
**Designing a model for consumer willingness to buy domestic products:
explaining the effect of consumer consciousness**

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Abstract: The purpose of this paper is to design a model for consumer willingness to buy domestic products. Certain important concepts that are linked to willingness to buy include consumer consciousness, product judgment, and consumer attitude towards domestic products. First, we present a literature review on consumer consciousness and willingness to buy domestic products, and we derive an initial research model. Second, we use qualitative techniques to collect primary data. This work was conducted through 16 interviews, in which interviews were held among academic experts and industry experts. The academic experts were those who specialize in international marketing or beverage industry, and industry experts were sales managers or marketing managers of beverage companies in Iran. We analyzed the data obtained from the qualitative research phase through content analysis, and based on this analysis, we derive another research model. Finally, in the final model, we tried to match the derived model from the qualitative phase with the research literature. The results of this research confirmed the research literature and, to some extent, improved it. According to the results, consumer consciousness and its dimensions (dimensions that exist in literature and religious consciousness) affect willingness to buy domestic products. Also, this relationship can be moderated by domestic product judgment and attitudes toward domestic products. The sample was chosen from the beverage industry experts in Iran. Hence, when generalizing across other religions and cultures we must do so with caution. A future, larger-scale survey using a questionnaire would be useful in confirming the qualitative results drawn from this study. The main contribution of this study is the introduction of religious consciousness in Islam.

Keywords: *willingness to buy, domestic products, consumer consciousness, the beverage industry.*

Introduction

According to Wanninayake and Bandara (2014), recently, globalization has become a crucial phenomenon for any business in the world and has profound short and long term impacts. Further, globalization leads to the homogenization of global markets, and it allows multinational companies to have a presence in local markets by increasing the availability of a broader range of international brands in various host countries. Domestic firms should find strategic alternatives for stimulating customer preferences for household brands. As a result, Anet, Sajjadi, & Khabiri (2013) and Mirabi and Goli (2016), believe that in Iran, we see the arrival of a multitude of foreign products, which has made it harder for domestic products to compete and according to the Chamber of Commerce, Industries, Mines and Agriculture of Tehran (2017), the total import of Iran in 2017 was about \$51.7 billion.

The strength of foreign brands in the Iranian market is such that even domestic sellers and producers are forced to introduce their products as foreign products. For example, according to Torkestani and Jahedi (2019), Iranian consumers have welcomed Turkish-made products in a way that many Iranian manufacturers introduce their products as Turkish-made products, and many Iranian sellers describe the product made in Iran as Turkish-made. For example, one of the exciting industries in Iran is the beverage industry, there are about 256 beverage manufacturers in Iran, and in this industry, there is a fierce competition between domestic and foreign competitors. In 2017, about 60,000 tons (about \$ 29 million) of juices and concentrates were imported to Iran (Chamber of Commerce, Industries, Mines and Agricultures of Tehran, 2017). Even though domestic quality products are still abundant, according to the secretary of the Association of Manufacturing and Export Industries of Concentrate and Juice, smuggled Juices are found in abundance in Iran (Sheikhepoor et al., 2019). Therefore, it is important to know the reasons for preferring domestic and foreign products.

Concerning the consumption of foreign products, there is a simplistic approach in which consumers purchase imported products because of their quality (Nguyen, Nguyen & Barrett, 2008), but this simplistic approach is questionable and many factors need to be considered when it comes to consumer decision-making about domestic and foreign products. Various studies in international marketing have explored two perspectives by examining consumers' attitudes toward domestic and foreign products and how consumers make purchasing decisions. The first is a logical information processing model that states consumers will evaluate and select their product based on a rational process under the influence of cognitive components. The other viewpoint is the emotional information processing model, which indicates that emotional factors influence consumer choices. In choosing between domestic and foreign products, cognitive factors include quality, price, availability, after-sales service, etc but factors such as the normative and moral opposition to purchasing international products due to their sense of interest and loyalty to the homeland are among the emotional factors that may lead to choosing domestic products (Mirabi and Goli, 2016 & Bahmani, 2012). Both perspectives have been extensively studied, but this study attempts to introduce consumer consciousness as a multidimensional variable, a more comprehensive variable in consumer decision-making about domestic and foreign products.

Today's consumers are consciousness consumers. Higher standards of living, greater purchasing power, increasing communication across the globe, as well as the globalization of markets are contributing to the fact that people today know much more about other countries and their products (Anet et al, 2013). Confirming this statement, Yilmaz and Koçoğlu state that "The increase in communication tools has increased consumer knowledge and has led to increased consumer consciousness and consumer conscious behaviors, demonstrating the need for radical change across all industries (Yilmaz and Koçoğlu, 2017), and these clever patterns of consumption are more evident in Iran with its young population, because young people have many more choices than in the past. New generations are very aware of and influenced by technology. They are all very intelligent and can influence the market with their choices. They are agents of change for society and culture (Tanksale et al., 2014).

Therefore, the main question of the research is as follows: How is the pattern of domestic product preference concerning the role of consumer consciousness? Therefore, we review the research literature and introduce a new model of domestic product preference through quantitative content analysis.

Literature Review

In this part of the study, we first introduce consumer consciousness and its dimensions, then we deliberate over the relationship between consumer consciousness and domestic product preference.

Consumer consciousness

According to Solomon et al. (2006), consciousness rests upon the theory of cognitive learning, where natural mental processes pose significance. They ground this theory on an individual's given response at the end of several mental processes, whenever he or she encounters a problem or stimulant. Based on the frame drawn by Solomon et al., consciousness may be defined as "giving a reaction as a result of the logical evaluation of data available concerning a situation being encountered" (Akin, 2012).

Carr et al. (2012) state that conscious consumption is defined by scholars as "any choice about products or services made as a way to express values of sustainability, social justice, corporate responsibility, or workers' rights and that takes into account the larger context of production, distribution, or impacts of goods and services" (Yilmaz and Koçoğlu, 2017).

Concerning consumer consciousness literature, there are three main streams of research, each of which identifies aspects of consumer consciousness:

- 1- *Consumer Decision Making Theory*: Sproles and Kendall (1986), presented a model of consumer decision-making style that includes eight decision making styles. The eight decision styles are quality conscious, brand consciousness, fashion-consciousness, recreational and hedonistic consciousness, price-consciousness, impulsive and careless tendencies, confused by over-choice and brand loyalty. These models have been revised several times, and have been increased or decreased, but in relation to consumer consciousness, Cankurt et al. (2013), in investigating consumer decision making styles in the food industry, in addition to the dimensions introduced by Sproles and Kendall (1986) added the aspects of environmental, health and time consciousness. However, the time consciousness that they introduced includes parts of brand consciousness and loyalty of Sproles and Kendall model (Tanksale, Neelam and Venkatachalam, 2014).
- 2- *Consumer lifestyle theory*: In lifestyle literature, several aspects of consumer consciousness were studied. He, Zou and Jin (2010), found five lifestyle factors that this five-factor were price consciousness, public-interest orientation, need for uniqueness, need for achievement, and need for respect. Khan and Nasr (2011), in their study of lifestyles, discussed brand consciousness, fashion consciousness, and price-consciousness; Kucukemiroglu (1999), explored fashion-consciousness, health consciousness, social consciousness, and price consciousness, and Kavak and Gumusluoglu (2006), examined fashion consciousness, health consciousness, and price consciousness.
- 3- *Other research*: Other studies, in addition to the above mentioned types of consciousness, introduced other types of consciousness, for example: self-consciousness (Fenigstein et al, 1975; shim et al, 2016; Sun, Horn and Merritt, 2009; Giovannini, Xu and Jane Boyd, 2015 and Tolbert, Kohli, and Suri, 2014), image consciousness (Nga, Yong and Sellappan, 2011), status consciousness (O'Cass and Siahtiri, 2014), face consciousness (Liao and Lie, 2009; Chen et al, 2014 and Li, Zhang and Sun, 2015) and sustainability consciousness (Carvalho, 2014; Grinstein and Riefler, 2015 and Carvalho, Salgueiro and Rita, 2015).

So, the dimensions of consumer consciousness include brand consciousness, fashion-consciousness, price-conscious, quality consciousness, hedonistic consciousness, sustainability consciousness, health consciousness, social consciousness, environmental

consciousness, self-consciousness, status consciousness, image consciousness, and face consciousness, that in the next section, we will define and review each dimension.

Dimensions of Consumer Consciousness

Brand Consciousness: Measures a consumer's attitude toward buying more expensive, and well-known brands because they that the higher price of a product is an indicator of better quality (Azizi and Makkizadeh, 2012; Radder. Li and Pietersen, 2006; Mishra, 2010; Nayeem and Casidy, 2015 and Sproles and Kendall, 1986) or the brand consciousness of a consumer is a mental orientation in which consumers choose brand products based on their familiarity with this brand due to advertising and market awareness (Sobia and Zaki Rashidi, 2015 and Sproles and Kendall, 1986). According to Bao and Mandrik (2004), consumers use brands as a means to protect their self-identity. For example, highly brand-conscious consumers may buy expensive brands and remain loyal to the brand not because of quality perceptions per se, but because others may perceive them as socially positive due to the high price (Ismail, 2017).

Fashion Consciousness: Fashion-consciousness is characteristic that identifies consumers who like new and innovative products and gain excitement from seeking out new things (Azizi and Makkizadeh, 2012; Radder et al. 2006; Lotfizadeh, 2013; Sproles and Kendall, 1986 and Mishra, 2010). Consumers that score highly on this factor are fashion conscious and like to keep up to date with changing trends. For fashionable consumers, attractive styling is essential, and therefore, they have at least one new outfit of the latest style (Radder et al. 2006; Sproles and Kendall, 1986 and Mishra, 2010). According to Gutman & Mills (1982), fashion-conscious consumers do not necessarily mean that they are experts or pioneers in the fashion industry but that they are aware of their appearance and make an effort to keep in style (Hassan and Harun, 2016 and Haluk Koksak, 2014).

Price-conscious, and "value-for-money" shopping consciousness: This is a characteristic identifying those consumers who have great knowledge of sale prices and lower prices in general (Azizi and Makkizadeh, 2012 and Mishra, 2010). Top scorers on this characteristic tend to watch their spending carefully, and it is quite pertinent to note that they are also concerned with getting the best value for their money (Mishra,2010), their shopping experience is mainly driven by utilitarian values (Maggioniet al, 2019).

In several investigations, price- consciousness and value- consciousness are separated from each other (see Lichtenstein et al. 1993). According to Lichtenstein et al. (1993), value consciousness was conceptualized as consumers' concern regarding the ratio of quality received to the monetary sacrifice in a transaction and price consciousness is "the degree to which the consumer focuses exclusively on paying low prices" (Watchravesringkan, Yan and Yurchisin, 2008).

According to Lichtenstein et al. (1993), price- consciousness is a significantly narrower concept than value-consciousness, in which consumers make price-quality evaluations (Hampson and McGoldrick, 2017) but according to Ismail (2017), and Shoham, & Makovec Breni (2004), value consciousness is "a concern for paying low prices, subject to some quality constraint". Therefore, in this research, the first approach is acceptable, and in this study, "value-for-money" is acceptable.

Perfectionism or high-quality consciousness: A characteristic that measures the degree to which a consumer searches carefully and systematically for the highest or very best quality in products (Azizi and Makkizadeh, 2012; Mishra, 2010; Sproles and Kendall, 1986; Nayeem and Casidy, 2015; Lotfizadeh, 2013 and Park & Gretezel, 2010). Quality consciousness consumers are not satisfied with good enough products (Tanksale et al. 2014; Radder et al. 2006 and Sproles and Kendall, 1986).

Perfectionism is a trait that impacts a lot of human behaviors, including consumer purchasing decisions. Perfectionism, in psychology, is usually treated as a personality trait (such characteristics can be defined as habitual patterns of action, thought, and emotion) characterized by a person's strive for flawlessness and setting excessively high-performance standards, accompanied by overly critical self-evaluations and concerns regarding assessment by others. Striving for perfectionism in consumption has many facets, ranging from the tendency to perfectly rationalize buying processes and avoiding mistakes by looking for objectively the best products to meet high personal standards as well as standards taken from the family members (Maçik, 2014).

Recreational, hedonistic consciousness: A characteristic measuring the degree to which a consumer finds shopping a fun activity and shops just for the fun of it (Azizi and Makkizadeh, 2012; Mishra, 2010; Sproles and Kendall, 1986; Lotfizadeh, 2013 and Radder et al. 2006). According to Babin, Darden, & Griffen (1994). Recreational shoppers derive hedonic value and entertainment benefits from shopping (Park & Gretezel, 2010 and Maggioniet al, 2019). Furthermore, these consumers place greater importance on the sensory aspects of purchasing experience (Maggioniet al, 2019). According to Maynes (1974), for some consumers, shopping is entertaining, without giving much thought to whether they are getting the best value or the best price. These consumers also use shopping as a means of social networking and access to an enjoyable environment (Azizi and Makkizadeh, 2012).

Sustainability Consciousness: According to Carter and Easton (2011), many companies are noticing the impact of sustainability on their competitive position. It is in many ways a license to do business in the twenty-first century, instead of a prominent temporary concept (Tascioglu, 2014) and according to Mohr, Webb, and Harris (2001), consumers who are satisfied with a company's products and services tend to purchase from a sustainable company (Tascioglu, 2014). The most widely accepted definition of sustainability presented by Brundtland Commission Report (1987): "meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs" (Carvalho et al. 2015; Grinstein and Riefler, 2015; Tascioglu, 2014 and Kostadinova, 2016).

According to Placet et al (2005), the three pillars of sustainability, known as the "Triple Bottom Line", are the cornerstones of what can also be labeled in a marketing mix perspective as the "3Ps": Profit –economic benefits; people – social benefits; and planet – environmental benefits (Carvalho et al, 2015 and Carvalho, 2014).

- **Environmental perspective:** Decades ago, Maloney and Ward (1973) claimed that the effect of man's behavior on the environment is relatively ignored, while the inverse was widely studied (Carvalho et al. 2015). So in this perspective, consumer behaviors that have a positive (or less negative) impact on the environment are examined, and these behaviors, according to Roberts (1993), are called ecologically conscious consumer behaviors (Pepper, Jackson and Uzzel, 2009).

According to Zelezny and Schultz (2000), environmental consciousness, as an element of belief system, refers to specific psychological factors related to individuals' propensity to engage in pro-environmental behaviors (Sharma and Bansal, 2013). Kang and James (2007) define environmental consciousness as: "the degree to which an organization produces a product is advantageous to the natural environment while minimizing negative impacts on the environment" (Khare, 2014). In the marketing literature, in addition to environmental consciousness, there is also ecological consciousness, which has the same definition (for example, see Khare, 2014).

- **Social perspective:** Another much smaller, although rapidly growing, body of research is social conscious consumer behavior that, according to Cowe and Williams (2000), this consumer behavior undertaken with the intention of having a positive (or

less negative) effect on other people, and relates to issues such as labour rights and the impacts of businesses on the communities in which they operate (Pepper et al. 2009). According to Grunert and Juhl (1995), a socially conscious consumer describes a “person who knows that the production, distribution, use, and disposal of products lead to external costs [both within environmental and social contexts], and who evaluates such costs negatively, while trying to minimize them by her/his own behavior (Mulchay, 2004). According to Webster (1975), socially conscious consumers are not likely visible on measures or attend community activities; instead, they are willing to purchase with the sense of responsibility without criticizing what others do (Yilmaz, and Koçoğlu, 2017).

- **Economic perspective:** Businesses should start to understand that there is a very concrete path to increasing productivity and expanding markets if society’s needs were to be recognized as a priority that should be addressed, in detriment to the conventional economic needs (Carvalho et al. 2015 and Carvalho, 2014), and according to Borland (2009), the corporate economic dimension should not dominate the social and environmental ones. The author suggests that these last two dimensions should not take second thoughts or be measured against the economic aspect (Carvalho et al. 2015 and Carvalho, 2014). The economic aspect addresses that the financial needs of the stakeholders (customers, employees, suppliers, investors, etc.) should be met effectively and efficiently (Tascioglu, 2014).

Therefore, sustainability consciousness includes environmental consciousness and social consciousness that exist in marketing literature, but according to the definition of sustainable consciousness by Norwegian Ministry of the Environment (1994), "the use of services and related products which respond to basic needs and bring a better quality of life while minimizing the use of natural resources and toxic materials as well as emissions of waste and pollutants over the life cycle of the service or product so as not to jeopardize the needs of future generations" (Kostadinova, 2016). In this definition, authors clearly speak about health consciousness, also in Sustainability Consciousness Model that was introduced by Carvalho et al. (2015) and Carvalho (2014), one of the dimensions was health issues. So, we can conclude that sustainability consciousness also includes health consciousness.

Health consciousness: Jayanti and Burns (1998), explained that health consciousness is the degree to which health concern is integrated into consumer’s lifestyle and daily activities (kumalasari & sjafei, 2011 and kanyak & eksi, 2011). They also distinguished health consciousness from health motivation. Health motivation refers to the internal characteristic of a person, while health consciousness refers to the external aspect of how a person is taking care of his/her health. A person who is categorized as health-conscious is more likely to undertake preventive health-behaviors such as reading the ingredients of the food, eating nutritious food, including concern about calorie information, and exercising regularly (kumalasari & sjafei, 2011).

Self-consciousness: According to Doherty & Schlenker (1991), self-consciousness refers to the tendency to direct attention to self-related aspects either inward or outward (Shim et al. 2016). The higher the consciousness of the self, the more likely the individual will take actions to create and maintain a positive and desirable self-image (Giovannini et al. 2015).

James (1890) asserted that self-consciousness consists of three components: the material self, the social self, and the spiritual self. Contemporary researchers have paid the most attention to the social (public) and mental (private) aspects of people (Fenigstein, 1987 and lee and Workman, 2014). Nasby (1989) argued that private and public self-consciousness are not polar anchors of a continuum (lee and Workman, 2014). According to Nasby (1989), public self-consciousness concerns the general components or aspects of self-schema, while private self-consciousness is about its individual parts (Sun et al. 2009).

Status consciousness: according to O’Cass and Frost (2002), status consciousness is seen as the motivation to gain social prestige from the acquisition of products that communicate status (O’Cass and Siahtiri, 2014). By comparing this definition with statements of Nia and Zaichkowsky (2000), “individuals who have high public self-consciousness tend to be sensitive to fashion and physical appearances, are interested in gaining others’ approval, compliant with social norms, and concerned with interpersonal rejection. As such, highly public self-conscious individuals seem to be actively aware of how others perceive them, especially when it comes to a favorable public image or appearance, or loss of face” (Lee and Workman, 2014), it can be said that status consciousness is also a kind of public self-consciousness, except that it emphasizes the consumption of prestige and luxury goods.

Image consciousness: according to Silvera et al. (2008) and Xu (2007), image consciousness is the perception that social approval can fill the lack of self-esteem within individuals (Nga et al. 2014). The social pressure to portray the desired social status may drive image-conscious individuals into patronizing the latest trends in fashion and lifestyle. The aggressiveness of media and brand advertising has also driven young individuals to be self-indulgent in consumption (Nga et al. 2014). So this kind of consciousness is also a kind of public self-consciousness.

Face consciousness: according to Ting-Toomey & Kurogi (1998), face reflects social self-esteem and the desire to be respected in social contexts (Liao and Wang, 2009) and according to Wong & Ahuvia (1998), it encompasses much of people’s social needs rather than their private needs (Liao and Wang, 2009 and Chen et al. 2014). According to Ting-Toomey & Kurogi (1998), face refers to a sense of favorable social self-worth that an individual wants others to have of him or her in a relational and network context. As social beings, most of us have face-related experiences such as blushing and feeling embarrassed, awkward, shameful, or proud. On the one hand, we try to maintain or to enhance our faces. On the other hand, when our social poise is attacked or teased, we try to defend or save our faces. Losing face, saving face, and enhancing face are some of the critical concerns in face-related issues such as face negotiation (Bao, Zheng Zhou & Su, 2003). Thus, face consciousness is defined as people’s desire to enhance, to maintain, and to avoid losing face about significant others in social activities (Bao et al. 2003, Chen et al. 2014 and Zhang & Wang, 2019). So comparing with the definitions of public self-consciousness, face consciousness can be considered as the equivalent to public self-consciousness.

Therefore, the dimensions of consumer consciousness include brand consciousness, fashion consciousness, sustainability consciousness, self-consciousness, price consciousness, quality consciousness, and hedonistic consciousness.

The effect of consumer consciousness on willingness to buy domestic products

In recent years, as the number of international brands increased, competition among brands has become more complicated. As a result, many international brands compete with older local brands, and this is more prevalent in emerging markets such as Turkey [and Iran]. Consumers in developing markets possess various intentions for purchasing different products [and local products] (Akagun Ergin & Ozdemir Akbay, 2010).

The result of a study by Shan Ding (2013), revealed that for those Chinese consumers that have a preference for foreign products, quality and design are the main two reasons, but according to Nguyen et al. (2008), conventional wisdom suggests that consumers choose imported products based on their superior quality. However, in some cases, consumers prefer imported products, whose conditions are not excellent, over local products (Nguyen et al. 2008) and there must be other reasons.

Since it appears that brand consciousness, quality consciousness, and health consciousness are becoming increasingly more crucial for Iranian consumers and domestic products have a

competitive advantage in terms of price, researchers in this study examine consumers' consciousness as the reason for these choices.

In the marketing literature, researchers have already done researches about the impact of consumer consciousness dimensions on the willingness to buy. For example, Wang and Hui (2004) argue that the consumers' preference to purchase foreign or local brands depends on their decision-making styles (Wanninayake and Bandara, 2014). The findings of Wanninayake and Bandara (2014) revealed that seven decision-making styles appear among Czech customers, and fashion-consciousness, recreational orientation, impulsiveness, and price-consciousness of customers show a direct relationship with the bias toward domestic brands, and the result of Wang, Y.M. Siu & S.Y. Hui (2004), revealed that consumers who prefer to buy imported brand clothing tend to have a unique lifestyle and shopping orientation. Interestingly, they are not necessarily from the highest income group, but they are big spenders on clothing and are willing to pay higher prices for the brand, quality, and image. Their hedonistic orientation and fashion consciousness lead them to prefer imported brands of clothing. They are also more brand loyal, brand conscious, and quality conscious.

Kucukemiroglu (1999), found that Turkish consumers who are very family concerned and community-oriented are more ethnocentric, indicating that these consumers would most likely prefer purchasing domestic products, and the less ethnocentric Turkish consumers are more fashion conscious. Kavak and Gumusluoglu (2006), in their study, found that among the 13 lifestyle dimensions, only four were correlated with the intention to purchase domestic or ethnic cuisine. Health-conscious, craftsman-like and cost-conscious respondents intended to buy local products, and fashion-conscious respondents preferred the ethnic cuisines. Khan and Nasr (2012), found that the leadership-oriented and brand-conscious consumers and those who shop in non-conventional ways are more inclined towards the purchase of imported products. The findings also reveal that the younger generation is more inclined towards the purchase of imported products because they are brand and fashion consciousness and desire to be socially accepted. The result of a study by He et al. (2010) revealed that price-conscious consumers showed positive attitudes toward relatively inexpensive local brands and cheap counterfeits as well. On the contrary, they neither equated luxury goods with a daily-use device having sufficient functions nor agreed on their symbolic value as a means to improve one's social identity. Also, the result showed that public-interest oriented consumers (or social consciousness consumer) rejected foreign brands.

The result of a study by Carvalho (2014) revealed that being local (or national) was one of the main characteristics that a product should have to be able to be considered sustainable, as buying domestic implies a sense of contributing positively to solving the economic crisis.

The results of a study by Sarmad (2015) showed that brand conscious and perceived quality have a positive impact on multinational apparel brands.

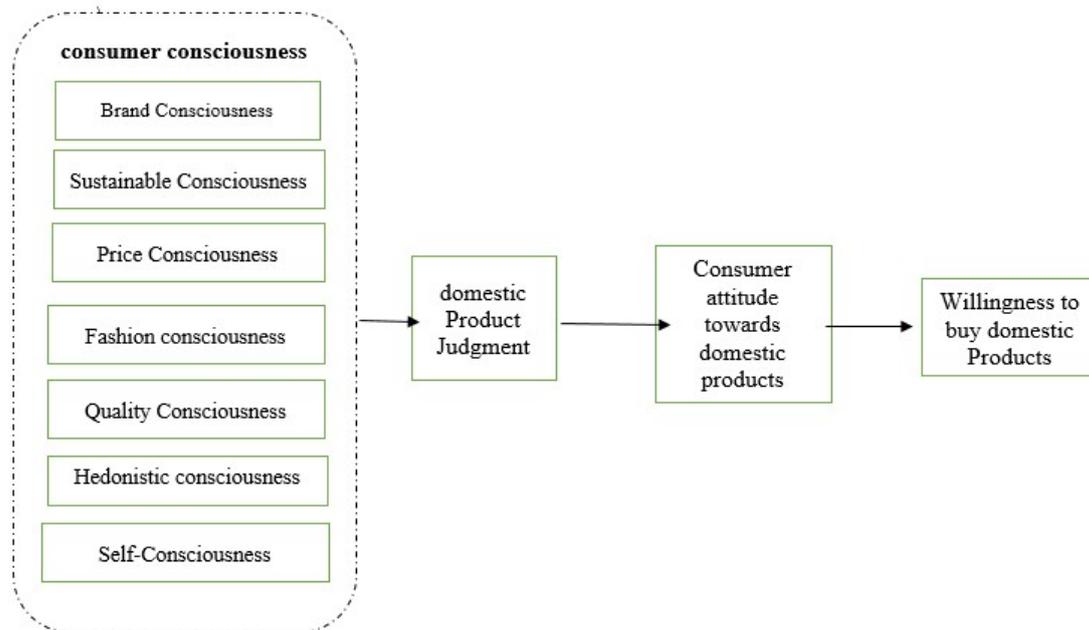
Lee et al. (2008), found that among Mexican college students, brand consciousness is positively related to emotional value, but not to the perceived quality of a US brand. Emotional value positively influences purchase intention toward a US brand, while perceived quality negatively influences purchase intention.

There are also several variables that modify the relationship between consumer consciousness and willingness to buy domestic products. In this regard, Nguyen et al. (2008) state that thanks to the trade liberalization and globalization [and being conscious], the customer always has information and considers carefully before buying domestic products or foreign products (Nguyen et al. 2008). In fact, the positive or negative evaluating of foreign products plays an essential role in their purchase and should not be denied.

Attitude is considered as a forepart of behavior, and according to Javalgi et al. (2005), attitude would not be necessary to marketers if it had not been shown to have influence on the final step a consumer takes- the purchase. According to Yoo, Donthu & Lee (2000), usually

attitude will affect buying intention before it affects the investments (Turkestani, Dehdashti Shahrokh and Bakhshande, 2015) and according to Brodowsky (2006), attitude is an appropriate concept for predicting real shopping behavior (Turkestani et al. 2015).

Figure 1: Research model based on literature review



Methodology

Given that this study is a mixed approach of two parts: quantitative and qualitative, and relies on qualitative data, it seeks to present a new model for domestic product preference to fill in the theoretical gaps present in literature.

In the first stage, by reviewing the research literature, we put forward the initial research model. Therefore, the research model based on the literature review is as Figure 1.

In the second phase of the study, an in-depth semi-structured interview is used. To do so, we held 16 meetings with experts. These experts include both academic experts and industry experts. At first, interviews were conducted with four academic experts that specialized in international marketing or in the beverage industry and then we interviewed the rest of the sample (sales managers or marketing managers of beverage companies in Iran); In this way, as long as the data is collected, the researcher will reach the saturation point, where the newly collected information is not the same as the data previously collected one, and the same is true. Lincoln & Guba (1985), state that in a carefully guided study, it is possible to reach a saturation point of about 12 participants, and probably not more than 20. In this study, after interviewing 14 contributors, no new information was obtained, and we can say that we reached the saturation point. The profile of interviewees is presented in Table 1.

To analyze the qualitative data and extract codes we used two methods, i.e. heuristic conceptual content analysis and conceptual content analysis. The responses of the participants were recorded and then explored by the researcher to reveal explicit codes (those that were explicitly stated by the interviewees) and hidden (those that were not explicitly stated and should be determined based on the research literature). Then the identified codes were conceptually linked into similar and conceptual classes and based on this information the model from the qualitative phase is presented.

Table 1. The profile of interviewers

	Gender	Organizational position	Company (brand)
1	Male	Sales Manager	Pakdis (Sundis)
2	Male	Marketing manager	Pakdis (Sundis)
3	Female	Ph.D. student in Marketing and Tehran Sales Manager	Pakdis (Sundis)
4	Male	Regional Sales Manager	Raheb Industrial Group (Orangina)
5	Female	Sales Manager	Dairy Company Ehsan Sepideh Nahavand (SBI)
6	Male	Sales Manager	Orumnarin (Shadlee)
7	Male	Sales Manager	Parng Navin Gitti (Her Mood)
8	Male	Sales Manager	Big Bair Office of Iran
9	Male	Marketing Manager	Nooshineh Agro-Industrial (Golshan)
10	Male	Sales Manager	Mihan food (Fruit Land)
11	Male	Marketing Manager	Nooshiran (Ananab and Rima)
12	Male	Marketing Manager	Sarma Sanj Pars (Majo)
13	Female	Marketing Manager	Takdaneh Agro-industrial (Takdaneh)
14	Male	Secretary of the Iranian Juice and Drinking Association	_____
15	Male	Ph.D. in International Marketing and Researcher in International Marketing	_____
16	Male	Ph.D. in business management and Marketing Consultant	_____

Finally, in the final model we matched the derived model from the qualitative period with the research literature.

Results

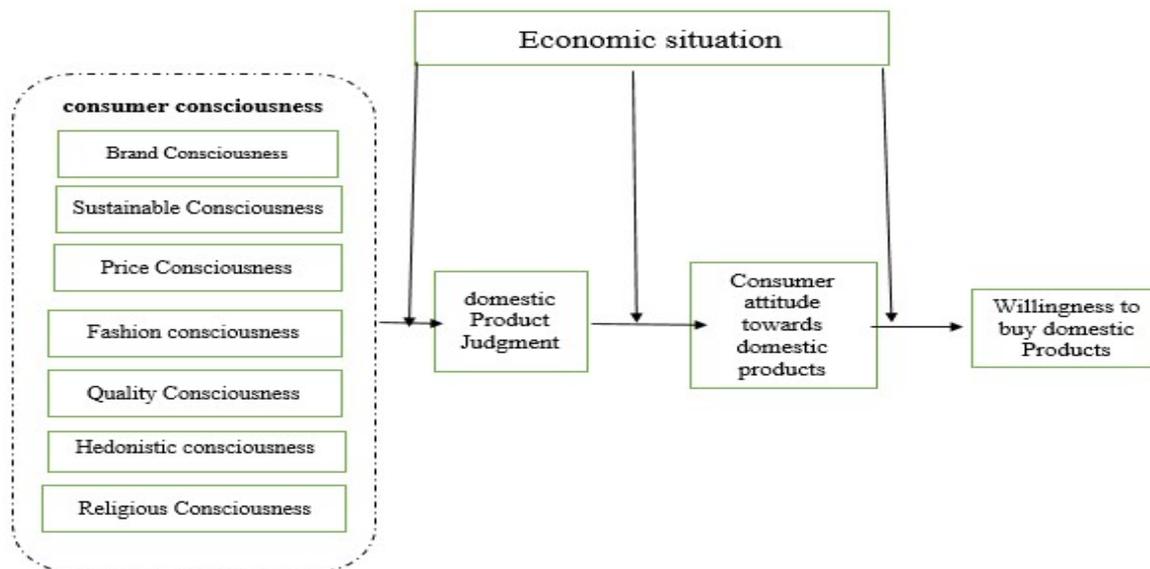
The model derived from the first phase of the study is shown in Figure 1. After doing the semi-structured interviews, through analyzing and coding the gathered information, the effect of each of the research variables on willingness to buy domestic products was investigated. In this regard, the majority of experts believed that self- consciousness and social consciousness did not affect the willingness to buy domestic products but thought that religious values [religious consciousness] and economic situation had an impact on willingness to buy domestic products. A detailed review of experts' opinions in terms of analyzing the content of interviews is presented in Table 2. The numbers in the table are numbers of repeating reviews by experts.

Table 2. The variables affecting the willingness to buy a domestic product

variables	Frequency
Quality Consciousness	14
Health Consciousness (Sustainable Consciousness)	13
Price Consciousness	12
Brand Consciousness	10
Environmental consciousness (Sustainable Consciousness)	8
Hedonistic consciousness	8
Economic situation	6
Fashion consciousness	6
Religious values [religious conscious]	5
Self- consciousness	2
Social Consciousness (Sustainable Consciousness)	2

Therefore, the model resulting from the qualitative phase of research will be as Fig. 2

Figure 2. Research model based on the qualitative phase of research



As shown in the results, economic status and religious consciousness were added to the model and self- consciousness and social consciousness were removed from the model. Finally, a model derived from the qualitative phase should be matched with the research literature. In the next section, we will check them in the writing of research:

According to Mokhlis (2006), religion is an important cultural factor to study because it is one of the most universal and influential social institutions that have significant influence on people’s attitudes, values and behaviors at both the individual and societal levels (Farrag & Hassan, 2015 & Lotfizadeh, 2013), and among the religions Islam is critical, since according to Mouly Potluri et al. (2017), Islam is not just a mere religion. It is the way of life with rules and manners governing every facet of life. The Qur’ān and the traditions of Prophet Muhammad proffer us guidance for fulfillment of the life here and hereafter (Mouly Potluri et al. 2017), For instance, in the Quranic verse, Al Isra’:26-27, Allah commands Muslims not to consume or spend extravagantly, but to spend in the way of Allah (Alam, Mohd and Hisham, 2011). Some other guidance that has been provided by Islam is how and what to trade, how to interact with others and what can be consumed. Eating and drinking are strictly followed according to the Islamic rules in everyday life of the Muslim societies (Alam et al. 2011 and Lotfizadeh, 2013) or according to Mokhlis (2010), “religious traditions may directly influence various aspects of the choice behavior of its followers by the rules and taboos it imposes. Obvious examples are the importance of fasting and feasting for patterns of food purchases, beliefs in taboos against certain clothing styles and activities of women, practices of personal hygiene related to purchases of toiletries and cosmetics and influences on housing and entertainment patterns. Less obvious is the influence of religion on the consumption of goods and services that are not directly restricted by religious laws” (Lotfizadeh, 2013); therefore, we can say that religious and religious values affect consumer behaviors.

Mokhlis (2006) found that individuals with higher religiosity were less likely to make impulsive purchase decisions and had a higher concern for price and quality than individuals with less religiosity (Islam & Chandrasekaran, 2016). Wilson and Liu (2011) stated that the

halal conscious Muslim consumers are risk-averse, which leads to high involvement behavioral traits (Islam & Chandrasekaran, 2016).

So it seems that consumers should be conscious in terms of religion and religious values. According to Mouly Potluri et al. (2017), the investigation about Islamic marketing concepts, halal and more specifically, aspects pertaining to Islamic consumer behavior are still in their infancy. Though, the broader inferences that are connected with halal and its awareness levels to permeate other research areas should not be overlooked.

In the research literature, there was no research on religious consciousness but Mouly Potluri et al. (2017), conducted a study with the title of “A crystallized exposition on Indian Muslims’ attitude and consciousness towards halal” and the results of the study showed that two classes of respondents [general Muslims and Muslim students] that were studied, lacking in the exact ken of halal and they are ready to gain more information on the concept. In that research, awareness of the halal is considered equal to the consciousness of the halal, while awareness differs from consciousness. The Concise Oxford English Dictionary (2004), defines awareness as “having knowledge or perception of a situation or fact” (D.B. Motale, L. Bevan-Dye & de Klerk, 2014) but according to Michaelidou and Dibb (2008), consciousness consists of centrality, commitment, and importance that distinguishes it from awareness. Also, this research was only about halal and did not mention other important factors affecting Islamic consumer behavior.

Regarding the economic situation, according to Lotfizadeh (2013), “religious beliefs influence the consumer choice of distributing income for alternative usages”, Bahmani (2012), concluded that lower-income individuals tended to buy domestic products, based on Wang et al. (2004), consumers who prefer to buy imported brand clothing are not necessarily from the highest income group, but they are big spenders on clothing.

Discussion

The globalization and liberalization in trade enable goods to spread and become available around the world’s markets. The consumer always has to choose between domestic products or foreign products. As a result, companies have to make a great effort to assist customers in making their purchase decisions on their products. Governments try to encourage people around the world to buy products that are made in their own countries. Thus, it is essential to know what and how the customer’s willingness to buy is influenced (Nguyen et al. 2008).

Many factors affect willingness to buy domestic goods, as previously mentioned, these factors are divided into two categories, the first is a logical information processing model and the other is the emotional information processing model. The emotional information processing model has been the subject of much discussion, for example consumer ethnocentrism (Nguyen et al, 2008 and Shan Ding, 2013), consumer cosmopolitanism (Parts and Vida, 2013), consumer xenocentrism (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2016) consumer animosity (Nguyen et al, 2008; Shan Ding, 2013), and etc. However, in this research, we will use the logical information processing model. So the purpose of this study was to design a model of consumer’s willingness to buy local products, to explain the effect of consumer consciousness.

The study was conducted in three-phases. In the first phase, by reviewing research literature, the initial research model was obtained. In this model, consumer consciousness consisted of brand consciousness, fashion consciousness, sustainability consciousness, self-consciousness, price consciousness, quality consciousness, and hedonistic consciousness. It should be noted that sustainability consciousness includes health consciousness, social consciousness, and environmental consciousness. Also, status consciousness, image consciousness, and face consciousness overlap with self-consciousness. Further, in the initial model, the impact of consumer consciousness on the willingness to buy domestic products is moderated by domestic product judgment and attitude toward the domestic product.

In the second phase, experts' viewpoints used and through a qualitative methodology, and the tools related to this methodology, such as in-depth interviews, the model derived from the first phase was completed, i.e. economic status and religious conscious were added to the model and self-conscious and social conscious removed from the model, literature review in the third phase confirmed the model derived from the qualitative phase.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to design a model of consumer willingness to buy domestic products, to explain the effect of consumer consciousness. Consumer consciousness affects consumer decision making in tow ways, firstly, it may increase the objectivity of the product evaluation; that is, products are not blindly evaluated but rather evaluated on the basis of merit. And secondly, consciousness can accelerate consumer decision-making because it may shorten the search phase of gathering the information needed for decision-making. In this respect, the consumer is regarded as the person who searches for or receives information about the products for his or her survival, and the processing of this information leads to creating a favorable attitude, and a favorable attitude leads to actual purchase (Makanyeza, 2014). Therefore, it can be expected that consciousness will have a positive effect on the attitude toward products and actual purchase. The results of this study support the findings of earlier studies on the influence of consumer consciousness, domestic product judgment, attitude toward domestic product and economic status on consumer willingness to buy domestic products.

In the final model, self- conscious and social conscious were removed. Considering that this model is for the beverage industry, a lack of self-consciousness is not strange. The beverage is a fast-moving product and could not create and maintain a positive and desirable self-image. This is also true for social consciousness .An additional contribution of this study is the introduction of religious consciousness, here, Islam. In past researches, evidence of religious consciousness (in Islam) were mentioned, for example halal (Mouly Potluri et al. 2017), fatwa (Hadidi, Hadidi Zavareh & Doshmanziari, 2017) and boycott (Al-Hyari et al. 2012). According to statistics, more than 99 percent of Iranians are Muslims, and between 90-95 percent of them are Shia. For Shias, the words of Ayatollah Khamenei are significant and they follow his words.

Due to the importance of domestic goods preference, Ayatollah Khamenei has commented on this issue and explained the general policies of the “resistance economy”, and in resistance economy’s policies, concerning the preference of domestic goods, there are cases mentioned, for example, one of these policies is as follows :“Consumption management which emphasizes the implementation of general policies for the reform of consumption patterns and the promotion of consumption of domestic goods along with planning for promoting quality and competitiveness in production” (Hadidi Zavareh, & Doshmanziari, 2017). Therefore, the importance of religious issues in the preference of domestic goods in Iran is increasing and producers and marketers should consider value and religious matters in such societies.

In the present study, only Muslims were studied. The inclusion of followers from other major religions like Christian, Jewish, etc. will further help to draw generalization regarding the result of this study. The study can also be conducted in other industries like automobile manufacturing and home appliances to make better generalizations.

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