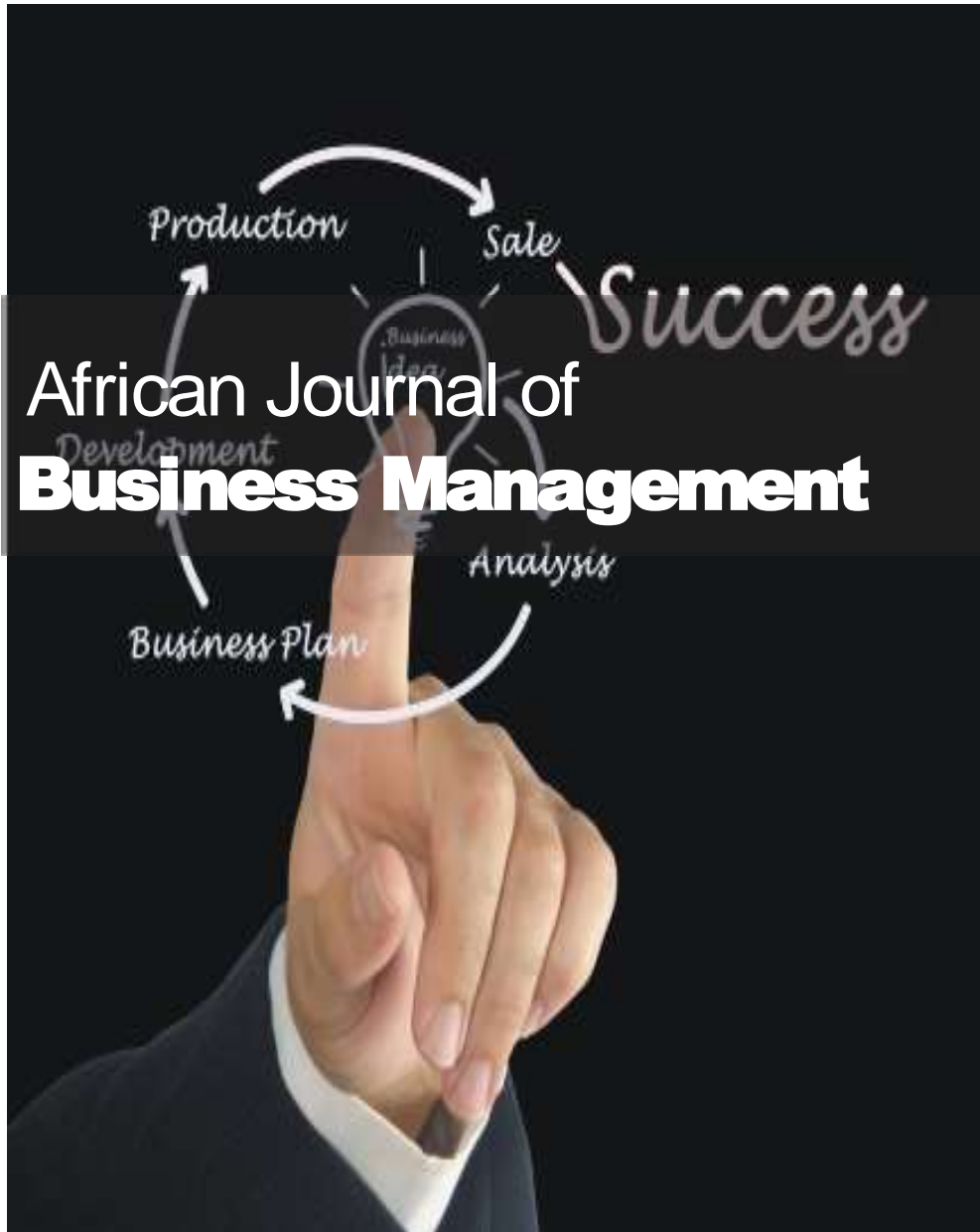


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Full Length Research Paper

The influence of ethnocentrism and Halal trust on attitudes toward products from non-Muslim countries: A study of Moroccan consumers

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Several studies show that the consumer ethnocentrism is capable of influencing consumption patterns both in terms of negative impact on consumer attitudes toward foreign products and positive influence on the intention to purchase domestic offers. The study extends the investigation of this research area toward Muslim countries, analysing the impact of interactions between consumer ethnocentrism and halal trust on the use of country image components, as well as the propensity to consume halal products from non-Muslim countries. The analytical framework was tested through an empirical study conducted on a sample of Moroccan consumers, called to evaluate Made in Italy Halal products. The findings contribute to advancing the theory and empirical studies on consumer ethnocentrism in a cross-cultural perspective. Moreover, the results can support international companies to design effective marketing strategies capable of exploiting the potential of emerging Muslim countries.

Key words: Ethnocentrism, general country image, Halal trust, product beliefs, product receptivity.

INTRODUCTION

During the past few decades, many articles have dealt with the role of product-country images (PCI) in consumer behaviour, emphasising the role of country-of-origin (COO) on consumer perceptions of foreign products (Manrai and Manrai, 1995; Demirbag et al., 2010). This growing interest is due to the competitive pressures that foreign firms must cope with in different parts of the world. The global marketplace has allowed companies to easily access many customers from a wide range of international markets. In developed countries, businesses search for new markets, namely emerging

countries, since their domestic markets are mature and saturated because of high competition. Emerging economies are often characterised by very different cultural, social and religious norms, thus requiring careful assessment of consumer perceptions about the receptivity of foreign products (Kaeeni, 2014).

Accordingly, researchers have intensively examined the effect of country-of-origin both on judgements made regarding product beliefs (Nagashima, 1970; Parameswaran and Pisharodi, 1994; Papadopoulos and Heslop (2000) and purchasing behaviour (Ettenson,

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1993). Studies suggest that consumers in developed markets prefer products manufactured in their home country (Bilkey and Nes, 1982). Similarly, research has found that products from culturally similar countries, in contrast to those from countries perceived as culturally divergent, are preferred (Watson and Wright, 2000). A relevant cultural dimension that may explain these effects is consumer ethnocentrism, interpreted as the consumer's belief that it is right, or rather morally appropriate, to prefer products from their home country rather than goods coming from foreign ones (Lantz and Loeb, 1996; Sharma et al., 1995; Shimp and Sharma, 1987). The relevance of this topic is also testified to by increasing attempts recently at investigating behavioural patterns of consumers in cross-national settings. Kaynak and Kara (2002), for example, emphasised the need to widen the area of investigation to include emerging countries such as Turkey or Latin America. Despite the vast literature on this topic, studies have so far focused their attention on limited geographic areas, mainly in developed countries (USA, Canada, Europe), neglecting Muslim countries (El-Omari, 2008). This condition has had a clear impact on the cross-national validation of theoretical assumptions related to the wide phenomenology of the country-of-origin effect. Moreover, recent studies have also highlighted the feelings of hostility of consumers across Muslim countries toward US and European products (Tabassi et al., 2012; Leong et al., 2008; Rose et al., 2008). It has been acknowledged that consumers make rational decisions about products by comparing attributes of the products (Ahmed et al., 2013).

However, emotions, above all when linked to cultural issues, play an incisive role in consumer perception and purchase of foreign products, as demonstrated by previous studies (De Nisco et al., 2016; Maherswaran, 2006). Although religion has always played a key role in consumer behaviour studies, religion itself and its influences have been perceived as a sort of banned subject matter in marketing areas (Hirschman, 1983; Kaynak and Eksi, 2011). Nonetheless, there is still a dearth of investigation about the influence of religion on the consumer decision making process. Only a few studies in the literature on country-of-origin effects have investigated the potential influences exerted by religiosity and ethnic-religious certifications on the country image components of foreign nations (Asgari, 2015; Haque et al., 2011). An example in this sense is the Halal certification, which certifies the compliance of some types of products (food, toiletries, fashion, pharmaceuticals, cosmetics and services) with the Islamic doctrine.

The Arabic word "Halal" means lawful, and it is associated with everything that is in conformity with the Shariah, the sacred law of Islam. Considering that currently the Muslim population constitutes about 25% of the world population (1.65 billion), and that in 2030 it will reach 2.2 billion, it is clear that the issue of Halal

certification cannot be underestimated. Promoting Halal products to foreign markets can be considered an innovation especially for non-Muslim countries, but it increasingly requires the activation of proper international marketing strategies (Pew, 2015; Lada et al., 2009). Therefore, there are still some open questions. Are Halal brands from non-Muslim countries reliable? To what extent can the positive image of the foreign country assure the Muslim consumer? The scarcity of theory-driven research on behavioural relationships between Halal trust, purchase intentions and country image calls for further research investigations (Abdul and Chok, 2012; Zainalabidin et al., 2008).

Following this perspective, the purpose of the present study is to widen the knowledge on consumer ethnocentrism through the proposal and empirical verification of a research model aimed at evaluating the influences exerted by consumer ethnocentrism and Halal trust on the use of country image components by Muslim consumers. More specifically, the paper aims at examining how the interaction between Halal certification and ethnocentric tendencies can impact the foreign product-country image and the consumption of Halal products from non-Muslim countries.

As highlighted earlier, although consumer ethnocentrism is a well-developed research subject, some gaps emerge from the literature review, thus guiding the goals of this study. First, although the main studies on ethnocentrism have analysed consumer perceptions of foreign products and readiness to buy them as dependent variables, this research also contemplates the influence on the general country image of a foreign country. Second, recent studies acknowledge that country-of-origin can impact the purchase of Halal products (Borzooei and Asgari, 2015). However, no prior research has empirically examined consumer ethnocentrism as an antecedent of Halal trust. The present study delivers a framework aimed at clarifying the relationships between the two constructs and their influence on intentions to buy Halal products from non-Muslim countries. Furthermore, we also test the indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism through Halal trust on the receptivity of Halal products.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Globalisation has allowed companies to transfer their products all over the world, thereby giving customers the chance to choose from a great variety of products and services. Sometimes, due to poor product adaptation, consumers find it difficult and expensive to gain extra information on foreign product quality and on the reputation of foreign firms. This may push international consumers to reject foreign products for not being adequately familiar (Tabassi et al., 2012). Country-of-origin may act as a rescue anchor when

evaluating foreign products and firms. An abundant literature on the country-of-origin effect (Bannister and Saunders, 1978; Tan and Farley, 1987; Papadopoulos et al., 2013) seems to leave no doubt that the country-of-origin of a product represents an extrinsic cue, on a par with price and brand, capable of influencing the perceptions and behaviour of foreign consumers.

Positive emotions and sympathy aroused by a specific country may reduce the risk associated with the purchase of a specific product or brand. Consequently, consumer purchase intentions are in some way prejudiced by perceptions and emotional factors. However, when consumers are exposed to products from a certain country, they usually correlate them with certain memories and feelings concerning both the foreign country and their attachment to their own culture of origin (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Matarazzo et al., 2016). Therefore, elements such as religiosity, animosity and ethnocentrism are components of consumer emotions capable of affecting product purchases (Ahmed et al., 2013).

Consumer ethnocentrism is a dimension that can explain the preference for domestic products and the refusal to buy foreign ones. It may be interpreted as the set of normative beliefs that buying national products is more helpful to the national economy than purchasing imported goods (Luque-Martinez et al., 2000). The literature on consumer ethnocentrism shows that consumers who display high ethnocentrism express unreasonably favourable evaluations of domestic products in comparison with imported ones (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Laroche et al., 2005; Shankarmahesh, 2006). Hence, studies in this field have demonstrated that ethnocentric consumers formulate negative judgments regarding foreign product quality and advertisements of foreign companies, and they also display negative attitudes toward buying foreign products. Positive connections are instead evident with respect to the preference for domestic goods and the willingness to purchase them. Animosity, instead, embodies feelings of hostility and anger toward a country due to economic, political or military tensions (Klein et al., 1998: 90). Unlike consumer ethnocentrism, past studies have shown that animosity may impact behavioural intentions but not foreign product judgements. Moreover, the related literature emphasises the importance of religion and ethnicity for social identity and individual preferences. For example, Ahmed et al. (2013) highlighted the importance of investigating the role played by consumer ethnocentrism in multi-cultural countries like Malaysia, where ethnocentric tendencies may be more affected by religious issues. Religion is a powerful factor in shaping consumption decisions. Past evidence has shown that religion influences consumer attitudes and behaviour in general (Pettinger et al., 2004), together with food purchasing decisions (Rezai et al., 2012) and eating customs (Mullen et al., 2000; Just et al., 2007). Few authors, like Essoo and Dibb (2004)

have fully recognised its role in consumer behaviour studies by clarifying its impact on consumer attitudes toward particular products and services. Moreover, Huneke (2005) investigated the role of religion and spirituality in producing anti-consumption behaviour associated with a desire to simplify routines.

The impact of religion on consumer behaviour depends on the extent to which individuals observe the teachings of their own religion. In this sense, Islam is a doctrine that globally permeates the way of life through rules and practices constructed around five principles (witnessing, prayer, charity, fasting, and pilgrimage) that every Muslim must follow. Islam proposes a system of life called *Sharia'h*, the Islamic law which guides Muslims in every aspect of their life. According to Islamic doctrine, activities and relations should comply with the constraints of "Halal" and "Haram" as set forth in the Islamic Shariah. Halal items refer to permitted actions and consumptions whereas Haram indicates forbidden behaviours and consumptions; thus, Muslim consumption behaviour is subject to prohibited and allowed activities and products (Golzaz et al., 2012a). As a result, the use and consumption of products and services are guided by the presence of the Halal logo, as this sign ensures the conformity to and the respect of Shariah law. Halal certification has become a standard in Islamic countries. Halal labelling can create a distinctive product positioning compared to its non-Halal alternatives by helping Muslim consumers in their choice of products and services.

Following this perspective, the Islamic marketing literature has devoted great attention to the Halal issue, focusing on the Halal market features (Boroeei and Asgari, 2014), the Halal supply chain (Tienam, 2011), Halal certification (Shafie and Othman, 2006), Halal branding (Boroeei and Asgari, 2013), and the non-Muslim perception of Halal (Golzaz et al., 2012b). Recently, some researchers have investigated Muslim consumers' acceptance of different categories of Halal-labelled products and their alternatives in the market (Ali, 2012). For example, Alserhan (2010a, 2010b) stated that Shariah-compliance (certification by an Islamic authority) and Muslim markets as a target audience are two necessary requirements of a Halal brand, along with the country of origin. From this standpoint, Shariah-compliant products made in a Muslim majority country and addressed to a Muslim audience can be classified as a "true Halal brand" whereas such a product coming from a non-Muslim country is considered as an "inbound Halal brand" (Ali, 2014). Research shows that some Muslim consumers may express doubts about the trustworthiness and authenticity of the Halal certification from non-Muslim majority countries. The juxtaposition between a "true" and "assumed" Halal brand may inexorably generate a different persuasive role for the Halal logo. This issue has become increasingly relevant due to the growing importance of international trade, which has allowed non-Muslim

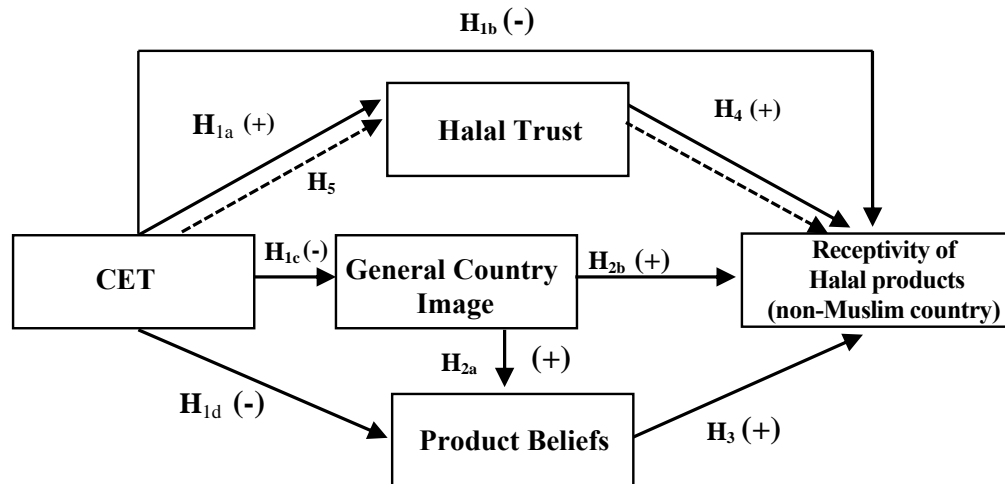


Figure 1. Conceptual model and hypothesised relationships.

countries to gain positions in the Halal global market. Despite the seeming relevance of such issues, empirical studies that investigate the impact of culture, religion and country image on consumer responses toward foreign products are still inadequate.

The present study contributes to this call for research by examining, from a unitary perspective, the relations existing simultaneously among consumer ethnocentrism, Halal trust, country image and behavioural intentions.

From the theoretical point of view, the research model proposed in this study integrates common issues, drawing from three streams of research: consumer ethnocentrism (CET) (Sharma, 2014; Shankarmahesh, 2006; Klein, 2002; Balabanis et al., 2001; Shimp and Sharma, 1987), Halal trust (Hanzaee and Ramezani, 2011; Zainalabidin et al., 2008), and product-country images (Knight and Calantone, 2000; Laroche et al., 2005; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999), which have dealt more extensively with the effect of product-country images on consumer behaviour. The model builds on studies on the influences of consumer ethnocentrism and Halal trust, and their interactions, on judgements and intentions to buy foreign products from countries with different religious beliefs. The structure of the model is as shown in Figure 1. The main assumption is that consumer ethnocentrism has a positive influence on Halal trust, while negatively affecting general country image, product beliefs and the receptivity of Halal products (non-Muslim country). Moreover, it is assumed that Halal trust has a positive influence on the receptivity of Halal products (non-Muslim country). Finally, based on the country image studies, it is hypothesised that general country image positively influences both product beliefs and the receptivity of Halal products. Similarly, product beliefs can exert a positive impact on product receptivity.

Through an extensive review of the relevant literature of the main research streams, it was possible to identify the most robust constructs and choose the most suitable ones in terms of theoretical relevance and expected predictive validity. As a result, five constructs have been included in the model:

- (a) *Consumer ethnocentrism (CET)*, defined as the shared judgment about the moral appropriateness of preferring domestic products over goods from foreign countries (Shimp and Sharma, 1987);
- (b) *Halal trust*, interpreted as the tendency of Muslim consumers to rely on Halal certification to make purchases allowed under the principles of Islam (Zainalabidin et al., 2008);
- (c) *General country image*, defined as the set of generalised images associated not only with the most representative productions but also with the degree of economic and political development, historical events, cultural heritage, and the level of technological growth and progress (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009: 727);
- (d) *Product beliefs*, resulting from the cognitive judgments that individuals own with respect to foreign products (Elliot et al., 2011);
- (e) *Product receptivity*, defined as the implicit or explicit propensity to accept foreign goods (Dhar and Kim, 2007).

Influence of consumer ethnocentrism on Halal trust and the receptivity of Halal products (non-Muslim country)

The consumer-specific construct of CET is linked to the main concept of ethnocentrism, interpreted as a tendency of an individual to be ethnically rooted to the point of rejecting everything that is not culturally similar

to the group (country) of origin (Sumner, 1906: 17). The international marketing literature has paid great attention to consumer ethnocentrism (Moon, 2004; Saffu and Walker, 2005), considered as a significant cultural dimension within the broader context of the country-of-origin effect framework capable of moderating product-country image (PCI) effects.

As theorised by Shimp and Sharma (1987), consumer ethnocentrism, or "CET" describes consumer predilection for domestic products not only because such behaviour is judged to be morally right but also because, more importantly, ethnocentric consumers consider those goods to be superior. Such consumers show a physiological aversion to most foreign products. In addition, consumer ethnocentrism focuses on the responsibility and morality of purchasing foreign-made products and the loyalty of consumers toward national production. Ethnocentric consumers believe that purchasing imports is wrong, in part because it is injurious to the economy, causing a loss of jobs in national industries. This danger causes individuals to stop purchasing imported goods and to push other compatriots to do the same (Huddleston, 2001). The construct can, therefore, be considered an antecedent to an aversion to buy foreign products in general. Though the negative impact of CET on intention to buy foreign products is supported by previous studies (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Watson and Wright, 2000; Lantz and Loeb, 1996; Herche, 1992, 1994), some recent empirical investigations have revealed the opposite results. The contribution of knowledge gained in this field has not yet been replicated from a cross-national perspective. In particular, there is still a dearth of research aimed at evaluating whether such ethnocentric influences can also be validated in Muslim countries, characterised by strong links between social behaviours and religious norms. The resurgence of Islam has led to an increased consciousness in Islamic markets on the contents, processes, sources, and other determinants of consumption choices. Consumer choices are strongly influenced by religious devotion. In this sense, Muslim consumers will evaluate buying new products if they do not violate their sacred values (Said et al., 2014). Religious commitment shapes consumption patterns. It can be assumed that a highly devoted person will see the world (other countries and cultures) through religious schemas (Mokhlis, 2006). Recently, Islamic marketing literature has emphasised the understanding of interactions between religiosity and ethnocentrism and their combined effects on the purchasing behaviour of Muslim consumers toward foreign products (Tabassi et al., 2012). Through a survey on Malaysian Muslim consumers, Ahmed et al. (2013) found that religiosity plays a significant role in directly influencing the ethnocentric tendencies of consumers and in indirectly impacting intentions to buy foreign products via animosity. Moreover, a study by Tabassi et al. (2012),

again for the Malaysian market, showed a significant and negative relationship between ethnocentrism and religiosity and Malaysian consumers' intention to buy European products. Therefore, there is quite unanimous agreement that the interactions between religious issues and ethnocentrism may impact the evaluation of and attitudes toward foreign products. However, up to now studies have neglected the evaluation of the role exerted by religious brands, like Halal (Alserhan, 2010a), within the aforementioned framework. It appears evident that such issues need to be further investigated by expanding the action range of ethnocentrism to Halal issues. As already highlighted, Halal can be seen as a quality feature that cannot easily be verified by a consumer prior to purchase. Therefore, consumers must rely only on the reliability of Halal certification in conferring a guiding role to the external elements, namely the Halal logo. In fact, the Halal certification brand enables customers to balance the lack of knowledge and information. Such a condition inevitably calls into play the concept of brand trust, interpreted as feelings of security by the consumer in his/her contacts with the brand, to the point of making the consumer view it as reliable and with confidence in terms of his or her interests and expectations (Munuera-Aleman et al., 2003: 12).

Following this perspective, and considering the growing relevance gained by the Halal certification as a tangible tool capable of directing Muslim consumer choices, we have decided to investigate the potential impact exerted by consumer ethnocentrism on Halal trust, defined as the tendency of Muslim consumers to rely on the Halal logo to make purchases in accordance with the principles of Islam, and by the effects of this on purchasing intentions toward Halal products coming from a non-Muslim country.

Based on these arguments, it was hypothesized that:

H1a: The higher the level of ethnocentric tendencies of consumers, the higher their Halal trust;

H1b: The higher the level of ethnocentric tendencies of consumers, the lower their intention to purchase foreign Halal products.

Influence of consumer ethnocentrism on the evaluation of general country image and product beliefs

Consumer ethnocentrism has a distinctive and unique effect on the evaluation of purchasing intentions. Consumers who judge the purchase of foreign products to be immoral also tend to formulate negative evaluations of the quality of those goods and to evaluate domestic ones more favourably (Han, 1988; John and Brady, 2011; Klein et al., 1998; Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Most empirical studies have focused on the negative influence of CET on different consumer outcomes,

such as purchase intention (Han, 1988), attitudes toward foreign products (Sharma et al., 1995), and the preference to buy domestic products (Olsen et al., 1993) or foreign products (Klein et al., 1998). These relations have been investigated with the help of mediating variables, comprising the perceived quality of the product (Klein et al., 1998) and the national identity, which embodies the feelings of affinity and empathy for employees of national companies (Klein et al., 1998; Shankarmahesh, 2006).

An empirical study by Brodowsky (1998) highlighted that consumers with a low level of ethnocentrism are inclined to use the beliefs related to the image of a foreign country as an "objective" index for the assessment of the choice between domestic and foreign goods. On the contrary, high ethnocentric consumers use the same beliefs to link patriotic implications to their purchasing choices. Through a survey on the Indian market, Haque et al. (2015) found that both ethnocentrism and religiosity can negatively impact the intention to purchase imported products.

However, although these findings have received great attention, supporting the assumption that the country-of-origin effect cannot be examined by neglecting consumer ethnocentrism, later contributions on the subject do not seem to have provided sufficient evidence on the interactions between ethnocentrism, country image and the behaviour regarding consumer purchases. In fact, although past studies have confirmed the negative influence of CET on the evaluation and receptivity of foreign products (Li et al., 2012; Kaynak and Kara, 2002), there is still a dearth of research on whether such ethnocentric feelings can also impact the general reputation of a foreign country. Moreover, as mentioned before, previous research has focused attention on limited geographic areas, mainly located in developed countries (USA, Canada, Europe), neglecting Muslim countries and compromising the cross-national validity of the theoretical assumptions.

Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

H1c: Consumer ethnocentrism negatively influences general country image;

H1d: Consumer ethnocentrism negatively influences product beliefs.

Influence of general country image on the product beliefs and product receptivity of Halal products

The effect of a product's country-of-origin on consumer perceptions is one of the most researched topics within the international marketing literature. Most scholars agree that the image of a country is a set of beliefs, ideas, expectations and emotional feelings a person holds about a specific country. This strand of research has particularly focused on attitudes toward products made in (or associated with) a foreign country on the basis of

a three-dimensional attitude framework (cognitive, affective and conative dimensions) (De Nisco et al., 2016). Past studies have provided reliable empirical evidence that country image may impact perceptions of foreign products and brands (Martin and Eroglu, 1993). With reference to product-country images, in the early 80s Papadopoulos et al. (1988) proposed separate scales for the measurement of country image and product beliefs, confirming the existence of a direct causal link between the two constructs. Such a relation was also demonstrated in subsequent studies (Knight and Colantone, 2000; Heslop et al., 2004; Laroche et al., 2005) which highlighted the moderating roles played by product knowledge and familiarity (Bilkey and Nes, 1982). Therefore, the general country image can be interpreted as a sort of broader (superordinate) level in the perceptive categorization of environmental information processed by the consumer, whereas the image of national (foreign) production may represent a narrower (subordinate) level originating from the main construct (McNamara, 1986).

PCI research shows that origin may influence the evaluation of foreign products considered both in general or with respect to specific categories (Felzensztein and Dinnie, 2008; Chryssochoidis et al., 2007; Piron, 2000; Kaynak et al., 1983). Likewise, origin biases exist for advanced, less advanced and emerging countries (Wang et al., 2012; Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2007; Kaynak et al., 2000) and for both end-users and industrial buyers (Insch, 2003; Dvezer and Quester, 1999; Ahmed and d'Astous, 1993). Furthermore, scholars have also underlined the impact of country image on consumer purchase intentions in general (Kalicharan, 2014) and with respect to specific productive sectors, that is, the fashion industry (Abedniya and Zaeim, 2011; Patterson and Tai, 1991; Parkvithee and Miranda, 2012), luxury products (Aiello et al., 2009), technological devices (Prendergast et al., 2010), and food products (Berry et al., 2015).

Moreover, theoretical contributions from the literature demonstrate that country-of-origin might imply normative connotations related to the fact that the consumer's final decision whether or not to buy products originating from a specific foreign country can be interpreted as a signal in favour or against the politics or actions of a country (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). Recent studies also highlight the importance of religious beliefs in shaping perceptions toward a foreign country and its products (Ahmed et al., 2013). However, the country-of-origin literature has completely neglected the analysis of the impact exerted by country image and product beliefs on intention to buy products from countries showing a different system of religious beliefs. There is a specific lack of research on the effect of country-of-origin on the purchasing of Halal brands (Borzooei and Asgari, 2015). Only a recent study by Rios et al. (2014) has demonstrated that country reputation can impact the trustworthiness and receptivity of Halal

products from Muslim countries. It appears evident that such issues need to be further investigated by expanding the cultural boundaries of the constructs' domains, for example, toward religious certifications, which undoubtedly may represent a necessary guide in the decision-making process of the end-consumers.

Therefore, in the present model, general country image plays a significant role in influencing both the product beliefs and product receptivity of Halal products from a non-Muslim country. In line with the mentioned observations, it was hypothesised that:

H2: General country image has a positive effect on product beliefs (H2a) and on the receptivity of Halal products (non-Muslim country) (H2b).

The effect of Halal trust on the receptivity of Halal products (non-Muslim country)

The Halal logo on products has become a global sign that can reassure devotees, but also customers, in terms of quality assurance and lifestyle needs. As already stated, Halal is usually used to indicate something that a Muslim is allowed to engage in. Muslim consumers are demanding in terms of health and quality products that, at the same time, must conform to Sharia requirements. The Halal religious certification is a typical trust process where consumers expect specific quality characteristics that, however, can hardly be verified or recognised even upon or after consuming the product. Concerning product features, Halal refers to the source, the materials (ingredients) and the processing method, very similar to what occurs with organic food or products, and is equally sensitive to animal welfare and sustainability concerns. These features are not visible and cannot be predetermined by the customer, thereby creating potential quality uncertainty during the pre-purchasing stage. Therefore, consumers must rely on extrinsic cues to compensate for the lack of knowledge (Renazi et al., 2012). Thus, the Halal certification, manifested by the Halal logo, can play a key role in assuring consumers that the product satisfies the necessary requirements to be marked with the certified logo. Previous studies have shown that trust plays a significant influence in shaping consumer behaviour within the Halal food market. A study by Wan Omar et al. (2008) found that marketing-related factors, ingredients and a certified Halal logo have a significant impact on Malaysian consumers' attitudes toward Halal food products.

Recently, the Islamic marketing literature has focused attention on the antecedents behind the intention to buy Halal products, adopting the framework of the theory of planned behaviour (Lada et al., 2009). A recent study by Omar et al. (2012) demonstrated that the planned behaviour theory is a valid model to predict consumer confidence and the intention to choose Halal products.

Except for the study by Omar et al. (2012), in this area there are no empirical studies analysing the effect the trust in Halal certification can exert on the intention to buy Halal products. Although it considers the relationship between confidence and the receptivity of Halal products, the study by Omar et al. (2012) does not provide an integrated framework that highlights the actual role played by Halal trust on the receptivity of Halal products, even considering offers from non-Muslim countries. It is thus hypothesised that:

H4: Halal trust positively influences the receptivity of Halal products (non-Muslim country).

Mediating hypothesis

Consumer perceptions of the quality of a product may be guided by informational cues associated with a brand or a logo (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2010). Consumer trust in what is offered on the marketplace is mainly revealed through their concerns about labels, the certification process that product has to pass, and the use of standards. When seeing a certified label on a product, consumers consider it safer and better in terms of quality and raw materials (Essoussi and Zahaf, 2008). Past studies show that trust in certified logos can act as a mediator between the brand image and consumer choices (Zanoli et al., 2015). Such a mediating role also appears to be significant in the context of religious certifications. For example, with respect to the Halal Muslim certification, consumer trust toward the Halal logo might mediate the perception of Halal certification and intentions to buy (Zakaria et al., 2015). However, research is yet to investigate the potential mediating role of Halal trust between consumer ethnocentrism and the receptivity of Halal products.

Based on these arguments, besides the direct effects of independent consumer ethnocentrism, the present study aims at testing the role of Halal trust in mediating between ethnocentrism and product receptivity of Halal products. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H5: Halal trust mediates the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on the receptivity of Halal products (non-Muslim country)

METHODOLOGY

Sample and procedure

To verify the hypothesised relationships of the model, a survey was carried out on a sample of Moroccan consumers between September and November 2017. This choice was motivated by the willingness to investigate Muslim consumers' perceptions toward a non-Muslim country characterised, however, by a high attractive image for many national products even in Muslim markets. The survey tool was a questionnaire including the following subjects: the trust in Islamic precepts, ethnocentric orientation, perceptions

toward Italy and its products, and consumer attitudes toward Halal products from a non-Muslim country (Italy). The study addressed face validity issue with a panel of Arab culture experts (two Italian Arabic academics and one Moroccan marketing academic) called to assess the clarity of the questions and, above all, the appropriateness of the questions asked. They first evaluated the English version and then the Arabic one. Thanks to this evaluation stage, the questionnaire was revised, with some items being removed and others rephrased to improve the correct translation of meanings. The procedure was completed with the back-translation from the Arabic to the English version.

During the survey, a team of Moroccan interviewers approached more than 500 Moroccan citizens at public places and shopping centres in the cities of Casablanca and Rabat. At the end of the fieldwork we obtained 350 usable responses after removing incomplete questionnaires, representing a response rate of 70%. This size is well above the minimum of 200 observations recommended by Hair et al. (2006) for SEM studies.

A descriptive analysis of the sample showed that it was quite balanced by gender (56% men, 44% women). With respect to the age of the respondents, 9% of the sample was between 15 and 24 years of age, 33% between 25 and 34, 35% between 35 and 44, 17% between 45 and 65, and 6% of the sample exceeded 65 years of age. Most of the interviewees were resident in Casablanca (42%), Rabat (39%), Kenitra (11%), and Temara (8%).

Measures and confirmatory factor analysis

Seven-point Likert scales derived from similar studies (Table 1) have been used in order to evaluate the perceptions of the respondents. Consumer ethnocentrism was measured through a reduced version of the scale proposed by Shimp and Sharma (1987); general country image and product beliefs were operationalised through items provided in a study by Papadopoulos and Heslop (2000) and Elliot et al. (2011); product receptivity was assessed through a seven-point Likert scale built on items provided in a study by Dhar and Kim (2007); and Halal trust was measured based on a study by Zainalabidin et al. (2008).

Following Anderson and Gerbing (1988), the measurement model was first confirmed and then tested. The first step assessed the internal consistency and reliability of measurement scales (Cronbach's alpha, construct reliability and average variance extracted). The main indicators showed satisfactory goodness of fits (Table 1): CFI=0.96 (recommended value ≥ 0.9); AGFI=0.88 (recommended value ≥ 0.8); NFI=0.95 (recommended value ≥ 0.9); and RMSEA=0.07 (recommended value ≤ 0.07).

The test suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Bagozzi and Yi (1981) was used to assess the reliability and validity of measurement scales. As highlighted in Table 1, each scale was close or above the recommended values for Cronbach's Alpha (≥ 0.7), construct reliability (≥ 0.7) and AVE (≥ 0.5). Discriminant validity assessment was established based on the procedure proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981), requiring that AVE for each construct must be greater than the highest squared correlation between all pairs of constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). The results confirmed that discriminant validity was satisfied in this study (Tables 1 and 2).

Finally, to reduce possible common method variance, preliminary solutions were adopted in the questionnaire design stage. First, due to an introductory description of the survey, the questionnaire assured respondents of the anonymity of their replies (Chang et al., 2010). Second, the questionnaire was pre-tested on a small sample of Moroccan respondents to verify the clarity of wording and content validity (Chang et al., 2010). Third, to avoid respondents becoming conscious of the conceptual model, questions related to the dependent and independent variables were not placed close to each other. Finally, the research instrument also comprised

questions on familiarity with Italian products and brands. Through this expedient, respondents could not easily associate items with topics, thus reducing the chance of generating the correlation needed to produce a common method variance.

RESULTS

The structural model has been tested through a system of structural equations using the maximum likelihood estimation method (maximum likelihood). The analysis was conducted with the statistical software LISREL 8.80. The structural model showed good fit overall with Chi-square (d.f. 84) = 206.386 with $\chi^2/df = 2.456$ $p < 0.001$, below the cut-off of 3 (Kline, 2011). RMSEA was 0.07, CFI 0.95, NFI 0.95, and AGFI 0.88 (Table 3). Concerning the first set of hypotheses, the results show that consumer ethnocentrism positively affects Halal trust ($\beta = 0.39$, t -value = 4.08), thus confirming H1a. Ethnocentric tendencies can reinforce the value attributed by customers to the Halal certification. Halal is judged as a way of identifying "in-group" products that one automatically associates with the culture-of-origin. Moreover, confirming previous studies on interactions between CET and the evaluation of foreign products (De Nisco et al., 2016), the findings report a negative impact of CET on product beliefs (H1d) ($\beta = -0.01$, t -value = -1.98). The strong sense of identity nurtured by ethnocentric feelings can lead to negative stereotypes for the "outgroup" (Verlegh, 1999). Conversely, H1c is not verified, thus highlighting that ethnocentrism is not able to directly affect general country image. Similarly, with respect to behavioural outcomes, consumer ethnocentrism does not exert any significant influence on the intention to buy Halal products from non-Muslim countries; thus, H1b is not verified. Such results seem to disconfirm previous studies on consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Javalgi et al., 2005). However, the findings of the study move in the direction of recent theoretical attempts to extend the cross-national validity of the CET construct by also investigating more in-depth its impact on perceptual and behavioural outcomes (Bi et al., 2012; Siemieniako et al., 2011; Torres and Gutiérrez, 2007). In fact, the results of some recent empirical investigations are inconsistent with much of the existing literature. For example, Siamagka and Balabanis (2015: 78) showed that consumers might be emotionally attached to domestic products but discouraged by other factors, for example, quality. Similarly, ethnocentric consumers may be cognitively devoted to domestic products but might prefer foreign products, since they view these as more familiar. Through a survey on the Chinese market, Bi et al. (2012) showed that Chinese consumers may feel but not express ethnocentric feelings through negative product judgments or anti-consumption behaviour toward imported products.

Regarding the interactions between general country

Table 1. Measurement scales, confirmatory analysis, Cronbach's alpha, construct reliability and AVE.

| Parameter | Mean (Std. Dev.) | λ Scores (Stand. Coeff.) | Cronbach's alpha | CR | AVE |
|---|---------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------|------|------|
| Consumer ethnocentrism | | | 0.71 | 0.78 | 0.72 |
| Only those products that are unavailable in home country should be imported | 6.95 (0.22) | 0.639 | | | |
| It is always better to purchase national products | 6.82 (0.45) | 0.791 | | | |
| I should always buy national products to let my fellow citizens work | 6.91 (0.32) | 0.864 | | | |
| There should be more limits on imports | 6.73 (0.61) | 0.617 | | | |
| General country image | | | 0.87 | 0.70 | 0.65 |
| High quality of life | 6.18 (0.65) | 0.647 | | | |
| Friendly population | 6.35 (0.65) | 0.814 | | | |
| High technological level | 6.31 (0.73) | 0.795 | | | |
| Advanced education level | 6.43 (0.68) | 0.727 | | | |
| Ideal country to live | 5.28 (0.94) | 0.701 | | | |
| Halal trust | | | 0.86 | 0.80 | 0.74 |
| I trust the Halal logo | 5.58 (1.60) | 0.657 | | | |
| I rely on the Halal certification | 6.93 (0.32) | 0.886 | | | |
| Certified Halal products are safe | 4.10 (1.30) | 0.676 | | | |
| Product beliefs | | | 0.75 | 0.71 | 0.66 |
| High quality products | 6.16 (1.18) | 0.728 | | | |
| Innovative products | 6.39 (1.01) | 0.858 | | | |
| High value products | 5.68 (1.01) | 0.802 | | | |
| Receptivity of halal products (non-Muslim country) | | | 0.74 | 0.74 | 0.65 |
| I would recommend the purchase of Italian Halal products to relatives and friends | 5.25 (1.40) | 0.609 | | | |
| I would pay a higher price to buy an original Italian Halal product | 5.60 (1.20) | 0.743 | | | |
| In the next six months I am going to buy an Italian Halal product | 5.85 (1.08) | 0.897 | | | |

Fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 206.386$ (d.f. 84; $p < 0.001$); CFI=0.96; NFI=0.95; AGFI=0.88; RMSEA=0.07.

image, product beliefs and receptivity, the findings showed that a positive perception of a country's general image positively impacts product evaluations ($\beta = 0.62$, t -value = 7.02). Moreover, the relationship between product beliefs and Halal product receptivity was also confirmed (β

= 0.27, t -value = 2.12). These findings show an indirect influence of general country image on the receptivity of Halal products through product beliefs, but not any direct impact. Therefore, the results supported H2a and H3, but not H2b.

Finally, with respect to the mediation hypothesis,

we tested whether Halal trust mediates the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the product receptivity of Halal products. For the mediation analysis, we adopted the approach suggested by MacKinnon et al. (2002) by testing the indirect effect of the exogenous variable using the

Table 2. Average variance extracted and squared correlations among constructs.

| Parameter | AVE | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. Consumer ethnocentrism | 0.72 | 1.000 | | | | |
| 2. General country image | 0.65 | 0.037 | 1.000 | | | |
| 3. Halal trust | 0.74 | 0.065 | 0.015 | 1.000 | | |
| 4. Product beliefs | 0.66 | 0.049 | 0.011 | 0.265 | 1.000 | |
| 5. Receptivity of Halal products (non-Muslim country) | 0.65 | 0.032 | 0.122 | 0.019 | 0.154 | 1.000 |

Table 3. The hypothesized relationships: standardized coefficients and fit statistics.

| Hypothesis | hypothesized relationships | Standard coefficients (t-values) | Results |
|-----------------|---|----------------------------------|---------------|
| H _{1a} | CET-Halal trust | 0.39 (4.08) | Supported |
| H _{1b} | CET-Receptivity of Halal products | -0.11 (n.s.) | Not supported |
| H _{1c} | CET-General country Image | -0.01 (n.s.) | Not supported |
| H _{1d} | CET-Product beliefs | -0.01 (-1.98) | Supported |
| H _{2a} | General Country image-product beliefs | 0.62 (7.02) | Supported |
| H _{2b} | General country image-receptivity of Halal products | 0.02 (n.s.) | Not supported |
| H ₃ | Product beliefs-receptivity of Halal products | 0.27 (2.12) | Supported |
| H ₄ | Halal trust-receptivity of Halal products | 0.79 (4.32) | Supported |

| Indirect effect tests (mediation) | | β^a | SE ^a | MacKinnon PRODCLIN | | Results |
|-----------------------------------|---|-------------------|-----------------|--------------------|------|-----------|
| | | | | LLCI | ULCI | |
| H ₅ | CET → Halal trust → Receptivity of Halal products | 0.32 ^b | 0.02 | 0.12 | 0.34 | Supported |

Fit Statistics: $\chi^2 = 354.686$ (d.f. 127; $p < 0.001$); $\chi^2/d.f. = 2.79$. CFI = 0.95; AGFI = 0.88; NFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.07. ^aEmpirical 95% confidence interval does not overlap with zero. ^bThese values are based on unstandardized path coefficients.

procedure proposed by Sobel (1982). Statistical analysis was conducted through the PRODCLIN (MacKinnon et al., 2007) software, which tests the significance of the mediation path by means of the weighted unstandardized coefficients using MacKinnon (2008)'s asymmetric distribution of product test (MacKinnon, 2008; Shrout and Bolger, 2002). The results show that Halal trust fully mediates the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the receptivity of Halal products (non-Muslim country) ($\beta = 0.32$, $SE = 0.02$, $LLCI = 0.12$, $ULCI = 0.34$) (Table 3). The direct effect is not significant while the indirect effect is, according to MacKinnon's ab product distribution test (MacKinnon et al., 2007) $p < 0.05$. This result is consistent with hypothesis H5. This condition has a powerful meaning as it can be assumed that foreign offers, coming from a non-Muslim majority country, can counteract ethnocentric tendencies if they satisfy the requirements of Halal processes and certification.

DISCUSSION

The study explored the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism, Halal trust and country-of-origin effect through the proposal and empirical analysis of a research

model investigating these three perspectives regarding a Muslim country asked to assess Italy and its Halal certified products. The main motivation at the basis of the study was the need to gain more knowledge about the influences exerted by the cultural dimensions of the country-of-origin effect on the behavioural intentions of Muslim consumers. While past studies have tested most of the relations theorised here, this research proposes a single integrated framework with the aim of extending the cross-national validity of the main constructs, namely, consumer ethnocentrism, country image and product beliefs, to Islamic contexts. Moreover, other aspects differentiate the present framework from those suggested previously. The Islamic literature recognises that the Halal issue is affected by religiosity, but so far research has not focused attention on CET as a potential antecedent of Halal trust. Therefore, from a theory-building perspective, the proposed model enables us to advance knowledge in the areas of consumer ethnocentrism and Halal trust by integrating the concepts. Moreover, most of the consumer ethnocentrism literature investigates foreign consumers' evaluation and intention to buy foreign goods as dependent variables. This work includes the evaluation of the general country image considered as a macro-level. The country-of-origin literature supports the distinction between country image

and product-country images, with general country image components that directly affect product judgments and indirectly affect intentions to buy foreign products (Elliot et al., 2011; Laroche et al., 2005). Consequently, the research model examines how consumer ethnocentrism impacts the general perception of a foreign country's image and, sequentially, product beliefs and the receptivity of Halal products. Finally, to our knowledge this is the first study to analyse the potential influence of Halal trust on the product receptivity of Halal products from a non-Muslim country.

Findings from the empirical survey carried out on a sample of Moroccan consumers support the results of previous studies showing that CET negatively influences product beliefs. Conversely, CET does not seem to affect both general country image and product receptivity. Such a finding adds support to recent evidence (Siamagka and Balabanis, 2015) that shows the inconsistency of CET influences on intentions to buy foreign products. In this respect, Halal trust plays a dual function as it is capable of transforming the ethnocentric feelings into positive attitudes toward Halal-certified products. In particular, Italian Halal products seem to overcome potential negative stereotypes related to non-Muslim majority countries.

Halal certification expressed by a logo is fundamental for Muslim consumers because they do not have other tools by which to verify whether a manufactured good is Halal. This is even more true if the object of analysis is a foreign good, perhaps one coming from a non-Muslim country. The respect of the Halal regulation by the foreign company reduces the perceived psychic distance, increasing the chance of creating a cognitive space where source and target audience can share the same experience field.

Managerial implications

From a managerial point of view, the integration of ethnocentrism, Halal trust and product receptivity can provide meaningful insights into the effects exerted by ethnic-religious issues on the part of Muslim consumers. The need for studies addressing this issue seems even more critical if we consider the growing economic relevance of the Halal market and the consequent need to provide research frameworks able to support practitioners and companies with a clearer understanding of the related cultural issues. The expanding Halal market represents a relevant opportunity for international companies, not only in Muslim countries but also in Western markets with a significant presence of Islamic communities among whom Halal observance is on the increase. Halal certification appears a key element in consumption patterns related both to domestic and foreign products. Companies coming from non-Muslim majority countries cannot neglect Halal issues if they are willing to invest in profitable relations with Islamic

markets. Of course, this suggestion should not be interpreted only in terms of a rigid satisfaction of Halal requirements, but above all in terms of cultural sensitivity. Halal certification appears to be a key element in the consumption patterns of foreign products, capable of countering ethnocentric trends. Hence the need for international companies to identify ways of enhancing the supply and image of the country which are not separated from ethnic-religious precepts and, in the case of Halal certification, to know how to incorporate this in their international marketing strategy. The "Halalness" of the product should also be reinforced in a more explicit way, for example, by using an Arabic name for the product and Arabic letters on the packaging (Maison et al., 2018). However, international companies must identify international marketing strategies capable of exploiting both country image and supply features, integrating ethnic and religious precepts. The findings are especially interesting for made in Italy companies engaged in the construction of solid and profitable relations with emerging Islamic markets, which are still too distant from a cultural point of view. In fact, thanks to the respect of Halal certification, companies from a country with an appealing image (like Italy) can reinforce in a unique way the impact of product-country image and, consequently, the positive attitudes toward their products on the part of local demand. Moreover, companies should emphasise the authenticity of the Halal logo due to an increase in counterfeit Halal products, which is making Islamic customers more sensitive and demanding toward genuine Halal certified products.

Limitations and directions for future research

Based on the findings of the study, several directions for future research can be suggested. The research assesses respondents' general attitudes toward Halal products from a non-Muslim country. Prior research on country-of-origin effect has shown that product categories might affect quality assessments. Consequently, product judgments can be attribute-specific. Further research could investigate specific product categories by comparing, for example, food products with other product categories. Moreover, since the research examines consumers' beliefs regarding Italian products, the results may be biased by the reputation and visibility of Italy as a source of high-quality products (De Nisco et al., 2016). Such a condition might also explain the rejection of H1c, where CET was supposed to have a negative effect on general country image. Future research may involve countries with different reputations as sources of goods in order to improve the external validity of the proposed research model.

As a consequence, new research examining countries with different levels of reputation as sources of products would certainly contribute to a better knowledge of the phenomenon, thereby increasing the external validity of

the proposed framework. Moreover, future research would do well to compare Muslims living in Islamic countries with those who live in non-Islamic countries.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Exploring the determinants for a successful family entrepreneurship: Empirical evidences from Punjab Province

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Family businesses are the main entrepreneurial powers of today in the global economy, but the low survival rate is the main concern all over the world. Family entrepreneurship is the most successful business, where assets, personal involvement, and hired temporary employees help to improve the success of the business. Family businesses contribute about 45-75% to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and provide job opportunities in many countries. The objective of this study is to examine the factors that influence the success of family businesses and family entrepreneurs' characteristics. The study was conducted in Faisalabad and Lahore of the Punjab Province. A sample of 150 respondents was selected randomly (75 from each city). A pretested questionnaire was used to collect data from respondents through personal interview. Independent variable (family and business characteristics) was tested to forecast the business success (dependent variable). Regression analysis indicated that some family and business characteristics (age, managerial activities, business size, business problems, personal involvement) were positive and significantly associated with business success; education, work experience, availability of finance were negative and statistically non-significant; gender, and community support were positive and non-significant. This study suggests that appropriate training program should be introduced to improve skill and acknowledge of family entrepreneurs, so that they can operate their business efficiently.

Key words: Family business, business success, regression analysis.

INTRODUCTION

A family firm or business is a company in which one or more family members are involved to manage and control business procedures of the enterprise. The management of family business should be in a way that it is sustained from one business creation to the next generation of the families (Chua et al., 1999). In developing countries, the

family firm is considered as a source of value addition and creation of job opportunities to make wealth (Faccio and Lang, 2002; Shanker and Astrachan, 1996). Entrepreneurship is considered generally as an innovative and significant inspiration for the creation of new business avenues (Scott, 1986). Therefore,

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entrepreneurship is considered as an important element not only for current businesses but also to generate new opportunities for future businesses (Mitra, 2002). The traditional models are used for family businesses and to take action as well do evaluation (Casson, 1982; Shane and Venkaturaman, 2000). The term, causation is used to explain the different traditional approaches used for entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship has important theories. The entrepreneur to predetermine goals and to select means to achieve these goals uses the causation theory; it is the process through which entrepreneurs plan activities and look for opportunities, as well as evaluate the opportunities (Saravathy, 2001).

In effectuation theory, after finding the opportunity, the entrepreneurs use resources to make decision and take action for creating new market in the world; entrepreneurs set new and different goals over time based on their resources. The effectuation theory is used in uncertain situations (Saravathy, 2008). In bricolage theory, the entrepreneurs do everything to combine the resources at hand for new opportunity and problems (Baker and Nelson, 2005).

Indeed the family business has three categories: to involve in innovation, risk taking and being proactive. These describe family entrepreneurship major contribution to the development and growth of the world economy (Miller, 1983; Zahra et al., 2004). In this case, some family businesses have strong image in the form of ownership, which is transferred from one successive generation to the next (Fuller, 2003). The characteristics of entrepreneurs are having the ability to take risk, innovative belief, and creating opportunity for other people. Entrepreneurship helps people to control over their physical resources, intellectual resources and belief that will ultimately lead to their advancement. The factors that can lead to an entrepreneur's success include age, family support, education, personal motivation and access to financial resources. Family entrepreneurship is important in the growth of businesses and for long-term sustenance in the world (Heck and Tarent, 1999). About 90-98% of businesses are owned by families business and these businesses contribute between 45-75% to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and provide job opportunities in many countries.

In a family business, one or more members play a vital role in the development and succession of the business structure because of his/ her personal interference and interest in the family businesses to increase profit. The family entrepreneur may be involved in the management team, can be member of the board, a shareholder, or business supporter. Direct interference of a family entrepreneur makes family business different from the non-family business (Moore, 2009). There is personal involvement of the entrepreneur in the business and he uses his best management practices for the growth of business. The best management practices are challenges for the non-family business entrepreneurs and

these challenges create an inspiration for the growth of business and succession properly (Ward, 1997).

The family entrepreneurs play a key role in the succession of a firm and this role changes due to the condition of transfer within the system. The young generation of the era wants to supervise or control the firm solely (Handler, 1994). The family business/ entrepreneurship has many types such as sole proprietorship partnership, and limited company. They vary from a small shop to a multinational cooperation (Birley et al., 1999). The family entrepreneurs who create the public family business often hold that greater than essential amount of share control the family business due to the risk and uncertainty (Anderson et al., 2012). The creator of family businesses desires to maintain control of essential differences between families owned businesses and family business to empower ownership (Anderson and Reeb, 2003).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

For centuries, family businesses have been the key business in the world (Fuller, 2003; Aldrich and Cliff, 2003). Family business has financial goals than the non-family business with the help of the socio-motional wealth; but socio-motional wealth is possible if the family has overall control and long term sustenance of the business (Zellweger et al., 2012). The business has specific characteristics: (1) It retains long term family board of directors, (2) there is close communication between family entrepreneurs and employees, (3) has high level of diversifications based on gender, (4) the entrepreneurs have more experience and more experienced older managers (Wilson et al., 2013). The entrepreneur's characteristics affect the entrepreneurial attitude in family business. They considered the process by which creator of own family firm leave the firm because of age, education level, entrepreneurial experience, business experience, and representative characteristics of family firms, organization structure, limiting information policy (Detienne and Cardon, 2012; Hatak and Hyslop 2015). Thus, family businesses are transferred from one generation to another and family business cooperation result in successful strategic planning for the long-term success sustenance of the family business/entrepreneurship. The family business/ entrepreneurship has long term contribution in the growth of economy and it has one of most important stages of business life cycle in which they transfer ownership and leadership qualities from one person to another (Vassiliadis et al., 2015; Hatak and Hyslop 2015). The family entrepreneurship grew from one country to another for long-term succession and the role of each family ownership varies from one family entrepreneur to another (Sciascia et al., 2012). The succession could be seen in the family business with the help of entrepreneurial

process, where the coming of the new owner and exit of the old owners describe the creation of the new opportunity (Nordqvist et al., 2013). The determinants of family business/entrepreneurship and how family businesses were going from one place to another and had more specific opportunity for the family members and creating more opportunity in the economy. The family business was created with help of the family loyalty and entrepreneurial orientation and knowledge (Barredy, 2016).

Kellermanns et al. (2008) suggested that entrepreneurial behavior of the chief executive officer examined how this behavior associate with the growth of family businesses and entrepreneurial behavior of CEOs could be influenced by characteristics such as age or tenure and units of family influenced by the family businesses. The family business could be successful in the growth of the business and their flexibility of the business, and there is small change in the family and non-family business concerning economic growth (Chaston, 2012). The family business/entrepreneurship was interaction between the family members and family and non-family businesses (Randerson et al., 2015).

FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGY

This study aims at exploring the characteristics of family businesses in perspective of entrepreneurial theories, motivating and demotivating factors of family business managers, characteristics of family business entrepreneurs and family business, business skills and major success factors and challenges faced by the family business entrepreneurs. For this purpose, a questionnaire was designed. The questionnaire includes both close and open ended questions that were used as a result of an initial literature study comprising broad research questions which was further investigated by using a comprehensive and pre-tested questionnaire and in-depth interviews from selected family business entrepreneurs. Family entrepreneurs were asked about questions about their personal, socio-economic characteristics, business facts and major impediments. This study collected data from 150 family business entrepreneurs who were selected randomly from two representative cities: Faisalabad and Lahore of Punjab province (25 respondents each from shop holder/retailer, manufacturing, and

trading; making up 75 respondents from each city). Random sampling technique was used to eliminate the biasness in sample selection (Cooper et al., 2006). Collected data was properly checked and edited to ensure that all responses were recorded accurately. Multivariate form of regression analysis was used to show coefficient and significance of family business entrepreneurs and business characteristics, regarding family business success.

Mean attribute score

Mean Attributes Score was calculated using the following formula

$$MAS = \sum X_i / N \quad (1)$$

Where;

MAS = Mean Attributes Score

N = Number of respondents

$\sum X_i$ = Sum of score given by all respondent to specific attributes.

Correlation

Correlation means the movement of two variables in relation to another variables. It ranges from -1 to +1. If two variables move in same direction, they are known as positively correlated and in case they move in opposite direction then the correlation between them is negative.

$$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n(\sum x^2) - (\sum x)^2][n(\sum y^2) - (\sum y)^2]}} \quad (2)$$

Regression analysis

Regression analysis was used to check the impact of independent variables on dependent variable. The following regression equation were used during regression analysis.

Model: Impact of family and business characteristics on business success

Family and business characteristics were used to analyze their effect on business success.

$$Bs = f(FC, BC) \quad (3)$$

$$Bs = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (X_1) + \beta_2 (X_2) + \beta_3 (X_3) + \beta_4 (X_4) + \beta_5 (X_5) + \beta_6 (X_6) + \beta_7 (X_7) + \beta_8 (X_8) + \beta_9 (X_9) + \beta_{10} (X_{10}) + \epsilon \quad (4)$$

Where

X_1 = Age

X_2 = Gender

X_3 = Education

X_4 = Managerial activities

X_5 = Community support

X_6 = Work experience

X_7 = Availability of Finance

X_8 = Business Size

X_9 = Business problems

X_{10} = Personal involvement

Bs = Business Success

β_0 = intercept or constant

β_1 = slope of coefficient

ϵ = error term

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Cronbach's alpha value is shown in Table 1, descriptive statistics in Table 2, correlation in Table 3 and regression analysis in Table 4. Table 2 shows that age mean value is 4.4200 which indicate that average number of respondent goes with "strongly agrees" about the

Table 1. Reliability analysis.

| | |
|------------------|-------|
| Cronbach's alpha | 0.679 |
|------------------|-------|

Table 2. Descriptive statics.

| Variable | Means | SD |
|----------------------------|--------|--------|
| Business Success | 4.0633 | 0.5230 |
| 1. Age | 4.4200 | 0.7532 |
| 2. Gender | 4.1600 | 0.7425 |
| 3. Education | 4.1667 | 0.7365 |
| 4. Managerial activity | 3.3267 | 0.6705 |
| 5. Community support | 3.6467 | 0.7247 |
| 6. Work experience | 3.5733 | 0.8849 |
| 7. Availability of Finance | 3.7733 | 0.9279 |
| 8. Business Size | 3.8667 | 0.8327 |
| 9. Business problems | 3.9533 | 0.7714 |
| 10. Personal involvement | 4.0933 | 0.7539 |

statement (Do you think that age affect business success) and having standard deviation of 0.75325 which indicates deviation value from the average point within sample. The education has the impact on the business success, the mean value of 4.1667 average numbers of respondent goes with "strongly agree" and having standard deviation is 0.73655. The gender has effect on the business success. The mean value of 4.16 which indicate that average number of respondent goes with "strongly agree" and having standard deviation 0.74257. The personal involvement has impact on the business success, the mean value of 4.09 which indicate that average number of respondent goes with "strongly agree"; and having standard deviation of 0.75393, which indicate the deviation value from the average point within sample. The business problem has impact on the business success. The business problems mean value of 3.95 which indicate that average number of respondent goes with "Agree" and having standard deviation 0.77144 which indicate the deviation value from the average point within sample.

The business size has impact on the business success. The business size mean value of 3.8667 which indicate that average number of respondent goes with "Agree" and having standard deviation 0.83277 which indicate the deviation value from the average point within sample. The availability of finance has impact on the business success. The availability of finance of mean value 3.7733 indicate that average number of respondent goes with "Agree" and having standard deviation 0.92792 which indicate the deviation value from the average point within sample. The community support has effect on the business success. The community support of mean value 3.6467 which indicate that average number of respondent

goes with "Agree" and having standard deviation 0.72479 indicate the deviation value from the average point within sample. The work experience has effect on the business success. The work experience of mean value 3.5733 indicate that average number of respondent goes with "Agree" and having standard deviation 0.88497 indicate the deviation value from the average point within sample. The managerial activities have effect on the business success. The managerial activities of mean value 3.3267 indicate that the average number of respondent goes with "Agree" and standard deviation 0.67054 indicate the deviation value from the average point within sample.

Table 3 shows significance and non-significant relationship between independent and dependent variables. Correlation between age and Business success is 0.383** which shows a high correlation between them. Correlation between gender and Business success is 0.167* and Correlation between age and gender is 0.083. Correlation between education and business success is 0.0174; correlation between age and education is 0.103; and correlation between education and gender is .012. It shows that there is no correlation between them. Correlation between managerial activity and business success is 0.317** which shows they are highly correlated, correlation between managerial activity and age is 0.165* which shows correlation between them. The correlation between managerial activity and gender is -0.079, which shows they are negatively correlated and correlation between managerial activity and education is 0.012, which shows there is no correlation between them. Correlation between community support and business success is .089; correlation between community support and age is 0.151; correlation between community support

Table 3. Correlation results of family and business characteristics and business success.

| Variable | Bs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|----------------------------|---------|---------|--------|-------|---------|--------|--------|-------|---------|--------|----|
| Business Success | 1 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1. Age | 0.383** | 1 | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Gender | 0.167* | 0.083 | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Education | 0.074 | 0.103 | 0.012 | 1 | | | | | | | |
| 4. Managerial activity | 0.317** | 0.165* | -0.079 | 0.012 | 1 | | | | | | |
| 5. Community support | 0.089 | 0.151 | -0.031 | 0.036 | 0.156 | 1 | | | | | |
| 6. Work experience | -0.057 | 0.110 | -0.151 | 0.079 | 0.022 | 0.035 | 1 | | | | |
| 7. Availability of Finance | 0.062 | 0.108 | -0.122 | 0.075 | 0.141 | 0.0400 | 0.020 | 1 | | | |
| 8. Business Size | 4.36** | 0.282** | 122 | 0.124 | 0.283** | 0.066 | 0.013 | 0.039 | 1 | | |
| 9. Business problems | 0.337** | 0.057 | 0.107 | 0.096 | -0.009 | 0.066 | -0.049 | 0.126 | 0.199* | 1 | |
| 10. Personal involvement | 0.345** | 0.179* | 0.081 | 0.068 | 0.085 | -0.074 | 0.080* | 0.098 | 0.223** | 0.308* | 1 |

p < 0.10, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01.

and gender is -0.031; correlation between community support and education is 0.036; and correlation between community support and managerial activity is 0.156. Correlation between work experience and business success is -0.057, it shows they are negatively correlated. Correlation between work experience and age is 0.110; Correlation between work experience and gender is -0.0151; Correlation between work experience and education is 0.079; Correlation between work experience and managerial activity is 0.022; and Correlation between work experience and community support is 0.035; showing there is no correlation between them. Correlation between availability of finance and business success is 0.062; correlation between availability of finance and age is 0.108; correlation between availability of finance and gender is 122; correlation between availability of finance and education is 0.075; correlation between availability of finance and managerial activity is 0.141; correlation between availability of finance and community support is 0.040; and the correlation between availability of

finance and work experience is 0.020. Correlation between business size and business success is 4.36**, correlation between business size and age is 0.282**, it shows the high correlation between them. Correlation between business size and gender is 0.122, correlation between business size and education is 0.124, correlation between business size and managerial activity is 0.283**, correlation between business size and community support is 0.066, correlation between business size and work experience is 0.013, and correlation between business size and availability of finance is 0.039. Correlation between business problems and business success is 0.337** it shows that highly correlated between them, correlation between business problems and age is 0.057; correlation between business problems and gender is 0.107; and correlation between business problems and education is 0.096. In addition, correlation between business problems and managerial activity is -0.009; correlation between business problems and community support is 0.066; correlation between business problems

and work experience is -0.049; correlation between business problems and availability of finance is 0.126; and correlation between business problems and business size is 0.199*. Correlation between personal involvement and business success is 0.345**, it shows high correlation between them. Correlation between personal involvement and age is 0.179*, correlation between personal involvement and gender is 0.081, and correlation between personal involvement and education is 0.068. Correlation between personal involvement and managerial activities is 0.085, correlation between personal involvement and community support is -0.074, correlation between personal involvement and work experience is 0.080, correlation between personal involvement and availability of finance is 0.098, correlation between personal involvement and business is 0.223** and correlation between personal involvement and business problems is 0.308*.

Therefore, the result shows that all the independent variables are positively or negatively

correlated with dependent variables.

The variation in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables was given by the coefficient of determination that is R^2 . The value of R^2 closer to 1.0 show the model is good fit, but it normally lies from 0 and 1 (Gujarati, 2003). The value of R-Square in the analysis was 0.408, which indicates that independent variable explained 40.8% change in dependent variable business success. Adjusted R^2 means adjusted for degree of freedom. It was used for cross sectional data. In this analysis, the value of Adjusted R^2 was 0.365 which is significant. The value of Adjusted R^2 represents all the independent variable explained by 36.5% variation in the dependent variable, keeping all other factors constant. F-ratio implies that all the independent variables tend to be significant or insignificant factors; which was used variation in the dependent variable. The F-value in the analysis is 9.574 ($p < 0.01$) which is highly significant and explains the overall appropriateness of model.

Table 4, given the value of the coefficient of the gender 0.058 ($p > 0.1$), shows the positive sign but was insignificant. These results were lined with the previous study perceived business success (Wallace, 2010). The coefficient of variable explained that one unit increase in response category of gender there might be an increase of 0.058 units in the response category business success, keeping all other factor constant.

The coefficient of the age 0.174 ($p < 0.01$) shows the positive sign and was significant. The coefficient of variable explained that one unit increase in response category of Age might be an increase of 0.174 units in the response category Business success, keeping all other factor constant. The coefficient of the managerial activities 0.168 ($p < 0.05$) shows the positive sign and was significant. These results were lined with the previous study perceived family business success (Wallace, 2010). The coefficient of variable explained that one unit increase response category of managerial activities might be an increase by 0.168 units in the response category business success, keeping all other factor constant. The results indicate that managerial activities increased degree as family business entrepreneurs perceive their family business to be successful. The coefficient of the business size 0.135 ($p < 0.01$) shows the positive sign. The coefficient of variable explained that one unit increase response category of in business size might be an increase of 0.135 units in the response category business success, keeping all other factor constant. The results indicated that business size had increased degree, which family business entrepreneurs perceive as their family business is succeed.

The coefficient of the business problems 0.151 ($p < 0.01$) shows a positive sign but is significant. These results were lined with the previous study perceived family business success (Wallace, 2010). The coefficient of variable explained that one unit increase in response category of business problems might decrease by 0.151

units in the response category perceived business success, keeping all other factor constant. The results indicate that business problems increased the degree of how family business entrepreneurs perceived their family business as unsuccessful. The coefficient of the personal involvement 0.119 ($p < 0.01$) shows the positive sign. These results are in line with previous study on perceived family business success (Winter et al., 2004). The coefficient of variable explained that one unit increase response category of in personal involvement might be an increase of 0.119 units in the response category perceived business success, keeping all other factor constant. The results indicate that personal involvement have increased degree of which family business entrepreneurs perceive their family business as a success. The coefficient of the Education -0.10 ($p > 0.1$) shows the negative sign but was insignificant. The more years of education of family business entrepreneurs positively affect the perceived success of family business and these results are in line with the previous study (Wallace, 2010). The coefficient of variable explained that one unit increase in response category of education might lead to decrease of 0.15 units in the response category of business success, keeping all other factor constant.

The coefficient of the community support 0.006 ($p > 0.1$) shows the positive sign but was insignificant. The family business entrepreneurs have higher level of satisfaction with the community support and the perceived success of family business. These results are in line with the previous study perceived business success (Wallace, 2010). The coefficient of variable explained that one unit increase in response category of community support there might be increase of 0.006 units in the response category of perceived business success, keeping all other factor constant. The coefficient of the work experience -0.049 ($p > 0.1$) shows the negative sign but was insignificant. The more work experience of family business entrepreneurs perceived, the more successful the family business will be. The coefficient of variable explained that one unit increase in response category of work experience might be decrease -0.049 units in the response category perceived business success, keeping all other factor constant.

The coefficient of the availability of finance is -0.022 ($p > 0.1$), which shows the negative sign but was insignificant. The availability of finance of family business entrepreneurs perceived more successful family business. The coefficient of variable explained that one unit increase in response category of availability of finance might decrease -0.039 units in the response for business success, keeping all other factor constant. This study contribute to knowledge in terms of impact of family and business characteristics for perceived long-term business success. The implications of this study has direct effect of family entrepreneurs and business characteristics on the business success. According to the

Table 4. Regression results (impact of family and business characteristics on business success).

| Variable | Coefficient | Standard error | T value | Significance (p-Value) |
|-------------------------|--------------|----------------|---------|------------------------|
| Constant | 1.168 | 0.442 | 2.641 | 0.009 |
| Age | 0.174 | 0.049 | 3.552 | 0.001 |
| Gender | 0.058 | 0.048 | 1.207 | 0.230 |
| Education | -0.010 | 0.047 | -0.220 | 0.826 |
| Managerial activity | 0.168 | 0.055 | 3.067 | 0.003 |
| Community support | 0.006 | 0.049 | 0.132 | 0.895 |
| Work experience | -0.049 | 0.040 | -1.229 | 0.221 |
| Availability of Finance | -0.022 | 0.038 | -0.583 | 0.561 |
| Business Size | 0.135 | 0.046 | 2.949 | 0.004 |
| Business problems | 0.151 | 0.048 | 3.139 | 0.002 |
| Personal involvement | 0.119 | 0.050 | 2.396 | 0.018 |
| R² | 0.408 | | | |
| Adjusted R2 | 0.365 | | | |
| F value | 9.574 | | | |

results, there is negative impact of education, work experience and availability of finance on business success. It is important in the family business to adopt the latest techniques and get the latest knowledge on modern practices to improve business success. So this should be addressed in a suitable way. This study suggests that personal involvement of the family business entrepreneurs in the family business to improve the business success and long term lead to success in business. This study suggests that appropriate training program should be introduced to improve skill, knowledge and awareness of family entrepreneurs, so that they can operate their business in a more efficient way.

In conclusion, family business is an enterprise or company whereby one or more family member is involved to manage and control all business procedures. The family businesses are contributing around 45-75% to GDP; providing new creation of job opportunity in many countries, transferring it from one generation to another. The characteristic of entrepreneurs are risk taking capability, innovative belief, and creating opportunity for other people. An important factor of entrepreneur's success include family support, education, personal motivation and access to financial resources.

Conclusions

Managerial activities, business size, personal involvement and more aged persons have major impact on the success of a business. In this study, many entrepreneurs were satisfied with the performance of their family businesses, and they adopt family members for business expansion. The more educated and skilled people involved in the business occupy better position to ensure long success of family business. The major characteristics of family business entrepreneurs and business affect the

success of family business. These variables were generated after reviewing the studies that affect the business success.

Finally, it is suggests that family and business characteristics have positive and negative impact on a business success. The family and business characteristics have significant (age, managerial activities, business size, business problems, and personal involvement) and non-significant (gender, education, community support, work experience, availability of finance) impact on the success of a business.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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