COUNTRY-OF-ORIGIN 1965-2004: A LITERATURE REVIEW

Keith Dinnie

Version 2003

Accepted for Journal of Customer Behaviour

Copyright © 2003 Keith Dinnie. All rights reserved.

Dr Keith Dinnie
Temple University Japan
4-1-27 Mita, Minato-ku
Tokyo 108-0073
Japan

Email: dinnie@tuj.ac.jp
Web: www.brandhorizons.com
Country-of-origin 1965-2004: A literature review

Introduction

This paper reviews the country-of-origin literature and traces the conceptual development of the country-of-origin construct. In general terms, the value of literature reviews resides in their ability to provide scholars, students, and practitioners with a critical appraisal of the existing research on a topic. By classifying and evaluating the extant knowledge base of a particular area, a literature review not only delineates the major themes and issues in the field but also identifies and develops avenues for future research.

In the specific context of the country-of-origin field, there is a high level of interest in researching the effects and impact of country-of-origin as an extrinsic product/service cue and therefore a review of the literature may be regarded as timely and useful. This level of interest may be attributed, at least in part, to increasing economic globalization which has resulted in the lowering of trade barriers between nations and the consequent availability of more foreign products and services across borders than ever before. In such circumstances, many products and services highlight their country-of-origin as a potential competitive differentiator in their respective markets. Country-of-origin thus represents an important area for consumer behaviour research and has attracted much attention by marketing scholars.

This literature review identifies three main periods in the chronological development of country-of-origin research (see Table 1). The first period covers from 1965-1982, beginning with Schooler’s study of country-of-origin effects in the Central American market (Schooler, 1965) and ending with the widely cited Bilkey and Nes study of country-of-origin effects on product evaluations (Bilkey and Nes, 1982). The Bilkey and Nes article summarised country-of-origin research to that point in time, qualitatively evaluating the results of twenty-five country-of-origin studies. The 1965-1982 period in the country-of-origin research is characterised by a development from simple single cue studies-where country-of-origin is the only product cue to be manipulated-towards more complex investigations such as that by Bilkey and Nes (1982) into the generalisability of country-of-origin effects.

The second period, 1983-1992, witnessed a further increase in the volume of country-of-origin research. Johansson, et al (1985) questioned the findings of earlier studies and claimed that previously conducted research may have overstated the significance of country-of-origin effects, particularly where a multi-attribute approach was not used. Conjoint analysis used by Ettenson, et al (1988) supported the contention of Johansson, et al (1985) that contrary to earlier contributions to the literature, other product cues such as price and quality may have a stronger effect on consumer product evaluations than country-of-origin information.

The third period, 1993-2004, is characterised by a proliferation of different streams of research many of which seek to reconceptualise country-of-origin in terms of brand origin (Thakor and Kohli, 1996), product-country image (Papadopoulos and Heslop,
1993), and contextualised product-place image (Askegaard and Ger, 1998). This period, 1993-present day, has also seen a growing recognition that country-of-origin effects should be examined in relation to services and not exclusively in relation to tangible products (Harrison-Walker, 1995; Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998; Webb and Po, 2000; Javalgi, Cutler and Winans, 2001). In post-industrial economies, the service sector is facing unprecedented change and globalization is one of the main drivers of this (Laing, Lewis, Foxall, and Hogg, 2002); it may therefore be conjectured that country-of-origin will assume increasing relevance in the service sector.

Table 1: Conceptual development of the country-of-origin construct 1965-2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AUTHOR(S)</th>
<th>CONCEPTUALISATION OF COUNTRY-OF-ORIGIN CONSTRUCT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Schooler (1965)</td>
<td>First study in the country-of-origin literature. Established that a country-of-origin effect does exist, but did not investigate strength and direction of such country-of-origin effects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schooler and Sunoo (1969)</td>
<td>Investigated consumers’ perceptions of international products by contrasting regional versus national labelling, e.g. ‘Made in Latin America’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yaprak (1978)</td>
<td>Both general country and product attributes, and specific product attributes, found to be statistically significant in affecting purchase intentions. Exemplifies the conceptual advances made in country-of-origin literature since the simple single cue manipulations of the 1960s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Han (1989)</td>
<td>Demonstrated that country image can be used by consumers in product evaluations either as a halo or as a summary construct.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papadopoulos and Heslop (1993)</td>
<td>Criticised the country-of-origin construct as being narrow and misleading, since it assumes a single place of origin for a product. Proposed the term product-country image (PCI) to account for the multidimensional character of products/brands and also the multiple places potentially involved in a global production system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thakor and Kohli (1996)</td>
<td>Introduced the concept of brand origin, defined as the place, region or country to which the brand is perceived to belong by its target consumers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Askegaard and Ger (1998)</td>
<td>Argued that analyses of images attached to a product and its place(s) of origin must use a richer set of connotations and stereotypes than is used in standard approaches. Acknowledged the cultural context in consumers’ product evaluations by proposing the concept of contextualised product-place image (CPPI).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Javalgi, Cutler, and Winans (2001)</td>
<td>Addresses the dearth of studies in the country-of-origin literature relating to the marketing of services rather than tangible products.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lenartowicz and Roth (2001); Laroche, Papadopoulos, Heslop and Bergeron (2003)</td>
<td>Examined the effects of within-country subcultures on business outcomes, as opposed to most previous country-of-origin studies which implicitly assumed that national markets are composed of homogeneous consumers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parameswaran and Pisharodi (2002)</td>
<td>Posit that an understanding of acculturation and other assimilation processes of immigrants would be valuable to domestic and international marketers operating in culturally heterogeneous societies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The conceptual development of the country-of-origin construct (see Table 1) identified in the current review of the literature covers research published up to and including the studies by Quelch (2003) on the geopolitical dimension of the country-of-origin effect, Chisik’s (2003) investigation into the reputational comparative advantage aspect of country-of-origin, and Zafar et al’s (2004) examination of whether country-of-origin matters for low-involvement products.

1965-1982: From single cue studies to more complex investigations of country-of-origin effects

Early studies in the country-of-origin field tended to take what would now be regarded as a rather simplistic approach to investigating the country-of-origin effect. Single cue studies were conducted which may have overstated the impact of country-of-origin on consumers evaluation of products. This initial period in the country-of-origin field was thus characterized by a trend away from single cue studies towards more complex investigations into country-of-origin as one product cue amongst many, for example, price, brand name, and so on.

Establishing the existence of the country-of-origin effect

The first study in the country-of-origin literature is regarded to be that by Schooler (1965), who concluded that the country-of-origin of a product can have an effect on a consumer’s opinion of the product. This conclusion was based on research which presented four groups of student respondents in Guatemala with products bearing fictitious labels denoting the product’s supposed country-of-origin. Four Central American countries featured on the labels-Mexico, Costa Rica, El Salvador, and home country Guatemala.

The results of this experiment indicated that the respondents evaluated products from Costa Rica and El Salvador more negatively than products from Mexico or domestic products from Guatemala. These results established that a country-of-origin effect does indeed exist; however, the strength and direction of such a country-of-origin effect and the processes by which consumers integrate country-of-origin into their decision-making would only be addressed in later studies.

Although Schooler’s study paved the way for future country-of-origin research, it can also be seen in retrospect to contain the seeds of two of the major weaknesses of the research in the field that was to follow, i.e., the use of student samples and the concomitant weak claim of generalisability to wider populations, and the over-emphasis on tangible products over intangible services (see Appendix 1).

Schooler’s 1965 study was followed by a similar study carried out by Reierson (1966), in which 155 American students were asked to give their opinions of fashion merchandise, food, and mechanical products from the following nations: USA; Germany; Japan; France; Canada; Italy; UK; Sweden; Belgium; and Denmark. Stereotyping of foreign products was evident among the American students. This finding indicates the need for country-of-origin research to take into consideration the nature of national stereotypes.
Regional versus national labelling

A significant conceptual advance (see Table 1) was made by Schooler and Sunoo (1969) in their investigation of consumers’ perceptions of international products by contrasting regional versus national labelling. Their findings indicated that consumer bias against products from less developed countries could possibly be mitigated through regional rather than national labelling, for example, ‘Made in Latin America’ or ‘Made in Asia’, and so on. Regionally labelled goods did not appear to suffer any bias against them.

However, in a follow-up study on the marketing of foreign goods in the USA Schooler (1971) found that neither regional nor national labelling appeared to be more effective than the other. Amongst a wide range of findings, significant differences were found towards products of foreign origin; consumers with a higher level of education were found to be more favourable towards foreign products than consumers with a lower level of education; female consumers evaluated foreign products more highly than males; and younger consumers evaluated foreign products more highly than did older consumers. Schooler’s 1971 study therefore opened up several avenues for future research.

The dynamic rather than static nature of country image

In a departure from the standard focus upon research conducted in a single time and place, a longitudinal approach to examining made in product image among Japanese businessmen was taken by Nagashima (1970; 1977), who in his 1970 study used the semantic differential method to compare Japanese and American attitudes towards foreign and domestic products. The “Made In” stereotypes were found to differ between American and Japanese businessmen. In his follow-up 1977 study, Nagashima focused on Japanese businessmen in order to ascertain whether changes had taken place in evaluation of the made in image of products from the USA, Japan, Germany, Britain and France. It was found that the overall image of products made in Japan, Germany, Britain and France had improved whereas the overall “made in USA” image had deteriorated. Nagashima’s finding thus indicates the dynamic rather than static nature of country image.

Supporting the contention of Nagashima (1970; 1977), further confirmation that country image can be subject to change over time was provided a decade later by Papadopoulos et al (1987), whose study of consumers’ perceptions of foreign goods came to the conclusion that the “made in” stereotype can change, at least in the long term.

Consumers’ perceptions of imports

Consumers’ perceptions of imports were investigated by Dornoff et al (1974) using ordinary consumers rather than students as the sample. The authors aimed to discover what consumers perceptions of imports were; to see if these perceptions differed for specific countries; to see if these perceptions differed between product classes; and to examine whether differences in perceptions were based on socio-economic characteristics. Such a proliferation of study objectives could be criticised on the
grounds that too many disparate issues are being addressed and that the study therefore lacks focus.

However, the study contributed to the literature at the time by positing the following findings: foreign products were becoming increasingly competitive with US products in terms of quality; products “made in Japan” were considered as substitutes for US products; in terms of electrical equipment, Japan was rated higher than the USA, with Germany rated best for mechanical products; respondents were neutral towards “made in France”; males’ and females’ perception of foreign products showed no significant differences; and perception of imports became more favourable with increase in level of education.

As is intimated above, one of the weaknesses of such studies is the lack of focus on what would later become conceptualised as product-country image (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993). For example, the claim that respondents were neutral towards “made in France” should be nuanced by taking into consideration product class. Neutrality towards a mechanical product “made in France” may be countered by positive bias towards a food or drink product such as wine that is “made in France”. A similar effect may also be observed in the case of Scotland, where the ‘made in Scotland’ informational cue operates more effectively for traditional product categories such as whisky rather than for new technology product categories (Ballington, 2001).

The country-product link

The importance of establishing a country-product link in order to generate useful data was recognised by Yaprak (1978), whose investigation into purchase intentions among US and Turkish business executives for brands made in Germany, Japan and Italy demonstrated that both general country and product attributes, and specific product attributes were statistically significant in affecting purchase intentions. Yaprak’s study exemplifies the conceptual advances made in the country-of-origin literature since the simple single cue manipulations of the early studies in the 1960s (see Table 1).

Profiling a country through performance attributes was a technique used by Chasin and Jaffe (1979) as one way to measure country-of-origin effects in the context of American industrial buyers’ perceptions of the quality of goods made in the Eastern European countries of Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, Romania and the then USSR. A series of ten performance attributes were used for country profiling. Five attributes related to product values (quality, workmanship, style, dependability, advanced technology), while the remaining five attributes related to marketing values (credit/terms, value for money, on-time delivery, reputation, and maintenance/service). Results of the study showed that American industrial buyers perceived the quality of products made in the Eastern European countries to be inferior to that of products made in the USA. Chasin and Jaffe thus touch tangentially upon the question of ethnocentrism—“the home country bias portion of the country-of-origin effect”, (Shimp and Sharma, 1987)—which now occupies a significant place in the country-of-origin literature (Klein, 2002).

This period in the development of country-of-origin research witnessed an increasing interest in the examination of the link between the image of a country and the image of products made in that country. Continuing the trend observed in the 1965-1982 period, there was also an accelerating trend towards the use of multi-attribute approaches in assessing country-of-origin effects.

The image of domestic and foreign products

Morello’s (1984) comparative study on the image of domestic and foreign products sought to establish the relationship between the image of seven countries and the image of products made in those countries: Belgium, France, Holland, Italy, Spain, USA, USSR, West Germany were the selected countries. The results of the study suggested the existence of a country-of-origin effect and that this may affect consumer buying behaviour. It should, however, be noted that the convenience sample -29 Dutch students and 37 Italian students- limits the generalisability of Morello’s findings.

Domestic products in all but the most closed of economies must compete with imported products. There is therefore interest in investigating whether “buy domestic” campaigns can have an impact by highlighting the country-of-origin of domestically produced goods. Thus, the effect of country-of-origin in relation to the effectiveness of a “made in the USA” campaign was examined by Ettenson et al (1988) in a study using conjoint analysis methodology.

Results showed that contrary to many previous findings, product cues such as price and quality may have a stronger effect on consumers’ product evaluations than the country-of-origin cue. In addition, the authors found little change in the effect of the country-of-origin cue before and after the launch of the “made in the USA” campaign. The generalisability of Ettenson et al’s findings is limited by the sampling method they used, namely a convenience sample of 105 students at the University of Maryland, of whom 55 students completed both the pre-test and post-test.

A multi-cue approach to country-of-origin

Johansson et al (1985) conducted a study to research the impact of country-of-origin on product evaluation, focusing on cars as the product class and using a multi-cue method in which Japan, USA and Germany were selected as the countries of origin and with a series of 13 attributes for respondents to evaluate. These attributes were: price, handling, horsepower, acceleration, gas mileage, safety, driving comfort, passenger comfort, reliability, durability, workmanship, styling and colour selection.

Country-of-origin effects using this multi-cue approach were found to be less significant than had previously been believed. While this relativisation of the significance of the country-of-origin effect is an important contribution to the literature, the study suffers from two weaknesses. Firstly, the reliance on small convenience samples of students, and secondly, the unrealistic presentation of cues to the respondents-asking groups of students to complete a questionnaire on the
evaluation of 13 attributes and 3 different countries of origin is an artificial exercise far removed from the actual consumer decision making processes involved in the real act of purchasing a car.

**The influence of gender on country-of-origin perceptions**

An attempt to investigate one aspect (gender) of demographic influence on country-of-origin perceptions was made by Heslop and Wall (1985), who found that from their sample of 635 Canadian men and women, home country bias was evident in that products made in Canada were evaluated more highly by both males and females than were products from 12 other countries.

The only exception was the case of women’s shoes, with Italian shoes being preferred over Canadian shoes. It was also found that females tended to give higher ratings than males to most countries in terms of perceived quality. The importance of segmenting target markets along gender and other lines must therefore be acknowledged.

**Country image as a halo or summary construct**

The methodology used in Becker’s (1986) study attempted to overcome the contrived and artificial methodologies of much previous research by conducting the data-gathering phase of the research in a shopping area rather than in a university classroom. A total of 380 consumers in Boston USA completed a 4-item questionnaire, the results of which indicated the existence of a ‘halo effect’ around the image of products made in Japan, as well as suggesting that American consumers preferred to purchase domestic products over imports but only on condition that the quality of the domestic product was equal to that of the imported product.

One of the most widely cited studies in the country-of-origin literature is Han’s (1989) examination of the role of country image in consumer evaluations of TV sets and cars. A systematic sample of 116 respondents were interviewed by telephone and asked for their images of products from the USA, Japan and South Korea. The respondents’ images were measured on a 7-point semantic differential scale anchored by “good” and “bad”. Han’s results demonstrated that country image can be used by consumers in product evaluations either as a halo or as a summary construct. A halo construct describes situations in which country image is used to consider products that consumers have little knowledge about, whilst a summary construct operates when consumers become familiar with a country’s products and country image may become a construct that summarises consumers’ beliefs about product attributes.

Han (1990) followed up his 1989 study with an investigation in which the role of country image in consumer choice behaviour was tested. Arguing that country image may be conceptualised as a consumer halo, Han (1990) assessed the effect of country image on consumers’ attitudes towards brands “made in” different countries; the effect of country image on consumers’ intentions to purchase brands from various countries; the effect of country image on consumers’ perceptions of specific product attributes; and the effect of country image for a product category on different categories from the same countries.
As in Han’s previous 1989 study, the products selected were TV sets and cars. Given the nature of these two products, the five items used to measure country image were: technical advancement, prestige value, workmanship, price, and serviceability. The results of the study indicated that consumers’ willingness to purchase a product was related to the economic, political and cultural characteristics of the product’s country-of-origin and that country-of-origin images were affected by consumers’ perceptions of similarity between their own country’s political and cultural climate and beliefs systems and those of the origin country.

When such a halo effect is seen operating in terms of countries rather than individuals or institutions, it is important for governments and marketers to understand the nature of the effect so that appropriate marketing strategies can be developed to either build on the strengths of the existing country image or to counteract and challenge negative country image perceptions.

**Profiling a country through its attributes**

Profiling a country through its attributes was used by Ofir and Lehmann (1986), taking a different set of country attributes from those employed by Chasin and Jaffe in their earlier 1979 study. Instead of using the product performance attributes employed by Chasin and Jaffe, Ofir and Lehmann measured the country-level images of ski resorts in Switzerland, France and Austria by asking 269 skiers attending a ski show in New York to rate each of the countries on a five-point scale for ten attributes. The attributes were as follows: modern, exciting, entertaining, challenging, friendly, honest, sophisticated, romantic, picturesque, and expensive.

The images of the three countries were found to be relatively homogeneous, with the American skiers unable to differentiate between the countries. Given that country images can change over time (Lampert and Jaffe, 1998), it would be interesting to replicate the Ofir and Lehmann study to determine whether the country images held by American skiers of Switzerland, France and Austria have become more distinctly defined than they were at the time of the original study, and to investigate the mediating factors pertaining to such changes in image perceptions.

**Matching product category and country image perceptions**

In another widely cited study, Roth and Romeo (1992) propose a framework for managing country-of-origin effects through matching product category and country image perceptions. Their framework matches the importance of product category dimensions with the perceived image of the country-of-origin along the same dimensions. Product categories selected were beer, cars, leather shoes, crystal, bicycles, and watches. The countries evaluated were the UK, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Japan, South Korea, Mexico, Spain, and the USA. The following four dimensions were used to measure country image: innovativeness, design, prestige, and workmanship. Data for the study were collected from 139 graduate students in the USA, 130 in Mexico, and 99 in Ireland. The subjects were asked to show the extent to which each of the four image dimensions was an important criterion for evaluating each product category, and also how willing subjects would be to purchase the product categories from each of the countries being evaluated.
Roth and Romeo’s (1992) main findings were that consumers from the USA, Mexico and Ireland were willing to purchase from countries which were evaluated highly on dimensions that were important to the product category in question (for example, consumers expressed willingness to purchase a car from Japan, Germany or the USA) but that conversely consumers were unwilling to buy products from countries that had an unfavourable product-country match (consumers were less likely to buy a car from Mexico or Hungary as these countries were not highly evaluated on the dimensions that were important to that product category). Roth and Romeo (1992) conclude that product-country match information should be used by managers in order to assess consumers’ purchase intentions and to assist them in managing their product’s country-of-origin.

Although Roth and Romeo’s framework for managing country-of-origin effects may appear robust, its use of only four dimensions to measure country image (innovativeness, design, prestige, and workmanship) in respect of the fit between product categories and countries might be considered a weakness in that it fails to take into consideration the cultural dimension of country image identified by Han (1990). Further research is therefore required to determine whether country image can be adequately captured using only product category dimensions or whether a cultural dimension should also be included in the measurement of country image, regardless of product category.

1993-2004: Reconceptualisation of the country-of-origin construct

The period 1993-2004 has been characterized by a proliferation of studies seeking to reconceptualise the country-of-origin construct. In the following sections these developments are delineated and discussed.

Product-country image

In what has become seen as a landmark text, Papadopoulos (1993) made a significant and widely cited contribution to the country-of-origin literature by criticising the concept of country-of-origin as being narrow and misleading, since it assumes a single place of origin for a product when a product may well be manufactured in one country but designed, assembled, branded etc in another country. In order to account for the multidimensional character of the images of products/brands on the one hand and of the multiple places potentially involved in a global production system with increasingly mobile products on the other, Papadopoulos proposed the term “product-country image”. The term (PCI) has become current in the literature and has itself been subject to adaptation and refinement, for example in Askegaard and Ger’s (1998) proposal of the more specific term, contextualised product-place image (CPPI). These conceptual developments in the evolution of the country-of-origin construct are summarized in Table 1.

In one chapter of Papadopoulos and Heslop’s (1993) book Product-Country Images, Johansson (1993) considers why country-of-origin research has not perhaps had the managerial impact that it ought, and why it continues to be poorly regarded by some practitioners and consultants. Johansson considers the problem to be mainly one of external and internal validity. For example, regarding the issue of external validity, most studies in the country-of-origin area have been carried out using paper and
pencil scenarios with student subjects. As regards internal validity, single-cue experimental studies and surveys have been criticised on the grounds that they have induced demand artifacts. It is therefore important for the credibility of country-of-origin research that future studies take sufficiently into consideration the basic issues of internal and external validity when selecting appropriate methodologies.

Facets of country-of-origin image

A concern with deficiencies in the definition and the measurement of the different facets of country-of-origin image prompted a study by Parameswaran and Pisharodi (1994) in which the authors used a scale consisting of items designed to measure three facets of the country-of-origin effect, namely, general country attributes; general product attributes; and specific product attributes. Parameswaran and Pisharodi conclude that the attributes contributing to any particular country-of-origin image facet may differ across countries and that therefore there exists a potential weakness in the use of standardised country-of-origin image scales to measure country-of-origin images of products originating in diverse countries. The authors also conclude that very little is known about the impact of country-of-origin image on consumer behaviour and that the effect of country-of-origin image and its facets in shaping cognition, attitudes, and behaviour related to the consumption of particular brands/makes of products should be explored in future research.

A longitudinal approach to country-of-origin

Apart from Nagashima’s (1970; 1977) study, surprisingly little attention has been paid to evaluating the way in which country-of-origin image perceptions change over time. In this regard, Nebenzahl and Jaffe (1997) note that the sort of marketing strategy and the time horizon necessary to change or maintain country image is a subject that needs to be addressed in future research.

A rare example of a longitudinal approach to examining the country-of-origin effect can be found in the work of Darling and Puetz (2002a: 2002b), who conducted a major study over the period 1975-2000 to evaluate the impact of the country-of-origin label on the attitudes of Finnish consumers towards the products of the USA, Japan, and selected European countries. After an initial study in 1975, subsequent studies were conducted in 1980, 1985, 1990, 1995 and 2000, utilizing the same questionnaire and similarly selected random samples of consumers. By doing so, the measurement and comparison over time was permitted through repeated cross-sectional studies.

Based on the results of their study, Darling and Puetz state that there were continuing, consistent and significant differences in the attitudes of Finnish consumers with regard to the products and associated marketing practices of selected foreign countries, and that these findings demonstrate both the importance of country-of-origin in the decision-making of consumers and also the difficulty faced by marketers and policy-makers who hope to overcome negative country-of-origin stereotypes when they position their products in the international arena.

Broadening the base of country-of-origin research
Another avenue for research was explored by Badri, Davis, and Davis (1995), who noted the overwhelming concentration on US and European consumers in the existing country-of-origin literature. In order to begin to redress the balance, the authors conducted a study examining the impact of the “made in” information on consumers in the Gulf States. In view of the increasing orientation toward this market in international trade, such a course of inquiry was seen by the authors to be justified. Four research issues were addressed:

- Do the general attitudes of Gulf State businesspeople toward product attributes differ across countries of origin and if so, for which countries, and which attributes?
- Do Gulf State businesspeople perceive categories of products differently depending on country-of-origin?
- Do Gulf State consumers prefer to purchase specific products from various countries?
- Do demographics of consumers affect their perceptions of product attributes?

The countries investigated with regard to the “made in” label were the USA, Japan, Germany, England, France, Italy, and Taiwan. Country-of-origin was found to have a significant effect on evaluations of product quality. For example, Gulf State businesspeople associated the label “made in the USA” with good workmanship, being technically advanced and highly inventive, as well as benefiting from outstanding marketing and advertising activities. On the other hand, products “made in” Japan were perceived to have high reliability and to be needing little advertising. Of the four European countries included in the survey, Germany emerged as having the most favourable ratings on most attributes. The authors’ overall conclusion is that business planners and strategists developing marketing strategies in the Gulf States market should carefully evaluate the competitive strengths and weaknesses of the image of products made in specific countries with regard to various product attributes.

Another study countering the overwhelming concentration of most country-of-origin research on US and European consumers was undertaken, in a non-academic context, by international advertising agency Leo Burnett Worldwide (Madden, 2003). Leo Burnett Worldwide conducted a five-country Asian survey into attitudes towards foreign brands compared to local brands, and intentions to purchase major foreign brands in the current political climate. The countries surveyed were China, South Korea, India, Indonesia, and the Philippines. Results indicated that major brands such as McDonalds and Coca-Cola scored highly on positive attitudes and intentions to purchase, despite widely-publicised boycotts of these brands in Asian markets.

This perhaps surprising finding was attributed to long-standing social programmes and heavy advertising by the brands concerned. A further conclusion of the study was that brand origin is not the key driver of the purchase decision, because Asian consumers are more interested in lifestyle and social values than politics. However, this assertion could be challenged on the grounds that it is simplistic to divorce lifestyle and social values from politics and that in fact, lifestyle imagery in particular flows directly from the political system of any particular country. The role of politics in determining country-of-origin image perceptions is very sparsely alluded to in the literature and warrants further research.
Such research is likely to emanate from the newly emerging field of nation branding, given the wider frame of reference inherent in the nation branding construct as compared to the more narrowly defined country-of-origin field. For example, a geopolitical dimension to country-of-origin can be found in the work of van Ham (2001).

A further contribution to the country-of-origin literature focusing upon consumers outwith the usual Western countries was made by Leonidou, Hadjimarcou, Kaleka and Stamenova (1999) in their study of Bulgarian consumers’ perceptions of products made in Asia Pacific. It is noted by the authors that the countries of Asia Pacific have received scant empirical attention despite the fact that an understanding of the specific image that goods from these countries have on consumer behaviour is of paramount importance in light of their increasing involvement in world trade. In what may perhaps be criticised as being too wide ranging a set of research objectives, the study addressed the following issues:

1. What are the sources of information used by Bulgarian consumers in evaluating products originating from Asian Pacific countries, and how do these sources differ in accordance with consumer demographics?
2. Is there a positive or negative attitude on the part of these consumers toward Asian Pacific products and to what can this be attributed?
3. What is the overall assessment of products made in Asia Pacific and how does this differ according to the demographic profile of the Bulgarian consumer?
4. How do consumers in Bulgaria evaluate specific dimensions of Asian Pacific products, and are there any differences across countries in the region?
5. What is the Bulgarian consumer’s assessment of different product categories, and how do these vary by each Asia Pacific country?

The Asian Pacific countries covered in the study were Japan, Hong Kong, Singapore, Indonesia, and India. Country-of-origin effects were assessed with respect to foodstuffs, household cleaning products, personal care items, clothing/footwear, furnishings, electrical appliances, and electronics. Overall results of the study revealed that Bulgarian consumers take into account country-of-origin in their product evaluations, and that they rely primarily on experiential knowledge in assessing Asian Pacific products. Bulgarian consumers’ attitudes toward Asian Pacific products, with the exception of Japan, were found to range from moderately satisfactory to unsatisfactory. This finding is therefore in accordance with other studies which have found that consumers rate products from developed countries more highly than products from developing countries.

**Meta-analysis of country-of-origin effects**

A comprehensive meta-analysis of country-of-origin effects was conducted by Peterson and Jolibert (1995), based on 52 articles or papers containing 69 independent studies. An analysis of 15 study characteristics revealed that country-of-origin effects are only somewhat generalisable. One interesting finding was that verbal product descriptions produced larger country-of-origin effect sizes than did the presence of an actual product. Similarly, single-cue studies were found to produce larger country-of-origin effect sizes than did multiple-cue studies, and larger samples produced effect sizes that on average were greater than those produced by smaller samples. A further
finding of this meta-analysis was that the size of an observed country-of-origin effect was a function of whether the dependent variable was a quality/reliability perception or a purchase intention, with the average effect size for quality/reliability perception being 0.30 and the average effect size for purchase intention being 0.19.

Having quantitatively documented the effect size of the country-of-origin cue in a variety of research circumstances, Peterson and Jolibert conclude that quality/reliability perceptions and purchase intentions need to be studied separately in future research on country-of-origin cues. The authors also conclude that, as a cue, country-of-origin differentially influences perceptions and intentions and that the influence is context-dependent.

As regards the methodology employed in the country-of-origin research up to the time of their meta-analysis, Peterson and Jolibert make the observation that unfortunately, study conditions that tend to produce large effect sizes are those that depart the most from reality, e.g. single-cue designs and verbal descriptions and that there is therefore a need for additional empirical research that builds on the present investigation to comprehensively address both the antecedents and consequences of the country-of-origin effect under a variety of circumstances. Such research, according to the authors, needs to be conducted under naturalistic conditions to avoid what appear to be methodological influences on the relationships uncovered in their meta-analysis.

**A taxonomy for the country-of-origin domain**

Partly as a response to some of the weaknesses identified by Peterson and Jolibert in their above meta-analysis of country-of-origin effects, Nebenzahl, Jaffe and Lampert (1997) proposed a theoretical structure to what is known as country-of-origin effect. The authors assert that a prerequisite for theory-building is the establishment of a universal taxonomy that defines the domains of the phenomena being studied, whilst also noting that a major constraint to the development of country image effect (CIE) theory is the lack of a universally accepted taxonomy. The taxonomy proposed by Nebenzahl, Jaffe and Lampert does not, however, appear to have gained the universal acceptance they desire.

For example, their taxonomy includes items such as MCI (Made-in-Country-Image), MCIP (the image of the made-in country as a producer of a given product line, p) and OC (the country which a consumer associates with a certain product or brand as being its country of origin, regardless of where the product is produced). This taxonomy is not adopted by the other studies examined in the present review of the literature. A far more widespread adoption has, for example, been made of Papadopoulos’ (1993) proposed taxonomy based on the term product-country image (PCI).

The efforts made by Nebenzahl, Jaffe and Lampert to introduce a more theory-driven approach to country-of-origin are nevertheless to be applauded in that such theorizing should help to increase the generalisability of country-of-origin research, thus departing from the ad hoc nature of most of the existing studies in the field.

**Brand popularity and country image**
In a study of brand popularity and country image in global competition, Chung Koo Kim (1995) examined how brand- and country-related intangible assets influenced the market share of brands and their marketing effectiveness. The author claims that to the best of his knowledge this study is the first of its kind as an empirical study to combine brand and country equity and simultaneously examine their effects on market share and marketing effectiveness. Focusing on the small car segment in the USA, the author found that the intangible assets associated with brand and country names are important.

For example, one finding of the research was that a brand can generate positive brand-specific assets, i.e., brand popularity, without a positive country name equity. On the other hand, it was also found that a country name, for example Japan, produced positive value to the brands originating from particular countries. Kim’s study therefore paved the way for further research (Nebenzahl and Jaffe, 1997) exploring the nature of the relationship between brand management and country-of-origin.

A study by Ahmed and d’Astous (1995) also took into consideration the effect of brand name with regard to the country-of-origin cue. The authors claimed that an unresolved issue in the study of country-of-origin effects was the relative salience of country-of-origin cues for household and organisational buyers, and in order to address this issue their research compared product evaluations of household and organisational buyers in the context of a multidimensional conceptualisation of country-of-origin using brand name, satisfaction assurance and price as additional informational cues.

Results of the research revealed that in organisational purchase decisions, country of design is a more important cue than country of assembly and brand name whereas for household buyers, country of design and country of assembly have about equal importance but brand name is a more important cue than country-of-origin. Ahmed and d’Astous (1995) suggest that the differences in the importance placed on product cues by the organisational and household buyers may be explained both by the nature of products and by purchase experience; for example, because of the necessity of reaching a large number of consumers, very heavy brand promotion programmes are used by marketers thus leading to possibly greater salience of brand name for household buyers. Reflecting the concerns of Petersen and Jolibert (1995) regarding the lack of naturalistic conditions under which much country-of-origin research takes place, Ahmed and d’Astous (1995) indicate that one of the weaknesses of their study is that the data were collected through a questionnaire rather than through monitoring of a real-life purchase decision.

**National stereotype and advertising information**

The relative effects of national stereotype and advertising information on the selection of a service provider were investigated by Harrison-Walker (1995) in a study that unusually for the country-of-origin literature focused on services rather than tangible products. The specific service selected was ophthalmology and the central research issue was to determine whether the service provider’s nationality accentuates or attenuates consumer response to an advert. Specific marketing issues addressed in the study were twofold: to determine whether the nationality associated with a service provider significantly influences consumer decision making with regard to service
selection, and if so, whether the influence of the national stereotype is moderated either by the nationality of the consumer or the presence of additional information about the service provider, such as professional credentials or service availability.

Findings from the study suggested the existence of same-nationality bias in service provider selection, and that the role of such same-nationality bias may be more prevalent in some cultures than in others. The research also indicated that to some extent service providers can overcome any negative effects of same-nationality bias by providing consumers with more information in their advertising, i.e. in situations where same-nationality bias does exist, different-nationality providers can compete most effectively with same-nationality providers by offering complete advertising information to potential consumers.

**Country-of-origin and services**

In a more recent paper, Javalgi, Cutler and Winans (2001) examine the country-of-origin research literature as it applies to services. Their review of the country-of-origin literature that specifically applies to services covered a 20-year period and the set of journals reviewed included 24 marketing and general business journals. This review identified only 19 studies from that 20-year period in which country-of-origin was applied specifically to services.

Three categories of studies were identified: (1) core services, such as medical care or travel services; (2) supplementary services provided to enhance the value of a product, such as a warrantee or guarantee; and (3) cross-national service comparisons, where services produced and consumed in individual countries are compared. The authors conclude that country-of-origin research does have relevance to services, and that the relationship between country-of-origin and services appears to be similar to that between country-of-origin and products.

They also suggest that the lack of studies concentrating on the role of country-of-origin in international services, coupled with the rapid growth of service economies, argues for the continuance of studies in this area. Javalgi, Cutler and Winans’ review of the applicability of country-of-origin to the service sector is thus an important contribution to the development of the country-of-origin construct (see Table 1).

**Brand origin**

A conceptual contribution to the country-of-origin literature was made by Thakor and Kohli (1996) in their consideration of the concept of brand origin and its distinction from existing concepts such as country-of-origin. The authors define brand origin as “the place, region or country to which the brand is perceived to belong by its target consumers”. Thakor and Kohli also note that this perception may differ from the location where products carrying the brand name are manufactured, or are perceived by consumers to be manufactured.

Their definition of brand origin is stated in terms of consumer perceptions since the outcomes of interest to marketers are those that are within the power of the consumer to dispense, i.e. purchase of one brand or another. It is noted that consumer perceptions may not coincide with reality for various reasons: ignorance, lack of
salience of origin information for a particular brand, or deliberate obfuscation by companies concerned about consumer reactions to an unfavourable origin. The authors also believe that consumers in some cases may know full well where a branded product is manufactured but still not consider that location to be the brand origin; for instance, Honda manufactured in the USA may still be thought of as a Japanese car, albeit one made in a Midwestern US plant.

The conceptualisation of brand origin can, according to the authors, be distinguished from country-of-origin in that brand origin is a more inclusive concept, with brand origin referring to signifiers of origin beyond those that merely indicate a country; for example, regions such as Nordic, Rhine or Mediterranean may have connotations for consumers without any specific country being mentioned at all.

Another important observation made by Thakor and Kohli (1996), and one that they claim had not been made by the empirical country-of-origin literature up to that point, is that origin cues are already embedded within many well known brand names, and that mere manipulation of country of assembly or country of manufacture probably does not eliminate the effects of those cues. Telling experimental subjects that a Toyota car, for instance, was assembled in a country other than Japan may not stop them considering the car as a Japanese brand. Again, this observation suggests that further research is required on the relationship between brand image and country-of-origin image.

**Country-of-origin and ethnocentrism**

Lantz and Loeb (1996) explored the role of the concept of ethnocentrism in the country-of-origin area through a study analysing Canadian and American preferences using social identity theory. Social identity theory holds that people feel a desire and propensity to build a positive identity for themselves which may be manifested by their identification with various groups (Tajfel, 1981; Turner, 1982), groups which may include family, friends, the community, race, religion or nation.

The relevance of social identity theory to ethnocentrism lies in the definition of ethnocentrism as involving ingroup/outgroup orientation where the ingroup is preferred and is seen in opposition to others (Lantz and Loeb, 1996). The nation is the ingroup of interest as regards the country-of-origin effect and the threat to the ingroup is of an economic nature, given the heightened level of international competition due to the globalisation of the world economy.

Supporting domestic products for the good of the domestic economy may therefore be regarded as a form of ethnocentric behaviour. In the same vein as Lantz and Loeb, Verlegh (1999) posits that social identity theory provides a social psychological perspective for studying country-of-origin effects and that although the strength of national identity varies between individuals and is dependent upon situational influences, it is usually regarded as a salient aspect of the self.

From their study of Canadian and American consumer preferences regarding the purchase of computer mousepads (this product was chosen in order to minimize the effect of country image, mousepads being simple, nondistinctive and virtually generic), Lantz and Loeb found that some portion of the consuming public is willing
to pay somewhat more for products made domestically, with the caveat that this result is highly dependent on the product being a mundane, low involvement product. Consumer ethnocentrism is therefore advocated by the authors as one possible basis for marketing segmentation.

With a similar focus upon consumer ethnocentrism, Bruning (1997) conducted a study into country-of-origin, national loyalty and product choice in a services environment by focusing upon whether Canadian air travellers would remain loyal to Canadian air carriers as foreign competitors entered the market as a result of the 1995 “open skies” policy. Conjoint analysis was used in order to identify the role of national loyalty in air carrier choice and to explain variations in national loyalty across a sample of respondents according to differences in demographic, attitudinal, and usage characteristics of a sample of air travellers.

Bruning’s results indicate that for Canadian air travellers the country attribute is second only to price in terms of relative importance in the air carrier choice decision. The author explains this apparent lack of patriotism amongst Canadian air travellers as a manifestation of the nature of North American culture dominated as it is by a market-based exchange system. The central role of culture in consumers’ decision making processes thus becomes evident and demands further research.

**Validating model constructs**

The effects of country-of-origin and brand name were examined by Häubl (1996) in a cross-national investigation into the evaluation of a new car. Häubl notes that although the importance of examining the applicability of theories and models across countries and cultures has been widely expressed by many researchers (Hui and Triandis, 1985; Lee and Green, 1991), very few studies have actually addressed this issue. The author goes on to criticise those researchers who have assumed that models developed and tested in one country apply in other countries without actually validating model constructs and/or relationships among constructs, with the consequent risk of making invalid cross-national inferences.

The model proposed by Häubl (1996) and tested for its cross-national applicability was designed to examine the psychological structure of the effects of country-of-origin and brand name on French and German consumers’ evaluations of a new car, i.e. the Mercedes-Benz concept car Vision A. The study’s findings indicated that both the measurement of the constructs and the structural relationships in the model turned out to be invariant across the two countries, a finding which supports the author’s claim regarding the cross-national applicability of the model. An area suggested by the author for further research is the testing for brand by country interaction effects.

**The role of country image in consumer evaluation of products and product category extensions**

An investigation into the importance of country images in the formation of consumer product evaluations was carried out by d’Astous and Ahmed (1999). Their research had four objectives:
1. To measure salesmen’s direct perceptions of the relative importance given by consumers and by themselves to country-of-origin information in the context of a
specific purchase.

2. To compare salesmen’s direct perceptions of country-of-origin importance with importance weights derived from conjoint data gathered from them and from consumers.

3. To assess whether brand evaluations are affected by country-of-origin perceptions.

4. To make recommendations to global marketers and identify future research needs based on the findings.

Results of the study revealed that salesmen ranked country-of-origin (design and assembly) as the least important attribute from a set of attributes also including brand, price, and warranty. In their opinion, brand reputation was the most important factor when considering the purchase of the study’s selected product, a video cassette recorder. Salesmen also stated that country-of-origin was the least important attribute for consumers, and that they felt that consumers gave the greatest importance to price followed by brand reputation and warranty in that order.

The authors nuance these findings with the observation that salesmen and consumers may use brand name as a proxy for country-of-origin, which would explain why they do not attach great importance to country-of-origin information. This issue would appear to be worthy of further exploration, enriching as it would the twin areas of country-of-origin and brand management.

The role of country image in consumer evaluation of product category extensions was the subject of an investigation by Agarwal and Sikri (1996), whose main contention is that country images often consist of beliefs generalised at the product category level, especially in the case of well known product categories. The authors go on to assert that the utility of measuring country image as product category beliefs is supported by the finding that a product category level knowledge structure is often the one activated by the product’s country-of-origin (Hong and Wyer, 1990).

Agarwal and Sikri in their study sought to determine whether, which and to what extent the various dimensions of country image for a well known product category transfer to and influence perceptions of new products. Their findings suggest that there is considerable association between beliefs held for the most well known product category from a country and expectations for new products, and furthermore it was found that the transference of beliefs to the new products was greater when the perceived similarity between the well known product and the new product was higher. The three dimensions of country image considered by the authors were technology, price and prestige and as the authors themselves state, one limitation of their study is that the concept of country image needs further refinement in order to obtain a more robust identification and measurement of country image dimensionality.

**Need for cognition**

Zhang (1997) conducted a country-of-origin study focusing on the moderating function of individual difference in information processing, arguing that factors operating at the individual consumer’s psychological level may offer additional insight into how consumers process country-of-origin information. The salience of country-of-origin information to the consumer is, according to Zhang, dependent upon the individual consumer’s need for cognition with respect to their evaluation of a
product. If the consumer’s need for cognition (NFC) is low, country-of-origin is more influential in that consumer’s product evaluation; however, when consumer NFC is high, product evaluation is influenced primarily by the persuasive strength of the attribute arguments rather than by country-of-origin.

Zhang conceptualises NFC as a reflection of the fact that individuals who are intrinsically interested in analysing and processing discrete pieces of information and enjoy thinking about product-related information are more likely to evaluate products based on the relevance and strength of product attribute arguments, whereas individuals who enjoy the outcome rather than the process of thinking and prefer to think only as hard as needed will be less motivated to analyse attribute information presented to them and will instead be more likely to base their evaluation on such apparent characteristics as the favourableness of the country-of-origin (Zhang, 1997).

Results of the research revealed that the effects of country-of-origin are not uniform across people with different cognitive predispositions and that although the subjects generally evaluated a product from countries with favourable country images as better, the country-of-origin effect was especially strong with subjects who were not cognitively predisposed to evaluate the attributes of the product. However, the study’s findings should perhaps be treated with caution, as Zhang’s study suffers from the common weakness of much country-of-origin research, namely the use of student samples (192 undergraduate and graduate business students from a large metropolitan university in the northeastern part of the USA), and two other weaknesses should be noted: firstly, the artificial stimuli used in the study (print ads including a picture of the product, the attribute arguments and the country-of-origin information), and secondly, the use of fictional brand names. The study’s departure from reality is therefore considerable.

**Country-of-origin and the product life cycle**

An interesting avenue for country-of-origin research was explored by Niss (1996) in a study looking at country-of-origin marketing over the product life cycle. The study attempted to analyse the complex interplay between national images, product images and brand images and presented a conceptual framework for understanding the relationship between country images and product images.

It is argued that the symbolic attributes that are linked to brands and national images often form consistent patterns in which one attribute validates another and thus when a manufacturer introduces a new product in a foreign market, starting from scratch without an established brand image, there is a potential for intentional diffusion of favourable images based on the country-of-origin image, provided the country-of-origin enjoys an image which contains relevant image features suitable for the specific type of product and the targeted national segments. Niss’s main finding was that the use of country-of-origin references varied over the product life cycle. Country-of-origin references were found to be used more in the introduction stage of the product life cycle than in the growth and maturity stages.

The explanation offered by the author for this is that the main reason for using country-of-origin references at the beginning of the product life cycle is that it enables the exporter to penetrate the market in a quicker way than might otherwise be possible
using a brand name strategy. As the product life cycle progresses, however, the
tendency is for firms to turn away gradually from country-of-origin marketing
towards brand name marketing focusing on creating strong brands and distinctive
product images. Niss (1996) therefore makes a valuable contribution to the country-
of-origin literature by incorporating the marketing concept of the product life cycle
into the research field. A later study by Beverland and Lindgreen (2002), based upon
case studies for six agricultural marketing boards in New Zealand, supports the
contention that the use of country-of-origin is highly contextual and evolves over
time.

In what they term a dynamic approach to country-of-origin effect, a similar life cycle
perspective is taken by Lampert and Jaffe (1998), who introduce the concept of
product image life cycle and a dynamic model of country image. The authors show
how country image can change over time, giving the example of Japan whose country
image in the 1950s signified a cheap imitation of products made in industrialised
countries but whose image by the late 1990s is associated with high quality, excellent
workmanship and innovative products. This finding is in accordance with findings
from earlier studies conducted by Nagashima (1970; 1977) and Papadopoulos et al

Lampert and Jaffe’s model of a country’s product image life cycle proposes four
stages: preintroduction; introduction; growth; and maturity. In the preintroduction and
introduction phases, the main product image is the country-of-origin’s halo effect. As
the introduction phase develops into the growth stage, the country’s product image is
still dominated by the halo effect but brand image starts to become more salient,
replacing the halo effect for those who either bought or tried the brand in question.
During the maturity stage, consumer use and experience result in higher familiarity
with various brands and thus brand image dominates country halo effect.

These observations have implications for marketing strategists contemplating
introducing foreign brands into new markets, suggesting that use of the country-of-
origin cue may be more important during the initial stages of market entry but
diminishing in importance as brand familiarity increases. However, empirical testing
of Lampert and Jaffe’s model of a country’s product image life cycle will be
necessary before such conclusions can be asserted with credence.

Niss’s research (1996) was also built upon in a later study by Chaney (2002), in which
the level of understanding of certain countries as wine producers was examined. The
particular focus of Chaney’s study was the potential use of the generally positive
country image enjoyed by Switzerland in order to support the marketing efforts
promoting Swiss wine in export markets. Chaney concludes that although Swiss wine
does not enjoy a favourable image amongst foreign consumers, owing to the fact that
very little Swiss wine is currently exported, it should nevertheless be possible to
harness positive associations with the overall positive image of Switzerland for high
quality goods and thereby place a particular emphasis on Swiss wine as a high quality
beverage.

Such a strategy may be compared to that employed by the Scotland the Brand
organization in its activities aimed at diffusing an overall image of high quality for
goods and services from Scotland (www.scotbrand.net.org), where high quality
individual brands interact with a high quality existing country-of-origin image in a mutually reinforcing way.

**Offsetting a negative country-of-origin bias**

An alternative strategy for supporting the marketing of wines from countries that do not possess a positive existing reputation for that particular product is advanced by Olsen, Nowak and Clarke (2002), who investigate whether a negative country-of-origin bias facing imported wine can be offset when it is distributed in marketing channels alongside already accepted complimentary products. Specifically, the case is considered of Mexican wine being introduced to consumers in a Mexican restaurant versus a more generally themed contemporary restaurant.

The authors found that consumers in a Mexican theme restaurant were significantly more likely to purchase Mexican wine than were consumers in a more generally themed restaurant, although there were no differences in terms of intentions to purchase the wine for use at home. From these findings the authors conclude that Mexican wine producers should focus on establishing relationships with foreign wine distributors who are willing to focus on obtaining produce placements in Mexican food restaurants. This may be regarded as an interesting contribution to the country-of-origin literature in that it illustrates the potential for a trade-based rather than consumer-based approach to bolstering the effective use of country-of-origin as an extrinsic product cue.

**Cultural similarity and country-of-origin**

The influence of culture, product types and product presentation format on Chinese consumers’ evaluation of foreign products was examined by Zhang (1996) through interviewing a sample of 300 shoppers in Beijing. A realistic setting (a large shopping centre) and the shopping mall intercept procedure were used to enhance the realism of the study.

Results of the research revealed that, contrary to the arguments by some researchers that similarity in cultural and belief systems may foster a more positive country-of-origin image, it appeared that country-of-origin images influenced Chinese consumers’ product evaluations independent of cultural influences. That is, given that the culturally dissimilar Japan and the USA both enjoyed more highly positive country-of-origin images in the minds of Chinese consumers than did the culturally more similar South Korea, Zhang concludes that rather than cultural similarity acting as a positive factor influencing the choice of a product, it is the status of the country-of-origin as a developed economy that makes it attractive to Chinese buyers. It is evident from the study that there is much scope for future research into the cultural influences operating on country-of-origin evaluations.

**An assessment of demand artefacts in country-of-origin studies**

An assessment of demand artefacts in country-of-origin studies using three alternative approaches was carried out by Lim and Darley (1997) in order to determine how the use of different methodologies may influence country-of-origin effects found in different types of study. The authors chose a colour television as the product for their
study because that is the most commonly used product in country-of-origin studies and many colour television sets sold in the USA, where the study took place, are imported from other countries. Two countries were selected as country-of-origin, Japan and Mexico. These countries were chosen as they represent two extremes of favourability towards electronic products, Japan being a high image country and Mexico a low image country. 254 undergraduate students participated in the study.

Lim and Darley found that in a multi-cue list format condition where country-of-origin is presented in the form of a list of attributes, subjects are less likely to focus on the country-of-origin cue although it could still be perceived as a salient cue and that in such a situation, there is still the likelihood that subjects may evaluate the descriptive list and not the product per se, since the subject may assume that the researcher abstracted only those attributes that the subject ought to use in making inferences.

The authors conclude that there exists a need for experimental realism in experimental manipulation, as when a more realistic experimental stimulus is presented, subjects internalise the experimental treatment and this leads to a more accurate test of theoretical relationships. Experimental realism (presenting the country-of-origin cue in a natural and realistic manner, such as an advertisement or a tangible product) together with unobtrusive procedures may, suggest the authors, be the best route to effectively control demand artefacts in country-of-origin studies.

**Country-of-origin as a complex extrinsic product cue**

Schaefer (1997) looked at various dimensions of consumer knowledge and how they impact on consumers’ use of the country-of-origin cue in evaluations of alcoholic beverages. Unlike price and warranty, country-of-origin is held by the author to be a fairly complex cue whose meaning must be learnt for different product classes. The study differs from previous ones in that it concentrates exclusively on extrinsic product information cues (brand name and country-of-origin being the two cues used in this study) and as it investigates a fast-moving consumer good (lager) rather than durables. A fast-moving consumer good was chosen because country-of-origin effects in this area are comparatively under-researched.

Schaefer’s results revealed that brand familiarity did not reduce the importance of or reliance on country-of-origin as a salient cue for consumers in their evaluation of lager, and that more knowledgeable consumers may be more sensitive to a product’s country-of-origin than less knowledgeable consumers. These findings indicate that consumers may rely on an extrinsic cue such as country-of-origin in their evaluation of a low-involvement product such as lager; however, more research is needed to determine whether consumers would be willing to rely on an extrinsic cue like country-of-origin in their evaluation of a more high-involvement product such as a car.

**Existing reviews of the country-of-origin literature**

In a wide ranging and comprehensive literature review of country-of-origin effects in studies published between 1965 and early 1997, Al-Sulaiti and Baker (1998) found that consumer perceptions differ significantly on the basis of product/service and
country-of-origin, although the question of how much influence the country-of-origin provides in product and service evaluations remains unanswered.

Two weaknesses of the existing country-of-origin research noted by the authors are, firstly, the small number of studies which have examined the impact of country-of-origin effects on the consumption and evaluation of services, and secondly, the tendency of those few studies on services and country-of-origin to focus upon services in the West rather than in the rest of the world. Al-Sulaiti and Baker’s literature review therefore contributes to the country-of-origin literature by indicating several areas for future research.

An additional review of the country-of-origin literature was conducted by Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999), who focused upon cognitive, affective, and normative aspects of country-of-origin. The authors found that country-of-origin has a larger effect on perceived quality than on attitude toward the product or purchase intention. An important observation made by Verlegh and Steenkamp is that country-of-origin is not merely a cognitive cue for product quality, but also relates to emotions, identity, pride and autobiographical memories. The authors suggest that more research is needed on the symbolic and emotional aspects of country-of-origin.

**Contextualised product-place images**

Building on the concept of product-country image advanced by Papadopoulos and Heslop (1993), Askegaard and Ger (1998) discuss the application of stereotype and semiotic theory to research in country-of-origin and product-country images, arguing in particular that analyses of images attached to a product and its place(s) of origin must use a richer set of connotations and stereotypes than is used in standard approaches, and that such images are context-dependent, i.e. must be understood in relation to the imagery of the local market and the relevant usage or consumption pattern.

Askegaard and Ger sought to explore how images of product and place of origin combine to form a whole and suggested that the processing and effects of product-country images will be context-specific, depending on motivation, affect, and the symbolic values regarding the product category/country-consumer relationships. The authors’ view is that this calls for a non-positivistic, interpretative approach (see Appendix 3) to such imagery and they go on to propose place, product, market context, and usage context as the four dimensions in a conceptual model of contextualised product-place images (CPPI).

Askegaard and Ger’s conclusion is that a semiotic approach to product-country images would inscribe product-country image research in a long and established tradition of meaning construction as well as add an important social and contextual validity to it. The concept of contextualised product-place images (CPPI) is a significant advance for the country-of-origin area through its acknowledgement of cultural context in consumers’ product evaluations.

**Country-of-origin and stereotyping**
Further research into country-of-origin and stereotypes was conducted by Lotz and Hu (2001) in a study which empirically tested whether theories from the social stereotype change literature, known as subtyping and conversion theories, are effective in diluting consumers’ negative country-of-origin stereotypes.

Lotz and Hu found that it may be possible to reduce negative country-of-origin beliefs merely through exposing consumers to disconfirming product information and that this can be achieved by country-level policies that encourage the production of, and then publicising, exceptional quality products emanating from the country that wishes to dilute its negative country-of-origin perceptions.

The findings obtained by Lotz and Hu also chime with the view of Anholt (2003), who emphasises the potentially powerful role to be played by high quality branded exports in raising overall country image perceptions, most critically in the case of developing nations which have yet to acquire positive reputations on the global economic stage.

Within-country diversity

Burgess and Harris (1999) drew attention to within-country diversity, which they consider to be an entirely neglected issue in country-of-origin research, by examining the link between social identity and brand preference in South Africa. Their examination of social identity in an emerging consumer market is a rare example of a study in the country-of-origin area which also takes into consideration the concept of national identity, which they define as a subset of social identity.

Another interesting aspect of Burgess and Harris’ study is its focus on South Africa rather than the usual Western nations that have formed the basis of the vast majority of existing country-of-origin research (see Appendix 2). While acknowledging the probability that South African within-country diversity was accentuated by five decades of apartheid rule, the authors believe that social identity theory suggests that a previous colonial heritage or rapid sociopolitical or economic change potentially creates social forces in any emerging consumer market that may intensify awareness and processing of social identity perceptions and the striving for positive social identity.

The influence of national identity on consumer behaviour—widely ignored in the existing country-of-origin literature—is believed by Burgess and Harris to be moderated by the rapid change that characterises life in emerging consumer markets; national identity may also hold special importance where nation and state are less equivalent. This broaching of the issue of national identity and its relevance to country-of-origin research opens up promising avenues for further research.

Recognising the importance of within-country diversity, an important conceptual advance in the country-of-origin literature (see Table 1) was made by Lenartowicz and Roth (2001), who placed an emphasis not usually found in the country-of-origin literature upon the importance of subcultures within a country. The basic assertion made by the authors is that although values models have been used in previous cross-cultural studies, the cultural groupings have been commonly defined by national borders.
This observation throws into question the generalisability of many claims made in previous country-of-origin research, where studies purport to measure attitudes, opinions, beliefs, purchase intentions, and so on of consumers from a certain country when in fact there may exist several distinct subcultural groupings within a single country whose characteristics differ significantly from each other.

Taking up and developing this theme and placing it explicitly in the centre of the country-of-origin research domain, Laroche et al (2003) declare that most cross-cultural studies on country-of-origin or product-country image effects have implicitly assumed that national markets are composed of homogeneous consumers and that although many investigations in this field are described as cross-cultural, most are in fact cross-national (see Table 1). This observation opens up interesting perspectives on the fragmenting nature of identity in the postmodern world, an issue which has relevance to segmentation of target markets – it may be considered necessary to segment consumers along cultural, rather than simply national lines when developing marketing strategies based on the country-of-origin cue.

Country-of-origin and level of product involvement

Zafar et al (2004) addressed the issue of whether country-of-origin matters for low-involvement products. This is clearly an important issue for national branding organisations such as Scotland the Brand (www.scotbrand.net.org) which invite companies from a wide range of product and service sectors to apply for use of a ‘Made in …’ quality assurance logo. If consumers do not attach importance to country-of-origin for low-involvement goods, then it would be an ineffective use of resources for companies producing such goods to invest in the use of a provenance logo.

Zafar et al’s empirical study focused on consumers’ attitudes to two low-involvement products, bread and coffee, in Singapore, a newly-industrialised nation. The study examined the influence of country-of-origin relative to other product attributes in consumers’ evaluation of domestic and foreign food products. The results indicated that country-of-origin does matter when consumers evaluate low-involvement products but, in the presence of other extrinsic cues (price and brand), the impact of country-of-origin is weak and brand becomes the determinant factor. An additional finding from the study was that a country’s positive image in some product categories does not necessarily carry over to other product categories.

Use of the country-of-origin cue in global marketing

Another interesting and important development in the conceptualization of the country-of-origin construct lies in the introduction of a geopolitical dimension into the study of brands in the global market. Quelch (2003) takes a wider view than the majority of studies looking at country-of-origin and observes that growing anti-American sentiment throughout the world, coupled to the emergence of China as a player on the world economic stage, represent two factors that will affect the degree to which global marketing will make explicit use of the country-of-origin cue.
Quelch predicts that the resentment that is driving global consumers away from American brands like Coke may never fully dissipate, and therefore national American brands like Coke can be expected to put increasing distance between themselves and the flag. Such brands will, according to Quelch, reposition themselves as supranational brands in order to avoid the negative consequences of associating themselves too closely with a disliked country-of-origin.

By placing country-of-origin in the context of international relations between nation states, Quelch makes a significant contribution to the country-of-origin field (see Table 1) and one may expect further studies in the future to investigate in more depth the extent to which geopolitical events and circumstances play a role in consumers’ and citizens’ evaluation of country-of-origin. This may also be regarded as an indicator of the importance of individual nations to take a proactive stance in managing perceptions of their country image, rather than leaving themselves at the mercy of geopolitical events beyond their control.

From an economics perspective, a further link between the constructs of country-of-origin and nation branding is developed by Chisik (2003) whose conceptual study of country-of-origin reputation proposes that the pattern of international trade can be determined by the reputational comparative advantage enjoyed by otherwise similar countries. In order for a country to achieve such a reputational comparative advantage, Chisik advocates governmental subsidy to firms in order to improve the technical competence of the labour force, thus reducing firms’ cost of adding human capital. Chisik also suggests that policymakers at national level could support technical and scientific research and thereby reduce this high-quality capital cost. These proposals are broadly in line with the strategy outlined in the Scottish Executive’s ‘A Smart Successful Scotland’ document (2001).

Conclusions and Discussion

Having reviewed the existing country-of-origin literature, a number of conclusions can be drawn regarding the nature of the research undertaken thus far in the area. These conclusions are presented under the following three subheadings: Conceptualisation of the country-of-origin construct; Methodological poverty in country-of-origin studies; and finally, Issues for future research.

Conceptualisation of the country-of-origin construct

From the relatively simplistic early studies of country-of-origin effects, relying on single cue methods treating country-of-origin in isolation from other attributes, there have been significant conceptual advances in more recent country-of-origin studies (see Table 1). The term country-of-origin, whilst still in widespread use, has been refined by various authors as they attempt to define more accurately the concepts in play. Schooler and Sunoo’s (1969) study, for example, explored the possibility that regional labelling might benefit from more positive consumer perceptions than national labelling. Nagashima (1970; 1977) made an important contribution to the literature by demonstrating through a longitudinal study that country image is dynamic rather than static in nature, although surprisingly little research has been conducted subsequently into measuring this phenomenon.
Present day studies into country-of-origin effects have been largely influenced by the term product-country image (PCI) proposed by Papadopoulos (1993) in order to reflect the effect of economic globalisation on country-of-origin perceptions. With manufacture and assembly of many products now taking place outwith the country of brand, e.g. Toyota cars being manufactured in the USA, Papadopoulos contends that it is misleading to talk of a single country-of-origin.

Further contributions to the conceptual development of the country-of-origin construct were made by Thakor and Kohli (1996) in their study on brand origin, and by Askegaard and Ger (1998) in their advocacy of the term contextualised product-place image (CPPI). Thakor and Kohli’s term brand origin refers to the place, region or country to which the brand is perceived to belong by its target consumers. Such perceptions may not always coincide with reality—the beer brand Stella Artois, for instance, is originally from Belgium, uses French imagery in its advertising, and for the UK market is brewed and bottled in England.

Askegaard and Ger’s term CPPI offers perhaps one of the most useful conceptual contributions to the country-of-origin literature, in its consideration of the richness and diversity of connotations and stereotypes that must be examined in analysing the images attached to specific products and places. Unlike many country-of-origin studies, their conceptualisation of CPPI takes into account cultural context, and also is innovative in its use of qualitative rather than quantitative methodology.

More recent conceptual contributions to the country-of-origin literature have come from Javalgi, Cutler and Winans (2001) who address the dearth of studies relating to the marketing of services rather than tangible products; Lenartowicz and Roth (2001) and Laroche et al (2003) whose studies focus upon the effects of within-country subcultures in relation to use of the country-of-origin cue; Parameswaran and Pisharodi’s (2002) investigation into acculturation and assimilation processes of immigrants in culturally heterogeneous societies; Quelch’s (2003) paper placing geopolitical concerns into the domain of the country-of-origin literature; and finally, Chisik’s (2003) research into country-of-origin reputational comparative advantage.

**Methodological poverty in country-of-origin studies**

The overwhelming majority of country-of-origin studies have used quantitative rather than qualitative techniques (see Appendix 2). The paucity of studies using qualitative methodology may be regarded as having contributed to the weaknesses in the country-of-origin literature noted in the course of this review, in particular the narrow focus upon predetermined product categories and country image dimensions. As a consequence of this lack of exploratory research into the multidimensional nature of the country-of-origin construct, a majority of studies in the field have employed quantitative techniques to measure a limited set of categories; the use of product category dimensions such as ‘reliability’ and ‘serviceability’, for example, could be viewed as a remarkably superficial way in which to measure such a richly diverse concept as country image.

In terms of internal validity, many country-of-origin studies are open to criticism on the grounds that they failed to employ triangulation among complementary methods, as well as failing to use measures that reflect the constructs in play, e.g. the use of
product category dimensions to measure country image. As regards external validity, the sampling techniques employed in many country-of-origin studies severely threaten the generalisability of the conclusions reached. The recurring use of non-probability student samples is characteristic of the country-of-origin literature; in most cases, sampling has not been theoretically diverse enough to encourage broader applicability of many research findings.

A rare exception to the use of student samples in country-of-origin research can be seen in Piron’s study (2000) of the country-of-origin effect with respect to consumers’ purchasing intentions towards conspicuous or inconspicuous products. In Piron’s study, in order to maximise sample representativeness of the general adult population, all adults sitting outside of office buildings and shopping malls on the days, times and locations selected to collect data were asked to complete the study questionnaire. The researchers attempted to avoid the potential bias that could have occurred had they collected data at a single office area at a single time on a single day, by collecting data at different malls and office areas. This was done to enhance the generalisability of the findings, and may therefore be regarded as an example of good practice in country-of-origin research.

A further, striking deficiency in the country-of-origin literature lies in the limited range of countries used in manipulation of the country-of-origin cue (see Appendix 2). Countries most often studied include the USA, Japan and Germany. There is, for example, a total absence of academic studies focusing upon Scotland as a country-of-origin cue. This represents a gap in the literature which future research may help fill.

**Issues for future research**

The present review of the country-of-origin literature has identified a number of directions for future research. The main issues for future research include the following:

- **Country-of-origin effects should be examined in relation to services and not exclusively in relation to tangible products;** for example, the extent to which the nationality associated with a service provider influences consumer decision making with regard to service selection has been an under-researched area.
- **Qualitative research methodology has been under-utilised in comparison with quantitative techniques.** The application of qualitative techniques may contribute to further conceptual advances in the country-of-origin literature.
- **Contextualised product-place image (CPPI) may prove a useful concept but needs to be examined across a range of product/service categories.**
- **Further research is needed into whether country-of-origin effects operate differently according to socioeconomic/psychographic characteristics.**
- **The concept of country image needs further refinement in order to obtain a more robust identification and measurement of country image dimensionality.** This requires a cultural dimension to be taken into consideration when focusing on country image; the national identity literature has been neglected thus far by almost all country-of-origin studies, despite the fact that culture is a central issue in the national identity literature.
- **Further examination is required of the relationship between brand management and country-of-origin.**
- The relative salience of country-of-origin cues for household and organisational buyers has attracted little attention in the literature.
- The conceptualisation of brand origin rather than country-of-origin may represent a more useful analytical tool in the formulation of effective marketing strategies.
- The use of ethnocentrism as a basis for marketing segmentation merits further investigation, as this has direct implications for campaigns aimed at encouraging consumers to buy locally rather than foreign produced goods.
- The significance of country-of-origin as an extrinsic product cue for FMCGs has been under-researched; the overwhelming majority of country-of-origin studies have focused upon consumer durables such as television sets, microwave ovens, cars, etc.
- The question of whether the country-of-origin effect operates differently on low-involvement as opposed to high-involvement products/services has not been researched in depth, and may provide significant insights.

Summary

This paper has reviewed the country-of-origin literature, tracing the development of research in this field and identifying three major chronological phases in the evolution of country-of-origin studies. The country-of-origin literature is extensive and frequently contradictory in its claims and conclusions. For example, Samli (1995) posits that the country-of-origin concept may be regarded as a critical information cue, which plays a major role in having the product accepted in different world markets. However, other research suggests that the importance of the country-of-origin cue may have been overstated (Johansson et al, 1985). Ongoing research is clearly warranted in this area.

This review of the literature has revealed that the overwhelming majority of country-of-origin studies have been quantitative rather than qualitative in nature. Most studies have also been heavily biased towards consumer durables, with little focus on the role of country-of-origin in services marketing. There has also been a distinctly anglocentric approach taken to studying the country-of-origin phenomenon, with a limited range of countries studied as country-of-origin cues.
References


Burgess, S.M. and Harris, M. (1999), “Social identity in an emerging consumer market: how you do the wash may say a lot about who you think you are”, *Advances in Consumer Research*, 26, pp 170-175


Madden, N. (2003), “Brand origin not major factor for most Asians”, *Advertising Age*, Iss 74, No 14, p 33


Reierson, C.C. (1966), “Are Foreign Products Seen as National Stereotypes?”,


*European Journal of Marketing*, Vol 31, No 1 / 2, pp 56-72

*Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol 2, No 4, pp 394-397

products”, *Social Science Quarterly*, Vol 49, March, pp 886-90

in the US”, *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol 2, No 1, pp 71-81

Scottish Executive (2001), *A Smart Successful Scotland*, 30 January,
www.scotland.gov.uk/publications


validation of the CETSCALE”, *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol 24, August, pp
280-289

effects in buyer decision making: A relationship perspective”,
*Journal of Business-to-

education”, *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol 10, No 2, pp 139-146

Press, Cambridge, England

Consumers’ Perceptions of Quality, Sacrifice, and Value”,
*Academy of Marketing Science Journal*, Vol 28, No 2, pp 278-290


Tajfel, H. (Ed.), *Social Identity and Intergroup Relations*, Cambridge University
Press, Cambridge, England


### Appendix 1

Product/service categories investigated in country-of-origin studies 1994-2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AUTHOR</th>
<th>PRODUCT/SERVICE CATEGORY INVESTIGATED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Niss, H. (1996)</td>
<td>Foodstuffs and dairy produce; agricultural products; design goods and furniture; industrially manufactured products; financial services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhang, Y. (1996)</td>
<td>Shirts, televisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhang, Y. (1997)</td>
<td>Personal computers, luggage sets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burgess, S.M. and Harris, M. (1999)</td>
<td>Cigarettes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knight, G.A. (1999)</td>
<td>Microwave ovens and dishes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gurhan-Canli, Z. and Maheswaran, D. (2000b)</td>
<td>Video cassette recorders, stereo systems and televisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kent, H.A. and Walker, R.H. (2000)</td>
<td>Brand New Zealand (formerly The New Zealand Way); Brand Tasmania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chao, P. (2001)</td>
<td>Televisions and stereos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lim, K. and O’Cass, A. (2001)</td>
<td>Fashion clothing brands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lotz, S.L. and Hu, M.Y. (2001)</td>
<td>35mm cameras</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajshekhar, G.J., Cutler, B.D. and</td>
<td>Services in general</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Publication Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Winans, W.</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silva, R.M.V.D., Davies, G. and Naude, P.</td>
<td>2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ahmed, Z.U. et al.</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goldberg, M.E. and Baumgartner, H.</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klein, J.G.</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kleppe, I.A., Iversen, N.M. and Stensaker, I.G.</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loeffler, M.</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olsen, S.O. and Olsson, U.H.</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Srikatanyoo, N. and Gnoth, J.</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zarkada-Fraser, A. and Fraser, C.</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mort, G.S. and Duncan, M.</td>
<td>2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhou, L. and Hui, M.K.</td>
<td>2003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix 2

Countries used in manipulation of the country-of-origin cue 1994-2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AUTHOR</th>
<th>COUNTRIES USED IN MANIPULATION OF COUNTRY-OF-ORIGIN CUE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parameswaran, R. and Pisharodi, R.M. (1994)</td>
<td>Germany, Korea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chung, K.K. (1995)</td>
<td>Japan, USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harrison-Walker, L.J. (1995)</td>
<td>USA, India, Japan, Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lantz, G. and Loeb, S. (1996)</td>
<td>USA, Canada, Mexico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Häubl, G. (1996)</td>
<td>Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhang, Y. (1996)</td>
<td>USA, Japan, South Korea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhang, Y. (1997)</td>
<td>USA, Mexico, Japan, Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zain, O.M. and Yasin, N.M. (1997)</td>
<td>Russia, Turkey, USA, China, Japan, India, Uzbekistan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lim, J.-S. and Darley, W.K. (1997)</td>
<td>Japan, Mexico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schaefer, A. (1997)</td>
<td>Australia, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Germany, The Netherlands, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burgess, S.M. and Harris, M. (1999)</td>
<td>South Africa, USA, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barnabas, A.A. and Elimimian, J.U. (1999)</td>
<td>UK, USA, Japan, Ghana, Taiwan, Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D'Astous, A. and Ahmed, S.A. (1999)</td>
<td>Belgium, Brazil, Canada, France, Germany, India, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Morocco, Russia, South Korea, USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hadjimarcou, J. and Hu, M.Y. (1999)</td>
<td>Germany, Mexico, Japan, Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knight, G.A. (1999)</td>
<td>USA, Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinen, K., Jun, M. and Hampton, G.M. (2000)</td>
<td>India, Indonesia, Spain, Norway, Greece, Israel, Sweden, Canada, Great Britain, Japan, Germany, United States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knight, G.A. and Calantone, R.J. (2000)</td>
<td>Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohamad, O. et al (2000)</td>
<td>France, Italy, Switzerland, Japan, UK, USA, Malaysia, Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand, Hong Kong, Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lotz, S.L. and Hu, M.Y. (2001)</td>
<td>South Korea, Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goldberg, M.E. and Baumgartner, H. (2002)</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zarkada-Fraser, A. and Fraser, C. (2002)</td>
<td>Australia, USA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 3
Quantitative/qualitative methodology used in country-of-origin studies 1994-2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AUTHOR</th>
<th>METHODOLOGY USED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Häubl, G. (1996)</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niss, H. (1996)</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhang, Y. (1996)</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhang, Y. (1997)</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zain, O.M. and Yasin, N.M. (1997)</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burgess, S.M. and Harris, M. (1999)</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knight, G.A. (1999)</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gurhan-Canli, Z. and Maheswaran, D. (2000a)</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piron, F. (2000)</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>