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MASTER’S THESIS

UNDERSTANDING BRAND TRUST IN THE CONTEXT
OF CONSUMER RESHORING SENTIMENT: AN
EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this master's thesis titled as "Understanding brand trust in the context of consumer reshoring sentiment: An experimental study" has been written by myself in accordance with the academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that all materials benefited in this thesis consist of the mentioned resources in the reference list. I verify all these with my honour.

.../.../2021

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ABSTRACT

Master's Thesis

Understanding Brand Trust in the Context of Consumer Reshoring Sentiment: An Experimental Study

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In today's global business environment, companies strive to gain competitive advantage through the strategies they follow with regard to the value chain operations. Companies have been trying to obtain both cost efficiency and value creation from the 1950s to the present by following these strategies, which stand on two main pillars as governance and location choice. However, since the 1980s, concepts such as offshoring and reshoring have started to take place with the transformation of these choices into geographical strategies.

Although the drivers leading companies to offshore are related to the upper part (producers, factor markets, etc.) of the value chain, the factors bringing the reshoring decision such as quality, high cost, etc., which seem to be firm-sided, are indeed associated with the end consumer. Volatile demand and global competition conditions make it necessary for companies to always put consumers at the center of their strategic decision making. As a matter of fact, when the decision of reshoring is taken from a consumer-oriented perspective while acquiring the resources that the company can gain competitive advantage, it will both increase the customer value and bring an advantage over competitors competing with similar resources.

In this respect, this thesis focuses on the demand-side effects of reshoring and an experimental study was conducted to understand the mediator role of consumer reshoring sentiment among consumers' ethnocentric orientation and brand trust under the conditional effects of perceived motives and category

country image. In addition, the model has been tested for partial and full reshoring conditions. The findings exhibit consumers' ethnocentric orientation interacts with perceived motive, generates a reshoring sentiment, which intersect with the category image of the offshored country, ultimately produces brand trust accordingly.

Keywords: Consumer Reshoring Sentiment, Consumer Ethnocentrism, Brand Trust, Perceived Motive, Category Country Image



ÖZET

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

Şirketlerin Üretim Faaliyetlerini Kendi Ülkelerine Döndürmeleri ile Oluşan Tüketici Duyarlılığı Bağlamında Marka Güveninin İncelenmesi: Deneysel Bir Çalışma

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Günümüz küresel ticaret ortamında şirketler, değer zinciri operasyonlarında izledikleri stratejiler yoluyla rekabet avantajı elde etmeye çalışmaktadırlar. Kaynak kullanımı ve lokasyon seçimi özelinde iki ana karar doğrultusunda şekillenen bu stratejilerle şirketler, 1950'lerden günümüze hem maliyet etkinliği hem de değer yaratma çabası içindedirler. Ancak 1980'lerden itibaren bu kararların coğrafi lokasyon bazlı stratejilere dönüşümüyle birlikte, şirketlerin üretim faaliyetlerini denizaşırı ülkelere taşımaları (offshoring) ve şirketlerin üretim faaliyetlerini kendi ülkelerine döndürmeleri (reshoring) gibi kavramlar ön plana çıkmıştır.

Şirketleri offshoring'e yönlendiren gerekçeler değer zincirinin daha ziyade üst kısmıyla (üreticiler, faktör piyasaları vb.) ilgiliyken, sonrasında reshoring kararını doğuran düşük kalite, yüksek toplam maliyet, vb. gibi firma taraflı gibi görünen geri dönüş gerekçeleri aslında talep-yönlü ve nihai tüketici ile ilişkilidir. Değişken talep ve küresel rekabet koşulları, şirketlerin stratejik karar alma süreçlerinin merkezine her zaman tüketicileri koymasını gerektirmektedir. Nitekim, işletmenin rekabet avantajı elde edebileceği kaynakları elde ederken tüketici odaklı bir bakış açısıyla reshoring kararının alınması hem müşteri değerini artıracak hem de benzer kaynaklarla rekabet eden rakiplere karşı avantaj sağlayacaktır.

Bu bakımdan, reshoring kararının talep-yönlü etkilerine odaklanan bu tez kapsamında, şirket geri dönüş niyetinin algılanışı ve kategori ülke imajının

koşullu etkileri altında, şirketlerin üretim faaliyetlerini kendi ülkelerine döndürmeleri kararı ile oluşan tüketici duyarlılığının etnosentrik yönelim ve marka güveni arasındaki aracı rolünü ölçmeyi amaçlayan deneysel bir çalışma yürütülmüştür. Buna ek olarak, belirtilen model kısmi ve tam reshoring uygulanması durumları açısından da ele alınmıştır. Bulgular, tüketicilerin etnosentrik yönelimlerinin algılanan geri dönüş niyetine göre şirketlerin üretim faaliyetlerini kendi ülkelerine döndürmelerine yönelik bir duyarlılık oluşturduğunu, bu duyarlılığın geri dönüş yapılan ülkenin ilgili ürün kategorisindeki imajının moderatör etkisi altında marka güveni oluşturduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Reshoring Duyarlılığı, Tüketici Etnosentrizmi, Marka Güveni, Algılan Niyet, Kategori Ülke İmajı

UNDERSTANDING BRAND TRUST IN THE CONTEXT OF CONSUMER RESHORING SENTIMENT: AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

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ABBREVIATIONS

AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CBE	Consumer Benefit Experienced
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
COO	Country of Origin
CR	Composite Reliability
CRM	Cause-related Marketing
CRS	Consumer Reshoring Sentiment
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DCB	Domestic Country Bias
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EU	European Union
HTMT	Heterotrait–Monotrait
IT	Information Technology
IP	Intellectual Property
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PCI	Product Country Image
R-A	Resource-Advantage
RBV	Resource Based View
R&D	Research and Development
SMEs	Small and Medium-sized Enterprises
TC	Target Coefficient
TCE	Transaction Cost Economics
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

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INTRODUCTION

In today's global competitive conditions, companies need to look for different sources in order to gain an advantage, and therefore they need to develop strategies for where and how to source (Trent & Monczka, 2003: 26; Cohen & Lee, 2020: 1). Since the pace of companies to produce equivalent products has increased considerably, global sourcing has come to the fore as a strategy to create a differentiation (Kotabe & Murray, 2004: 7), while the focus of the global supply chain has shifted to the integrated management of different international functions (Gereffi & Lee, 2012: 25). Managing sequential decisions about material flows, capacities and capabilities at each manufacturing and sourcing location alongside the technology investments as well as taking in to account the infrastructural, industrial and cultural factors (Kotabe & Murray, 2018: 369) lead companies to achieve a desired global supply chain strategy (Cohen & Lee, 2020: 1).

Both of two aspects as the governance and location decision of a global supply or value chain design have a substantial role as an operational and strategic decision that affect the supply chain performance comprising of lead time, responsiveness, flexibility and quality (Bhatnagar & Sohal, 2005: 443). Global competition, requires companies to divide their value chain operations and decide between in-house or contractual-based production. On the other hand, it obliges them to decide on the geographical location of these activities (Contractor et al., 2010: 1417-1418). The concepts of offshoring and reshoring came to the fore in this context.

Offshoring, relocation of value chain activities and moving from the home country to another (Bals et al., 2016: 104), has gathered pace as a phenomenon since 1980s. Although companies have benefited by offshoring with low labor costs and easy access to raw materials (Wiesmann et al., 2017: 15), there are many factors triggering companies and policy makers to re-configure global supply chain operations and internationalization strategies in 21st century (Ocicka, 2016: 103). Although offshoring is still a sort of sourcing and location solution (Backer et al., 2016: 4), reshoring as a voluntary corporate strategy to moving value chain activities back to home country (Fratocchi et al., 2016: 56) has come to the agenda in over the past 10 years as an emerging trend (Fjellström et al., 2017: 79).

Volatile energy prices which affect transportation costs, changing cost structure in offshore countries, unforeseen currency fluctuations, increasing concerns about intellectual property theft, being fast to market effect as an agility and responsiveness indicator and supply chain disruption related risks are most commonly emphasized in the literature as the drivers of reshoring (Ellram, Tate and Petersen, 2013: 14). Sustainability concerns as another triggering factor behind reshoring is stated as a driver as a result of the using polluted energy sources for both manufacturing and transportation overseas than manufacturing in home country (Gray et al., 2013: 30). While approaches are generally adopted by the supply side drivers, which is mentioned in the literature, made-in effect as a demand-side concept has been also took place among the top five drivers (Fratocchi et al., 2016: 99).

Although demand-side focused reasons do not come to the fore among reshoring drivers, it is evident that changes in global economic, social and political environment lead the rising tendency towards relocation strategies by companies also triggers the demand side effects (Stępień & Młody, 2017: 204). Demand-side perspective emphasizes the central importance of the consumer in the strategic decision-making processes of companies (Priem, Wenzel & Koch, 2017: 3). Most of the researchers who work on reshoring and global location strategy reveal the drivers and effects of the related concepts through the resource-based-view (RBV) and transaction costs economy (TCE) theories. While these perspectives focus on the upstream of this value chain, and assumes that producer and factor markets oriented strategies bring competitive advantage (Priem & Swink, 2012: 8), demand-side perspective give its focus to the downstream of the value chain, to product markets and consumers.

Furthermore, demand-side perspective considers the consumer as an important part of firm-level strategies and decision processes, thus postulates that company strategies can be transformed into a value creation for the end consumer (Priem, Li & Carr, 2012: 361). In a similar vein, resource-advantage (R-A) theory (Hunt, 1997a) argues that existence of a resource is not always an indication of an advantage, as the resource's ability to create a valuable market offering suited to the relevant consumer group is far more matter (Hunt & Davis, 2012: 17).

In line with demand-side perspective and R-A theory, objective of this research is analyzing the effects of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment on brand trust in the context of reshoring strategies, perceived company motives and category country image of host-country (from where a company reshored). Prior researches on reshoring almost mainly focused on firm-sided approaches. Knowledge about the effects of firms' reshoring decisions on customer attitudes is very limited, only a few studies are existing (see. Grappi et al., 2015; 2018; 2019; Cassia, 2020).

Extensive review of the existing literature elicits that reshoring decision affects also customer value (Cassia, 2020: 1101) and consumer responses (Grappi et al., 2015: 456; 2018: 204; 2019: 87) which complements macro-based factors behind reshoring. Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2018: 196) developed the consumer reshoring sentiment (CRS) construct that represents the whole of positive and cognitive evaluations in consumers' minds about reshoring. On the other hand, these studies analyzed the concept solely on the basis of European or US based companies. In this respect, there is not any study which tests the effects of reshoring decision on the consumers' reactions in emerging countries to the best of author's knowledge. To this end, ascertaining the demand-side effects of reshoring in an emerging country will fulfill a research gap.

In addition, placing consumer ethnocentrism as the starting point of generating consumer reshoring sentiment, incorporating country image of previously offshored country in terms of a specific product category, and examining the effects of reshoring in terms of consumer-brand relationship will encapsulate the disparate strands of themes into an integrative framework. Besides, in line with the literature emphasizing the improved customer-perceived quality, in addition to leveraging made-in effect by reshoring, consumers are expected to be stimulated based on their level of ethnocentric orientation. Thus, reshored brands are expected to generate a better relationship with consumers, which in turn builds trust. In this context, it is foreseen that a strategic company decision such as reshoring may extend to the creation of brand trust through the demand-side.

Given the objective of this research as analyzing the effects of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment on brand trust based upon the company reshoring decision in the context of reshoring strategies, perceived company

motives and category country image of host-country, this thesis will make important contributions to the existing literature. In short, adding the demand-side perspective on reshoring by associating it with ethnocentrism and brand trust will be expected to contribute value chain researches and practitioners.

In this context, the framework of the research as follows: first and second chapters include literature review part, focusing on global sourcing, reshoring, demand-side perspective, consumer reshoring sentiment and related concepts. Subsequently, the third chapter incorporates research objectives, conceptual framework and hypotheses development, methodology, data analysis and hypotheses testing. Finally, the study was completed with a conclusion that includes theoretical and practical implications and limitations.

CHAPTER 1

RESHORING

1.1. GLOBAL SOURCING AND MANUFACTURING DECISION

The concept of "sourcing" was assumed as a business function for years (Gottfredson, Puryear & Phillips, 2005: 132). However, a constant search for new resources is required to gain competitive advantage in today's business environment (Trent & Monczka, 2003: 26). As national economies become independent with the disappearance of invisible borders, companies feel intense pressure to survive in world commercial competition (Alguire, Frear & Metcalf, 1994: 62; Stentoft Arlbjörn & Lüthje, 2012: 1044). More specifically, companies are under pressure to redesign how and where they will produce products, supply inputs and meet customer demand (Cohen & Lee, 2020: 1).

International competition has been transforming the structure of industries as a result of evolved global manufacturing and trade (Gereffi & Lee, 2012: 25). Maintaining a market entry strategy from a country-to-country perspective, as in the past, may cause the existing competitive advantage to be lost, since the other players in the global competitive environment launching equivalent products in a very short time (Kotabe & Murray, 2004: 7). This reveals the critical importance of global sourcing. Therefore, companies have been trying to develop strategies to find the best way for meeting various needs such as cost reduction, quality and delivery improvements, cycle-times reduction and enhanced responsiveness to customer demand, thereby, global sourcing has become one of the most important strategy along with the bundle of demands (Trent & Monczka, 2003: 26).

Furthermore, Gereffi and Memedovic (2013: 4) emphasized the internationalization and globalization by underlining their difference as the former emphasizes the geographic basis of economic activities, and latter emphasizes the functional integration between internationally spread activities. Accordingly, global value chain gives its focus to create and capture value within a global supply chain (Gereffi & Lee, 2012: 25). While value refers to the amount for buyers to be willing to pay for a provided object in a simple competition perspective, value activities refer

to physically and technologically distinct activities such as design, production, marketing, research and development (R&D) and support (Porter, 1985b: 38-39). As postulated by Porter (1985b: 36-61) accomplishing competitive advantage lies behind an effort to perform extensively integrated execution with proficiency of these distinct activities as well as creating a unique difference among other competitors with this proficiency.

In this respect, global sourcing as a strategy refers to a company decision among running activities in house or outside of the company regardless of the country (Kotabe & Murray, 2018: 369). Consistent with achieving competitive advantage through integrated value chain design, global sourcing is related to integrating and coordinating value chain activities such as raw materials or intermediate goods procurement, technology, design and processes supply across worldwide (Trent & Monczka, 2003: 29). Besides, global sourcing requires an identification of a matching between manufacturing units and markets considering the sourcing channels as well as coordination among R&D, marketing and manufacturing (Kotabe & Murray, 2018: 366). Utilizing both own and suppliers' competitive advantages in addition to comparative advantages deriving the location within the global competition is the fundamental aim of global sourcing strategy (Kotabe & Murray, 2004: 8) or global supply chain strategy (Cohen & Lee, 2020: 1).

Achieving a desired global supply chain strategy is possible only if the companies manage sequential decisions about material flows, capacities and capabilities at each manufacturing and sourcing location alongside the technology investments (Cohen & Lee, 2020: 1). Moreover, companies must take the availability of infrastructural, industrial and cultural factors into account as well as the manufacturing and delivery costs in order to design a sensible global sourcing strategy (Kotabe & Murray, 2018: 369).

Accordingly, global sourcing strategy is designed under two main aspects as ownership and locational (Kotabe & Murray, 2004: 9; Kotabe & Murray, 2018: 369). Whether the company will decide on supplying items or materials on an intrafirm basis or let independent suppliers to supply is related to the ownership aspect of global sourcing decision, which is also called as governance decision (Leiblein, Reuer & Dalsace, 2002: 818; Stentoft, Mikkelsen & Johnsen, 2015: 3). This decision, also

known as "make or buy", refers to a choice between whether a company carries out all production from raw materials to core parts on the basis of vertical integration, or authorizes certain stages of production to external suppliers who have the competence to do those jobs (Welch & Nayak, 1992: 23). On the other hand, companies may do manufacturing or procurement domestically or from abroad, which reflects the locational aspect global sourcing strategy (Kotabe & Murray, 2004: 9).

In the following parts, both governance and location decisions will be discussed with their related concepts. Since this study is specific to reshoring, which is a company relocation strategy, it would be appropriate to explain related concepts such as insourcing, outsourcing, offshoring and nearshoring before examining the concept of reshoring.

1.1.1. Governance Decision

Globalization reshaped global production and trade, thereby many companies searched for lower-cost suppliers in overseas from the mid of 1960s (Gereffi & Lee, 2012: 25). Following the 1970s, international business has transformed on the basis of outsourcing and offshoring by moving production and sourcing to lower-cost locations within the country or even to overseas (Gereffi, 2011: 45). In the mid-1980s, large manufacturers started to launch their operations to overseas by searching for best capable suppliers (Kotabe & Murray, 2018: 370). This shift from the looking for lower-cost production structures to moving sourcing activities to different locations for exploiting better sources was also a shift from producer-driven supply chains to buyer driven chains.

As framed by Gereffi and Memedovic (2003: 4-5), global value chain activities are established in two types of networks: (1) producer-driven, (2) buyer-driven. Producer-driven value chain is originated from a network settling in which manufacturers have a central role in coordinating their backward and forward links. On the contrary, large retailers or branded manufacturers are in the center of the value chain in buyer-driven chains. This type of network-based governance distinction is derived from the power ownership, which is related to the ability of an organization to shape the strategic decisions within the value chain (Gereffi, 2011: 40). Grounding on

this perspective, Gereffi (2011: 41) describes a network-based governance, which illustrates a process from market governance to hierarchical value chains. This approach deals with the coordination of production within a value chain with defining the leading power.

Accordingly: (1) market governance is characterized by arm's-length relationship that requires minimum cooperation between the parties of an exchange; (2) modular governance comprises of transactions that are easy to modify, thus suppliers in these sort of chains are able to make production in accordance with the given product specifications which are easily transmitted in the flow of the chain; (3) relational governance includes a complex interaction and knowledge sharing between the members of the value chain such that there is a mutual dependence within the members; (4) captive governance represents a structure where a leading power in the chain coordinates all the small suppliers, thus this structure stipulates to follow specific conditions that increases the switching costs for both parties; (5) hierarchy governance refers to a vertical integration and managerial control by leading company that occurs in situations when capable suppliers are not found, production is complex or requires to be kept confidential (Gereffi, 2011: 42).

Building on a continuum within a network-based governance and the sourcing shift of manufacturers made supply chains more global and complex. While many companies continue to produce products in low-cost locations or find suppliers to have low-cost products produced, they have also given focus to outsourcing to gain access to the capabilities of suppliers (Kotabe & Murray, 2018: 368). On the other hand, Gottfredson, Puryear and Phillips (2005: 3) underlined that ownership of capabilities do not matter, instead the ability on how to control the capabilities foremost matters. In 1990s and 2000s, global sourcing expanded to cover more components related to very different industries such as energy, food, included services and even R&D activities (Gereffi & Lee, 2012: 25) as well as the information technology (IT) outsourcing (Kotabe & Murray, 2018: 370).

Putting aside the past and ongoing trends and the balance of power within the value chain, the governance decision is given between two axes with outsourcing and insourcing options. Giving a decision among outsourcing or insourcing needs to overcome a complex choice for companies (Leiblein, Reuer & Dalsace, 2002: 817). In

the following, both type of governance modes will be introduced with the specific pros and cons.

1.1.1.1. Outsourcing

Outsourcing refers to sourcing the functions or activities to the suppliers or organizations outside of the company on a contract basis (Stentoft, Mikkelsen & Johnsen, 2015: 3). In line with the company's strategy, outsourcing requires a set of factors such as market, capability, cost, technology and so on (Jennings, 2002: 26). While outsourcing decision started with limited scope in the beginning, it contains now very sensitive functions such as R&D (Leiblein, Reuer & Dalsace, 2002: 817).

As a strategic decision, outsourcing should be implemented with a balance in terms of core competences and transaction costs, such that non-core activities should be outsourced (Stentoft, Mikkelsen & Johnsen, 2015: 3). As Kotabe and Murray (2018: 373) asserted that outsourcing may come with many different problems related to lack competencies or bargaining power, while insourcing may come with a loss in terms of unused powerful incentives supplied by markets. Therefore, they suggest outsourcing some activities and keeping the other activities in-house is the best solution.

There are many drivers and also benefits of outsourcing decision. Although subcontracted suppliers may offer economies of scale and transaction cost advantages, dealing with the independent suppliers and whole of related processes such as finding suitable suppliers, communicating with and monitoring them and so on may exceed the foreseen costs (Alexander & Young, 1996: 728). Considering long terms effects of outsourcing in order to achieve the expected cost reduction is essential (Jennings, 2002: 27). Many companies that implemented outsourcing faced with cost saving expectations were not fulfilled (Stentoft, Mikkelsen & Johnsen, 2015: 4). Moreover, outsourcing may be way to reach a better quality if monitoring the suppliers' progress is well structured (Jennings, 2002: 27). On the other hand, companies think strategically in order to enhance their capabilities on core-competences, thus outsource their non-core activities (Stentoft, Mikkelsen & Johnsen, 2015: 4). In this perspective, outsourcing may provide an economic value by accessing specialized capabilities of different suppliers and organizations (Leiblein, Reuer & Dalsace, 2002: 819).

Since each driving factor that leads to outsourcing can lead different gains or losses, this decision should not be made with only cost-oriented approaches, the dynamics of the sector and the market should be analyzed and the control mechanism should be well designed (Welch & Nayak, 1992: 29-30). Besides, this decision should pay regard to competitive structure, since sourcing strategy needs to comply with competitive conditions, resources and capabilities should be assessed and supply environment (Jennings, 2002: 29-30).

1.1.1.2. Insourcing

Insourcing refers to executing procurement in company by producing core components in their own facilities anywhere around the world (Kotabe & Murray, 2004: 9). Although it is not as common as outsourcing in the literature, there are areas where insourcing stands out as an appropriate strategy. These areas are generally associated with the parts that outsourcing causes losses (Stentoft, Mikkelsen & Johnsen, 2015: 4).

The loss of know-how or the low productivity problem caused by not using the existing capacity stand out as the factors that lead companies to insourcing (Stentoft, Mikkelsen & Johnsen, 2015: 4). Since the coordination within an internalized structure is enhanced, it is expected to observe better performance by insourcing (Leiblein, Reuer & Dalsace, 2002: 819). While cost issues mentioned as a key driver for outsourcing, unexpected costs through outsourcing (Bergin et al., 2011: 169) may lead companies to rethink their governance strategy and pursue insourcing. On the other hand, especially in situations of offshored outsourcing, quality issues arise as a problem for companies, thus they prefer insourcing to offset quality concerns (Stentoft, Mikkelsen & Johnsen, 2015: 10). Besides, automation may be a driving factor for insourcing if the production output is marketed to close locations, since it decreases the leading time (Stentoft, Mikkelsen & Johnsen, 2015:11), which is one of the unforeseen costs of outsourcing.

While it is fact that keeping the most valuable capabilities within the company by insourcing is a benefit (Leiblein, Reuer & Dalsace, 2002: 819), lack of resources is one of the most challenging barriers for insourcing in addition to unconsidered decision of insourcing (Stentoft, Mikkelsen & Johnsen, 2015:11).

1.1.2. Location Decision

Determining the location of manufacturing is one of the most important operational and strategic decision that has decisive importance on company's supply chain performance such as lead time, responsiveness, flexibility, and quality (Bhatnagar & Sohal, 2005: 443). Locating international manufacturing facilities is generally given by considering the closeness to low-cost production and the market as well as the needed resources (Stentoft Arlbjörn & Lüthje, 2012: 1044).

Eclectic theory of international production (Dunning, 1980: 13; 2000: 164) explains a great deal of the manufacturing decisions given on a global scale. This theory offers a comprehensive framework that provides an investigation area for many important problems (Stentoft Arlbjörn & Lüthje, 2012: 1045). Dunning (1980) states three specific advantages, which of each one is reassuring of one another (Dunning, 1998: 45), as ownership specific advantages, location specific advantages, and internalization specific advantages.

First companies look for possessing unique resources that their competitors don't have in order for engaging in their foreign investments. Therefore, ownership specific advantages represents both companies' resources and the capabilities of the home countries (Dunning, 2000: 168). Ownership specific advantages are categorized as income generating and possessed capabilities of the company, which of both show the ability of a company to prolong generating assets with an increase eventually (Dunning, 2000: 169). Eclectic paradigm proposes that the increases in ownership specific advantages brings with an increase in the tendency towards internalizing these advantages (Dunning, 1980: 9).

As a second variable, location specific advantages deal with the question of where to locate a foreign direct investment based on ownership specific advantages and internalization specific advantages (Dunning, 2000: 175). Specifically, location specific advantages help a company to determine whether serving a market by exporting or locating a production hub there (Dunning, 1980: 11). Through the locational specific advantages, multinational companies may gain some ownership specific advantages such as taking advantage of exchange fluctuations, engaging in international transfer pricing, and shifting liquid assets (Dunning, 1980: 10).

Lastly, internalization specific advantages are obtained internalizing by edging over both ownership and location specific advantages in an integrated manner (Dunning, 1980: 12; 2000: 179-181). Accordingly, when companies locate a production in a different relevant country by matching their resources with location-based advantages, they may not be able to gain competitive advantage because they are not able to make a difference against other companies using the same location advantages with similar resources (Dunning, 2000: 179). Thus, without the advantages of internalization, most foreign direct investment will go no further than a contractual exchange of resources between independent buyers and sellers (Dunning, 1980: 12).

Therefore, comparison of the location-based comparative advantages through the Ricardian type approach is not always appropriate according to the eclectic paradigm (Demirbag & Glaister, 2010: 1536) In summary, making location-based decisions by optimizing the advantages of different national locations with all the difference-making resources and assets, then internalizing both types of advantages is the framework offered by the OLI¹ model. On the other hand, once the companies take a step towards making a location decision, they make it by evaluating the infrastructure of that location in the light of the outputs they expect to obtain from where they will invest or make an extension (Bhatnagar & Sohal, 2005: 443).

Beyond the decision of ownership to disassemble the value chain operations and produce them in-house or by external suppliers, global competition forces companies to restructure the geographical locations of these activities, which takes place in various forms (Contractor et al., 2010: 1417-1418). While exploiting OLI advantages (Dunning, 1980) on a global scale is one of the main challenges for companies in this era, locational restructuring modes such as offshoring brings the operating in line with the advantages exist on a dynamic global environment in to the forefront (Contractor et al., 2010: 1428).

Offshoring is defined as restructuring value chain activities by relocation operations from the home country to a foreign country regardless of the governance mode (Contractor et al., 2010: 1418). Although offshoring and outsourcing are run by the same strategic drivers (Contractor et al., 2010: 1418) and looks similar to each

¹ Ownership-Specific Advantages, Location-Specific Advantages and Internalization-Specific Advantages, Source: Dunning, 1980.

other (Stentoft Arlbjørn & Lüthje, 2012: 1045), offshoring is different in terms of its focus on geography and its independence from the governance of the activities. Location aspect is formed as either outsourced or insourced in offshoring (Stentoft Arlbjørn & Lüthje, 2012: 1045).

In this respect, Kotabe and Murray (2018: 369) named the different types of offshoring with regard to the chosen governance mode as offshore insourcing and offshore outsourcing. As a matter of fact, offshore outsourcing is a very common strategy in the retail industry, especially with its low-cost advantages (Lowson, 2001: 544; Gereffi & Memedovic, 2003: 9). The reasons behind offshoring are very diverse. The most frequently mentioned ones are cost advantage, access to knowledge and talent, and access to different markets (Navarro, Pedersen & Pla-Barber, 2014: 112). Offshoring is a preferred strategy with the aim of increasing the competitive advantage of companies by integrating comparative advantages in different locations with their own resources and competencies through value chain disaggregation, just like outsourcing (Mudambi & Venzin, 2010: 1511).

While companies are trying to gain profit with the offshoring type strategies they follow in their global value chain operations, they mostly use the method of dividing their value chain activities into small parts (disaggregation) in order to implement these strategies in the most balanced way (Navarro, Pedersen & Pla-Barber, 2014: 112). By disaggregating value chain activities, companies increase the efficiency of information dissemination and make it easier for decision makers to make more strategic decisions such as leaving some activities in the home-country, moving some activities to different locations, or directing some of the activities they carry to different locations to external suppliers, while producing some of them internally (Contractor et al., 2010: 1424). However, excessive disaggregation can make it difficult to manage individual activities and increase estimated costs. For this reason, it is important to make a location preference in terms of institutional cultural and environmental effects.

Although offshoring is appeared as one of the most preferred location decisions in terms of the value chain operations, location-based choices are liable to a change and the configuration (Barbieri et al., 2019: 1). The concept of 'relocations of second degree' expresses exactly this possibility of change. Accordingly, companies may

choose to change their previous location choice (Barbieri et al., 2019: 2). In addition to the offshoring strategy can be differentiated at the level of governance as far as mentioned above, it can also be realized as to distant countries or nearshoring at the location level (Slepniov, Brazinskas & Wæhrens, 2012: 6).

Accordingly, ‘nearshoring’ means relocation of previously offshored activities to a country closer to the home country or a region where the home country is belonging to (Bock, 2008: 491; Ellram, Tate & Petersen, 2013: 15; Fratocchi et al. 2015:371). Specifically, nearshoring involves a relocation to closer and cheaper countries rather than a relocation to farther and cheaper countries (Slepniov, Brazinskas & Wæhrens, 2012: 6). While US companies most frequently prefer offshoring to countries such as India, China, the Philippines or Ireland, European countries prefer to follow a nearshoring strategy by relocating their activities to Eastern European countries (Bock, 2008: 491).

Along with these, reshoring has come to the forefront as another relocation strategy since the 2000s, due to the difficulties of managing expanded operations on a global scale and the loss of attractiveness of locations preferred for offshoring for different reasons (Barbieri et al., 2018: 80). Foerst, Kirchoff and Bals (2016: 494) summarize the reasons for this reversal in general terms as increased costs in offshore locations, long distance between production and market reduced flexibility and increased competition in home country.

1.2. DEFINING RESHORING PHENOMENON

Reshoring is simply defined as moving manufacturing back to home country (Ellram, Tate & Petersen, 2013: 14; Cassia, 2020: 1100). By a more comprehensive approach, reshoring is a relocation of production as a whole or partially, from a foreign location, where the company had done an investment to foster its supply or, had established its procurement activities as a main location of supply (Fratocchi et al., 2014: 56). In this sense, the definition of reshoring is mainly on the basis of location and ownership (Fjellström, Lui & Caceres, 2017: 80; Kandil, Battaïa & Hammami, 2020: 2).

On the other hand, Gray et al., (2013: 28) emphasized that reshoring does not include the question of who performs the manufacturing activities. Hence,

manufacturing may be either performed by a supplier or the company itself. This takes place as ‘regardless of insourcing or outsourcing’ in literature (Gray et al., 2013: 30; Fratocchi et al., 2015: 370; Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015: 453; Wiesmann, 2017: 16; Ffellsström, Lui & Caceres, 2017: 81). Even though governance mode does not change the existence of reshoring, it has an importance on implementation of reshoring (Eurofund, 2019: 11). Finding reveals that the companies that implemented offshoring on the basis of outsourcing return back to home country earlier than the companies that implement offshoring with their own subsidies.

Essentially, reshoring is characterized as it is mainly a location strategy (Ellram, Tate & Petersen, 2013: 15; Gray et al., 2013: 28), from previously moved country (offshored) back to home country. One of the essential factors of reshoring, which also differentiates the phenomenon from a standard location decision, is that it is a must for a company to make an offshoring in the past (Gray et al., 2013: 29; Ancarani et al., 2015: 142; Fratocchi et al., 2015: 370). In this context, reshoring goes beyond to being a location decision and appears as a strategy or an organizational learning (Gray et al., 2013: 29), both of which depend on the first driver factor. It is considered as a correction of a previous inaccurate offshoring decision (Gray et al., 2013: 29; Ancarani et al., 2015: 9; Fratocchi et al., 2016: 99; Cassia, 2020: 1101) and a reverse version of offshoring (Backer et al., 2016: 7), which means when the offshoring decision is in hurdle, it becomes a driver for reshoring (Kinkel & Maloca, 2009: 156; Kandil, Battaia & Hammami, 2020: 4).

In literature, different terms have been used for explaining the moving back to home country phenomenon, including onshoring (Ciabuschi et al., 2018: 2), backshoring (Kinkel & Maloca, 2009: 154; Bals, Kirchoff & Foerstl, 2016: 103), back-reshoring (Fratocchi et al., 2015: 366), and reshoring, which led to a fuzziness (Lund & Steen, 2020: 3). On the other hand, Giuseppina and Michele (2018: 1174) noted that reshoring is mostly used in the USA, whereas backshoring or back-reshoring are generally used in Europe. On the contrary, Bals, Kirchoff and Foerstl (2016: 104) defined reshoring as relocation of value chain activities from offshore to domestic or closer countries, thereby considered backshoring and nearshoring as a part of reshoring (see. Barbieri et al., 2017: 10); former refers to back to home country, while the latter refers to back to a country which is closer to home country. Despite Bals, Kirchoff and

Foerstl (2016), Ciabusch et al., (2018: 2) considered that reshoring has been used most commonly in literature in recent studies. No matter how it is called, Backer et al. (2016: 7) and Ocicka (2016: 105) underlined that reshoring, backshoring and nearshoring, all are reverse of offshoring.

Apart from location directions, type of the relocated activities has been divided into solely manufacturing (Gray et al., 2013: 28; Ellram, Tate & Petersen, 2013: 14; Tate, 2014: 67; Fratocchi et al., 2015: 386) or either broadly value chain activities (Bals, Kirchoff & Foerstl, 2016: 104; Foerstl, Kirchoff & Bals, 2016: 494). On the other hand, “who” question for reshoring has been review by Barbieri et al. (2017: 7) by capturing several studies in literature. As a result, even though small medium enterprises (SMEs) are considered as the majority of reshoring examples (Kinkel & Maloca, 2009: 154), Fratocchi et al. (2016: 120) made a multi-country-based analyses on that issue and found that reshoring is slightly common among large companies. However, they noted that small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) sample was consist of mostly US companies, and only one third of the sample were European based SMEs (Fratocchi et al., 2016: 114), which is considered as a limitation.

By considering various definitions and dilemmas in literature in an inclusive manner, this study refers reshoring as a voluntary company decision on the basis of re-designing the value chain activities of a company, which has been highly concentrated oversea in the past, by returning its total or a part of resources to its home country, regardless of the governance modes.

1.3. TYPOLOGY OF RESHORING

As far as various definitions have postulated reshoring as manufacturing location decision (Barbieri et al., 2017: 7), Gray et al. (2013: 28) have recognized that there has been a fuzziness regarding the term to use for defining reshoring concept as a result of different governance modes and location-based directions are included; thus, mentioned four types of re-shoring as accepted and referred by scholars. Fratocchi et al. (2013: 9) emphasized two main distinction as partial reshoring, which refers to keeping a part of the value chain activities in overseas, and full reshoring, which refers to returning whole of the value chain activities back to home country.

According to Gray et al.'s (2013) framework; (1) "in-house reshoring", refers to a turnback of a company from an offshore manufacturing facility which is wholly owned to a wholly owned home-country facility; (2) "reshoring for outsourcing", refers to a relocation of a company from an offshore manufacturing facility which is wholly owned in host country to home country, by outsourcing the manufacturing activities to suppliers instead of manufacturing in its own facility; (3) "reshoring for insourcing", refers to a relocation decision of a company from host country based suppliers in offshore location to a facility which is wholly owned in home country; (4) "outsourced reshoring", refers to a turnback of a company from offshore based suppliers to the suppliers based in home country. This typology consists of constant location directions (from offshore to home country) with variations against different governance modes (insourcing vs. outsourcing).

Besides, Bals, Kirchoff and Foerstl (2016: 104-105) expanded Gray et al.'s (2013) classification considering nine different movements among reshoring to offshoring and insourcing to outsourcing. Within this typology: (1) outsourced backshoring is referred as a movement between offshoring and nearshore locations; (2) outsourced nearshoring is referred as a relocation of outsourced value chain activities from offshore locations to close country; (3) in-house backshoring is defined as a shift from a foreign wholly own venture to a new plant in the home country; (4) in-house nearshoring refers to a relocation from the own offshored plant to a new plant in a country near to home country; (5) collaborative backshoring is a relocation of value chain activities of a long-term partnership to the home country, or to a country near to the home country as (6) collaborative nearshoring; (7) domestic insourcing is a shift of outsourced activities that were previously located in the nearshore or offshore countries to an own venture in the home country (8) collaborative backshore insourcing refers to a relocation from a long-term partnership in offshore to a long-term supplier in the home country; (9) collaborative nearshore insourcing refers to a shift from long-term partnership in offshore to an external partner in a country nearby to the home country.

On the other hand, Foerstl, Kirchoff and Bals (2016: 494) contributed these classifications by adding different cooperation alternatives such as joint ventures, acquisitions, strategic partnerships and long-term contracts. These aggregated

classifications extend reshoring terminology by combining collaborative forms, insourcing and locational movements among offshoring and reshoring (nearshoring, backshoring etc.). Each locational aspect (e.g., domestic, nearshore, offshore) is divided into three with regard to the type of the governance as sourcing, partnership or in-house production within their framework.

Since reshoring descriptions has been emphasized the movement of activities as partial or total, Baraldi et al. (2017: 2) contributed the literature with ‘selective reshoring’ concept, which refers to distinguishing both manufacturing activities and product lines with regard to the network embeddedness of reshored company. By doing this distinction, companies would be able to execute their reshoring process as more well-designed, since both macro and micro factors will be taken into consideration. Selective reshoring also includes ‘partial reshoring’ concept, as a result that a selective reshoring may structure value chain by keeping some of the manufacturing activities or a part of the product line in host country (offshored country). However, the difference roots in the appearance of selective reshoring execution as a consequence of focal companies’ networks status and approach (Baraldi et. al., 2018: 7).

On the other hand, a demand sided study (See. Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015) underlined the different reshoring strategies, which is also in line with Baraldi et al.’s (2018) selective reshoring proposing. Accordingly, companies may decide on bringing either all value chain activities or only some parts of them to home country in accordance with their strategy. Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015: 458) distinguished this strategy into three: (1) “full reshoring”, which refers to manufacturing and design activities are reshored together; (2) “reshoring production”, which refers to only the manufacturing activities are reshored but design activities are remained abroad; (3) “reshoring design”, which refers to only the design activities are reshored but manufacturing activities are remained abroad. However, it is important to underline that all these strategies may vary according to the type of industry, and may require to take different value chain activities into consideration such as R&D (Backer et al., 2016: 9).

1.4. DRIVERS OF RESHORING

What are the main reasons for redesigning value chain in sourcing and manufacturing, as a question, have been got the attention of many scholars in literature. Ellram, Tate and Petersen, (2013: 14) emphasized that the volatile energy prices which affect transportation costs, changing cost structure in offshore countries, growing concern related to environmental issues, unforeseen currency fluctuations, increasing concerns about intellectual property theft, being fast to market effect as an agility and responsiveness indicator, and supply chain disruption related risks are the important factors for companies to rethink their global sourcing and location strategies.

Fratocchi et al. (2016: 110) offered a conceptual framework on motivations of reshoring decision, with two main dimensions; the goal and the level of analysis. Accordingly, while ‘the goal’ indicates a turnout between customer perceived value and cost-efficiency, ‘the level of analysis’ includes internal environment versus external environment factors (Fratocchi et al., 2016: 99). While internal environment factors are mostly related to firm-sided issues, external environment factors, which refers to changing characteristics of home or host country, affects the location decision making process. Therefore, it is obvious that the variance among location-based advantages and the characteristics of locations (host and home) are also matter (Fratocchi et al., 2016: 109). For example, subsidies for reshoring, high unemployment rate, and higher flexibility in the home country might be some motivational factors behind reshoring. Even though ‘made-in-effect’ was rarely highlighted as an important motivational factor for reshoring in literature, it was observed as the fourth important motivation behind reshoring (Fratocchi et al., 2016: 99); which may be interpreted as a result of perceived quality mostly. Besides, Fratocchi et al. (2016: 110) emphasized that customer perceived value motivations for reshoring have also influence on customer preferences. In this sense, reshoring decision may be considered as a source to create value for customers.

Gray et al., (2013: 30) emphasize sustainability concerns as another triggering factor behind reshoring. Satisfying demand by offshoring leads to more pollution as a result of the using polluted energy sources for both manufacturing and transportation than manufacturing in home country. Therefore, reshoring appears as a solution to environmental concerns.

It was argued that many researches, that had been conducted regarding reshoring phenomenon, focused on mainly the macro-level issues behind the reshoring decision (Baraldi et. al., 2017: 1). According to Baraldi et al. (2017: 1), rising labor costs, under-skilled human source, intellectual property (IP) concerns or low product quality are not enough for a company to execute a reshoring decision, since the companies don't run their activities in an isolated environment. Therefore, they emphasized that the success of any strategy (reshoring or offshoring) is also related to focal company's (reshored or offshored company) business network. Baraldi et al. (2017: 2) contributed to both offshoring and reshoring literature by examining the influence of reshoring process on reshored companies' existing network connections both in host and home country.

While companies restructuring their manufacturing and governance models of sourcing, these attempts may be perceived negatively by an existing supplier or customer in case of a possible disadvantage, or vice versa. Since network connections in business, especially the interactions with both suppliers and customers affect technical, economical and also social interdependencies, influence of the existent network of a company on a reshoring decision, which may vary negative to positive, is quite expected (Baraldi et. al., 2017: 3). For example, triggering effects may derive from customer-side because of its coercive power that pushes a focal company to re-structure its value chain as a result of requested price pressures (Baraldi et. al., 2017: 7). It is obvious that a reshoring decision will require re-embedding the business network while recreating the activities, resources and actors in home-country (Baraldi et. al., 2017: 9).

When the motivations are considered under different aspects, Tate (2014: 66) identified 2008 global financial crisis as a starting point for rising of reshoring, especially in the USA. According to another view, it was industry 4.0 initiative for Europe to give attention to reshoring activities, since leveraging manufacturing industry by focusing on technology and innovation would facilitate reshoring (Lund & Steen, 2020: 2).

Foerstl, Kirchhoff and Bals (2016: 498) grouped the reasons behind reshoring into two as human and behavioral, and transactional factors. First one includes a revision of a mistake in location decision, generally based on incorrect calculations in

terms of total costs (Ocicka, 2016: 109; Hartman et al., 2017: 365; Wiesmann et al., 2017: 16; Ancarani et al., 2015: 146) or relational issues between the suppliers overseas and the company. The second one is related to changing structures related to external environment, such as competitiveness in target markets, rising costs in offshore countries, governmental subsidies, supply chain complexity, task uncertainty (Foerstl, Kirchoff & Bals, 2016: 498) or developed technology in home country (Lund & Steen, 2020: 2). Besides, Wan et al. (2019: 9) underlined how the home country affects relocation strategy and motivational factors related to home-country specific, are dependent to home country's institutions, culture, industry conditions and resources.

Backer et al. (2016: 4) drew a comprehensive framework in their study and mentioned about changing cost structure in emerging countries, growing digitalization of manufacturing in Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) companies, miscalculation of full costs, the co-location of R&D, innovation and production (divided value chain activities), potential threats to intellectual property theft, balancing costs and risks and proximity to market to support flexibility as the motivational factors behind reshoring.

Beyond firm-specific evaluations regarding motivations of reshoring, there is a few studies, which reminds company's strategic decisions also affects consumers attitudes (see. Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015, 2018, 2019; Stępień & Młody, 2017; Cassia, 2020), which of all emphasizes, effects of company reshoring on consumers may be considered as more important than the other factors, since reshoring is expected to increase also customer value in home countries (Cassia, 2020: 1101). This perspective will be discussed in detail throughout the Chapter 2.

1.5. MAIN THEORITICAL PERSPECTIVES BEHIND RESHORING

Companies' location strategies are mainly evaluated through the International Trade Theory, Resource Based View (RBV) and Transaction Cost Economics (TCE), which of all also adopted to explain reshoring in literature (Wiesmann et al., 2017: 25; Fratocchi et al., 2016: 108).

On the basis of international trade theory, reshoring, which reconfigure the comparative advantages by sustaining the production domestically, reflects the

changes in countries with regard to the comparative static concerns as relative size, technical progress, demand shifts and unilateral transfers (Dornbusch, Fischer & Samuelson, 1977: 826). As same as the many academics who used TCE and RBV to understand and explain reshoring concept better, Fratocchi et al. (2016: 108) was also followed both of these theories. Accordingly, TCE helps to explain transactional costs of an offshoring decision that may lead the company to face with unsustainable supply operations, while RBV reminds the companies' resource dependency related concerns. In this sense, location decisions are not given only as a consequence of cost-related reasons but also a governance efficiency in supply chains (Fratocchi et al., 2016: 108).

Grounding on TCE (Williamson, 2008: 12) theory, while offshoring may stand out positively in terms of benefits for some companies, its effectiveness may be questionable for some companies due to unforeseen transaction costs. Moreover, although companies move from high-cost countries to low-cost ones considering the cost advantages, weaknesses in IP rights in low-cost countries may cause this relocation to create negative costs (Ellram, Tate & Petersen, 2013: 15).

On the other hand, RBV asserts that a company gains competitive advantage if it implements a value creating strategy, which is different than its competitors, this company gains a sustained competitive advantage when the benefits of this implemented strategy is inimitable by the competitors as well as the competitors are not able to implement the same strategy (Barney, 1991: 102). This view puts the company resources forefront factor to have a competitive advantage. Accordingly, RBV underlines the heterogeneity of the resources; such that, resources must have four attributes as being valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable and free from the strategically equivalent substitutes (Barney, 1991: 105-106). In this context, the reshoring decision may be filtered through several different aspects based on RBV. Companies may do reshoring as a result of their inability to develop critical tangible and intangible resources in offshore countries, or they may have difficulties in transferring and applying these resources abroad in their own countries (Fratocchi et al., 2016: 108). On the contrary, they can offshore to gain access to a number of unique resources that provide them a competitive advantage (Canham & Hamilton, 2013: 278).

In addition to these main theories, Wan et al. (2019: 2) examined reshoring under the discussion about home country related factors, thus, used three perspectives

as institutional, cultural/cognitive and industry perspectives and RBV. In accordance with institutional perspective, companies' reshoring decisions are shaped by the formal and informal institutions in home country. Hence, for example more developed countries' institutions provide more resources to multinational companies to expand internationally that helps them to reduce transaction costs. On the other hand, cultural perspective underlines the cultural values, norms and individual beliefs on internationalization decisions in home-country; cognitive perspective emphasizes the individuals' mindsets and behaviors, which was argued to affect reshoring decision.

Moreover, Dunning (1980)'s eclectic paradigm is followed to explain reshoring, since OLI model is well-suited for location decisions as discussed in the related part above. Accordingly, reshoring decision may be given as a result of the changes in location-specific advantages, or the impairment in ownership and internalization advantages (Ellram, Tate & Petersen, 2013: 15-16). Accordingly, the change in the factors that trigger relocation to offshoring locations over time is directly proportional to the transformation of the factors considered as an advantage. In addition to the considerations based on the loss of the locational advantages, the motivation of companies to use their resources effectively and to make a difference in competition is dominant behind the reshoring decision, since the difficulties of conducting contractual-based operations in distant countries may lead to loss of ownership-specific advantages.

CHAPTER 2

RESHORING THROUGH THE LENS OF DEMAND-SIDE

In the previous chapter, international strategy, organizational management, relocation decisions and the concept of reshoring in the global supply chain literature were introduced. Almost all studies in the existent literature have dealt with reshoring from a firm-side perspective, mainly by adopting transaction costs economics (TCE) and resource-based view (RBV) oriented theoretical approaches, respectively, as framing reshoring as a solution to the high transaction costs of managing distant locations in offshore locations, and as a solution to the difficulty of companies in managing their tangible and intangible resources in offshored countries. Moreover, based on Dunning's eclectic paradigm, it was emphasized that the reshoring decision was due to the termination of location-specific advantages of companies in offshore locations or deterioration in ownership and internalization specific advantages.

However, the demand-side effects of the reshoring decision have found little place in the literature. Accordingly, in this chapter, the reshoring decision will be presented in detail from a demand-side perspective (Priem & Butler, 2001; Priem, 2007; Priem and Swink, 2012; Priem, Wenzel & Koch, 2017) in line with the resource-advantage (R-A) theory (Hunt & Morgan, 1995; Hunt, 1997a; 1997b, 2003; 2008; Hunt & Davis, 2012). In addition, the relationship between reshoring and other related concepts in the marketing literature will be examined. As a result, the assumptions of the study will be listed by drawing a conceptual framework that can respond to the objectives of this study.

2.1. DEMAND-SIDE PERSPECTIVE

Demand-side perspective includes a wide methodological and disciplinary diversity based on strategic management literature as well as applied to the disciplines of international management, production management and supply chain management (Priem, Wenzel & Koch, 2017: 3). In general, this perspective emphasizes the central importance of the consumer in the strategic decision-making processes of companies.

In a value system, or in a value chain as described in the previous chapter, inbound logistics, operations, outbound logistics, marketing and sales, and service are

known as the primary activities, while procurement, technology development, human resource management and infrastructure are included as the support activities of the value chain (Porter, 1989: 246). Porter (1985b: 1-26) evaluated the effective transfer of skills and knowledge among the members of a value chain as a factor that brings competitive advantage in addition to cost advantages and unique (differentiating) offerings. Accordingly, value creation is possible by executing the separate functions in the value chain of companies in an integrated manner and by producing more cost-effective and unique products for consumers compared to competitors, which is how sustainable competitive advantage is obtained (Porter, 1985a: 33-61).

The RBV, on which the theoretical framework of reshoring was mentioned to be based in the previous chapter, focuses on the upstream of this value chain and assumes that strategies to be developed at the scale of producers and factor markets will bring competitive advantage (Priem & Swink, 2012: 8). In turn, demand-side perspective shifts its direction to the downstream of the value chain, to product markets and consumers. This approach emphasizes the necessity of making strategic decisions by focusing not only on internal, company-oriented resources of the RBV, but also constantly evaluating these resources in terms of the external environment, that is, demand side (Priem & Butler, 2011: 35). Generally, demand related mechanism is ignored in RBV, TCE and competitive environment and positioning theories (Priem, 2007: 219).

As a matter of fact, demand-side perspective is very compatible with Hunt and Morgan (1995) and Hunt (1997a)'s resource-advantage (R-A) theory. R-A theory is mentioned by Hunt (1997a: 433) to be theorized by drawn on resource-based view of the firm (see. Barney, 1991), dynamic capabilities approach (see. Teece & Pisano, 1997), distinctive capabilities view (see. Kay, 1993), and competitive advantage theory (see. Porter, 1985a). Based on all these disciplines, R-A theory proposes a more dynamic process, and especially compared to the resource-side approach, it describes a more realistic competition process that takes into account market realities that other theories ignore (Hunt & Arnett, 2003: 2).

First of all, in contrast to the neoclassical approach, in which market segments are homogeneous consumer groups with common tastes and preferences, and resources are comprised of capital, labor and land (Hunt & Morgan, 1995: 2-3), R-A

theory suggests resources, which are specifically categorized as financial, legal, physical, human, organizational, relational and informational, and market segments are heterogeneous and immobile as well as the resources (Hunt, Arnett, 2003: 7). More clearly, resources are “the tangible and intangible entities available to the firm that enable it to produce efficiently and/or effectively a market offering that has a value for some market segments(s)”, market segments are homogeneous within the groups but definitely heterogeneous across the groups, competition is dynamic and an ongoing process rather than stable, and the objective is achieving superior financial performance rather than profit maximization (Hunt, 1997b: 60).

On the other hand, considering the general arguments that are reflected by RBV, Priem and Butler (2001: 34) evaluated RBV as static, having stability and homogeneity-oriented market segment approach, considering resources externally and precisely. As a matter of fact, Priem (2007: 219) first proposed the consumer benefit experienced (CBE) view, based on the perspective that consumers are an important factor in the strategy development process, because the benefits experienced by consumers are essential for company success. This approach implies that a company strategy has an effect to gather a value-creating response from consumers. Consistently, one of the characteristics of demand-side-perspective is that it distinctly differentiates between value capture and value creation (Priem, Li & Carr, 2012: 348). Accordingly, Priem (2007: 220) defined value capture as an allocation of exchange value that companies sustain value capturing through receiving payments from consumers and being able to hold the power of these incoming payments among other members of the value chain.

On the other hand, value creation refers to the companies moves, strategies or innovations that enhances the gained benefits through the consumption by consumers. Once the value is created, consumers have a willing to pay more for the benefit gathered as it is perceived to be better. In line with the CBE perspective, consumers and companies are considered as partners in terms of value creation during consumption, such that company strategies are designed to enhance CBE in order to increase the value experienced by consumers, which in turn results with an increase in the payments done by the end users (Priem, 2007: 222). This created value enables the

company's resources to gain value and, moreover, this benefit creation makes it possible to create value for other stakeholders in the company's value chain.

Another characteristic of the demand-side perspective is the heterogeneity of consumer demand, which ensures the heterogeneity of companies' resources along with the different judgments and decisions of company managers that contributes to the heterogeneity of companies (Priem & Swink, 2012: 10; Priem, Li & Carr, 2012: 348). While RBV focuses on value capture with regard to the firm resources by shunning demand heterogeneity, demand-side perspective focuses on the ability to explain company strategies and managerial decisions, which can increase value creation in the entire value chain, from outside the company, that is to say, from the consumer side (Priem, Wenzel & Koch, 2017: 2). Moreover, demand-side perspective emphasizes the volatile, in other words 'dynamic', and even often latent consumer needs (Priem, Li & Carr, 2012: 348; Priem, Wenzel & Koch, 2017: 2). In this regard, different consumer groups exhibit different demand characteristics, and even a consumer may adopt different demand behavior over time, thereby sometimes consumer demand may be latent (Priem, Li & Carr, 2012: 362). Thus, the demand-side perspective embodies a value creation strategy that will benefit consumers. The CBE view and demand-side perspective predict that companies can develop strategies to gain competitive advantage by enabling the impact of new resources through a consumer-oriented focus (Priem, 2007: 233).

On the other hand, the demand-side perspective differs from RBV as well as from the classical marketing research orientation in that firm-level strategies do not concern marketing research (Priem, Li & Carr, 2012: 361), while demand-side perspective sees the consumer as an important part of firm-level strategy and decision processes, and predicts that company strategies can be transformed into a value creation for the end consumer. In another respect, the demand-side perspective highlights the possibility of involving both demand and supply sides in strategic decision-making processes, enriching the view of RBV that companies gain competitive advantage through the development of firm resources (Priem, Li & Carr, 2012: 362).

Looking again at R-A theory in this context, three aspects that are similar to the demand-side perspective stand out: (1) according to the resource definition of the

R-A theory, the equity of the companies is called as a resource only when they can produce an output that lead to the market value; (2) the fact that companies can respond to the heterogeneous and dynamic demand in the market with the steps they take at the strategic level, and transforming their resources into an effective form constitutes the element that makes a difference from the rivals in competition; (3) companies that respond to heterogeneous consumer demands and needs with strategically different steps compared to their competitors and that can offer market offerings according to different customer groups can achieve superior financial performance (Hunt & Davis, 2012: 15). The existence of a resource is not always an indication of an advantage, as the resource's ability to create a valuable market offering suited to the relevant consumer group is what R-A theory is rather concerned with (Hunt & Davis, 2012: 17).

Based on all of these, reshoring, which has come to the forefront as a strategic company decision in the current literature, will be evaluated on the locus of R-A theory and demand-side perspective, as well as RBV and TCA-based theories, and will reveal the opportunity to create value for the end consumer by applying a strategy. This view is consistent with Priem and Swink (2012: 10) assertion that demand-side perspective may complement the supply chain research based on manufacturing, procurement, planning and logistics, and may provide more complete understanding apprehension of supply chain managements' role.

In this respect, a few attempts to review of the existing firm-focused literature also elicits that reshoring decision affects customer value (Cassia, 2020: 1101), which complements internal-focused factors behind reshoring with demand-side perspective. Since the price-quality association is not solely an ingredient of sustaining competitive advantage, it is important for companies to reconsider their value propositions in accordance with changing consumer perception regarding long-distance supply chains, in addition to balancing rising costs of offshore production and delivery (Stępień & Młody, 2017: 230).

In this sense, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015: 454) examined the impact of reshoring decisions on consumer willingness to buy and willingness to pay for the products of reshored companies; by analyzing the mediating role of moral emotions (i.e., gratitude and righteous anger), and by considering the interaction of consumer

perceived company motives for reshoring (i.e., intrinsic vs. extrinsic) and level of ethnocentrism as the moderators. Drawing on the studies about consumers' moral emotional reactions towards implementation of offshoring (see. Grappi et al., 2013; Robertson et al., 2010; Thelen et al., 2011) as a starting point; Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015: 454) explored how consumers response to companies' reshoring and through which mechanism. Accordingly, it was presumed that reshoring decision would lead to a lower righteous anger and higher gratitude, hence would have a highest willingness to buy the reshored companies' products (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015: 463).

In addition to mediating role of moral emotions to explain willingness to buy of reshored company products; Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015: 455) considered the perceived motives of reshoring and the level of consumer's ethnocentrism, which of both presumed to be made this link stronger. Accordingly, since firm-serving motives, called as extrinsic motives, are considered more opportunistic and shows a focus that is highly related to company itself, is expected to be perceived negatively by consumers (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015: 463). On the contrary, since public-serving, called as intrinsic motives, proves the focus of benefiting people outside the company, hence, shows altruism and social concern of the company, is expected to be perceived positively by consumers (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015: 463). Consequently, stronger intrinsic and weaker extrinsic motives perceived by consumers about a company's reshoring decision, associate with high level of gratitude and low level of righteous anger, would lead to a significant variance on willingness to buy of reshored company's products (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015: 464).

Besides, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015:464) found that perceived company motives interact with consumer ethnocentrism for righteous anger, but not for gratitude. Consequently, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015: 468) suggest companies to consider consumer reactions towards reshoring decision, and to design effective communication strategies for extracting positive emotional feelings of consumers, since promoting company motives, especially intrinsic ones, will have a positive effect on willingness to buy and pay since consumers feel high gratitude.

In line with the literature emphasizing the improved customer-perceived quality as a result of leveraging the positive made-in effect by relocating

manufacturing activities back to home-country is a motivational driver for reshoring, Cassia (2020: 1100) focused on whether the variance of perceived product quality differs from pre-knowledge about company's past offshoring activity by consumers to non-knowledge, in addition to pre-reshoring and post-reshoring differences. Since early studies were focused on post-reshoring consumer attitudes, Cassia (2020: 1100) considered the whether the post-reshoring consumer attitudes better, worse or the same as the pre-reshoring ones. Additionally, Cassia (2020: 1101) argued that variance on perceived product quality may stand on previous knowledge of consumers about company's past offshoring activity, since consumers may think the company had been manufacturing in home-country.

Besides, Cassia (2020: 1102) considered that consumer ethnocentrism would have an impact on post-reshoring perceived product quality, however this affect may change within the variations of ethnocentrism. Within this scope, Sharma's (2014: 386) cognitive and affective ethnocentrism were used to predict the variation of consumer perceived product quality about past-reshoring (Cassia, 2020: 1102). Cognitive ethnocentrism is considered as consumers rational evaluations such as home country's production capacities or greater workmanship, whereas emotional (affective) ethnocentrism is considered as consumer's proudness towards made in home-country products (Cassia, 2020: 1102). As a result of the analysis, a significant improvement in perceived product quality was observed only for consumers who had both previous knowledge about company's past offshoring decision and high level of affective ethnocentrism (Cassia, 2020: 1104). Consumers with high level of cognitive ethnocentrism don't show reaction towards company's reshoring decision, regardless of with or without knowledge of past off-shoring, significantly (Cassia, 2020: 1104). It is emphasized that companies, which do reshoring and want to raise awareness on consumers, should design a communication strategy which eases to attract consumer's emotions and affective attitudes (Cassia, 2020: 1111).

In this regard, even though reshoring is mainly a company relocation strategy, it has also substantial effects on consumers, since companies are able to imply their strategic decisions in response to consumer demand and concerns, which may create an unforeseen value through a relocation strategy, to attract customers.

2.2. CONSUMER RESHORING SENTIMENT

Although there are important factors behind the reshoring decision in the firm-sided approaches, after firms make a reshoring decision, the perception appeared on consumers has a determining effect on the responses of consumers towards the products of the related reshored firms, which leads to an unforeseen value creation through mainly a strategic company decision (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 204).

Reshoring decision constitutes the whole of positive and cognitive evaluations in consumers' minds, and, it is defined in Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi's study (2018: 196) as 'consumer reshoring sentiment' (CRS) as a whole construct with six different dimensions that had been proved to have an impact on consumers' behavioral responses towards reshored companies' products. Accordingly, "superior quality of the reshored production", "made-in" effect", "competency availability", "government support", "greater ability to fulfill needs", and "ethical issues in host countries" are the dimensions of CRS (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 201), which all reflect the consumers' perception to what extent they support with a positive manner the reshoring decisions.

As Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi (2018: 196) specifically emphasizes, the six dimensions that make up the CRS actually pairs off the motivation of the companies for reshoring decisions. Therefore, consumers and companies seem to evaluate the reshoring decision with the same dimensions. But the main difference is the perception. Consumers and companies have a completely different perspective, which points to demand-side. In the following part, six dimension of CRS will be analyzed.

2.2.1. CRS Dimension 1: Superior Quality of The Reshored Production

"Superior quality of the reshored production" is defined as the perception of consumers in the host country that the products produced in home country are superior to the products whose production has been relocated abroad by offshoring in the past (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 198). In this context, the main themes highlighted by the interview responses in recent qualitative study shows that the reshored products are reassured because they have gone through a more transparent production process than they were abroad in the past or, consumers consider that reshored products safer

(Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 196). Hence, the production quality in the home country is considered as higher, and this results the positive tendency of home country consumers about perceived quality of reshored products. This dimension of CRS is in line with the findings about quality problems, which addressed in literature as an outcome of offshoring (e.g., Kinkel & Maloca, 2009: 159; Schröder, 2012: 188; Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2013: 684, 2015: 469, 2018: 195, 2019: 72; Bellego, 2014: 2; Fratocchi et al., 2014: 57; Kinkel, 2014: 64, 2015: 28, 2018: 198; Martínez-Mora & Merino, 2014: 229; Albertoni et al., 2015: 9; Fratocchi et al., 2015: 384; Backer et al., 2016: 10; Fratocchi, et al., 2016: 108). Since offshoring fails to deliver the expected product quality promise (Fratocchi et al., 2016: 111; Albertoni, Elia, Piscitello, 2017: 60) by making offshored companies suffer, triggers companies to relocate their value chain activities that were offshored in the past (Kinkel & Maloca, 2009: 159, 2014: 64, 2018: 202; Lund & Steen, 2020: 9).

In spite of the fact that companies have decided to offshore their activities to gain a cost related advantage (Kinkel & Maloca, 2009: 163), lower product quality than expected, being obliged to recall defective products (Backer et al., 2016: 10), unforeseen costs caused by difficulties in transferring information from home facility to offshore one, operability and control issues (Sayem, Feldman, Ortega-Mier, 2018: 77), unforeseen ramp-up times, quality control and coordination expenses (Kinkel & Maloca, 2009: 162), which of all, and more even arise as hidden costs of offshoring (Schröder, 2012: 188; Martínez-Mora & Merino, 2014: 227; Fratocchi et al., 2016: 110; Joubioux & Vanpoucke, 2016: 120; Chernova, 2020: 163; Kinkel, 2018: 198; Lund & Steen, 2020: 9). Therefore, all these issues reveal the importance of total cost rather than unit cost (Backer et al., 2016: 10). Accordingly, the low product quality level, which constitutes a significant percentage of unforeseen costs, has been coming to the fore in the literature as one of the most important drivers behind the reshoring decision (Kinkel & Maloca, 2009: 159; Bellego, 2014: 2; Fratocchi, 2014: 57, 2015: 390, 2016: 108; Kinkel, 2015: 28, 2018: 202; Albertoni et al., 2015: 10; Ancarani et al., 2015: 146; Backer et al., 2016: 15; Joubioux & Vanpoucke, 2016: 121; Srai & Ané, 2016: 7201; Capik, 2017: 147; Hartman et al., 2017: 366; Ancarani & Di Mauro, 2018: 91; Barbieri et al., 2018: 92; Sayem, Feldman & Ortega-Mier, 2018: 76; Di-

Stefano & Fratocchi, 2019: 131; Éltető, 2019: 13; Boffelli & Johansson, 2020: 65; Cassia, 2020: 1101; Chernova, 2020: 163; Lund & Steen, 2020: 9).

Undoubtedly, the rationale for reshoring decision is not only the cost or host country related issues, which trigger the emergence of quality problems experienced by offshoring. Kinkel (2014: 64) underlined that the motivation regarding quality issues behind reshoring decision may vary depending on the exit mode from the host country, i.e. whether the company is returning back to home country from its own facility in the offshore country (captive reshoring) or from foreign suppliers in the offshore country (outsourced reshoring). Correspondingly, it has been observed that companies, returning from foreign suppliers in offshore countries back to home country (i.e., outsourced reshoring) have reported quality problems as an important reshoring motivation with a large percentage. In addition to those, Kinkel (2015: 29) showed, by revealing the variability in the drivers of reshoring from low-income countries and reshoring from high-income countries, that, quality problems stand out as a motivation factor twice as high in reshoring from low-income countries compared to reshoring from high-income countries. Although the importance or frequency varies according to different groups and conditions, product quality issues are at the forefront as an important driver in the literature at the point of abandoning offshoring and turning to reshoring.

Although companies initially underestimate the change in consumers' perception of product quality when giving an offshore decision (Ancarani & Di Mauro, 2018: 90), considering the insistence of consumers on product quality that puts pressure on companies (Di Mauro et al., 2018: 1; Éltető, 2019: 6), and the importance of product quality in staying competitive (Ancarani et al., 2015: 150; Ancarani, Di Mauro & Mascali, 2019: 363), companies have realized that reshoring offers opportunities that will enable to increase the competitiveness by developing new and higher quality products (Benstead, Stevenson & Hendry, 2017: 91; Theyel et al., 2018: 307), and being more flexible to customer demand (Backer et al., 2016: 10; Bellego, 2014: 2; Éltető, 2019: 6). Hence, companies will ensure their reputation by guaranteeing their customers the quality they expect (Theyel, Hofmann & Gregory, 2018: 305). In short, consumers' skeptical approach about the quality of products

produced offshore has enabled companies to be aware of the demand-side interaction of the reshoring decision.

In line with this awareness, Bals, Kirchoff and Foerstl (2016: 109) put emphasis on the fact that the manufacturing is shifted to a closer location to the consumer market in terms of promising superior product quality. They gave the example on relocation decision of General Electric from Chinese suppliers to its own facility in the US as a result of decreased sales arising perceived product quality. Baraldi (2017: 5) studied on a case company, which experienced product quality issues in their past partial offshoring execution either; notwithstanding, has never stopped working with suppliers in its home country, since it directly affects the perceived product quality. Additionally, Barbieri et al. (2017: 13, 2018: 92) interpreted low quality level of manufactured offshore products as a customer related issue. In that vein, Fratocchi et al. (2016: 110) considered perceived product quality under customer-perceived value objective, which show that consumers develop a relationship between the country where products are manufactured and their perceived quality. Accordingly, companies that implement the reshoring strategy in order to offer better quality products are appreciated by the consumers, and in return for this satisfaction, consumers are tend to pay a premium for reshored products (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015: 468).

Considering the quality issues on the basis of reshoring, it is also in a positive relationship with the brand image (Bellego, 2014: 4; Ancarani, Di Mauro & Mascali, 2019: 363). Since reshoring increases the perceived quality, as the stronger the brand image the higher the quality standards perceived by the end consumer (Sayem, Feldman & Ortega-Mier, 2018: 74). Moreover, reshoring improves brand awareness and prominence through “locally-made” positioning (Ancarani et al., 2015: 152; Backer et al., 2016: 15; Srai & Ané, 2016: 7196; Ancarani, Di Mauro & Mascali, 2019: 363). Indeed, Ancarani et al. (2015: 142) categorizes the motivations behind reshoring based on *raison d'être* of Dunning's (1998: 53, 2000: 164) eclectic (or OLI²) paradigm, consisting of efficiency, market, resource, and strategic assets seeking, correspondingly regards quality problems as one of the links that provide to achieve

² Ownership-Specific Advantages, Location-Specific Advantages and Internalization-Specific Advantages.

the strategic assets, which are utilized as essentials for a company's survival. In this respect, it can be interpreted that, companies which give a reshoring decision by taking into account the quality problems will also be able to invest in accessing or maintaining strategic assets by giving this decision. When the aforementioned effect of quality problems on the brand image is evaluated, and through considering that the brand image also represents a strategic asset (Ancarani et al., 2015: 152), companies, which are experiencing quality problems in offshore products, turn to reshoring in order to eliminate both perceived product quality-based and brand image-based losses in the eyes of consumers, hence, achieve substantially the necessary strategic assets.

Besides, Ancarani et al. (2015:152) mainly examines the variability in motivation factors behind reshoring with short or long offshoring durations. Accordingly, the decision to reshoring for quality reasons (in search of strategic assets) also explains the shorter duration of the previous offshoring. In other words, companies having quality problems during offshoring tend to reshore in a shorter time. All these, in a way, prove that the issue of quality is of great importance not only for the companies but also at the consumer level. That is why companies consider quality issues as a search for strategic assets (Ancarani et al., 2015: 152). Indeed it is related mostly with consumers (Barbieri et al., 2017: 13), thus, correct the decision they think they made wrong in the past (Kinkel & Maloca, 2009: 159; Gray et al., 2013: 27), in a much shorter time.

In this context, the dimension of "quality superiority of the reshored production" has been explained above by examining firm-side motivation factors in terms of showing the reasons underlying the perspectives of consumers in this direction. Much as the perspective behind consumers' belief in the superior quality of reshored products differs with the perspective behind companies' decision to reshoring due to quality issues (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 196), further to that, a firm-sided reshoring motivation, that is, quality problems, comes to the forefront as an important factor in terms of having negative reflections from the point of demand-side. This perspective also explains the reason of the positive belief with regard to the reshoring decision in the eyes of consumers.

2.2.2. CRS Dimension 2: Greater Ability to Fulfill Needs

“Greater ability to fulfill needs” is defined as the beliefs of consumers that reshoring products fits the bill more than offshoring products and are therefore superior (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 198). According to the qualitative study outputs made within the scope of CRS scale development (see. Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 196), participants emphasized that the products produced with offshoring, especially in underdeveloped or developing countries, are less oriented to meet their needs compared to the products produced in their own countries.

Undoubtedly, the background of this type of perception by consumers lays down to the demand-side perspective of global supply chains, since any failure of the chain ultimately affects the final consumer. It is a fact that when the complexity of today's supply chain operations comes together with the volatile and difficult to predict demand in the market (Christopher & Towill, 2002: 1), it is very important to design an efficient supply chain operation that will give importance to the needs and expectations of the market, that is, the end consumer. In doing so, companies get one step ahead of the competition.

The necessity to meet the demands and needs of the end consumer is the most challenging part of the global supply chain (Engström et al., 2017: 179). As Christopher said (2011: 15) "the real competition is not company against company but rather supply chain against supply chain". This view underlies the philosophy that companies will not be able to gain competitive advantage by transferring costs from one tier to another within their entire supply chain operation. Ultimately, this cost transfer will be reflected in the price to be paid by the end consumer. For this reason, companies need to increase the value creation they offer to the consumers while reducing the total cost. In this sense, Emberson, Godsell and Harrison (2001: 4) underlined with regard to Dawes (2000) the market orientation strategy, which is divided into two as customer analyses and customer responsiveness. While the former refers to understanding customer needs and wants, latter refers to taking these needs into account by meeting them. Accordingly, this mindset is what consumers expect from companies and a necessity for supply chain managers at the same time.

In today's dynamic consumption market, consumers expect not only short lead times, but also customization and flexibility for their needs, which highlights the importance of responsiveness and supply chain agility (Christopher & Towill, 2002: 1; Christopher, 2010: 23). Christopher and Towill (2002: 1) identifies agility as responding the switches in the demand swiftly, which emphasizes customers' needs prominently. The concept of customer here can refer to a purchaser or an end consumer in the flow of supply chain; however, it is certain that the demand side is the appreciator of a company's competence in managing such operations (Gligor et al., 2020: 723). On the other hand, Christopher and Towill (2002: 4) interpreted the cost and lead time data of retail chains producing offshoring, which Lowson (2001) shared in his study. Accordingly, the existence of losses in operational flexibility caused by the offshoring is evident (Christopher & Towill, 2002: 4). Today's consumers now expect smaller quantities and greater flexibility (Engström et al., 2017: 179). Indeed, Lowson, King and Hunter (1999 :263) emphasized that the actual costs of the offshoring strategy were ignored and stated that companies would have a greater response capability towards consumers' needs through domestic sourcing compared to offshoring products. These inferences align with the greater ability to fulfill needs dimension in Grappi's CRS (2018).

It is obvious that the production function is now much more valuable than in the past, that it is not only a part that combines intermediate goods and raw materials in the value chain, but an important part in the realization of the shortened lead-time expectation of the end consumer within an integrated process (Pegoraro Propri & Chidlow, 2020: 157). As a matter of fact, Robinson and Hsieh (2016) examined the steps of British fashion brand Burberry to repatriation in the supply chain strategy in a case study. In addition to emphasis on reshoring's contribution to Burberry's brand positioning, Burberry has become more agile in response to rapidly changing consumer demand, had the ability meet the needs of consumers in a more flexible structure, and had the opportunity to retain production control by shortening the supply chain length (Robinson & Hsieh, 2016: 97). In addition, a remarkable detail in the study was that even consumers in China did not prefer to buy the Burberry trench coat made in China (Robinson & Hsieh, 2016: 95). In this context, the preferences and demand of the consumers, their expectations from the company and the brand show

the effects of manufacturing location decision. Although manufacturing location is generally considered within the strategic and operational management context in the literature, it even touches the end consumer in a way. Based on all these, the reshoring decision creates an important sentiment in the eyes of consumers that the products produced in their own countries will be superior to those produced offshore, and will meet their needs better.

2.2.3. CRS Dimension 3: Government Support

Government support is defined as the belief of consumers that governments should favor companies that return back home by reshoring, in order to struggle against unemployment and other negative socio-economic impacts caused by offshoring (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 198). Accordingly, generation campaigns for reshoring companies by governments, together with the policy institutions affiliated to them will also support and increase the tendency towards reshoring (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 196). According to the qualitative study outputs (see. Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 196), the issue frequently emphasized by the participants was that the consumers would support as much as possible the governmental campaigns such as tax reductions and incentives to be produced for companies doing reshoring.

It has been involved in many studies that the support given to companies that do or will do reshoring by governments increases the motivation for reshoring (Ancarani, Di Mauro & Mascali, 2019: 360; Bals, Kirchoff & Foerstl, 2016: 105; Stentoft, Mikkelsen & Jensen, 2016: 133; Zhai, Sun & Zhang, 2016: 66; Boffelli & Johansson, 2020: 61; Calvelli & Cannavale, 2019: 122; Fracocchi et al., 2013: 32, 2014: 57, 2015: 382, 2016: 104; Wan et al., 2019: 1). Undoubtedly, the rising offshoring with globalization brought to light doubts about patriotism, job losses and economic problems in the home countries (Whitfield, 2017: 127). This situation naturally enabled policy makers and governments to take reshoring into account as a result of its effects on pushing up economic development, national production and reducing unemployment (Chernova, 2020: 160).

Indeed, the US is an important example of government involvement (Wan et al., 2019: 1), as President Obama had called for incentives such as tax breaks to

American companies that returned production to America in 2012 (Landler, 2012: 1). According to a report published by the Reshoring Initiative (2018: 1), more than 750.000 manufacturing jobs were brought to US from offshore countries between 2010 and 2018. In addition, the European Union (EU) developed a resolution supporting reshoring in order to establish competitiveness and sustainability within Europe, and many European countries announced that they would provide incentives to support reshoring activities on a local basis (Chernova, 2020: 160). As a part of Eurofund Initiative, The European Reshoring Monitor Project has been executed to identify, analyze and bring together evidences on reshoring within EU between 2015-2018. As a result, 12.840 manufacturing jobs were brought back to EU within the same time period of this project (Eurofund, 2019: 1). On the other hand, UK government launched the “Reshore UK” initiative, in which advices of experts have been provided for reshoring cases (Backer et al., 2016: 24).

Given the labor force creation and support to unemployment, it is reasonable for governments to offer some incentives for companies doing reshoring to improve both domestic manufacturing and resource ownership. In a case study of a company returning to the UK by terminating offshoring activities in a developed country rather than a developing country, contrary to what is usually the case, Ashby (2016: 85) reveals reshoring's benefits for policy makers and governments as well, such as creating new business lines, unearthing capabilities within the country, supporting the local community and economic growth at local and national scale. In this context, the incentives given by the governments with this awareness will make the reshoring attractive among companies that have problems in offshoring adaptation (Ellram, Tate & Petersen, 2013: 19; Moore, Rothenberg & Moser, 2018: 1028).

The above-mentioned examples regarding the role of government subsidies behind companies' decision to reshoring also explain the underlying reason why consumers express their opinion in favor of government subsidies for reshoring. As domestic consumers benefit from the employment opportunities and economic development deriving from reshoring, the more incentives or campaign announced by governments will increase to that extent new opportunities for the community. Consequently, home-country consumers support government campaigns for reshoring.

2.2.4. CRS Dimension 4: Made-in Effect

Unlike the general meaning associated with at the economy or firm levels, “made-in effect” as a sub dimension of CRS, represents positive and supportive beliefs of consumers, who experience reshored products personally, whereof, this situation reflects the affective disposition of the "made-in effect" (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 198). Correspondingly, consumers feel a sense of pride that the products of companies that decide to reshore are now produced in their own countries. In this case, reshoring decision is not only seen as supporting and strengthening domestic production, but also as protecting and maintaining "made-in-home-country" production (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 196).

“Made-in effect”, regardless of being another dimension of CRS, has been also mentioned in literature as one of the important motivational factors behind reshoring (Bellego, 2014: 2; Ancarani et al., 2015: 146; Fratocchi et al., 2015: 390; Backer et al., 2016: 15; Barbieri et al., 2017: 13, 2018: 91; Benstead, Stevenson & Hendry, 2017: 91; Di Mauro et al., 2018: 6; Calvelli & Cannavale, 2019: 125; Conz, 2019: 77; Éltető, 2019: 6; Eurofund, 2019: 15; Fratocchi & Di Stefano, 2019: 464; Moretto, Patrucco & Harland, 2019: 6; Kandil, Battaïa & Hammami, 2020: 3), just like quality issues aforementioned in section 2.2.1.. However, it is possible that there might be differences based on perspective and approach in the foundation of consumers’ positive thoughts in favor of companies’ reshoring decision that emergent from made-in effect, and what the companies consider with the made-in effect while deciding to reshore. The conceptual evaluation will be eye-opening for these differences to be explained, in the context of which Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2018: 196) already state that the sub-dimensions of CRS also correspond to the motivational factors behind the companies' reshoring decisions, but there are notional differences between them.

When evaluated in its original context, most researches on the country of origin (COO) show that the national belonging of the products, that is, the origin, is accepted as an indicator of product attributes (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999: 523), especially the product quality (Bilkey & Nes, 1982: 89; Li & Wyer, 1994: 188; Kumara & Canhua, 2009: 343; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009: 726). Thus, “made-in” labels has a determinative role in product evaluations and purchasing intentions of consumers (Li,

Murray & Scott, 2000: 122). In this regard, COO affects product evaluations as the general evaluation and perception of the consumers towards the products of a country based on the past production and marketing status (strong or weak) of that country (Roth & Romeo, 1992: 480). However, the relationship between “made-in” effect and product evaluations has been obtained for cases where the COO is given as a single product cue (Bilkey & Nes, 1982: 93); whereas, the product or product category identified with a country, or COO is not the only clue that consumers consider during product preference. There are often different external cues such as price, brand name, reputation etc. that help consumers to make a judgment about product quality (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999: 523), or to be persuaded for product purchasing. Beyond these, the preferential behavior or inferences of consumers towards product attributions in a particular country specification follows two paths (Josiassen, 2011: 125). First, evaluating through the product-country image (PCI), which constitutes the people and national stereotypes of a country in general (Han, 1989: 223; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999: 525). Second, the motivation to prefer domestic products when appropriate, even if a foreign product-country match has a higher image (Herche, 1992: 261).

In this context, it would be a more relevant approach to explain the made-in effect by considering the fact that consumers also show an emotional tendency to products produced in their own countries (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 198), far beyond the image it represents based on cognitive aspects of the COO (Johansson, 1989: 49; Laroche et al., 2005: 109). As a matter of fact, Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999: 523) emphasized that the country of origin also stirs a number of symbolic and emotional attachments to consumers, which supports the "emotional" emphasis that Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi (2018: 198) made while defining the made-in effect as a sub-dimension of the CRS. This is consistent with the findings in the literature that the COO effect includes not only cognitive but also emotional, normative (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999: 524) or conative components (Laroche et al., 2005: 98). Moreover, cognitive and conative facets of COO are able to be taken as one single element since cognitive beliefs and behavioral intentions of individuals can form a unity, and thus, present two different dimensions together with the affective dimension (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009: 734). The made-in effect, which is examined in this section as a sub-dimension of CRS, reflects mainly the affective mechanism of COO as a result

it represents pride of consumers, rather than cognitive judgments. This is because the products of companies making the decision of reshoring will now be produced in their own countries. Accordingly, individuals, who are positively sensitive to reshoring companies and their products, seem to show a bias in favor of the products produced domestically given by their national belonging, which is referred as domestic country bias (DCB) in literature (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004: 80).

DCB, which reflects a socio-psychological feature of individuals (Verlegh, 2007: 370), regardless of the product quality-based judgment of the COO, is also explained by consumer ethnocentrism and national identification constructs (Fischer & Zeugner-Roth, 2014: 476). Accordingly, consumer ethnocentrism is defined as the desire of consumers to prefer products produced in their own countries, in terms of morality and conformity, based on the belief that the purchase of imported products harms the country's economy and causes loss of jobs (Shimp & Sharma, 1987: 280), and in this respect reflects the normative component of the COO (Fischer & Zeugner-Roth, 2016: 190). However, consumer ethnocentrism, as a concept that often bears the economic concerns of consumers (Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar & Diamantopoulos, 2015: 25), is not the only reason behind the domestic country bias (Verlegh, 2007: 363), since there is also aforementioned national identification exist.

Based on Tajfel (1969: 141), which expresses the three characteristic attitudes of nationalism as being a member of a community, the emotional identification associated with this membership, and the natural sharing of national attitudes by millions of people; Feather (1981: 1017) has defined national identification as the attitudes developed in reference to the nation as an entity with emotional sense in its essence, although its intensity varies depending on time and people, and the full adoption of these attitudes by a large mass of the nation. In other words, national identification is related to the degree to which individuals identify with, and the state of attachment created by positive feelings towards their own nation (Fischer & Zeugner-Roth, 2014: 476). According to Feather (1981: 1026), situations in which national identification is felt strongly will bring along the tendency of individuals to justify national decisions that concern whole nation. Accordingly, national identification greatly affects individuals' judgments against their own and other countries (Verlegh, 2007: 362).

Emphasizing the relationship between national identification and ingroup bias, which refers to see the own group or members of that group superior than non-members and outgroups (Hewstone, Rubin & Willis, 2002: 576), Verlegh (2007: 362) stated that the stronger the ingroup bias, the more national identification. It should be noted, however, that while ingroup bias means individuals affirm their own group (ingroup favoritism), this does not mean derogating outgroups or fostering outgroup hate (Brewer, 1999: 431, 2007: 730; Hewstone, Rubin & Willis, 2002: 579). Indeed, the fundamental difference between the consumer ethnocentrism and national identification, aforementioned as two forms of DCB, is based on the theoretical approach that ingroup favoritism does not mean outgroup derogation.

Correspondingly, Verlegh (2007: 370) pointed out the main difference between consumer ethnocentrism and national identification as; the former refers to a positive bias against domestic products and a negative bias against foreign products; whereas, in national identification, there is no negative bias against foreign products. It is also supported by the findings obtained in the study of Fischer and Zeugner-Roth (2014: 477) that consumer ethnocentrism and national identification are divergent constructs from each other.

In the light of all this theoretical background, when made-in effect is examined as a dimension of CRS, it has been observed with regard to the made-in effect related reshoring motivation of companies, that, companies prefer to use made-in reputation in order to eliminate the loss of image caused by the loss of perceived product quality caused by offshoring, and to benefit from the brand image that is considered as a strategic asset that provides competitive advantage (Bellego, 2014: 3; Ancarani et al., 2015: 152). However, when consumers evaluate the product on the basis of the idea of origin, they do not only make connections about quality, but also consider emotions (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999: 523) such as national belonging (Fournier, 1998: 523) or pride, and past memories (Botschen & Hemetsberger, 1998: 7).

Therefore, since the made-in effect reflects affective mechanism of COO, it can be inferred as containing domestic country bias in its content. In addition, it is clear that consumer ethnocentrism represents the normative element of the COO construct, whereas, made-in effect is mostly account for national identification which reflects the affective component of domestic bias.

2.2.5. CRS Dimension 5: Competency Availability

Competency availability expresses the belief of home country consumers that reshoring will affect the country's production positively, due to the fact that local workers are superior to foreign workers, since they are more competent and specialized (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 198). In this sense, consumers appreciate companies making the reshoring decision because they believe that local employees are better than foreigners.

As a matter of fact, this theme, which increases positive sentiment of home country consumers towards the companies' reshoring decision, is also included in the motivation of companies to make a reshoring decision. Accordingly, many companies make reshoring decision because of the unskilled labor problem in offshore locations, which is considered as a part of host country related reasons of reshoring (Ancarani et al., 2015: 146; Baraldi et al., 2017:3; Di Mauro et al., 2018: 15; Fraticelli et al., 2013: 32, 2015: 381; Joubioux & Vanpoucke, 2016: 120; Kandil, Battaïa & Hammami, 2020: 3; Kinkel, 2015: 35; Stentoft, Mikkelsen & Jensen, 2016: 135). The unskilled labor problem, which is one of the triggering factors behind the reshoring decision, is also an important detail that companies. Companies should consider when giving the manufacturing location decision to exploit the low labor advantage, since unskilled labor force may weaken the companies' ability to compete on time (Bhatnagar & Sohal, 2005:443). As a result, unskilled labor case, which makes its first effects felt during the manufacturing phase, will create a chain effect, and cause a dissatisfaction even by the end consumers, especially in terms of reaching the consumers at the right time with expected quality products.

Kinkel (2015: 29) stated that European companies have been disrupted in terms of quality and lack of competent workers of their production activities in low-income countries. Many reshoring initiatives in the fashion and textile sector are carried out in search of a highly skilled workforce (Ancarani & Di Mauro, 2018: 90). Since companies producing in their own country have a broad and more competent workforce supply, it brings flexibility and smooth production processes with it as well. In a way, reshoring allows companies to benefit from local and geographic

competencies that exist in the home country (Ancarani, Di Mauro & Mascali, 2019: 361).

Since it is known that labor skills also affect product quality (Ancarani, Di Mauro & Mascali, 2019: 361), the confidence of consumers to local workers, whom they consider to have higher skills, and the beliefs regarding the enhanced production power deriving from reshoring coincide with each other. As a result, competency availability emerges as a motivation for companies to benefit from the higher skills of domestic workers, and a positive attitude towards companies' decision to reshoring for consumers with confidence in the quality of domestic workers.

2.2.6. CRS Dimension 6: Ethical Issues in Host Countries

The fact that trade is not confined to the borders of the country, that is, its internationalization brings negative costs apart from the positive contributions (Hoffmann, Yin & Hoffmann, 2020: 251). Especially the relocation of the production processes in the global supply chain brings many ethical concerns both on environmental sustainability (Gray et al., 2013: 30; Orzes & Sarkis, 2019: 481) and working conditions (Locke et al., 2007: 3); thus, compelled both consumers and companies to think about moral aspects of global supply chains (Eriksson, Hilletofth & Hilmola, 2013: 212).

In this regard, ethical issues points out the positive beliefs of consumers about reshoring. Consumers believe that reshoring halts companies using less-regulated working conditions in developing countries as well as harming the environment callously (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 198). In fact, consumers may consider companies' reshoring as an ethical decision (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 196), which is in line with the view based upon the sustainability issues motivate reshoring on firm-level (Orzes & Sarkis, 2019: 481). Opinions devoted to the ability of reshoring to prevent ethical concerns are undoubtedly the result of the fact that there are strict controls and sanctions regarding both working conditions and environmental regulations, especially in developed countries. Therefore, consumers perceive the made-in home country products to influence the environment less (Di Stefano & Fratocchi, 2019: 131).

In this context, companies have started to give weight to environmental and social issues based on sustainability, while considering reshoring decision (Fratocchi & Di Stefano, 2019: 452). As a matter of fact, 30% of companies participating in the research conducted by Fel and Griette (2016: 8) stated that those companies had changed their company strategies following the reshoring adopted a more socially responsible theme, and complied with environmental and social sustainable policies in also their supplier selection. Not only because of implementations that cover the entire value chain, such as carbon labeling programs (Gray et al., 2013: 30), but also because of concerns about brand image and marketing strategies (Bellego, 2014: 4), companies may think about presenting reshoring as a social responsibility move in the eyes of consumers (Stępień & Mlody, 2017: 230).

With this regard, the environmental pollution caused by long-distance value chain operations as a result of companies meeting local demand with offshore products (Gray et al., 2013: 30), and the negative incidents associated with inhuman working conditions including many large companies that produce in countries with cheap labor have increased the awareness of consumers in this sense (Joubioux & Vanpoucke, 2016: 121; Backer et al., 2016: 10). Although reshoring is considered as a location decision for companies, it has a distinctive moral representation in the eyes of consumers in terms of offering a solution to many social issues caused by offshoring (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015: 454). All these assumptions have been also proved by Maronde et al. (2015: 88) that consumers would be willing to pay 15-20% more for reshored products, which took environmental regulations into account in manufacturing processes.

In conclusion, the literature cited above shows that the relationship between reshoring and environmental issues creates a positive sentiment. Therefore, 'environmental issues', as a sub-dimension of consumer reshoring sentiment, is formed as a result of consumers' affirmation of the reshoring decision.

2.3. RELEVANT CONCEPTS WITH CONSUMER RESHORING SENTIMENT

2.3.1. Consumer Ethnocentrism

Deriving from the concept of ethnocentrism, which Sumner (1906: 13) defined it mainly by emphasizing in-group favoritism, Sharma, Shimp and Shin (1995: 26) defined consumer ethnocentrism as the preference of consumers towards products produced in their home countries as a result of the beliefs based on moral considerations and patriotic sentiments as purchasing foreign goods harms the domestic economy or induces job losses (Shimp & Sharma, 1987: 280).

With this regard, consumer ethnocentrism mostly bears the economic concerns of consumers (Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar & Diamantopoulos, 2015: 25). Nevertheless, ethnocentric consumers do not solely worry about economic consequences of foreign goods; additionally, hesitates buying foreign goods in terms of moral considerations (Sharma, Shimp & Shin, 1995: 27; Herche, 1992: 261). Specifically, consumers, in a sense, take into account the emotional burden in addition to the economic damages of purchasing foreign products. Despite all, this does not mean that ethnocentric consumers never buy or always refuse foreign products (Jiménez-Guerrero et al., 2014: 175).

Under normal circumstances, the assumption that high ethnocentric consumers will refuse to buy foreign products is pertinent, whereas the technological or economic development of the relevant country may change the severe of this assumption (Wang & Chen, 2004: 392). According to this view, for example, consumers in developing countries are likely to prefer foreign products when they rely more on the quality of foreign products, or on that country, and admire the lifestyles of such developed countries (Batra et al., 2000: 88). In such circumstances, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism will be offset (Batra et al., 2000: 87; Jiménez-Guerrero et al., 2014: 176).

Therefore, ethnocentric tendencies in developed and developing countries may vary as a result of the interaction of different constructs such as cosmopolitanism (Jiménez-Guerrero et al., 2014: 178; Vida & Reardon, 2008: 37), patriotism (Balabanis et al., 2001: 162), cultural openness (Strizhakova, Coulter & Price, 2008: 61), foreign

product country image or home product country image (Jin et al., 2014: 5), and the product category (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004: 82).

According to the findings of Vida and Reardon (2008: 40), the severity of the ethnocentricity theme in the attitude of people who travel a lot, interact with different cultures or consider the World as their home (cosmopolitans) against foreign products decreases. In that vein, Balabanis et al. (2001: 168) tested the relationship between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism as well as nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism based on Czech and Turkish consumer samples. However, two samples showed different correlations, while ethnocentric tendencies would increase for patriotic consumers in Turkey, there was no significant effect of patriotism for Czech sample.

Furthermore, Strizhakova, Coulter and Price (2008: 73) revealed that relationship between openness to different cultures (culturally openness) and consumer ethnocentrism have a negative correlation in developed countries, since these two structures are in reverse interaction for developed countries' consumers. Based upon this, consumers in developing countries can be both ethnocentric with regard to domestic products and culturally open to the foreign products at the same time (Strizhakova, Coulter & Price, 2008: 61), which is consistent with the findings of Balabanis et al. (2001: 168).

Moreover, in their study examining consumer ethnocentrism in the context of both home country and foreign country, Jin et al. (2014: 10) revealed a negative relationship with consumer ethnocentrism and foreign country product image for developing country consumers. This finding overlaps with the findings obtained in Wang and Chen's study (2004: 395), which revealed that the relationship between ethnocentrism and willingness to purchase domestic products is weaker for developing country consumers who have a negative perception of the quality of the domestic products. In a similar study including the COO effect, Yagci (2001: 78) observed that consumer ethnocentrism had a lower effect against the preference of products from countries with high images.

Based upon the existent literature and discussions regarding consumer ethnocentrism, there is also some studies that explain aforementioned effects of consumer ethnocentrism on company's offshoring (e.g., Durvasula & Lysonski, 2009;

Thelen, Yoo & Magnini, 2010; Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2013; 2015), and reshoring (e.g., Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015; 2018) decisions; the former is related with sourcing or manufacturing overseas, while latter is related with a repatriation step in such manufacturing activities. In fact, this context integrates precisely what is relevant to the framework of this study.

With this regard, Durvasula and Lyonski (2009: 28) have observed that consumers who adopt an ethnocentric attitude towards foreign products will adopt a negative attitude towards companies that move their production abroad, and thereby to offshoring. Thelen, Yoo and Magnini (2010: 273) emphasized that in the conditions when the consumer ethnocentrism is higher, positive sentiment towards offshoring will be lower. On the other hand, they stated additionally that offshoring may differ in terms of product and service distinction. Accordingly, consumer ethnocentrism will not have an obvious effect in the face of service-based offshoring decisions.

On the other hand, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2013: 694)'s study in which they include consumer ethnocentrism as a control variable, demonstrated that consumer ethnocentrism has an effect on the righteous anger, which mediates the relationship between the offshoring strategy and the attitude towards the products of the firm. In contrast to the consumers' attitude towards offshoring, the attitude towards reshoring and reshored companies/products varies positively with the level of consumer ethnocentrism. In this regard, Grappi, Romani, and Bagozzi (2015: 468) demonstrated that in the relationship between consumers' attitude towards reshoring and their willingness to buy, consumers with high levels of consumer ethnocentrism show significantly higher levels of gratitude and lower levels of anger towards the decision to reshoring. Similarly, Stępień and Młody (2017: 229) revealed that Polish consumers, those exhibited high ethnocentrism level are willing to pay more for the products in the apparel and footwear category produced in their home country.

In addition to these, CRS and the consumer ethnocentrism, which claims that it is correct and moral to purchase domestic products, are likely to be perceived similar in context. Based upon this, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2018: 199) revealed that the CRS scale they developed differs with consumer ethnocentrism. Accordingly, in consumer ethnocentrism, consumers take a tougher line towards purchasing foreign products while CRS emphasizes the advantages of purchasing domestic products

(Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi, 2018: 199). In their study, consumer profiles were divided into profiles in terms of CRS and consumer ethnocentrism. As a result, they defined four different segments which combine different levels of sentiment towards reshoring decisions, and different levels of ethnocentric tendencies. For example, while consumers who express strong and positive sentiments towards reshoring decisions, and also supported by strong ethnocentric attitude classified as 'ethnocentric reshoring advocates', consumers who express a low level of consumer ethnocentrism but strong reshoring sentiments classified as 'reshoring advocates'. In addition to those, they identified some consumers who show strong ethnocentric tendencies, but weak reshoring sentiment (ethnocentric reshoring neutrals), and some consumers who have both low ethnocentric orientation and weak sentiment towards reshoring (reshoring neutrals).

Besides, consumer ethnocentrism was observed to affect market responses such as willingness to buy, word of mouth and advocacy behavior in the recent study of Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2019: 89). Moreover, grounding on the study of Sharma (2014), Cassia (2020: 1111) hypothesized that perceived product quality of reshored companies may vary among different dimensions of ethnocentrism, such that, affective ethnocentrism may have an influence on perceived product quality of reshored products while the cognitive ethnocentrism has no effect. Since cognitive ethnocentrism represents mostly a bias in favor of the domestic products with regard to belief that the domestic products are better to meet our needs than foreign products (Sharma, 2014: 7), such rational considerations may perform differently than the emotional ones (Cassia, 2020: 1110). Accordingly, it was revealed that cognitive ethnocentrism (i.e., Disposition to prefer domestic products with regard to their objective superiority over foreign products as a result of better workmanship) has no effect, while affective ethnocentrism (i.e., Customer pride, admiration and emotional attachment to home country products) has an impact on consumer evaluations of perceived product quality (Cassia, 2020: 1110).

Although consumer ethnocentrism did not moderate the effect of consumer reshoring sentiment on emotions, and the emotions on the relevant market responses (Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi, 2019: 88), it can be thought from a theoretical point of view that it may have an antecedent role in the generation of sentiments such as "made-

in effect" or "superior quality of the reshored production". Existent literature provides a satisfying ground on the substantial relationship between consumer reshoring sentiment and consumer ethnocentrism.

In summary, consumers who are high in ethnocentric tendencies are likely to have a bias towards domestic products by either rational reasons or affective reasons, which of both are expected to make a difference on the consumer sentiment occurred following a reshoring decision. It makes sense that in order to generate a sentiment with regard to the superior quality of reshored products, or greater ability to fulfill needs, or competency availability, a cognitive bias in favor of the in-group's interests is likely to be a starting point (Hewstone, Rubin & Willis, 2002: 576; Sharma, 2014: 3). On the other hand, the made-in effect as a sub-dimension of consumer reshoring sentiment is formed by mainly the affective bias with regard to the pride of consumers that the products of companies making the decision of reshoring will now be produced in their own countries. Therefore, consumer ethnocentrism is considered as an associated concept with consumer reshoring sentiment.

2.3.2. Country Image

Country of origin effect (COO) refers to a change in the judgments of consumers based on the connection they established between a product, service or brand and a location / place (And  hn, Nordin and Nilsson, 2015: 225). This effect has a very significant role in international marketing and consumer research in literature (Parameswaran and Mohan Pisharodi, 2002: 261) in terms of linking the country and product related attributes up in consumers' minds (Pappu, Quester and Cooksey, 2007: 727). On the other hand, country image is a similar concept which comprises of associations derived from the origin of related country as a meaningful whole (Pappu, Quester and Cooksey, 2007: 727). Therefore, while detailing the country image, it is first necessary to examine the COO.

Existent literature on the COO reveals that the national identity of the products, that is, the origin, is accepted as an indicator of product attributes (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999: 523), especially the product quality (Bilkey & Nes, 1982: 89; Li & Wyer, 1994: 188; Kumara & Canhua, 2009: 343; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009: 726). Therefore, sourcing locations, which has been accepted as an important part of the

global sourcing and COO context, have an important place in terms of consumers' product evaluations and made-in-effect (Li, Murray and Scott, 2000: 122). According to an interesting example in Bilkey and Nes's study (1982: 89) in that vein, a Puerto Rican shoe manufacturer, several years ago, had moved all its production to New York, set up communication activities that their products were made-in New York, and thus their products would have been easily purchased by Puerto Ricans. As he had claimed that consumers would have preferred the made-in-New York label rather than Puerto Rico.

Culturally-derived factors such as consumer ethnocentrism, animosity, generated stereotypes and societal factors such as the cultural dimensions of Hofstede, which determine and lead to the effect of COO, may also affect consumers' evaluations in direct proportion to country-specific beliefs (Pharr, 2005: 36). Accordingly, Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran (2000: 315) revealed that while culturally individualistic societies show a tendency towards home-made products only when they perceive home-made products have superior quality than the foreign products, collectivist societies show a bias towards domestic products regardless of its superiority. In addition, animosity was founded to have an important role on country-specific preferences (Klein, 2002: 357). What is more, Chattalas, Kramer and Takada (2008: 62) proposed that national stereotypes such as perceived competence may have an effect on COO evaluations. Consistent with this proposition, Motsi and Park (2019: 9) found that stereotypes are important antecedents of country of origin. Besides, consumer ethnocentrism was found to be another factor that predicts COO evaluations (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004: 87). However, Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004: 91) revealed that consumer ethnocentrism and consumers' preferences both for domestic and foreign products may vary according to the product category.

Besides, the association between COO and product specific evaluations has been obtained for cases generally where the country of origin is given as a single product cue (Bilkey & Nes, 1982: 93). However, the product or a specific product category identified with a country, or country of origin is not the only clue for consumers during their product preference. On the contrary, it is very often that different external cues such as price, brand name, reputation etc. help consumers to

make a judgment about product quality (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999: 523), thereby their willingness for buying a product increase.

Accordingly, consumers make inferences on products from a specific country by following two paths (Josiassen, 2011: 125). First, they evaluate the product-country image (PCI), which constitutes both the stereotypes regarding the people or the nation of that country in general (Han, 1989: 223; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999: 525) and product specific perceptions. Second, the motivation to prefer domestic products when appropriate, even if a foreign product-country match has a higher image (Herche, 1992: 261).

With all its antecedents and determining factors, COO may affect product evaluations in general, and consumers' perception towards the products of a specific country with regard to the past knowledge on countries' production and marketing position (strong or weak) (Roth & Romeo, 1992: 480). In fact, this view is quite compatible with that of Nagashima (1970: 68)'s definition, which is one of the firsts of the country image in the literature. Accordingly, country image is the association of images, reputations or stereotypes developed for a country by consumers or purchasing decision makers. Specifically, national characteristics, economic and political backgrounds, traditions, or related products are influential in the formation of this image (Nagashima, 1970:68). This definition can be thought of as more micro than Martin and Eroglu (1993: 193) 's macro-scale country image definition as whole of descriptive and inferential beliefs about a specific country, rather than being based on product related attributes (Pappu, Quester and Cooksey, 2007: 727).

Moreover, Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy (1990: 285) discoursed the subject of country image with in the context of domestic vs. foreign products in their study. They mentioned that consumers or buyers were under three specific influences, which were used as a part of the country image. According to the first influence, if the industrial development level of consumers' own countries is high, they will not prefer the products of countries with lower levels of industrial development than their own countries; vice versa, they will be able to prefer the products of countries with a higher level of industrial development than their own countries. Market development, which is important since there are some countries that are industrially developed in spite of being still underdeveloped in terms of the market penetration and marketing

communication, is another influence that consumers generate an image on their country or another country. Accordingly, some consumers may not be aware of the industrial development of their countries because market awareness is not yet developed. Emotional feelings with regard to the home country such as national pride or patriotism also comes up as the third influence that affect consumers' attitudes and preferences on the basis of choosing products respective countries (domestic or foreign). According to Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy (1990: 292), consumers establish a balance based on all these influences, and accordingly, for example, they do not prefer a product just because it is produced in their own country, on the contrary, they filter all these influences, thereby use the country image formed in their minds in their product preferences.

According to another view, a familiar product to consumers brings a more distinct product-country association in the minds of consumers (Agarwal & Sikri, 1996: 24). The source of this view lies in Han (1989: 223) that the country image has a summary effect in consumers' choice processes, so that consumers think that products of almost the same quality and characteristics will be produced in the country where a familiar brand they know is originated, and thus this perception is generalized to all products of that country. Although a product-origin specific approach in this direction is quite dominant in the literature, for example, according to the approach of Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004: 82), the image developed in the context of a product with a specific country may actually vary within the products themselves. More precisely, while a country is known to produce high quality product x, the same may not be the case for product y. In that vein, Gurhan-Canli and Mahaswaran (2000: 316) emphasized that the effect of COO may vary according to the different product categories. Consumers tend to evaluate a product and its quality in accordance with this country's expertise in a specific category in addition to that country's overall image (Essoussi & Merunka, 2007: 412).

Since Roth and Romeo (1992: 478) stated that there is limited work on the relationship between country image and product categories, excluding some early studies (see. Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Kaynak & Cavusgil: 1983), it is obvious that nothing has changed much in the process. Studies that examine the country image on the basis of product category is still remained limited (see. Agarwal & Sikri, 1996;

Diamantopoulos, 2011; Josiassen et al., 2013; Andéhn, Nordin and Nilsson, 2015). Agarwal and Sikri (1996: 24) emphasized that the country image is the beliefs formed by generalizing from a relevant product category. Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983: 153) revealed that opinions of consumers on the quality of products from a country vary according to different product classes. Agarwal and Sikri (1996: 35) found that beliefs about the most well-known product category in a country would raise the same expectations for new products. Citing from Mervis and Rosch (1981), Agarwal and Sikri (1996: 25) stated in their study, which they overlap categorization and information processing theories, that beliefs about a previously known product category will be perceived and transferred as to belong to the same cognitive category for a new product. This is consistent with the view that a favorable country image on the basis of product or product categories would be formed when consumers perceive that country is in a strong position in manufacturing such sorts of products (Roth & Romeo, 1992: 478).

Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch and Palihawadana (2011: 510) conceptualized the subject in terms of country and brand image in accordance with the orthogonality and irradiation perspectives. According to the former, the country image and the brand image were two independent structures, such that how the consumers perceive a country's image does not affect the image of a brand, while in the latter these two structures linked to each other, such that a positive country image hold by consumers will definitely affect the beliefs on the brands from that country. It was accordingly found that product category image affects the purchase intentions indirectly through the brand image (Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch & Palihawadana, 2011: 519). In addition, it was revealed that consumers match certain countries with certain product categories based on these countries' perceived superior capabilities, or reputation in the relevant product categories. Besides, this association is strengthened when this country can develop strong brands in the relevant category (Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch & Palihawadana, 2011: 519).

On the other hand, Josiassen et al. (2013: 255) stated that the country image was formed by the integration of three sub-images one after the other. Accordingly, individuals first develop a positive image of a country based on their general impressions of that country (basic origin image), then this positive image leads to a

positive tendency towards products originating from that country (product origin image), and this positive product-country image positively affects different product groups in the relevant country (category origin image). Since the product origin image is formed by all products produced in a country, it is more comprehensive than the category origin image (Josiassen et al., 2013: 254).

In accordance with the suggested model by Josiassen et al. (2013), And  hn, Nordin and Nilsson (2015: 227) proposed a model by emphasizing that consumers may hold a positive belief in terms of this country's general image (basic country image) or the products made in this country (product country image), but this evaluation lacks, since these beliefs do not comprise the product category related views of consumers. Simply, consumers may consider a country's general image poor, and they may even find the products of that country inferior, but they can evaluate the image of that country more positively in a specific product category. In this regard, the category country image refers to a combination of a country image and a particular product category, which is in fact beyond the product-based origin image evaluations (And  hn, Nordin and Nilsson, 2015: 228). Consequently, And  hn, Nordin and Nilsson (2015: 230) revealed that category country image was observed to have more independent characteristic relative to basic country image and product country image. Besides, basic country image had a limited effect size in comparison with product country image and category country image, even though it was still found to be a pertinent factor in terms of consumers' evaluations (And  hn, Nordin and Nilsson, 2015: 230). Accordingly, they showed that the effect of origin alone is weaker than it would be when compared to a situation where the origin image is in association with a specific category.

COO and country image also have a substantial contribution with the basis of its context to consumer reshoring sentiment phenomenon. Especially, made-in effect as one of the sub-dimensions of consumer reshoring sentiment, comprises some aspects of COO, specifically base on its symbolic and emotional (affective) components. With this regard, it might have been considered that both the COO and country image is expected to have an association with consumer reshoring sentiment, and this relation can develop in two ways.

First, consumers feel a sense of pride towards the reshoring decision of a company deriving from the made-in effect, so that they will probably have a tendency to be proud about the reshoring decision of companies from their home-country (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 198). Here, COO plays a role in terms of affective evaluation, which comes from a domestic country bias given by their national belonging (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004: 80). At the same time, country image, especially the product or category specific image of the home country may either increase or decrease the consumer reshoring sentiment on the basis of made-in effect. Specifically, the more consumers believe that their country's products are superior compared to the previously offshored country's products, the more they feel a pride; in return, companies that reshored will tend to use a reputation that arises with a stronger country image (Bellego, 2014: 3; Ancarani et al., 2015: 152).

Second, it may be expected for consumer attributions to be affected with regard to the country image (it may either be assumed in terms of basic, or product or category), when consumers perceive a superior or inferior country image of reshored company's previously offshored country. More clearly, from where a company is reshored may have an importance for consumers, while evaluating the reshoring decision on generated reshoring sentiment. In fact, it was either considered by Grappi, Romani, Bagozzi (2015: 458); thus, they did not prefer to give the country names as a stimulus within the experimental conditions they used in their study, in order to keep the focus of the research on the concept of reshoring itself. Specifically, consumers may process the country image of the previously offshored country as a clue in line with the reshoring sentiment level they exhibit, while generating an actual consumer response or reaction towards the reshored companies.

In summary, the relation of country image issue and its effects are worth examining in the context of 'consumer reshoring sentiment'. Especially, as emphasized in recent studies in the country image literature, this effect can be expected to be more apparent for certain product groups. As previously conveyed, consumers may bear positive feelings about a country in terms of its general image, but they may do not prefer its products in general or the products belong to a specific product category (And  hn, Nordin and Nilsson, 2015: 227). Eventually, the country image appears as a relevant concept with regard to the country from which the company

reshored in the context of consumer reshoring sentiment and consumer reactions towards companies' and their products.

2.3.3. Perceived Company Motives

There is a widespread view, especially in the corporate social responsibility (CSR) and cause-related marketing (CRM) literature, that the perceived motives of companies may affect consumers' attitudes towards companies (e.g., Forehand & Grier, 2003; Ellen, Webb & Mahr, 2006; Singh, Kristensen & Villaseñor, 2009; Elwing, 2013; Gao & Mattilla, 2014). The basis of this view dovetails with the attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1967; Weiner, 1985) and skepticism (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1998).

First signs of attribution theory are included in Heider's (1958) book named "Psychology of Interpersonal Relations"; however, the theory has gained importance mainly with Kelley's (1967) important contributions and subsequent studies (Weiner, 2000: 382). Although attribution theory has been developed in the field of social psychology, it has also been applied in the field of consumer behavior (Settle & Golden, 1974: 181). According to attribution theory, individuals can be portrayed as social perceivers (Rifon et al., 2004: 31). In this regard, individuals as observers are more likely to compare their perceptions on the actors' behaviors with their expectations from that actor rather than the actual behaviors of the actors subject to the relevant act, event or subject (Gilbert & Malone, 1995: 28). Certain attributions emerged in the face of an act or event and the affective or cognitive responses given to them are prone to being affected by perceived intentions and motives (Campbell, 1999: 189).

Consistent with the attribution theory, consumers will probably have tendency to query the company motives, which are generally mentioned as a part of marketing communication strategies (Becker-Olsen, Cudmore & Hill, 2006: 47). On the other hand, the use of some CRM methods in marketing communication also carries some risks, such that skeptical attitudes of consumers and other stakeholders may be arose (Mohr, Eroğlu & Ellen, 1998: 31; Elving, 2013: 278). Scepticism implies a propensity of disbelief (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1998: 160). Under normal circumstances, if something good is being done, it is attributed to the person or actor that they are good,

unless the perceivers or observers doubt about the actor's intentions (Yoon, Gürhan-Canli & Schwarz, 2006: 377). Skeptical attitudes arise as a cognitive response which may be considered as being changeable with regard to a different context, a content of the communication (Mohr, Eroğlu & Ellen, 1998: 33) and some sort of situational factors (Forehand & Grier, 2003: 349).

Forehand and Grier (2003: 350) argued that consumer skepticism does not solely comprises of a disposition to disbelieving towards companies' self-seeking motives but on the contrary, embodies an apprehension on whether the company is fairly reflecting their true motives or not. Consumers tend to be restrained as a result of their belief that marketing based efforts of companies may be misleading (Mohr, Eroğlu & Ellen, 1998: 35). Thus, consumers may mostly care about why companies doing something rather than what they do (Gilbert & Malone, 1995: 21). In this regard, the influence of perceived company motives on consumers' attitudes toward those companies is within the bounds of possibility (Becker-Olsen, Cudmore & Hill, 2016: 47).

Based on the argument of Elving (2013:279), consumers are likely to respond skeptically in certain settings. This is mostly linked to the Heider's (1958: 82) statement that the outcome of an act is perceived as it is either internal or external. Accordingly, activities of companies, which either include a social message, or emphasize a certain social contribution to the society, are likely to attributed by consumers as internally, or externally (Elving, 2013: 279). Internal attribution leads consumers to perceive company motives as honest, while external attribution leads them to evaluate these activities to be perceived as profit focused (Forehand & Grier, 2003: 350). When the cause and possible outcomes of the activity is perceived as positive, this is expected to be attributed more to internal than external (Gooding & Kinicki, 1995: 4). Inferences of negative motives are expected to lead to negative attributions (Campbell, 1999: 189). On the other hand, consumers also pay regard to high congruity between the act and the actor, such that any mismatch between the cause and the actor (i.e., company) may lead consumers to attribute the motive to an external factor (Singh, Kristensen & Villasenor, 2009: 314), which is generally inferred as to be uncongenial. To sum up, the causality relationship begins with an analysis, which revolves around the internal and external circle (Weiner, 1985: 551).

Based on these arguments, consumers examine in detail the main reason behind the action taken by companies and ultimately bases it on some certain categories (Becker-Olsen, Cudmore & Hill, 2006: 48). Accordingly, with regard to the self-centered and others-centered dual distinction, Ellen, Webb and Mohr (2006: 153) grouped attributions into four as values-driven, stakeholder-driven, egoistic-driven and strategic-driven, while Becker-Olsen, Cudmore & Hill (2006: 48) identified two types of motive as firm-serving and public serving.

According to Kelley's (1973: 113) "discounting principle", when individuals assume that an action has more than one apparent cause, they will discount the effect of one of these causes because the other obviously attracts their attention. Specifically, in cases where a single cause underlying an action is detected, individuals attribute this cause internally. However, if external reasons are evident, then individuals are prone to perceive the cause as the opposite. In line with the "discounting principle", if consumers perceive solely one underlying motive (e.g., social contribution, value creation, etc.) in the marketing communication of the companies, they will likely to attribute company actions as "public-serving". On the contrary in the cases where consumers discern the intention of companies as more opportunistic, then they will likely to consider it as "firm-serving" (Forehand & Grier, 2003: 350). In addition, Ellen, Webb and Mohr (2006: 154) found that consumers mostly attribute company motives both firm-serving and public-serving, namely in a combination of both groups.

In reshoring context, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015: 455) examined the effects of perceived company motives in two categories, which are extrinsic (i.e., self-interested) and intrinsic (i.e., selfless motives), drawing on Du, Bhattacharya and Sen (2007: 226). Accordingly, if consumers deduce that the company made reshoring decision mostly with self-serving motives such as increasing profits, consumers are likely to evaluate the reshoring decision negatively, which in turn affects their attitudes in this manner. On the other hand, in the cases where consumers perceive the company's reshoring decision positively such as enhancing the welfare of the society, they'll likely to attribute this decision to intrinsic motives (Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi, 2015: 455). From the Ellen, Webb and Mohr (2006)'s point of view on consumers' attributions in combination of both type of motives, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015: 455) proposed that stronger intrinsic and weaker extrinsic attributions

about the company's motive for reshoring was likely to be related to higher levels of gratitude and lower levels of righteous anger.

In their study, which analyzed the moderating role of perceived company motives by combining this effect with consumer ethnocentrism as an individual characteristic of consumers, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015) aimed to see whether the combination of perceived company motives for reshoring and consumer ethnocentrism would moderate the effect of company reshoring decision on positive and negative emotions. As a result, moderating effect of this combination was observed for the conditions in which consumers perceived company's reshoring motive as more intrinsic (i.e., public-serving), and consumers were high in ethnocentric tendencies; thereby, this three-way interaction effect resulted righteous anger to decrease (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015: 467). However, this effect revealed a non-significant increase in gratitude, while higher intrinsic motives significantly strengthened the company's reshoring on gratitude regardless of the level of consumer ethnocentrism (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015: 468).

Based on aforementioned literature on attribution theories, it is worth examining perceived motives' effects in reshoring context. It is obvious that company reshoring decisions may intersect with perceived motive literature on how a firm-side decision is perceived in the eyes of the consumer, especially in terms of companies' declarations at the marketing communication scale. Declaring the reshoring decisions with a cause-related marketing notion can support the affirmation of this decision in the eyes of consumers, as well as careless declarations can increase the likelihood of consumers making negative attributions. In this regard, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015) contributed both the reshoring and perceived motive literature significant contributions. On the other hand, perceived motivation, still offers a fruitful field worth researching in the context of reshoring; such as whether the "consumer reshoring sentiment", also developed by Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2018), will vary according to the perceived motivation.

2.3.4. Brand Trust

Trust has caught the attention of scholars from psychology, sociology, economics, and often even management and marketing (Delgado-Ballester &

Munuera-Alemán, 2005: 188). Since the decisions we make or will make in almost every part of our daily life, such as buying something, paying taxes or receiving a service, entails trusting someone else. Trust is essential in the society (Rotter, 1971: 443) as an important part of the social relations (Lewis & Wigert, 1985: 968).

Trust is defined by Rotter (1971: 444) as an expectation of a person or groups of people that a statement or a promise given verbally or in written, will be fulfilled. Accordingly, trust appears for probing in the cases where this expectation is able to be generalized and sustained stably. Almost a similar definition offered by Frost, Stimpson and Maughan (1978: 103) that trust expresses an expectation that a person or group will behaviorally perform an altruistic attitude or will be beneficial personally. Lewis and Weigert (1985: 968) put forward a sociological perspective to discussions, and suggested that trust is more proper to be applied for the relations among people rather than taking individual psychological states by emphasizing the collective attribution. On the other hand, Barney and Hansen (1994: 176) defined trust as a common confidence that the parties, who are part of an exchange, will not take the advantage of each other's vulnerabilities with a business point of view.

In marketing literature, Moorman, Zaltman and Deshpande (1992: 315) defined trust as willingness to rely upon a reassuring exchange partner as well as Morgan and Hunt (1994: 23) defined trust by referring to having faith in the reliability and integrity of an exchange partner. Both definitions imply the importance of reliance and veracity. Despite Moorman, Zaltman and Deshpande (1992: 315) emphasizing the importance of the intention of one partner to rely on the other partner by including “willingness” to their definition, Morgan and Hunt (1994: 24) argued that “willingness” is a redundant in the definition of trust, since veritable confidence appears anyway if one party has a willing to rely upon to another as an outcome of attitude. In addition, consistent with the argument of Barney and Hansen (1994: 176) that exploitation of the vulnerabilities by one party is perceived as an opportunistic manner, thereby there is no trust exist, Moorman, Zaltman and Deshpande (1992: 324) underlined that vulnerability is an essential antecedent of trust.

This view on there is no trust without vulnerability is also parallel with the idea that trust always includes inevitable risk (Lewis & Weigert, 1985: 968). Since the uncertain steps to be taken by the other party in the future bring the risk, trusting is a

behavior that progresses between the fulfillment of the expectations and the risk of violating these expectations (Lewis & Weigert, 1985: 971). Once trust arises, perceived uncertainty in addition to the vulnerability are decreased (Moorman, Zaltman & Deshpande, 1992: 315).

Further, relationship marketing, which implies all marketing activities designed to establish, develop and maintain a successful relational exchange (Morgan & Hunt, 1994: 22), opened a new window into trust to brands (Rosenbloom & Haefner, 270). Trust is considered to play a critical role, especially in relation to marketers' desire to build long-term sustainable relationships (Doney & Cannon, 1997: 35). Accordingly, Fournier (1998: 344) argued that consumers and brands may relationally be partners, wherein consumers act with an expected effect on the dyadic relationship, which appears in the presence of brands as an active object of marketing dealings. Brand personality realized and features attributed to brands may considered to be obtained as a part of a group of behaviors stemmed from all sort of marketing strategies developed in the name of brands (Fournier, 1998: 345).

Therefore, trust as a concept attracted marketing researchers on the basis of relationship marketing, and prompted the attempts to examine the concept in consumer-brand domain. In this sense, grounding on Moorman, Zaltman and Deshpande (1992) and Morgan and Hunt (1994), Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001: 82) defined brand trust as the average consumer's confidence in the ability of a brand to deliver the function it promises. Their view of brand trust is also drawing upon the argument of Doney and Cannon (1997) that trust incorporates a calculative process, wherein parties of the relationship (these are consumers and brands here) calculates the costs/and-or rewards of deceiving to other partner or keeping the relationship. In addition, developing trust between the parties depends on their ability to predict the behaviors of each other (Doney and Cannon, 1997: 37). Accordingly, consumers beliefs about reliability, safety and trustworthiness are all substantial elements of trust to a brand, since consumers construct the trust based on these elements as well as on the perceived benevolence of the brand; thereby consumers question whether the brand acts as how it promised and pays regard to consumers' expectations (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001: 82).

Besides, Delgado-Ballester (2004: 574) defined brand trust as the expectations of consumers regarding the reliability and intentions of a brand in situations that pose a risk. Along with this definition, Delgado-Ballester (2004) emphasized the risk factor, which was identified as an important element of trust (Lewis & Weigert, 1985: 971). This expectation is existing only when there are enough odds about the performance of this brand would be able to perform in accordance with the expected outcomes for consumers (Delgado-Ballester, 2004: 574). Grounding the idea of Fournier (1998: 345), consumers establish relationship with brands, since whole marketing strategies includes a set of behaviors imputed on behalf of the brand. In this regard, proposed definition of brand trust by Delgado-Ballester (2004: 575) includes both motivational attributions, which is about the brand's ability to meet consumers' expectations by accomplishing its promises with benevolence, and competence or technical attributions, which is about the brand's ability to comply with consumers' expectations by performing technically effective. Accordingly, brand trust includes both brand reliability and brand intentions as conceptualized by Delgado-Ballester (2004: 575).

Brand reliability is also mentioned as a core element of brand trust in Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001: 82). It is mainly about consumers believes whether the brand is able to meet with its obligations, such that brand trust arises once the consumers predict that this brand has the capability to satisfy their needs (Delgado-Ballester, 2004: 575). On the other hand, brand intentions refer to the belief that relevant brand performs with positive intentions towards consumer's interests, and builds up confidence that the brand never look after its' own interest especially in situations, wherein there is a juicy advantage to be taken of consumer's vulnerabilities (Delgado-Ballester, 2004: 576).

Consequently, much as Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) emphasized the importance of perceived benevolence of the brand in their study, they solely included perceived brand performance as a component into their definition. On the other hand, Delgado-Ballester (2004: 576) offered a two-dimensioned brand trust construct, in which there is also brand intentions as a motivational facet. As the marketing literature goes beyond the sole trust, and is built up the concept with regard to the brand-consumer relationship, Li et al., (2008: 4) asserted that if the performance competence and benevolent intentions of the brand are perceived as positive and reliable by

consumers, then brand trust is established. Specifically, their conceptualization included two aspects as competence and benevolence in terms of the construction of brand trust.

Besides the discussions on the basis of definition, brand trust examined in marketing literature as a determinant of brand loyalty, since trust creates a valuable exchange relationship (Morgan & Hunt, 1994: 24; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 83; Matzler & Bidmon, 2008: 158). Brand trust is also considered and asserted as to be a core component of brand equity, since building trust has a substantial role in long-term relations (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005: 189). Beyond brand trust's mediating role in branding literature, Matzler and Bidmon (2008: 158) found that risk aversion of consumers also affects the level of brand trust. On the other hand, Menidjel, Benhabib and Bilgihan (2017: 642) found as a result of their study, in which they examined the moderation effect of personality traits in the relationship between satisfaction and brand trust, as well as brand trust and brand loyalty, that the strength of these relationships do not depend on personality traits in a low-involvement product category.

Product-category and brand domains has also been emphasized in Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001: 83), and asserted by drawing upon the categorization and schema theory (Sujan, 1985: 31). Accordingly, there is an inevitable delusion that consumers process any object-related information on a single basis, such as a single type of product (Cohen & Basu, 1982: 469). However, consumers generally tend to conceptualize a product in their minds by categorizing it, whereas they structure their credence about products in accordance with the category-based factors instead of a single-focused perspective (Cohen & Basu, 1982: 470). According to this view, consumers' belief comprises of a categorized cue on object-specific stimulus rather than constructed attributions (Sujan, 1985: 31).

Grounding their arguments on this view, Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001: 83) asserted that product-category knowledges are possible to antecede thoughts and feelings about brands, that is, different product-category characteristics affect brand trust. For example, perceived risk level in certain product-categories or values as hedonic and utilitarian proposed among different product-categories may determine consumers trust to brands (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2002: 34). Accordingly,

evaluations regarding the safety, performance and financial aspects become more important for the products low in hedonic/utilitarian value (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2002: 55).

Building upon the existent literature on the role of product category in consumer brand relationship, Fetscherin et al. (2014: 79) also found that the intensity of consumers relationship with brands increases upon the product-category. Although their findings showed that there was no direct effect of product-category in terms of the directivity of the relationship, instead, there are significant differences with regard to the intensity of this relationship as well as the explanation power of brand outcomes (Fetscherin et al., 2014: 84).

Beyond these, a popular international marketing issue called country of origin (COO) would shed light on consumer-brand relationship (Rosenbloom & Haefner, 2009: 268). In a study in which Rosenbloom and Haefner (2009: 276) investigated to see whether COO and perceived brand globalness would affect global marketing strategy by interacting brand trust. It was found that in almost all categories, perceived brand globalness affected brand trust by reducing the uncertainty. On the other hand, this study showed brands from some certain countries were more trusted. Either interacting with perceived risk or COO, consumers generate brand trust in a co-variation with the belief of trust (Rosenbloom & Haefner, 2009: 276).

On these grounds, consumer reshoring sentiment is likely to be associated with brand trust both independently and interactively. Drawing upon the definition of trust as the average consumer's confidence in the ability of a brand to deliver the function it promises (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001: 82), the more sentiment towards company reshoring is likely to generate more trust to reshored brands. Since the emphasis with regard to the superior quality of reshored products, greater ability to fulfill needs, made-in effect or competency availability dimensions included in consumer reshoring sentiment, consumers will probably tend to trust that brand as a result that they will predict as this brand has the capability to satisfy their needs (Delgado-Ballester, 2004: 575).

Whereas the assertion that if the performance competence perceived as positive and reliable by consumers, then brand trust is established (Li et al., 2008: 4), consumers with high sentiment about company reshoring given that home-country

produced products have greater ability to fulfill needs and have superior quality are likely to trust reshored brands. Consistently, Gurviez and Korchia (2013: 2) emphasized that trust provides a guarantee that one partner never alters the conditions of an exchange, and this is derived from a focus to future. Specifically, consumers generally pre-assume that a brand act in benevolence with regard to its declared policies (Gurviez & Korchia, 2013: 4).

On the other hand, the relationship between consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust is expected to be affected by the type of product category and COO, since existent literature offers that brand trust may differ across different product-categories (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001: 83; 2004: 34; Fetscherin et al., 2014: 84) or COO (Rosenbloom & Haefner, 2009: 276). Specifically, consumers may generate higher or lower sentiment towards company reshoring in accordance with the product category or country of origin related effects, hence brand trust is likely to vary accordingly.

To sum up, consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust are seemed to be related concepts in terms of the dimensions that they are comprised of as well as the factors they are affected by such as product category or COO. Since the confidence in a brand or belief regarding this brand's perceived ability to perform by looking out for the interest of consumers are both the key components for revealing brand trust, higher consumer reshoring sentiment is expected to produce more trust as reshored companies are perceived to offer more quality products, to have greater ability to meet the demand and to have more competence.

2.3.5. Consumer Animosity

Tensions between countries arising from issues such as territorial disputes, economic issues, military disputes, ethnic or religious disputes are realities all over the world (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007: 87). In addition, the exposure of consumers to products produced in many different countries as a result of the global market poses difficulties for marketers regarding the decision-making processes of consumers (Klein, Ettenson & Morris, 1998: 89). In this respect, the concept of consumer animosity has come to the fore in the literature regarding how the consumer behavior towards the products of the countries, where the dispute is in question, changes (e.g., Klein, Ettenson & Morris, 1998; Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Klein, 2002).

Klein, Ettenson and Morris (1998: 90) set out from the argument that the tensions between nations that have existed for a long time and even led to armed conflicts lead to hostility towards the target countries. Accordingly, this effect can also lead to an evident consumer behavior such as willingness to buy the products of the relevant countries. In this context, consumer animosity is defined as “remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events” (Klein, Ettenson & Morris, 1998: 90). It refers to the emergence of deep-rooted and strong emotions from the economic, political and military conflicts from the past (Ang et al., 2014: 192). According to Hoffmann, Mai and Smirnova (2011: 236) it is the negative attitude struck by consumers towards purchasing the products of a country due to the aversion for that country. As shown by Klein, Ettenson and Morris (1998: 96) animosity has a negative impact on consumers’ willingness to buy products from an offended country, which was Japanese products that were met with reluctance to buy by Chinese consumers.

On the other hand, animosity as a feeling can be classified with regard to its sources of manifestation and the locus of manifestation (Jung et al., 2002: 526). In terms of the sources of manifestation, Jung et al. (2002: 526-528) made a binary distinction as situational versus stable. Situational animosity arises in particular situations that cause a strong hostility. On the contrary, stable animosity expresses the hostile feelings formed by the accumulation of economic or military conflicts between countries from the past. Stable animosity is generally arisen because of others’ views, thus represents a kind of value that is passed from generation to generation (Ang et al., 2014: 192). Situational animosity may evolve to stable animosity over time (Jung et al., 2002: 527).

Moreover, animosity with regard to the locus of manifestation is classified as national or personal (Jung et al., 2002: 528). While national animosity expresses a macro-level hostility towards another country due to the actions taken by that country against their own country which caused suffering, personal animosity expresses a resentment based on the negative experiences a person has experienced in a particular country. Another differentiation exists in the literature as the war animosity and economic animosity; former refers to a hostile feeling towards a country that has a military conflict with the home country, latter refers to a remnant against a country

that its performed actions lead to economic suffering of the home country (Cheah, 2016: 185).

The scope and effects of consumer animosity have been extensively studied in the literature. In addition to the negative impact of consumer animosity on willingness to buy, researches have shown that animosity and consumer ethnocentrism are different concepts (Klein, Ettenson & Morris, 1998: 96; Klein & Ettenson, 1999: 19; Klein, 2002: 358). Accordingly, if consumers are making a decision between a domestic and foreign product, it is highly likely that those with a high ethnocentric orientation will prefer the domestic product. In that vein, if the choice is made between the products of two foreign countries, one of which is hostile, then animosity will affect the decision (Klein, 2002: 358). While ethnocentric consumers avoid buying foreign products, consumers with animosity only refuse to buy the products of the country they are hostile to, but continue purchasing many foreign products (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007: 88).

Moreover, animosity's effect on consumers' willingness to buy is independent of judgments on product quality (Klein, Ettenson & Morris, 1998: 96). More clearly, although consumers are reluctant to buy the products of that country because they develop animosity towards a country, they do not develop a negative attitude towards the product quality of that country (Klein, Ettenson & Morris, 1998). The findings of another recent study have shown that extreme emotions such as contempt and disgust will be triggered by animosity, and even judgments about product quality will be negatively affected through these emotions (Antonetti, 2019: 750).

Another study revealed that consumers do not develop a current animosity based on historical events, as current events are more evident in the minds of consumers (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007: 111). Although the feelings of animosity were evident when consumers were reminded of historical conflicts, they did not come to the fore in consumers' own valid evaluations. Besides, although war and economic based disputes are one of the important drivers of animosity, there are more obvious reasons such as perceived mentality differences that lead to the formation of animosity (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007: 112).

Referring to the fact that previous animosity literature mostly treated products in general terms, ignoring hybrid products, Funk et al. (2009: 642) examined how the

production of a part of the product by moving it to an animosity-arising country would affect consumers' willingness to buy. Their results revealed that consumers showed a lower willingness to buy the products of given brand that had shifted a part of the production of their product to an animosity-evoking country (Funk et al., 2009: 645). Another study (see. Fong, 2013), based on the value chain and global location, and manufacturing literature, examined the links between international acquisition and animosity. According to the findings, the acquisition of a local company by another company, which is placed in a country where animosity is felt, creates a negative attitude in the eyes of local consumers and creates reluctance to purchase the products of this brand (Fong, 2013: 182).

Furthermore, Leonidou et al. (2019: 12) found that personality traits such as extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness influence consumer animosity, which in turn causes product avoidance. On the other hand, animosity-based feelings have an influence only on the affective and normative elements of consumption behavior (De Nisco, Massi and Papadopoulos, 2020: 10).

As reported by Funk (2009: 641), the shifting of production activities to overseas countries with low-cost advantages leads the emergence of hybrid products as well. In turn, this may affect the attitude towards the brand, if the relocation is made to a country which consumers feel animosity. Accordingly, the strategic decisions of the companies are available to be affected by animosity, both in their own country market and in the eyes of consumers in foreign markets in terms of the evaluations of the company's products and brands. In that vein, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2019: 73) asserted that consumer animosity might have an influence on the relationship between consumer reshoring sentiment and consumers' emotional reactions such as gratitude, relief and happiness, which in turn affects market responses. The results showed that the moderator role of consumer animosity was stronger for consumers who developed lower sentiment to reshoring (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2019: 87). On the other hand, in situations of high levels of consumer reshoring sentiment, consumers level of animosity does not affect the emotional reactions (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2019: 83).

As a result, there are different effects of consumer animosity in the literature as far as conveyed above. In addition, the effects of animosity have also been revealed

from the value chain perspective, albeit a few studies exist. In this context, the interaction of consumers' sentiment with animosity, which is formed as a result of company reshoring decisions, shows that the concepts of consumer reshoring sentiment and animosity are relevant concepts.

2.3.6. Brand Image

Brand, a representation deriving from consumers' perceptions and feelings regarding a product and its performance, is a substantial component in the relationship between a company and consumers (Kotler & Armstrong, 2018: 264). Easing decision making process of consumers and reducing possible risks that may arise from unexpected value offerings are the invaluable ability of strong brands (Keller, 2003: 7). Brand is both a source of a product for the customer and the signs that help producers and customers to distinguish among identical products produced by competitors (Aaker, 1991: 21).

In this regard, brand equity, which refers to the added value of a product endowed by a brand (Farquhar, 1989: 24), is an important asset for companies (Aaker, 1992: 28). In literature, brand equity is classified either based on financial-perspective or consumer-perspective, and defined brand equity accordingly (Pappu, Quester & Cooksey, 2005: 144). As Aaker (1991: 27) defined, brand equity includes the brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, and a name or symbol that is added as a value of a product or service with regard to the customers' endowments. These assets and liabilities are classified into five as brand loyalty, awareness, perceived quality, associations and other proprietary brand assets, which either add or subtract value for both customers and the companies.

As a part of the brand equity, brand association is anything about a brand that occurs in the minds of consumers (Aaker, 1991, 101). Brand association generally comprises of image, which is a unique endowment to a product or brand (Aaker, 1996: 111), thus brand image is possibly the most recognized facet of brand equity (Aaker, 1992: 28). On the other hand, Keller (1993: 2) views brand image as a set of associations that consumers link with a brand, and as a part of brand knowledge. According to Keller (1993: 3) brand image is created only if the nodes associated with the brand are formed in the mind of the consumer and the different types of information

can be easily connected to the existing nodes. Specifically, image is formed by the associations that consumers call with regard to the brand (Nandan, 2005: 267). Thus, brand image as a holistic frame comprises perceptual beliefs of consumers about a brand's attribute, benefit, and attitude associations (Faircloth, Capella & Alford, 2001: 62).

Brand image is generally concerned with the extrinsic characteristics of the product or service, such as how the brand meets consumers, that is to say, it is more about what consumers think about the brand rather than what the brand actually does (Keller, 2003: 12). In this regard, brand image comprises of three dimensions as strength, favorability and uniqueness (Keller, 2003: 13). How strongly a brand is identified with a certain association (i.e., strength), the importance level of the association for customers (i.e., favorability), and the identification of brand in a distinct way (i.e., uniqueness) produce positive brand responses, only if they can be designed to act in conjunction with each other.

Any increase in the brand awareness and brand familiarity positively affects the level of brand image (Tan, Ismail & Rasiah, 2011: 71). Keller (1993: 8) stated that a positive brand image is occurred through a high brand awareness, which in turn enhances the possibility of purchase intention. In addition, if consumers perceive a product's quality higher, the associations with this brand will be enhanced (Keller, 1993: 5). Thus, perceived product quality leads an increase in brand image (Tan, Ismail & Rasiah, 2011: 72). According to Keller (1993: 17) a familiar brand name and a positive brand image is required in order to build brand equity. Consistently, Faircloth, Capella and Alford (2001: 70) showed brand image directly influences brand equity. Besides, Tan, Ismail and Rasiah (2011: 73) asserted that brand image leads to brand trust. On the other hand, a well-established brand image eases marketers to manage brand evaluations for further variations with regard to the changes in consumption preferences (Graeff, 1997: 58). In that vein, based on the view that brand image can be affected in brand extension situations, Martinez and Chernatony (2004: 47) emphasized that the brand image is higher after brand extension in products with high perceived product quality.

In addition to these, the international breakthroughs of brands as a result of the increase in global trade have made the role of brand image important for different

consumers in different countries (Koubaa, 2008: 140). Accordingly, Koubaa (2008: 150) found that brand image is affected differently with regard to the country of origin, specifically by the country of production. Furthermore, Jo, Nakamoto and Nelson (2003: 640) revealed that strong brand image leads to an ignorance of the perception of low-quality products associated with the country of origin. According to their study, which reveals the importance of brand image especially on the basis of global manufacturing, consumers do not focus on the country of origin of the relevant brand when its brand image is strong.

As a matter of fact, an early study had revealed how the brand image can be affected in cases such as production activities being moved from one country to another (see. Johansson & Nebenzahl, 1986). Accordingly, Johansson and Nebenzahl (1986: 124) exemplified, if a Japanese brand, known for its high-quality production power, moves its production activities to western countries, it will cause doubts whether the same product quality and features can be obtained, and this may cause the brand image to be negatively affected. In this context, the importance of the brand name may also emerge.

Furthermore, since quality problems in offshore locations are the most cited driver behind reshoring, reshoring decision is also in a positive relationship with the brand image (Bellego, 2014: 4; Ancarani, Di Mauro & Mascali, 2019: 363). Since reshoring increases the perceived quality, brand image of reshored company is expected to be stronger (Sayem, Feldman & Ortega-Mier, 2018: 74). This is consistent with one of the dimensions of CRS called 'quality superiority of reshored production'.

Based on this framework, there may be effects related to brand image in terms of reshoring. Considering that consumer reshoring sentiment, which is a demand-side complementation of reshoring, has an effect on willingness to pay, and the findings in the literature that strong brand image also affect consumer purchasing behavior, it is seen that brand image can both vary according to consumer reshoring sentiment when the findings in the literature are brought together.

2.3.7. Country Branding and Country Brand Equity

Whether a country can be considered as a brand or not is a reasonable question (Kotler, 2002: 251), since four important marketing fields as country of origin, country

image, destination branding and country identity corroborate country branding (Fetscherin, 2010: 467). As a matter of fact, Shimp, Samiee and Madden (1993: 327) brought forth the concept of country equity, and suggested extending equity, which is constrained to a brand to the country level. Accordingly, it is possible for a company name to be a brand such that France and Italy are the countries that are known for their wine in many foreign market (Bruwer & Buller, 2012: 308).

The relationship between country images in consumers' minds and consumer-based brand equity is important due to the increasing global commercial activities today, and the shifting of production of many developed country brands to overseas and developing countries (Pappu, Quester & Cooksey, 2007: 727). In the case of an existing perception of the country brand in the eyes of the consumers, targeted by the companies or from the home country, brands may come across with unexpected consequences with regard to the decisions they take or the paths they follow. Besides, country branding is generally evaluated or developed when countries want to strengthen their image as a tourism destination, when they want to improve the image as a preferred foreign direct investment (FDI) location, or when they want to gain a strong reputation or image as a country where quality products are produced and designed in foreign markets (Pappu & Quester, 2010: 277). Building and management of a country brand is called as country branding (Montanari, Giraldi & Galina, 2020: 2150).

Country equity refers to the value deriving from the perceptions of a variety of target markets about a country (Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002: 295). As asserted by Pappu, Quester and Cooksey (2007: 728) micro and macro country images hold by consumers may affect the equity that they relate with a brand from the relevant country. In that vein, country equity represents a sort of value that consumers link a country name (Pappu & Quester, 2010: 278). Similarly, Zeugner-Roth, Diamantopoulos and Montesinos (2008: 583) defined country brand equity as the value attributed based on the perception of consumers due to the identification of a product or brand with a country name.

Pappu, Quester and Cooksey (2007: 728) conceptualized country brand equity from the consumer-based brand equity dimensions of Yoo and Donthu (2001:3) as brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality and brand associations. However,

Zeugner-Roth, Diamantopoulos and Montesinos (2008: 583) designed country brand equity as a three-dimensional structure based on empirical evidences suggesting that brand awareness and associations on can be combined as a single dimension (Yoo & Donthu, 2001: 6). Pappu and Quester (2010: 279) argued that country equity can be obtained by consumers' awareness of the country, the associations they have established for the country, their perceptions of the quality of that country's products, and their loyalty to that country's products. This conceptualization also accepted the micro and macro country image as part of country equity, unlike Zeugner-Roth, Diamantopoulos and Montesinos (2008). More recently, Mariutti and Giraldi (2019: 412) conceptualized an overall country brand equity construct with five dimensions including country brand reputation, country brand awareness, country brand perceived quality and country brand loyalty. According their conceptualization, while country brand reputation, brand awareness and perceived quality are the first-order constructs that have direct influences on country brand equity, country brand loyalty is distinctly influenced by country brand equity (Mariutti & Giraldi, 2019: 415).

Considering country brand equity in the context of consumer reshoring sentiment, the dimensions of both constructs are likely to be related. Although there is no study in this sense in the literature, the country brand equity will be high for consumers with higher reshoring sentiment deriving from the idea they believe that the products of reshoring companies are superior and of higher quality. Because, it is quite possible for consumers, who think that their home country has a high brand equity in terms of consumer-based brand equity dimensions, to develop a high consumer reshoring sentiment. These consumers are likely to aware of the country's brand, they have associations and images in their minds about the country's brand, they perceive the country's products to be of good quality, and they are attached to the country's products. In this direction, consumers will develop a higher reshoring sentiment following a company reshoring decision, since they think that, more qualified products with a made-in home country label and superior workmanship will be produced, which will better meet their needs.

Additionally, Paswan, Kulkarni and Ganesh (2013: 234) showed that consumers are loyal to countries just as they loyal to the brands. Based on the assertion that consumers who are loyal to their own country brand are already aware of it, have

associations with the brands of their own country, perceive the image of the country brands well and the products of the country are high quality, they create a country brand equity and subsequently develop loyalty to the country brand (Mariutti & Giraldi, 2019: 415). In that vein, country brand loyalty is likely to come to the fore in the formation of consumer reshoring sentiment.

Pappu and Quester (2010: 280) defined country brand loyalty as the tendency that leads an intention to purchase a country's products as the first choice. Country brand loyalty represents the intention of consumers to be loyal to the country brands as a behavioral notion regardless of their past and present purchase decisions (Zeugner-Roth, Diamantopoulos and Montesinos, 2008: 583). Since country brand loyalty is conceptualized as a behavioral consequence rather than a perspective (Mariutti & Giraldi, 2019: 415), consumers are likely to develop reshoring sentiments in accordance with this behavioral consequence, so to say country brand loyalty.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN, METHADODOLOGY AND ANALYSES

3.1. RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

Consumers should be taken into account as an important part of the firm-level strategy making and decision giving processes based on the demand-side perspective (Priem, Li & Carr, 2012: 361). As a matter of fact, in line with the R-A theory (Hunt, 1997a), having resources that have an ability to take the expectations of consumer groups as a basis while implementing the reshoring decision will bring a competitive advantage. Grounding on demand-side perspective and R-A theory, this thesis aims to emphasize the importance of the role of consumers in the reshoring decision, unlike firm-side studies that base the reshoring decision on a resource-based view.

Prior researches on reshoring almost mainly focused on firm-sided approaches; and tried to explain reshoring by questioning what, why, when, where and how. However, there is a few studies focused on demand-side effects of reshoring. Knowledge about the effects of firms' reshoring decisions on customer attitudes is very limited, only a few studies are existing. For example, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015) examined consumer reactions to corporate reshoring and revealed that reshoring decision arises gratitude and diminishes anger towards the company, thereby increases willingness to buy. Subsequently, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi, (2018) developed the multidimensional 'Consumer Reshoring Sentiment' scale to understand consumers' attitudes to relocation decisions. In their following study, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2019) extended the concept of Consumer Reshoring Sentiment and, proved that the interaction between Consumer Reshoring Sentiment (CRS) and Consumer Animosity (CA) causes specific increases in gratitude and relief which, in their turn, affect positive word of mouth, willingness to buy and advocacy behaviors. Later on, Cassia, (2020) measured product quality as perceived by domestic customers both before and after the reshoring decision.

On the other hand, these studies analyzed the concept solely on the basis of European or US based companies. However, there is not any study which tests the effects of reshoring decision on the consumers' reactions in emerging countries. In addition, there is not any study which explores the possible effects involved with the

consumer-brand relationship. Besides, previous demand-side studies in terms of reshoring were structured independently from offshoring, excluding one study (e.g., Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2019). Although the previous offshoring location of the relevant reshored company was examined in the context of consumer animosity towards this country, existing literature emphasizes that animosity and product quality judgements work independently. If consumers have a positive judgement on product quality of a country where they feel animosity, they do not change mind regarding the quality, although they are reluctant to buy these products (Klein, Ettenson & Morris, 1998: 96). Therefore, quality related views, which are included in CRS as an important aspect, will not be fully affected by animosity.

Building on the foregoing, the contribution of this research to the literature is four-fold. First is to explore the demand-side effects in a developing country. Second is to extend the effects with the involvement of consumer-brand relationship. Third, analyzing country image of previously offshored country in terms of a specific product category will contribute to both supply chain and marketing literature to understand demand-side effects of a firm-sided supply chain related decision better. Lastly, three-way interactions of category country image and perceived company motives with consumer ethnocentrism and brand trust in company with the mediating role of consumer reshoring sentiment will contribute to the existing literature.

In conclusion, the objective of this research is analyzing the effects of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment on brand trust in the context of reshoring strategies, perceived company motives and offshored country image. Accordingly, the following research questions are addressed throughout this study:

- What is the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust with the mediator role of consumer reshoring sentiment?
- How does perceived company motive and category-country image (offshored) bear on the indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on “brand trust” through consumer reshoring sentiment?
- How does observing different levels of reshoring strategy, perceived company motives and offshored-country category image perform the

indirect effect of consumer reshoring sentiment between consumer ethnocentrism and brand trust?

3.2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

This thesis examines the moderating effects of perceived company motives and category country image in dual relationships within the indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment as well as the direct effects of consumer ethnocentrism on consumer reshoring sentiment, and two-staged moderation effects among the conceptualized indirect relationship.

While offshoring had attracted scholars in the past decades as a phenomenon that started in the 1980s, risen awareness in terms of the threats that domestic production has been interrupted and unemployment has been rising, originated by offshoring, as well as the cost related issues or quality concerns, have led the idea that reshoring may be a solution (Fratocchi et al., 2016: 112). In this regard, reshoring has come to the agenda in past decades, kind of emerging trend (Backer et al., 2016: 4; Fjellström, Lui & Caceres, 2017: 79; Sayem, Feldmann & Ortega-Mier, 2018: 68; Wan et al., 2019: 1; Lund & Steen, 2020: 1).

Although the certain amount of emphasis on the rising tendency towards relocation strategies under the firm-sided approach in literature, it is obvious that these strategies may affect also the demand side (Stępień & Młody, 2017: 204). In this regard, there are a few studies, which examined the demand-side effects or mechanism of reshoring decisions, such as its effects on consumer willingness to buy and willingness to pay for the reshored products (Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi, 2015; 2018), on advocacy behaviors Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi, 2019), on perceived product quality (Cassia, 2020). In addition to demand-side outcomes of reshoring, the roles of perceived company motives, consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity as a moderator are examined in literature (see. Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi, 2015; 2018; 2019; Cassia, 2020). Besides, these studies analyzed the reshoring phenomenon on European or US context. In the context of developing countries, reshoring and its possible demand-side effects in accordance with the demographic structure has been examined in Stępień and Młody (2017).

Even though the demand-side effects of reshoring decisions have made ground in marketing and business research, it is obvious that it still needs to be examined, since the knowledge is limited in terms of the effects of reshoring for the consumers in emerging countries. On the other hand, there is not any study which explores the possible effects involved with the consumer-brand domain. Therefore, this study has been designed with the objective of analyzing the effects of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment on brand trust based upon the company reshoring decision in the context of reshoring strategies, perceived company motives and category country image.

Drawing upon the revealed effects of perceived company motive and consumer ethnocentrism on consumer reactions following a reshoring decision as existent in literature, this study also attempts to examine the moderating effect of category country image of previously offshored country, in other words from where a company is reshored, on brand trust, which will contribute to reshoring literature to understand demand-side effects better. Further, by examining consumer ethnocentrism as an antecedent of consumer reshoring sentiment upon the interaction with perceived company motives, in addition to examining the mediating effect of consumer reshoring sentiment, this study has been conceptualized with the intent to complement existent literature in a comprehensive approach.

Therefore, a comprehensive model that includes consumer ethnocentrism, consumer reshoring sentiment, brand trust, perceived company motives, category country image and different reshoring strategies is constructed. In the following sections, the previous studies on the conceptual relationship between reshoring and some sort of consumer reactions are referred, and the hypotheses are constructed accordingly.

3.2.1. Consumer Ethnocentrism as a Predictor of Consumer Reshoring Sentiment

As mentioned in the previous part, consumer ethnocentrism comprises of the preference of consumers towards home-country made products arising from moral considerations and patriotic sentiments with the idea of purchasing foreign-products damage domestic economy and causes job losses (Shimp & Sharma, 1987: 280).

Although consumer ethnocentrism reflects the economic concerns (Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar & Diamantopoulos, 2015: 25), ethnocentric consumers are also anxious about moral consequences of purchasing foreign-products (Sharma, Shimp & Shin, 1995: 27; Herche, 1992: 261).

On the other hand, Wang and Chen (2004: 392) emphasized that the technological or economic development of the relevant foreign country may make a difference in terms of the attitude of even ethnocentric consumers. Consistent with this view, Batra et al., (2000: 88) showed that consumers in developing countries are disposed to prefer foreign products in the cases when they perceive the quality better from that country or admire the lifestyles of developed countries. In addition to the emphasis on the possible interactions with cosmopolitanism (Jiménez-Guerrero et al., 2014: 178; Vida & Reardon, 2008: 37), patriotism (Balabanis et al., 2001: 162), cultural openness (Strizhakova, Coulter & Price, 2008: 61), foreign country image, home country's product-country image or the relevant product category (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004: 82) are asserted in literature as the factors that influence the effects of consumer ethnocentrism.

Effects of consumer ethnocentrism have been studied in both offshoring (e.g., Durvasula & Lyonski, 2009; Thelen, Yoo & Magnini, 2010; Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2013; 2015) and reshoring (e.g., Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015; 2018) context. Since high ethnocentric consumers perceive foreign products to cause a damage in domestic economy, they are likely to produce a negative attitude towards offshoring (Durvasula & Lyonski, 2009: 28), and positive sentiments of consumers towards offshoring will be offset (Thelen, Yoo and Magnini, 2010: 273). On the other hand, consumers with high levels of consumer ethnocentrism show significantly higher levels of gratitude and lower levels of anger towards the decision to reshoring in the indirect relationship between consumers' attitude towards reshoring and their willingness to buy via moral emotions (Grappi, Romani, and Bagozzi, 2015: 468). Likewise, Stępień and Młody (2017: 229) revealed that consumers those exhibited high level of ethnocentrism are willing to pay more for the domestic products.

Further, Cassia (2020: 1111) found that cognitive ethnocentrism (i.e., Disposition to prefer domestic products with regard to their objective superiority over foreign products as a result of better workmanship) has no effect, while affective

ethnocentrism (i.e., Customer pride, admiration and emotional attachment to home country products) has an impact on consumer evaluations of perceived product quality of reshored products. Naturally, this is the case where consumers are aware of the offshoring that the company concerned has done in the past.

The theories on national identification and intergroup bias have ability to explain the association between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment to some extent. According to Feather (1981: 1026), situations in which national identification is felt strongly will bring along the disposition of individuals to justify national decisions. This means that national identification affects individuals' judgments against the home-country and other countries (Verlegh, 2007: 362). Drawing upon the national identification, ingroup bias occurs with a tendency to evaluate the own group superior than outgroups (Hewstone, Rubin & Willis, 2002: 576). On the other hand, ingroup bias does not mean to derogating outgroups or fostering outgroup hate (Brewer, 1999: 431, 2007: 730; Hewstone, Rubin & Willis, 2002: 579).

Grounding on above, consumer ethnocentrism is based on the theoretical approach that ingroup favoritism does not mean outgroup derogation as consumer reshoring sentiment is. As a matter of fact, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2018, 199) emphasized, both concepts are similar, while consumer ethnocentrism mostly appears with the idea to defend national products and economy with some sort of rationalities, consumer reshoring sentiment mostly focus on the advantages of reshoring. In this regard, consumer ethnocentrism is expected to explain consumer reshoring sentiment, as a result that consumers who believe that purchasing domestic products is morally and rationally appropriate, are likely to feel that reshoring decision of a company is correct (Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi, 2015: 456), which will in turn generate higher consumer reshoring sentiment.

To sum up, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Consumer ethnocentrism positively predicts the consumer reshoring sentiment.

3.2.2. Mediating Role of Consumer Reshoring Sentiment Between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Brand Trust

As mentioned in the previous part, trust caught the attention of scholars from psychology, sociology, economics, and often even management and marketing for years (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005: 188). Therefore, very different definitions offered, which of all have some certain common points such as reliability, integrity (Morgan and Hunt, 1994: 23), benevolence and intentions (Delgado-Ballester, 2004: 575). These definitions emphasize the parties of a relationship never take the advantage of each other's vulnerabilities.

On the other hand, Fournier (1998: 344) asserted consumers and brands have a dyadic relationship as a result that consumers attribute any positive or negative outcomes to brands as a partner. Since consumers give attention whether the brands realize what they promise (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001: 82), risk and vulnerabilities, which of both emphasized in the literature as the core elements of trust, come up also in situations of global sourcing or global supply chains (Christopher et al., 2011: 67). For example, as quoted in Christopher et al. (2011: 67), Mattel Inc, which is one of the world's largest toy company, had to recall 9 million Chinese-made toys from the market because of contained dangerous materials in those products.

Therefore, global sourcing and manufacturing activities may affect consumer attributions to the brands. Consistent with this assertion, Ellram, Tate and Petersen (2013: 14) highlighted some risks with regard to the offshoring or global sourcing such as environmental issues, quality concerns, length of supply chains, which of all may cause supply chain disruptions or decreased agility and responsiveness. In this regard, it makes sense for consumers to attribute reliability, integrity or benevolence of the brands, which moved their production or sourcing to overseas, or relocate offshored value chain activities back to home-country in accordance with their evaluations based on the relevant brands' products. Consumers may approach skeptically in such cases, and question whether this brand is able to fulfill their needs, offer good quality products or deliver the function it promises (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001: 82).

In this regard, consumer reshoring sentiment, which comprises of the believes of consumers as superior quality and greater ability of reshored products to fulfill needs and competency availability arising from the more competent labor force, are

likely to produce more trust to reshored brands. Accordingly, it is anticipated for consumers viewing reshoring as a way for paying regard to consumers' expectations. As Delgado-Ballester (2004: 574) emphasized the reliability and intentions of a brand in situations that pose a risk yield brand trust, consumers with higher consumer reshoring sentiment are expected to rely on reshored brands, since they believe this brand will produce better quality products with more competent labor in their home country.

On the other hand, consumers with high reshoring sentiment believe that reshored companies are considerate in terms of the unethical issues such as exploiting labor force or benefiting from flexible environmental regulations in overseas (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 196), thereby, this belief makes way for the positive evaluations of consumers about the benevolence and good intentions of the brand. This assertion is consistent with the view that brand trust derives from the perceived benevolence as the brand never take advantage of the vulnerabilities or do not look after their own interests (Delgado-Ballester, 2004: 576). As Li et al., (2008: 4) asserted, brands sustain trust by meeting with the expectations on functional performance, competency and benevolent intentions. Herewith, consumer reshoring sentiment is a concept that is likely to predict brand trust by grounding on the literature on reshoring and brand trust.

Additionally, country of origin-based stereotypes is also evaluated by consumers with regard to the reshoring decision that consumers may produce strong sentiment with a sense of pride towards the reshoring decision of a company as a result of the made-in home-country production (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 196). In its original context, country of origin is accepted as an indicator of product attributes (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999: 523) such as the product quality (Bilkey & Nes, 1982: 89; Li & Wyer, 1994: 188; Kumara & Canhua, 2009: 343; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009: 726). Therefore, "made-in" labels has a substantial role in product evaluations and purchasing intentions of consumers (Li, Murray & Scott, 2000: 122) when it is given as a single cue (Bilkey & Nes, 1982: 93). As explained in previous parts, consumers, who has strong sentiment towards company reshoring, show a bias in favor of domestic products given by their national belonging, which is derived from the "domestic country bias" domain (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004: 80).

Domestic country bias is explained also by consumer ethnocentrism (Fischer & Zeugner-Roth, 2014: 476; Maier & Wilken, 2017: 4). Although consumer ethnocentrism mostly represents economic concerns of consumers (Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar & Diamantopoulos, 2015: 25), it may affect consumers' sentiment towards a reshoring decision with affective-based orientation. Zajonc and Markus (1982: 124) emphasized, cognitive and affective components are able to be interacted in a variety of combinations. Grounding on this view, this study asserts that consumers do not solely evaluate reshoring in terms of the product quality or similar normative reasons, but also, they consider how they feel given their national belonging (Fournier, 1998: 523) or pride and past memories (Botschen & Hemetsberger, 1998: 7). In situations of feeling strong national identification, individuals tend to justify national decisions (Feather, 1981: 1026). Accordingly, patriotic orientation of consumers is likely to enhance affective behavior (Moon & Jain, 2002: 120).

In this regard, purchasing behavior of highly ethnocentric consumers is conducted by a disposition to national-ingroup as an outcome of sense of belonging (Brodowsky, 1998: 97). As framed by Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi, 2018: 198), consumer reshoring sentiment includes the sense of pride deriving from the made-in effect dimension. Moreover, consumer ethnocentrism is an antecedent of country-of-origin effect supported in literature (Brodowsky, 1998: 101, Shankarmahesh, 2004: 146; Maier & Wilken, 2017: 4). Through the normative approach such as purchasing foreign products hurt the domestic economy, ethnocentric consumers feel a sense of belonging to national products both morally and affectively. Consequently, their evaluations are affected by country-of-origin perceptions. They favor the products produced in their home-country, so to say in-group, and attribute as superior.

Besides, perceived superiority of national resources (i.e., production, labor etc.), in the meantime the products, which is conceptualized with superior quality of reshored production, greater ability to fulfill needs and competency availability as a part of consumer reshoring sentiment, reflects the normative beliefs included in consumer ethnocentrism domain. Moreover, consumers with higher sentiment towards reshoring believe that the companies who decided to reshore should be supported by governments, which is consistent with Feather (1981: 1026); such that supporting national decisions upon strong national identification.

In sum, existent researches both on consumer ethnocentrism and brand trust reveal the mediation links of consumer reshoring sentiment. Sentiment occurred following a reshoring decision mostly derived from ethnocentric tendencies, even normative or affective. Moreover, the positive evaluations in consumers' minds following a company reshoring decision, which is consumer reshoring sentiment, is expected to lead to brand trust, since consumers perceive that product produced in home-country are more reliable, and reshored companies show benevolence as an outcome of the generated sentiment. Specifically, this study proposes, consumer ethnocentrism predicts brand trust towards reshored companies through the consumer reshoring sentiment. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2: *The relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and brand trust is mediated by consumer reshoring sentiment.*

3.2.3. Moderators Along the Mediation

As proposed in the previous part, consumer reshoring sentiment has been asserted to have a central role in the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and brand trust in this study. Past researches revealed that the increases in consumers' ethnocentric orientation is most likely generate outcomes such as the increase in consumers' product preferences, market responses, and attitudes towards companies. Accordingly, when this relationship is evaluated within the reshoring context, consumer reshoring sentiment is expected to link consumer ethnocentrism to brand trust.

Further to that, this study aims to observe the conditional effects within the paths of mediation as well as the whole conceptualized relationships. In this regard, although there are few studies that investigated the predicting power of reshoring on market responses as well as the interaction effects of consumer ethnocentrism, perceived company motives (see. Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015) or consumer animosity (see. Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2019), consumer reshoring sentiment's central role is still needed to investigate. On the other hand, in both stages of the mediation, different conditional effects are expected to arise in line with past researches.

In summary, this study offers a more sophisticated approach, in which consumer ethnocentrism is examined as an antecedent of consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust as an outcome as well as perceived company motives as a moderator in the first-stage of the mediation, and category country image in the second-stage of the mediation. In addition, different type of reshoring strategies' effects is examined under the hypothesized conditions. In the following sections, the conceptual relationship among consumer ethnocentrism, consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust and expected effects underlying different conditions in terms of the perceive company motives and category country image are referred, thereby the hypotheses are constructed.

3.2.3.1. First-Stage Moderation of Perceived Company Motive

More specifically, the strength of the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment is needed to be investigate and given attention in order to obtain a clear understanding. In this regard, attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1967) contributes in a certain extent to the conceptualization of this research, since it also goes over to consumer behavior (Settle & Golden, 1974: 181). Attribution theory considers individuals as observers, so that individuals tend to compare their expectancies from the actors or subjects with those actors' actual behaviors (Gilbert & Malone, 1995: 28). Therefore, any attempt of these actors is filtered by consumers in terms of perceived intentions and motives of the actors (Campbell, 1999: 189).

In this regard, Becker-Olsen, Cudmore and Hill (2006: 47) stated that consumers question the company motives, which are generally read between the lines within marketing communication strategies. On the other hand, consumers may approach with suspicion, if they doubt about the companies' intentions (Yoon, Gürhan-Canli & Schwarz, 2006: 377). From here on out, consumer skepticism enhances the attributional attitudes of individuals. Consumer skepticism seeks for an answer to the question of whether the company reflects its true motives or not, beyond a tendency to disbelief towards companies' motives (Forehand & Grier, 2003: 350).

As Heider (1958: 82) emphasized, outcome of an act is perceived as it is either internal or external, thereby consumers are likely to respond skeptically in certain

settings (Elving, 2013:279). While the internal attributions lead consumers to perceive company motives as sincere, external attributions lead consumers to perceive the motive as more profit-focused (Forehand & Grier, 2003: 350). Such negative motives inferred caused by negative attributions (Campbell, 1999: 189), thus may affect consumers' attitudes.

As mentioned in literature review part, company motives are categorized mostly with regard to the self-centered and others-centered dual distinction, such as firm-serving and public serving (Becker-Olsen, Cudmore & Hill, 2006: 48), or extrinsic and intrinsic (Du, Bhattacharya & Sen, 2007: 226). Grounding on the Kelley's (1973: 113) "discounting principle", consumers question the causes of actions they are exposed to, and if consumers perceive there is a disguised cause among multiple causes, consumers discount the effect of one of these causes, and attribute it externally, which is called as firm-serving or extrinsic (Forehand & Grier, 2003: 350; Becker-Olsen, Cudmore & Hill, 2006: 48, Du, Bhattacharya & Sen, 2007: 226). On the other hand, consumers may attribute company motives in a combination of both the firm-serving and public-serving motives (Ellen, Webb and Mohr, 2006: 154).

In reshoring context, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015: 455) asserted that consumers are likely to evaluate the reshoring decision with regard to the perceived company motive. Drawing upon Ellen, Webb and Mohr (2006: 154), they proposed that intrinsic and extrinsic motives may be arisen at the same time, while one of them is stronger than another. In addition, they also proposed that consumers' evaluations on the basis of motives may vary according to the individual differences among consumers, such that ethnocentric consumers may perceive a company's reshoring decision more intrinsic, since they think purchasing foreign products hurts the domestic economy and negatively affects employment (Shimp and Sharma 1987: 281).

Accordingly, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015: 463) found that high ethnocentric consumers feel lower righteous anger towards company reshoring when they perceive the reshoring motive more intrinsic rather than extrinsic, as well as they found an increase in felt gratitude when consumers perceive the company motive as more intrinsic regardless of the level of consumer ethnocentrism. On the other hand, through the both type of moral emotions, consumers' willingness to pay has been

found to be increased in conditions of lower extrinsic and higher intrinsic motives (Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi, 2015: 464).

Building on the attribution theory, the knowledge on consumer skepticism and the literature, company reshoring as a firm-side decision is expected to also be perceived as public-serving or firm-serving by consumers, depending on how they filter the declared announcements. They even consider a reshoring decision more positive or negative as a result of implemented marketing communication strategy. This idea is in line with the idea that was emphasized in Wong and Weiner (1981: 654) as people look for explanations in terms of causality, especially in negative or unexpected situations. As aforementioned, company reshoring decision and perceived motive constructs intersect as well as consumer ethnocentrism interacts with perceived company motives to a certain extent. Thus, it is expected to observe an interaction of consumer ethnocentrism and perceived company motives, which in turn enhances the consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment relationship. Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested:

Hypothesis 3a: Perceived company motive of reshoring positively moderates the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, reshoring emphasizes two main facets as location and ownership (Fjellström, Lui & Caceres, 2017: 80; Kandil, Battaïa & Hammami, 2020: 2). Combinations of the different modes of governance and locational movements do not change the existence of reshoring, just makes a difference in terms of the type of the activity (Gray et al., 2013: 30; Fratocchi et al., 2015: 370; Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2015: 453; Wiesmann, 2017: 16; Fjellström, Lui & Caceres, 2017: 81). Beyond the discussions around the circle of the governance and location mechanisms, reshoring is far beyond them, and it is a strategy or organizational learning (Gray et al, 2013: 29).

In this regard, type of the relocated activities namely only manufacturing (Gray et al., 2013; Ellram, Tate & Petersen, 2013; Tate, 2014; Fratocchi et al., 2015) or value chain activities in a broad view (Bals et al., 2016; Foerstl, Kirchoff & Bals, 2016; Barbieri et al., 2017), and reshored business function (Conz, 2019: 82) need to be assessed carefully and strategically. As a matter of fact, this strategy based on the type of the value chain activities to be relocated is decided at the time of offshoring

(Lineres-Navarro, Pedersen & Pla-Barber, 2014: 112). Based on this idea, Lineres-Navarro, Pedersen and Pla-Barber (2014: 112) emphasized the terms core activities and non-core activities to be offshored.

On the other hand, Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2015: 455) approached with a demand-side perspective and distinguish reshoring as full reshoring, reshoring production and reshoring design, named this distinction as different type of reshoring strategies. Since global sourcing, which is an important strategy that influence companies in terms of market and technology access, costs, quality, performance, speed-to market and product-cycle time, includes many different decisions such as location of production, assembly, R&D, design and governance mode (insourcing vs. outsourcing), it is very likely to affect consumers' attitudes towards companies (Li et al., 1000: 121). As a result, country of design is found to be the most important indicator for consumers to care about (Li et al., 2000: 129).

Apart from the discussions on determining which activities are core and which are not as well as how the different type of core activities affect consumers' attitudes with regard to the location of these activities, this thesis gives its focus to the distinction of reshored business functions with a binary categorization as full or partial. This type of distinction mostly took place in reshoring definitions in broad literature as well as emphasized in Fratocchi et al. (2013:2). Accordingly, full reshoring refers to relocation whole of value chain activities back to home country, and partial reshoring refers to returning solely the manufacturing to home country while keeping other activities such as design, R&D, sourcing etc.

In this regard, binary distinction is more suitable to the objective of this study, because this research also focuses to clarify the effects of country-of – origin-based image in terms of the offshoring and reshoring shift. Specifically, this thesis investigates whether the origin of previously offshored country affects the outcome of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment with the enhancing role of perceived company motives, or not. In this sense, as much as separating different activities within the value chain, and examining the implemented reshoring strategies would enlighten also the demand-side effects of reshoring, it would likely to cover the main focus of this thesis.

Herewith, this study questions whether the examined moderated mediation effect proposed with Hypothesis 3a as well as the whole conceptualized relationships are varying among full reshoring and partial reshoring strategies of companies. Specifically, up to this stage of hypothesis development, this thesis seeks for observing a variation in terms of the effects analyzed between full reshoring and partial reshoring situations. For example, maintaining other core value chain activities in overseas, and just returning manufacturing to home country may intersect with both consumer ethnocentrism and perceived company motives. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3b: *Moderation effect of perceived company motive of reshoring on the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment differs among full reshoring and partial reshoring situations.*

3.2.3.2. Second-Stage Moderation of Category Country Image

Country of origin effect has a substantial role in international marketing and consumer research (Parameswaran and Mohan Pisharodi, 2002: 261), since it combines the country and product related attributes of consumers, and brings country image into existence (Pappu, Quester and Cooksey, 2007: 727). As mentioned in literature review section, consumers use origin effects as a cue to attribute for example quality level to products (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999: 523; Bilkey & Nes, 1982: 89; Li & Wyer, 1994: 188; Kumara & Canhua, 2009: 343; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009: 726).

Additionally, individual factors such as consumer ethnocentrism is likely to intersect with COO specific beliefs (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004: 87), and affect consumers' evaluations regarding the products or the company (Pharr, 2005: 36). Moreover, national stereotypes as perceived competence has an effect COO specific evaluations (Chattalas, Kramer & Takada, 2008: 62) as well as the product category (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004: 91). The fact remains that, while consumers make inferences on products from a specific country, they follow two paths (Josiassen, 2011: 125). First, they evaluate the stereotypes regarding the people or the nation of that country in general (Han, 1989: 223; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999: 525) and product specific perceptions; second, the motivation to prefer domestic products

when appropriate, even if a foreign product-country match has a higher image (Herche, 1992: 261).

In this regard, this thesis asserts that product evaluations of consumers are affected with regard to the country image, which is derived from the COO effect, on the basis of global manufacturing or sourcing locations (Li, Murray and Scott, 2000: 122). Papadopoulos, Heslop and Bamossy (1990: 285) shed light on this assertion, since they underlined that consumers would not prefer the products from the countries, which have lower level of industrial development than their own countries. Beyond that, product category specific approach has been adopted in this study, grounding on the view that states an image derived from a single product-country origin information may not be enough (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004: 82). In order to specify more precisely, even if a country produce high quality of one sort of product, this positive image is not able to be generalized or attribute to the relevant country, since another product may not be produced in the same quality standards (Gurhan-Canli and Mahaswaran, 2000: 316).

This study bases upon the view asserted as consumers evaluate a product and its quality according to the country's expertise in the relevant product category (Kaynak & Cavusgil, 1983: 153; Essoussi & Merunka, 2007: 412). Accordingly, it is expected for consumers to generate an image regarding a country based upon the expertness of given country. As stated in Agarwal and Sikri (1996: 35), consumers consider their previous knowledge on the experienced quality offered in a certain category by a country, and have opinion in this regard, since they expect the same performance from another product produced in this country. This view is derived from the information processing and categorization theories.

Drawing upon the information processing theory, consumers are expected to use prior knowledge based upon their past experiences to process country of origin specific cue, if there is not any other cue in order them to make judgement (Hong & Wyer, 1989: 177). On the other hand, categorization theory emphasizes that subjects, namely consumers are stimulated with regard to the categories, which represents an example of previous definition obtained in their memory (Cohen & Basu, 1987: 455; Sujana, 1985: 31). In consideration of both theories, consumers generate their believes

about products on the basis of category-specific approach tendentially, which coincides with this study's focus on category country image.

As detailed in literature review and subsequent sections, this study asserts that consumer ethnocentrism predicts consumer reshoring sentiment grounding on the past researches. This binary relationship may also be strengthened with regard to the perceived company motive or vice versa in line with the attribution theory and existent literature. Besides, generated consumer reshoring sentiment mediates the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and brand trust.

In this respect, while the brand trust is examined as an outcome of these constructs and conceptualized relationships, consumer ethnocentrism is considered as a starting point. Specifically, consumers high in ethnocentric tendencies evaluate a reshoring decision more positive, and generate believes comprises of the perceptions based on reshored products quality, home-country's labor competencies, features of reshored products in terms of meeting their needs and pride arises from the made-in home country production; or vice versa. Eventually, this structured belief, namely consumer reshoring sentiment incorporates both consumers ethnocentric orientations and country of origin centric perceptions, especially in a given product category.

As stated in literature review section, made-in effect as one of the sub-dimensions of consumer reshoring sentiment, comprises some aspects of country of origin, most specifically deriving from its symbolic and emotional (affective) components. Affective component is arisen from domestic country bias given by their national identity (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004: 80). Accordingly, once the consumer reshoring sentiment is generated, consumers are likely to process country image information based on prior experiences. In fact, it was either considered by Grappi, Romani, Bagozzi (2015: 458); however, they did not prefer to give the country names as a stimulus within the experimental conditions they used in their study, in order to keep the focus of the research on the concept of reshoring itself. In spite of this, past researches on consumer ethnocentrism, country of origin as well as the core elements of consumer reshoring sentiment reveal the links with category country image.

Moreover, Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001: 83) suggested product-category specific knowledge has an influence on brand-level effects such as brand trust, brand

loyalty or brand performance. Accordingly, consumers tend to use prior experiences with regard to the product categories to deduce on a new brand stimulus. Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001: 85) considered hedonic and utilitarian value of products as a product category characteristic, and asserted that higher utilitarian values such as quality or convenience led to greater brand trust. Results revealed a positive influence of utilitarian product-category characteristics on brand trust, while hedonic values have a positive influence on brand affect (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 90).

On the other hand, Rosenbloom (2009: 268) examined the global brands in terms of different product categories. Accordingly, it was revealed that global brands' perceived dependability and reliability is not very important for low involvement products, while global brands itself have an importance for the high involvement products such as durable goods. This is mostly because high involvement products contain more risk than the low involvement products, thereby global brands' offerings perceived as more credible in the eyes of consumers.

Further, Fetscherin et al. (2014: 80) asserted that product category differences would have an influence on the relationship between consumers and their loved brands. As a result, they found that there was no difference across different product categories. However, result revealed that the intensity of the relationship was enhanced in some product categories. Their study brought the attention to product-category specific evaluation in terms of consumer-brand relationships.

Grounding on the past researches and aforementioned theories as a whole, it is expected for consumer reshoring sentiment to generate a brand-effect specific outcome in variation of different country stimulus based on a certain category. Accordingly, this study proposes that category country image of the offshored country comes into play to obtain a consumer response or reaction towards the reshored companies through the generated reshoring sentiment by consumers. More specifically, consumers are expected to process the category country image of the previously offshored country as a clue, which is built on the reshoring sentiment level they exhibit, then generate a certain outcome such as brand trust. If consumers perceive country image of previously offshored country for a specific product category low, then, brand trust is expected to be enhanced. On the contrary, higher the category country image, lower the brand trust is expected.

Thus, following hypothesis is suggested:

Hypothesis 4a: *Offshored country's image for a certain category (category country image) negatively moderates the effect of the consumer reshoring sentiment on brand trust towards reshored company.*

As mentioned in developing Hypothesis 3b, the role of different reshoring strategies is needed to investigate for a better understanding. Therefore, this study also investigates the variation between full reshoring and partial reshoring in terms of the two-way interaction of consumer reshoring sentiment and category country image on brand trust. Specifically, consumers trust to a reshored brand is expected to differ in a situation, when a company reshored from a country with low category country image by relocating solely its manufacturing activities while keeping other core activities in that country, or vice versa. Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested:

Hypothesis 4b: *Moderation effect of category country image on the relationship between consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust differs among full reshoring and partial reshoring situations.*

3.2.4. Moderated Moderated Mediation with a Triadic Approach

Enhancing the dyadic relationships proposed in recent section, this thesis offers a more comprehensive level of analysis in terms of consumer, company reshoring and countries involved into the process. Although there are not three individuals within this triangle, a structural perspective lets deducing on an interconnection between the dyadic relationships (Vedel, Geersbro & Ritter, 2012: 4).

More clearly, consumers' individual characteristics such as ethnocentric orientation entails consumers to generate consumer reshoring sentiment towards a company reshoring decision. In this path, there is a dyadic relationship between the consumers and companies. On the other hand, consumers with a certain level of reshoring sentiment again involve in a relationship with the reshored company. This relationship comes with an outcome, which is a market response or a reaction in general. However, this time, arisen dyadic relationship is expanded with the involvement of the countries. Whether the company reshored its value chain activities fully or not, consumers existing sentiment towards company reshoring will likely to

interact with the country image (i.e., host country or previously offshored country), which is attributed considering a certain product category, thus, will produce an outcome accordingly.

As stated in Vedel, Geersbro and Ritter (2012: 4), if two situations influence each other, so to say there is an interconnection, solely a dyadic approach is not enough. Therefore, this study asserts the country image as having a personality. Grounding on Aaker (1997: 347)'s brand personality and brand image (Aaker, 1991: 101) definitions, country image may be conceptualized as a set of human characteristics associated in a meaningful way to a country. This definition of country image is consistent with both Nagashima (1970: 68) and Martin and Eroglu (1993: 193) as conveyed in literature review section. As well as every individual has a personality, brands have their own personality with a set of associations (Aaker, 1991: 113). Accordingly, country image also represents some specific characteristics, thereby is likely to consider as a party, or personality.

Herewith, beyond the consumer and company relationship in reshoring context, this thesis emphasizes the involvement of previously offshored country into this relationship as a party arising from its image in a given product category. As though supporting this point of view, referring to Barber (1983), Delgado-Ballester (2004: 575) emphasized that building trust follows two paths: first, partners put other's interests before their own interest, thereby deliver their obligations in this regard; second, partners be sure about other parties' competencies and performance to deliver the given promise. This structuring is consistent with this study's assertions as consumers first evaluate whether the given reshoring decision is originated with a firm-serving intention or public-serving intention, and then process their existing sentiment with regard to category country image, which provides more certain insights on whether the company will be able to deliver its technical offerings with a better performance or vice versa.

As mentioned in the sections on developing the hypotheses up to this part, this thesis has asserted a mediation effect of consumer reshoring sentiment between consumer ethnocentrism and brand trust. Additionally, two staged moderations within this mediation have been suggested. Extending these hypotheses with both drawing upon the past researches and referenced theories detailed above, the indirect effect of

consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment is expected to be conditional upon the perceived company motive, such that perceived public-serving motives will strengthen the indirect relationship in the first-stage of the sets of dyadic relations. Besides, this indirect effect is expected to be conditional upon category country image, such that a lower category country image of previously offshored country will enhance the relationship between the consumer and brand, thereby more brand trust will be generated.

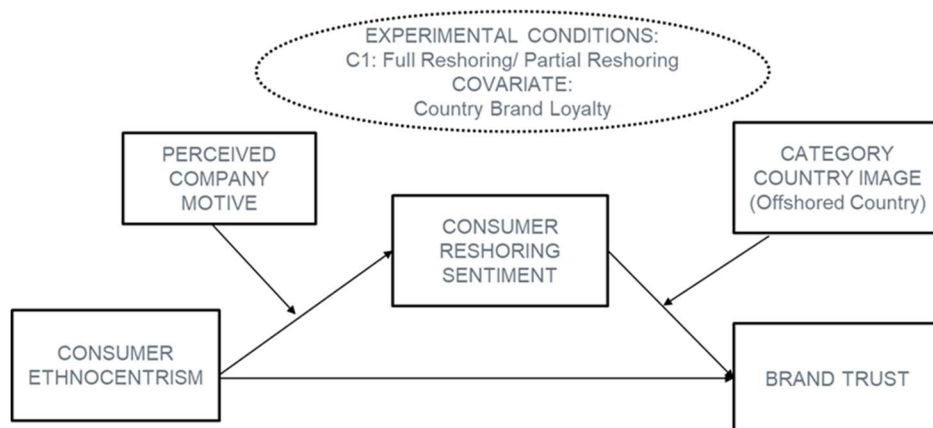
Through this approach, consumers will involve in a relationship both with the brand and the country image, which will provide a more robust process to enlighten demand-side effects of reshoring. To sum up, following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 5a: *The indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment is conditional upon the perceived company motive of reshoring.*

Hypothesis 5b: *The indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment is contingent upon the category country image of offshored country.*

Hypothesis 5c: *Perceived motive of reshoring and category country image moderates the indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment such that the indirect effect strengthens when perceived motive is higher (public serving) and category country image is lower.*

Figure 1: Conceptual Model



Based on the above discussion, the conceptual framework illustrated in Figure 1. The framework is strongly based on the relevant theories explained in literature review part as well as the past researches in literature. Accordingly, a comprehensive

model that includes consumer ethnocentrism, consumer reshoring sentiment, brand trust, perceived company motives, category country image and different reshoring strategies is included. In the following, the previous studies on the conceptual relationship between reshoring and some sort of consumer reactions are referred, and the hypotheses are constructed.

3.3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology is a scenario-based experimental design in this study. In this sense, individual factors were measured in accordance with the items used in the scales in the questionnaire, the analysis of contextual factors was based on experimental manipulations.

3.3.1. Vignette Experiment

It was run an experiment with a 2 (category country image of previously offshored country) \times 2 (perceived motives of reshoring) \times 2 (reshoring type/strategy) between-subjects design. Accordingly, it was designed nine vignettes in total; (1) eight vignettes in which the experimental factors were manipulated in text, and (2) one control condition in which zero manipulation was applied to the text. Vignettes were varied in respect to the content of the category country image of previously offshored country (low image vs. high image), perceived motives of reshoring (firm serving vs. public serving) and reshoring type/strategy (full reshoring vs. partial reshoring).

In experimental design, a fictious company under the name of “Company A” that operates in white goods industry was used in each of stimulus vignette. Fictious name was preferred to avoid any bias regarding acquired experiences (Lim & Shim, 2019: 17). Using a real company and brand name might cause consumers to engage all acquired experiences such as their loyalty to that brand or their trust on the brand. Thus, estimates on the brand trust after the company's decision to reshoring would be hindered in a way. As a matter of fact, Schmalz and Orth's study (2012: 873) proved that consumers who are strongly loyal to a brand use and interpret any information about this brand, even if this information is negative in their opinion, by filtering this information through a biased lens. However, in order for the respondents to internalize

the narrative more and to give their responses accordingly, it was stated at the beginning of the scenario that the situation mentioned in the text was real, although the company name was fictitious.

In order to analyze variation in brand trust towards companies that relocate supply chain activities by reshoring, white goods category was determined, since it is a sector where strong and global Turkish companies exist. Additionally, Turkey is the world's second largest white goods manufacturer by % 7 production volume after China and is Europe's largest manufacturer (White Goods Industrialists Association of Turkey, 2020: 4). Considering the existence of Turkish white goods brands that also have production and R&D centers in different locations around the world, evaluating the attitude of Turkish consumers towards reshoring in a sector/product category where Turkish brands are so strong would provide more accurate data. Indeed, the attitude of Turkish consumers (respondents) might have been affected in terms of a low category country image of Turkey, if a category in which Turkish brands do not have a strong position.

At the beginning of all scenarios, a general information about “Company A”, which is same in all vignettes, was included. It was followed by the details about company’s offshoring and reshoring strategies, offshored countries and motive for reshoring decision, which of all varied within eight vignettes as a part of the questionnaires.

Following the vignettes (see “Appendix 1” for the wording) had been designed, all were discussed with three independent marketing researchers in order to avoid responses to be biased by the few issues contained in the vignettes. Below is an example of the text vignette, which contains the full reshoring decision from a low-image country with a firm-serving motive:

“A” is a Turkish company, which has been manufacturing white goods for more than 75 years, and whose products are sold all around the world. In 2002, company “A” started manufacturing in China. However, in 2020, in order to increase the profitability in the face of rising costs in operations carried out in China, company “A” decided to terminate the manufacturing operations in China, and moved all back to its home country Turkey.

In addition to eight text vignettes, the control scenario, which was developed as free from all the manipulation subjects, presented as below:

“A” is a Turkish company, which has been manufacturing white goods for more than 75 years, and whose products are sold all around the world. In 2002, company “A” started manufacturing in abroad. However, in 2020, Company “A” decided to terminate the manufacturing operations in abroad, and moved all back to its home country Turkey.

Accordingly, the set of vignettes generated in accordance with experimental factors aforementioned above are controlled and randomly assigned to each respondent. Each respondent was presented with one vignette and was instructed to carefully read the text before start the questionnaire.

3.3.2. Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire was structured to be consisted of three parts and was built on operationalized variables using established scales from the extant literature. First part comprises the questions regarding the consumer reshoring sentiment, brand trust and perceived company motives, while the second part focused on questions related to consumer ethnocentrism, country brand loyalty and category country image. Third part included the questions corresponding to the demographic characteristics of the respondents such as age, gender, level of education, employment status and household income. Moreover, the questionnaire (both the text vignette and the items) was initially designed in English and then translated into Turkish through “back-translation procedure”.

In the beginning of each questionnaire, respondents first were requested to read a text vignette about “Company A”, which was detailed in vignette development part. Participants then were asked to respond a question, which was added to check whether the participants correctly understood the stimuli presented in text vignettes, which varied according to experimental conditions explained in vignette development part of this study. Accordingly, the participants were asked to write down in which countries "Company A", mentioned in the scenario, had its manufacturing activities in 2002 and 2020. Besides the attention check question, a manipulation check, which asked respondents to specify whether “company A” reshored its manufacturing activities

fully or partially, was included in the questionnaires except the group with no manipulation.

After determining the items for the questionnaire through the contribution of the existence literature, a pre-test was conducted with ten participants to understand whether there are ambiguous words or phrases, and to assure that there is no any misconstruction as a result of translation procedures regarding the content. In addition, earliest version of the questionnaire was reviewed by two academic researchers in marketing and international business. After monitoring the feedbacks of both the respondents and researchers, minor changes are made to improve readability and understanding, by rewording and rephrasing.

Correspondingly, in the beginning, control and manipulation check questions were added to the end of the questionnaire in order to measure whether the participant recalls the scenario correctly or not during the survey design. However, following the feedback upon the pre-test of the questionnaire, it was decided to apply these questions to immediately after the scenario. The purpose here was to encourage the respondent to read and understand the vignette one more time before starting to answer the scales to be analyzed. In this way, the respondents had to read the vignette one more time before moving on to the questions, which supported the participants' ability to internalize the questionnaire. In this way, the content validity was established during the preliminary steps of this study.

3.3.3. Data collection, Sampling and Sample Size

In the context of this study, it was necessary that the respondents were Turkish consumers, since the sentiment of consumers against a Turkish company's reshoring decision was the focus of the study. According to the knowledge that the country images differ according to the home country of consumers', the research population was defined as 'males' or 'females', over 18 years of age, and users of the products in the relevant category (white goods) specified in the vignettes.

Accordingly, the data was gathered through both online and hard copied questionnaires distributed among targeted population via the author's personal networks. The questionnaires were delivered to potential participant networks proportional to the defined population of the study, via personal contacts, social media

and e-mail, both online and by hand. Respondents were selected from Turkey's most populous five cities, which are Izmir, Istanbul, Ankara, Bursa in order to form a sample that approximately represent the demographic diversity of Turkey. Thus, the respondents were initially selected through convenience sampling method.

All respondents participated in only one of nine (one of them is control scenario) different questionnaires randomly, and the average time to complete the questionnaires was ten minutes. Respondents who completed the questionnaire were thanked at the end of the questionnaire. The data collection process took place between 17.11.2020 - 30.11.2020. The number of respondents participated in the survey within this period was 455 in total. However, 17 respondents who gave incorrect answers to the attention check question and 2 respondents who failed the manipulation check were disqualified from the analysis. As a result, the final data set contained ($N = 436$) respondents for nine different groups (eight experimental and one no-manipulation/control group), and $N= 394$ for eight experimental groups which constitutes the sample size of the study. Percentages provide data characteristics for each of the samples, while frequencies numerically indicate how often a particular category is included for each subgroup. As it can be inferred from the Table 1, almost equal distribution on each of the experimental groups with an average of 9 – 15 % was assured in order to make an accurate and substantial analysis.

Table 1: Sample Characteristics of Groups by Type

Group Code	Type of Group	Frequency	Valid Percent
Group 1	No Manipulation	42	9.6
Group 2	Firm serving + Low country image + Full reshoring	75	17.2
Group 3	Firm serving + Low country image + Partial reshoring	41	9.4
Group 4	Firm serving + High country image + Full reshoring	43	9.9
Group 5	Firm serving + High country image + Partial reshoring	43	9.9
Group 6	Public serving + Low country image + Full reshoring	46	10.6
Group 7	Public serving + Low country image + Partial reshoring	61	14.0
Group 8	Public serving + High country image + Full reshoring	45	10.3
Group 9	Public serving + High country image + Partial reshoring	40	9.2
TOTAL		436	100.0

Although the convenience sampling method was used, Turkish demographic structure was also taken into account in the data collection process. Accordingly, the sample (see Table 2) comprised an approximately equal proportions of males (50.5%)

and females (49.5%) consistent with the national population proportions, which consisted of male (50.2%) and female (49.8%) (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2020). Conversely, the age distribution was slightly deviated towards the younger age-group population in the dataset, which contained a large proportion (78.91%) of the 25-54 years age group, unlike the Turkish population, which contained a comparatively low proportion (42.68%) of this age group (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2020). However, considering that the relevant age group constituting a significant consumer mass, the sample provided a good cross-section of the Turkish population in terms of defined population of this study.

Additionally, the sample (see Table 2) contained a large proportion of those who have at least university degree (83.78%), work full-time (67.4%) and have income that is 10.001 TL and more (42.9%). In this context, especially when the income proportion is taken into consideration, a data set, which constitutes a population that is possibly tend to show positive purchasing behavior, and able to afford such products of related product category (white goods) that is known as high basket prices, was obtained.

Table 2: Demographic Profile of the Sample

Demographic Characteristics		Groups									Valid Percent	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		n
Age												
	18 – 24 years	4	1	6	5	5	8	6	7	2	44	10.1
	25-34 years	10	18	13	17	18	12	11	23	17	139	31.9
	35-44 years	9	17	14	8	9	16	16	12	12	113	25.9
	45-54 years	8	32	3	7	6	6	24	1	5	92	21.1
	55 or more	11	7	5	6	5	4	4	2	4	48	11.0
Gender	Total	42	75	41	43	43	46	61	45	40	436	100.0
	Male	19	48	21	19	30	21	28	20	13	219	50.5
	Women	23	25	20	24	13	25	33	25	27	215	49.5
	Other											
Education	Total	42	75	41	43	43	46	61	45	40	436	100.0
	Primary Sch.	2	13	3	6	1	2	1			9	2.1
	High School	8	48	4	29	6	6	6	7	3	59	13.5
	Graduate	26	14	27	8	30	31	41	27	28	287	65.8
	Post Graduate ≤	6		7		6	7	13	11	9	81	18.6
	Total	42	75	41	43	43	46	61	45	40	436	100.0

Employment											
Full Time	23	49	24	29	32	28	42	31	33	291	67.4
Part-time		6	2	2	1	4				15	3.5
Jobseeker		1	5	2	1	2	5	2		18	4.2
Pensioner	12	11	3	7	4	4	4	1	2	48	11.1
Other	6	8	7	3	5	8	10	9	4	60	13.9
Total	42	75	41	43	43	46	61	45	40	436	100.0
Income – TL											
2.500 or less	1	2	2	1		2	1	2	1	12	2.8
2.501 – 5.000	6	19	7	7	10	6	13	11	3	82	18.9
5.001 – 7500	16	13	5	1	6	10	5	12	4	82	18.9
7.501 – 10.000	11	11	10	7	8	7	8	6	4	72	16.6
10.001 or more	8	29	17	17	18	21	34	14	28	186	42.9
Total	42	75	41	43	43	46	45	45	40	436	100.0

3.3.4. Measures

Measures used in this study were all defined from existing research that were adjusted to better fit the content of the study, wherein listed in Table 3. All items were measured using 7-point Likert scales with extremes of 1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree. Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement on given scale (1 to 7) with statements concerning six general constructs: (1) consumer reshoring sentiment; (2) brand trust; (3) perceived motive of reshoring; (4) consumer ethnocentrism; (5) country brand loyalty; (6) category country image (of previously offshored country).

Table 3: Measured Items

Construct & Source		Adapted Items / Labels
<i>Consumer Reshoring Sentiment</i> Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi (2018)		1. The quality of the reshored product is higher compared to the quality of products made abroad. / CRS1QUAL
		2. The quality of the reshored product is better than that of products made abroad. / CRS2QUAL
		3. The quality of the reshored product is definitely not comparable (as it's better) to that of products made abroad. / CRS3QUAL
		4. The reshored products are more able to meet our need compared to the products the company made abroad before. / CRS4NEEDS
		5. The reshored products are more in line with our cultural characteristics than products made abroad. / CRS5NEEDS
		6. The offshored products were less able to satisfy our needs compared to the reshored ones. / CRS6NEEDS
		7. Companies that reshored should be supported by the Government. / CRS7GOV

	8. The Government should support companies who decide to reshore even if they face higher costs. /CRS8GOV 9. The Government should support companies who decide to reshore thus prompting the economic welfare of the country. /CRS9GOV 10. I consider the reshored products more favorably now that use the label “Made in Turkey”, than before when labels of products indicated made in foreign countries. /CRS10MADEIN 11. Now I am proud to see “Made in Turkey” on products that before were made abroad. /CRS11MADEIN 12. Now I am happy to see the label “Made in Turkey” on products that before were made abroad. /CRS12MADEIN 13. I welcome the company reshoring decision because I am convinced that Turkish workers have better skills than workers of foreign countries. /CRS13COMPT 14. I evaluate favorably the company reshoring decision because I am convinced that the Turkish workers have higher competencies than workers of foreign countries. /CRS14COMPT 15. I consider positively the company reshoring decision because I believe that foreign countries don’t have workers with adequate skills and competencies. /CRS15COMPT 16. I welcome the reshoring decisions this means that the company stops exploiting workers of foreign countries, who often work in conditions worse than those guaranteed in our country. /CRS16ETH 17. I welcome the reshoring decisions this means that the company stops exploiting environmental regulations less stringent than those of our country, which often results in greater pollution. /CRS17ETH 18. I welcome the reshoring decisions this means that the company stops exploiting regulations of foreign countries disrespectful of human rights. /CRS18ETH
<i>Brand Trust</i> Chaudhuri & Holbrook (2001)	1. I trust this brand. /BTRUST1 2. I rely on this brand. /BTRUST2 3. This may be an honest brand. /BTRUST3 4. This may be a safe brand. /BTRUS4
<i>Perceived Motives</i> Becker-Olsen, Cudmore & Hill (2006)	1. 1=Self-Interested 2 3 4 5 6 7 = Community Interested 2. 1=Firm focused 2 3 4 5 6 7 = Customer Focused 3. 1=Profit motivated 2 3 4 5 6 7 = Socially Motivated
<i>Consumer Ethnocentrism</i> Klein (2002), was adapted based on Shimp & Sharma (1987)	1. It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Turkish people out of jobs. /CETSCALE1 2. A real Turkish should always buy Turkish-made products. /CETSCALE2 3. We should purchase products manufactured in Turkey instead of letting other countries get rich off us. /CETSCALE3 4. Turkish people should not buy foreign product, because this hurts Turkish business and causes unemployment. /CETSCALE4
<i>Country Brand Loyalty</i> Zeugner Roth, Diamantopoulos & Montesinos (2008), was	1. I consider myself to be loyal to Turkish brands. /CBEBL1 2. Turkish brands would be my first choice. /CBEBL2

adapted based on Yoo and Donthu (2001)	
<i>Category Country Image</i>	1. [China/Germany] white goods category is usually of good quality. /CIMAGECTGRY1
Andéhn, Nordin and Nilsson (2015)	2. White goods are perceived by most people as being a [China/Germany] specialty. /CIMAGECTGRY2
	3. I closely associate white goods with [China/Germany]. /CIMAGECTGRY3

Accordingly, CRS was measured using the original eighteen items of Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2018: 200), while brand trust was measured using four items adapted from Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001:87), and firm serving and public serving motives were formed from Becker-Olsen, Cudmore & Hill (2006: 49) and measured with three items. For all items so far, respondents were asked to consider the text vignette beginning of the questionnaire and keep the information given in the text in mind when answering the questions.

In addition to those, as recommended by Batra et al. (2000: 90) who used a four-items subset of original CETSCALE by emphasizing that it is not possible to use the entire original scale for some constructs considering the length of the questionnaire, and by Steenkamp, Hofstede and Wedel (1999: 62) who used either a subset with the highly loading items of original CETSCALE (see also. Klein et al., 1998: 94; Klein, 2002: 360), the use of refined subset was included in this study. Accordingly, four items scale, which was used by Klein (2002: 363) based on Shimp and Sharma's (1987) original CETSCALE, measured consumer ethnocentrism. Country brand loyalty (reshored country/home country) was measured using two items from Zeugner Roth, Diamantopoulos and Montesinos (2008: 588) adapted based on Yoo and Donthu (2001: 14). Once for all, category country image (of the previously offshored country/China vs. Germany) was measured using three items adapted from Andéhn, Nordin and Nilsson (2015: 233).

3.3.5. Manipulation Check

Company A's reshoring strategy, perceived motive for reshoring and category country image of previously offshored country were verified by manipulation checks in the following of the text vignette, along with brand trust scale and country brand loyalty scale of the questionnaire respectively. First, respondents were asked to

remember and write down whether Company A had decided to reshore only its manufacturing activities or reshore full of its supply chain activities in given offshored country (China or Germany). It was preserved only the questionnaires where respondents answered correctly the reshoring.

Moreover, respondents rated their level of agreement regarding their perception on statements given (Becker-Olsen, Cudmore & Hill, 2006) by considering company A's reshoring motive, which was specified in the text of vignettes. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare perceived motive of company reshoring decision in terms of firm serving and public serving conditions. The two conditions showed significant mean differences for perceived motive for reshoring [$M_{\text{Firm-Serving Motive}} = 2.20$ (SD= 1.51), $M_{\text{Public Serving Motive}} = 4.18$ (SD= 1.52; $t(392) = -12.993$, $p = 0.000$, $p < 0.05$].

Lastly, respondents rated their level of agreement on category country image scale (And  hn, Nordin & Nilsson, 2015) according to previously offshored country of Company A. China was a country that was considered as having a lower category country image and Germany was a country which was considered as having a higher category country image within the context of this study. Independent-samples t-test was conducted for category country image variable to compare perceived country image of previously offshored country in low image (China) and high image (Germany) conditions. In this respect, these two conditions analyzed either demonstrated significant mean differences for 'category country image' [$M_{\text{Low Country Image-Category}} = 3.04$ (SD= 1.35), $M_{\text{High Country Image-Category}} = 5.38$ (SD= 1.31), $t(392) = -17.172$, $p = 0.000$, $p < 0.05$]. These results suggest all the manipulations were verified.

In addition, independent-samples t-test was conducted for consumer reshoring sentiment in order to check whether there is a significant difference between the control group ($n = 42$) not exposed to manipulations and the experimental groups ($n = 394$) exposed to various manipulations. Results revealed that control and experimental groups did not demonstrated significant mean differences in terms of 'consumer reshoring sentiment' ($M_{\text{Control Group}} = 4.17$ (SD= 0.84), $M_{\text{Experimental Group}} = 4.23$ (SD= 1.01), $t(434) = -0.368$, $p = 0.713$, $p > 0.05$). This result shows that there is no difference between the control and experimental groups in terms of consumer reshoring sentiment, which is a core variable of the study such that whose mediation effect will

be examined. Specifically, consumers' sentiment to reshoring does not differ when subjected to various manipulations. Accordingly, it makes sense to infer that the moderating effects and predictors hypothesized within the scope of the study would have been able to observed free from manipulative effects on consumer reshoring sentiment, which was taken into account in the survey design process.

3.4. DATA ANALYSIS AND HYPOTHESES TESTING

3.4.1. Reliability and Validity Assessment

For the assessment of unidimensionality, which should be assessed prior to reliability assessment (Dunn, Seaker & Waller, 1994: 162; Garver & Mentzer, 1999: 35; Awang, Z., 2012: 61), exploratory factor analyses (EFA) were performed based on the eigenvalue-over-one direction with principal components extraction and the direct oblimin rotation method. Direct oblimin rotation is preferred because it was expected to be a correlation between the scales and sub-scales of the measures (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012: 644; George & Mallery, 2020: 261), which is a common case in social sciences (Wang & Ha, 2011: 332).

Table 4: EFA Statistics for the Measures

Measure	Items	Factor Loading	Item-Total Correlation	KMO*	p-value**
PERCEIVED COMPANY MOTIVE	MOTIVE1	0.927	0.792	0.732	0.000
	MOTIVE2	0.910	0.735		
	MOTIVE3	0.877	0.826		
CATEGORY COUNTRY IMAGE	CIMAGECTGRY1	0.919	0.822	0.753	0.000
	CIMAGECTGRY2	0.951	0.885		
	CIMAGECTGRY3	0.939	0.861		
BRAND TRUST	BTRUST1	0.920	0.860	0.788	0.000
	BTRUST2	0.934	0.884		
	BTRUST3	0.942	0.893		
	BTRUST4	0.939	0.887		
CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM	CETSCALE1	0.873	0.761	0.824	0.000
	CETSCALE2	0.844	0.719		
	CETSCALE3	0.814	0.677		
	CETSCALE4	0.880	0.773		
COUNTRY BRAND LOYALTY	CBEBL1	0.937	0.758	0.500	0.000
	CBEBL2	0.937	0.758		

Note (s): *= Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy, **=Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p-value.

According to the results, all constructs were confirmed to be unidimensional (see Table 4), except for the consumer reshoring sentiment scale, which was developed as indeed a multi-dimensional (six dimensions) measurement scale (Grappi, Romani & Bagozzi, 2018: 199). Thus, EFA statistics for each dimension of consumer reshoring sentiment examined separately, and observed to be unidimensional (see Table 5).

Besides, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) values were valid for each construct, and above 0.50 (Kaiser, 1974: 35). Factor loadings were also above 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010: 116). Finally, there were no observation for any item that has the value for item-to-total correlations less than 0.30, which shows the scales' reliability (Dunn, Seaker & Walker, 1994: 160).

Table 5: EFA Statistics for the Sub-dimensions of Consumer Reshoring Sentiment

Measure	Items	Factor Loading	Item-Total Correlation	KMO*	p-value**
Quality Superiority of the Reshored Production	CRSQUAL1	0.937	0.845	0.700	0.000
	CRSQUAL2	0.949	0.872		
	CRSQUAL3	0.858	0.709		
Greater Ability to Fulfil Needs	CRSNEED4	0.837	0.583	0.616	0.000
	CRSNEEDS5	0.868	0.635		
	CRSNEEDS6	0.676	0.401		
Government Support	CRSGOV7	0.898	0.764	0.738	0.000
	CRSGOV8	0.884	0.741		
	CRSGOV9	0.916	0.801		
Made-in Effect	CRSMADEIN10	0.826	0.654	0.684	0.000
	CRSMADEIN11	0.933	0.811		
	CRSMADEIN12	0.941	0.834		
Competency Availability	CRSCOMPT13	0.888	0.696	0.589	0.000
	CRSCOMPT14	0.933	0.803		
	CRSCOMPT15	0.703	0.466		
Ethical Issues	CRSETH16	0.855	0.689	0.722	0.000
	CRSETH17	0.897	0.759		
	CRSETH18	0.909	0.780		

Note (s): *= Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy, **=Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p-value.

After proving the unidimensionality and factor scores by means of EFA, reliability analysis was performed using Cronbach's α to test the items used to

operationalize the main constructs measured the related construct and were free of measurement error. The generally accepted minimum alpha value is 0.70 (Nunnally, 1994: 265). Different classifications for the inferring from the Cronbach alpha coefficient are also included in the literature. Another adoption of these inferring is “>.9 - Excellent, >.8 - Good, >.7 - Acceptable, >.6 - Questionable, >.5 - Poor, and <.5 - Unacceptable” rule of thumb by George and Mallery (2020: 244).

As a result, measures showed good levels of internal reliability (see Table 6), that the variables in the study are suitable for further analysis.

Table 6: Results of Internal Reliability

Construct	N of Items	Groups									Cronbach's Alpha (α)
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Consumer Reshoring Sentiment	18	.818	.904	.873	.916	.858	.876	.859	.794	.857	.883
<i>Subscales:</i>											
<i>Superior Quality of Reshored Production</i>	3	.873	.938	.777	.866	.878	.924	.935	.769	.894	.903
<i>Greater Ability to Fulfill Needs</i>	3	.368	.677	.629	.847	.745	.748	.787	.617	.800	.715
<i>Government Support</i>	3	.805	.897	.885	.935	.882	.887	.842	.750	.826	.878
<i>Made-in Effect</i>	3	.716	.922	.880	.929	.874	.802	.762	.763	.865	.872
<i>Competency Availability</i>	3	.685	.807	.850	.819	.833	.739	.761	.841	.798	.800
<i>Ethical Issues in Host Countries</i>	3	.877	.853	.833	.860	.827	.892	.778	.837	.885	.864
Brand Trust	4	.917	.968	.980	.967	.954	.924	.875	.959	.943	.952
Consumer Ethnocentrism	4	.845	.880	.865	.837	.857	.908	.882	.899	.830	.876
Perceived Company Motive	3	-	.932	.878	.944	.832	.607	.783	.783	.773	.889
Country Brand Loyalty	2	.800	.866	.897	.884	.796	.912	.859	.898	.773	.862
Category Country Image	3	-	.835	.921	.872	.857	.945	.872	.897	.865	.930

Correspondingly, an initial confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) was used in order to assess both construct, convergent and discriminant validity. Each subscale of

the six- dimensional consumer reshoring sentiment variable were analyzed together with other hypothesized variables within a first-order initial model. The initial CFA showed that factor loadings of all the items except one item (CRS6NEEDS) observed to be above 0.50, and ranged between 0.51 and 0.96 (see. Table 7). Considering the argument that each of the factor loadings of the latent to observed variable should be (≥ 0.50) for sufficient individual item reliability (Hair et al., 2010: 116), the results of the initial model are supported as substantial degrees of reliability.

Although factor loading of CRS6NEEDS was 0.48, when the factor loading values specified by Hair et al. (2010: 116) in accordance with the sample size are evaluated (i.e., $N=150$, ≥ 0.45), it can be stated that the results obtained are again satisfactory. Furthermore, as Tabachnick and Fidell (2012: 654) following Comrey and Lee (1992: 243) in suggesting using cut-offs going from 0.32 (poor), 0.45 (fair), 0.55 (good), 0.63 (very good) or 0.71 (excellent), it was decided as no need to eliminate CRS6NEEDS. However, it was set free parameter estimates of e22 and e23, which are redundant items to figure out “brand trust” (Awang, 2012: 76). Thus, the initial measurement model's data showed a good model fit: χ^2 (df)= 827,434 (471), CFI=0.964, TLI=0.957, GFI=0.887, NFI= 0.921, SRMR=0.044, RMSEA=0.044 (Hu & Bentler, 1999: 27; Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger & Müller, 2003: 52; Kline, 2016: 270–278).

Table 7: Results of First-order Initial CFA Model

Factors	Std. Factor Loadings	t-value	AVE	CR
Quality Superiority of the Reshored Production			0.776	0.911
CRSQUAL1	0.921***	-		
CRSQUAL2	0.955***	31.290		
CRSQUAL3	0.752***	19.604		
Greater Ability to Fulfil Needs			0.511	0.748
CRSNEED4	0.857***	-		
CRSNEEDS5	0.751***	14.614		
CRSNEEDS6	0.482***	9.150		
Government Support			0.728	0.889
CRSGOV7	0.836***	-		
CRSGOV8	0.804***	18.516		
CRSGOV9	0.915***	21.162		

“Made-in Effect”				0.752	0.900
	CRSMADIN10	0.711***	-		
	CRSMADIN11	0.925***	17.729		
	CRSMADIN12	0.946***	17.945		
Competency Availability				0.642	0.836
	CRSCOMPT13	0.909***	-		
	CRSCOMPT14	0.912***	22.595		
	CRSCOMPT15	0.516***	10.836		
Ethical Issues				0.683	0.865
	CRSETH16	0.741***	-		
	CRSETH17	0.864***	16.246		
	CRSETH18	0.869***	16.287		
Brand Trust				0.815	0.946
	BTRUST1	0.828***	-		
	BTRUST2	0.855***	32.811		
	BTRUST3	0.967***	26.305		
Category Country Image	BTRUST4	0.953***	25.730		
				0.818	0.931
	CIMAGECTGRY1	0.859***	24.918		
	CIMAGECTGRY 2	0.942***	29.550		
Ethnocentrism	CIMAGECTGRY 3	0.910***	-		
				0.643	0.878
	CETSCALE1	0.825***	18.276		
	CETSCALE2	0.787***	17.572		
Perceived Motive	CETSCALE3	0.761***	18.276		
	CETSCALE4	0.832***	-		
				0.733	0.891
	MOTIVE1	0.866***	21.607		
Country Brand Loyalty	MOTIVE2	0.787***	19.099		
	MOTIVE 3	0.910***	-		
				0.768	0.869
	CBEBL 1	0.880***	-		
	CBEBL 2	0.872***	18.952		

Note(s): *** If $p < 0.001$. N= 394.

In addition, since both the reliability and validity of the measurements can be tested with composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) (Awang, 2012: 63; Fornell & Larcker, 1981: 46), the model was assessed by means of reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Accordingly, CR of all three measures ranged from 0.74 to 0.94, which meets the acceptable level of .60 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981: 47), and indicates a good reliability (Hair et al., 2010: 680). The

AVE ranged between 0.511 to 0.818, and is above the recommended level of 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981: 46; Hair et al., 2010: 680), and verifies the convergent validity. Square root of AVE needs to be greater than inter-construct correlations in order to sustain discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981: 46), which demonstrates each AVE value's square root is higher than the correlation, thus supports the discriminant validity.

Afterwards, a run second-order model, in which the consumer reshoring sentiment was introduced as a second-order factor that co-aligns six first-order dimensions of CRS with similar approach to Grappi, Romani and Bagozzi (2018: 199) along with other five first-order factors of the study, demonstrated again a satisfactory level of model fit: χ^2 (df)= 1058.443 (505), CFI=0.944, TLI=0.938, GFI=0.856, NFI=0.899, SRMR=0.075, RMSEA=0.053 (Hu & Bentler, 1999: 27; Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger & Müller, 2003: 52; Kline, 2016: 270–278). Malhotra and Dash (2011: 718) stated that a second-order model offers more parsimonious settling than a first-order model as it includes fewer paths. As a result, higher order measurement model was seemed to be applicable, since the higher-order model also exhibited a sufficient fit (Hair et al., 2010: 738).

In order to see the higher order representation of first-order factors of CRS variable and to see the ability of higher order model to explain the covariation among the first-order factors (Marsh, 1987: 37), the target coefficient ($TC_1 = \chi^2$ of the baseline model (F) / χ^2 of the alternative model (T)) has been assessed. TC_1 value was 0.78 (i.e., $TC_1 = 827.4/1058.4$), and above the recommended threshold, which is 0.42 that calculated by the formula: χ^2 of F/ χ^2 of the baseline model in which all the factor covariances are constrained to be zero (i.e., $FU=827.4/1967.5$) (Marsh, 1987: 37). In addition to TC_1 , TC_2 , which is another measure of higher order model's ability to show the superiority in representing the data (Marsh, 1987: 37), was 0.79 (i.e., $TC_2 = (1967.5-827.4)/(1967.5-1058.4)$).

Furthermore, the reliability and validity tests of the model in which the CRS was introduced as a second-order latent variable has been performed, and its usability has been affirmed again. Eventually, CR of all three measures ranged from 0.79 to 0.94, which meets the acceptable level of .60 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981: 47) as well, and indicates a good reliability (Hair et al., 2010: 680). The AVE values ranged

between 0.64 to 0.81 for all the constructs as above 0.50 cut-off, except consumer reshoring sentiment which was 0.39, and was below the recommended level of 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981: 46; Hair et al., 2010: 680). However, the average variance extracted is a more conservative measure to validate a measurement model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981: 46; Malhotra & Dash, 2011: 714). Therefore, it is a fair attitude for the researcher to consider CR merely to reason that the convergent validity of the related construct is sufficient, even though more than 50 percent of the variance is due to error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981: 46; Malhotra & Dash, 2011: 714; Lam, 2012: 1331). Almost all the constructs in study met the 0.5 level recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981: 46), and CR values were above 0.60 cut-off, thus convergent validity is confirmed.

In addition, discriminant validity was first assessed using Fornell-Larcker criterion (1981:46), which demonstrated each AVE value's square root is higher than the correlation, thus supported the discriminant validity. Moreover, the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) method advocated by Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt (2015: 115–135) was also assessed as a double confirmation (see Table 8), since the Fornell-Larcker criterion, and the assessment of cross loadings have low sensitivity to observe inadequacy of discriminant validity in (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015: 128).

Table 8: HTMT Method Results for the Second-Order Model

	Country Category Image	Brand Trust	Ethnocentrism	Perceived Motive	Consumer Reshoring Sentiment	Country Brand Loyalty
Category Country Image						
Brand Trust	0.047					
Ethnocentrism	0.138	0.339				
Perceived Motive	0.013	0.292	0.250			
Consumer Reshoring Sentiment	0.248	0.515	0.537	0.258		
Country Brand Loyalty	0.153	0.390	0.744	0.500	0.277	

HTMT is a comparison of the heterotrait-heteromethod correlations and the geometric mean of the average correlations (i.e., monotrait-heteromethod correlations) of the indicators measuring the same construct. It is recommended for HTMT values

not to exceed 0.85 for conservative assessments or 0.90 for the models include constructs that are conceptually similar (Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2015: 128; Ringle et al., 2018: 10). Table 8 shows that all the results are below the conservative maximum of 0.85, suggesting that discriminant validity has been fulfilled.

Table 9: Results of the CFA with the Second-order Introduction of CRS

Second-Order Factor	Std. Factor Loadings	t-value	AVE	CR	First-Order Factors		Std. Factor Loadings	t-value
Consumer Reshoring Sentiment	0.627***	-	0.393	0.791	Quality Superiority of the Reshored Production			
						CRSQUAL1	0.918***	-
						CRSQUAL2	0.960***	30.323
	0.752***	9.590			Greater Ability to Fulfill Needs	CRSQUAL3	0.748***	19.359
						CRSNEED4	0.859***	-
						CRSNEEDS5	0.756***	13.624
	0.454***	6.845			Government Support	CRSNEEDS6	0.468***	8.688
						CRSGOV7	0.830***	-
						CRSGOV8	0.809***	18.417
	0.620***	8.281			“Made-in Effect”	CRSGOV9	0.917***	20.411
						CRSMADEIN10	0.711***	-
						CRSMADEIN11	0.924***	17.603
	0.717***	9.630			Competency Availability	CRSMADEIN12	0.947***	17.745
						CRSCOMPT1	0.903***	-
						CRSCOMPT2	0.918***	22.031
	0.543***	7.550			Ethical Issues	CRSCOMPT3	0.519***	10.881
						CRSETH1	0.741***	-
						CRSETH2	0.865***	16.218
	-		0.814	0.946	Brand Trust	CRSETH3	0.867***	16.229
						BTRUST1	0.827***	-
						BTRUST2	0.854***	32.785
	-		0.817	0.931	Category Country Image	BTRUST3	0.969***	26.257
						BTRUST4	0.952***	25.635
						CIMAGECTGRY1	0.858***	24.814
	-		0.643	0.878	Ethnocentrism	CIMAGECTGRY 2	0.943***	29.536
						CIMAGECTGRY 3	0.910***	-
						CETSCALE1	0.817***	18.296
	-		0.733	0.891	Perceived Motive	CETSCALE2	0.790***	17.510
						CETSCALE3	0.770***	16.917
						CETSCALE4	0.831***	-
	-					MOTIVE1	0.867***	21.569

				MOTIVE2	0.785***	19.033
				MOTIVE3	0.911***	-
	0.768	0.869	Country Brand Loyalty			
				CBEL 1	0.868***	-
				CBEL 2	0.884***	18.562

Note(s): *** If $p < 0.001$. N= 394

As a result, even if it seemed reasonable to accept the model in which CRS was introduced as higher order, the results showing close predictive validity psychometrically when comparing the measurement model in which CRS is modeled as first-order relative to the second-order (Hair et al., 2010: 738) required re-examination. Therefore, it has been deemed appropriate to analyze the CRS variable independently from other variables, since the factor loading value of first-order factor called "government support" was 0.45, and on the below side of recommended 0.50 cut-off (see. Table 9).

Subsequently, six subscales that make up the CRS variable were examined with CFA in a one factor model as both first-order and second-order separately. In addition, a first-order factor (Government Support), which had demonstrated a low factor loading (0.45) in the previous CFA of second-order measurement model, was removed, and the remaining five subscales of consumer reshoring sentiment were analyzed both as first-order and second-order with CFA. The target coefficient results has been evaluated whether the "government support" factor could be eliminated or not. Results are shown in Table 10.

Table 10: The Target Coefficient Results for CRS

“Consumer Reshoring Sentiment” / Full				Consumer Reshoring Sentiment /without “Government Support”			
	F	FU	T		F	FU	T
	289.90	866.95	427.565		225.871	666.391	268.678
F/FU	0.334			F/FU	0.338		
TC₁	0.678			TC₁	0.840		
TC₂	0.761			TC₂	0.902		

Note(s): F: χ^2 of the first-order model, T: χ^2 of the second-order model FU: χ^2 of the first-order model in which all the factor covariances are constrained to be zero

$TC_1 = F/T$

$TC_2=(FU-T)/(FU-F)$

Based on all this, it has been observed that the ability of a higher-order model to explain covariances between the first-order model is higher for the consumer reshoring sentiment variable without the "government support" factor (i.e., $0.840 > 0.678$; $0.902 > 0.761$). When this observation and the low factor loading value (0.45) of "government support" are evaluated together, it has been decided to eliminate "government support" from the second-order measurement model.

Finally, a final second-order overall measurement model in which the CRS was introduced to collect the five specific first-order dimensions - without the "government support" factor - under one higher-order representation, and along with all other hypothesized variables were tested. The overall CFA showed that factor loadings of both the first-order factors and the items in the model were observed to be above 0.50 except one item (CRS6NEEDS=0.47), and ranged between 0.52 and 0.96 (see. Table 11). Considering the argument that each of the factor loadings of the latent to observed variable should be (≥ 0.50) for sufficient individual item reliability (Hair et al., 2010: 116), measures showed adequate levels of reliability. Although factor loading of CRS6NEEDS was 0.47, it was decided as no need to eliminate CRS6NEEDS by referring the same rules of thumb explained at the part of the initial CFA (see. page: 112).

Table 11: CFA Results of Final-Overall Measurement Model

Second-Order Factor	Std. Factor Loadings	t-value	AVE	CR	First-Order Factors	Std. Factor Loadings	t-value
Consumer Reshoring Sentiment	0.669	-	0.442	0.795	Quality Superiority of the Reshored Production		
					CRSQUAL1	0.919***	-
					CRSQUAL2	0.958***	30.573
	CRSQUAL3	0.749***			19.421		
	0.780***	10.209			Greater Ability to Fulfill Needs		
					CRSNEED4	0.857***	-
					CRSNEEDS5	0.756***	13.845
	CRSNEEDS6	0.472***			8.791		
	0.550***	7.892			“Made-in Effect”		
					CRSMADIN10	0.710***	-
					CRSMADIN11	0.924***	17.542
	CRSMADIN12	0.948***			17.658		
	0.725***	10.097			Competency Availability		
					CRSCOMPT1	0.902***	-

					CRSCOMPT2	0.919***	22.066
					CRSCOMPT3	0.522***	10.970
	0.569***	7.994			Ethical Issues		
					CRSETH1	0.742***	-
					CRSETH2	0.865***	16.251
					CRSETH3	0.866***	16.258
-		0.814	0.946		Brand Trust		
					BTRUST1	0.827***	-
					BTRUST2	0.853***	32.772
					BTRUST3	0.969***	26.229
					BTRUST4	0.952***	25.604
-		0.817	0.931		Category Country Image		
					CIMAGECTGRY1	0.858***	24.830
					CIMAGECTGRY 2	0.943***	29.530
					CIMAGECTGRY 3	0.910***	-
-		0.643	0.878		Ethnocentrism		
					CETSCALE1	0.817***	18.310
					CETSCALE2	0.791***	17.552
					CETSCALE3	0.768***	18.310
					CETSCALE4	0.831	-
-		0.733	0.891		Perceived Motive		
					MOTIVE1	0.866***	21.567
					MOTIVE2	0.786***	19.041
					MOTIVE3	0.911***	-
		0.768	0.869		Country Brand Loyalty		
					CBEL1	0.867***	-
					CBEL2	0.885***	18.535

Note(s): *** If p < 0.001. N= 394.

Thus, the final overall measurement model's data showed a very good model fit: χ^2 (df)= 839.406 (413), CFI=0.953, TLI=0.947, GFI=0.874, NFI= 0.912, SRMR=0.068, RMSEA=0.051 (Hu & Bentler, 1999: 27; Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger & Müller, 2003: 52; Kline, 2016: 270–278).

In addition, the model was assessed by means of reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Accordingly, CR of all three measures ranges from 0.79 to 0.94, which meets the minimum level of .60 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981: 47), and indicates a good reliability (Hair et al., 2010: 680). Table 12 presents bivariate correlations and Fornell and Larcker assessment results.

The AVE values ranged between 0.64 to 0.81 for all the constructs as above 0.50 cut-off, except consumer reshoring sentiment which was 0.44, and was again below the recommended level of 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981: 46; Hair et al., 2010: 680). However, CR is considered solely to reason that the convergent validity is sufficient (Lam, 2012: 1331), since the average variance extracted is a more conservative measure to validate a measurement model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981: 46;

Malhotra & Dash, 2011: 714). Almost all the constructs in study met the 0.5 level recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981: 46), and CR values were above 0.60 cut-off, thus convergent validity is verified.

Table 12: Inter-Correlations with (std. errors) and Fornell and Larcker Criterion Assessment

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Category Country Image (1)	0.904					
Consumer Reshoring Sentiment (2)	-0.251*** (0.119)	0.664				
Brand Trust (3)	-0.042 (0.107)	0.469*** (0.090)	0.902			
Ethnocentrism (4)	-0.133* (0.149)	0.568*** (0.131)	0.333*** (0.105)	0.802		
Perceived Motive (5)	-0.012 (0.172)	0.259*** (0.126)	0.282*** (0.119)	0.240*** (0.162)	0.856	
Country Brand Loyalty (6)	-0.150** (0.145)	0.528*** (0.124)	0.388*** (0.104)	0.738*** (0.171)	0.272*** (0.158)	0.876

Note(s): Correlation is significant at *p<0.050, **p<0.010, ***p<0.001.
While values on the diagonal represents square roots of AVE coefficient of the constructs, the values below the diagonal represent correlation estimates among constructs, and values in parentheses indicates standard errors.

Discriminant validity was assessed using both Fornell-Larcker criterion (1981:46) and HTMT method (Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2015: 115–135), which demonstrated each AVE value's square root is greater than the cross-construct correlations (see. Table 12), and HTMT values were below 0.85 (Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2015: 128), thus supported the discriminant validity (see. Table 13).

Table 13: HTMT Method Results for the Final Model

	Country Category Image	Brand Trust	Ethnocentrism	Perceived Motive	Consumer Reshoring Sentiment	Country Brand Loyalty
Category Country Image						
Brand Trust	0.047					
Ethnocentrism	0.138	0.339				
Perceived Motive	0.013	0.292	0.250			
Consumer Reshoring Sentiment	0.267	0.456	0.545	0.256		
Country Brand Loyalty	0.153	0.390	0.744	0.277	0.505	

With regard to the target coefficient test (Marsh, 1987: 37), the overall model, in which “government support” sub-dimension of CRS measure does not exist, explained covariances between the first-order model better than the model in which “government support” exists (see. Table 14). TC_1 value for the model without “government support” was 0.84, and above 0.43 (F/FU) as recommended by Marsh (1987: 37). In addition, TC_2 value was 0.85 and again above 0.43.

Table 14: The Target Coefficient Results for the Final-Overall Model

Overall Measurement Model				Overall Measurement Model – without “Government Support”			
	F	FU	T		F	FU	T
	827.434	1967.5	1058.44		707.808	1616.376	839.406
F/FU	0.42			F/FU	0.43		
TC₁	0.78			TC₁	0.84		
TC₂	0.79			TC₂	0.85		
Note(s): F: χ^2 of the first-order model, T: χ^2 of the second-order model FU: χ^2 of the first-order model in which all the factor covariances are constrained to be zero							
$TC_1 = F/T$							
$TC_2 = (FU-T)/(FU-F)$							

In sum, it has been observed that the second-order overall model has greater ability to explain covariances between the first-order model in the condition, which the "government support" factor does not exist under the consumer reshoring sentiment latent variable (i.e., $TC_1 = 0.84 > 0.78$; $TC_2 = 0.85 > 0.79$).

3.4.2. Multi-Group CFA and Measurement Invariance Tests

Since it is important for this study, which is based on multi-group comparisons, to assess measurement invariance that is based on a concern whether the same construct is measured in equivalence across groups or not (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998: 78; Bryne & Stewart, 2006: 287), a multi-group CFA was necessary to be applied.

Following the multi-group analysis and measurement invariance guidelines (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998: 83; Byrne, 2006: 300-306; Byrne, 2016: 230-289) the final-overall second-order measurement model with hypothesized variables

established as the baseline model. Two groups were constructed based on given text vignette to respondents varied upon the reshoring type: (1) full reshoring ($n = 209$); (2) partial reshoring ($n = 185$).

Moreover, in addition to the procedures of applying a measurement invariance test for the first-order models, there are additional facets exist for the higher-order models (Chen, 2005: 475), thus followed a series of hierarchical steps which look for equivalence across groups at each level (Byrne, 2006: 294; Kline, 2016: 400). In accordance with the objectives of this study, the procedures for three forms of invariance, which are configural, metric and scalar, was followed (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998: 82).

In this regard, it is needed primarily to test the equivalence across groups without any constraints on factor loadings, and allowing different estimates for the corresponding parameters both together for first-order and second-order factors, which refers to configural invariance. Configural invariance requires the same items to be an indicator of same latent variable for each group (Chen, 2005: 474), and is confirmed if the fixed and non-fixed parameters are identified as invariant across groups (Byrne, 2016: 238). Once the configural invariance is confirmed, metric invariance for first-order and second-order model must be tested separately (Rudnev et al., 2018: 51).

With regard to first-order metric invariance, all first-order factor loadings are constrained to be equal across groups. If the first-order metric invariance holds across groups, it means that covariances between the first-order factors are corresponding (Rudnev et al., 2018: 52). After confirming that first-order metrics invariance ensured, all first- and second-order factor loadings are constrained to be equal across groups to be able to compare second-order factors across groups (Rudnev et al., 2018: 52).

Lastly, in addition to the constraints enforced on the metric invariance assessment, the intercepts of the first order-factors are constrained to be equal across groups, as well as constraining the first-order factor means in one group to 0 (Kline, 2016: 404; Rudnev et al., 2018: 53), which are necessary equality constraints for testing first-order scalar invariance. The same procedure is applied, once the first-order scalar invariance holds. Scalar invariance is tested for both first-order and second-order factors successively to see whether the item intercepts are invariant across

groups, which refers that means of the first-order factors, and consequently second-order factors are comparable across groups (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998: 80).

The main logic in these successive tests is to verify that there is no significant deterioration in the goodness of fit of the next model compared to the previous model, rather than finding a good model fit (Rudnev et al., 2018: 55). For this, chi-square difference test (Bentler & Bonett, 1980: 592) is the most frequently used method for comparing each step with the previous step. However, since the sensitivity of these tests to sample size is known (Chen, 2007: 466), Cheung and Rensvold (2002: 251) proposed an evaluation criterion in which CFI changes no greater than 0.01 ($\Delta\text{CFI} \leq .01$) indicate that there is no significant deterioration between the two models. Therefore, it was decided to compare the results in terms of χ^2 difference by observing ΔCFI as well in this study (Table 15).

In this context, an unconstrained multi-group measurement model was examined to accept the configural invariance of the hypothesized multi-group model as the first step. The configural invariance model indicated that the respondents across these two groups conceptualize the constructs in the same way, and model fits the data well in all groups (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998: 80), thereby confirming configural invariance ($\chi^2(826) = 1348.68$, $\chi^2 / df = 1.627$; CFI = 0.944; SRMR = 0.075; RMSEA = 0.040).

Subsequently, the measurement weights of first-order factors were constrained to be equal across groups. It was inferred by first-order metric model that respondents across the two groups were responding to the items of study in the same way (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998:80). The chi-square difference test between the configural invariance and the first-order metric invariance models was significant ($\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df = 21) = 36.87$, $p < 0.05$). However, since the sample size was large ($n = 394$, >300), ΔCFI criterion was considered (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002: 251); thereby indicated first-order metric invariance ($\chi^2(847) = 1380.55$, $\chi^2 / df = 1.634$; CFI = 0.941; SRMR = 0.076; RMSEA = 0.040, $\Delta\text{CFI} = 0.002$, $< .01$).

Following the first-order metric invariance sustained, measurement weights were constrained equally between groups in terms of second-order factors to test second-order metric invariance (Chen, 2005: 483; Byrne, 2006: 300). Although the results revealed a significant deterioration ($\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df = 5) = 12.44$, $p < 0.05$ in terms of

χ^2 difference, second-order metric invariance was accepted with differences in CFI values; thereby confirmed the second-order metric invariance ($\chi^2(852) = 1392.99$, $\chi^2 / df = 1.634$; CFI= 0.941; SRMR = 0.076; RMSEA = 0.040, $\Delta CFI = 0.001$, $< .01$). As a result, both the first-order factor and second-order factor metric invariance models held across groups in terms of ΔCFI between consecutive models.

In testing for first-order scalar invariance, the intercepts of first-order variables were constrained to be equal across groups, and factor means of one group set to freely estimated while other's fixed to 0 in addition to constraints already imposed in previous invariance models. Results showed that there was no appreciable difference between the full reshoring and partial reshoring groups on the intercepts of the measured variables in terms of ΔCFI , thus supporting first-order scalar invariance ($\chi^2(875) = 1466.002$, $\chi^2 / df = 1.675$; CFI= 0.936; SRMR = 0.077; RMSEA = 0.042, $\Delta CFI = 0.005$, $< .01$).

In addition to the constraints imposed in first-order scalar model, all the intercepts set equal across groups, and factor means of one group set to freely estimated while other's fixed to 0 for the second-order latent variable. Accordingly, chi-square difference test indicated significant changes in χ^2 ($\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df = 2) = 37.023$, $p < 0.001$). However, since the sample size was large ($n = 394$, > 300), ΔCFI criterion was again considered (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002: 251) for assessment, which indicated first- and second order scalar invariance model held across groups in terms of ΔCFI , $\chi^2(877) = 1492.98$, $\chi^2 / df = 1.630$; CFI= 0.940; SRMR = 0.077; RMSEA = 0.040, $\Delta CFI = 0.004$, < 0.01 , and thus, inferred that the indicators measure the factors equivalent in each group (Kline, 2016: 421).

Table 15: Measurement Invariance Assessment

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Configural Invariance	1343.68	826	-		0.944	-	0.040	0.075
First-Order Metric Invariance	1380.55	847	36.871	21	0.942	0.002	0.040	0.075
First- and Second-Order Metric Invariance	1392.99	852	12.44	5	0.941	0.001	0.040	0.076
First-Order Scalar Invariance	1466.00	875	73.016	23	0.936	0.005	0.042	0.077
First- and Second-Order Scalar Invariance	1428.98	877	37.023	2	0.940	0.004	0.040	0.077

In summary, measurement invariance results show that the hypothesized scales have identical dimensionality and factor structure across two groups, in addition that the respondents answered questions in the same manner. In addition, differences across groups in latent means and observed means are consistent. All the measurement invariance assessment and results are shown in Table 15.

Furthermore, since the questionnaire data was collected from a single source and each respondent provide answers for both independent and dependent variables, a common method bias may create a problem to be addressed in this study (Philips-Wren, Jefferson & McKniff: 12). Thus, following the suggestions of Podsakoff et al. (2003: 887), some techniques as both procedural remedies and statistical for controlling the common method biases were used in the present study. Accordingly, the anonymity of the respondents was guaranteed, in addition to assuring them that there are no right or wrong answers within the questionnaire.

Later, Harman's (1976) one-factor test was conducted with an unrotated factor solution to detect common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003: 879; Fuller et al., 2016: 6). The test showed an explained variance of 29.28%, which was significantly less than the threshold of 50% suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003: 879). Additionally, according to Kock (2015: 7), common method bias can be tested via a collinearity assessment of the variance inflation factor (VIF), hereunder VIF values below the 3.3 threshold indicate that the model is free from common method bias. As a result, VIF values ranged from 1.34 to 1.87, indicated that common method bias did not impact responses of participants, refers there is no common method bias, as well as multicollinearity (O'Brien, 2007: 673) was not an issue.

3.4.3. Hypothesis testing

A simple linear regression was utilized to predict consumer reshoring sentiment based on consumer ethnocentrism. As a result, consumer ethnocentrism significantly predicted consumer reshoring sentiment, $b = .477$, $t(392) = 10.75$, $p < .001$, $pr^2 = 0.22$. The regression coefficient indicated that every one unit of change for consumer ethnocentrism corresponded, on average, to a change in consumer reshoring sentiment of 0.47. Consumer ethnocentrism also explained a significant proportion of

the variance in consumer reshoring sentiment, $F(1, 392) = 115.684, p < .001, R^2 = .22, R^2_{adjusted} = .22$. Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

In order to ascertain specific influences, consumer ethnocentrism was then probed by using pick-a-point approach (Hayes, 2017: 14). Following Hayes's recommendation, 16th, 50th and 84th percentiles of distribution were used when operationalizing low, medium and high levels of consumer ethnocentrism. After ensuring the normality assumption using Shapiro-Wilk test ($p > 0.05$ at each group level), one-way ANOVA was conducted to test the differences among low ($X = 3.30, SD = 1.02$), medium ($X = 3.98, SD = 0.95$) and high levels ($X = 4.85, SD = 1.16$) of consumer ethnocentrism. Since the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated (Levene's test $F(2, 391) = 3.243, p = .040$), the Welch's F statistics was reported. As a result, a significant effect of consumer ethnocentrism on consumer reshoring sentiment was observed, $F(2, 107.71) = 37.435, p < .001$.

The adjusted omega squared in order to estimate the effect size of the Welch test was also calculated. Accordingly, it was concluded that approximately 13% ($\omega^2 = .13$) of the total variance in the consumer reshoring sentiment is accounted for by the consumer ethnocentrism. Subsequently, the Games-Howell post hoc test was utilized to determine group differences. Post hoc comparisons revealed that difference between low and medium levels of consumer ethnocentrism, $-.682, 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.0091, -.3557]$; difference between low and high levels of consumer ethnocentrism, $-1.547, 95\% \text{ CI } [-2.0159, -1.0798]$; difference between medium and high levels of consumer ethnocentrism, $-.865, 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.2571, -.4737]$, were all statistically significant ($p = .000$).

Appropriate models of PROCESS (V3.5) (Hayes, 2018) were conducted for the further Hypotheses tests, assumptions of multivariate regression analysis were all undertaken primarily, thereby there was no violation observed. All continuous variables were centralized ($x - M$) at time of conducting the analyses by PROCESS macro. In addition, country brand loyalty (home country) was included as a covariate in all hypotheses tests in order to control its effects on the conceptualized relationships.

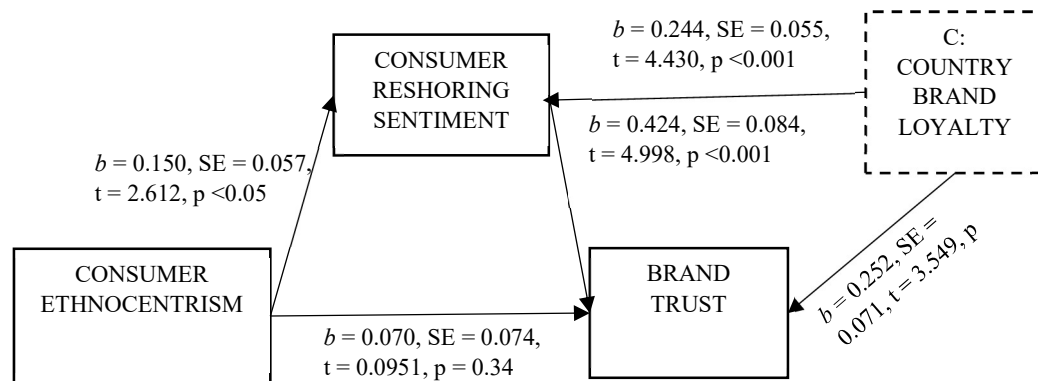
For testing Hypothesis 2, PROCESS Model 4 (Hayes, 2018: 91) was conducted with 5,000 bootstrap samples and 95% percentile bootstrap confidence intervals (CIs)

to evaluate the indirect effect (IE) of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment.

The results revealed a statistically significant indirect positive effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment (IE = 0.1311; CI [0.0894, 0.1762]). In addition, it was decided to control the effect of country brand loyalty variable by including it as a covariate in the same analysis. Final test revealed a statistically significant indirect positive effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment (IE = 0.0831; CI [0.0457, 0.1292]), thereby supported Hypothesis 2.

Specifically, in addition to the results that consumer ethnocentrism was a significant predictor of consumer ethnocentrism ($b = .230$, $t(391) = 5.834$, $p < .001$), and consumer reshoring sentiment was a significant predictor of brand trust ($b = .360$, $t(390) = 5.923$, $p < .001$), the results also indicated consumer ethnocentrism was a significant predictor of brand trust ($b = .110$, $t(391) = 2.229$, $p < .05$), whereas it was no longer significant in the presence of the consumer reshoring sentiment ($b = .027$, $t(390) = .553$, $p = .58$; thereby confirmed the mediation effect.

Figure 2: Mediation Effect of Consumer Reshoring Sentiment on Predicting Brand Trust in Full Reshoring Sample

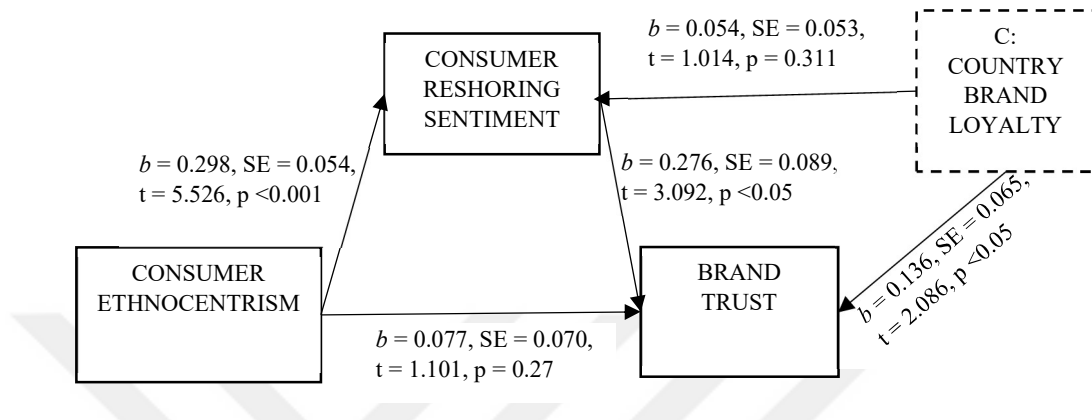


Note(s): b refers to unstandardized regression coefficient generated by PROCESS Macro (V3.5), Bootstrap resamples = 5000, %95 CI; $n = 209$.

Results of Hypothesis 2 was also examined among the datasets based upon the experimental manipulation of full reshoring versus partial reshoring. Accordingly, as depicted in Figure 2 and Figure 3, the results indicated a significant indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment both for

full reshoring sample (IE = 0.0637; CI [0.0149, 0.1298], $n=209$) and partial reshoring sample (IE = 0.0825; CI [0.0255, 0.1506], $n=185$).

Figure 3: Mediation Effect of Consumer Reshoring Sentiment on Predicting Brand Trust in Partial Reshoring Sample



Note(s): b refers to unstandardized regression coefficient generated by PROCESS Macro (V3.5), Bootstrap resamples = 5000, %95 CI; $n = 185$.

Subsequently, PROCESS Model 1 (5,000 bootstraps, 95% CI; Hayes, 2018: 238) was conducted to evaluate the moderation effect of perceived company motive on the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment.

Table 16: Results of Moderating Effect of Perceived Company Motive on the Consumer Ethnocentrism-Consumer Reshoring Sentiment Relationship

Outcome: Consumer Reshoring Sentiment				
Predictors:	β	SE	t-Value	p-Value
Constant	3.410	0.165	20.644	0.000
Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.212	0.039	5.357	0.000
Perceived Company Motive	0.058	0.027	2.161	0.031
Consumer Ethnocentrism \times Perceived Company Motive	0.031	0.015	2.036	0.042
Country Brand Loyalty	0.138	0.038	3.582	0.000
$R = 0.523$, $R^2 = .273$, $F(4, 389) = 36.63$, $p < .001$				
Conditional Effects of the Consumer Ethnocentrism at Values of the Perceived Company Motive				
Conditions:	β	SE	t-Value	p-Value
Firm Serving	0.144	0.054	2.638	0.008
Neutral Motive	0.207	0.040	5.169	0.000
Public Serving	0.269	0.045	5.930	0.000

Notes(s): β refers to unstandardized regression coefficient generated by PROCESS Macro (V3.5), Bootstrap resamples = 5000, %95 CI.

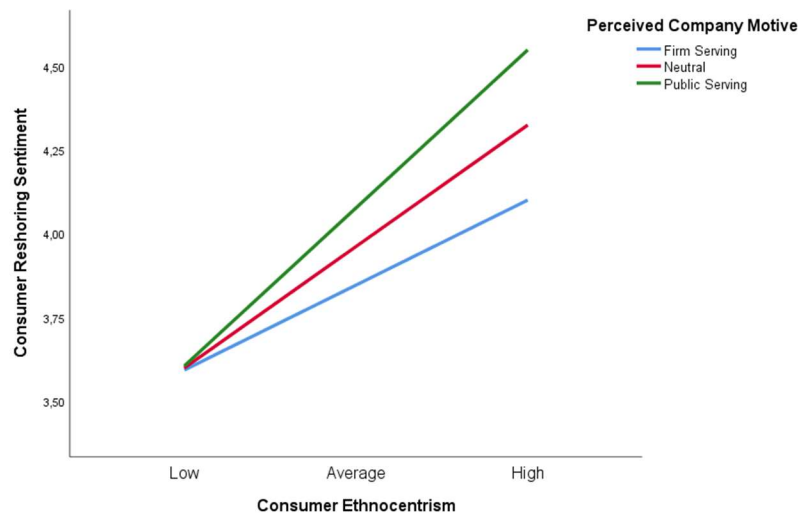
The results shown in Table 16 revealed a statistically significant interaction effect of perceived company motive on the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment, $b = 0.031$, $t(389) = 2.03$, $p < 0.05$. Consumer ethnocentrism also explained a significant proportion of the variance in consumer reshoring sentiment by interacting perceived company motive, $F(4, 389) = 36.66$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = 0.27$. Addition of the interaction was a significant change to the model, $F(1, 389) = 4.14$, $p = 0.004$, $R^2_{\text{change}} = 0.0077$. Thus, Hypothesis 3_a is supported.

Interaction term was further probed by using the pick-a-point approach (Hayes, 2017: 14) conditioned on the 16th, 50th, and 84th percentile of the distribution for perceived company motive. The simple slopes revealed that consumer ethnocentrism significantly predicted consumer reshoring sentiment at all three levels of perceived company motives.

Specifically, as depicted in Figure 4, for the firm serving motive (i.e., low levels of perceived company motive), results indicated a significant positive interaction effect ($b = 0.144$, $t(389) = 2.63$, $p = 0.008$); for the medium levels of perceived company motive (i.e., neither perceived firm serving nor public serving), results revealed a significant positive interaction effect ($b = 0.207$, $t(389) = 5.16$, $p = 0.000$); for the public serving motives (i.e., high levels of perceived company motive), results indicated a significant positive interaction effect ($b = 0.269$, $t(389) = 5.93$, $p = 0.000$). Accordingly, neutral to public serving perceived motives more strongly generated consumer reshoring sentiment than did comparably firm serving perceived company motives.

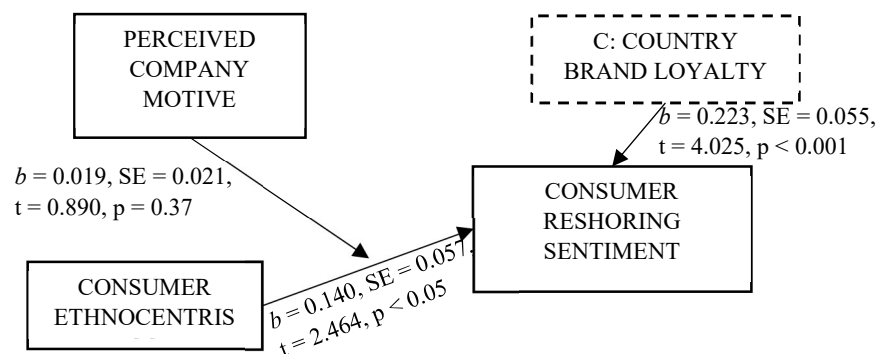
Furthermore, positive moderation effect of perceived company motives on the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment was also examined among the datasets based upon the experimental manipulation of full reshoring versus partial reshoring. PROCESS Model 1 (Hayes, 2018: 238) was again conducted with 5,000 bootstrap samples and 95% percentile bootstrap confidence intervals (CIs).

Figure 4: Moderation of Consumer Ethnocentrism on Consumer Reshoring Sentiment by Perceived Company Motive



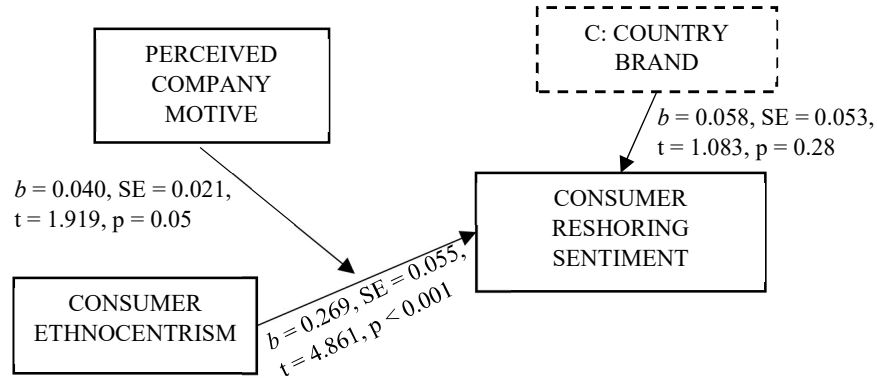
As depicted in Figure 5 and Figure 6, results indicated that perceived company motive does not serve as a moderator between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment in the full reshoring sample ($N = 209$), $b = 0.02$, $t(204) = 0.90$, $p = 0.37$, while it serves as a moderator ($b = 0.04$, $t(180) = 1.92$, $p = 0.05$) in the partial reshoring sample ($N = 185$). Thus, Hypothesis 3_b is supported.

Figure 5: Moderation Effect of Perceived Company Motives on the Consumer Ethnocentrism- Consumer Reshoring Sentiment Relationship in Full Reshoring Sample



Note(s): b refers to unstandardized regression coefficient generated by PROCESS Macro (V3.5), Bootstrap resamples = 5000, %95 CI; $n = 209$.

Figure 6: Moderation Effect of Perceived Company Motives on the Consumer Ethnocentrism- Consumer Reshoring Sentiment Relationship in Partial Reshoring Sample



Note(s): *b* refers to unstandardized regression coefficient generated by PROCESS Macro (V3.5), Bootstrap resamples = 5000, %95 CI; *n* = 185.

Hypothesis 4_a was tested by conducting PROCESS Model 1 (Hayes, 2018: 238) with 5000 bootstrap samples and 95% percentile bootstrap confidence intervals (CIs) to evaluate the interaction effect of category country image on the relationship between consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust. The results revealed a statistically significant negative interaction effect of category country image on the relationship between consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust, $b = -0.07$, $t(389) = -2.77$, $p = 0.0058$. Consumer reshoring sentiment explained a significant proportion of the variance in brand trust by interacting category country image, $F(4, 389) = 28.52$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = 0.22$. Addition of the interaction was a significant change to the model, $F(1, 389) = 7.70$, $p = 0.0058$, $R^2_{\text{change}} = 0.0153$. Thus, Hypothesis 4_a is supported.

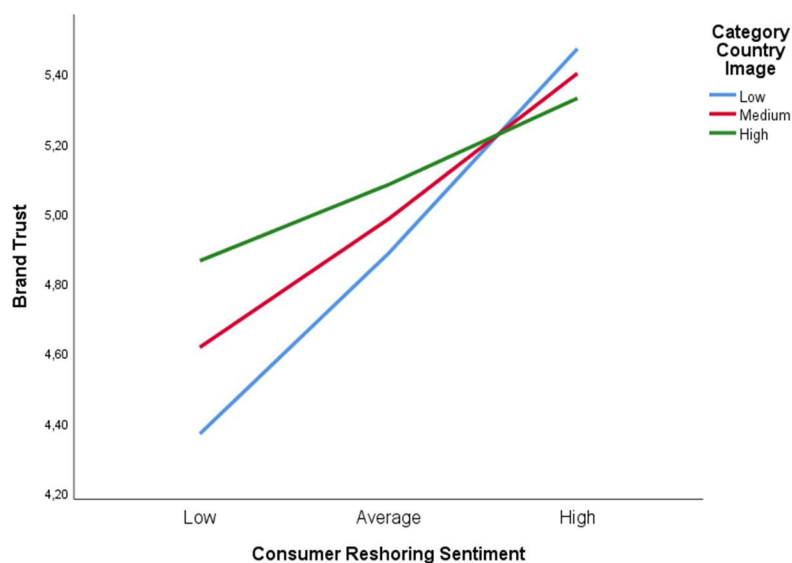
Interaction term was further probed by using the pick-a-point approach (Hayes, 2017: 14) conditioned on the 16th, 50th, and 84th percentile of the distribution for category country image. The simple slopes revealed that consumer reshoring sentiment significantly predicts brand trust at all three levels of category country image (see. Table 17).

Table 17: Results of Moderating Effect of Category Country Image on the Consumer Reshoring Sentiment-Brand Trust Relationship

Outcome: Brand Trust				
Predictors:	β	SE	t-Value	p-Value
Constant	3.410	0.165	20.644	0.000
Consumer Reshoring Sentiment	0.363	0.059	6.094	0.000
Category Country Image	0.044	0.033	1.348	0.178
Consumer Reshoring Sentiment \times Category Country Image	-0.074	0.026	-2.775	0.005
Country Brand Loyalty	0.173	0.038	4.447	0.000
R = 0.523, R ² = .273, F (4, 389) = 36.63, $p < .001$				
Conditional Effects of the Consumer Reshoring Sentiment at Values of the Category Country Image				
Conditions:	β	SE	t-Value	p-Value
Low Category Country Image	0.517	0.075	6.865	0.000
Medium Category Country Image	0.367	0.059	6.192	0.000
High Category Country Image	0.218	0.084	2.576	0.010
Notes(s): β refers to unstandardized regression coefficient generated by PROCESS Macro (V3.5), Bootstrap resamples = 5000, %95 CI.				

Specifically, as depicted in Figure 7, for the low levels of category country image, results indicated a significant interaction effect ($b = 0.517$, $t(389) = 6.86$, $p = 0.000$); for the medium levels of category country image, results revealed a significant interaction effect ($b = 0.367$, $t(389) = 6.19$, $p = 0.000$); for the high levels of category

Figure 7: Moderation of Consumer Reshoring Sentiment on Brand Trust by Category Country Image



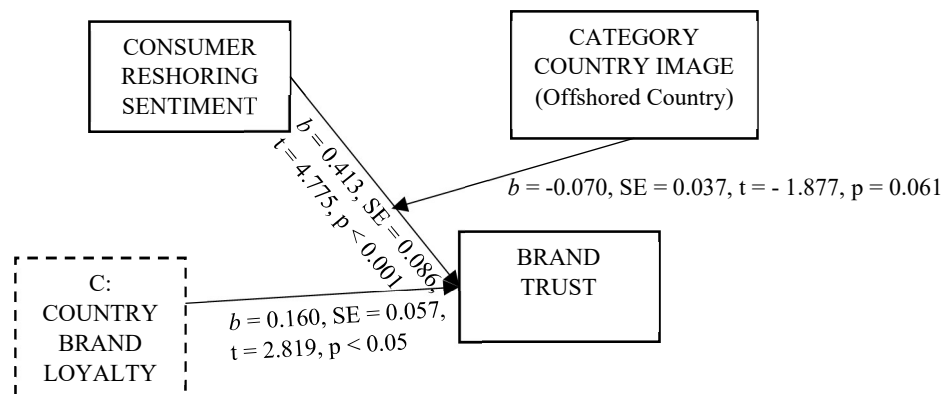
country image results indicated a significant interaction effect ($b = 0.218$, $t(389) = 2.57$, $p = 0.01$).

Accordingly, low to medium levels of category country image more strongly generated brand trust than did comparably high levels of category country image. In addition, consumers with high levels of consumer reshoring sentiment produced a stronger level of brand trust when category country image is low, while consumers with low to average levels of consumer reshoring sentiment produced a stronger level of brand trust when category country image is high.

Subsequently, moderation effect of category country image on the relationship between consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust was also examined among the datasets based upon the experimental manipulation of full reshoring versus partial reshoring. PROCESS Model 1 (Hayes, 2018: 238) was again conducted with 5,000 bootstrap samples and 95% percentile bootstrap confidence intervals (CIs).

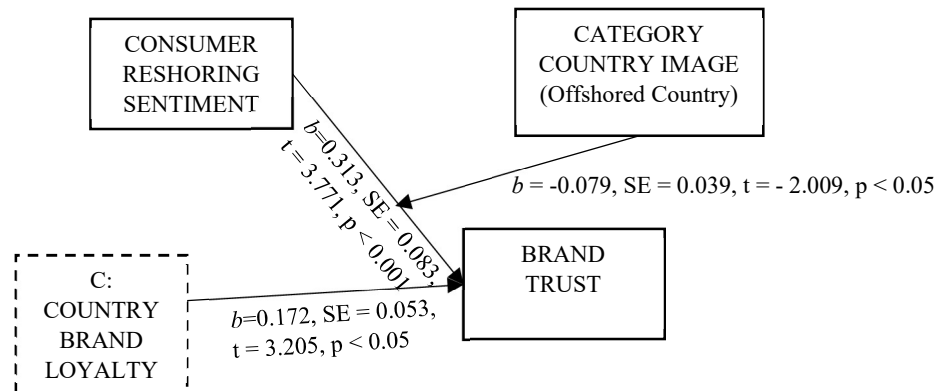
As depicted in Figure 8 and Figure 9, the results revealed that category country image does not serve as a moderator between consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust, $b = -0.07$, $t(204) = -1.877$, $p = 0.06$ for the full reshoring sample ($N = 209$); but then, the results revealed a statistically significant interaction effect of category country image on the relationship between consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust for the partial reshoring sample ($N = 185$), $b = -0.08$, $t(180) = -2.009$, $p = 0.04$. Thus, Hypothesis 4_b is supported.

Figure 8: Results of Moderating Effect of Category Country Image on the Consumer Reshoring Sentiment-Brand Trust Relationship



Note(s): b refers to unstandardized regression coefficient generated by PROCESS Macro (V3.5), Bootstrap resamples = 5000, %95 CI; $n = 209$.

Figure 9: Moderation Effect of Category Country Image on the Consumer Reshoring Sentiment-Brand Trust Relationship in Partial Reshoring Sample

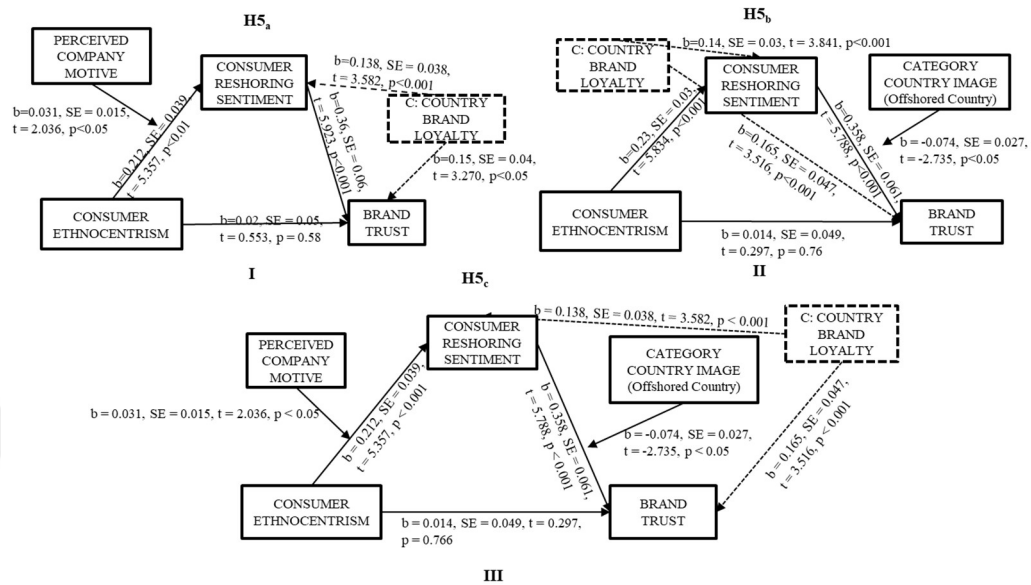


Note(s): b refers to unstandardized regression coefficient generated by PROCESS Macro (V3.5), Bootstrap resamples = 5000, %95 CI; $n = 185$.

Hypotheses 5 were analyzed in a hierarchical procedure as depicted in Figure 10. First, Hypothesis 5_a was tested by conducting PROCESS Model 7 (Hayes, 2015: 9) with 10000 bootstrap samples and 90% percentile bootstrap confidence intervals (CIs) to evaluate whether the indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment is conditional upon perceived company motive. The results revealed that the indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment is not conditional upon the level of perceived company motive, $b = 0.011$; 90% CI [-0.0002, 0.0233].

Pick-a-point approach of conditional process reveals that indirect effect was positive and significant at each three level of the condition (at 16th percentile, IE = 0.05; 90%, CI = [0.01, 0.09]; at 50th percentile, IE = 0.07; 90%, CI = [0.04, 0.10]; at 84th percentile, IE = 0.09; 90%, CI = [0.05, 0.14]). Specifically, conditional indirect effect was stronger for the neutral to public serving perceived motives than comparably firm serving perceived company motives. However, perceived company motive is unable to produce a differential effect in the results. To conclude, although there is a mediation, it does not depend on the level of perceived company motive. Thus, Hypothesis 5_a is not supported.

Figure 10: Results of the Moderated Moderated Mediation Effect of Consumer Reshoring Sentiment by Perceived Company Motive and Category Country Image in a Hierarchical Procedure



Note(s): b refers to unstandardized regression coefficient generated by PROCESS Macro (V3.5), Bootstrap resamples = 10000, %90 CI; $n = 394$.

These results were also examined among the datasets based upon the experimental manipulation of full reshoring versus partial reshoring. As a result, neither for the full reshoring sample ($b = 0.0082$; 90% CI $[-0.0117, 0.0303]$, $n = 209$) nor for the partial reshoring sample ($b = 0.011$; 90% CI $[-0.0002, 0.0264]$, $n = 185$) the indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment was conditional upon the level of perceived company motive. While the conditional indirect effect was significant for perceived public serving motive ($b = 0.07$; 90%, CI $[0.0163, 0.1458]$), this effect was not pertinent for firm serving motive, $b = 0.04$; 90%, CI $[-0.0133, 0.1016]$ in full reshoring sample.

Subsequently, Hypothesis 5_b was tested by conducting PROCESS Model 14 (Hayes, 2015: 10) with 10000 bootstrap samples and 90% percentile bootstrap confidence intervals (CIs) to evaluate whether the indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment is conditional upon category country image. The results revealed that the indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment is conditional upon the level of category country image, $b = -0.017$; 90% CI $[-0.0302, -0.0055]$.

Pick-a-point approach of conditional effects reveals that all three conditional indirect effect were positive and significant (at 16th percentile, IE = 0.11; CI = [0.072, 0.170]; at 50th percentile, IE = 0.08; CI = [0.051, 0.120; at 84th percentile, IE = 0.05; CI = [0.015, 0.086]). Thus, Hypothesis 5_b is supported.

Results of Hypothesis 5_b was also examined among the datasets based upon the experimental manipulation of full reshoring versus partial reshoring. As a result, for both full reshoring and partial reshoring, the indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment is conditional upon the level of category country image ($b_{Full\ Reshoring} = -0.0107$; 90% CI [-0.0248, -0.0006], $n_{Full\ Reshoring} = 209$; $b_{Partial\ Reshoring} = -0.0230$; 90% CI [-0.0452, -0.0001], $n_{Partial\ Reshoring} = 185$). Besides, while the conditional indirect effect was significant at all levels of category country image in full reshoring sample, the conditional indirect effect was only significant for low and medium levels of category country image in partial reshoring sample. Specifically, the conditional indirect effect was not pertinent for the high levels of category country image, $b = 0.04$; 90%, CI [-0.0195, 0.1071] in partial reshoring sample.

Hypothesis 5_c that assumes the conditional processes of mediation at both stages, which is called as moderated moderated mediation, was tested by conducting PROCESS Model 21 (Hayes, 2017: 22; Hayes & Rockwood, 2019: 19) with 10000 bootstrap samples and 90% percentile bootstrap confidence intervals (CIs). Specifically, the assumption of the dependency between the perceived company motive and the strength of the mechanism by which consumer ethnocentrism influences brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment differs as a function of category country image was tested. As a result, the moderation of the indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment by perceived company motive does not depends on the category country image, $b = -0.002$, 90% CI [-0.0054, 0.0000], which means there was no definitive evidence of moderated moderated mediation, thus Hypothesis 5_c is not supported.

Along with these, the slopes of conditional indirect effects, which shows how the indirect effect is moderated by perceived company motive and category country image together, revealed that hypothesized assumption of the indirect effect strengthens when perceived motive is higher (public serving) and category country

image is lower was confirmed. Accordingly, although the indirect effect was significant at all levels of pairwise comparisons of the moderators, this effect was strongest when the perceived motive was public serving and the offshored country was perceived to have a lower category country image ($b = 0.1376$, 90% CI [0.0801, 0.2001]) among all other lines of the slope. However, moderators were unable to produce differential effects in the results.

Since there was not an approving evidence, there would have been no need to probe whether the moderation of the indirect effect by perceived company motive was moderated by category country image (Hayes, 2017: 17). However, even though there was not a certain evidence of moderated moderated mediation, the index of conditional moderated mediation by perceived company motive revealed that, perceived company motive was observed to moderate the indirect effect significantly among low ($b = 0.015$, 90% CI [0.0001, 0.0330]) to medium ($b = 0.011$, 90% CI [0.0072, 0.0001]) levels of category country image. On contrary, among high levels of category country image, the indirect effect changes by only $b = 0.006$, 90% CI [-0.0002, 0.0160] as perceived company motive changes one unit, thereby was not significant. Therefore, it was observed that the indirect effect differs between perceived firm serving and public serving reshoring motives which are done from the countries that are perceived to have low and medium levels of category country image by consumers, but does not differ for the countries that are perceived to have high category country image. All results of Hypotheses 5 are shown in Table 18.

Table 18: Results of Hypotheses 5

Outcome (M = Consumer Reshoring Sentiment)				
Predictors	β	SE	t-Value	p-Value
Constant (PROCESS Model 7)	3.410	0.165	20.644	0.000
Constant (PROCESS Model 21)	-0.585	0.165	-3.540	0.000
Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.212	0.039	5.357	0.000
Perceived Company Motive	0.058	0.027	2.161	0.031
Consumer Ethnocentrism \times Perceived Company Motive	0.031	0.015	2.036	0.042
Country Brand Loyalty	0.138	0.038	3.582	0.000
R = 0.523, R ² = .273, F (4, 389) = 36.63, $p < .001$				
Outcome (DV = Brand Trust)				
Predictors	β	SE	t-Value	p-Value
Constant (PROCESS Model 14)	-4.282	0.181	23.572	0.000
Constant (PROCESS Model 21)	4.334	0.201	21.534	0.000

Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.014	0.049	0.297	0.766
Consumer Reshoring Sentiment	0.358	0.061	5.788	0.000
Category Country Image (CCI)	0.044	0.033	1.344	0.179
Consumer Reshoring Sentiment × CCI	-0.074	0.027	-2.735	0.006
Country Brand Loyalty	0.165	0.047	3.516	0.000
R = 0.476, R ² = .227, F (5, 388) = 22.78, <i>p</i> < .001				

Index of Moderated Mediation				
Moderator	β	Boot SE	90% Bootstrap CI ^a	
Perceived Company Motive	0.011	0.007	-0.000 to 0.023	
<i>Firm Serving</i>	0.052	0.022	0.017 to 0.091	
<i>Neutral Motive</i>	0.074	0.019	0.044 to 0.109	
<i>Public Serving</i>	0.097	0.026	0.056 to 0.142	
Category Country Image (CCI)	-0.017	0.007	-0.030 to -0.005	
<i>Low CCI</i>	0.117	0.030	0.071 to 0.170	
<i>Medium CCI</i>	0.083	0.021	0.051 to 0.121	
<i>High CCI</i>	0.049	0.021	0.015 to 0.086	
Index of Moderated Moderated Mediation				
Mediator	β	Boot SE	90% Bootstrap CI ^a	
Consumer Reshoring Sentiment	-0.002	0.001	-0.005 to 0.000	
Conditional Moderated Mediation				
	β	Boot SE	90% Bootstrap CI ^a	
By Perceived Company Motive among	<i>Low CCI</i>	0.015	0.010	0.000 to 0.033
	<i>Medium CCI</i>	0.011	0.007	0.000 to 0.023
	<i>High CCI</i>	0.006	0.005	-0.000 to 0.015
Conditional Indirect Effect at Perceived Company Motive and Category Country Image				
Condition 1	Condition 2	β	Boot SE	90% Bootstrap CI ^a
Firm Serving	Low CCI	0.074	0.032	0.024 to 0.130
Firm Serving	Medium CCI	0.052	0.022	0.017 to 0.092
Firm Serving	High CCI	0.031	0.017	0.005 to 0.062
Neutral Motive	Low CCI	0.105	0.027	0.062 to 0.153
Neutral Motive	Medium CCI	0.075	0.019	0.045 to 0.109
Neutral Motive	High CCI	0.044	0.019	0.014 to 0.077
Public Serving	Low CCI	0.137	0.036	0.083 to 0.199
Public Serving	Medium CCI	0.097	0.025	0.058 to 0.142
Public Serving	High CCI	0.057	0.025	0.018 to 0.101
a Percentile bootstrap CI based on 10,000 bootstrap samples.				

Results of Hypothesis 5_c was also assessed among the datasets based upon the experimental manipulation of full reshoring versus partial reshoring. The results revealed that the relationship between perceived company motive and size of the indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring

sentiment was observed as not to be contingent upon the category country image, $b = -0.001$, 90% CI $[-0.0056, 0.0025]$ both for the full reshoring sample ($N = 209$) and the partial reshoring sample ($b = -0.0032$, 95% CI $[-0.0088, 0.0003]$, $n = 185$).

Assumptions of multivariate regression analysis were all also undertaken before conducting all the hypotheses tests reported above, and there was no violation observed. Specifically, there was no multicollinearity in the data, as VIF scores were well below 10 (Hair et al., 2010: 201), tolerance scores were above 0.1, and correlations between predictor variables were below 0.8 (Franke, 2010: 2), which of all indicated that the predictors are not too extremely correlated with one another. There were no influential cases affecting our model, since the Cook's Distance (Cook, 1977: 15–18) values were all under 1 (Min = 0.000, Max = 0.076), means that individual cases were not unduly influencing the model. The values of the residuals were observed to be independent, means that the observations were independent from one another; thereby, the data met the assumption of independent errors (Durbin-Watson = 2.10). A linear relationship was observed to be between brand trust (dependent variable) and each of the predictors in the model, as the correlations varied from 0.27 to 0.37. The residuals were roughly normally distributed, as inferred from the histogram of standardized residuals; as well as from the normal P-P plot of standardized residuals, in which points were almost entirely on the line. The scatterplot of standardized predicted values relative to standardized residuals showed that the data met the assumptions of homogeneity of the variance, which means the data showed homoscedasticity.

CONCLUSION

This thesis was conducted to better understand the role of consumer reshoring sentiment on brand trust in a comprehensive perspective. Including both the supply chain management and marketing lenses, this study offers several theoretical and managerial insights.

First, consumer ethnocentrism is a predictor of consumer reshoring sentiment. As this thesis asserted, consumer ethnocentrism leads consumers for tending to justify national decisions through national identification in itself. Consumers who believe in the rationality of purchasing domestic products and have an emotional attachment to home country products as well, generate stronger sentiment towards company reshoring decision. This finding is consistent with the relevant theories including national identification and intergroup bias (Feather, 1981; Brewer, 1999; Hewstone et al., 2002; Verlegh, 2007) as well as the literature (Grappi et al., 2015; 2018).

Second, the findings revealed that consumer reshoring sentiment mediates the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and brand trust as proposed. Literature indicates consumers question whether a brand is able to fulfill their needs by delivering what it promises (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 82) and the perceived reliability and intentions of a brand yield brand trust (Delgado-Ballester, 2004: 574). Consistently, the findings brought out that higher the consumer reshoring sentiment, higher the views on reshoring as a way for paying regard to consumers' expectations, thereby higher the brand trust. Besides the national identification and in group bias in the essence of consumer ethnocentrism, since consumer reshoring sentiment includes the sense of pride deriving from the made-in effect (Grappi et al., 2018: 198), consumer reshoring sentiment is mostly derived from ethnocentric tendencies.

Third, the findings revealed that perceived company motives enhance the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment; and category country image negatively interacts with consumer reshoring sentiment, thereby strengthens the relationship between consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust. As suggested building on the attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1967) and existent literature (Forehand & Grier, 2003; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Elving, 2013; Grappi et al., 2015), consumers look for causal explanations of company actions and reshoring decision is questioned whether it is public-serving or firm-serving. As a

result, perceived public-serving motives attracts consumers, thereby consumers generate more reshoring sentiment.

On the other hand, as suggested drawing upon the information processing (Hong & Wyer, 1989) and categorization (Cohen & Basu, 1987; Sujan, 1985) theories, the findings supported that consumers process their past experiences with regard to a country by categorizing product specific knowledges, thus evaluate the products of that country in accordance with its expertise in the relevant product category. In addition, as suggested in literature (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001: 83; Fetscherin et al., 2014: 80), product-category specific knowledge affects brand-level specific outcomes as well. The higher the consumer reshoring sentiment, higher the brand trust. However, if the company is returning from a country with higher category country image such as Germany, brand trust is lowered or vice versa.

Furthermore, through drawing upon Grappi et al. (2015), this study aimed to reveal whether the examined effects differ among full reshoring and partial reshoring settings. The findings supported a difference in terms of the observed interaction effects. While the moderating effects were both significant in partial reshoring situation, they were not in full reshoring. This is consistent with the findings of past research (i.e., Grappi et al., 2015) that they had observed a significant difference only in reshoring for design, which is a kind of partial reshoring. In this regard, we assume that in case the companies return all their production activities (full reshoring), consumers both generate high reshoring sentiment and higher brand trust, regardless of any condition. On the other hand, in the case of partial reshoring, the reason behind reshoring and then the country from where the company turned back affects their evaluation processes.

Although this thesis asserted that consumers would first evaluate the given reshoring decision in terms of perceived firm-serving or public-serving motives, and then process their reshoring sentiment with regard to the category country image, the findings revealed that the dependency between the perceived company motive and the strength of the mechanism by which consumer ethnocentrism influences brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment do not differ as a function of category country image. In addition, the indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment was not found to be conditional upon perceived

company motive. Accordingly, perceived company motive was observed to increase only the intensity of the outcomes in the first-stage moderation. Specifically, public serving motives enhanced the intensity of the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer reshoring sentiment. However, it was unable to produce a differential effect in the findings.

On the other hand, indirect effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand trust through consumer reshoring sentiment was found to be conditional upon category country image. An interesting finding was found and the results showed that the indirect effect was not significant only for high country image condition in partial reshoring, while it was significant for the low image condition in partial reshoring as well as for all the conditions in full reshoring situation. Grounding on this finding it was inferred that partial reshoring from a country with higher category country image does not affect the relationship between consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust, since consumers believe that this company is already keeping some of its value chain activities still in that country, thereby keep their trust to this brand.

This thesis complements the literature by extending the understanding of reshoring through disengaging its focus to firm-side perspective, which considers it solely as a company decision, instead, evaluating the concept through the eyes of consumers. Through the locus of R-A theory (Hunt & Morgan, 1995; Hunt, 1997a; Hunt, 1997b) and demand-side perspective (Priem, 2007; Priem & Butler, 2011; Priem & Swink, 2012) and grounding on the literature examining the drivers of reshoring, this study focused on the links between the firm-side drivers and consumers' expectations. Accordingly, consumer reshoring sentiment was placed as the center among consumers' individual traits and brand-level outcomes. Consistent with the demand-side perspective that sees consumers as an important part of firm-level strategies and decision processes, this thesis revealed how consumers perceive reshoring decisions, and how they appraise reshored brands. Moreover, the understanding of consumer reshoring sentiment (Grappi et al., 2018; 2019) has been augmented by uncovering that category country image also contributes to the relationship between consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust as well as the indirect relationship of consumer ethnocentrism and brand trust through the consumer reshoring sentiment.

In addition, this study demonstrates that consumers favor reshoring decisions in accordance with their level of ethnocentric orientation. However, it doesn't mean that consumers do not take into account other traits or situations (see. Wang & Chen, 2004; Batra et al., 2000) or solely evaluate a subject through the ethnocentric lenses. Accordingly, this study found that consumers look for causal explanations behind an action (Wong & Weiner, 1981: p.654). If consumers perceive there is a public-serving motive for reshoring, they generate higher consumer reshoring sentiment. This study also makes a noteworthy contribution that full reshoring is more favorably considered by consumers, since the findings revealed conditional effects (i.e., perceived company motive and category country image) were not exist in full reshoring situations.

On the other hand, the findings provided a broader understanding by following a triadic approach. This study extended the binary relations between the consumer and company by designating country image as a part of the relationship. In sum, the findings highlight that consumer reshoring sentiment cannot be fully understood or is not been able to generate an outcome (i.e., brand trust), without considering its starting points, namely consumer ethnocentrism and previously offshored country.

Furthermore, this study responds to the recent calls to examine the effects on the basis of consumer-brand relationship (Grappi et al., 2015; 2019) as well as the call with regard to the country from where the production is reshored (Cassia, 2020). In addition, to the best of the author's knowledge this is the first study to date has empirically addressed the consumers' reactions towards a company relocation decision in a developing country. Overall, this study contributed to the literature by providing an integrated and expanded view, which was built on previous researches.

This study also allows us to gather several managerial insights. The findings suggest practitioners in international business that reshoring should not be taken into account as simply a firm-sided location decision. Marketing and supply chain managers alike should be aware that reshoring is a strategic decision, which also affect consumers responses accordingly. In this context, practitioners who face with lowered quality problems in offshore settlements or image-specific concerns of consumers, are advised to use reshoring marketing communication strategies to leverage their brand trust.

Furthermore, marketing managers ought to acknowledge about the home-country consumers' ethnocentric orientations. More ethnocentric orientation of consumers generates higher consumer reshoring sentiment, which means managers can capitalize on a reshoring decision. In terms of the consumer-brand relationship, companies should develop an efficient communication strategy in order to sustain brand trust. Besides, consumer reshoring sentiment offers some insights for supply chain managers, since it includes a belief on the capability of reshored companies to fulfill consumers needs better. Through reshoring, companies may leverage their supply chain agility and responsiveness, which are important elements of value creation for the consumers. From this standpoint, marketers may utilize reshoring within the communication tools they designed to stir consumers' sentiment.

However, marketing managers should be aware that perceived company motives can influence the generated reshoring sentiment of consumers. More clearly, our findings suggest to hesitate emphasizing firm-serving oriented motives in their communication. Press releases or similar declarations of companies that include reasons for reshoring such as increased costs in offshore countries will lead consumers to infer that the reshoring decision is directly self-interested. As a result, consumer reshoring sentiment will be offset. In addition, a positive level of consumer reshoring sentiment does not always generate more trust to brands, since the country from where the company is returning back has also an importance. Moreover, supply chain managers should recognize that implementing a reshoring strategy also requires an evaluation on the basis of the different business functions.

This study has several limitations. First, the implementation of convenience sampling allows only narrow generalization of the results. Further, future research should consider testing the proposed relationships by using multiple sets of data of the same subjects over a period of time, which will offer scholars to observe different effects (e.g., risk aversion of consumers). For example, after the COVID-19 outbreak, consumers are likely to want to avoid risk and turn to local products. In this respect, these or different risk situations may affect the consumers' reshoring sentiment. Besides, this study only examined a specific product category, thus we are unable to infer our findings for all product classes. Further research should consider analyzing

consumer reshoring sentiment and brand trust relationship for different product categories.

Furthermore, other variables that would affect the brand trust could also be tested such as brand image. Besides, different brand-specific outcomes might be considered by including additional processes and variables. Finally, this study was designed on the basis of home-country consumers. However, since companies run their business in many different country or regions around world, different market reactions may be arisen towards reshoring of a company. Future research might be expanded accordingly. For example, how a Turkish brand's decision to reshoring will be positioned in the eyes of consumers in foreign markets may present an interesting area for further research.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Text Vignettes (In English)

Group 1 – No Manipulation:

“A” is a Turkish company, which has been manufacturing white goods for more than 75 years, and whose products are sold all around the world. In 2002, company “A” started manufacturing in abroad. However, in 2020, Company “A” decided to terminate the manufacturing operations in abroad, and moved all back to its home country Turkey.

Group 2 – Firm Serving-From Low Image-Full Reshoring

“A” is a Turkish company, which has been manufacturing white goods for more than 75 years, and whose products are sold all around the world. In 2002, company “A” started manufacturing in China. However, in 2020, in order to increase the profitability in the face of rising costs in operations carried out in China, company “A” decided to terminate the manufacturing operations in China, and moved all back to its home country Turkey.

Group 3 – Firm Serving-From Low Image -Partial Reshoring

“A” is a Turkish company, which has been manufacturing white goods for more than 75 years, and whose products are sold all around the world. In 2002, company “A” started manufacturing in China. However, in 2020, in order to increase the profitability in the face of rising costs in operations carried out in China, company “A” decided to terminate the manufacturing operations in China, and moved manufacturing back to its home country Turkey, while keeping some sort of activities (R&D, design, sourcing etc.) still in China.

Group 4 – Firm Serving-From High Image-Full Reshoring

“A” is a Turkish company, which has been manufacturing white goods for more than 75 years, and whose products are sold all around the world. In 2002, company “A” started manufacturing in Germany. However, in 2020, in order to increase the profitability in the face of rising costs in operations carried out in Germany, company

“A” decided to terminate the manufacturing operations in Germany, and moved all back to its home country Turkey.

Group 5 – Firm Serving - From High Image - Partial Reshoring

“A” is a Turkish company, which has been manufacturing white goods for more than 75 years, and whose products are sold all around the world. In 2002, company “A” started manufacturing in Germany. However, in 2020, in order to increase the profitability in the face of rising costs in operations carried out in Germany, company “A” decided to terminate the manufacturing operations in Germany, and moved manufacturing back to its home country Turkey, while keeping some sort of activities (R&D, design, sourcing etc.) still in China.

Group 6 – Public Serving - From Low Image -Full Reshoring

“A” is a Turkish company, which has been manufacturing white goods for more than 75 years, and whose products are sold all around the world. In 2002, company “A” started manufacturing in China. However, in 2020, as a solution to rising unemployment, and in order to contribute Turkish production and export potential, company “A” decided to terminate the manufacturing operations in China, and moved all back to its home country Turkey.

Group 7 – Public Serving - From Low Image - Partial Reshoring

“A” is a Turkish company, which has been manufacturing white goods for more than 75 years, and whose products are sold all around the world. In 2002, company “A” started manufacturing in China. However, in 2020, as a solution to rising unemployment, and in order to contribute Turkish production and export potential, company “A” decided to terminate the manufacturing operations in China, and moved manufacturing back to its home country Turkey, while keeping some sort of activities (R&D, design, sourcing etc.) still in China.

Group 8 – Public Serving - From High Image - Full Reshoring

“A” is a Turkish company, which has been manufacturing white goods for more than 75 years, and whose products are sold all around the world. In 2002, company “A” started manufacturing in Germany. However, in 2020, as a solution to rising

unemployment, and in order to contribute Turkish production and export potential, company “A” decided to terminate the manufacturing operations in Germany, and moved all back to its home country Turkey.

Group 9 – Public Serving - From High Image - Partial Reshoring

“A” is a Turkish company, which has been manufacturing white goods for more than 75 years, and whose products are sold all around the world. In 2002, company “A” started manufacturing in Germany. However, in 2020, as a solution to rising unemployment, and in order to contribute Turkish production and export potential, company “A” decided to terminate the manufacturing operations in Germany, and moved manufacturing back to its home country Turkey, while keeping some sort of activities (R&D, design, sourcing etc.) still in Germany.

APPENDIX 2: Text Vignettes (In Turkish)

Group 1 – No Manipulation:

“A”, 75 yılı aşkın süredir beyaz eşya üreten ve ürünleri dünya çapında geniş bir coğrafyada satılan bir Türk şirkettir. 2002 yılında “A” şirketi, yurtdışında üretim yapmaya başlamıştır. Ancak, 2020 itibariyle, yurtdışındaki üretim faaliyetlerini sonlandırarak, kendi ülkesi Türkiye’ye döndürmüştür.

Group 2 – Firm Serving-From Low Image-Full Reshoring

“A”, 75 yılı aşkın süredir beyaz eşya üreten ve ürünleri dünya çapında geniş bir coğrafyada satılan bir Türk şirkettir. 2002 yılında “A” şirketi Çin’de üretim yapmaya başlamıştır. Ancak, 2020 itibariyle, Çin’de yürüttüğü operasyonlarda artan maliyetler karşısında, “karlılığını arttırmak” amacıyla Çin’deki tüm üretim faaliyetlerini sonlandırarak, kendi ülkesi Türkiye’ye döndürmüştür.

Group 3 – Firm Serving-From Low Image -Partial Reshoring

“A”, 75 yılı aşkın süredir beyaz eşya üreten ve ürünleri dünya çapında geniş bir coğrafyada satılan bir Türk şirkettir. 2002 yılında “A” şirketi Çin’de üretim yapmaya başlamıştır. Ancak, 2020 itibariyle, Çin’de yürüttüğü operasyonlarda artan maliyetler karşısında, “karlılığını arttırmak” amacıyla, bazı yan faaliyetlerini (araştırma-geliştirme, tasarım, hammadde tedariki vb.) Çin’de yürütmeyi sürdürmekle birlikte, Çin’deki üretim faaliyetlerini sonlandırarak, kendi ülkesi Türkiye’ye döndürmüştür.

Group 4 – Firm Serving-From High Image-Full Reshoring

“A”, 75 yılı aşkın süredir beyaz eşya üreten ve ürünleri dünya çapında geniş bir coğrafyada satılan bir Türk şirkettir. 2002 yılında “A” şirketi, Almanya’da üretim yapmaya başlamıştır. Ancak, 2020 itibariyle, Almanya’da yürüttüğü operasyonlarda artan maliyetler karşısında, “karlılığını arttırmak” amacıyla Almanya’daki tüm üretim faaliyetlerini sonlandırarak, kendi ülkesi Türkiye’ye döndürmüştür.

Group 5 – Firm Serving - From High Image - Partial Reshoring

“A”, 75 yılı aşkın süredir beyaz eşya üreten ve ürünleri dünya çapında geniş bir coğrafyada satılan bir Türk şirkettir. 2002 yılında “A” şirketi, Almanya’da üretim yapmaya başlamıştır. Ancak, 2020 itibariyle, Almanya’da yürüttüğü operasyonlarda artan maliyetler karşısında, “karlılığını arttırmak” amacıyla, bazı yan faaliyetlerini (araştırma-geliştirme, tasarım, hammadde tedariki vb.) Almanya’da yürütmeyi sürdürmekle birlikte, Almanya’daki üretim faaliyetlerini sonlandırarak, kendi ülkesi Türkiye’ye döndürmüştür.

Group 6 – Public Serving - From Low Image -Full Reshoring

“A” 75 yılı aşkın bir süredir beyaz eşya üreten ve ürünleri dünya çapında geniş bir coğrafyada satılan bir Türk şirkettir. 2002 yılında “A” şirketi Çin’de üretim yapmaya başlamıştır. Ancak, 2020 yılı itibariyle, şirket, Türkiye’de artan işsizliğe çözüm sağlamak ve yerli üretim ile Türkiye’nin ihracat potansiyeline katkı sağlamak amacıyla Çin’deki tüm üretim faaliyetlerini sonlandırarak, kendi ülkesi Türkiye’ye döndürmüştür.

Group 7 – Public Serving - From Low Image - Partial Reshoring

“A” 75 yılı aşkın bir süredir beyaz eşya üreten ve ürünleri dünya çapında geniş bir coğrafyada satılan bir Türk şirkettir. 2002 yılında “A” şirketi, Çin’de üretim yapmaya başlamıştır. Ancak, 2020 yılı itibariyle, şirket, Türkiye’de artan işsizliğe çözüm sağlamak ve yerli üretim ile Türkiye’nin ihracat potansiyeline katkı sağlamak amacıyla, bazı yan faaliyetlerini (araştırma-geliştirme, tasarım, hammadde tedariki vb.) Çin’de yürütmeyi sürdürmekle birlikte, Çin’deki üretim faaliyetlerini sonlandırarak, kendi ülkesi Türkiye’ye döndürmüştür.

Group 8 – Public Serving - From High Image - Full Reshoring

“A” 75 yılı aşkın bir süredir beyaz eşya üreten ve ürünleri dünya çapında geniş bir coğrafyada satılan bir Türk şirkettir. 2002 yılında “A” şirketi, Almanya’da üretim yapmaya başlamıştır. Ancak, 2020 yılı itibariyle, şirket, Türkiye’de artan işsizliğe çözüm sağlamak ve yerli üretim ile Türkiye’nin ihracat potansiyeline katkı sağlamak amacıyla Almanya’daki tüm üretim faaliyetlerini sonlandırarak, kendi ülkesi Türkiye’ye döndürmüştür.

Group 9 – Public Serving - From High Image - Partial Reshoring

“A” 75 yılı aşkın bir süredir beyaz eşya üreten ve ürünleri dünya çapında geniş bir coğrafyada satılan bir Türk şirkettir. 2002 yılında “A” şirketi, Almanya’da üretim yapmaya başlamıştır. Ancak, 2020 yılı itibariyle, şirket, Türkiye’de artan işsizliğe çözüm sağlamak ve yerli üretim ile Türkiye’nin ihracat potansiyeline katkı sağlamak amacıyla, bazı yan faaliyetlerini (araştırma-geliştirme, tasarım, hammadde tedariki vb.) Almanya’da yürütmeyi sürdürmekle birlikte, Almanya’daki üretim faaliyetlerini sonlandırarak, kendi ülkesi Türkiye’ye döndürmüştür.

APENDIX 3: Questionnaire Form (In Turkish)

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu anket Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dış Ticaret Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Çağla Dayanğan'ın yüksek lisans tezi kapsamında yapılmaktadır. Yanıtlarınız gizli tutulacak ve yalnızca bu araştırma kapsamında kullanılacaktır. Zaman ayırdığınız ve iş birliğiniz için çok teşekkür ederiz.

Doç. Dr. Özge ÖZGEN

Danışman

Çağla DAYANĞAN

Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

Bölüm-1: Lütfen aşağıdaki metni okuyun. Metni okuduktan sonra, anketteki soruları verilen talimatlara göre cevaplamaya devam edin.

Not: Metinde anlatılan olay gerçek olmakla birlikte, marka adına bakılmaksızın araştırma sonuçlarının analiz edilebilmesi için firma isminin gizli tutulmasına karar verilmiştir.

“A”, 75 yılı aşkın süredir beyaz eşya üreten ve ürünleri dünya çapında geniş bir coğrafyada satılan bir Türk şirkettir. 2002 yılında “A” şirketi Çin (Almanya)’de üretim yapmaya başlamıştır. Ancak, 2020 itibariyle şirket, Çin (Almanya) ‘de yürüttüğü operasyonlarda artan maliyetler karşısında, “karlılığını arttırmak” (“Türkiye’de artan işsizliğe çözüm sağlamak ve yerli üretim ile Türkiye’nin ihracat potansiyeline katkı sağlamak”) amacıyla Çin (Almanya) ’deki tüm (bazı yan faaliyetlerini (araştırma-geliştirme, tasarım, hammadde tedariki vb.) Çin (Almanya)’de yürütmeyi sürdürmekle birlikte) üretim faaliyetlerini sonlandırarak, kendi ülkesi Türkiye’ye döndürmüştür.

1.1. Lütfen yukarıdaki metinden anladığınıza göre, A şirketinin belirtilen yıllarda üretim faaliyetlerini “Çin” veya “Türkiye” olacak şekilde nerede gerçekleştirdiğini yazınız:

Yıl	Nerede (Çin/Almanya veya Türkiye)
2002	
2020	

1.2. Lütfen yukarıdaki metinden anladığınıza göre, A şirketinin Çin /Almanya ’de yürüttüğü operasyonları için, “kısmen” mi, “tüm faaliyetlerini” mi 2020 yılında Türkiye’ye döndürdüğünü yanıtlayınız.

A. Kısmen

B. Tüm Faaliyetlerini

1.3.Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere katılıp katılmadığınızı 1 (Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum) ile 7 (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum) arasındaki değerlere göre belirtiniz.								
No	İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Üretim faaliyetlerini daha önce Çin (Almanya)’de sürdüren A şirketinin bu faaliyetlerini yeniden kendi ülkesi Türkiye’ye döndürmesi durumunda...								
1	Ürettiği ürünlerin kalitesi, daha önce yurtdışında ürettiği ürünlerin kalitesine kıyasla daha yüksektir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Ürettiği ürünlerin kalitesi, daha önce yurtdışında ürettiği ürünlerden daha iyidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Ürettiği ürünlerin kalitesi daha önce yurtdışında ürettiği ürünlerle kesinlikle mukayese edilemez. (daha iyi olduğundan)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Ürettiği ürünler, daha önce yurtdışında ürettiği ürünlere göre ihtiyacımızı daha iyi karşılayabilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Ürettiği ürünler, daha önce yurtdışında ürettiği ürünlere göre kültürel özelliklerimizle daha fazla uyumludur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Daha önce yurtdışında ürettiği ürünler, yeniden Türkiye’ye dönerek ürettiği ürünlere kıyasla ihtiyaçlarımızı daha az karşılayabilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Bu şirket, devlet tarafından desteklenmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Devlet, daha yüksek maliyetlerle karşılaşsa dahi bu şirketi desteklemelidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Devlet, verdiği kararlar ülkenin ekonomik refahına katkı yapan bu şirketi desteklemelidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Bu şirketin “Türk Malı” etiketini taşıyan ürünlerine, daha öncesinde etiketlerinde yabancı ülkede üretildiği belirtilen ürünlerinden daha olumlu yaklaşıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

No	İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
11	Bu şirketin daha öncesinde yurtdışında ürettiği ürünler üzerinde şimdi “Türk Malı” etiketini görmekten gurur duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Bu şirketin ürünleri üzerinde şimdi “Türk Malı” etiketini gördüğüm için mutluyum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Üretim faaliyetlerini daha önce Çin (Almanya)’de sürdüren A şirketinin bu faaliyetlerini yeniden kendi ülkesi Türkiye’ye döndürmesi kararını...								
13	Memnuniyetle karşılıyorum, çünkü Türk işçilerin yabancı ülke işçilerine göre daha iyi becerilere sahip olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Olumlu buluyorum çünkü Türk işçilerin yabancı ülke işçilerine göre daha yüksek yetkinliklere sahip olduğu kanaatindeyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Olumlu buluyorum çünkü yabancı ülkelerin yeterli beceri ve yetkinliğe sahip işçilere sahip olmadığına inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Memnuniyetle karşılıyorum, zira bu karar, şirketin, ülkemizden daha kötü koşullarda çalışan yabancı ülkelerdeki işçileri sömürmeyi artık bıraktığı anlamına geliyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Memnuniyetle karşılıyorum, çünkü bu, daha az sık tutulan yabancı ülkelerdeki çevre yönetmeliklerinden istifade ederek büyük çevre kirliliğine yol açan uygulamaları bıraktığı anlamına geliyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Memnuniyetle karşılıyorum, çünkü bu, insan haklarını fazla gözetmeyen yasal düzenlemelere sahip yabancı ülkelerdeki yönetmelikleri kendi çıkarına göre kullanmayı bıraktığı anlamına geliyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.4. Lütfen en başta verilen metni göz önünde bulundurarak “A” markası için, aşağıdaki ifadelere katılıp katılmadığınızı 1 (Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum ile 7 (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum) arasındaki değerlere göre belirtiniz.

N o	İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Bu markaya güvenirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Bu markaya inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Bu marka dürüst bir marka olabilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Bu marka güvenilir bir marka olabilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.5. A şirketinin Çin (Almanya)’deki faaliyetlerini sonlandırarak Türkiye’ye döndürmesi kararının ardındaki, yukarıdaki metinde “karlılığını arttırmak” (“Türkiye’de artan işsizliğe çözüm sağlamak ve yerli üretim ile Türkiye’nin ihracat potansiyeline katkı sağlamak”) olarak belirtilen nedeni nasıl algıladığınızı, aşağıda 1 ile 7 aralığında değişen ifadelere göre belirtiniz. (Örneğin ilk satır için; şirketin dönüş nedenini kendi çıkarına mı toplum çıkarına mı olarak değerlendiriyorsunuz, buna göre işaretleme yapınız ve bunu diğer satırlardaki ifadeler için de gerçekleştiriniz.)

Kendi Çıkarına	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Toplum Çıkarına
Şirket Odaklı	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Müşteri Odaklı
Kar Motivasyonlu	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sosyal Motivasyonlu

Bölüm-2: Lütfen bu bölümdeki soruları kişisel görüşlerinize uygun olarak cevaplayınız.

2.1. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere katılıp katılmadığınızı 1 (Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum) ile 7 (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum) arasındaki değerlere göre belirtiniz.

No	İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Yabancı ürünleri satın almak doğru değildir, çünkü bu Türkleri işsiz bırakır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Gerçek bir Türk her zaman Türk ürünleri satın alır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Başka ülkelerin bize mal satarak zengin olmasına izin vermek yerine Türkiye’de üretilen ürünleri satın almalıyız.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Türkler yabancı ürünler satın almamalıdır, çünkü bu Türk ekonomisine zarar verir ve işsizliğe neden olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2.2. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere katılıp katılmadığınızı 1 (Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum) ile 7 (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum) arasındaki değerlere göre belirtiniz.

No	İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Kendimi Türk markalarına sadık buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Türk markaları benim ilk tercihim olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Türk markalarının muhtemel kalitesi son derece yüksektir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Türk markalarının işlevsel olma olasılığı çok yüksektir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Türk markasını diğer rakip markalar arasında tanıyabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Türk markalarının farkındayım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Türk markalarının bazı özellikleri hızla aklıma gelir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Türk markalarının sembolünü veya logosunu hızlı bir şekilde hatırlayabiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2.3. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere katılıp katılmadığınızı 1 (Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum) ile 7 (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum) arasındaki değerlere göre belirtiniz.

No	İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Çin (Almanya) hakkındaki görüşüm genel düzeyde olumludur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Çin (Almanya) iyi gelişmiş ve istikrarlı bir ülkedir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Çin (Almanya) dünya çapında büyük bir üne sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Çin (Almanya)'ın ürün ve hizmetleri tipik olarak iyi kalitededir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Çin (Almanya), diğer ülkelerden daha iyi mal ve hizmet ihraç eden bir ülke olarak bilinmektedir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Çin (Almanya)'den yapılan ihraç ürünler dünya çapında popülerdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7	Çin (Almanya) beyaz eşya kategorisinde genellikle iyi kalitede ürünler üretir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Beyaz eşya kategorisi çoğu insan tarafından Çin (Almanya) uzmanlığı olarak algılanmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Beyaz eşya ürünleri ile Çin (Almanya)'i yakından ilişkilendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Bölüm-3: Lütfen aşağıdaki genel soruları yanıtlayınız.

3.1. Yaşınız?

- 18 – 24 yaş ☐ 45 – 54 yaş ☐
25 – 34 yaş ☐ 55 ve üstü ☐
35 – 44 yaş ☐

3.2. Cinsiyetiniz?

- Erkek ☐ Diğer ☐
Kadın ☐

3.3. Tamamladığınız en yüksek eğitim seviyesi?

- İlk veya Orta Öğretim ☐
Lise ☐
Üniversite ☐
Yüksek Lisans veya Üstü ☐

3.4. Mevcut çalışma durumunuz?

- Tam Zamanlı Çalışan ☐
Yarı-zamanlı Çalışan ☐
İş Arayışında ☐
Emekli ☐
Diğer ☐

3.5. Hanenizin aylık ortalama toplam geliri?

- 2.500 TL ve altı ☐
2501 – 5.000 TL ☐
5001 – 7.500 TL ☐
7501 – 10.000 TL ☐
10.001 TL ve üzeri ☐

