit (6 variables)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I only want to buy regional products (patriotic reasons) - I buy regional products because I grew up with them - I buy regional products to feel a local connection - I buy regional products for their regional identity - I buy regional products because I was always told to buy them - I buy regional products because I have a personal closeness to them

These new dimensions emerged from the interviews. Now, it is important to discuss which motives provide a more significant explanation of why consumers buy regional products, those contained within the REGIOSCALE or those contained within the CETSCALE.

4.4.2 REGIOSCALE Versus CETSCALE

The four different regions show that different motives to purchase regional products have a significant impact on consumers' purchase behaviour. That supports the findings by Schnettler (2011) as well as Fernández-Ferrín and Bande-Vilela (2013) who established regional differences in purchase behaviour motives in regards to the CETSCALE. In both of the regions studied in Germany, the dimension "Environmental Benefits and Trust" makes a significant contribution to consumers' decision to buy regional

products. For the German market this means that, if consumers perceive the products to be from their home region, marketers should emphasise that their products:

- Save regional jobs
- Are more environmentally friendly (e.g. reduce carbon footprint/air miles)
- Are easily traceable
- Support regional industry
- Show exactly where they are from
- Have the trusted regional official seals
- Avoid long transport chains

In those cases, consumers are more likely to buy those regional products. In England, on the other hand, the motives are split up according to region.

In the North of England the dimension “Familiarity and Habit” makes a significant contribution to predict if consumers will buy regional products intentionally. The more the consumer feels the regional connection of the regional product and knows it from their childhood the more likely it is that they are going to purchase the regional products. This is particularly the case if they:

- Emphasise the patriotic aspect of the products (show a regional symbol)
- Show well established pictures to consumers that they recognise related to the products
- Show familiar pictures consumer grew up with and use regional phrases and words

In the North of England, marketers should highlight the regional identity of the products to satisfy the consumers’ dual motivations to purchase regional products for patriotic reasons and to feel a sense of their regional identity. Also, marketers could emphasise the historical connection to the region possessed by regional products and communicate that visually as well as audibly. Doing so will satisfy the consumers’ motive to purchase regional

products because they grew up with them and for them to feel the regional connection or a sense of personal closeness to the region.

In the South of England, none of the dimensions has a significant impact on why consumers buy regional products. The reasons for that could be based on the sample, because it was only collected based on the mall interception approach. However, the findings indicated that the model is reliable and valid for the South of England. It is simply that none of the dimensions shows a significant impact in comparison to the other dimensions. Another explanation could therefore be the general lack of interest to purchase regional products intentionally (as shown in table 19). A closer look shows that only around 50% of consumers in the South of England intentionally purchase regional products (127 respondents from 250) whereas in the North it is almost 70 per cent (180 respondents from 262) and in Germany the average is around 85 per cent (220 from 255 consumers). For table 19, the first column shows the region from which the data was collected. The second column is split into two rows (Yes and No) indicating if consumers do or do not buy regional products intentionally. The third column shows how many consumers do or do not buy regional productions intentionally based on the sample of each region. The fourth column show that as a percentage figure.

Table 21: Frequency: Intention to purchase regional products

Country	Intentional purchase of regional products	Frequency	%
North of Germany	Yes	231	88
	No	33	12
South of Germany	Yes	210	84
	No	41	16
North of England	Yes	180	68
	No	82	31
South of England	Yes	127	51
	No	123	49

When examining if consumers buy regional products intentionally, another indicator of why in the results from the South of England did not show a significant prediction power may be how often consumers there bought regional products intentionally. In Germany, in both regions, around 60% of consumers purchased regional products at least every two weeks. The North of England only half as many consumers purchased regional products at least every two weeks and in the South of England the figure was even less, at only 18%. This shows that in England (the North West and South East) but especially in the South of England, consumers do not purchase regional products as frequently as they do in Germany (North West and South East). In table 20, the first column shows the region from which the data was collected. The second column is split into three rows (1-2 or every two weeks; once a month or less, skipped) indicating how frequently consumers purchase regional products. The third column shows how many consumers buy regional products very or less frequently, based on the sample of each region. The fourth column shows that as a percentage figure.

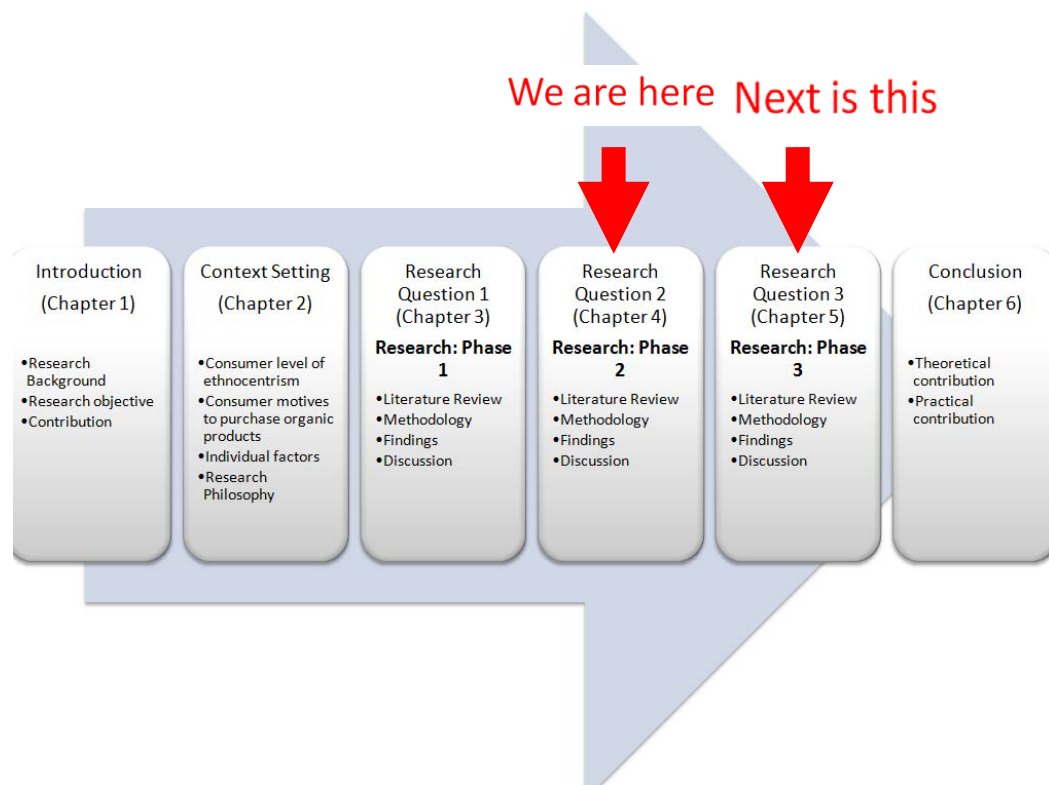
Table 22: Frequency: How often do you purchase regional products?

Country	Intentional purchase of regional products	Frequency	%
North of Germany	1-2 or every two weeks	159	60
	Once a month or less	73	18
	skipped	32	12
South of Germany	1-2 or every two weeks	153	62
	Once a month or less	61	24
	skipped	35	14
North of England	1-2 or every two weeks	84	32
	Once a month or less	97	40
	skipped	76	29
South of England	1-2 or every two weeks	46	18
	Once a month or less	82	33
	skipped	122	49

Finally the table also shows the amount of missing data for each region. In Germany only 12-14% of participants skipped the questions on how frequently they purchase regional products. In the North of England 29% skipped the questions on how frequently they purchase regional products. However in the South of England 49% did not answer the questions. This lack of answers could be due to a variety of reasons, but it could also help to explain the absence of significant level results.

This concludes the second phase of this thesis. Phase one identified the motives why consumers buy regional products, which were then assessed in phase two, leading to the REGIOSCALE. This was demonstrated to have a higher prediction power of consumer intent to buy regional products than the previously applied CETSCALE. It discussed the most significant motives for each of the four regions and explored why the results from the South of England might be so inconclusive.

The third phase of this thesis will deliver additional explanation for the regional differences, which could be based on value differences (regional cultural values) or on the impact of demographic factors. The steps that will be taken in phase three can be seen in figure 19.

Figure 19: Structure of the thesis

5 Research Phase Three

Phase one of this thesis identified consumers' motives to purchase regional products. **Phase two** involved the development of the REGIOSCALE, which has a higher prediction power than the CETSCALE based on this research projects' sample. **Phase three** now aims to evaluate if there is a relationship between individual factors (regional cultural values and demographic variables) and the regio-centric scale (REGIOSCALE) and if so what it is. The third research phase is split into two sequential and linked stages of data analysis:

1. The first part of the data analysis will analyse secondary data to evaluate if regional cultural differences exist in Germany and England. This is necessary in order to evaluate whether the two countries are culturally homogenous or heterogeneous.
2. The second part of the data analysis will analyse some of the data collected in the survey from the field work conducted during phase two. This is necessary to evaluate if, and to what extent, there is a relationship between demographic and regional (within country) cultural differences and the consumer REGIOSCALE.

Phase three's literature review starts with the theoretical justification for regional (within country) cultural differences, derived from the definition of culture. This is followed by a detailed exploration of the argument that cultural differences still exist and suggests that they represent an emerging topic in the cross cultural literature. Next is a sub-section on the decision to choose Schwartz's cultural dimensions for this third research phase to evaluate cultural (within country) differences.

In the second part of the literature review, the focus lies on highlighting the prediction power of individual factors of consumer motives (CETSCALE and motives to purchase credence products). It suggests that cultural values and demographic variables have predictive power for both consumers' levels of ethnocentrism and credence product purchase. That is followed by the

development of eight hypotheses for this third research phase. That is followed in turn by the methodology and by further discussion.

5.1.1 Literature Review: Definition of Culture

To understand the reasons to evaluate regional (within country) cultural differences it is first important to gain a better understanding of what we mean by culture.

Over the past few decades, academics have developed several different definitions of culture. Ajiferuke and Boddewyns have noted that it seems that culture is one of those things which attracts as many definitions and meanings to it as people using the word (Ajiferuke and Boddewyn, 1970).

Depending on the researcher, culture is knowledge (Tylor, 1871) what we know and believe (Hofstede, 1984), thought patterns, feelings about things or situations and the reaction to those feelings (Erez and Earley, 1993), the mind, norms and values (Hofstede, 1980; Doney et al., 1998), a problem solving guide to survive in life (Terpstra and David, 1991), core values and beliefs (Erez and Earley, 1993; Sojka and Tansuhaj, 1995; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004), or the sum of 'values, ideas, beliefs, customs, practices, techniques, institutions, objects and artefacts which make a society distinctive.' (Komin, 1990b: p.17).

When it comes to the transmission of culture, it is variously learned and passed on from generation to generation (Herskovits, 1955; Tylor, 1871; Erez and Earley, 1993; Hofstede, 1980; Terpstra and David, 1991; Komin, 1990b; Triandis, 1994; Sojka and Tansuhaj, 1995; Doney et al., 1998; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004) or visualised in form of art, symbols, artefacts or in general material objects (Herskovits, 1955; Tylor, 1871; Erez and Earley, 1993; Hofstede, 1980; Terpstra and David, 1991; Komin, 1990b; Triandis, 1994; Sojka and Tansuhaj, 1995; Doney et al., 1998; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004). For many researchers, cultural norms and values are presumably passed on through social institutions (families, education, occupations) (Tylor, 1871; Erez and Earley, 1993; Hofstede, 1984; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004). These are in turn influenced by economic

and political systems (Tylor, 1871; Komin, 1990a; Erez and Earley, 1993), which are shaped by shared experiences like history and religion (Tylor, 1871; Triandis, 1994). The dynamic of these factors determines such things as gender roles, communication rituals and language, all of which have an influence on a culture's symbols and artefacts (Erez and Earley, 1993; Triandis, 1994; Sojka and Tansuhaj, 1995). These listed characteristics interact with one another and, in doing so, form national and sub-national cultures (Johnson and Turner, 2010). Therefore, the attributes of a group can also be used to measure differences within national culture on a regional level (Smith and Bond, 1998). This is because regions within a country have at least some of their own specific laws and regulations, history, occupations, etc.

The concept of culture is not generalizable because it is manifested in a society's institutions, such as schools (Herskovits, 1955). It involves 'the collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the members of one group from another.' (Hofstede, 1980: p.21). The idea that culture is exclusive and differentiates one group from another is again supported by various academics in various terms. For example, it might be expressed as society's knowledge (Tylor, 1871; Komin, 1990b; Doney et al., 1998), 'members' (Hofstede, 1984: p.21), members of a particular society (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004), human groups (Erez and Earley, 1993), insiders of that particular group (Terpstra and David, 1991), social groups (Triandis, 1994), or group of consumers (Doney et al., 1998).

The link between consumer behaviour and culture was mentioned by Kroeber and Kluckhohn, who said that, 'It is the form of things that consumers have in their mind, their models of perceiving, relating, and otherwise interpreting.' (Hofstede, 1984: p.21). These models of perceiving, relating and otherwise interpreting are reinforced throughout consumers' lives according to Erez and Earley (1993) and offer a guideline for a group of consumers (Doney et al., 1998). 'Values shape consumers' beliefs and attitudes and guide their behaviour' according to (Fan, 2000: p.4). Schiffman and Kanuk also mention the link of culture and consumer behaviour,

suggesting that it is, 'the sum of learned beliefs, values and customs that serve to direct the consumer behaviour of the members of a particular society.' (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004: p.408)

In conclusion, as shown in the table below, culture has various definitions. After considering various cultural definitions, this paper will proceed with an understanding of culture incorporating four major aspects based on the above overview of definitions.

1. Culture is shared values, beliefs, ideas and knowledge.
2. Culture is shared among a certain group of people and passed on from generation to generation.
3. Culture is territorially unique and shared (on a regional (within country) level).
4. Culture has an impact on consumers' values, beliefs and behaviour.

The question now is how many consumers form a culture. According to Olie (1995) and Myers and Tan (2003) a family, an occupational or a regional group can form a culture. This study will use the regions within a country as cultures. This is especially applicable because regions within countries differ in regards to various factors affecting consumers' development of cultural values, beliefs, ideas and knowledge. This can include, for example, education, political rules and regulations, artefacts and history.

Table 21 shows the discussed cultural definitions. It is a summary, but not a comprehensive list, of various approaches to defining culture, and hopefully shows the development of the concept over time, including direct quotes on definitions of culture.

Table 23: Definition of culture

Author	Year	Elements which define culture
Tylor	1871	<i>'Culture or Civilization, taken in its wide ethnographic sense, is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man (sic) as a member of society.'</i> p.1
Kroeber and Kluckhohn	1952	<i>'Whatever it is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members. It is the form of things that consumers have in their mind, their models of perceiving, relating, and otherwise interpreting.'</i>

	1954	(in Hofstede 1984 p.21) <i>'Culture consists in patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional(i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values.'</i> (in Erez and Earley 1993 p.41)
Herskovits	1955	<i>'[...] is a general agreement that culture is learned; that it allows man to adapt himself to his natural and social setting; that it is greatly variable; that it is manifested in institutions, thought patterns, and material objects.'</i> P.305
Hofstede	1980	<i>'[...] the collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the members of one group from another [...]'</i> p. 21
Komin	1990	Culture is <i>'the end product of society, generally refers to the total patterns of values, ideas, beliefs, customs, practices, techniques, institutions, objects and artefacts which make a society distinctive [...]</i> Therefore, consumers are culturally conditioned.' P.17
Terpstra and David	1991	<i>'Culture is a learned, shared, compelling, interrelated set of symbols whose meanings provide a set of orientations for members of a society. These orientations, taken together, provide solutions to problems that all societies must solve if they are to remain viable' p.5</i>
Erez and Earley	1993	Culture is <i>'[...] the core values and beliefs of individuals within a society formed in complex knowledge systems during childhood and reinforced throughout life.'</i> P. 43
Triandis	1994	<i>'Culture is a set of human-made objective and subjective elements that in the past have increased the probability of survival and resulted in satisfaction of the consumer in an ecological niche, and thus became shared among those who could communicate with each other because they had a common language and lived in the same time and place.'</i> (p.22)
Sojka and Tansuhaj	1995	Culture is <i>'[...] a dynamic set of socially acquired behaviour patterns and meanings common to the members of a particular society or human group, including the key elements of language, artefacts, beliefs and values.'</i> P.7
Doney et al.	1998	Culture is <i>'[...] a system of values and norms that are shared among a group of consumer and that when taken together constitute a design for living.'</i> P. 67
Schiffman and KanEngland	2004	Culture is <i>'[...] the sum of learned beliefs, values and customs that serve to direct the consumer behaviour of the members of a particular society.'</i> (p.408)

Sources: self-produced based on (Herskovits, 1948; Tylor, 1871; Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961; Hofstede, 1984; Erez and Earley, 1993; Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1994; Sojka and Tansuhaj, 1995; Doney et al., 1998; Schein, 1999; Komin, 1990b; Terpstra and David, 1991; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004)

This section has discussed the definition of culture for this third research phase and stated how culture is understood in this thesis. Next is a subsection discussing the existence of cultural differences followed by a sub-

section covering the reasoning behind choosing Schwartz's cultural dimensions to measure cultural differences on a regional level in Germany and England.

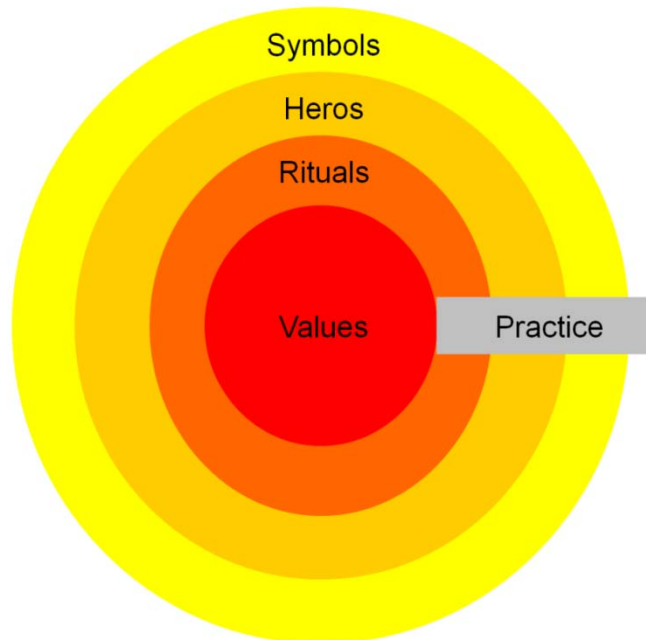
5.1.2 Cultural Differences

Considering the vast amount of research concluding that cultural value differences impact on consumer ethnocentric behaviour and consumer motives to purchase regional products, it is important to question the existence of cultural differences. Levitt forecasted that with the impact of globalisation, cultural differences will eventually disappear entirely (Levitt, 1983). In 1999, a study by Heuer et al. supported Levitt's statement that economic development leads to convergence of cultures, for example in similarities between Indian and US managers. Heuer et al (1999) gathered statistically significant evidence that cultural differences, according to Hofstede's cultural dimensions, between managers in Indonesia and U.S. are diminishing compared to earlier findings.

Where Heuer et al. found evidence that economic development led to the convergence of cultural values (1999), Smith and Bond (1998) argue that the same factor, which is globalisation, is likely to increase international diversity (1998). Diversification of culture is due to increasing migration between different countries, enhanced by globalisation and pushed by technological development in the communication and transport sectors (Johnson and Turner, 2010). Referring to Hofstede's cultural onion (figure 18), Hofstede et al. (2010) argue that the top layer of this onion might adapt to trends but the core norms and values will hardly change. Crucially, while on a macro level cultures seem to convert, for example the fact that most people recognise the McDonalds golden "M", cultures will not convert (become one) on a micro level. One example would be the growing interest in regional products (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2002; Papadopoulos and Martín, 2011; Mintel, 2012). This means that intra-cultural differences within a country will increase and that cultural convergences on a macro level can be explained with Hofstede's research onion, arguing that the outer layers like "Symbols" for example the McDonalds "M" and "Heroes" for example Iron Man are more able to be

influenced than the inner ones like rituals and values (Hofstede et al., 2010) (see figure 20).

Figure 20: Hofstede's Cultural Onion



Source: self-produced, based on (Hofstede, 1984).

Considering the vast amount of cross cultural research (Mooij, 2000; Zhang and Gelb, 1996; Gao and Zhang, 2011; Agarwal et al., 2010; Cannon and Yaprak, 2011), cultural theories (Schwartz, 2006a; Hofstede et al., 2010; Inglehart and Baker, 2000; Minkov, 2007; Trompenaars and Woolliams, 2004) and problems international companies face when working in a foreign market (Usunier and Lee, 2005; Kotler and Armstrong, 2011; Armstrong and Kotler, 2012), it is clear that cultural differences still exist. Therefore while Levitt's forecast from 1983 that cultural differences will disappear might apply to the surface of Hofstede's cultural onion, it seems unlikely to apply to deeper values, as recent cultural values studies have shown (Kaasa et al., 2013; Gao and Zhang, 2011; Hofstede and Minkov, 2010).

A change in the cross cultural research literature needs to be highlighted at this point, which is the slowly increasing number of articles seeming to focus on regional cultural value differences within a country instead of national

cultural differences (Siemieniako et al., 2011; Thelen et al., 2006; Schnettler et al., 2011; Kaasa et al., 2013). The reasons for this include the increasing criticisms that nation and culture are used as synonyms because it is 'a great simplification to limit cross-cultural analysis with the country level.' (McSweeney, 2002; Lenartowics and Roth, 2001; Adler et al., 1986). A growing number of papers have also appeared which have identified significant cultural differences between regions within countries (Siemieniako et al., 2011; Thelen et al., 2006; Schnettler et al., 2011; Kaasa et al., 2013). This change in academic cross-cultural research is in line with recent changes among practitioners, because companies like Mueller are starting to offer products that appear to be from the region where they being sold (Mintel, 2012; Nestlé, 2012). In another example, a fast food chain called "Chipotle Mexican Grill", which has restaurants in the USA, England, Canada and France, reflects this trend by emphasizing regionally sourced "food with integrity" (Chipotle Mexican Grill, 2012).

This literature review of phase three has discussed which definition of culture is applied in this thesis. This clarified that, based on the definition of culture, it is acceptable for culture to be used when discussing either national culture or regional culture (Olie, 1995; Myers and Tan, 2003). This is due, not just to geographical constraints, but also to the fact that certain regions have their own rules, regulations, school systems, dialects/languages, history, foods and artefacts. Then it was argued that cultural differences have not vanished, and pointed out the phenomenon that there seems to be more evaluation of cultural differences within countries, so that it is important to discuss the existence of regional (within country) cultural differences. It also discussed whether cultural values still exist and showed that the cross-cultural literature is moving towards analysing regional (within country) cultural differences. Next, there follows an overview of cultural theories which measure cultural value differences. The following section is used to explain the reasoning behind the theoretical approach chosen to measure cultural differences.

5.1.3 National Cultural Theory

Over recent years the majority of cross-cultural theories have addressed the concept of national cultural values (MacNab et al., 2010). This body of theories includes Hofstede's six cultural dimensions, Halls' High and low context communication and polychronic versus monochronic time understanding of cultures, and more recently Schwartz's cultural dimensions. In addition, there is Inglehart's Cultural Map and Minkov's addition of a 6th and 7th dimensions to Hofstede (Hofstede et al., 2010; Hall and Hall, 1990; Inglehart and Baker, 2000). These studies give a general understanding of different nations and societies.

The most applied national cultural theory is Hofstede's approach (Steenkamp, 2001; Ng et al., 2007). Hofstede's cultural dimensions have been used by many academics to explain issues related to international marketing, such as advertising applied across cultures (Alden et al., 1993; Albers-Miller and Gelb, 1996; Milner and Collins, 2000), product usage and buying motives (Mooij, 2000), user perception of websites (Pavlou and Chai, 2002), new product development (Nakata and Sivakumar, 1996), and consumer innovation (Steenkamp et al., 1999). However, the number of critics of this work seems to be increasing regarding sampling (De Mooij, 2011; Nakata, 2009; Orr and Hauser, 2008; Todeva, 1999; Williamson, 2002; McSweeney, 2002; Blodgett et al., 2008), the lack of emic and etic considerations when distributing the same questionnaire to different cultures (Tung, 2007; Nielsen and Gannon, 2005), his assumption of one-dimensional cultures (Schwartz, 1994b; Oyserman et al., 2002), and his dimensions being too general and out-of-date (Nakata, 2009). To overcome these problems, the dimensions need to be extended and updated (Engelen and Brettel, 2010). This extension and updating can be provided by using Schwartz's methods or the "GLOBE" cultural dimensions, which partly include Hofstede's dimensions as well as additional ones (Engelen and Brettel, 2010; Douglas and Craig, 2011a; Magnusson et al., 2008; Steenkamp, 2001; Nakata, 2009; Schwartz, 1994b; House et al., 2004). More significantly, Schwartz covers a wider variety of potential cultural differences in his dimensions (Ng et al., 2007). Therefore Schwartz's cultural

dimensions are the chosen theory for this third research phase to evaluate if significant regional cultural differences exist in Germany and England and if so to what extent they impact consumers' motives to purchase regional products.

Table 22 summarises additional national cultural theories to give an overview of the major research from 1950 up to 2007.

Table 24: National Cultural Theories From 1950 – 2007

Author	Year published	Cultural Dimensions
Parsons and Shils	1951	1. Self-Orientation versus Collective-Orientation 2. Universalism versus Particularism 3. Achievement versus Ascription 4. Specificity versus Diffuseness 5. Affective versus Affective-Natural The last four were adapted by Trompenaars who then added two more and another one linked to Hofstede
Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck	1961	1. Human nature 2. Relationship to nature 3. Relationship to other humans 4. Time-orientation 5. Activity-orientation 6. Concept of space
Hall E.T.	1966	1. Monochronic time versus Polychronic time (1966) 2. High versus low context cultures (1976) 3. Need for space: High territoriality versus Low territoriality (Hall, 1990)
Hofstede	1981	1. Individualism versus Collectivism 2. Masculinity versus Femininity 3. Power Distance 4. Uncertainty Avoidance 5. Long Term Orientation (1988) 6. Indulgence versus restraints (2010)
House	2004	1. Power Distance 2. Uncertainty Avoidance 3. Human Orientation 4. Institutional Collectivism 5. In-Group Collectivism 6. Assertiveness 7. Gender Egalitarianism 8. Future Orientation 9. Performance Orientation
Schwartz	1992	1. Universalism 2. Benevolence 3. Conformity 4. Tradition 5. Security 6. Power 7. Achievement

		8. Hedonism 9. Stimulation 10. Self-direction Significant correlation with Hofstede
Trompenaars	1993	1. Universalism vs. Particularism 2. Individualism vs. Communitarianism 3. Specific vs. Diffuse 4. Neutral vs. Emotional 5. Achievement vs. Ascription 6. Sequential vs. Synchronic 7. Internal vs. External Control
Inglehart and Welzel	2000	1. Traditional/ Secular Rational 2. Survival/Self-expression values
Minkov	2007	1. Pragmatic vs. Normative 2. Indulgence vs. Restraint 3. Monumentalism vs. Flexumility

Source: Self-produced based on (Parsons and Shils, 1951; Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961; Hall and Hall, 1990; Hofstede, 1980; Fiske, 1990; House et al., 2004; Trompenaars and Woolliams, 2004; Schwartz and Bardi, 2001; Klages and Gensicke, 1999; Inglehart and Baker, 2000; Minkov, 2007).

Shalom H. Schwartz, as with Parsons and Shils, developed his dimensions from theory. Later on, he supported his theory with data from over 60,000 respondents from 63 nations, far more than the other studies named above, except Hofstede (Smith et al., 2002). Schwartz's dimensions include the majority of Hofstede's dimensions as well as Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2001).

Schwartz's value paradigm measures national cultural differences, using ten cultural values which can be allocated to four main dimensions. Those ten values are as follows:

'Universalism' describes a society's goal to appreciate and protect the welfare of consumers and nature. "Benevolence" contrasts with Universalism because it describes a society's desire to enhance only the welfare of those consumers their members are in frequent contact with. Societies which score high on Benevolence are very forgiving, loyal, true friends and helpful.

The third value is 'Conformity', which implies that a society's goal is to suppress impulses to upset or harm others. The society's members aim for harmony and do not like to violate social norms or expectations. Those

societies constrain themselves on a daily basis to achieve high levels of obedience towards parents and elders, as well as to be very polite.

'Benevolence' and 'Conformity' might lead to the same behaviours but are driven by different motivational values. 'Conformity' is more about keeping harmony with others within the society, and so more driven by the external environment, whereas 'Benevolence' is more an intrinsic motivation. Both values ('Benevolence' and 'Conformity') aim to satisfy a feeling of belonging.

The fourth value, 'Tradition', can manifest in similar behaviour to 'Conformity' in terms of individuals constraining themselves on a daily basis to meet society's expectations. The main difference is that 'Conformity' focuses on obedience to people the members of that society are in frequent contact with, such as parents, bosses or teachers, whereas 'Tradition' focuses on obedience to wider cultural customs, religious ideals and ideas.

The fifth dimension is 'Security'. It describes the desire of a society to achieve a high level of safety and stability for the overall population but also the desire of its members to achieve it for their relationships and themselves. This feeling of security can be seen in terms of national security, family security, or even the need to be healthy.

The sixth dimension is 'Power'. It describes how much a society values social status and the extent to which individuals have control over other individuals and resources to gain more social recognition.

The seventh dimension is 'Achievement', which is similar to the dimension of 'Power'. With both dimensions, the aim is to achieve a high level of social recognition. However, where power mainly focuses on the fact that an individual is wealthy or has authority over others, 'Achievement' focuses more on the characteristics a person needs. 'Achievement' measures such elements as being ambitious, intelligent, and capable, but also being influential and successful, as well as possessing self-respect.

The eighth dimension is 'Hedonism'. It describes a society's desire to indulge itself, enjoy life and achieve pleasure. The ninth value is called 'Stimulation'

and is similar to 'Hedonism' in regards to satisfying individual needs. However, they differ because 'Stimulation' focuses on those needs in terms of their novelty, with individuals within the society seeking an exciting and challenging life, where members of that society need variety to maintain a positive attitude.

The tenth and final value is 'Self-Direction'. It describes a society's desire for independence, creativity and self-exploration. These societies highly value freedom, independence, the ability of members to choose their own goals, and creativity.

These are Schwartz's ten values, which describe culture on a national level (Schwartz, 2006b; Schwartz, 1999). These ten values can each be split into two bipolar dimensions. The first dimension divides into 'Openness to Change' versus 'Conservation'. 'Openness to Change' is described by the values 'Self-Direction' and 'Stimulation', while the opposing side ('Conservation') is composed of the values 'Tradition', 'Conformity' and 'Security'. The second dimension is 'Self-Transcendence' versus 'Self-Enhancement'. The first part of this bipolar dimension ('Self-Transcendence') is described by the values 'Benevolence' and 'Universalism', while the opposing side ('Self Enhancement') is composed of the values 'Power', 'Achievement' and 'Hedonism' (Schwartz and Sagie, 2000; Schwartz, 1999; Olver and Mooradian, 2003).

This sub-section has reviewed existing national cultural theories to identify which of those values theories would be most useful for this third research phase. It seems clear that Schwartz's cultural values are the most suitable to apply to this research. This is because Schwartz's cultural dimensions overcome various drawbacks of Hofstede's research and give more details of cultural value differences. After gaining insights into what cultural values are and Schwartz cultural dimensions, the next section will explore the emerging topic of regional (within country) cultural differences, which might help to explain the different motives consumers have to purchase regional products that emerged from the results from field work phase two.

5.1.4 Regional Differences Versus National Differences

This sub-section will now discuss the importance of understanding cultural differences on a regional (within country) level.

Adler et al. (1986) argues that it is justified to use the terms 'nation' and 'culture' as synonyms in countries which are culturally homogenous; which in other words means countries that show few internal cultural differences. However, if countries are very heterogeneous it is wrong to collect data in only one part of the country and then generalize those findings to the whole country, because doing so can lead to misleading assumptions. Koslow and Costley (2010) as well as Kaasa *et al.* (2013: p.2) support this criticism by Adler, saying that nation and culture being used as synonyms is a mistake and that it is, 'a great simplification to limit cross-cultural analysis with the country level,' reiterating previous criticisms of this nature (McSweeney, 2002; Lenartowics and Roth, 2001; Adler et al., 1986). Therefore, countries which show high levels of cultural differences within themselves (heterogeneous countries), should be analysed on a regional level instead, which could lead to new insights into cultural differences (Kaasa et al., 2013; Adler et al., 1986; Lenartowics and Roth, 2001; Beugelsdijk et al., 2006). Thelen et al. support the opinion that ignoring regional differences and generalising consumer perceptions of a whole country can have negative effects on a company's success in those countries (2006).

Besides Adler(1986), Kaasa (2013), and Thelen (2006) supporting the idea that using nation as a synonym for culture is simplistic, there is additional support for the need to conduct more within country cultural research, when looking at the definition of culture. As discussed in sub-section 5.1.1, characteristics of culture include language, rules, regulations, religion artefacts, food etc. When academics conduct research in, for example, a single part of Belgium, it might be misleading to generalise those results to the whole of Belgium because the language differences might reflect potential cultural value differences. The same is true for other countries where multiple linguistic groups exist, such as Spain and Switzerland.

In addition to the above reasons why it is so important to gain a better understanding of regional (within country) cultural differences, table 23 summarises various studies from across the globe which evaluate regional differences. These studies not only focus on regional cultural differences, on ethnocentric consumer behaviour or credence product purchase intention but also support the argument that within country differences exist.

Table 25: Articles on regional (within-country) differences

Author	Year	Country	Context	Journal
Kaasa et al.	2013	17 European countries	To measure regional cultural differences based on Hofstede	International Journal of Cross Cultural Management
Song et al.	2012	Interviews in China	Regional differences in China of the consumer acceptance of new mobile technology	Australian Marketing Journal
Douglas et al.	2011	Questionnaire BRIC + 11 extra ones	Developing a Semi global Marketing Strategy	Journal of International Marketing
Douglas et al.	2011	LR (contextual factors to refine entry strategy)	The role of context in assessing international marketing opportunities	International Marketing Review
Haandrikman et al.	2011	Questionnaire Netherlands	Cultural based regional patterns of homogeny	Applied Spatial Analysis and Policy
Malul et al.	2011	Questionnaire GLOBE survey data	Societal cultural difference impact on regional disparity	International journal of Social Economics
MacNab et al.	2010	Questionnaire (Hawaii and Florida)	Regional cultural differences and ethical perspectives	Business and Society Review
Cho	2010	Questionnaire China	Examination of regional differences in China by socio-cultural factors	International Journal of Market Research
Redfern et al.	2010	Questionnaire China	Regional differences in business ethics	Asia Pacific Journal of Management
Bronnenberg et al.	2007	USA (scanner data from ACNilsen)	National brands, local branding	Journal of Marketing Research
MacNab et al.	2007	Questionnaire Canada	Examination of the Canadian Cultural differences and ethics	Canadian Journal of Regional Science

Dou et al.	2006	Questionnaire China	Regional differences in media consumption of Generation X	Journal of Advertising
McNeill	2006	Questionnaire China	Sales promotion in supermarkets	Australian Marketing Journal
Kashima et al.	2004	Japan and Australia	Regional differences in self- perception	Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin
Deschepper et al.	2002	Interviews in Belgium and Dutch	Regional Cultural differences in the attitude towards antibiotics	Patient Education and Counselling
Lynch et al.	2001	515 consumer (20 countries)	Profile of Internet Buyers in 20 Countries: Evidence for Region- Specific Strategies	Journal of International Business Studies
Nisbett	1993	Questionnaire US	Violence and US Regional culture	American Psychologist

Self-produced based on (McNeill, 2006; Malul et al., 2011; Deschepper et al., 2002; Song et al., 2012; Haandrikman et al., 2011; Redfern and Crawford, 2010; Nisbett, 1993; MacNab et al., 2007; Cho and Jin, 2010; Douglas and Craig, 2011a; Kashima et al., 2004; Dou et al., 2006; MacNab et al., 2010; Douglas and Craig, 2011b; Bronnenberg et al., 2007; Lynch and Beck, 2001)

This body of work seems to justify evaluating whether regional cultural differences exist in the four regions analysed in the third research phase. If those regional (within country) cultural differences exist, it also necessitates an evaluation of the impact cultural value differences have on consumer motives to purchase regional products.

The next sub-section starts by highlighting the importance of the prediction power of individual factors of consumer motives (CETSCALE and motives to purchase organic products). After concluding that cultural values and demographic variables have a prediction power for consumer levels of ethnocentrism and organic product purchase, there follows a more detailed discussion to develop the hypotheses for this third research phase, particularly in regard to demographic variables and the extent to which they impact on consumers' motives to purchase regional products based on the literature of consumer motives to purchase organic products and ethnocentric consumer behaviour.

5.2 Literature Review: Individual Factors

Various studies have evaluated the extent to which individual factors like demographics and cultural values demonstrate a relationship with consumer motives (Verain et al., 2012; Sangkumchaliang and Huang, 2012; Padilla et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2013; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010; Schnettler et al., 2011; Josiassen et al., 2011; Al Ganideh and Al Taei, 2012; Tsai et al., 2013). Since there is only limited literature which evaluates the impact individual factors have on consumer motives to purchase regional products, this study will draw hypotheses from the literature of ethnocentric consumer behaviour and organic product purchase. This seems reasonable, since those have already shown themselves to be related to the REGIOSCALE motives.

The motives of ethnocentric consumer behaviour and the consumers' decisions to buy organic products are impacted by individual factors that are shown in tables 24 and 25 and discussed in further detail in this section. This part of the study will start by covering a discussion about the impact individual factors have on organic product purchase, followed by a discussion about the impact individual factors have on ethnocentric consumer behaviour.

5.2.1 Demographic Variables Impact on Organic Product Purchase

Davies et al. show that the demographics gender, age, and income level have an impact on purchases of organic products in England. That study showed that female consumers aged between 30 and 45, with children and higher levels of personal disposable income, were the most likely individuals to purchase organic products. Furthermore, the study concluded that the disposable income factor has the biggest prediction power over whether consumers buy organic products (Davies et al., 1995).

Three years later, Thompson and Kidwell concluded that additional variables which were not covered by Davies et al., including the demographic variables of education level and whether consumers had children under eighteen had

an impact on consumers' decisions to purchase organic products in the USA. They concluded that less educated consumers with children under eighteen would be more likely to purchase organic products (Thompson and Kidwell, 1998).

Another study from 2001 by Magnusson et al. collected data in Sweden to evaluate the attitude of Swedish consumers toward organic food purchase. This study concluded that gender and age had the biggest impacts on whether consumers bought organic products. Again, this study supported the findings by Davies et al. from England and Thompson and Kidwell from the USA that females were more likely to buy organic products. However, this study concluded, in contrast to the studies from Davies et al., that younger consumers were more likely to purchase organic products than older consumers (Magnusson et al., 2001).

Lea and Woosley's study from Australia found that the demographic variable of gender is one of the highest predictors of whether consumers purchase organic products. This means that their study supports Magnusson et al., Davies et al. and Thompson and Kidwell's finding that females are more likely to have positive organic food beliefs (Lea and Worsley, 2005).

A later study by Aertsens et al. reviewed past research done on personal determinants of organic food consumption and mentioned that contradictory results exist as to the extent to which the demographics gender, age, education level and whether consumers have children or not can predict organic product purchase. Aertsens et al.'s study points out that macro demographics are strong predictors of positive purchase of organic products. Furthermore, they suggest that demographic variables like education level and age do not have a high prediction power, which contradicts the findings of Davies et al. from England and Thompson and Kidwell from the USA. However, this study by Aertsens et al. supports other findings from all the previous studies, particularly that gender is a strong predictor of why consumers purchase organic products (Aertsens et al., 2009).

Dettmann and Dimitri's study from the US examined who buys organic vegetables, coming to the conclusion that the demographic variables of age and education level had the main impact on this kind of purchase. Specifically, younger and higher educated consumers were more likely to buy organic vegetables than other groups. Furthermore, they established that ethnicity had an impact on their findings too, stating that African Americans were less likely to purchase organic vegetables, which brings a new variable to this type of research (Dettmann and Dimitri, 2009).

Another study from 2012 was conducted in Thailand, evaluating consumers' perceptions and attitudes towards organic food products in Northern Thailand. This study concluded that age and the level of education could help to predict which consumers were more likely to purchase organic food products, a finding that differs from Aertsens et al.'s conclusion, because this study states that older and more educated consumers were more likely to purchase organic products (Sangkumchaliang and Huang, 2012).

One of the latest studies on organic food consumption is based on data from the German National Nutrition Survey II. This study came to the conclusion that older women from the South of Germany tended to buy organic products more frequently than other gender or age groups within Germany (Padilla et al., 2013).

This suggests that demographic factors do have an impact on consumer intentions to purchase organic products, but the results collected from various countries have led to some contradictory results. For example some studies say young people are more likely to purchase organic products, while others say older people are more likely to purchase them and some say age has no prediction power over whether consumers purchase organic products at all. These results will be discussed in a later sub-chapter. Now however, it is important to examine the literature researching the impact cultural values have on consumers' purchase intention of organic products.

5.2.2 Cultural Values Impact on Organic Product Purchase

One of the earlier studies by Grunert and Juhl (1995) explored the relationship between values, environmental attitudes, and the purchase of organic foods. The study concluded that Schwartz's cultural values do have a significant impact on consumers' motives, predicting environmentally friendly motives to purchase organic products (Grunert and Juhl, 1995).

Dreezen et al. from (2005) evaluated the impact personal consumer values have on the purchase of organically grown food products. They also concluded that there is a positive relationship between Schwartz's values of power (social status), universalism (concern for others and for nature) and consumers' attitudes towards organically grown food, which fits with the findings by Grunert and Juhl (1995), De Boer et al. (2007), and Aertsens et al. (2009)

Another study in 2009 by Thøgersen looked at the impact core values can have on consumers' decision making processes with regards to organic food products. More precisely, he concluded that certain cultural values from Schwartz's cultural dimensions can predict the consumption of organic products. He argued that Universalism in particular has the strongest prediction power (Thøgersen, 2009). Consumers who score high on universalism value understanding, appreciation, tolerance and protection for the welfare of all consumers and for nature (Schwartz, 1994b). This is in line with the findings from Dreezen et al.

Some studies went even further and compared the prediction power of consumers' demographic variables to consumer cultural value differences. These studies came to the conclusion that demographic variables are not enough to evaluate or profile consumer groups because they lead to ambiguous results. This argument is supported by Dagevos (2005), Verain et al. (2012) and Diamantopoulos et al. (2003). They argue that personal characteristics or values seem to be more reliable (Verain et al., 2012; Diamantopoulos et al., 2003; Lea and Worsley, 2005).

One of the latest studies on predicting organic food consumption is based on data from the German National Nutrition Survey II. This study came to the same conclusion as those that have gone before, namely that cultural values are stronger predictors of organic food purchase than demographic variables. The understanding that cultural values are stronger predictors of consumers' motives to purchase organic products does not make demographic variables completely redundant, however. It simply means that they should be supported by additional variables to predict organic food consumption (Padilla et al., 2013).

Another study from 2013 conducted by Zhou et al. evaluated the impact cultural values have on Chinese consumers' intentions to purchase organic food products. They concluded that cultural values do help to predict consumers' attitudes toward organic products. Specifically Schwartz's cultural dimension of Self-Transcendence had a positive relationship with consumers' attitudes towards organic products (Zhou et al., 2013).

In summary, it can be said that according to some studies consumers' values seem to be stronger predictors of their intent to purchase organic products than just simple demographic factors. But again, the results are rather inconsistent across countries. A compilation of the reviewed studies can be found in table 24.

Table 26: Articles discussing individual factors impacting on organic product purchase

Study	Organic products	
	Demog raphics	Culture
Grunert and Juhl (1995)		X
Davies et al (1995)	X	
Thompson and Kidwell (1998)	X	
Magnusson et al (2001)	X	

Thøgersen(2009)		X
Dreezen et al. (2005)		X
Lea and Worsley (2005)	X	X
De Boer et al. (2007)		X
Aertsens J. et al. (2009)	X	X
Dettmann R.L. and Dimitri (2009)	X	
Verain et al. (2012)	X	X
Sangkumchaliang and Huang (2012)	X	
Padilla et al. (2013)	X	
Zhen et al. (2013)		X

This section has reviewed the studies evaluating the impact demographic variables and cultural values have on consumers' motives to purchase organic products. The following section will discuss the extent to which demographics and cultural values impact on levels of consumers' ethnocentrism. In doing so, it will aim to extract hypotheses from the existing literature for this thesis' third research phase.

5.2.3 Demographic Variables Impact on Ethnocentric Consumer Behaviour

Orthman at al. (2008) evaluated demographic and lifestyle profiles of ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric urban consumers in Malaysia. This study concluded that there were six demographic variables which showed a significant prediction power over whether consumers were ethnocentric or not. Those six demographics were ethnicity, marriage status, gender, level of income, occupation, and education level. The study found that in the sample studied, most consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism were Malaysian

females working as a clear or production operator, were married, were only educated up to high school or lower level and were in low-income groups. The most significant variable seems to have been the marriage factor, so that if a person had a family they were more likely to be more ethnocentric than consumers without families. This was followed as a determining factor by the level of income (Othman et al., 2008).

Two years later, Nadiri and Tumer evaluated the influence of ethnocentrism on consumers' intention to buy domestically produced goods in North Cyprus. They applied the CETSCALE, and they confirmed the validity and reliability of the CETSCALE for the North of Cyprus. Furthermore, they supported the findings by Othman et al. that a consumer's level of income impacts on their ethnocentric tendencies, meaning the less income consumers have the more likely they have a high level of ethnocentrism. This study also supported the idea that education levels have an impact on consumers' levels of ethnocentrism but in the opposite direction. This means consumers in the North of Cyprus were more likely to have a higher level of ethnocentrism when they were better educated. Additionally this study contradicted the study from Malaysia in one area, stating that gender had no impact on consumers' levels of ethnocentrism. This study also added the demographic variable of age, which showed a significant positive impact on consumers' levels of ethnocentrism. Older consumers were more likely to be ethnocentric than younger ones (Nadiri and Tümer, 2010).

A year later, Schnettler et al. applied the CETSCALE in Central-Southern Chile to evaluate different levels of ethnocentrism among consumers of foodstuffs. They concluded that in Chile, there were five different types of consumers in regards to their level of ethnocentrism. These five levels of consumer ethnocentrism were influenced by individual factors including which part of the city consumers were from, how old they were, their socioeconomic level and their lifestyle. This study supported previous findings that the older the person was, the higher their level of ethnocentrism was likely to be. Also, these consumers described themselves as more conservative. Moreover, consumers with a lower income and lower education

levels were more likely to be ethnocentric, which supported the findings from Malaysia but contradicted the findings from Northern Cyprus. One reason why Schnettler et al.'s (2011) results contradicted the findings from North Cyprus could be because of their sample. Nadiri and Tumer argued that most of their sample were academic staff with Turkish roots, so using them to evaluate the level of ethnocentrism of Northern Cyprus' consumers might explain the contradicting results that in Northern Cyprus consumers with a lower income and lower level of education were more likely to have a higher level of ethnocentrism (Nadiri and Tümer, 2010).

Another study from 2011, evaluating the impact of demographic variables on consumers' levels of ethnocentrism, was conducted in Australia. This study concluded that demographic variables have a direct impact on consumers' levels of ethnocentric tendencies. Specifically, age and gender are significant. The finding that gender has an impact on the level of ethnocentrism supports the findings from one of Othman's studies from Malaysia that females are more likely to buy products for ethnocentric reasons, but contradicts Nadiri and Tumers' study of the impact of gender on consumers' levels of ethnocentrism. Josiassen's study from Australia does, however, support Nadiri and Tumers' and Schnettler et al.'s findings from Northern Cyprus about the impact age has on consumers' levels of ethnocentrism. Finally, this study stated that the level of income of those studied had no impact on consumers' levels of ethnocentrism. That contradicts previous findings from Nadiri and Tumer from Northern Cyprus, Othmans study from Malaysia and Schnettlers et al. study from Chile. In summary, older women had statistically the highest level of ethnocentrism among consumers in Australia and their level of income was irrelevant (Josiassen et al., 2011).

A year later, a study by Ganideh et al. focused on the influence ethnicity had on consumers' levels of ethnocentrism in Jordan. One of the findings was the validation of the CETSCALE for Jordan and that consumers in Jordan had strong ethnocentric tendencies to purchase products from Arab countries. However, they also concluded that none of gender, marital status, income or

age had any impact on these tendencies, which contradicted the majority of the previously discussed studies. Very interestingly for this thesis however, geographical location was found to have a significant impact to predict consumers' levels of ethnocentrism in Jordan towards products produced in Arabic countries (Al Ganideh and Al Tae, 2012).

In summary, this part of the sub-section shows that previous studies suggest demographic variables have an impact on consumers' levels of ethnocentrism across various countries. The level of income was the most frequent tested variable, however none of the demographic variables led to a conclusive result across the studies above, and the findings are inconclusive. As such, the next section will explore the impact cultural values have on consumers' levels of ethnocentrism.

5.2.4 Cultural Values impact on Ethnocentric Consumer Behaviour

One of the many studies to validate the CETSCALE was conducted by Durvasula et al. (1997). They compared the levels of ethnocentrism between the US and Russia. The study by Durvasula et al. showed that the levels of ethnocentrism in the US were significantly higher than those found in Russia (Durvasula et al., 1997). The study did not necessarily prove that cultural value differences are the only reason for this outcome, but it shows that there seem to be differences in the levels of ethnocentrism across countries.

Another study by Balabanis et al. (2002) focused on this research area by evaluating the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and human values. They concluded that the value relationship of consumer ethnocentrism differs between Turkey and the Czech Republic. Furthermore, they confirmed that Schwartz's cultural dimension Conservation has a positive relationships with consumers' levels of ethnocentrism (Balabanis et al., 2001). Conservation can be described by three basic values, which are security, conformity and tradition. Security describes a person whose goal is safety, harmony and stability in both relationships and themselves. Conformity describes a person who values restraint in all actions, it emphasises self-restraint in everyday interaction so that those consumers

tend to be loyal and responsible. Tradition describes a person who values respect, commitment and acceptance of the customs and ideas that their own culture and religion provide (Schwartz, 1996).

In (2005) Yoo and Donthu evaluated the impact cultural values had on consumer levels of ethnocentrism, but this time they worked in the US and they did not apply Schwartz's cultural values but Hofstede's. They concluded that "Collectivism", "Masculinity" and "Uncertainty Avoidance" were all positively related to consumers' levels of ethnocentrism in the US, whereas long term orientation was negatively related to consumers' levels of ethnocentrism (Yoo and Donthu, 2005). The dimension of Collectivism describes consumers who value tight relationships with members of their in-group. They feel that they can rely on those members to take care of them when needed. Masculinity describes consumers who are goal driven. They value achievement and material rewards for success. Uncertainty avoidance expresses how comfortable consumers feel about the unknown and ambiguity. The dimension which had a negative effect on the levels of ethnocentrism was "Long Term Orientation". In other words, consumers who were more concerned about the future were less likely to be ethnocentric (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2001).

A more recent study by Tsai et al. (2013) evaluated the levels of consumers' ethnocentricity in two culturally very different countries, the US and China. The overall result of this study was to show that the level of ethnocentrism was higher in America than in China. It does not explain if this difference is solely based on differences in country related value differences (cultural values). However, as Durvasuls et al. (1997), Balabanis et al.(2002) and Yoo and Donthu (2005) have shown it could be an explanation for the cultural value differences (Cleveland et al., 2009). Furthermore, this study stated that the prediction power of consumers' levels of ethnocentrism was country specific and this could explain the contradictory results from studies from various countries which evaluated the relationship between demographic variables and consumers' levels of ethnocentrism (Upadhyay and Singh, 2006). In Tsai et al.'s (2013) study the variable of gender did have a

significant impact to predict consumers' levels of ethnocentrism in the US, meaning women in the USA were more likely to be ethnocentric in their shopping behaviour than men. However, Tsai et al.'s study showed that gender had no impact on the prediction of consumers' levels of ethnocentrism in China. Income level, however, predicted the level of consumers' ethnocentrism in both countries, while other demographic variables like age and education had no prediction power in either the US or China (Tsai et al., 2013).

In summary, the above review of individual factors impacting consumer levels of ethnocentrism demonstrated that individual factors do impact consumer levels of ethnocentrism but the results across the studies do seem to differ. The list from the reviews articles is shown in table 25.

Table 27: Articles discussing individual factors impacting ethnocentrism

Study	Ethnocentrism	
	Demog raphics	Culture
Good and Huddleston (1995)	X	
Durvasula S. et al. (1997)		X
Balabanis G. et al (2001)	X	
Balabanis G. et al. (2002)		X
Yoo B. and Donthu N. (2005)		X
Javalgi et al. (2005)	X	X
Othman et al. (2008)	X	
Nadiri and Tuemer (2010)	X	
Schnettler et al. (2011)	X	

Josiassen et al. (2011)	X	
Al Ganideh et al. (2012)	X	
Tsai et al. (2013)	X	X

Previous studies have shown that individual factors have an impact on consumers' ethnocentric and organic purchase behaviour. More importantly, much of the previous literature supports the idea that cultural values are a stronger predictor of consumers' motives to purchase organic products than demographic variables.

After concluding that cultural values and demographic variables have a prediction power of consumer levels of ethnocentrism and organic product purchase, the next section will include a more detailed discussion to develop the hypotheses for this third research phase in regards to demographic variables and to what extent they impact on consumers' motives to purchase regional products.

5.2.5 Demographics

Reviewing the recent literature concluded that the empirical evidence is unclear regarding the extent to which demographics have an impact on ethnocentrism and organic product purchase. The most relevant studies for this third research phase are discussed below (Shankarmahesh, 2006).

The **gender** variable showed different results in different studies. Some studies showed that male consumers had a higher ethnocentric tendency (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Shankarmahesh, 2006), while other studies have found that female consumers show higher ethnocentric tendencies (Josiassen et al., 2011; Othman et al., 2008; Chambers et al., 2007; Chung et al., 2009; Javalgi et al., 2005; Schnettler et al., 2011). Other studies, however, found gender as having no impact at all (Schooler, 1971; Upadhyay and Singh, 2006). For organic products the results are similarly mixed. Some studies have shown that females are more likely to

purchase organic products (Padilla et al., 2013; Davies et al., 1995; Magnusson et al., 2001; Aertsens et al., 2009) while others have reported that there is no gender impact at all (Gracia and de Magistris, 2007; Thompson and Kidwell, 1998; Dettmann and Dimitri, 2009; Sangkumchaliang and Huang, 2012) and there is even one study stating that males are more likely to purchase organic products, but in this study they did emphasise that the difference was minimal (Briz and Ward, 2009).

Since the verdict is unclear over what the relationship between gender and consumer motives is (for both ethnocentric consumer behaviour and motives to purchase organic products), it will be further investigated in this research project. Overall though, the majority of studies of organic product purchase and ethnocentric tendencies suggest that females are more likely to buy organic products and be more ethnocentric. Additionally, the literature suggests that women are likely to be more conservative, more patriotic and more concerned about keeping social harmony or promoting positive feelings among group members than males (Sharma et al., 1995; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010). This leads to the first hypothesis:

H1: Females are more likely to purchase products from their regions.

The variable **age** seems to be more consistent across studies. Older consumers, particularly those who are 55 and above, seem to be more conservative and patriotic and therefore tend to be more ethnocentric than “young” consumers under 35 (Othman et al., 2008; Alfnes, 2004; Huddleston et al., 2001; Verbeke and Ward, 2006; Schnettler et al., 2011; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010). There are two studies that could not find any correlation between age and ethnocentric tendencies (Sharma et al., 1995; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004). There are also two earlier studies which stated that younger consumers were more ethnocentric than older ones (Sharma et al., 1995; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004). Overall though, the weight of the evidence seems to show that levels of ethnocentrism are, in the majority of cases, greater among older consumers. When looking at the purchase behaviour of organic products, the majority of studies stated that

younger consumers tended to buy organic products more often than older consumers (Thompson and Kidwell, 1998; Davies et al., 1995; Magnusson et al., 2001; Dettmann and Dimitri, 2009; Briz and Ward, 2009). This is argued against by two later studies, which supported the statement that older consumers were more likely to buy organic products (Sangkumchaliang and Huang, 2012; Padilla et al., 2013).

Since the verdict of what the relationship between age and consumer motives is (for both ethnocentric consumer behaviour and motives to purchase organic products) unclear, it will be further investigated in this research project.

Conversely, most studies in the area of ethnocentric consumer behaviour supported the idea that older consumers, over 55 years of age, have higher ethnocentric tendencies than younger consumers under 35 years of age (Josiasen et al., 2011). In the area of organic product purchase the majority of studies have supported the idea that most consumers buying organic products are younger consumers. With these ambiguous results and the knowledge that regio-centric tendencies are strongly related to ethnocentric consumer behaviour according to Schnettler et al. (2011) and Fernandez-Ferrin and Bande-Vilela (2013) this third research phase will therefore follow the main conclusion of the ethnocentric studies and predict that older consumers are more likely to buy regional products.

H2: Older consumers are more likely to buy products from their own region.

The variable **education level** suggests that consumers with a higher education level tend to show less ethnocentric tendencies (Othman et al., 2008; Verbeke and Ward, 2006; Schnettler et al., 2011; Javalgi et al., 2005; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010). Keillor et al. did not find any relationship between education level and different levels of ethnocentric tendencies (2001). Again, two other studies found that a high level of education might lead to a higher level of ethnocentricity (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010). For organic products, the opposite result applies. Both the most recent and the majority of studies seem to support the

view that a higher level of education leads to a higher level of organic product purchase (Dettmann and Dimitri, 2009; Briz and Ward, 2009; Sangkumchaliang and Huang, 2012). It is worth noting however that one of the earliest studies came to another conclusion, suggesting that less educated consumers were more likely to purchase organic products (Thompson and Kidwell, 1998).

Since the verdict of what the relationship between education level and consumer motives is unclear (for both ethnocentric consumer behaviour and motives to purchase organic products), it will be further investigated in this research project. As with the question of which age group might have a bigger positive impact on consumers' purchases of regional products, the level of education leads to ambiguous results. The element of organic product purchase is somewhat clearer, as the majority of studies support the idea that higher education leads to organic product purchase. Ethnocentric research states that a lower level of education leads to a higher level of ethnocentrism. Nevertheless, there seems to be some kind of a consensus that a higher education level has a negative effect on ethnocentric tendencies (Othman et al., 2008).

H3: Consumers with a lower education level are more likely to buy regional products.

Income appears to have a negative correlation with ethnocentric tendencies (Nadiri and Tümer, 2010). Previous researchers (Shoham and Brenčič, 2003; Sharma et al., 1995; Keillor et al., 2001; Javalgi et al., 2005; Schnettler et al., 2011) have shown that less affluent consumers tend to buy more local products. A much smaller number of studies have concluded that a higher level of income leads to a higher tendency of ethnocentric consumer behaviour (Balabanis et al., 2001). Again there is a contrast between this and organic product purchase, because there, studies have shown that higher income levels lead to an increase in organic product purchase (Davies et al., 1995; Gracia and de Magistris, 2007; Briz and Ward, 2009).

Since the verdict of what the relationship between income and consumer motives is unclear (for both ethnocentric consumer behaviour and motives to purchase organic products), it will be further investigated in this research project. This third research phase will follow the hypothesis that comes from the results of the majority of studies, namely that high income leads to low ethnocentric tendencies (Nadiri and Tümer, 2010).

H4: Consumers with lower incomes are more likely to purchase regional products.

The individual factors which have a positive impact on organic product purchase are presented in table 26. The individual factors which have a positive impact on ethnocentric consumer behaviour are presented in table 27.

Table 28: Individual factors positively impacting organic product purchase

	Gender	Age	Education level	Income level	Notes
Davies et al. (1995)	Female	30-45		Have disposable income	Income has the most significant impact
Thompson and Kidwell (1998)		Younger consumers	Less educated		
Magnusson et al. (2001)	Female	Younger consumers			
Lea and Worsley (2005)	Female				
Gracia and Magistris (2007)				High income level	The strongest indicators are consumers' values on environment and health benefits
Aertsens et al. (2009)	Female				Values have a higher prediction power than demographic variables
Dettmann and Dimitri (2009)		Younger consumer	Higher levels of education		Ethnicity has an impact too
Briz and Ward (2009)	Male (very little difference)	Younger consumer	Higher levels of education	Higher income	

	and impact)		n		
Sangkumchaliang and Huang (2012)		Older consumers	Higher levels of education		
Padilla et al. (2013)	Female	Older consumers			Consumers from the South of Germany are more likely to purchase organic products than consumers from the rest of Germany.

Table 29: Individual factors positively correlating with levels of ethnocentrism

	Gender	Age	Education level	Income level	Notes
Sharma et al. (1995)	Female	Younger consumers		Lower income	
Good and Huddleston (1995)	Female	Older consumers	Lower education level	Lower income	These results apply completely to Polish consumers. But for Russians only the low education level has a positive impact
Huddleston et al. (2001)		Older consumers			
Balabanis (2001)			Lower education level	Higher income	
Alfnes (2004)		Older consumers			
Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004)	Female	Younger consumers	Higher education level		The product category is more important than demographic variables
Javalgi et al. (2005)			Lower education level	Lower income	
Shankarnahesh (2006)	Male				
Upadhyay and Singh (2006)	No impact	No impact	No impact		Assumes that the contradictory empirical

					evidence suggests that the influence of demographic variables may be culture specific
Verbeke and Ward (2006)		Older consumers	Lower education level		
Chambers et al. (2007)	Female				
Othman et al. (2008)	Female	Older consumers	Lower education level	Lower income	The level of income has the highest prediction power among these demographic variables
Guneren and Oeztueren (2008)	Female	Older consumers			From North Cypress
Chung et al. (2009)	Female				
Nadiri and Turner (2010)		Older consumers	Higher education level	Lower income	From North Cypress
Schnettler et al. (2011)		Older consumers (because more conservative)	Lower education level	Lower income	
Josiassen et al. (2011)	Female	Older consumers			The income level of irrelevant
Al Ganideh et al. (2012)					None of the demographic variables have an impact on the level of ethnocentrism
Tsai Wan-Hsiu (Sunny) et al. (2013)	Yes for females in the US and no impact for consumers in China				

It is unclear what impact specific demographic variables have, as the research does not agree, but it seems certain that they have at least some impact on consumers' purchases of organic food products and their ethnocentric tendencies (Josiassen et al., 2011). Therefore, in this third

research phase, it seems reasonable to suspect that similar outcomes may apply for the motives to purchase regional products.

5.2.6 Impact of Cultural Values

Academics have shown that personal values or cultural values are guidelines in consumers' lives (Fan, 2000; Terpstra and David, 1991; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004; Hofstede and Minkov, 2010). This has been supported by numerous studies showing that cultural values do impact on consumers' motives (Saba and Messina, 2003; Dreezens et al., 2005; Dean et al., 2008; Thøgersen, 2009). They influence attitudes and, through those attitudes, even affect consumers' beliefs (Tarkiainen and Sundqvist, 2005; Chen, 2007; Arvola et al., 2008). Other studies have shown that personal values influence organic food choices and ethnocentric tendencies. This will be discussed in greater depth in the following sub-section.

Cultural values have an impact on consumers' levels of ethnocentrism, but overall seem to have less impact than cultural values do in their prediction of organic product purchases. To explore this, first there will be a discussion of research looking into the extent to which cultural values impact on consumer levels of ethnocentrism, followed by a more extensive discussion about the impact cultural values have on the prediction of consumers' purchases of organic products.

Balabanis et al (2002) argues that only Schwartz's dimension of Conservation is positively related to consumers' levels of ethnocentrism. The other dimensions of Schwartz's cultural values (Openness to Change, Self-Transcendence and Self-Enhancement) do not show any relationship with consumers' levels of ethnocentrism. Sharma et al. (1995), Yoo and Donthu (2005) and Javalgi (2005) agree that Hofstede's Collectivism dimension is positively related to consumers' levels of ethnocentrism.

Many studies have looked into the potential for cultural value differences to impact on consumers' organic product purchase intention. These studies have shown significant prediction power of cultural values on consumers' purchase intention of organic products. The most consistent cultural variable

for prediction of positive beliefs about and product purchase intention of organic products is Schwartz's value of Universalism (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Lea and Worsley, 2005; Thøgersen, 2009; Dreezens et al., 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; De Boer et al., 2007). The second most consistent variable is Benevolence (Lea and Worsley, 2005; Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Balabanis et al., 2002). Universalism and Benevolence go together to form the dimension Self-Transcendence. Therefore the fifth hypothesis here is as follows:

H5: The cultural dimension Self-Transcendence is positively related to consumers' intention to purchase regional products.

Other studies have suggested a positive relationship between food beliefs, organic product purchase intention and the values of Self-Direction and Stimulation. These go together to form the dimension of Openness to Change (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Dreezens et al., 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2013). Other studies, however, have measured a negative relationship between the value of Self-Direction and organic food consumption (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Aertsens et al., 2009).

Since the verdict over what the relationship between Openness to Change and consumer motives is remains unclear (for both ethnocentric consumer behaviour and motives to purchase organic products), it will be further investigated in this research project. In general, though, more studies seem to show a positive relationship between the value Self Direction (how much consumers value independent thinking and creativity) and consumers' purchase of organic products, citing motives of a positive self-image or identity they can create when buying organic products (Dreezens et al., 2005). Stimulation (how much consumers value excitement and a challenge in life) suggests a motive of curiosity driving purchases of organic products (Aertsens et al., 2009). Therefore the sixth hypothesis is:

H6: The cultural dimension Openness to Change is positively related to consumers' intention to purchase regional products.

Additionally, the studies also came to the conclusion that Hedonism and Power, which partly form the dimension Self – Enhancement, are positively related to both food beliefs and organic product purchase intention (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Dreezens et al., 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2013). Other studies have found a negative relationship with the value of Power (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Aertsens et al., 2009). In some studies, the value of Power (how consumers value social status and prestige) is even linked to a negative rating for organic food product purchase in comparison to genetically modified food (Dreezens et al., 2005). Schwartz's value of Hedonism (how consumers value pleasure and self-gratification) is related to consumers' perception of the taste of the food. In some countries, this aspect is even more important than the motive of health.

Since the verdict on the relationship between Self-Enhancement and consumer motives remains unclear (for both ethnocentric consumer behaviour and motives to purchase organic products) it will be further investigated in this research project. Taken together, this dimension leads to rather contradictory results but since the dimension Self-Transcendence is the opposite dimension to Schwartz's Self Enhancement dimension and the dimension Self-Transcendence achieved generally a positive relationship with consumers' motives to purchase organic products, the seventh hypothesis is:

H7: The cultural dimension of Self Enhancement is negatively related to consumers' intention to purchase regional products.

Finally, a few studies have looked into the value of Security, along with food beliefs and their relationship to organic product purchase intention, concluding that the two are positively related (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Dreezens et al., 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2013). Other studies measured a negative relationship between the values Security and Conformity (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Aertsens et al., 2009). The value of Conformity (how much consumers value restraining one's actions and impulses to avoid upsetting other's expectations and norms) is linked to the motive to satisfy group pressure. In the context of organic food purchases,

this means whether everyone buys organic food and expect others to do the same (Dreezens et al., 2005). Schwartz's value of Security (how much consumers value safety, stability of society, relationships and themselves) which is linked with health, represents the strongest motive to purchase organic products (Aertsens et al., 2009). Based on the findings by Dreezens and Aertsens the eighth hypothesis is:

H8: The cultural dimension of Conservation is positively related to consumers' intention to purchase regional products.

A complete summary of the discussed studies is in the table 28.

Table 30: Cultural value impact

Cultural values and organic product purchase		
Study	Cultural values	Sample
Grunert and Juhl (1995)	Schwartz cultural values; positive relation to organic product purchase: Universalism, Benevolence and Self-Direction. Negative relation: Security, Conformity, Tradition and Power.	N: 174; teachers in Denmark
Lea and Worsley (2005)	Schwartz cultural dimension; Self-Transcendence with the two values Benevolence and Universalism have a positive impact on organic product purchase	N: 280; adults from Australia
Dreezen et al. (2005)	Schwartz cultural dimensions: Universalism and Power have both a positive impact on organic product purchase	N: 100 students from the Netherlands
De Boer et al. (2007)	Schwartz cultural dimensions: Universalism had the highest prediction power of consumers' motives of product choice.	Online survey based study of N:1530 Dutch consumer households (stratified sample).
Thøgersen (2009)	Schwartz cultural dimensions: Universalism is the only or most dominant value guiding consumers' purchase of organic food products in the eight countries.	Survey data was collected in eight countries. In each country (Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Germany, England, Italy, Spain and Greece) around N:1000 surveys were completed.
Aertsens J.,	All of Schwartz cultural values can have a	Review

Verbeke W., Mondelaers K. and Van Huylenbroeck G. (2009)	positive impact on consumers organic product purchase.	
Verain et al. (2012)	Personal values have a positive impact on consumers' organic product purchases and can assist marketers to segment consumers accordingly.	Review
Zhou et al. (2013)	Schwartz cultural dimension of Self-Transcendence has a positive relationship with consumers' attitudes towards organic products	Survey data was collected of N:529 Chinese consumers from five big supermarkets in Guangzhou.
Cultural values and ethnocentric consumer behaviour		
Study	Cultural values	Sample
Sharma et al. (1995)	Collectivism is positively related to consumers' levels of ethnocentrism	Stratified mail sample N:125 and N:542 student survey in Korea
Balabanis G. et al. (2002)	Schwartz cultural values: all the values divided in the four dimensions defined by Schwartz were evaluated. Only Conservation showed a positive impact on consumers' level of ethnocentrism in both countries.	N: 303 Turkish consumer and N:480 Czech consumer
Yoo B. and Donthu N. (2005)	Hofstede's cultural dimensions: Collectivism versus Individualism, Masculinity versus Femininity and high versus low Uncertainty Avoidance showed a positive impact on consumers' level of ethnocentrism. Whereas Long versus Short Term orientation are related negatively to consumers' levels of ethnocentrism. However, the dimension high versus low Power Distance has no impact on consumers' level of ethnocentrism.	N: 213 US born consumers
Javalgi et al. (2005)	Collectivism is positively related to consumers' levels of ethnocentrism among French shoppers.	Mall-intercept method. Random distribution N: 106 French shoppers

This section has discussed the existing literature to gain a better understanding of what culture is, and to identify the theoretical basis for applying the national cultural value scale on a regional level. Additionally, it has generated hypotheses to use in order to evaluate the impact consumers' individual factors have on the REGIOSCALE. The next section will explore

the methodology used, giving a detailed description of the steps taken to examine the identified gaps. The next step is highlighted in red in figure 21.

Figure 21: Structure of the thesis



5.3 Research Methodology

The literature review started by exploring what culture is, in order to demonstrate the theoretical justifications for applying national cultural value dimensions on a regional level. Additionally, it covered the hypotheses for the third research phase. Now, it is necessary to examine the methodology used to answer research question 3: “Is there a relationship between individual factors (regional cultural values and demographic variables) and the region-centric scale (REGIOSCALE)? If so what is it?” To answer research question three, the first step is to evaluate whether regional cultural (within country) differences exist in Germany and England or if these two countries are both homogeneous. After establishing the extent of homogeneity in these two countries, the second step is to evaluate what impact individual factors (demographic variables and cultural value differences) have on the REGIOSCALE.

5.3.1 Secondary Data Application

To establish if regional (within country) cultural value differences exist in Germany and England, this study will use secondary data from the World Value Survey (WVS). There are specific disadvantages when using survey-based secondary data methods. The first is that the existing data has been collected for a different purpose, which might not cover the research questions or objectives of this third research phase. Another notable disadvantage is that when datasets from different sources and countries are combined they may have used different definitions and descriptions of the data. The language barrier can cause further problems even when words are translated correctly, since the meaning can still vary from country to country (Slater and Yani-de-Soriano, 2010; Denscombe, 2010). Another disadvantage is the lack of control over the quality of the secondary data, since it can be manipulated by the producer of the data. Finally, the data might not be current and up to date (Saunders et al., 2012).

However, in general, the advantages outweigh the disadvantages, and the effects of these disadvantages can be mitigated. With the possibility that the secondary data might have been collected for a different purpose, that does

not matter in this third research phase, since the raw data was analysed to serve the specific purpose of this third research phase.

The WVS took care of potential problems with the dataset regarding language or cultural misunderstandings (Yilmaz, 2004). The quality of the data cannot be checked but the WVS data has been used in various articles and rated as reliable (Minkov and Hofstede, 2012; Bloom et al., 2012; Kirs and Bagchi, 2012; Michon and Tandon, 2012; Constantinescu, 2012; Kaasa et al., 2013). Finally the data is the most recent available, which makes this secondary data more than suitable for this research (World Values Survey, 2011). Additional advantages from the WVS include the fact that it is representative of entire populations, and that the WVS allows for analysis not only on the national, but also at a regional level, which is needed for this third research phase (World Values Survey, 2011). The regional clusters are based on the definition of regions given by the European Union, which splits all European countries into territorial divisions, the so called Nomenclature of Units for Territorial Statistics (NUTS) (European Union, 2012). Germany and England results in 27 regions, taken together.

5.3.2 Sampling

While sampling is a critical aspect in social science research, there are several questions which need to be dealt with, and decisions that need to be made, regarding that sampling. First of all, there is the question of the number of cultures and subjects for the third research phase's "sample representativeness", and the extent to which those are culturally different. Furthermore, it is necessary to find a balance between within-country representativeness, and cross-national comparability (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

As discussed in the literature review, the idea of "nation" as a synonym for culture will be adopted in the first step of the secondary data analysis and broken down into regional differences (Steenkamp and Ter Hofstede, 2002). This will be done by analysing existing data from the World Values Survey (WVS). The WVS's overall sample size in Germany aged 18 and older in 2006 was 3,967 face to face interviews (World Values Survey, 2006).

The overall sample size in England aged 18 and older in 2006 was 2,134 face to face interviews.

5.3.3 Translation

Conducting research in different countries needs special care when translating questions and instructions. A word by word translation does not guarantee that the question really means the same in another language (Massoubre et al., 2002)

One advantage of using the World Value Survey is that it is available in several languages. Independent experts have translated the questionnaires back into English to guarantee the accuracy of the translation. Questionnaires are also pre-tested to identify potential translation issues.

So far the advantages and disadvantages of secondary data, sampling and potential translation issues have been discussed to explain how potential problems might arise when evaluating whether regional (within country) cultural differences exist in either or both of Germany and England. The following section includes the explanation of the chosen measurement methods and scales and the discussion of the credibility of this part of research phase three.

5.3.4 Measurements & Scales

This sub-section gives an explanation of the measurements and scales used and analysed in this third research phase.

For the first part, cultural values will be analysed at the regional level in Germany and England. The data is from the World Value Survey based on the cultural value scale shown in table 29. The cultural value scale is based on a small part of the World Value Survey and applies a 6 point likert scale. The raw data from the World Value Survey (the data from the cultural value scale) will be used to evaluate if regional (within country) cultural differences exist.

For the second part of the third research phase, cultural values will again be analysed on the regional level in Germany and England, but in the second

phase the data is from the survey collected in the second field work phase of this thesis. The survey from the second field work phase incorporates the same cultural values scale as the World Value Survey and also includes a 6 point likert scale where 1 = very much like me to 6 = not at all like me (World Values Survey, 2012). This will partly answer:

RQ 3: Is there a relationship between individual factors (regional cultural values and demographic variables) and the regio-centric scale (REGIOSCALE)? If so what is it?

The table below shows the cultural values from the World Value Survey. The first column shows personal value domains, which are underlined or described by the needs or value types which are shown in column two. The third column shows the actual questions taken from the World Value Survey.

Table 31: Cultural values from the World Value Survey

Domains	Values	WVS
Self Enhancement	Power	Being very successful is important to this person; to have people recognize one's achievements.
Self Enhancement	Achievement	It is important to this person to be rich; to have a lot of money and expensive things.
Self Enhancement	Hedonism	It is important to this person to have a good time; to "spoil" oneself.
Openness to Change	Stimulation	Adventure and taking risks are important to this person; to have an exciting life.
Openness to Change	Self – Direction	It is important to this person to think up new ideas and be creative; to do things one's own way.
Self-Transcendence	Universalism	Looking after the environment is important to this person; to care for nature and save resources.
Self-Transcendence	Benevolence	It is important to this person to do something for the good of society.
Conservation	Tradition	Tradition is important to this person; to follow the customs handed down by one's religion or family.
Conservation	Conformity	It is important to this person to always behave properly; to avoid doing anything people would say is wrong.
Conservation	Security	Living in secure surroundings is important to this person; to avoid anything that might be dangerous.

Sources: Self-produced based on (World Values Survey, 2011; Olver and Mooradian, 2003)

5.3.5 Credibility of the Research

'Reducing the possibility of getting the answer wrong'(Saunders et al., 2009: p.156) increases the credibility. The term credibility can be broken down into two main concepts: reliability and validity (Saunders et al., 2012). The reliability level describes the extent to which the research is replicable (Robson, 2011), and validity is an indicator of whether the measurements really measure what they are supposed to (Saunders et al., 2012).

The reliability of this part of the third research phase will be ensured by detailed step by step descriptions of how the data and analysis tools are used. More details follow in the sub-section on data analysis.

Validity is achieved by using the variables from the WVS, which have been developed based on Schwarz's original values to evaluate cultural differences (Robson, 2011).

5.3.6 Data Analysis

The first part of the third research phase, data analysis, includes the following steps by using SPSS version 21:

- Firstly, the data was downloaded from the WVS homepage. The data for Germany (WVS wave 5 code 276) and England (WVS wave 5 code 826) was extracted.
- Second, there was an explorative and descriptive data analysis to find potential errors within the data set (Collis and Hussey, 2009; Wittenberg and Cramer, 2003; Pallant and Manual, 2006). Outliers were identified when looking at the histogram and then the box plot. Each of the outliers was closely examined and none proved to be because of a data entry mistake. In the next step the 5% trimmed mean was compared to the original mean and since they differed less than 0.1, which is similar (Pallant, 2011), the few outliers stayed in the data set. The next part was to check the missing data. There are three options to deal with missing data which are ignoring them, use replacement values for the missing data or make assumption what those values could be. Option one is being

applied because it can be assumed (after checking the few missing data it was obvious that random questions were forgotten so the missing data was due to the participant which is more common with paper pencil surveys but those missing ones did not follow a specific pattern) (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2011). Finally response bias is till today a highly debated topic however in line with Hyman (1954) I would argue there is always a certain level of response bias but if the sample is big enough it will be watered down and loses its impact. Additionally there is the possibility by tempering with data in any way if it is with the outliers, missing data and response bias there is always the chance that the general differences of cultures and opinion are being removed which is highlighted by He and Van de Vijver (2012).

- After the descriptive and explorative data analysis, there was new coding of the variable region (in WVS wave 5 code X048) into 16 variables for Germany (one for each of the regions) and 11 for England. Where 1=lives (in that region) yes and 0=lives (in that region) no. This resulted in 16 independent variables for Germany and 11 for England, and 10 dependent cultural variables (WVS wave 5 code V70-V79) (Collis and Hussey, 2009; World Values Survey, 2006).
- The next step was to look at the mean values of cultural differences in all the regions in Germany and England. This was supported by the Kruskal-Wallis ChiSQ test to evaluate the significance of regional cultural and national cultural differences (Field, 2009). The Kruskal-Wallis test is a non-parametric test to compare groups, in this case to establish the significance of regional and national cultural differences. The reasons for applying the Kruskal-Wallis test and no other ANOVA t-tests, is because the variables are non-parameter. The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test and Friedman Test cannot be applied because only Kruskal-Wallis can measure between three or more groups when the consumers are different in each group. The other two only work when some consumers are used in at least two of the groups (Pallant, 2011).

After describing the steps taken to analyse the secondary data, the following section will describe the evaluated findings. To see where this sub-section is within the overall thesis, see figure 22.

Figure 22: Structure of the thesis



5.4 Findings

To make the data more accessible, this third research phase will only highlight the regions which have been used in the research. These are Bavaria and Nord Reihn Westfalen (NRW) in Germany and the North West and South East of England. The tables focusing on the four regions are below.

The findings will be explained step by step, first looking at the national level to see if cultural differences actually exist across the two countries, followed by checking if regional cultural differences exist within the countries and finally a detailed analysis of the two regions in each country, split by cultural dimensions.

Based on the Krusal-Wallis ChiSQ test, it is possible to identify a significant cultural difference, on average at the 99.9% level, in all four cultural dimensions for England in comparison to Germany. Based on this, national cultural differences between the two countries exist for the four cultural dimensions.

When looking at the regional level, Germany shows a significant regional average at the 99% level in all four cultural dimensions. However, England is more homogenous when it comes to cultural regional differences. Both, Openness and Self Enhancement scores do not significantly differ across regions at the 95% level, although Self Transcendence and Conservation do differ significant at the 95% level. This means that significant regional cultural differences do exist in Germany and partly exist in England.

The second step involved looking at the sample means of the cultural values in the different regions. It involved a comparison of the regional results for each cultural dimension country by country. The results are presented below, first as a table which highlights the lowest and highest regional scores for the four regions, then as a brief discussion of these results, and finally as a map which shows the whole of England and Germany, highlighting the regional cultural differences for each specific dimension. The darker a region the higher consumers scored in that region for that cultural dimension. For example, consumers from around London scored the highest on Self Enhancement, so it is darker, whereas the Humber region is a lot lighter, so consumers there scored a lot lower on Self Enhancement.

5.4.1 Average – Self Enhancement

Self-Enhancement is a combination of certain values including achievement and hedonism. It describes consumers who like to spoil themselves, be rich, recognized and very successful.

Comparing Germany with England shows that there are significant differences on a national level between the countries. England is more homogenous when it comes to Self Enhancement within the country but there is a difference when comparing the scores from the North West and the

South East of England. The North West is under the national average and the South East above. However, the differences are not great enough to be significant (see table 30).

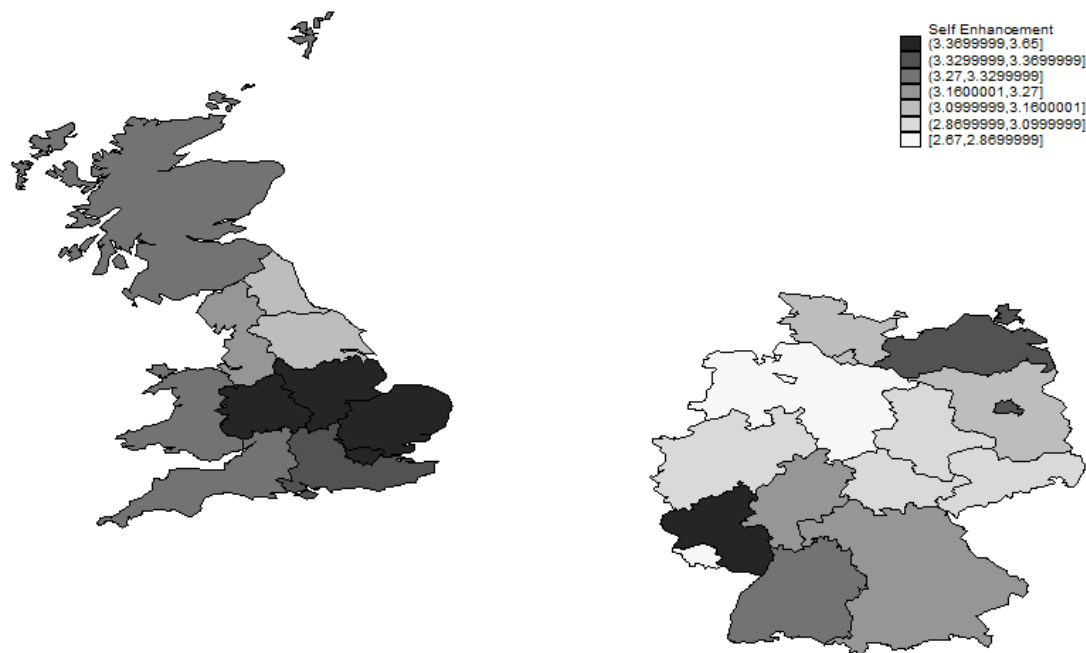
Table 32: Average- Self Enhancement

Domains	Mean (Bavaria)	Mean (NRW)	Mean (Germany)	P-Value KW- ChiSQ Test regions*	P-Value KW- ChiSQ Country differences **
Self Enhancement	3.20	2.97	3.09	0.0001	0.0001
Domains	Mean (NW)	Mean (SE)	Mean (ENGLAND)	P-Value KW- ChiSQ Test regions*	P-Value KW- ChiSQ Country differences **
Self Enhancement	3.26	3.33	3.31	0.6240	0.0001

*ChiSQ Test for significant different mean values over all regions

**ChiSQ Test which tests for different mean values between countries

Germany shows much more significant regional differences. The southern regions like Bavaria have an average regional level above the country's mean while the northern regions like NRW are comparatively low. This can be seen in the map below, which gives a complete overview of both countries regional cultural differences (see figure 23).

Figure 23: Map – Regional Cultural Differences – Self Enhancement - Mean

5.4.2 Average – Openness to Change

Openness to Change is a combination of values that include Stimulation and Self-Direction. It describes consumers who like adventures, take risks, are creative and do things their own way.

When making a comparison on the national level, significant differences in the levels of Openness to Change exist between Germany and England. On a regional level, however, England is again homogenous because it does not show significant differences in regards to Openness to Change within the country. Germany does show significant differences although the two regions we are focusing on here have very close means (see table 31).

Table 33: Germany - Average

Domains	Mean (Bavaria)	Mean (NRW)	Mean (Germany)	P-Value KW-ChiSQ Test regions*	P-Value KW-ChiSQ Country differences **
Openness to Change	3.19	3.10	3.24	0.0001	0.0001

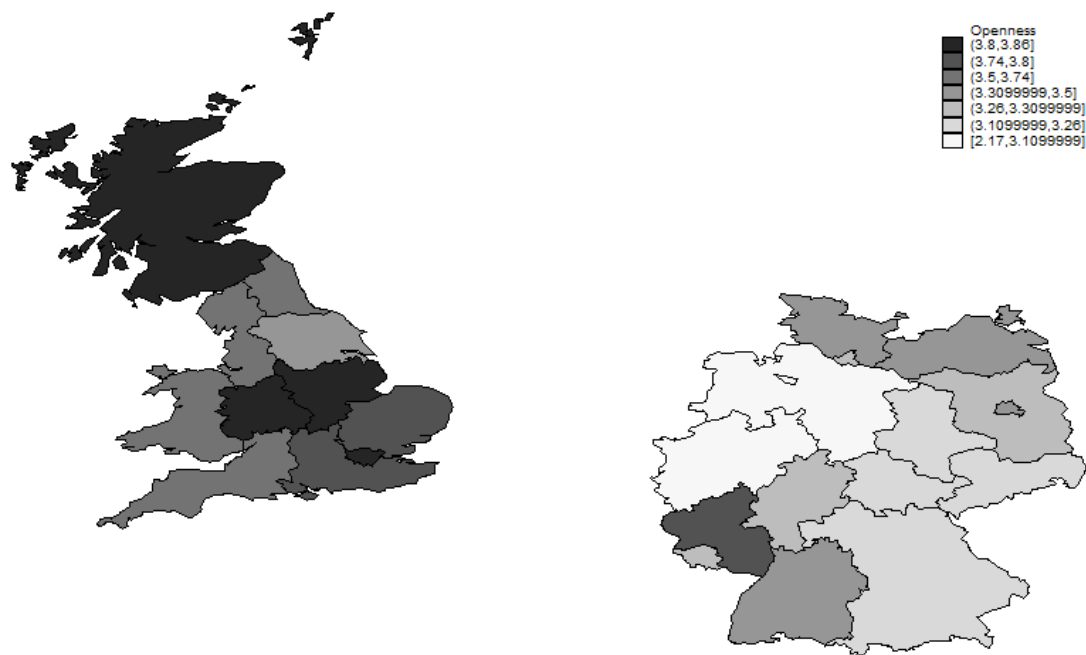
Domains	Mean (NW)	Mean (SE)	Mean (ENGLAND)	P-Value KW- ChiSQ Test regions*	P-Value KW- ChiSQ Country differences **
Openness to Change	3.74	3.76	3.73	0.4489	0.0001

*ChiSQ Test for significant different mean values over all regions

**ChiSQ Test which tests for different mean values between countries

When looking at the map though, the differences are more apparent. In Germany, the South Western regions score the highest in Openness to Change whereas the North Western regions score the lowest. However, in England are no significant regional differences, except that Scotland scores slightly higher, as do the Midlands (see figure 24).

Figure 24: Map – Regional Cultural Differences – Openness to Change - Mean



5.4.3 Average – Self-Transcendence

Self-Transcendence is a combination of the value groups Universalism and Benevolence. It describes consumers who want to look after the environment and do something for the good of society.

The two regions in Germany and England show significant differences in this area. When looking on the map below they are not the strongest differences but they are significant (see table 32).

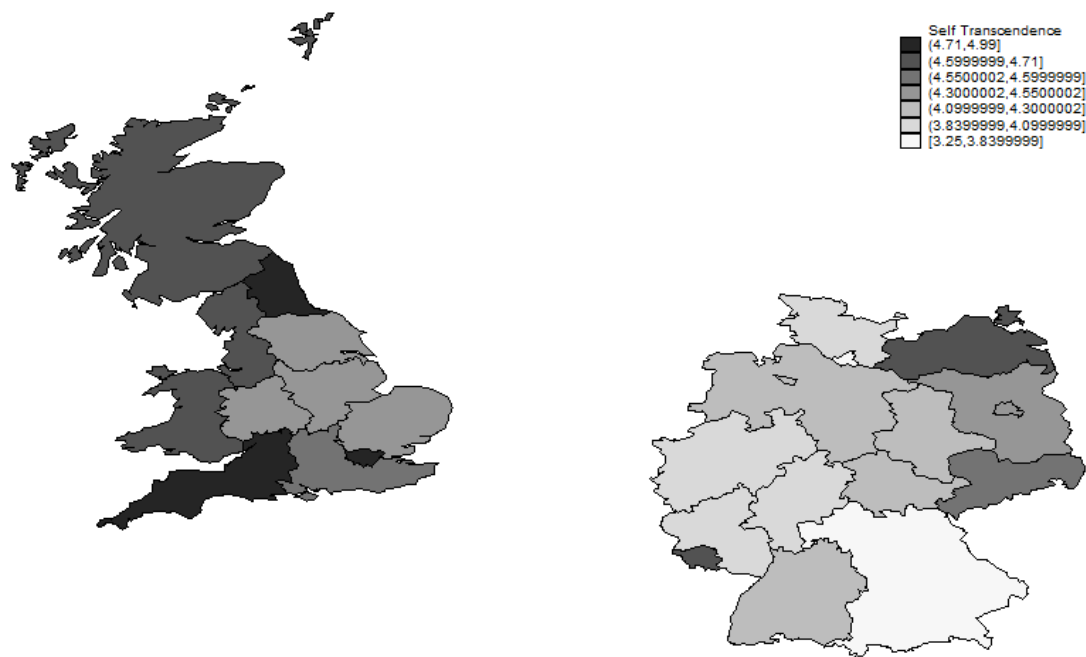
Table 34: Germany - Average

Domains	Mean (Bavaria)	Mean (NRW)	Mean (Germany)	P-Value KW- ChiSQ Test regions*	P-Value KW- ChiSQ Country differences **
Self-Transcendence	3.72	4.03	4.23	0.0001	0.0001
Domains	Mean (NW)	Mean (SE)	Mean (ENGLAND)	P-Value KW- ChiSQ Test regions*	P-Value KW- ChiSQ Country differences **
Self-Transcendence	4.68	4.58	4.65	0.0409	0.0001

*ChiSQ Test for significant different mean values over all regions

**ChiSQ Test which tests for different mean values between countries

On a regional level in Germany, the former East-Germany states and former French Saarland score highest on the Self-Transcendence scale whereas the city states score lowest. In England, the North East, London and the South West show the most significant differences in comparison to the other regions (see figure 25).

Figure 25: Map – Regional Cultural Differences – Self-Transcendence - Mean

5.4.4 Average – Conservation

Conservation is a combination of Tradition, Conformity and Security. It describes consumers who value tradition, follow customs, attempt to behave “properly”, enjoy living in secure surroundings and avoid anything which might be dangerous.

Both countries show significant regional cultural differences in this area. Bavaria scores lower than NRW and in England the South East scores lower than the North West (see table 33).

Table 35: Germany - Average

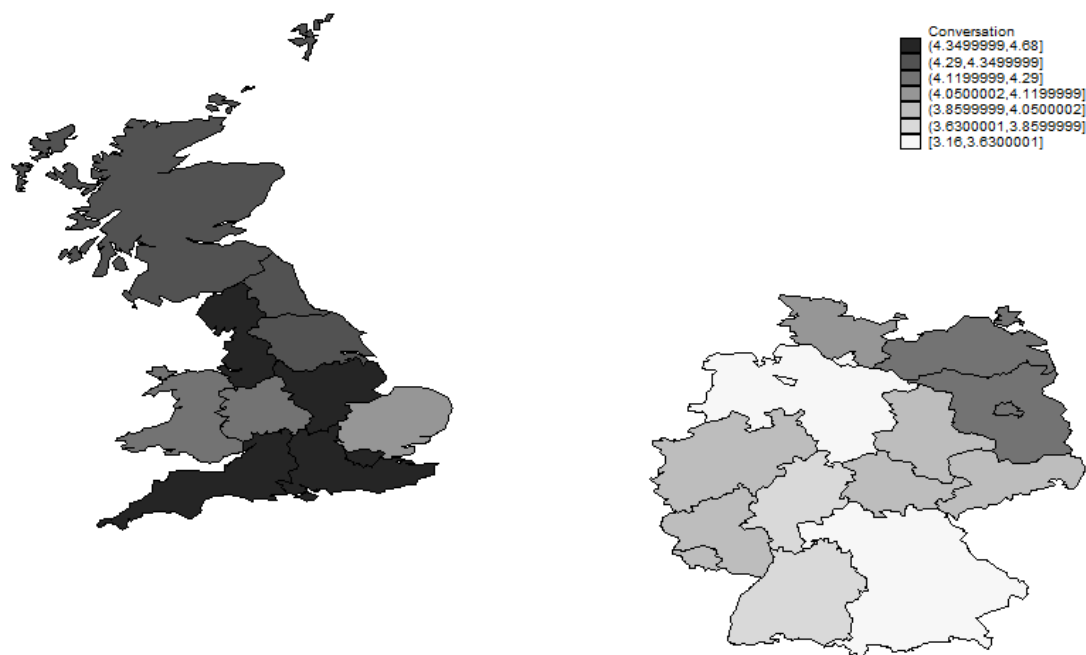
Domains	Mean (Bavaria)	Mean (NRW)	Mean (Germany)	P-Value KW-ChiSQ Test regions*	P-Value KW-ChiSQ Country differences **
Conservation	3.63	3.86	3.91	0.0001	0.0001
Domains	Mean (NW)	Mean (SE)	Mean (ENGLAND)	P-Value KW-ChiSQ Test regions*	P-Value KW-ChiSQ Country differences **
Conservation	4.59	4.35	4.34	0.0290	0.0001

*ChiSQ Test for significant different mean values over all regions

****ChiSQ Test which tests for different mean values between countries**

Looking at the whole map it is apparent that the lowest scores are found in the city states of Germany and Bavaria while the highest scores are in the former East Germany. For the English scores there are significant regional differences, with the North West scoring a lot higher overall than the South East (see figure 26).

Figure 26: Map – Regional Cultural Differences – Conservation - Mean



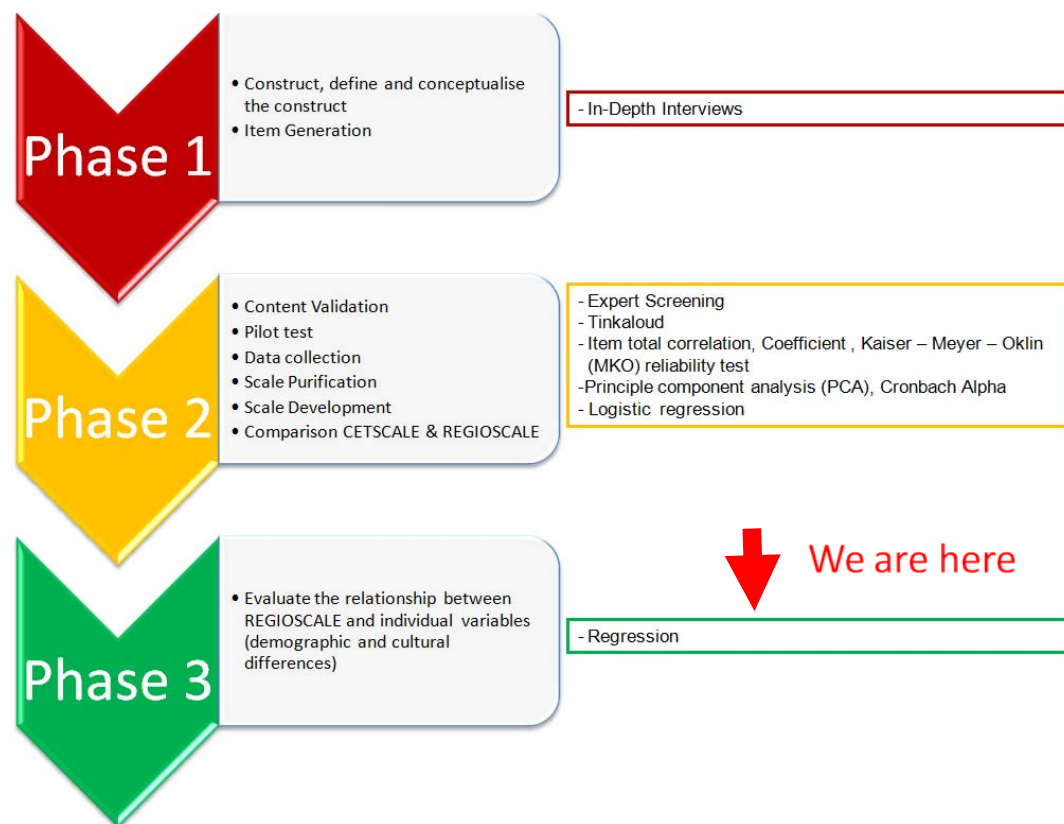
The main focus of the four maps above was to answer the question of whether regional cultural differences exist in Germany and England. The answer is clear: regional cultural differences do exist in both countries. More interestingly, they are significant for all four cultural dimensions in Germany but only for two cultural dimensions in England (Self Transcendence and Conservation).

This section of the third phase demonstrates that both countries do show heterogenic value distribution. Therefore it is important to evaluate, not the national, but regional cultural value differences for these two countries. The next part of the third research phase will evaluate what impact the demographic and regional cultural value differences have on the REGIOSCALE.

5.4.5 What Impact Do Demographics Have?

To evaluate the impact each of the demographic variables has on the REGIOSCALE, a standard multi regression was conducted to look at the individual contribution of each of the variables and to identify the good individual predictors for each of the regions. The betas were rounded off to two decimal places. This sub-section of the analysis is split by the four demographic variables (gender, age, education level and income level). This is the third phase of the mixed method steps (see figure 27).

Figure 27: Visualisation of the mixed research method steps



5.4.5.1 Hypothesis One: Gender

Gender is the most consistent demographic variable for all the four regions and the three dimensions of the REGIOSCALE. For England, gender has no impact on the prediction of consumer motives to purchase regional products. In Germany, women are more likely to purchase regional products and this variable can predict each of the three dimensions except the dimension Familiarity and Habit in the North of Germany (see table 34).

Table 36: Females are more likely to buy regional products.

	Germany-North		Germany - South		England - North		England - South	
	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig
Environmental benefits and trust	.79	.000	.74	.001	.11	.667	.22	.420
Personal Benefits	.76	.000	.51	.018	-.00	.987	.30	.276
Familiarity and Habit	.22	.232	.39	.040	-.15	.479	.10	.642

5.4.5.2 Hypothesis Two: Age

The second strongest predictor of consumer motives to purchase regional products based on the REGIOSCALE is age. This supports hypothesis two, that older consumers are more likely to purchase regional products, for the North of Germany and the North of England and for the dimension Familiarity and Habit in the South of Germany. However, no predictive power can be shown for the other two dimensions in the South of Germany or in the South of England (see table 35).

Table 37: Older consumers are more likely to buy regional products

	Germany-North		Germany - South		England - North		England - South	
	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig
Environmental benefits and trust	-.38	.013	-.25	.125	-.67	.000	-.24	.181
Personal Benefits	-.34	.017	-.19	.242	-.44	.006	-.30	.088
Familiarity and Habit	-.54	.000	-.41	.004	-.54	.000	-.21	.136

5.4.5.3 Hypothesis Three: Education Level

Hypothesis three, that consumers with a lower education level are more likely to purchase regional products, is not demonstrated by the evidence in this third research phase. First of all, the prediction power of the level of education is very limited. Second, the level of education only predicts consumers' motives to purchase regional products in the South of England,

where it shows that the higher the consumer's level of education the higher the chance is for them to purchase regional products (see table 36).

Table 38: Higher educated consumers are more likely to buy regional products

	Germany-North		Germany - South		England - North		England - South	
	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig
Environmental benefits and trust	-.10	.257	-.07	.493	-.01	.952	-.34	.038
Personal Benefits	-.05	.553	.05	.618	.02	.914	-.44	.008
Familiarity and Habit	-.01	.986	-.03	.711	-.11	.426	-.27	.038

5.4.5.4 Hypothesis Four: Income Level

As with hypothesis three, the hypothesis that consumers with a lower income level are more likely to purchase regional products does not appear to be demonstrated in this third research phase. First of all, the prediction power of the level of income is very limited. Second, the level of income only predicts consumers' motives to purchase regional products in the South of England, where it shows that the higher the consumer's level of income the higher the chance is for them to purchase regional products (see table 37).

Table 39: Consumers with higher incomes are more likely to buy regional products

	Germany-North		Germany - South		England - North		England - South	
	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig
Environmental benefits and trust	.02	.812	-.01	.923	-.08	.472	-.41	.003
Personal Benefits	.06	.524	-.03	.820	-.10	.415	-.33	.016
Familiarity and Habit	.08	.351	.10	.275	-.02	.817	-.34	.002

In summary, it seems that across the motives, the demographic variables have no consistency in terms of their effects. However, when looking at the specific regions, the results seem to show that in the North of England the variable age has a significant predictive power for each of the motive dimensions, whereas in the South of England the significant prediction

demographics are education level and household income. In Germany it is less conclusive. In the North of Germany Environmental benefits and Trust and Personal Benefits are significantly influenced by age and gender, whereas Familiarity and Habit are only significantly influenced by age and not by gender. In the South of Germany on the other hand, gender is significantly predictive for the motives Environmental Benefits and Trust and Personal Benefits whereas Familiarity and Habit are influenced by age and gender.

Having looked at whether demographic variables impact consumer motives to purchase regional products (REGIOSCALE) the next section will explore to what extent cultural values impact the REGIOSCALE motives.

5.4.6 What Impact Do Cultural Values Have?

After a standard multi regression was conducted it was then necessary to look at the individual contribution of each of the variables to identify the good individual predictors for each of the regions. The betas were rounded off to two decimal places. This section of the analysis is split by the four hypotheses based on Schwartz's cultural dimensions (Self-Transcendence, Openness to Change, Self Enhancement and Conservation).

5.4.6.1 Hypothesis Five: Self-Transcendence

Self-Transcendence makes the most significant contribution to predict if consumers buy regional products for the motives of the REGIOSCALE. Self-Transcendence is a highly significant predictor for each of the REGIOSCALE dimensions except for Familiarity and Habit in the North of England. For all the other dimensions and regions, the more Self-Transcendence a consumer exhibits, the more likely they are to purchase regional products (see table 38).

Table 40: "Self-Transcendence" is positively related to regional product purchase intention

	Germany-North		Germany - South		England - North		England - South	
	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig
Environmental benefits and trust	.79*	.000	.68*	.000	.33*	.010	.80*	.000

Personal Benefits	.48*	.000	.51*	.000	.30*	.024	.81*	.000
Familiarity and Habit	.38*	.000	.39*	.001	.17	.127	.51*	.000

5.4.6.2 Hypothesis Six: Openness to Change

The sixth hypothesis is not supported at all by the evidence, meaning Openness to Change has no predictive power whatsoever for any of the REGIOSCALE dimensions in any of the four regions (see table 39).

Table 41: “Openness to Change” is not related to regional product purchase intention

	Germany-North		Germany - South		England - North		England - South	
	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig
Environmental benefits and trust	.03	.803	-.05	.718	-.04	.772	.14	.255
Personal Benefits	.08	.489	.07	.603	-.01	.940	.14	.241
Familiarity and Habit	.01	.947	-.08	.490	.08	.454	.13	.212

5.4.6.3 Hypothesis Seven: Self Enhancement

Hypothesis number seven is partly supported for the South of England and the REGIOSCALE dimension Environmental Benefits and Trust for the South of Germany and the North of England. This means that the more consumers value Self Enhancement, the less likely they are to purchase regional products in those regions. However, it does not predict any motives in the North of Germany, nor does it predict for the motives Personal Benefits or Familiarity and Habit in either the South of Germany or the North of England (see table 40).

Table 42: “Self Enhancement” is partly related to regional product purchase intention

	Germany-North		Germany - South		England - North		England - South	
	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig
Environmental benefits and trust	-.20	.134	-.25*	.028	-.25*	.038	-.42*	.001

Personal Benefits	.11	.378	-.14	.240	-.12	.307	-.35*	.004
Familiarity and Habit	-.11	.326	-.13	.191	-.18	.076	-.26*	.011

5.4.6.4 Hypothesis Eight: Conservation

Hypothesis number eight is partly supported for the North of Germany and the REGIOSCALE dimension Familiarity and Habit for the South of England. This means that the more consumers value Conservation, the more likely they are to purchase regional products in those regions. However, it does not predict any motives in the South of Germany or in the North of England. Equally, it does not predict anything for the motives Personal Benefits and Environmental Benefits and Trust in the South of England (see table 41).

Table 43: “Conservation” is partly related to regional product purchase intention

	Germany-North		Germany - South		England - North		England - South	
	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig
Environmental benefits and trust	.24*	.027	.09	.734	.05	.682	.17	.182
Personal Benefits	.37*	.001	.08	.515	-.04	.768	.06	.670
Familiarity and Habit	.40*	.000	.21	.054	.17	.099	.22*	.035

In summary, the most consistent value to predict the motives of consumers to buy regional products is Self-Transcendence. Only in one case, for the motive Familiarity and Habit in the North of England, did it not make a significant contribution to predict the motive. The value dimension Openness to Change did not predict any motives in any region in either of the two countries. The dimensions Self Enhancement and Conservation are inconclusive.

The next sub-section will give a deeper insight into the above findings and put them into the context of the existing literature as well as drawing further conclusions.

After the description of the findings of part one, which concluded that regional cultural differences exist in Germany and partly in England, there followed the description of the findings of part two, which concluded that the cultural dimension Self-Transcendence has the most consistent prediction power of consumer motives to purchase regional products. This leads to the discussion of the third research phase's findings. The next step is highlighted in red in figure 28.

Figure 28: Structure of the thesis



5.5 Discussion

This discussion is twofold, as with the data analysis from the third field research phase. It will begin with discussion of the findings from the first part of the third research phase's data analysis. The first part looked into the existence of regional (within country) cultural value differences. It will be followed by discussion of the findings of the second part of the data analyses from the third research phase. The second part looked into the relationship between individual factors (demographic variables and cultural values) and the REGIOSCALE.

5.5.1 Regional Cultural Differences

The main focus in the first part of the analysis was to explore whether regional cultural differences exist in the two countries studied in order to understand if the countries were more homogeneous or heterogeneous. The answer is that both countries showed regional (within country) cultural differences. The analysis shows that they are more significant in Germany and only partly significant in England for two cultural dimensions. However, the results contradict findings by Beugelsdijk et al (2006) who evaluated regional (within country) cultural differences for two cultural dimensions and came to the conclusion that England showed considerable regional differences within the country. As Beugelsdijk's data was from 1990 and 1999 this might explain the different results (Beugelsdijk et al., 2006). Beugelsdijk also used a different concept of culture, which could be seen as an additional explanation for the contradictory results. However, the overall results are ultimately not too different as this third research phase shows that two of the four dimensions did show regional differences in England.

By evaluating if regional cultural differences exist in Germany and England, this third research phase contributes to the literature by Alvesson and Sandberg (2011) and Sandberg and Alvesson (2011), aiming to fill a contextual gap in that literature. The national cultural value dimensions by Schwartz are more than two decades old, but have not yet been applied on a regional level to evaluate regional (within country) cultural differences (Schwartz, 1994a). Additionally, regional cultural differences have been explored by a few researchers (Kaasa et al., 2013; Schnettler et al., 2011) both in Germany and England, but not based on the data of the World Value Survey, which offers representative data for both countries and allows the researcher to split up the data into various regions within the two countries. This kind of contribution is important to offer marketers and practitioners the most suitable method/context to overcome their research issues (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2011; Sandberg and Alvesson, 2011).

In summary, individual value differences exist on a regional level in both countries, but not as strongly in England as in Germany. The next part of this

discussion will look into consumer motives and how they are linked to both cultural value differences and demographic variables (Verain et al., 2012; Sangkumchaliang and Huang, 2012; Padilla et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2013; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010; Schnettler et al., 2011; Josiassen et al., 2011; Al Ganideh and Al Taei, 2012; Tsai et al., 2013; Herzog, 1944; Chiu et al., 2005; Brennan et al., 2010).

5.5.2 Demographic Variables Impacting the REGIOSCALE

After establishing that regional cultural differences exist in both countries, it is important to explore the impact individual factors like demographics (age, gender, education level and income level) and cultural values have on the REGIOSCALE motives. When looking closer at the demographic variables they reveal inconsistencies across the regions and in terms of their specific motives to buy regional products.

Germany

For Germany, based on this research project's data as a whole, the most consistent demographic variable to predict consumers' motives to purchase regional products was **gender** (females are more likely to do so than males). This finding is consistent with the results of a number of studies in the literature of consumer ethnocentrism (Sharma et al., 1995; Good and Huddleston, 1995; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Chambers et al., 2007; Othman et al., 2008; Güneren and Öztüren, 2008; Chung et al., 2009; Josiassen et al., 2011; Tsai et al., 2013) and organic product purchase (Davies et al., 1995; Magnusson et al., 2001; Lea and Worsley, 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; Padilla et al., 2013).

Age was the next most consistent demographic variable for the data collected in the North of Germany. It showed that the older consumers were, the more likely it was to have a positive impact on consumers' REGIOSCALE results. This was also the case in the literature on consumer ethnocentrism and in a less pronounced way for consumers' motives to purchase organic products. Reasons for this correlation could be that older consumers are more conservative and patriotic in comparison to younger consumers

(Othman et al., 2008; Alfnes, 2004; Huddleston et al., 2001; Verbeke and Ward, 2006; Schnettler et al., 2011; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010). This is also reflected in this study's results, as although the North of Germany shows a significant correlation with all three motive dimensions, the strongest impact of age is on the dimension Familiarity and Habit, which contains most of the ethnocentric variables. The literature review has shown that the CETSCALE covers aspects of nationalism, solidarity, pure altruism, morality and perceived threat (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Teo et al., 2011). Based on this research project's data the demographic variables of income and education level had no impact on consumer motives to purchase regional products (REGIOSCALE) in Germany.

England

The results from England, based on this research project's data, were again more consistent when looking within the regions instead of across the regions. When looking closer at the findings from the North West of England, **age** is the only demographic variable which has a significant prediction power of motives to purchase regional products and this demographic variable is consistent for all three dimensions. In other words, older consumers in the North West of England are the more likely to purchase regional products for one of the three motive dimensions covered by the REGIOSCALE. The finding that older consumers are more likely to purchase regional products for Environmental Benefits and Trust, Personal Benefits or Familiarity and Habit motives in the North of Germany and the North of England has also been supported by previous studies in Germany and England (Evanschitzky et al., 2008; Padilla et al., 2013) and the majority of studies of ethnocentric consumer behaviour (Schnettler et al., 2011; Good and Huddleston, 1995; Huddleston et al., 2001; Alfnes, 2004; Verbeke and Ward, 2006; Othman et al., 2008; Güneren and Öztüren, 2008; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010; Josiassen et al., 2011)

In the South West of England, **age** does not have a significant predictive power, based on the data of this research project. Consumers from the South East of England showed very different results to the other three regions,

because there, the demographic variables **education level** and **household income** had the only significant prediction power, for the dimensions of Personal Benefits and Familiarity and Habit. The dimension Environmental Benefits and Trust is the only significantly predictable one based on consumers' education level in the South. In summary, for two dimensions (Personal Benefits and Familiarity and Habit) the higher consumers' education level and the higher their income, the more likely they were to purchase regional products for the motives of Personal Benefits or Familiarity and Habit, whereas the motives of Environmental Benefits and Trust had a positive relationship with consumers who had a higher education level. These results, that high income and high education level have a positive relationship with consumers purchasing regional products, contradict hypotheses three and four. Hypotheses three and four stated that as the majority of studies in organic product purchase and ethnocentric consumer behaviour concluded that a low education level and low level of income have a positive impact on purchase intention, that would be replicated on a regional level.

However, looking closer at the literature of organic product purchase, only one study indicated that a lower level of education has a positive relationship with consumers' purchase intention (Thompson and Kidwell, 1998), while the majority of studies concluding that a lower level of education and income leads to higher purchase intention are from the ethnocentric consumer behaviour literature (Good and Huddleston, 1995; Javalgi et al., 2005; Verbeke and Ward, 2006; Othman et al., 2008; Schnettler et al., 2011). As a result, the third research phase shows that in the South of England, high income and high education levels have a positive impact on consumers' purchase intention of organic products. This may be because lower income households face tight budget constraints and if regional products are more expensive these households may not be able to afford them. This has been found to be the case in the existing organic product purchase literature (Dettmann and Dimitri, 2009; Wang and Sun, 2003).

The positive relationship between a higher education level and regional product purchase intention could also be explained by suggesting that

consumers with higher education levels tend to be less conservative (Ray, 1990; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010) and consequently more open to change (Schwartz, 2006a) as they do not feel prone to stick with old ideals or traditions.

The contradictory results over the impact demographic variables have on the tendency of consumers to purchase regional products might indicate that demographic variables are not always a sufficient segmentation tool for marketers, because the significant levels vary across regions. This inconsistency of the demographic variables reflects the contradictory findings from the literature review. For example, some studies have shown that older consumers are more ethnocentric (Schnettler et al., 2011; Nadiri and Tümer, 2010) or more likely to buy organic products (Sangkumchaliang and Huang, 2012; Padilla et al., 2013) but other studies found the opposite (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Sharma et al., 1995; Dettmann and Dimitri, 2009; Briz and Ward, 2009) or argued that factors like age have no significant prediction power at all (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004). Another example for this contradiction comes in two studies which were both conducted in England but at different times. The study by Padilla et al. concluded that age has an impact, as the older the consumer, the higher their purchase intention of organic products (2013). Another study conducted in England almost 20 years earlier came to the conclusion that middle aged consumers were the most likely to purchase organic products (Davies et al., 1995).

After discussing the contradictory results demographic variables produce when predicting consumer motives to purchase regional products, taken from the second part of the third research phase, the next section will discuss cultural values and their prediction power of consumer motives to purchase regional products in two regions in Germany and England.

5.5.3 Cultural Values Impacting the REGIOSCALE

None of the demographic factors or cultural dimension variables has a significant impact on all of the new motive dimensions in every single region, encouraging consumers to buy regional products. The factor which gets the

closest to being consistent in all regions for the three dimensions is the cultural dimension of Self Transcendence. The only motive dimension it does not contribute to in the North of England is the dimension Familiarity and Habit. For all the other regions and dimensions, it is consistently the case that if consumers value Self-Transcendence, they buy regional products for each of the motive dimensions, but especially for the Environmental Benefits and Trust dimension.

This result is very much supported by the existing literature around consumers' purchase intention of organic products and confirms this study's fifth hypothesis. The literature around organic product purchase intention has shown that cultural values have significant prediction power for consumers' purchase intention of organic products. The most consistent cultural variable to predict positive beliefs and product purchase intention of organic products is the value of Universalism (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Lea and Worsley, 2005; Thøgersen, 2009; Dreezens et al., 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; De Boer et al., 2007). The second most consistent variable is Benevolence (Lea and Worsley, 2005; Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Balabanis et al., 2002). These two variables together form the dimension of Self-Transcendence.

One reason to explain why the dimension of Self-Transcendence is the most consistent dimension, especially for Germany, could be because the dimension is linked to pro-environmental behaviour (Lee et al., 2014) and previous studies have shown that the connection between environmental friendliness and organic products seemingly does not exist in England. However, the connection between organic food consumption and trying to save the environment as an extra incentive applies to German consumers (Chryssohoidis and Krystallis, 2005; Baker et al., 2004) and could explain why German consumers in the North and the South value the motives of Environmental Benefits and Trust as the most important motives to purchase regional products; and also why the variable Self-Transcendence is the most consistent predictor of consumers' choice across both regions.

The next cultural dimension, which was analysed in the second part of the third research phase, is the dimension of Openness to Change, which did not

show any prediction power for any of the dimensions in any of the regions. Other studies have suggested a positive relationship between food beliefs, organic product purchase intention and Self-Direction and Stimulation, which go together to form the dimension of Openness to Change (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Dreezens et al., 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2013).

Some previous studies have also claimed a negative relationship between the value of Self-Direction and organic food consumption (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Aertsens et al., 2009). However, more studies seem to show a positive relationship between the value Self Direction (how much consumers value independent thinking and creativity) and how it is linked to the consumers' motives of a positive self-image or identity they can create when buying organic products (Dreezens et al., 2005). This also seems to be true for the value of Stimulation (how much people value excitement and a challenge in life) which is related to consumers' motives of curiosity to buy organic products (Aertsens et al., 2009). However, consumers purchasing regional products do not do it to improve their own self-image or identity. Nor do they do it to stimulate their own curiosity for regional products since these values did not show any prediction power for the REGIOSCALE.

The third cultural dimension, Self-Enhancement, being the opposing dimension of Self-Transcendence, reveals a negative relationship with consumers' motives to purchase regional products in the South of England and for the dimension Environmental Benefits and Trust in the North of England and the South of Germany. This means that, the more consumers value Self-Transcendence, the less likely they are to purchase regional products for the REGIOSCALE motives. The inconsistency that the dimension Self-Enhancement does not predict consumer motives in all four regions reflects the inconsistent results found throughout the literature review. In the literature review, some studies suggested a positive relationship between Self-Enhancement and consumers' organic product purchase intentions (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Dreezens et al., 2005; Aertsens et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2013). Other studies, however, asserted a negative relationship (Grunert and Juhl, 1995; Aertsens et al., 2009).

The same applies for the fourth cultural dimension, Conservation, which only predicted a positive relationship with consumers' motives to purchase regional products in the North of Germany and for the dimension Familiarity and Habit for the South of England.

The value Conformity (how much people value restraining one's actions and impulses to avoid upsetting others' expectations and norms) is linked to the motive to satisfy group pressure. This means the pressure that results when everyone buys a product and they expect those around them to do the same. (Dreezens et al., 2005). Schwartz's value Security (how much people value safety, stability of society, relationships and themselves) is linked with health, the strongest motive to purchase organic products (Aertsens et al., 2009). These explanations of why conformity should be a strong and positive predictor of why consumers purchase organic products might not apply to consumers purchasing regional products, because their main motives to purchase regional products are unlike their motives to purchase organic products and are ultimately not a decision based on a healthy lifestyle. This could be an explanation why the cultural value dimension Conformity did not predict consumers' intention to purchase regional products in all four regions equally.

Table 42 summarises the main results. The first row shows where the data has been collected (column two in the North of Germany, column three the South of Germany, column four in the North of England and column five the South of England). The second row shows the REGIOSCALE dimension, which significantly predicts consumers' purchase intention in those regions (except the South of England, where none of the dimensions did). So for example, in the North and the South of Germany, Environmental Benefits and Trust was the most significant dimension in predicting intentional regional product purchase in those two regions. The third row shows each region and the motive dimensions, along with the significant demographic variables impacting those dimensions. For example, in the North of Germany and for the dimensions Environmental Benefits and Trust, the demographic variables age (specifically older consumers) and gender (specifically women)

are more likely to be connected to the desire to buy regional products intentionally. The fourth column names the cultural dimensions which have a significant impact in predicting consumers' purchase intention of regional products in each of the regions, based on the specific motive dimensions. So for example in the North of Germany the more a consumer values Self Transcendence, the higher the prediction power that those consumers purchase regional products intentionally. In summary, for the North of Germany, older women who value Self Transcendence highly are the most likely to purchase regional products intentionally with their main motives being reasons associated with Environmental Benefits and Trust.

Table 44: Phase three results

	Germany N	Germany S	England N	England S
Significant motive dimension REGIOSCALE	Environmental benefits and trust	Environmental benefits and trust	Familiarity and Habit	None
Demographic variables significantly impacting REGIOSCALE	Age (older), Gender (woman) except for Familiarity and Habit	Gender (woman)	Age (older)	Income level (higher), Education level (higher)
Cultural values significantly impacting REGIOSCALE	Self-Transcendence (positive), Conservation (positive)	Self-Enhancement (negative), Self-Transcendence (positive)	Self-Transcendence except for Familiarity and Habit	Self-Enhancement (negative), Self-Transcendence (positive)

These results have different implications for different marketers in different businesses, which will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter.

Some results, regarding the impact of individual factors on regional product purchase motives, were as suggested in the hypotheses. For example, mainly older females purchase regional products. However, other findings, such as the fact that higher educated consumers and consumers with higher incomes in the South of England were more likely to purchase regional products, were not predicted based on the literature review. Possible

explanations for these results have been given in this chapter. Overall, the most consistent demographic variable in this third research phase was age. The four cultural dimensions are also less inconsistent than the demographic variables in predicting consumer motives to purchase regional products. Self-Transcendence was the most consistent predictor in all the regions except for the North of England for the one dimension of Familiarity and Habit.

Now that the final research phase of the thesis is complete, the results of these three fieldwork phases will be summarised. Phase one of the field work identified the motives why people buy regional products. These were then evaluated in field work phase two of the thesis, in a process that led to the REGIOSCALE, which was shown to have a higher prediction power of why consumers buy regional products than the originally applied CETSCALE. After discussing the most significant motives for each of the four regions and discussing why the results from the South of England might be so inconclusive, the third research phase of this thesis sought to expand on this work. This phase was split into two data analysis parts. In the first part it was found that regional (within country) cultural differences exist in both Germany and England. In the second part the impact individual factors (demographic variables and cultural value differences) have on the REGIOSCALE was explored. The third research phase further demonstrated that demographic variables and regional cultural value differences have significant impacts on the prediction of consumer motives to purchase regional products, based on this research project's data. However, overall cultural values, especially the dimension of Self-Transcendence, were the most consistent predictive factors in this phase. This is a finding which could vary from country to country and from research topic to research topic, but it suggests that cultural values should not be neglected when looking into factors impacting consumer motives to purchase regional products.

After finishing this last research phase, the next chapter will be the overall conclusion, which aims to tie all three phases together (see figure 29).

Figure 29: Structure of the thesis

6 Conclusion

This thesis is threefold and these elements will now be tied together. After the final statement the contribution of this research project will be highlighted, split into theoretical and practical contributions followed by limitations, suggestions for future studies and, finally, ethical implications.

Table 43 shows an overview and explanation of why this research project was threefold. The **first research phase** needed to be conducted to identify whether the motives of the previously applied CETSCALE covered all consumer motives to purchase regional products. Based on this research project's sample that is not the case (40 interviews from four different regions in two different countries). Overall, 23 motives why consumers might purchase regional products were identified, which is more than the previously applied CETSCALE. Additionally, the first research phase showed that consumers' motives to purchase regional products seemed to vary from region to region. The **second research phase** was needed to develop the REGIOSCALE. The REGIOSCALE contains three dimensions:

- Environmental benefits and trust (seven variables)
- Personal Benefits (eight variables)
- Familiarity and Habit (six variables)

The REGIOSCALE proved to have a higher prediction power of consumer intention to purchase regional products than the previously applied CETSCALE. Additionally, the second research phase also showed that consumers' motives to purchase regional products seemed to vary from region to region.

After identifying that the CETSCALE did not cover all the motives why people purchase regional products and establishing that the REGIOSCALE had a higher prediction power of whether consumers would purchase regional products, the third research phase was needed to deliver additional explanation for the regional differences, which could have been based on value differences (regional cultural values) or on the impact of demographic factors.

Therefore **third research phase** was twofold in its data analysis. The first part of the data analysis evaluated that regional cultural differences do exist in Germany and England. This could be one of the explanations for the variation in consumer motives to purchase regional products across regions. The second part of the data analysis then found that demographic variables and cultural values have an impact on the REGIOSCALE. However, despite a general perception to the contrary, demographic variables' predictive power of consumer motives to purchase regional products was a lot lower and more inconsistent than the predictive power of cultural values. The most consistent variable among the demographic and cultural values was the cultural value dimension of Self-Transcendence. The finding that Self-Transcendence varied across the four regions and at the same time had the most consistent impact in all four regions could be one explanation why the motives for consumers purchasing regional products differ across the four regions.

Table 45: RQ & Outcome of the three research phases

	Research Question	Outcome
1. Research Phase one	What are the different motives of consumers to purchase regional products?	23 motives why consumers purchase regional products (more than the previously applied CETSCALE).
2. Research Phase two	Which motive areas form the new region-scale (REGIOSCALE) and does it predict consumer motives to purchase regional products?	<p>REGIOSCALE contains three dimensions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Environmental benefits and trust (seven variables) • Personal Benefits (eight variables) • Familiarity and Habit (six variables) <p>It does predict consumers' motives to purchase regional products (it has a higher prediction power)</p>

		than the previously applied CETSCALE).
3. Research Phase three	Is there a relationship between individual factors (regional cultural values and demographic variables) and the regio-centric scale (REGIOSCALE)? If so what is it?	3a) regional within country cultural differences exist in both countries. 3b) The most consistent variables among the demographic and cultural values is the cultural value dimension Self-Transcendence in predicting consumer motives to purchase regional products.

6.1 Theoretical Contribution

The theoretical contribution of this thesis is threefold.

1. First is a revelatory contribution that has come from questioning the assumption that the CETSCALE applied to a regional level and could sufficiently evaluate consumers' intentions to purchase regional products.
2. Second is an incremental contribution that has come by applying the mixed method approach to evaluate consumers' motives to purchase regional products.
3. Third is conceptual replication by evaluating regional cultural differences on a regional level, applying Schwartz's cultural dimensions, which are part of the World Values Survey questionnaire.

The theoretical contributions of the first and second research phase of this thesis are revelatory insights through challenging underlying assumptions, which is a revelatory contribution to literature according to Okhuysen and Bonardi (2011); Suddaby et al (2011); Sandberg and Alvesson (2011); and Alvesson and Sandberg (2011). The revelatory part is the identification and evaluation of consumer motives to purchase regional products, which is essentially the development of the REGIOSCALE. At the same time, this thesis challenges the assumption that the CETSCALE can sufficiently predict consumer motives to purchase regional products. Based on the first phase of

the thesis, it has been shown that purchasing regional products can be due to a lot more motives than just the ones the CETSCALE covers. The assumption was that there were additional motives predicting consumers' intent to purchase regional products, as well as those covered by the CETSCALE. This was confirmed by the second research phase of this thesis, based on this research project's sample. Therefore, when evaluating consumer motives to purchase regional products, it might be advisable not to simply apply the CETSCALE to a regional level but instead to use the REGIOSCALE. Of course, even though it provides clear advantages over the CETSCALE, the REGIOSCALE still needs more testing and further development at this stage, and the needed improvements will be highlighted in the sub-section on future studies in more detail.

In addition to the revelatory contribution of the first and second research phase, there is also an incremental contribution by filling a methodological research gap. The methodological gap is the lack of papers applying the mixed method to evaluated consumer motives to purchase regional products. Applying the mixed method was successfully done in this thesis and doing so revealed new insights into consumer motives to purchase regional products based on the interviews from the first research phase. The motives derived from the interviews were then confirmed by the survey, which was described in the second research phase of this thesis.

The theoretical contribution in the third part of the thesis is, according to the definitions provided by Hunt (2001) and Uncles and Kwok (2013), that of successful conceptual replication. This is because regional cultural differences have been evaluated by researchers (Kaasa et al., 2013; Schnettler et al., 2011) in Germany and England, but not using the data of the World Value Survey in combination with Schwartz's cultural dimensions. The same conceptual replication applies for the impact demographic variables and cultural values have on consumer motives to purchase organic products and on ethnocentric consumer behaviour. Such research has not to date been done in the context of motives to purchase regional products. This thesis, however, has shown that regional cultural

differences exist in the two European countries studied (Germany and England). The fact that significant regional cultural differences are present in Germany is supported by Kaasa et al. (2013) who used data from the European Social Survey (ESS) to measure cultural differences, based on Hofstede's cultural differences. That differentiates Kaasa's research from this thesis, because this third research phase applied Schwartz's cultural value differences to measure cultural differences on a regional level in Germany and England based on the data from the World Value Survey. Kaasa's article came to the same conclusion as the third research phase, that there are large internal cultural differences in Germany. But, as mentioned before, the majority of academic research focuses on cultural studies on the national level. When conducting research, most studies assume countries to be homogenous and this is true in our case for two of the four dimensions for England, specifically for the cultural dimensions of Openness to Change and Self-Enhancement. However, as this thesis has shown, it is not the case for the other two dimensions in the case of England or for any of them in Germany. Moving from there, it would be advisable for researchers to evaluate regional (within country) cultural differences to identify if the researched country is homogenous or heterogeneous to gain more insights into consumers' cultural values.

6.2 Practitioners

The practical contribution of this thesis can be split in three main parts. Firstly, there is a contribution in regards to better understanding of consumers' motives to purchase regional products. Secondly there is a contribution to the knowledge of regional (within country) cultural differences. Thirdly, there is the understanding that cultural values have a more consistent prediction power than socio-demographic variables for consumers' motives to purchase regional products.

The survey derived from the interview confirmed that consumer motives to purchase regional products differed across the regions. In the two regions in Germany, Environmental Benefits were the main motive dimension behind

purchases of regional products, whereas in the North of England, it was Familiarity and Habit.

The findings from the survey collected in the second research phase as evaluated a stronger prediction power of the REGIOSCALE in comparison to the CETSCALE in predicting consumer intentions to purchase regional products. It is important for marketers to understand consumer motives. The knowledge of which motives make consumers purchase regional products can be used to differentiate one company from their competitors and develop a USP (Unique Selling Point). This USP would be directly oriented at their consumers' motives which would presumably be more successful than USPs which might be unrelated to their consumers' motives. For example, a marketer in Germany should highlight motives like Environmental Benefits and Trust, whereas a marketer in England would probably be more successful by highlighting product attributes which trigger Familiarity and Habit in the consumers' minds in the North of England. The knowledge of which motives drive consumers' purchase intention can also help marketers with their targeting, positioning, marketing communication and brand strategy, because motives can be communicated verbally on the radio, in writing and in image form in magazines and on banners, and additionally it can be communicated on the packaging itself. So there are various ways to show consumers the extra benefits of buying regional products.

This thesis also contributed to practitioner knowledge by supporting Kaasa's (2013) findings that regional cultural differences exist (in Germany for all four dimensions and for two out of four dimensions in England). This will potentially enable practitioners to identify regional cultural differences within Germany and England by looking at maps of those differences as demonstrated in the third research phase. Doing so may allow them to strategically identify the regions within the same or another country to enter based on consumers' cultural value similarities (cultural values are not the only reasons to consider which market to enter, but it is important enough to potentially affect the decision making process). As explained in the introduction, companies have already started adapting their strategies to be

perceived as more local (like Mueller for example). However, now they can use the findings of the regional cultural maps to employ a more strategic approach to consumer values and to understand what motives are more important in one region in comparison to another.

However, it isn't just market entry strategies that can be influenced by consumer values. They are also important for companies' content marketing and marketing communication strategies. After companies have decided which market to enter, they can then use the knowledge of consumer values for their general marketing and communication strategy (including segmenting their target audience, message design, and which channels to use). Once again, cultural values are not the only factors which should impact a company's segmentation of the market or communication strategy. However, it could be valuable to avoid blindly adapting a marketing strategy considering existing national cultural theories, instead taking into account differences on the regional level (Douglas and Craig, 2011a; Schwartz and Ros, 1995; Chen et al., 2005; Lenartowicz et al., 2003).

The cultural value maps from the third research phase can not only assist to adapt products more specifically to various cultural differences, but can also assist in avoiding the overestimation of cultural differences. With them, marketers should be able to make an informed decision about when to attempt to standardize a product from one country and when a product requires minimal adaptation to be successful in another country, as Beugelsdijk et al. (2014) suggest. This also supports conclusions by (Kaasa et al., 2013) and (Adler et al., 1986). Beugelsdijk et al. (2014) specifically criticise the over-adaptation companies go through when entering a new market. They argue that in some cases companies overdo it with their adaptation strategy, which supports conclusions reached by Kaasa et al. (2013) and Adler et al. (1986) that the existence of heterogeneous countries in which some regions might be culturally more similar to a company's home market and the marketing strategy may require less adaptation to be successful.

As concluded above, the existence of regional cultural differences can be overestimated but when they are identified correctly they can have noticeable implications for marketers when targeting a new market. It is essential to not see national culture as a melting pot but more precisely as a stew with regional cultural differences still visible (MacNab et al., 2010; Connerley and Pedersen, 2005). By doing so, marketing strategies can be adapted more precisely to the consumers' needs (Yoo et al., 2011).

The implication for marketers would be that consumers who highly value Openness to Change, for example, are more likely to perceive regional products as old fashioned and therefore could be more attracted to new, less-established and imported products (Steenkamp and de Jong, 2010).

In this approach, small companies located in somewhere like Rhineland-Palatinate could focus on satisfying the consumers' needs for imported products, along with a wide variety and new products to try. In contrast, a small business in the Lower Saxony could focus on regional products and use this knowledge in their advertising and communication strategy with their consumers.

National companies could also benefit from this. Considering the dimensions of Self Transcendence, if they were located in Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, then, while doing well with their green products, they could use the knowledge of regional cultural differences as part of their market entry strategy and, based on the aspect of regional cultural similarities, enter Saarland or Saxony next.

On a larger scale still, transnational companies can use the knowledge of both countries and identify, as part of their new market entry strategy, which regions might be culturally most similar and therefore have potentially similar tendencies towards imported products. For example a successfully communication and advertising strategy could be also applied to consumers in like-minded regions in England and Germany.

These practical considerations are all potentially useful for businesses. However, there is a third potential practical contribution from this work. The

cultural dimension Self-Transcendence has the most consistent prediction power of consumer motives to purchase regional products for all three dimensions in the four regions in both countries; even stronger than the demographic variables age, gender, education level and income. That means practitioners could rethink their segmentation strategies. This thesis confirmed that, in some cases, cultural values can prove to be better predictors for consumers' purchase intention than demographic variables and this statement is supported by Dagevos (2005), Diamantopoulos et al. (2003), Verain et al. (2012) and Lea and Worsley (2005). It might be beneficial for marketers to make more use of these cultural values on a regional level, therefore.

That does not mean marketers should completely neglect demographic variables, as age in particular seems to be the strongest and most consistent variable among the demographic variables to predict purchase intention of regional products after Self-Transcendence. Of course, it is easier for companies to segment their markets according to demographic variables, however as mentioned before, since the data for regional cultural differences is generated from the World Values Survey which is free and accessible, regional cultural differences could be evaluated very cost effectively by companies and marketers in small, medium or large businesses.

In conclusion, the practical contributions of this thesis are threefold. Firstly, there is a contribution in regards to better understanding of consumers' motives to purchase regional products, secondly there is a contribution to the knowledge of regional cultural (within country) differences and thirdly, there is the understanding that for this thesis at least, cultural values have a more consistent prediction power than socio-demographic variables for consumers' motives to purchase regional products.

7 Limitations

This thesis has some limitations, which can be used as pointers for future studies. Firstly, the second research phase of the thesis is based on the mall-interception sample method, which is not quite convenience sampling. Therefore generalising our results to the level of whole regions needs to be done carefully. However, the results might be valid for those consumers who normally live in those regions.

Secondly, future surveys could be optimised by applying a narrower interval gaps for the factors age and a higher upper limit on income levels. This could lead to further insights into the impact income and age groups might have on consumer motives to purchase regional products.

Thirdly, in the third part of this thesis the narrow sample of two culturally close countries will limit the ability to generalise the findings beyond them. It seems an acceptable limitation in this context, as it also gives a more precise picture of the analysed regions and adds to the limited literature within the cultural research of culturally close countries (Craig and Douglas, 2006).

Fourthly, the new motives identified and evaluated in this thesis imply that they have a stronger prediction power than the existing CETSCALE to predict regional product purchase. However, this thesis is just the starting point when it comes to introducing a potentially new scale to the literature of regional product purchase. This new REGIOSCALE still has to undergo extensive validation and reliability testing across different regions, in different countries, with bigger and more representative samples, which are then tested with confirmatory factor analysis and predictive validity. As such, it needs further evaluation.

8 Future Studies

There are several potential avenues for further studies arising from this thesis. Firstly, future studies could look into analysing regional cultural differences for all of the 92 countries covered by the World Value Survey. In particular, research could evaluate which countries are culturally homogenous and which are more heterogeneous. Therefore, marketers would know in which countries they need to adjust their adaptation strategies to a more regional level and in which countries they can effectively standardise their strategic marketing and communication plans. Potentially, this could lead to the development of a website based on the WVS data, showing the data visually for academics as well as making it accessible for practitioners.

If researchers have few financial or time constraints they should aim to replicate this thesis with representative samples from more regions across more countries to evaluate the validity and reliability of this thesis' results.

This thesis does not claim that identifying the motives why consumers buy regional products represents the sole impact factor affecting the purchase of regional products. As such, future studies should evaluate additional factors impacting consumers' purchase intention of regional products. These could include such things as lifestyle, nationalism, perceived barriers (price and availability, the gap between consumers intention and actual purchase), or the impact product categories can have on consumer motives. Gaining a better understanding of what impacts consumers' purchase intention is crucial for marketers, because it enables them to develop the most effective segmentation and communication strategy for their business, which gives that business an advantage over their ever growing competition.

Another aspect for future research would be to look into the impact specific product categories or product types have on consumer motives to purchase regional products.

Based on this study's results, future studies should also consider within-country consumer behavioural differences to gain greater insight into which regions can be clustered together across countries.

9 Ethical Issues

Ethics can be understood as a set of moral principles which protect consumers from potential harm coming from the researcher and/or the project itself (Blackburn, 2003).

Currently, researchers are becoming increasingly aware of the importance of conducting ethical research. There are various ethical problems which need to be considered when conducting research. These include the researcher's, as well as the consumers', worldviews and values, the research design including the researcher's school of thoughts (ontology), consent, differences in definitions, transparency and interpretation of the results (Liamputtong, 2008; Israel and Hay, 2006).

9.1 Worldviews and Values

One major issue in conducting research is the researchers' personal norms and values, since those can have an influence on the research's ethical understanding and the research design. It is almost impossible to be completely objective when designing and conducting research (Ivanitz, 1999; Lee, 1995).

9.2 Solution

A solution for this problem could be constant reflection, so that it needs to be kept in the researcher's mind that personal norms and values may have an influence on choices when planning the project and carrying out the research as well as the analysis (Ivanitz, 1999). Moreover, it is helpful to understand the consumers' worldviews and values by living in those countries and speaking their language, as doing so can give a better understanding of differences (Aponte et al., 1995; Liamputtong, 2008). That is the case with this work, since the researcher is from Germany and has been residing in England for over five years, which implies a general understanding of the culture in regards to social events, the education system and the language.

9.3 Consent

Although this thesis will be working with secondary data, it cannot ignore whether the consent has been obtained in the original research. If it has not been obtained, the researcher needs to decide if a reuse of the data would violate the consumer, which is not acceptable (British Sociological Association, 2002). For interviews and surveys, actual consent needs to be collected from each consumer.

9.4 Solution

Since the use of secondary data is getting more popular, researchers have to know if consumers have given their consent to the use of data. If not clear, the researcher has to get the consent of the consumer (British Sociological Association, 2002). For this thesis, face to face surveys were conducted, so if the consumer took part in the survey automatic consent was generated. In the case of the interviews and the surveys, each consumer signed a consent form in which the thesis and data storage were explained. Additionally, the in house ethical committee signed off both of the data collection procedures separately.

9.5 Definitions and Fit

When using secondary data from two different countries it is the researchers' obligation to highlight potential differences in definitions and wording for the reader. As well, the researcher needs to emphasise the extent to which the secondary data suits the research questions and objectives. Moreover, the researcher needs to assess the nature and quality of the original data (Houston, 2004; Park et al., 2011).

9.6 Solution

The solution is to find the best fitted data possible and if adjustments need to be carried out, the researcher must do so in the most transparent manner possible (Saunders et al., 2012). This is done in this thesis in the chapter on the literature review and also within the methodology chapter.

9.7 Transparency

Transparency provides another potential ethical issue. In this example, ethical behaviour depends on different aspects, such as the training of the researcher, common sense and the extent to which the researcher is obliged to protect the information. Although this is a simple task in theory, at least one source has pointed out that when researchers get into the field, they seem to struggle with it (Punch, 1994). For example, access to certain information might be limited or denied so that the researcher might be forced to leave information in the analysis undisclosed. It is essential to conduct research in the most transparent manner to guarantee a correct outcome regardless of whether it is positive or negative (Engelen and Brettel, 2011; Park et al., 2011).

9.8 Solution

The most basic solution to this issue could be to explain in detail each step of the research and explain if, when, what and how the research needs to compromise throughout his research. Since this work is threefold in approach, and the first part is based on secondary data, the main issues which will be faced are to provide as much transparency to the reader as possible on the source of the data, to what extent it manages to cover the research question and objectives, and if it does not cover it completely, why it has still been chosen and which adjustments have been made (Engelen and Brettel, 2011; Houston, 2004). For the qualitative and quantitative data similar implications apply, and each step is described in detail from the sample group, sampling, measurements, etc.

9.9 Analysis

One issue is to remain objective throughout the analysis and reporting of the data, which otherwise could lead to wrong conclusions and suggestions. This is also important because there is an ethical responsibility towards the consumer when using the results, which need to be exclusively based on the data and not on the personal opinions of the researcher (Ivanitz, 1999).

9.10 Solution

A solution to the first ethical dilemma is not to be selective about the data collected. The second solution could be achieved by constant reflection (Saunders et al., 2012).

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