"THE EFFECTS OF COUNTRY-OF-ORIGIN IMAGE ON CONSUMER PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT: A PAKISTANI UNIVERSITY TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVE"

A thesis submitted to University of Salford in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

AMNA SHAHZAD

SALFORD BUSINESS SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY OF SALFORD, MANCHESTER, JULY, 2014

DEDICATION

My research and every success are dedicated to these three most important people in my life:

Hazrat Mohammad (PBUH) – my beloved prophet and father of the Ummah, who gave the vision, freedom and respect to the women in Islam. I am proud to be a Muslim woman who loves Him immensely.

Rana Ayaz Mahmood – my beloved father, who always showed me the path of righteous, being follower of our Holy Prophet (PBUH) showered his love over me as a daughter, fought with the culture and society, and, gave me education, confidence, courage and motivation, to fight for my rights and to achieve what I got. Abu you are a shining star for me, no matter if you are not around me in this world now, but I strongly believe that you have knowledge of my achievements and are happy for me. I love you.

Mrs Naseem Akhtar – my beloved mother, who always nurtured me with love and guided me through thick and thins of life. Thanks for being a constant support and treasure full of prayers and love. I am indebted to you for being great source of encouragement and inspiration. Ammi your prayers make me stand strong, firm and tall on my feet. At this last stage of your Cancer, your bravery, courage, patience and fight is inspirational. The completion of my PhD was not possible without your prayers. I love you.

Table of Contents

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all I am thankful to Allah the Almighty who has blessed me in so many ways. In all my life Allah has taken all my decisions and enlightened the right direction for me very compassionately. I am gratified and feel fortunate for every wish He granted with bliss.

Second most importantly, I am gratified to my supervisor Dr. Jonathan Swift - the mentor, the guru, who always supported me, encouraged me and kept faith in my abilities. I am able to complete my thesis just because of your kind guidance and support.

Big thanks for the prayers of my beloved Chachu, who is a fatherly figure for me. I feel blessed when you pray for my success. I am thankful to Shahzad– my beloved husband, against the norms and values of the society you always encouraged me to take up my passion for marketing research and stood beside me. At times you played a role of chef, dishwasher, baby sitter, cleaner, shopper and above all a friend who understands my needs and showed unconditional support. I am a proud wife who is blessed by Almighty immensly in terms of your love and care. I am also thankful to Abdullah and Raahim – my adorable sons who stand as symbols of joy, light and colours in my life. I am a proud mum who takes a rare kind of energy and motivation from you two and with the support of your smiles, ready to go through anything in life.

Another important person in my appreciation and acknowledgement list is my special friend Dr. Noshaba Batool for providing the unconditional support. Thanks for playing the roles of facilitator, proof reader, guide, constant helper, maid, cook, baby sitter and care taker of my house.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

COOIPC - Country of Origin Image in a Product Category

COOIED - Country of Origin Image in terms of Economic Development

LCPI – Low Consumer Product Involvement

HCPI - High Consumer Product Involvement

CE - Consumer Ethnocentrism

CIA - Consumer Intention to Adopt

ABSTRACT

This study aims at investigating the consumer behaviour (of University teachers) in Pakistan with reference to the effects and association of country-of-origin (COO) image on consumer product involvement. In order to have in-depth insights, the construct of COO-image is studied in terms of the country's economic development and in a certain product category. The study explores the effects and association of the two phenomena. Furthermore, the effects of the COO-image in terms of country's economic development and COO-image in a product category on low and high consumer product involvement are studied. Finally, the study measures the moderating effects of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer intention to adopt (in terms of innovativeness) on the effects of COO-image in a product category and COO-image in terms of economic development on low and high consumer product involvement.

Due to the nature of study, a positivist approach is adopted and followed a quantitative research strategy. The data is collected using survey technique based on questionnaires. The study sample population is university academicians. 1509 university academicians from various cities in Pakistan took part in the study by completing the questionnaire. The data is then analysed using descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and regression analysis. The study establishes that highly educated and affluent Pakistani consumers are so strongly influenced by the COO-image (especially in terms of country's economic development) that their ethnocentrism and intentions to adopt lose significance in order to contribute in shaping their attitude and behaviour related to both low and high involvement products (food and drinks, and automobiles respectively).

The current study is one of few similar studies conducted in a developing country, especially Pakistan. The current study offers valuable empirical insights into the effects of the COO-image (especially with reference to a developing country perspective). The findings will be significant to the COO research as well as the businesses operating in developing countries such as Pakistan.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The current era of globalisation has placed considerable emphasis on aspects of international business and international marketing. Almost every country has witnessed the import and/or export of foreign goods and services, however the acceptance or rejection of these are really vital for not only companies but also the countries producing them. The organisations that have a global presence need to be really vigilant regarding the management of manufacturing country associations. That is the reason why the concept of country-of origin (COO) is of high importance. This construct has been extensively researched over decades in relation to various other variables of international marketing, consumer behaviour and branding.

Researchers have believed that the COO is important in international marketing in the current era of globalisation (Josiassen and Harzing 2008; Usunier and Cestre 2008; Samiee 2010; Zeugner-Roth and Diamantopoulos 2010; Samiee and Leonidou 2011; Usunier 2011). Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2006:29) defined the COO as "…the country which a consumer associates a certain product or brand as being its source, regardless of where the product is actually produced". The COO effect is refered to bias or influence on product risk perception, product evaluation and buying intention (Diamantopoulos and Zeugner-Roth 2011).

The image of the COO is very important as it may be actual or just a perception of the consumer. Martin and Eroglu (1993) linked the notion of COO-image to information pertaining to the image of the place where the product is made. Researchers and marketers are

interested in measuring the associated perceived image with the COO of a product (Parameswaran and Pisharodi, 1994). Roth and Romeo (1992) have defined the COO-image as the consumer perception of a product from a particular country based on the prior perceptions of the country's marketing and production strengths and weaknesses. These COO-images can be based on the country stereotypes, as some countries have gained recognition in manufacturing specific products such as France for perfumes, Belgium for chocolates, Japan and Germany for automobiles etc. This COO-image in a specific product category influences the consumers' perceived product risk and quality. Especially in the absence of the established brand name, the COO works as a brand name and affects consumer perceptions and product evaluations. Another dimension of the COO-image is in terms of its economic development. Consumers tend to believe that products manufactured in developed countries are of higher quality than those from developing countries. Interestingly, this country bias is a world-wide phenomenon.

The consumers' feelings of patriotism in terms of buying locally-made products are usually referred to as 'consumer ethnocentrism'. These feelings are based on the question of social appropriateness of the use of foreign products in conformity to social circles (Khan, 2012). Also, it can harm local manufacturers, employment and economies. Another dimension of consumer ethnocentrism is the superiority consumers attribute to products from their home country and the pride they feel in using them. Consumers who have a high level of ethnocentricity tend to dislike foreign products and prefer their domestic products over imported ones; conversely, consumers with low ethnocentrism are more likely to accept foreign products (Klein, 2002). This consumer bias with reference to high consumer

ethnocentrism presents itself as a considerable barrier for foreign products to enter certain markets. With reference to international business and marketing, it is very important to understand consumer ethnocentrism, what role it plays and how it influences perceptions. Existing research has provided evidence that consumer ethnocentrism is an antecedent of country-of-origin evaluations (Gürhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000). Ethnocentrism can significantly affect consumers' perceptions of products' COO and *vice versa*. The two have strong inter-association. However, if it is assumed that buying is a cognitive process in which consumers take time in thinking before arriving at a buying decision, product-attributes become more important than their ethnocentrism.

Consumers buy products based on their needs or on a desire to enhance their image, but there can be a distinction based on their involvement. Consumer involvement in products is based on the strength of their need, what they are ready to pay to fill it, and, what kind of risks are associated with that purchase (Schiffman *et al*., 2008; Choubtarash; 2013). It also includes the extent to which they undertake an information search and the sources of information used, all related to the product and its usage; and how vigilant they are in their buying decision making process. All these factors contribute towards the level of consumer involvement. If the consumer product involvement level is low, they will not undertake an extensive information search or cost-benefit analysis, as the costs and risks associated with this purchase would not be very high. Usually, low consumer involvement products are used on a regular daily basis. The buying behaviour associated to this kind of purchase is may be impulsive (Reynolds and Olson, 2001). On the other hand, when the consumer product involvement level is high, they actively search for product related information regarding its intrinsic attributes, such as

3

characteristics, benefits, etc and its extrinsic attributes such as price, COO-image etc. These high involvement products are usually associated with high costs and risks, which is why considerable thought and evaluation is involved in their purchase decision making. High consumer involvement products are used on rare occasions, and consumed exceptionally and infrequently. The buying behaviour associated with this kind of purchase is information seeking.

Consumers generally base their buying behaviour on their own mindset, which is usually related to their innovativeness. Some consumers are always considering the use of new or unusual products (Hirunyawipada and Paswan, 2006). These consumers are novelty seeking and could present themselves as an opportunity for the companies that have their positioning based on innovativeness. These consumers usually show an early intention to adopt a new or foreign product. Generally, consumer intention to adopt is used as a dependent variable for most of the COO and research studies (Samiee *et al.*, 2005; Diamantopoulos *et al*., 2011). It has been also used as dependent variable for studies conducted on consumer ethnocentrism, and for research related to consumer product involvement levels, both low and high. Research has suggested that the consumers who are mostly young, affluent and educated, show early intentions to adopt new/foreign products based on their high innovativeness and many have impulsive buying behaviour (Xie, 2008). Consumers with low innovativeness, being risk averse, generally take longer over their information search, are strongly influenced by their peers, friends and family, and show information seeking behaviour. Also, ethnocentrism might have little or no influence on the decision making of highly innovative consumers and more on the decision making of less innovative consumers.

It was interesting to see how all these variables function, what kind of associations and relationships they have among them, and what kind of effects they have on each other. To fill the gaps in the existing body of research, the current research has taken the COO-image in a product category and the COO-image in terms of economic development, as independent variables. The consumer intention to adopt and consumer ethnocentrism were taken as moderating variables. Finally, levels of low and high consumer product involvement were taken as dependent variables. Most of the related research has been conducted in developed countries, with a very few exceptions. Therefore, in order to have a perspective of a developing country, the current research was conducted in Pakistan.

The two aspects of country-of-origin (COO): COO-image in terms of economic development and COO-image in a certain product category were selected for the study due to their significance in shaping up the consumer behaviour. The COO-image in terms of economic development represents the COO-image at the macro level, and COO-image in a certain product category represents the COO-image at the micro level. The COO-image of a product in terms of the economic development (which is macro level) refers to the country's economic conditions, levels of technological advancement, educated and expert workforce etc. The COO-image of a product in a product category (which is micro level) refers to the country's positioning in a certain product category on the basis of innovation, workmanship, and product features etc.

The existing research has either taken macro level of COO-image or micro level of COO-image into consideration with few exceptions. Also, most of this research is conducted in developed countries. So it was very important to not only examine the individual impacts of the two, association between the two, and draw the comparison between their impacts; but also to base this research in a developing country such as Pakistan to have a developing country perspective. Pakistan really lacks in marketing research especially with reference to COO-image and its implications. By exploring COO with reference to its macro and micro aspects, a huge gap is filled in Pakistani business research. Pakistan is a huge market with promising market share for foreign companies and this kind of research can help those companies to better understand the consumer attitudes, perception and behaviours with reference to the COO.

1.1. Aim of Research

The aim of the current research is:

"To investigate the consumer behaviour (of University teachers) in Pakistan with reference to the effects and association of country-of-origin image in terms of country's economic development, and in a certain product category, on consumers' product involvement levels: low and high, and its implications".

1.2. Research Objectives

Following are the objectives of the current research:

1. To explore the effects and association of the COO-image in terms of country's economic development and COO-image in a certain product category.
2. To gauge the effects of the COO-image in terms of country's economic development and COO-image in a certain product category, on low and high consumer product involvement levels.
3. To measure the moderating effects of consumer ethnocentrism on the relationship of the COO-image in terms of economic development, the COO-image in a certain product category and, low and high consumer product involvement levels.
4. To measure the moderating effects of consumer intention to adopt on the relationship of the COO-image in terms of economic development, the COO-image in a certain product category and, low and high consumer product involvement levels.

1.3. Flow of Research Process

The current research process was started with the critical review of the literature related to the study variables, based on which, the gaps were identified in the existing research and hypotheses were developed. The current study-design and methodology were developed along with the questionnaire. A pilot study was conducted in order to measure the internal reliability of the scales, based on which the questionnaire was redesigned. The data was collected using questionnaires distributed in Pakistan. The collected data was analysed using descriptive and

inferential statistics. The findings were discussed and conclusions drawn. Finally, the contributions and implications of the current research were presented. The flow of the current research is shown in figure (1.1):

Figure 1.1: Flow of the Current Research

Step I: Literature Review

Step II: Identification of Gaps and Formation of Hypotheses

Step III : Study Design, Methodology, and Questionnaire Design

Step IV: Pilot Study

Step V: Measuring the Internal Reliability of Scales

Step VI: Redesigning the Questionnaire

Step VII: Data Collection

Step VIII: Data Analysis

- Internal Reliability of the Instrument
  - Descriptive Statistics
  - Inferential Statistics

Step IX: Findings, Discussion and Conclusions

Step X: Contributions and Implications of Current Research

1.4. Overview of Chapters

The brief overview of the chapters is as follows:

Chapter 2: The second chapter is 'Literature Review'. It critically reviews the existing research related to the study variables. The literature review also includes the assessment and investigation of conjectural foundations surrounding each research component. Since the constructs in current research are extensively researched, only the research related to the study variables is reviewed. The literature review is divided into further sections including: 'the COO-image', 'the background and emergence of the construct of the COO-image', 'the effects of COO-image', 'the COO strategies' and, 'the COO-image effects with Pakistani perspective'. Based on the review of the research, the gaps in existing research related to all study variables, are identified in the end of the chapter. Based on the literature review and gaps of existing research, hypotheses are developed for the current research.

Chapter 3: This chapter presents the 'Research Design and Methodology' for the current research. It explains various philosophies, approaches, techniques and strategies employed for current research and their rationale. This chapter further includes the definitions and constructs for the measurement of study variables. It includes the explanation of sample, location, instrument designed for the collection of data, and tools used for analysis. The results and conclusions of pilot study conducted to measure the reliability are also presented in this chapter.

Chapter 4: This chapter is about 'Findings and Data Analysis'. The chapter presents the analysis of the collected data. It is divided into two sections presenting the analysis of descriptive and inferential statistics on the variables under consideration. The first section presents the findings and analysis based on the descriptive statistics such as the frequencies and mean values of responses etc. The second and most crucial one includes the inferential statistics such as correlation and regression analysis.

Chapter 5: This chapter is 'Discussion and Conclusion'. This is the most important chapter of the thesis, based on the findings and analysis it presents the conclusions and discussions. The conclusions drawn based on the quantitative research are compared to the ones asserted by existing research with reference to similar variables.

Chapter 6: The last chapter is related to "Contributions, Implications and Limitations of Current Research". This chapter includes the contributions of the current research and how it fills the gaps in the existing body of research. It then explores the theoretical and practical implications of the current research and how useful it can be for managerial decision making. Finally it states limitations of the current research and gives few suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: EFFECTS OF COO-IMAGE ON CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR: THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The current chapter presents the concept of country-of-origin image, the background, how the concept emerged as a rich research topic, and how significant it is in the current era of globalisation. It also enlightens the various aspects of the phenomenon of country-of-origin and their relation to the consumer behaviour. Finally, after the review of the literature, it identifies the gaps in the existing research that provide the basis for the current research framework.

2.   What is the Country of Origin (COO)?

Country of origin (COO) has primarily been considered as the country of manufacture by many researchers (Thakor and Katsanis 1997; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2003; Chung *et al.,* 2009; Laufer *et al.,* 2009; Zolfagharian *et al*, 2014). However, other researchers have widened the definition of COO by including country of design, country of parts, country of assembly (Chao, 1993; 2001; Ahmed and d'Astous, 1996; Ulgado, 2002; Insch and McBride, 1998; 2004; Kleppe and Mossberg, 2001; Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006; Peterson, 2009), country where the corporate headquarters of the company are situated (Johansson *et al*, 1985; Lim and O'Cass, 2001; Sae-Jiu, 2007; Mehta, 2006), country of corporate ownership (Thakor and Lavack, 2003), country of brand (Ulgado, 2002; Madden, 2003; Chen, 2004; Pharr, 2005),

country to which the brand is perceived to belong (Thakor and Kohli, 1996) and geographic origin of a product (Mort and Duncan, 2003; Kleppe and Mossberg, 2001; Daga, 2007).

2.1.   The COO-image

Research related to the COO-image has grown rapidly over the years to become one of the most important fields in business theory and international marketing (Baker and Ballington, 2002; Hamzaoui-Essoussi *et al*., 2011). Researchers have argued that consumers base their assessment of product with a negative or positive attitude based on the origination of product from a given country (Laroche *et al*., 2003; White and Absher, 2013). A number of different terms were used in the literature to identify 'country image', though these terms were closely related but each has a slightly different nuance (Kleppe, 2002; Laroche *et al*., 2005). These terms include the "COO" (Nebenzahl *et al*., 2003; Ahmed *et al*., 2004; Paswan and Sharma, 2004), 'made-in country image' (Nebenzahl *et al*., 1997), 'country equity' (Shimp *et al*., 1993), 'origin country image' (Han and Terpstra, 1987), and 'product country image' (Laroche *et al.*, 2003; Kleppe, 2002). The current study refers to all of these definitions as 'COO-image'.

The research related to the COO-image focused on studying how consumers feel when exposed to the COO-cue, form their image of the COO and use these images in their purchase behaviour (Laroche *et al*., 2005; Khan and Bamber, 2008; Chen, 2009). The COO-image was defined by Roth and Romeo (1992) as the overall consumer perception formed of products from a particular country, based on their prior experience of its production, marketing,

weaknesses and strengths. Furthermore, Godey *et al.* (2012) defined the COO-image as the representation, reputation or stereotype of a specific country that consumers associate with its products. Taking this definition further, Said *et al.* (2011) discussed the COO-image at three levels: overall country image, aggregate product country image and specific product country image, where:

1- The overall country image was defined as the general consumer perception of products originating in a particular country.

2- The aggregate product country image was the entire cognitive 'feel' associated with the perceived overall quality of the products originating in a particular country.

3- Finally, the specific product country image was the perception of a country's competence and reputation in a specific product category.

The COO-image is a multidimensional concept which is influenced by affective components, cognitive components and stereotypes (Usunier, 2006). Research also provided evidence of a strong association between the COO-image and consumers' product evaluations and purchase behavior (Kotler and Gartner, 2002). Researchers such as Roth and Romeo (1992) found that a country's image arises from dimensions including prestige (status of national brands, exclusiveness); innovation (technology and technical superiority); and workmanship (quality, durability, reliability). Abraham (2013) included variables such as national characteristics, representative products, history and traditions, economic and political background. According to White and Absher (2013) factors that impact the image of a country are as follows:

- personal experience, travel to a country (Laroche *et al*., 2003; Kolossov, 2003);

- literature and art (Kolossov, 2003);

- advertising (Kolossov, 2003);

- films (Sorlin, 1998; Kolossov, 2003);

- television and other media (Sirgy, 1998; Kolossov, 2003);

- educational institutions (Kolossov, 2003); and

- foreign policy (Kolossov, 2003);

- level of economic development (Chinen *et al*., 2000).

Images are often expressed by researchers as aspects of the product that are distinct from its physical characteristics but yet associated with the product (Erikson *et al*., 1984). Research supported this notion and suggested that the COO-image serves as an indirect channel in affecting product attributes, features and brand attitudes (Bruning, 1997). Research also suggested that the COO-images have a considerable impact on consumer product evaluation, purchase behaviour and perceptions about specific brands (Ahmed *et al.*, 2002; White and Absher, 2013). The meta-analysis of 22 research studies related to the COO-cue-effects on consumer judgments found that the COO had statistically proven effects on consumer product evaluations or choices over a wide range of products (Laroche *et al*., 2003)

Consumers tend to develop country images through familiarity and associations with products from different countries (Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983), and this may result in a form of stereotype. The amount of information available about a product affects the reputation and status of the product, and this in turn forms images in consumers' mind (Koubaa, 2008).

Although such stereotypical beliefs are biased, they can play an important role in risk reduction by providing coherence, simplicity, consistency and predictability in complex decision making (Chattalas *et al*., 2008). Research has concluded that generally consumers' beliefs related to some brands and their product-attributes were based on the effects of the COO-information on brand image (Anderson and Chao, 2003; Cervino *et al*., 2005). Similarly, the effects of brand reputation had strong association with specific attributes of the country-image (Hui and Zhou, 2003). A positive image associated with a country may help the marketers to introduce new products using the positive country image in a new or current market, in order to gain consumer recognition and acceptance more rapidly (Agarwal and Sikri, 1996). Although, there exists a general consensus on a strong association between COO-image and brand-image, the exact nature and the direction of this relationship is yet to be explored (Paswan and Sharma, 2004).

Research found significant effects of the COO-image on consumers' perceptions of products (Hamzaoui, 2011). Thus COO-image can be counted as an asset when it is positive and as a liability when it is negative (Chattalas *et al.*, 2008). It comprises strong micro and macro country images (Amonini *et al*., 1998; Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2007; Fetscherin and Toncar, 2010). Research defined micro country image as consumers' beliefs and perceptions about specific products manufactured by a country, relative to a certain product category (Pappu *et al*., 2007). The micro image is mostly related to product attributes, such as innovation, prestige, workmanship and the image of a country in a certain product category (Amine, 2008). For example, consumers value a perfume that originates from France, and therefore a

French perfume manufactured in France may benefit from positive associations linked to the French perfume industry in general (Amonini *et al*., 1998)

On the other hand, the country's macro image is identified as consumers' beliefs about a country's level of economic development and growth (Hamzaoui-Essoussi *et al.,* 2011; Rezvani *et al.*, 2012). Research further explored the COO macro image as a global-level variable. This macro image variable includes a wide set of country associations, including not only economic but political situations, cultural values, industrialisation and national symbols (Hooley *et al*., 1988; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2003). Micro and macro country images both have strong influence on consumer perceptions. However, there is a lack of research related to the association between the two dimensions and the comparison of their effects on consumer perceptions (Pappu *et al*., 2007).

2.2.   The Background and Emergence of the Construct of the COO-image

The marketing literature has presented the COO as a promising concept to understand the consumer perception while highlighting its complexity and growing dynamisms (Guercini and Ranfagni, 2013). The sheer volume of the COO research over the last three decades provided a good indicator of the importance of the concept in international marketing strategy (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2003; Bhambri, 2013). Series of meta-analyses by researchers such as Liefeld (1993), Thakor and Kohli (1996), Al-Sulaiti and Baker (1998), Verleegh and Steenkamp (1999), and Laroche *et al*., (2003) has also emphasised the importance of understanding the role of COO in marketing literature.

The extensions of global market in the 1970s drew attention of developing countries to export their products to the markets of the developed countries (Hamin *et al*., 2014). Then-newly industrialised countries such as Japan (Reierson, 1967; Nagashima, 1970; Gaedeke, 1973) South Korea, Taiwan, Mexico, Hong Kong and South American countries (Schooler and Sunoo, 1969; Hugstad and Durr, 1986) penetrated the European and the USA markets. The products originated in these developing countries were moderately priced than the products of their Western competitors. Although the quality of these products was acceptable, strong negative consumer attitudes were observed against such products (Wall *et al*., 1991). Schooler (1965) was the pioneer of the research conducted on COO. He identified that the products which are made in less-developed countries were not considered as quality products by the consumers. Similarly Reierson (1966) and Gaedeke (1973) found considerable impact of the country stereotypes on consumers' product evaluations and purchase intentions. These studies along with Nagashima (1970) presented the concept of the COO as the picture, the reputation, and the stereotype that businessmen and consumers attach to the products of a specific country. This image is created by such variables as representative products, national characteristics, economic and political background; history and traditions. All of these variables generate the total of all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs one holds about a particular country (Martin and Eroglu, 1993).

Between 1980 and 1990, the COO research shifted from single cue studies to multiple-cue studies (Phau and Predergast, 2000). Mostly published studies such as those by Bilkey and Nes (1982), Cordell (1992), and Tse and Gorn (1993) found that country stereotypes *do* exist and have some impact on product evaluations and purchase intentions. The researchers

introduced multilayered effects of the COO for various products in general (Howard, 1989; Darling and Wood, 1990), certain product categories (Roth and Romeo, 1992) and specific brands (Chao, 1993). Subsequent studies presented the multiple-cue nature of the COO and analysed the COO stereotypes in interactions with phenomena such as country specificity (Hong and Wyer, 1989), consumer ethnocentrism (Johansson *et al*., 1985; Hooley *et al*., 1988; Papadopoulas *et al*., 1990), country reputation primarily with respect to level of economic development (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Manrai *et al*., 1997), product type (Hooley and Shipley, 1988, Hong and Wyer, 1989), and brand familiarity (Erickson *et al*., 1984).

 Some researchers such as Roth and Romeo (1992) identified a relationship between consumer preferences for a specific country's products and the perceptions of country's culture, politics and economy. A significant number of research studies supported this notion by concluding that consumers show a tendency to prefer their home country's products (Han, 1988; Hong and Wyer, 1989; Papadopoulas *et al*., 1990). Researchers defined this concept as "consumer ethnocentrism" and suggested that it has an impact on consumer choices both through product attribute evaluation and direct affective factors regarding the purchase itself (Hooley *et al*., 1988; Lee *et al*., 1992).

Empirical and experimental studies such as Tse and Gorn (1993) have indicated that the COO has a significant influence on consumer attitudes towards specific brands. However, Erickson *et al*. (1984) and Johansson *et al*. (1985) questioned the validity of this notion, and established that in the absence of relevant information about the product, consumers tend to infer product information from the image of the manufacturing country, which in turn influences their brand

attitude. Johansson and Nebenzahl (1986) and Khachaturian and Morganosky (1990) have concluded that the brand image of quality also diminishes if it is designed or assembled in a less-prestigious country, which is why Schweiger *et al.* (1997) suggested that perhaps the marketing effort should stress the country of design. Furthermore, Wall and Liefeld (1991) found that unknown brands are favoured only when they are made in countries with highly favourable reputations. Han and Terpstra (1988) inferred that both the COO and brand name affect consumer perceptions of product quality, but the preference for domestic products/brands can be a consequence of patriotism. Schaefer (1997) further added that brand familiarity and objective product knowledge together also have an important effect on the use of the COO cue in product evaluations, although neither of the two has a general effect on its own. Similarly, service and product warranty are extra information cues and might have an influence on the evaluation process. In 1999, Lee and Ganesh reported that consumers with moderate product/brand familiarity use the COO information less than consumers who have low or high product/brand familiarity.

With the increase in globalisation since late 1980s and early 1990s, the process of production has shifted from single country to multiple countries in order to exploit economies of scale and costs which resulted in the emergence of hybrid products (Phau and Prendergast, 2000; Bhambri, 2013). Accordingly, focus of the COO research has shifted initially to bi-national products (Han and Terpstra, 1988), country of manufacture (Ettenson and Mathur, 1995, Iyer and Kalita, 1997), and lately in to the country of assembly, country of parts, country of design and country of brand (Chao, 1993; 2001). Research related to hybrid or multi-country products dominated the next phase of the COO research (Phau and Predergast, 2000).

D'Astous and Ahmed (1992), and Ettenson (1993) have gone beyond `made in' or `assembled in' to include the concepts of `designed in', `engineered in' and `parts supplied by'. Their research found that several countries with various stereotypes exhibit different impacts of country of design, country of assembly and price on consumer perception of product design and quality. Ettenson and Gaeth (1991) suggested that hybrid country of origin products blur a product's place of manufacture and question the acceptance of these as dependent on consumers' willingness to purchase keeping in view of the importance of brand name and the COO cue. Maheswran and Yi Chen (2006) expanded the COO research paradigm by suggesting that just like brands, equity is also associated with the COO; consequently, researchers focused their attention on the interaction between country image and brand image (Phau and Prendergast, 2000; Heslop *et al*., 2008). The research suggested that the interaction between country image and brand image can be bilateral. On one hand, national symbols and attributes of the COO surround the brand contributing to define its image (Guercini and Ranfagni, 2013). On the other hand, strong brands might affect the country image and produce spillover effects on the other national brands (Kleppe *et al*., 2002; Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009). However, research found that there is integration between the COO-image and brand image where the country image can be transferred to the brand image and vice versa (Guercini and Ranfagni, 2013) as well as there is a reciprocal interdependence between the country image and the brand image (Brijs *et al*., 2011).

According to Zdravkovic (2013) the COO-effects have been studied in the context of many product categories in many countries by using a variety of methodologies. In order to measure consumer purchasing behaviour and perceptions, the COO research has also focused on

linking the COO with various marketing constructs including hybrid products, demographics, brand effects, consumer nationalism, price, product quality, product classes, purchase risks, technology sophistication, consumer perceptions, product features, country images, and advertising images (Phau and Prendergast, 2000; Ahmed *et al*., 2004; Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). Considerable COO research conducted over a period of time has suggested that the COO distinguishes one product from others (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Verleegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2003), however, recent COO research indicated that the COO has an impact on consumers' willingness to buy a product (Josiassen and Harzing, 2008). Furthermore, consumer ethnocentrism and familiarity with the product have been found to moderate the effects of consumers' use of the COO cue (Zdravkovic, 2013). For example, low familiarity with the product found to be related with greater use of extrinsic cues such as the COO to evaluate the products (Veale and Quester, 2009). In addition, the consumers tend to prefer the products of their home country (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Zdravkovic, 2013).

The research measuring the effects of the COO has gone through multiple stages which are presented in the figure 2.1 below:

Figure 2.1: Evolution of the COO Research

PHASE 1 - SINGLE CUE STUDIES

Schooler (1965), Reierson (1966,1967), Gaedeke (1973)

Country of Origin effects expanded -------- called for multi-cue studies

---

PHASE 2 - PROGRESSION TO MULTI-CUE STUDIES

Bilkey and Nes (1982), Erickson et al (1984), Johansson et al (1985),

Hong and Wyer (1989), Papadopoulas et al (1990)

Existence of Country of origin effects manipulations include:

Product Type/Country Specificity, Consumer Patriotism/Ethnocentrism, Country Reputation/Level of Economic Development, Hierarchy of effects of Country Brand familiarity

Caveats: Sampling Procedures. multidimensional cues.

PHASE 3 - HYBRID PRODUCTS/BINATIONAL PRODUCTS

D'Astous and Ahmed (1992), Chao (1993), Ettenson (1993), Ettenson and Gaeth (1991),

Ettenson and Mathur (1995), Han and Terpstra (1988), Han (1989)

Dimensionalising Country of Origin - Country of Assembly, Country of Parts, & Country of Design. Impact of brand names in a rapidly globalising market.

Caveats: Complexity of multi-country affiliation, Cross national validity, level of involvement

---

GLOBALISATION (BORDERLESS WORLD)

Relevance and significance of the country name

Source: Phau and Predergas (2000:161)

2.3. The Effects of COO-image

A considerable amount of research has been undertaken so far relating to the COO-effects on consumer behaviour (Brown and O'Cass, 2006; Guidry *et al*., 2009; Alvarez, 2010). The impact of the origin of products on customers is called the COO-effect which is a scientific subfield of international marketing (Homburg and Krohmer, 2003) and consumer behaviour (Kotabe and Jiang, 2009).

Existing research has demonstrated strong impacts of the COO-image on consumer purchase intentions (Bruwer and Buller, 2012) and product evaluations (Pharr, 2006; Pappu *et al.* 2006). Research further found that the COO has a direct influence on consumer perception of product attributes, which in turn affects their evaluations of products from a particular country (Ahmed *et al*., 2002). The COO of a product serves as an attribute that can play the same role of a well established brand (Paswan and Sharma, 2004). Pecotich and Ward (2007), and, Gao and Knight (2007) believed that the COO is one of the most influential elements that affect consumers' decisions to buy products because the COO-effect combines brand image with the image of the country in which the product is produced. Kumara and Canhua (2010) found that the COO-image is one of the most significant phenomena that impact the evaluations of the foreign products.

Consumers are constantly confronted with a wide variety of product information supplied through packaging, branding, advertising and other channels (Ahmed *et al.*, 2002). The consumers use this information to form their product preferences and purchase decisions; as it

elicits emotions, feelings, imagery, and fantasies regarding the product usage (Verleegh and Steenkamp, 1999). The COO aspect of product information has complex effect on consumer behaviour (Askegaard and Ger, 1998) and also has a tremendous influence on the acceptance and success of products (Bruwer and Buller, 2012). It is very important to understand how the COO-effect works. Obermiller and Spangenberg (1989) developed a framework of the COO influence on consumer product evaluations and distinguished between cognitive, affective and normative processing of the COO cue. Further research found that the boundaries between these processes are blurred, and cognitive, affective and normative processes are interacting in consumer decision-making (Verleegh and Steenkamp, 1999). Table 2.1 provides examples of cognitive, affective and normative mechanisms for the COO-effects.

Table 2.1: Examples of Cognitive, Affective and Normative Mechanisms for Country-of-Origin Effects

Mechanism	Description	Major Findings
Cognitive	Country of origin is a cue for product quality	Country of origin is used as a signal for overall product quality and quality attributes, such as reliability and durability.
Affective	Country of origin has symbolic and emotional value to consumers	Country of origin is an image attribute that links the product to symbolic and emotional benefits, including social status and national pride.
Normative	Consumers hold social and personal norms related to country of origin	Purchasing domestic products may be regarded as appropriate, because it supports the domestic economy. By the same means, consumers may refrain from buying goods from countries with objectionable activities or regimes.

Source: Adapted from Chattalas, M., Kramer, T., and Takada, H. (2008)

A - The Cognitive Mechanism of the COO Effect

Most COO research has focused on the COO as a cognitive cue (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Insch and McBride, 2004; Phau and Suntornnond, 2006; Pappu *et al*., 2006). Research found that the effect of the COO-image is shaped by the product's country image: a psychological representation of a country's people, its products, its culture and national symbols ((Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Ger, 1991). Previous research in this regard has discovered a positive effect of French-sounding brand names on consumers' evaluations of hedonic products such as wine and perfume; and a negative effect on consumers' evaluations of utilitarian products like computers (Leclerc *et. al*, 1994). Furthermore, these effects have persisted even after consumers actually had experienced the products (Pappu *et al*., 2006).

The COO is an extrinsic cue which functions as an informational stimulus relating to a product that is used by consumers to infer beliefs regarding product attributes such as quality of the product (Steenkamp, 1990). Many studies have shown that such extrinsic cues like the COO, price, brand name and retailer reputation act as signals for product quality (Dawar and Parker, 1994). Consumers believe that technically high quality products are required to be produced by highly trained and educated workforce and that is why they relate such products with better quality when produced in developed countries. However, improvement in the quality image of Japanese products has shown that such beliefs can change over time and may be dependent on direct experiences of the quality of a country's products (Reid, 2007). In the 1960s they had the reputation for the "cheap copyists"; by the 1990s they had an outstanding reputation for electronics, watches and motor vehicles.

Some researchers suggested that consumers' preference for a country's products are based on their perceptions of a country's culture, economy and politics such as preference of German cars which might be based on consumers' perception of Germany as a technologically advanced country (Roth and Romeo, 1992). However, this case could be vice versa such as this reputation of German cars is built on the performance of Mercedes, BMW, and Porche. Furthermore, other studies concluded that the COO cue not only shows a sign of quality but it has symbolic and emotional meaning to consumers who may associate a product with status, authenticity and exoticness (Batra, *et. al.*, 2000). It also associates a product to a positive product country image, with sensory, affective and ritual connotations (Askegaard and Ger, 1998).

B - The Affective Mechanism of the COO-Effect

According to Verleegh and Steenkamp (1999) the COO-effects are not limited to the signaling of product quality, but also have strong emotional and affective associations which are formed by direct experiences during holidays or interactions with foreigners, and also indirect experiences with the countries and their citizens through art, education and mass media. These experiences influence consumers' attitude towards product or brand (Sharma, 2011). For example, Arabs believe that Israeli optical instruments are of superior quality but still have negative attitude towards these products, caused by their strong negative attitude towards Israel (Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1989).

Autobiographical memories, national identities, feelings of status and pride are also been associated with the COO of product. These factors also act as 'expressive or image attribute' of the products (Botschen and Hemettsberger, 1998; Fournier, 1998). Mittal *et. al.* (1990) explained that the 'expressive motives' include self esteem, social acceptance and self actualisation. Furthermore, 'image attribute' illustrates how an ownership of a product associates the consumer with a group or self image (Lefkoff-Hagius and Mason, 1993). According to Fournier (1998) COO also relates a product to the national identity, national pride and patriotism, which can result in a strong emotional attachment to a certain brands. Other researchers further suggested that the COO relates to emotions, identity and autobiographical memories, which transform the COO into an expressive or image attribute (LefkoffHagius and Mason, 1993; Botschen and Hemettsberger, 1998).

C - The Normative Mechanism of the COO Effect

The COO of a product also has normative associations for the consumers (Verleegh and Steenkamp, 1999), where consumers believe that buying a product of a particular country will support the economy of that country. And therefore purchase of a product of those countries who are engaged in objectionable activities may be considered immoral. Research further found that consumers vote for or against the policies and practices of a country by purchasing or avoiding its products, such as Jewish consumers boycott German products because of the holocaust, and Australian consumers boycott of French products because of the French nuclear tests in the Pacific (Smith, 1990). Another example is the boycott of Chilean products

whilst Chile had a military government. Similarly, Klein *et al*., (1998) found that the Chinese consumers consider it treason to buy Japanese products due to the economic and military rivalry between the two countries due to the atrocities committed by the Japanses in China during World War II. Another important norm regarding the COO is to prefer buying domestic products where consumers believe that it is ethically appropriate to buy products originated in their home country in order to support the national economy (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Following this concept, countries such as the USA, the UK and Canada ran campaigns sponsored by their respective governments and industries to establish a "buy domestic" norm. Consumer ethnocentrism is a very important motivation for the consumer decision making and judging the morality of purchasing foreign made products (Verleegh and Steenkamp, 1999). It is crucial in relating consumer preference for domestic products positively and preference for foreign products negatively.

Research concluded that the three processes that are cognitive, effective and normative, are not independent but rather interact with each other (Ger, 1991; Askegaard and Ger, 1998). For example, affective responses to the COO may motivate the consideration of choice alternatives and influence the evaluation of cognitive beliefs related to the COO. On the other hand, normative decisions regarding the purchase of a country's products involve both cognitive and affective responses. For instance, boycotts require elaborate cognitive processing and also evoke emotions such as fear and anger (Osterhus, 1997). Even personal norms have considerable impact on consumers' decision making for the reason that the violation of these norms results in feeling of guilt and loss of self esteem, whereas conformity results in pride and enhanced self esteem (Verleegh and Steenkamp, 1999).

Following is the review of literature for various aspects of the COO-effects. The fig 2.2 presents the aspects of the COO-effect under review:

Fig 2.2: The Aspects of the COO-Effect

9- Consumer Product Involvement Effects	
10- Consumer Ethnocentrism Effects	1-Multi-Cue Effects	2-Multiple COO/Hybrid Effects
8-Consumer Intention to Adopt in terms of Consumer Innovativeness Effects	Aspects of the Effects of COO-image	3-The Globalisation Effects
7- Consumer Expertise Effects	6- Consuming Country and Cultural Orientation Effects	5-National and Stereotype Effects: Developed and Developing Countries	4-Product Type Effects

2.3.1. Multi-Cue Effects (Intrinsic and Extrinsic Cues)

Research found that the reason why the COO influences product evaluations has primarily been explained by consumer's cognitive decision making process because a product consists of a collection of information cues (Bloemer *et al*., 2009; Zdravkovic, 2013). Intrinsic and extrinsic cues of product-information are used by consumers as the basis for product

evaluation (Ulgado and Lee, 1998; Srinivasan *et al*., 2004). Intrinsic cues include the product's physical features, packaging, functional benefit, taste, size, shape, style, quality, performance; whereas extrinsic cues include brand name, retailer reputation, products' COO, price etc. and can be maneuvered without physically changing the products (Liefeld, 1993; Verleegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Chattalas *et. al.*, 2008; Saeed *et al*, 2013).

Although intrinsic cues of the products are preferred for product evaluation, consumers often face difficulties gaining access to these cues without actually experiencing the product, and therefore consumers rely mostly on extrinsic cues for product judgment (Bredahl, 2004; Chattalas *et. al.*, 2008; Zdravkovic, 2013). Research also suggested that consumers view extrinsic cues as a way to create a cognitive shortcut when intrinsic cues are difficult to obtain (Zhang, 1996), and credible and consistent predictors of quality and value (Kardes *et al*., 2004). The COO is believed to be one of the most important extrinsic information cues (Chattalas *et. al.*, 2008). Research suggested that the consumers apply the COO information as well as other information cues such as price, company name, brand name while evaluating the product and developing their attitudes towards these products (Papadopoulos, 2003; Saeed *et al*, 2013). Liu and Johnson (2005) further confirmed that the COO-image appears to be spontaneously activated by the mere presence of the COO information in the external environment, without consumers' intentions to use this information when forming product or country judgments.

The recent research related to multi-cue effects suggested that the COO-image and brand image are correlated information cues because a positive country image recognised in the

brand image is found to be associated with a positive attitude towards the brand (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2011; Miranda and Parkvithee, 2013) and purchase intention (Diamantopoulos *et al*., 2011). Researchers also acknowledged that with a decrease in price, the addition of value added features in the product (Speece and Nguyen, 2005; Chu *et al*., 2010), high product familiarity (Miranda and Parkvithee, 2013), ethnocentrism (Hamin *et al*, 2014) and value for money (Kinra, 2006), the effects of the COO cue are reduced.

2.3.2. Multiple COO (hybrid) Cue Effects

Due to tough global competition, organisations have focused on cutting costs and other operating expenses, especially their production costs by designing a product in one country and manufacturing in another country (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). The rapid emergence of bi-national products and brands suggested that the COO is not a single concept, but that it is complex (Chowdhury, 2009). Therefore, researchers have divided the COO concept into several dimensions to help qexplain the growing complexity of the COO (Thakor and Lavack, 2003; Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2007; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2008; Fetscherin and Toncar, 2010), such as country-of-design (COD), country-of-assembly (COA), country-of-manufacture (COM), country of parts (COP) and country of brand (COB) (Quester, 2000; Insch, 2004; Chao, 2005; Hamzaoui, 2006; Chowdhury, 2009). For instance, an automobile might be designed in Taiwan (COD), branded in Japan (COB), and assembled in China (COA). Research suggested that consumers assign different value to the different dimensions of the COO effect (Saeed *et al*, 2013). Table 2.2 presents the dimensions of the COO construct and their definitions:

Table 2.2: Dimensions of the COO Construct and their Definitions	
COO Construct	**Definition of Concept**
Country of Design (COD)	The country where product idea was conceived and engineered. Companies may choose to locate their R&D in countries different from the country of production.
Country of Assembly (COA)	The country where majority of product's final assembly took place. Companies from countries with low reputation can move the assembly of their products to other countries with higher reputation.
Country of Parts (COP)	The country where most of the materials utilized in product come from or the component parts are manufactured. Companies give particular importance to the source of the products' raw materials.
Country of Manufacture (COM)	The country where the product is manufactured. Some companies may find it convenient to produce their products in countries from their original COO.
Country of Brand (COB)	The country where the brand originated. There are a number of reasons why this may not coincide with the country where the company has its headquarters.
Source: Adapted from Saeed *et al* (2013:990) and Aichner (2014:83)	

Researchers generally defined the COO as the country-of-manufacture (COM) and found that the image of the COM strongly affects consumers' perception and evaluations of brands, their quality and purchase value (Papadopoulos and Heslop 1993; Hamzaoui *et al.*, 2011; Guercini and Ranfagni, 2013). For example, Japanese automobiles brands such as Mazda and Honda lose their attractiveness when manufactured in the Philippines and Mexico as opposed to Japan (Lee *et al.,* 2013). By contrast, the Chinese manufacturer of electronics and appliances named Haier, improved its brand image by being manufactured in the USA (Lee *et al.,* 2013). The existing research has also suggested that consumers associate the image of the COO of a

brand with its quality and in turn drive brand equity (Batra *et al*., 2000; Zeugner-Roth *et al*., 2008; Hamzaoui, 2011).

However, it is also found that it is rather difficult for a customer to identify the actual origin of a product, as a product may be designed in the United States, assembled in Mexico and produced in China (Aichner, 2014). Some companies such as Apple - the US brand of consumer electronics - use COD (which is California) in order to reduce the possible negative effects related to the COA, which for most of its products is China (Aichner, 2014).

2.3.3. The Globalisation Effects

Researchers believed that globalisation has created a common culture throughout the globe and has virtually led towards a "borderless" world (Levitt, 1983; Ohmae, 1992). However, research also suggested that globalisation has emphasised the similarities between blocks of countries instead of cross functional integration (Khan and Bamber, 2008). Globalisation has made COO information related to a product more vital for the consumers (Guercini and Ranfagni, 2013). Global trade has made it possible for consumers in many countries to have vast array of foreign products (Tabassi *et al*, 2013), which in turn has pushed organisations to redefine their branding strategies and positioning mechanisms in the consumer's mind using their COO perceptions (Guercini and Ranfagni, 2013). In this process of internationalisation, the COO is used as a distinctive resource to increase competitiveness by the organisations (Baker and Ballington, 2002).

On the contrary, other researchers have argued that the continuing process of globalisation is minimizing the significance of the COO making it less relevant (Usunier, 2006; Usunier and Cestre, 2008) and eliminating the effects of the COO on purchase intention (Pecotich and Rosenthal, 2001). Explaining this paradox further, Zdravkovic (2013) argued that due to global sourcing, the promotion of a global marketing strategy which de-emphasises a product's origin, global branding, multinational production and WTO rules of restricting origin-labeling, means that consumers are unable to identify the COO of the hybrid product and therefore, are less likely to use the COO as a cue to buy the product. Another reason for an adverse effect of globalisation on the COO-effect is the erosion of global market boundaries which has converged the consumer preferences (Pharr, 2005). The critics of the COO further believe that consumers are neither concerned about finding out the COO of a product nor they care about using this information in the buying decision making process (Liefeld, 2004). Similarly, Zdravkovic (2013) argued that consumers do not use the COO information while evaluating the products. Furthermore, researchers such as Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2008) found that consumers are able to identify the COO of a brand only one-third of the time. Consistent to these findings, Buehlmann *et al*., (2006) also found that consumers recognise the COO cue for only a limited number of purchases.

Research discussed that traditional analyses of the COO-image do not provide clues as to what image would a brand carry, when associated with a certain country when products marketed under this brand name are produced in another country Papadopoulos and Heslop (2014). Would they acquire the image of the made-in label country? Would such products retain the original image of the country-of-origin? Or will they have a hybrid image of the two countries

which is rather different from the original two? For example, China is perceived as a producer of a large assortment of relatively inexpensive products while Germany is perceived as a producer of exclusive quality products. Will a Chinese brand produced in Germany be perceived as being of better quality than the same product produced in China? Or, will it be perceived as being just more expensive? Will as German brand produced in China lose its exclusiveness and become more common? Unless these questions can be answered, the study of COO-image effect will be of limited practical value, since it does not provide information which can assist the formulation of marketing strategies.

Moreover, the critics of COO-image also believed that it's effects may gets lessened or eliminated when the products have a strong brand name (Cervino *et al*., 2005). It also vary for varying products' involvement levels (D'Alessandro and Pecotich, 2013). Researchers further found that strength of the COO-image effects on consumer perceptions also vary from country to country (Laroche *et al*., 2005)and product categories (Lampert and Jaffe, 1998). The COO-image effects also gets eliminated or lessened when consumers are highly familiar and experienced about specific brands of products (Hamin and Elliott, 2006) no matter they belong to developed or developing countries. The effects of COO-image are also moderated by price (Aichner, 2014) and strong customer intention to adopt (Westjohn and Magnusson, 2011).

2.3.4. Product Type Effects

The COO-image does not affect evaluations of all types of products equally, but it varies with the product category involvement (D'Alessandro and Pecotich, 2013). Similarly, studies found that the COO-image effects on product evaluation vary by product type (Roth and Romeo, 1992). As discussed earlier, consumers relate the image of the manufacturing country with the COO-image of a product and its characteristics in terms of workmanship, technology, prestige, innovation etc (Amine, 2008). The research maintained that consumers relate the information about a product category manufactured in a particular country with the associated characteristics of these countries, such as Germany is associated with technologically advanced home appliances and cars; USA being known for sports-related computers and goods; and Japan is associated with the media technology such as televisions and cameras (Lee *et al.,* 2013).

The COO-image in a certain product category functions as a brand (Hui and Zhou, 2003). The COO as a brand effect may vary from one product line to another; the country name may enjoy a positive image in one industry by gaining relatively better competitive position and may not benefit from good repute in another product line (Agerwal and Sikri, 1996). Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983) found that Japanese electronic products are evaluated higher in quality evaluations than Japanese food products. Furthermore, Leclerc *et al*. (1994) found that perfume products with a French-sounding brand name are perceived to be more hedonic than those lacking this distinction. Similarly, French wines and fashion have significantly positive image in the international market than the French cars, televisions and other high technology

products. Hulland *et al.* (1996) suggested a strong branding country effect, and found that while the COO-effects are extremely robust, brand name plays a strong and incremental role in influencing consumers' evaluations of the products. If the brand name of the product is well recognised and reputable, the COO-image's impact may get lessened and consumers are more likely to buy the product keeping in view the brand's reputation without worrying about the place of manufacture (Cervino *et al.*, 2005). As mentioned earlier, consumers may often be unaware of or indifferent to the actual place of manufacture and rely on the brand name e.g. Levis (Aichner, 2014).

According to Chao and Rajendran (1993), the COO-image may also be varied across income levels where attitude towards owning a foreign product may be perceived positively in the higher income groups and may not be relevant for the lower income level group of professionals. At the same time, products of a given country may not have same images across different countries (Laroche *et al.*, 2005). For example, Japanese-made technical products have a more positive image in the USA than in Europe (Lampert and Jaffe, 1998). This shows that the-COO effect is both specific to the product category and specific to the country.

2.3.5. National and Stereotype Effects: Developed and Developing Countries

Consumers develop perceptions of products quality based on the COO-image. These perceptions functions as the stereotypes. Kotler and Gertner (2002) stated that once these perceptions are ingrained in consumers' minds, it is very difficult to change or adjust this prior

knowledge because people are more likely to pay attention to information that confirms their expectations.

Liefeld (1993) found a positive relationship between product evaluation and the degree of economic development of the country. Also, Wall and Liefeld (1991) has found a statistically significant relationship between the positive COO-image of a product in terms of economic development and consumers' likelihood of purchase. Research has suggested that consumers are likely to believe that the products made in developed countries (having a strong reputation for producing high quality products) are of higher quality than similar products produced in countries which are not known for high-quality product production (Almonte *et al*., 1995). Consumers have different stereotype images of products originating in different countries. These images are strong stereotypes which may be inaccurate, redundant or speculative. However, these perceptions are important part of the consumers' buying process (Srikatanyoo and Gnoth, 2002).

Products from developed countries have more positive image as compared to the products from developing countries in terms of perceived product risk and perceived product quality (Batra, *et al*. 2000; Kaynuk *et al*. 2000; Sharma, 2011). For example, developing countries such as China, India, Mexico and Brazil are considered technologically less-advanced and less-sophisticated, therefore, products manufactured in these countries are generally perceived to be of low quality (Hamin *et al*, 2014). By contrast, products manufactured or originating in developed countries such as the USA and Japan are considered of high quality (Hamin *et al*, 2014). Research further claimed that although consumers in both developing and developed

countries prefer products from developed markets, preference for the products imported from developed countries is stronger in the consumers of developing countries (Hamin *et al*, 2014).

O'Cass and Lim (2002) explained that consumers' preference is highly complex because there exist a perceived difference in consumers' minds regarding the economic, cultural and political systems of different countries. Furthermore, taking both economic levels into consideration, O'Cass and Lim (2002) concluded that positive consumers' evaluations of products and brands is the result of a cognitive tradeoff between the preference for products and brands from a developed economy, and brands of domestic origin. Chao and Rajendran (1993) found a tendency in consumers to evaluate their own country's products and brands more favorably than imported products and brands.

However, from the perspective of consumers from a less developed country, the evidence suggested that consumers from Mexico (Bailey and Gutierrez De Pineres, 1997), the Philippines (Hulland *et al*., 1996), Jordan (Hussein, 1997), Nigeria (Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999), and Malaysia (Tabassi *et al*., 2013) are likely to perceive products imported from developed countries more favourably than their domestically-made equivalents. However, the findings of some studies about the COO-effects on consumers in emerging markets found differences in the COO-effects based on product complexity and availability (Bandyopadhyay and Banerjee, 2002), product attributes (Sharma, 2011), public Vs private consumption context (Hu, *et al*., 2008), ethnocentrism (Klein, *et al*., 2006), perceptions about domestic products (Kinra, 2006) and cultural orientation (Lee, *et al.*, 2007).

Research suggested that psychographic, demographic and socio-economic factors also lead to differences in consumer attitude towards foreign products in developed and emerging markets (Sharma, 2011). Research found that younger consumers prefer foreign-made clothing over those which is domestically made (Kim *et al*., 2009; Chen, 2009). In addition, fashion products from developed countries are favoured over those from less developed countries because these are not only of better quality and well-known but also signify status (Phau and Yip, 2008; Jin *et al*., 2010). Also, hybrid products, with multiple country of origin components (Poon *et al*., 2010; Lee *et al*., 2010) such as country of assembly, country of design, country of brand and country of manufacture, carry their own COO stereotypes that might affect consumers' product perceptions and evaluations (Lee *et al.,* 2013).

Further to these finding, Phau and Prendergast (2000) suggested that the manufacturing country's economic development level functions as moderating variable, that moderates the COO-effect of brand on its image and perceived quality. This relationship is shown in the fig 2.3 below:

Figure 2.3: The Relevance of the COO of a Brand for Brand Image and Perceived Product Quality
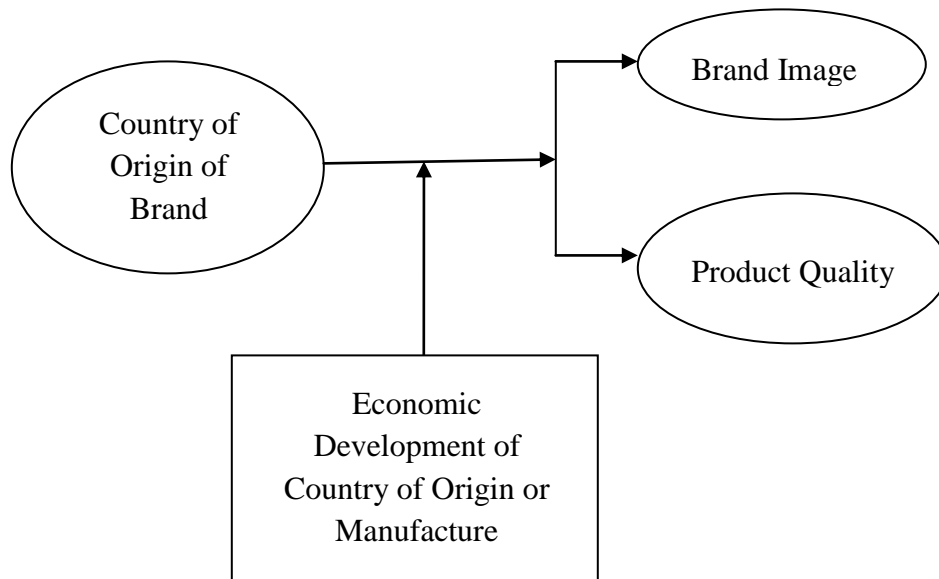
Source: Phau and Prendergast (2000:166)

Researchers concluded that the COO-image is also moderated by consumers' familiarity with a product, product brand and use of other product information (Lampert and Jaffe, 1998). In some product categories, where either the product has strong brand equity or the company has gained a better relative competitive position on the basis of low cost leadership, consumers appear indifferent about the COO-image of the product regardless of whether it is associated with a developed or developing country (Hamin and Elliott, 2006).

2.3.6 Consuming Country and Cultural Orientation Effects

The COO-image is explained by many researchers as information about 'where a product is made' and expressed as 'made in' and the country name (Zhang, 1996; Amine *et al.*, 2005). It has different effects across different countries which may be a consequence of shared national

stereotypes (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993). The research also found that people sharing similar cultural values tend to be similar in their evaluations of the COO (Ozretic-Dosen *et al.,* 2007). Furthermore, the COO not only has cognitive implications, but it also links a product to culturally shared national stereotypes which are based on cognitive, affective and normative associations (Chattalas *et. al.*, 2008):

- As a cognitive process, the COO is a heuristic (experience based technique) for making inferences about product quality.

- As an affective process, the COO-image is a stereotype driven attribute that links the product to positive or negative emotional associations with particular nations, and

- As normative process, consumers may hold socially desirable norms linked to the COO cues.

Political, economic and technological dimensions of the COO-images are also found to have an effect on the COO based product evaluations (Martin and Eroglu, 1993). Consumers' cognitive associations about any nation are represented by the COO-image (Fiske and Taylor, 1991), and also, the COO-image (whether accurate or not) is perceived to be associated with a nation's people (Schneider, 2005). The COO has significant effects on a product's evaluation, ranging from intangible barriers of entering new markets because of consumer biases towards imported products to consumer preference of products manufactured in developed countries (Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000).

According to Hofstede (2001) the cultural orientation of consumers seems to play an important role in consumer decision-making in terms of individualism (preferring personal views and goals) and collectivism (preferring group based views and goals). Cultural orientation has an impact on the COO-effects and national stereotypes (Kramer *et al.*, 2007). Multinational companies are heavily reliant on research in this area and adjust their marketing strategies according to the cultures and at times subcultures that exist in the particular country. The sub-culture within a broad culture may vary widely, for example, in the predominately individualistic society of the USA, a sub-cultural group would be Hispanics, who are mainly collectivist (Chattalas *et. al.*, 2008). It is very important to understand the influence of cultural orientation on the effects of national stereotypes. Research suggested that the consumers belonging to collectivist countries often rate their home country's products more favourably, regardless of the superior quality of the product but due to their emphasis on collective goals and economy, such as Japan (Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000). On the other hand, consumers belonging to individualistic orientations evaluate home country's products more favourably only when they are truly superiour in quality, such as those products from the USA (Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000).

Consumers from some cultures such as Sweden and Australia emphasis quality; whereas others such as India and Greece emphasis hierarchy and status (Aaker, 2006; Meyers-Levy, 2006; Oyserman, 2006; Shavitt *et al*., 2006). These cultural differences affect the consumer perceptions of a product's country of origin. Due to the significant presence of the COO stereotype of national image and an increase in globalisation, a consequent strategy of 'nation

branding' is emerged to develop a unique and positive brand image of the nation and its associated symbols (Olins, 1999; Tran and Fabrize, 2013).

Research has also suggested that consumers' attitudes related to the COO can change over time (Wood *et al*., 1999). For example, research on the COO-effects by Reid (2007) concluded that consumers had negative attitudes against products made in newly industrialised Japan in late 1960s and early 1970s, whereas later in 1980s and 1990s Japanese products were more positively perceived. Japanese brands have reached global acceptance and successfully penetrated developed countries with their consumer electronics (e.g. Toshiba, Sony, Fujitsu) and cars (e.g. Mitsubishi, Toyota, Honda) (Hamin *et al*., 2014).

Another important part of the culture is the life style and social class of the consumers which strongly affect the COO-effects (Miranda and Parkvithee, 2013). In their study of an adoption protocol of branded fashion items in China, Ahmed and d'Astous (2004) found that consumers' behaviour is closely related to their social class and lifestyle.

2.3.7. Consumer Expertise Effects (Summary or Halo Construct)

Deveopment of the COO-image in the mind of the consumers is believed to be the result of the psychological process of stereotyping and it explains how consumers react to the COO information (Tse and Gorn, 1993). It is also used as standard to evaluate products from all

over the world affecting the cognitive processing of other product-related cues (Maheswaran, 1994). This COO-image is crucial, regardless of whether it is negative or positive. Therefore, the management of the product's COO-image is an important element in the strategic level of marketing decision making process of multinationals (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998).

Although the COO-image may be biased, it can play an important role in risk reduction by providing coherence, simplicity, consistency and predictability in complex decision making (Reid, 2007). Consumers also tend to develop the COO-image through familiarity and association with products from different countries (Roth and Romeo, 1992). This familiarity and association is mostly based on their prior experience with the product (Zhang, 1997). The COO-image informs the consumers about the quality and reliability of the product, especially when the product is new and its attributes are yet unknown (Beverland *et al.* 2007). Consumers perceive low risk in buying products with a positive COO-image where it is associated with high perceived quality; similarly, perceive high risk in buying products with a negative COO-image where it is associated with low perceived quality (Cordell, 1993).

Research has shown that the COO-effect on consumers' product evaluation fluctuates with consumers' level of expertise and prior knowledge with the product category; where it is found that consumers' familiarity with a product is low, the COO-image operate as a *halo* construct (transfer of overall attitude towards a stimulus which in this case is the COO) and allows consumers to evaluate the product by associating it with the country where it was originated (Eroglu and Machleit, 1988). Han (1988) suggested that the COO-image cue works

as the halo effect when the consumers are unfamiliar with a country's products, the technology used in it and other features of the products. This halo construct of the COO-image inaugurate consumer's beliefs and perceptions about product attributes, and in turn these beliefs affect consumers' attitudes toward a specific brand (Chattalas *et. al.*, 2008). Research has found that under the halo effect, consumers make inferences about product quality based on the image they have about its COO (Sharma, 2011). Research suggested that the positive country image combined with strong brand image is useful to reduce the perceived risk related to the brand, entering a new market where people do not have prior experience of using it (Guercini and Ranfagni, 2013). For example, a consumer who has no prior experience or familiarity with shoes made in Italy, but believes that Italian shoes are of high quality, would evaluate Italian shoes favourably (Zdravkovic, 2013).

On the other hand, if consumers have high familiarity with a country's products, the COO-image becomes a '*summary*' construct that encapsulates consumer beliefs based on accumulated consumer knowledge about the country's products rather than on national stereotypes (Chattalas *et. al.*, 2008). Research found that under the summary effect, consumers make abstractions of the product information into a country image (Sharma, 2011). Furthermore, research has suggested that consumer loyalty and brand equity depend mostly on their knowledge of the brand (Keller and Moorthi, 2003) and the association of the COO of a brand with its quality (Batra *et al*., 2000; Zeugner-Roth *et al*., 2008).

2.3.7.1. The COO-image and Perceived Product Quality and Risk

Several studies have suggested that how different COO-image in terms of country's economic development influence the perceived product quality and risks (Chao, 1993; Insch and McBride, 2004; Pharr, 2005; Hamzaoui *et al.*, 2011). The COO-image triggers the perceptions of the manufacturing country and general quality of products manufactured there (Hong and Wyer, 1989). These concepts may have a positive or negative effect on the interpretation of other available information of product attributes and feature (Zdravkovic, 2013). The COO-image is associated with the country of production or manufacture and directly influences consumers' overall product evaluation, assessment of quality, risk, performance and specific service or product attributes (Chao, 1998; Nayir and Durmusoglu, 2008). Some countries are successful in establishing a unique reputation for specific products. For example, Japan is known for technology especially in cars, cameras and consumer electronics, France for perfumes, and Switzerland for chocolates. Previous research has confirmed significant associations between the COO-image and perceived quality of a product (Anderson and Chao, 2003; Cervino *et al.*, 2005).

Research defined perceived product quality as an evaluation of a product's overall level of excellence in terms of its performance and other extrinsic benefits gained by the consumer (Saeed *et al*, 2013). The dimensions of quality that are influenced by the consumers' perceptions of the COO include the product's conformance, performance, aesthetics, reliability and durability (Aichner, 2014). For example, Italian cars are considered to be more aesthetic whereas German cars are considered to be more reliable and durable (Lim *et al*,

2014). Furthermore, Swiss watches, French cosmetics and Argentinean beef are generally considered to be of high quality just because of their origin (Aichner, 2014).

Research found that the COO-image works as information-cue regarding the quality, reliability, dependability and value for money of the product when more specific information is not readily available (Han and Terpstra, 1988; Hong and Wyer, 1989). Research further concluded that in international marketing, the association between COO and perceived quality plays the foremost role in evaluating the product image even before the brand name (Zdravkovic, 2013). Similarly, the COO-image effects on a new brand have a similar role to family branding where the COO-image is generalised for the new brand (Guercini and Ranfagni, 2013). However, research suggested that the association between the COO-image and perceived quality can be moderated by some factors such as price (Aichner, 2014) and strong brand name (Hamin *et al*, 2014).

According to Sharma (2011), the COO-effects are also related to perceived risk which has three dimensions: (a) social, (b) financial, and (c) performance. Consumers have unfavourable attitudes and lower purchase intentions for products manufactured in countries with high perceived risk in terms of performance (Verleegh and Steenkamp, 1999). Research suggested that consumers perceive social and financial risk related to the products that are manufactured in a given country based on its manufacturing infrastructure, marketing sophistication and level of economic development (Chryssochoidis *et al*., 2007; Sharma, 2011).

Consumers' perceptions of perceived risk related to the product, together with perceived quality are important as they affect the consumer's choice of buying a product (Zdravkovic, 2013). The COO may be perceived as a risk evaluator (Cordell, 1993), in which consumers perceive greater risk in purchasing products from countries with a poor reputation and image. On the other hand, they may seek to enhance their status by purchasing products from countries with a positive repute and image (Bilkey and Nes, 1982). Research study by Sharma (2011) found that consumers in emerging markets show negative perceptions about the quality of products made in other emerging markets coupled with low purchase intentions due to higher perceived risks. Even with the recent boom of manufacturing in China and increased acceptance of Chinese products among consumers in other emerging markets such as India (Kinra, 2006), consumers in Western countries have negative attitudes towards Chinese products due to quality concerns (Hamin *et al*, 2014).

2.3.7.1.1. Countries' Drive for Improvement in their Perception as 'Quality Provider' from a COO Perspective

Consumers develop an overall product image based on its association with a certain brand or country of origin (Bruwer and Buller, 2012). As mentioned earlier, if this image is positive this strong product category-country association serves as an asset for the country of origin. However, it is also known that these images and consumer attitudes related to the COO can change over time (Reid, 2007). Countries incorporate strategies and take steps to improve their perceptions as a 'quality provider' from a COO perspective. For example, Japanese

products were synonymous with low quality and cheapness in 1950s and 1960s, but over the coming decades their quality initiatives began to be successful helping Japan achieving high levels of quality in products from the 1970s onward. Japanese improved their perceptions of quality provider based on adopting, incorporating and focusing on quality related programs such as: total quality management, ISO standards, QFD (quality function deployment), Kaizen – continuous improvement, zero defect program, six sigma's DMAIC (define, measure, analyse, improve, control), PDCA (plan, do, check, act cycle) for quality control, quality circle, Taguchi method, Toyota production system, Kansei engineering, quality cultures, TRIZ (theory of inventive problem solving), BPR (business process reengineering), OQRM (object-oriented quality and risk management), importance of knowledge management, system linking and the role of leadership.

In order to improve their perception as quality providers, USA and Western countries also took their inspiration from Japanese quality management strategy such as the Toyota production system. In order to achieve quality and retain a position of quality providers in automobile industry, US automobile industry follow QS-9000 quality management model, AVSQ - quality management model was developed for the Italian automobile industry, EAQF - quality management model was developed for French automobile industry, VDA – quality management model was developed for the German automobile industry.

2.3.8. Consumer Intention to Adopt (with reference to Consumer Innovativeness) Effects

Researchers suggested that consumers' intention to adopt products is a conscious expressions of their personalities and their selected brands are mostly symbolic depiction of their lifestyles (Lim and O'Cass, 2001; Walker, 2008). Brand choices, varying prices, attractive promotions and exceptional product attributes make it more difficult for consumers to decide the adoption of a product (Hennessy and Tol, 2011). Research found that consumers' intention to adopt a new product is linked to their innovativeness which is defined as the tendency to buy new products soon after they appear in the market, relatively earlier than most other consumers (Schuitema *et al*, 2013). Research further explained consumer innovativeness as their aspiration to look for provocation and novelty from new products (Hirunyawipada and Paswan, 2006). Research found that both the concepts are strongly linked (Manning, *et al*., 1995; Chau and Hui, 1998).

There has been much research related to the two concepts of consumer intention to adopt and consumer innovativeness in relation to each other (Rogers, 1962; Rogers and Shoemaker, 1971; Ostlund, 1974; Midgley, 1977; Midgley and Dowling, 1978). Researchers have identified five main dimensions that influence the consumer intention to adopt a new product (Rogers and Shoemaker, 1971):

1- complexity - the extent to which the innovation appears difficult to use and understand;

2- compatibility - the degree to which the innovation is seen as consistent with the innovator's existing values, past experiences, and needs;

3- observability - the degree to which the results of innovating are visible to others;

4- trialability - the extent to which one can experiment on a limited basis with the innovation;

5- relative advantage - the degree to which the innovation is perceived as being superior to the idea or product it replaces.

However, other researchers such as Ostlund (1974) added a sixth dimension - the perceived risk of adoption. Rogers (1995) found that consumers who show the early intention to adopt are early adopters, and tend to be greater risk-takers than the late adopters, which suggest an association between consumers' perceived risk and adoption. It is further explained that there exists a correlation between perceived risk and the adoption of innovation, where higher perceived risk of product will have a negative impact on product evaluation (Smith and Andrew, 1995). Researchers have included more of these dimensions such as Tornatzky and Klein (1982) who proposed an additional five dimensions:

1- cost

2- communicability

3- divisibility

4- profitability

5- social approval.

Of these new dimensions, cost has received much attention by the researchers who have explored the link between the price of the innovation and its effects on the market potential (Kalish and Lilien, 1986), the rate of adoption and timing of adoption (Kamakura and Balasubramanian, 1988). On the other hand, researchers such as Mason (1990) and Thomas and Charlotte (1999) believed that product attributes rather than price is the main driver for the product adoption. Moore and Benbasat (1990) suggested seven dimensions that influence adoption: compatibility, complexity, trialability, relative advantage, result demonstrability, visibility and image. The researchers have not dealt the price seperately, but treated it as a part of trialability. Thomas and Hirokazu (1999) considered advertising as one of the dimensions. Following table 2.3 showed product characteristics that influence consumer intention to adopt.

Table 2.3: Product Characteristics that Influence Consumer Intention to Adopt		
Characteristics	**Definition**	**Examples**
Relative Advantage	The degree to which potential customers perceive a new product as superior to existing substitutes.	Air travel over train travel, cordless phones over corded telephones.
Compatibility	The degree to which potential consumers feel a new product is consistent with their present needs, values and practices.	Gillette MACH3 over disposable razors, digital telephone answering machines over machines using tape to make recordings.
Complexity	The degree to which a new product is difficult to understand or use.	Products low in complexity include frozen TV dinners, electric shavers, instant puddings
Trialibility	The degree to which a new product is capable of being tried on a limited basis.	Trial size jars and bottles of new products, free trials of software, free samples, cent-off coupons.
Observability	The degree to which a product's benefits or attributes can be	Clothing, such as a new Tommy Hilfiger jacket, a car, wristwatches,

	observed, imagined, or described to potential customers.	eyeglasses.

Innovation overload is used to describe a situation where consumers' perceived relative advantage, compatibility, trialability and communicability are low, and the perceived complexity is high. In this scenario, information of the product and options available to the consumer are so vast that it impairs the decision making (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004). Consequently, consumers find it difficult to make comparisons among the available choices and often find themselves with too little time and too much stress. An increased complexity of products wastes time and may delay the acceptance of the product (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004). Researchers have identified innovativeness as a personality trait of early product adopters (Steenkamp *et al.*, 1999). However, it may not be always true (Roehrich, 2004). Hirunyawipada and Paswan (2006) classified consumer's innovativeness into five levels:

1) Global innovativeness

Research found global innovativeness is a personality trait specially related to the adoption of new products which is independent of the domain of consumers (Midgley and Dowling, 1978). Rather than obtaining other consumers' views on experience of the product, consumers' personal traits of innovativeness drive them to adopt new products (Midgley and Dowling, 1993). In reference to this dormant trait of innovativeness, research identified several aspects of global innovativeness, including customers' willingness to change, openness to information processing, optimum stimulation level, variety seeking, and inherent

novelty seeking (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 1992; Manning *et al*., 1995; Menon and Kahn, 1995). All these aspects of global innovativeness build the tendency to actively seek novel information and adopt new products (Hirunyawipada and Paswan, 2006).

2) Domain-specific innovativeness

According to Midgley and Dowling (1993) domain-specific innovativeness explains the aspect of consumer behaviour within a person's specific domain of interest. It shows the person's inclination towards the product-class and refers to the predisposition to acquire information related to a new product within a specific domain or adopt the new product (Goldsmith and Hofacker, 1991). According to Hirunyawipada and Paswan (2006), the interaction between strong interest in product category and global innovativeness, creates this tendency. Domain-specific innovativeness can be witnessed in various contexts, such as industries, product categories, countries etc. (Roehrich, 2004).

3) Actualised innovativeness

According to Rogers (1995) the extent to which consumers are relatively early in adopting new products than other members of their social group is described as actualised innovativeness. The time taken in decision making of product adoption is the most crucial criterion to distinguish the early adopters from the late adopters (Midgley and Dowling, 1978). Research found that actualised innovativeness also includes the behaviour that deals with the acquisition of new product information (Hirschman, 1980). This information related to new

products is usually acquired through sources such as reviews of new products, product catalogues and product trials etc. (Hirunyawipada and Paswan, 2006).

4) Cognitive innovativeness

Cognitive innovativeness stimulates the consumers to focus on learning to do new things (Pearson, 1970). The consumers with this kind of innovativeness enjoy mental exertion and thinking, how things are put together and learning about cause and effect (Hirunyawipada and Paswan, 2006). For cognitive innovators, exposure to the product through product demonstrations and various media is not sufficient because until they have the actual experience of using the new product, playing with it, learning from it and exercising their cognitive abilities, they are unlikely to purchase (Venkatraman, 1991). The acquisition of new product information does not hold much importance for the cognitive innovators, but rather it is the actual usage and adoption which provides them opportunities and time to analyse, learn and try the newness of products (Hirunyawipada and Paswan, 2006).

5) Sensory Innovativeness

According to Hirunyawipada and Paswan (2006), sensory innovativeness is the predisposition of consumers to seek excitement and fantasy through external stimuli such as novel information related to a new product. These innovators are not likely evaluating, organising and elaborating the novel information as they have a low need for cognition (Venkatraman and Price, 1990). These consumers prefer verbal and visual stimuli to process the information,

enjoy the newness and gain pleasure in doing things without too much deliberation and thinking (Venkatraman, 1991). All these traits show their propensity to acquire novel information but a lack of cognitive tendency for adoption and therefore, the use of new product-information to satisfy their desire for novel information does not necessarily lead to the purchase of the new product (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 1992). For sensory innovators, the acquisition of novel information is an end in itself and they gather this information through product news, trials, demonstrations and advertisements without actually adopting the products (Hirunyawipada and Paswan, 2006).

Innovativeness is an intrinsic stimulus which drives the consumer to show the intention to adopt based on their independent predisposition to acquire product rather than based on the communicated experience of others (Midgley and Dowling, 1978). Research suggested that innovativeness is specific to a product category (Subramanian and Mittelstaedt, 1991). It is referred to the tendency to show quick intention to adopt the product than many other consumers (Roehrich, 2004). Consumer innovativeness is an important antecedent for the consumer intention to adopt (Chau and Hui, 1998; Hirunyawipada and Paswan, 2006). The table 2.4 presented a review of findings and context of empirical studies conducted on the association of consumer innovativeness and intention to adopt, in the context of certain product categories.

Table 2.4: Review of Empirical Studies on Consumer Innovativeness and Consumer Intention to Adopt

Author(s) year	Findings	Context
Summers (1971)	Consumer intention to adopt may be a function of situational variables and behavioral considerations	Food, clothing, household cleaners and detergents, cosmetics and personal grooming aids, and appliances
Ostlund (1972)	Global innovativeness extends across test product categories	Plastic bandage, disposable female undergarment, dessert mix, napkin, shampoo, and fabric treatment solution
Foxall and Haskins (1986)	Global innovativeness has high validity in the prediction of adoption behaviour	Food product
Foxall (1988)	No significant relation between global innovativeness and consumer intention to adopt	Food product
Venkatraman and Price (1990)	Cognitive and sensory innovators differ in their proneness toward innovations	Personal computer, food processor and VCR
Foxall and Bhate (1991)	Global innovativeness is found to be significantly related to frequency of use	Personal computer
Venkatraman (1991)	Global innovativeness dominates innovation types in determining the importance of innovation characteristics in adoption	Personal computer and VCR
Goldsmith and Flynn (1992)	Domain-specific innovativeness identifies consumers with higher number of shopping trip and greater spending from those who have less	Fashion
Foxall and Bhate (1993)	Global innovativeness correlates weakly with purchase and consumption	Food product

Midgley and Dowling (1993)	Interest in particular product category and social communication networks mediate the relationship between global innovativeness and adoption	Clothing
Foxall (1994)	Global innovativeness fails to account for the evidence on which the notion of an innovation-prone personality is based	Food product
Foxall (1995)	Involvement in product category moderates the global innovativeness - new product adoption relationship	Food products and computer software
Goldsmith *et al.* (1995)	Domain-specific innovativeness is more highly correlated with number of new products adopted than global innovativeness	Clothing and electronics products
Manning *et al.* (1995)	Internet consumer novelty seeking correlates to actualised novelty seeking and awareness (initial stages in adoption process), whereas consumer independent judgment making is related to the trials of new products (later stage in adoption process)	Food product, electronics product, etc
Goldsmith *et al.* (1998)	Domain-specific innovativeness positively correlated with consumers' knowledge about product and product involvement	Wine
Chau and Hui (1998)	Consumer novelty seeking can identify early from late adopters	Computer Software
Mowen *et al.* (1998)	Global innovativeness mediates the relationship between personal traits and domain-specific innovativeness	Electronic and food products
Foxall and Bhate (1999)	Product category interest and situation facilitation/inhabitation does not mediate the relationship between global innovativeness and adoption	Computer software
Citrin *et al.* (2000)	Domain-specific innovativeness and internet usage influence consumers' adoption of online shopping	Online Shopping

Limayem *et al.* (2000)	Consumer attitude and intention mediate the relationship between consumer innovativeness and internet shopping behavior	Online shopping
Goldsmith (2002)	Domain-specific innovativeness mediates the relationship between global innovativeness and online buying	Online shopping
Wood and Swait (2002)	Global innovativeness (need for cognitive and change) predict pattern of change behavior in adoption	Cellular phone
Goldsmith *et al.* (2003)	Domain-specific innovativeness is a strong predictor of behavioral criteria (time and money spent at shopping)	N/A
Im *et al.* (2003)	Personal characteristics (age and income) are stronger predictors of new product adoption than global innovativeness	Consumer electronics products
Lassar *et al.* (2005)	Global innovativeness is negatively related to online banking adoption	Online banking
Source: Hirunyawipada and Paswan (2006: 183)		

All the above mentioned research suggested that the consumers' intention to adopt a new product is based on their innovative behaviour. Another important aspect of the above studies is that they have highlighted the association between consumer innovativeness, consumer intention to adopt and low consumer involvement in products such as food, clothing, household cleaners and detergents, cosmetics, cake mix, shampoo and fabric treatment solution. These research findings suggested that customers' intention to adopt is mostly situational and behavioural (Summers (1971), or test based (Hirunyawipada and Paswan, 2006; Ostlund, 1972). However, the question arises "does consumer intention to adopt have any relationship with the low level of consumer product involvement?" The above mentioned

list of previously conducted research also found the relationships between consumer innovativeness, their intention to adopt and the high consumer product involvement level with reference to products such as electronics and computer software etc. Research concluded that the intention to adopt with reference to these products is based mostly on personal characteristics and domain-specific consumer innovation (Goldsmith *et al.,* 1995; Im *et al.,* 2003). This poses the question: "does consumer intention to adopt has any association with high level of consumer product involvement?"

2.3.8.1. Consumer's Product Adoption Process

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2004) the consumer's product adoption is a process comprising of number of stages involved in deciding to acquire or reject a product. This process is mainly concerned with how well the product features are spread by communication through salespeople, mass media or informal conversation to the consumers over a period of time (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004). Table 2.5 illustrated the stages of consumers' product adoption process with example:

Table 2.5: Stages in Consumer's Product Adoption Process		
Name of Stage	**What Happens During This Stage**	**Example**
Awareness	Consumer is first exposed to the product innovation.	Consumer sees an ad for a new MP3 player in a magazine she is reading.
Interest	Consumer is interested in the product and searches for additional information. At this	Consumer reads about the MP3 player on the manufacturer's website and then goes to an electronics store near

	stage consumers show the intention to adopt.	her apartment and has a salesperson show her the unit.
Evaluation	Consumer decides whether or not to believe that this product or service will satisfy the need-a kind of "mental trial".	After talking to a knowledgeable friend, Consumer decides that this MP3 player will allow her to easily download the MP3 files that she has on her computer. She also feels that the unit's size is small enough to easily fit into her belt pack.
Trial	Consumer uses the product on a limited basis.	Since an MP3 player cannot be "tried" like a small tube of toothpaste, Consumer buys the MP3 player online from Amazon.com, which offers a 30-day (from the date of shipment) full refund policy.
Adoption (Rejection)	If trial is favorable, consumer decides to use the product on a full rather than a limited basis-if unfavorable, the consumer decides to reject it.	Consumer finds that the MP3 player is easy to use and that the sound quality is excellent. She keeps the MP3 player.

Source: Schiffman and Kanuk (2004:58)

2.3.8.2. Classification of Consumers based on their Product Adoption

The classification of consumers based on their product adoption is highly dependent on their innovativeness (Rogers, 1995)**.** However, the classification of consumers based on their product adoption involved categorisation scheme that showed how consumers demonstrate their intention to adopt as compares with other consumers in terms of time (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004)**.** Research has frequently cited five adopter categories: (a) innovators, (b) early adopters, (c) early majority, (d) late majority and (e) laggards (Goldsmith and Hofacker, 1991;

Mahajan and Muller, 1998; Boyd and Mason, 1999). According to Saaksjarvi (2003), in terms of time, innovators are the consumers who are the first to adopt the new product since they possess the greatest degree of innovativeness, followed by early adopters, early majority, late majority and laggards.

2.3.8.3. Influences on consumer Intention to Adopt

There are many important influences that shape up the consumers' intention to adopt such as: psychological and personality influence, social and national influence, cultural influence, and finally, the influence of interpersonal communication. These concepts are discussed below in detail:

A- Psychological and Personality Influence

According to Midgley and Dowling (1993), personal characteristics have a strong influence on the consumer intention to adopt a product. Researchers have used these personal variables in their studies including income, life cycle, age, and family size (Rogers, 1995). For example, research by Dickerson and Gentry (1983) found that consumer intention to adopt a home computer is related to psychographics (information seeking behaviour and opinion leadership) and demographics (education, age and income). Other research found that consumer intention to adopt a home solar energy system is strongly influenced by consumer education, income, age and occupational status (Labay and Kinnear, 1981). A study related to consumers'

intention to buy electronic products suggested that age, employment status and income significantly distinguish adopters of the products from non-adopters (Martinex *et al.*, 1998). Despite the fact that demographic influences are not strong and significant (Im, *et al.*, 2003), there is a general agreement that the innovators are generally young people who have high levels of education and income, higher opinion leadership, a favourable attitude towards risk and significant social mobility (Gatignon and Robertson, 1991).

Researchers also agreed with the notion that psychological traits, lifestyles and socio demographics including social class, age, social and sports activities, and mass media readership, are strong influences of the consumer intention to adopt (Venkatraman, 1991; Im, *et al.*, 2003). Similarly, a willingness to change and openness to information processing are personality traits that prompt consumers to adopt a novel product (Xie, 2008).

B- Social and National Influence

In this era of globalisation, the economic and political merger of nations has not only opened up new avenues for multinational companies to offer their services and products, but also promoted the use of new methods of doing business (Singh, 2006). Introducing new foeign products and services in local markets requires consumers' willingness to accept new ideas and products. The adoption of new ideas and products in societies and markets has received considerable attention from researchers (Hirschman, 1980; Foxall, 1995; Manning, *et al.*, 1995; Rogers, 1995; Im, *et al.*, 2003; Singh, 2006).

Every social system has its own orientation, special norms and values that are likely to influence consumers' intention to adopt or reject a product (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004). When a social system is "tradionally" orientated, new concepts of products are perceived as a breach of established norms and likely to be avoided by consumers. In contrast, when a social system is modern (or dynamic) in orientation, the consumers' willingness to change and adopt new products is likely to be high (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004). This orientation of social system may exist at the local level and influence only consumers who live in a specific community or may be national in scope and influence members of entire society. For example, in recent years, due to the growing interest of the US population in fitness and health, demand for beef has declined since it is considered high in fats and caloric contents. At the same time, the demand and consumption of fish and chicken have increased due to their nutritional values (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004).

C- Cultural Influence

According to Steenkamp *et al*., (1999) consumers' intention to adopt is influenced by culture. Geert Hofstede a widely known Dutch researcher of culture has defined culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (1991:5). Culture is further referred as "…a set of values, ideas, artifacts, and other meaningful symbols that help individuals communicate, interpret, and evaluate as members of society" (Engel *et al*., 1993; 63). Research suggested that culture not only influence consumers' product selection and choices but it also affects their consumption structure, communication regarding product and decision making (Singh, 2006).

According to Hirschman (1980), the degree of search behaviour that consumers consider appropriate is influenced by their culture. Culture influences the drives that motivate consumers to take action, and it also determines what course of communication should be taken about the problems (Delener and Neelankavil, 1990).

People with common ethnic, political and geographic characteristics share same traits which are also reflected in their consumption behaviour (Singh, 2006). Research identified this as 'national culture' and considered it useful in order to explain national consumer behaviour (Hofstede, 1983; Nakata and Sivakumar, 1996). The culture of every country is different but there are six dimensions identified by Hofstede (1991; 2014) which related most of the variability across different national cultures. These included: Individualism or collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity or femininity, pragmatic versus normative, and indulgence versus restraint. Subsequent studies (Im *et al*., 2003; Singh, 2006; Xie, 2008) supported the significance of these cultural dimensions. Following is the brief overview of each cultural dimension:

1. **Individualism or Collectivism**

According to the Hofstede model, individualism (IDV) versus collectivism is defined as the degree to which individuals of a society are integrated into groups (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2010). Hofstede (1991) further explained that in individualistic societies, the emphasis is on individual rights and personal achievements where people are expected to choose their own affiliations and are expected to stand up for themselves and their immediate family. Whereas,

in collectivist societies, individuals act as members of cohesive and lifelong group and have extended families and exchanged loyalties.

Singh (2006) explained that these ties within groups can be very close-knitted where consumers act more as a member of a social group rather than individuals, known as highly collectivist society. These ties can be loose where individuals are looking after their self-interests and the interests of their immediate families, known as highly individualistic society. In such individualistic societies, consumers tend to have more freedom of decision making, choice and personal initiative, and they attach greater importance to their personal goals and achievements (Hofstede, 1991). Whereas, in collectivistic societies, consumers are more concerned about the benefits of their social group as a whole and always conform to the norms of the group (Singh, 2006). According to Xie (2008) consumers who belong to individualistic societies have a higher propensity to be innovators, as they have a higher willingness to change and adopt novel ideas. On the other hand, collectivistic consumers have higher propensity to be imitators (those who follow other's purchase behaviour) due to their higher susceptibility to normative behaviour and high conformity to expected behaviour (Singh, 2006). Research has suggested that both imitators and innovators are influenced by mass media communication; however, imitators are more influenced by word-of-mouth communications (Singh, 2006). Consumers in a collectivist society have strong ties with other members of their society and thus their propensity to be influenced by interpersonal communications is higher than consumers belonging to an individualist society (Singh, 2006).

2. Power Distance

According to Hofstede (2001) power distance is related to the hierarchy, in-equality of position and authority in a society: defined it as "…the extent to which less powerful members of the society expect and accept unequal distribution of the power" (p.98). Singh (2006) further explained that power distance indicates that how a society deals with the inequality among people with reference to their intellectual and physical capacities. The national cultures with large power distance are hierarchical, whereas in the cultures with small power distance, people value the equality where respect and knowledge are perceived as sources of power.

The degrees of individualism and power distance are found to be related: low power distance cultures tend to be highly individualistic, whereas large power distance cultures tend to be collectivistic (Xie, 2008). Research has found that cultures with low power distance accept and expect power relations that are more democratic or consultative unlike the cultures with high power distance where people are forced to conform to their groups (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2010). That is why research suggested that those consumers who belong to smaller power distance cultures tend to have a higher propensity to be innovators than the consumers belonging to larger power distance cultures and are considered highly susceptible to normative influence (Xie, 2008). For this reason, consumers in larger power distance societies show a higher propensity to be influenced by interpersonal communications than those in lower power distance cultures.

3. Uncertainty Avoidance

According to the Hofstede model, a society's tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty is reflected as the extent to which its members attempt to cope with anxiety by minimising uncertainty (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2010). Hofstede (1991) further explained that the cultures with high uncertainty avoidance tend to be more emotional and minimise the occurrence of unusual or unknown circumstances with rules, laws and regulations, and high levels of bureaucracy. By contrast, consumers belonging to low uncertainty avoidance culture comfortably accept the unstructured situations and try to have as few rules as possible. They are more tolerant to change, tend to be more pragmatic, take risks more easily, and are more tolerant of opinions and behaviours different from their own opinions as they do not feel threatened (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2010).

Research has found that being the risk takers, consumers belonging to low uncertainty avoidance groups are innovators and show early intention to adopt a product (Xie, 2008). Whereas, consumers belonging to high uncertainty avoidance cultures show a higher propensity to avoid the risk, strictly follow the norms of their social group and stick to historically tested patterns of behaviour, rules and regulations (Singh, 2006). They tend to gather information from those around them and are highly influenced by interpersonal communication, unlike consumers who belong to low uncertainty avoidance groups (Singh, 2006). Such consumers imitate, wait for others to try new ideas or products and base their own purchase decision on the experience of others.

4. Masculinity and Femininity

The fourth cultural dimension is masculinity which refers to the importance a society places on the perceived traits of men such as recognition, assertiveness, achievement, advancement, high earnings, challenge, competitiveness, power, ambition and materialism. Conversely, femininity is characterised by cooperation, nurturance, care giving, quality of life and relationships (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2010). Research has suggested that consumers belonging to masculine societies have a higher propensity to be innovators as they buy new products in order to display their achievements (Singh, 2006). On the other hand, being cooperative and caring, consumers belonging to feminine societies are more interested in conformance to the norms of their social group and therefore are more of imitator kind. Singh (2006) further found that feminine cultures display a higher predisposition to be influenced by interpersonal communication than do masculine cultures.

5. Pragmatic versus Normative

According to Hofstede (2014) societies fostering pragmatic virtues are more focused on future rewards, encourage efforts and thrift in modern education in order to prepare for future. These societies are fast in adapting to changing circumstances. On the other hand, some societies foster virtues related to the past and present such as respect for tradition, national pride, and preservation of norms. These societies are normative in nature and view societal change with suspicion. This explaination suggests that consumers belonging to pragmatic societies are may be of more innovative nature than normative societies.

6. Indulgance versus Restraint

According to Hofstede (2014) indulgence stands for a society that is fun loving and allows relatively free gratification of natural human drives related to having fun and enjoying life. Whereas, restraint stands for a society that suppresses gratification of such needs and regulates it by imposing strict social norms. This explaination suggests that consumers belonging to the society that is fun loving and have no restraint on enjoyment, would be more innovative than those belonging to a society with strict social norms to follow.

D - Influence of Interpersonal communication

Research has found that interpersonal communication has a strong influence on consumers' intention to adopt a product (Mahajan *et al*., 1990). Consumers have different level of reliance on mass media or other interpersonal communications for seeking information related to products (Tellefsen and Takada, 1999). Social contacts also influence consumers to adopt (Midgley and Dowling, 1978). According to Bearden *et al*., (1989) interpersonal communication influences consumers' intention to purchase a product as well as their consumption behaviour; it plays a vital role in shaping consumer values, norms and attitudes (Xie, 2008). Interpersonal communication includes word-of-mouth communication, impersonal sources of communication – editorial matter and advertising, and, interpersonal sources – informal opinion leaders and salespeople (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004).

2.3.8.4. Association of Consumer Intention to Adopt and the COO-image

According to Diamantopoulos and Zeugner-Roth (2010) the COO-image of a product has strong associations with consumers' risk perception, product evaluation and intention to adopt. Research suggested that consumers view information related to the COO-image as relevant and use it to develop their intention to adopt a product (Samiee, 2010). With inadequate intrinsic cues, consumer makes a purchase decision on the basis of extrinsic cues such as the COO-image because it provides cognitive shortcuts (Magnusson *et al*., 2011). However, at times the consumers' intention to adopt is so strong that they pay less attention to COO-image cue in order to expedite the decision process, (Westjohn and Magnusson, 2011). These predict that there might be an association between consumer intention to adopt and the COO-image.

The beliefs of consumers about a product's characteristics influence their intention to adopt, especially the COO-image of products based on its level of economic development (Zhang, 1997). Research suggested that consumers attribute varying levels of importance to the COO-image of a product on the basis of which they show their different levels of intention to adopt (Samiee, 1994). The difference in the level of importance given to the COO-image is mostly based on the level of economic development of the country. According to research, better educated, younger, more affluent and world-minded consumers show a high intention to adopt foreign products that are made in developed countries (Rawwas *et al*. 1996; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2002). On the other hand, Leonidou *et al*. (1999) found that upper class and younger consumers show less discrimination towards products originated in less-developed countries.

The COO-image is often based on a country's expertise in a certain product category (Agarwal and Sikri, 1996). Consumers' intention to adopt a product is often dependent upon their perception of the COO-image based on the strengths and weakness in that particular product category (Roth and Romeo, 1992). In the absence of any information related to a product other than the COO, consumers show an intention to adopt based on the COO-image of the product in that category, based on their trust in that country's production (Johansson *et al.,* 1985). On the other hand, if consumers are familiar with a specific country's expertise and reputation, they relate it with its products' quality which indirectly influence their intention to adopt (Lin and Chen, 2006). It is important to further explore the association between consumer intention to adopt and the COO-image in a product category.

According to Han (1989) the COO-image functions as a cue that indicates the quality and risk related to the products and therefore affects consumer's product evaluation and adoption. However some studies have found that if consumers' intention to adopt is strong, then the COO-image does not have a substantial effect on the purchase decision (Wall *et al.*, 1991). For example, when most of the members of a social group are buying a specific product, consumers show high intention to adopt without considering detailed information about product characteristics (Huber and McCann, 1982).

According to researchers such as Lim and O'Cass (2001) and Walker (2008), consumers show their intention to adopt a product which is expressive of their lifestyle and personality. For this reason, consumers are cautious during the whole adoption process especially while buying

high involvement products such as automobiles (Narteh *et al*., 2012). For high involvement products, customers show a higher intention to adopt for brands with positive brand image as compared to brands of low recognition (Mowen and Minor, 2001). The strong brand-country association in terms of the country's expertise in a certain product category is also found to be an important element for consumers' brand selection and adoption (Keller, 2009), such as in the case of automobiles (Narteh *et al*., 2012). According to Wang and Yang (2008), the image of the COO of a car positively influences the consumers' purchase intention. According to Rezvani *et al.* (2012), the dimensions such as innovation, technology, quality and prestige of the automobile manufacturing country influence the consumers' purchase behaviour. Researchers have found that the level of economic development of the manufacturing country significantly influences the consumer intention to adopt an automobile (Evanschitzky *et al*., 2008; Wang and Yang, 2008). Similarly, consumers' intentions to adopt luxury products are based on both the COO-image and brand-country association (Tse and Gorn, 1993; Ahmed and d'Astous, 1996). However, these effects can vary from one product category to another (Pappu *et al*., 2005; Wu and Lo, 2009).

Research has suggested various reasons for consumer purchase decision and product selections (Radder and Huang, 2008; Shabbir *et al.*, 2009; Tang *et al.*, 2011). For example consumer awareness has found to be an important determinant of product choice (Srinivasan *et al.*, 2010; Huang and Sarigollu, 2012). Other studies included accessibility (Kim, 2008), brand image (Baek *et al.*, 2010; Hennessy and Tol, 2011), price (Chattopadhyay *et al.*, 2009; Ching *et al.*, 2009), the COO-image (Wang and Yang, 2008), consumers' role and status (Narteh *et al*., 2012), and especially influence of friends and family (Evanschitzky *et al.*,

2008; Narteh *et al.*, 2012) as determinants of consumers' intention to adopt and choice of products.

2.3.9. Consumer Product Involvement Effects

Research defined involvement as the level of understanding and recognition of a specific product by the consumer (Saeed *et al.*, 2013). Research further divided the level of involvement of consumers into three types: (1) product, (2) purchasing and (3) advertising involvement (Belch and Belch, 1995; Prendergast, 2010). Consumers' involvement with the product is based in the social psychology (Beharrell and Denison, 1995), and it has gradually became part of mainstream consumer behaviour research (Lin and Chen, 2006). The consumer product involvement is referred to how much time, interest, effort and thought goes into the product purchases (Abraham, 2013).

Consumers' concern for a product shows their level of product involvement, which ranges from absolute concentration to complete ignorance (Lin and Chen, 2006; Saeed *et al.*, 2013). Researchers have defined the level of consumer product involvement as consumers' level of participation and interest to buy a product (Neal and Quester, 2006; Zdravkovic, 2013). The higher the level of consideration, interest and devotion, the greater the level of consumer product involvement, whereas the lower the level of consideration, interest and devotion, the lower the level of consumer product involvement. (Lin and Chen, 2006).

Ahmed and d'Astous (2004) further explored the suggestion that consumers' perceptions of a product are shaped by their product involvement levels evoked in a product category. Varying extents of purchase risks are attached to different categories of products and perpetually stimulate different levels of purchase involvement. Other researchers believe that the monetary outlay and social implications of product usage also provide a basis for calculations the extent to which the consumer is involved in a product (O'Cass, 2004). Research has further concluded that consumers are more involved in those products that are more visible to other consumers, expensive and that contribute to personal image creation (Zdravkovic, 2013). Research further suggested that the extent of involvement depends upon the level of search activity required (Miranda and Parkvithee, 2013): this is why complex product attracts a high level of consumer involvement at the time of purchase (Schiffman *et al*., 2005).

Researchers further added that consumers' level of product involvement depends on the degree of personal relevance and perceived risk of the product (Zdravkovic, 2013). Purchasing a product is either vital to consumers in terms of perceived risk and thus it provokes extensive cognition, or it is not of high significance, having little perceived risk and thus provoking limited information search and processing (Schiffman *et al*., 2008). According to Reynolds and Olson (2001) consumers' product involvement can be enduring (long term) or situational (short term). Solomon (2002) explained that opposed to enduring involvement, situational involvement is a short term state of arousal, established by a temporary activation of relevant self-knowledge, situation-specific and transitory. Situational involvement can be interpreted as low product involvement whereas; high product involvement can be interpreted as enduring involvement.

Table 2.6 summarises the difference between the two levels of consumer product involvement:

Table 2.6: Categories of Consumer Product Involvement	
Attributes of Low-Involvement Level	**Attributes of High-Involvement Level**
- Little thought and effort is involved in purchase - Less/limited information search - High frequency of purchase - Less cost and perceived risk - Less significance - Situational or short term involvement - Does not effect consumers' lifestyle - For example: Toiletries, Food and Drinks etc	- Intensive information search and a lot of consideration - Exceptional/rare purchase - High cost and perceived risk - High significance - Enduring or long term involvement - For example: Automobiles, Electronics etc

Product involvement plays a significant role in consumer behaviour and as the level of involvement increases, the consumer searches for further information (Goldsmith and Emmert, 1991; and, Friedman and Smith, 1993). Apart from consumer behaviour, the level of product involvement of a customer also affects the consumers' decision-making (Henderson, 2010) as well as marketing communications strategy (Saeed *et al*, 2013). According to Peter and Donnely (2004), product involvement influences consumer decision-making in two ways. Firstly, consumers are likely to develop a high degree of product knowledge while purchasing a high-involvement product in order to be confident that the item satisfies their needs. Secondly, a high degree of product involvement encourages extensive decision making by consumers, which is likely to increase the time it takes to go through the decision making process. Yang (2001) further included that consumers carefully undertake an extensive

information search when purchasing high involvement products; however, they show rather impulsive purchase behaviour in case of low involvement products.

Consumer product involvement may mediate the overall consumer goal (utilitarian, symbolic or experiential) and the purchase decision (Henry, 2006). Involvement affects the way in which quality cues operate; low involvement consumers are more inclined to adopt price as a cue and although high involvement consumers also consider price, but their major concern is product features (Miranda and Parkvithee, 2013). According to Lockshin and Spawton (2001), product involvement is also correlated with knowledge, enthusiasm and innovativeness.

2.3.9.1. Association of Consumers' Information Search, Product Knowledge and the COO-image

As a consequence of globalisation, consumers can easily purchase foreign products, and can easily search for product-related information through the internet. According to Pan and Chang (2011), consumers use the COO information of a product as an important criterion to make purchase decisions and to evaluate product quality accordingly. Product knowledge has a strong impact on consumers' purchase decision (Lin and Chen, 2006). Product knowledge is described as general information and knowledge that the consumer has about the product's functional characteristics, also known as product expertise, familiarity and experience (Lee and Lee 2009).

Research has suggested that the consumer's product knowledge is a multi-dimensional construct that encompasses various types of product related experiences, leading to various dimensions of knowledge (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). These dimensions of knowledge may have different effects on the consumer's product selection, choice and evaluation. Research has also suggested that consumer awareness about products has a strong effect on their product knowledge (Koubaa, 2008); Lee and Lee (2009) also suggested a distinction between objective and subjective product knowledge, in which objective knowledge is the type and amount of information stored in consumer's memory, whilst subjective knowledge is the consumers' perception of how much is known to them. Researchers believe that decision-making requires considerable psychological processing of information to reach a conclusion and to select one of the available alternatives (Pfister, 2003). These inferences are mostly generated from previous experiences and stored information regarding the brand and the COO (Koubaa, 2008). Researchers such as Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) suggested that there are three common kinds of human beliefs: (1) descriptive beliefs that are derived from direct experience with the product, (2) informational beliefs that are influenced by sources of consumers' information such as media advertisements, family, peers and friend, and (3) inferential beliefs which are formed by making inferences either correctly or incorrectly based on consumers' own past experience.

Based on their product involvement level, consumers are motivated to process the available information and search for more product information (Zdravkovic, 2013). Research showed that the consumers are likely to rely on attribute-based information or stereotypical information in their product evaluation and decision making, based on their level of product

involvement (Chao, *et al.* 2005). Research has also found that customers who purchase high involvement products generally conduct extensive research prior to the purchase in order to gain product understanding, whilst, the consumers purchasing low involvement product buy a product with a lower level of pre-purchase consideration of product (Tabassi, *et al* 2013).

However, in the absence of prior experience or knowledge of a product, consumers make the purchase decision based on their assessment of product quality and risk (Ahmed and d'Astous (2004). There are two kinds of cues that signify the quality of a product and provide the basis of consumer product knowledge, consumer purchase intention and buying behaviour. Bruwer and Buller (2012) found that extrinsic-cues such as packaging, price, brand, store image, country of origin etc. work as hints of quality. Research has found consumer often assess the quality and risk based on its COO (Lockshin and Hall, 2003). Some researchers believe that the intrinsic-cues of a product play more vital role in judging the quality of the product because these cues have greater predictive value than the extrinsic cues (Zeithaml, 1988; Schiffman *et al*., 2008). Also, intrinsic cues are predominantly important at the time of purchase and consumption of a product (Bruwer and Buller, 2012). The salient intrinsic attributes of a product enhance the consumer experience and perceived value (Schaefer, 1997). Research concluded that consumers with high product involvement and high levels of objective knowledge often use intrinsic and credible cues rather than extrinsic cues such as the COO-image to make their purchase decisions (Schaefer, 1997; Pan and Chang, 2011). On the contrary, in a case where consumers' product involvement is high but their level of knowledge pertinent to the specific product category is low, they tend to pay more attention towards extrinsic cues such as the COO (Abraham, 2013; Saeed *et al*, 2013). However, in the case of

low involvement products, the impact of the COO is weaker in the presence of another extrinsic cue of brand name, which becomes the determinant factor for purchase decision (Miranda and Parkvithee, 2013).

In the absence of an established brand, there is a strong impact of the COO of a product on consumer perceptions, product evaluations and purchase decisions (Pappu *et al*., 2006). Product evaluation typically includes certain brands and country specific associations in consumer's mind that make up an overall product/brand image (Bruwer and Buller, 2012). According to Pappu *et al*. (2006), consumer-based equity of a brand made in a country with stronger product-category-country-association is proved to be significantly higher than a brand made in a country with weaker product-category-country-associations. It is therefore important to further explore the effects of these country associations on low and high involvement products.

According to Said *et al.* (2011), the effect of the COO-image on consumer product involvement levels may vary based on the country's level of economic development, such as, in highly developed countries, sufficient information of product attributes is readily available, so the importance of the COO-image cue is lessened. On the other hand, in developing countries, the COO-image plays a crucial role since product specific information is less available (Parkvithee and Miranda, 2011). However, there is a gap in the existing body of research, as there is a limited research available that measures the above notions with respect to low and high involvement products.

Fig 2.4 presents a summary of the effects that product knowledge and COO-image have on consumer purchase decision in terms of information search intention and purchase intentions, and how level of consumers' product involvement is moderating this effect:

Figure 2.4: COO-image, product involvement and consumer purchase decision

```
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │   Product Involvement   │
                    └─────────────────────────┘
                              │              │
                              │              │
                              ▼              ▼
┌──────────────────────────┐       ┌─────────────────────────────┐
│ Country-of-Origin Image  │       │  Consumer Purchase Decision │
└──────────────────────────┘       │                             │
                           ─────▶   │   • Information Search      │
┌──────────────────────────┐       │     Intention               │
│   Product Knowledge      │       └─────────────────────────────┘
└──────────────────────────┘
```

Source: Lin and Chen (2006: 253)
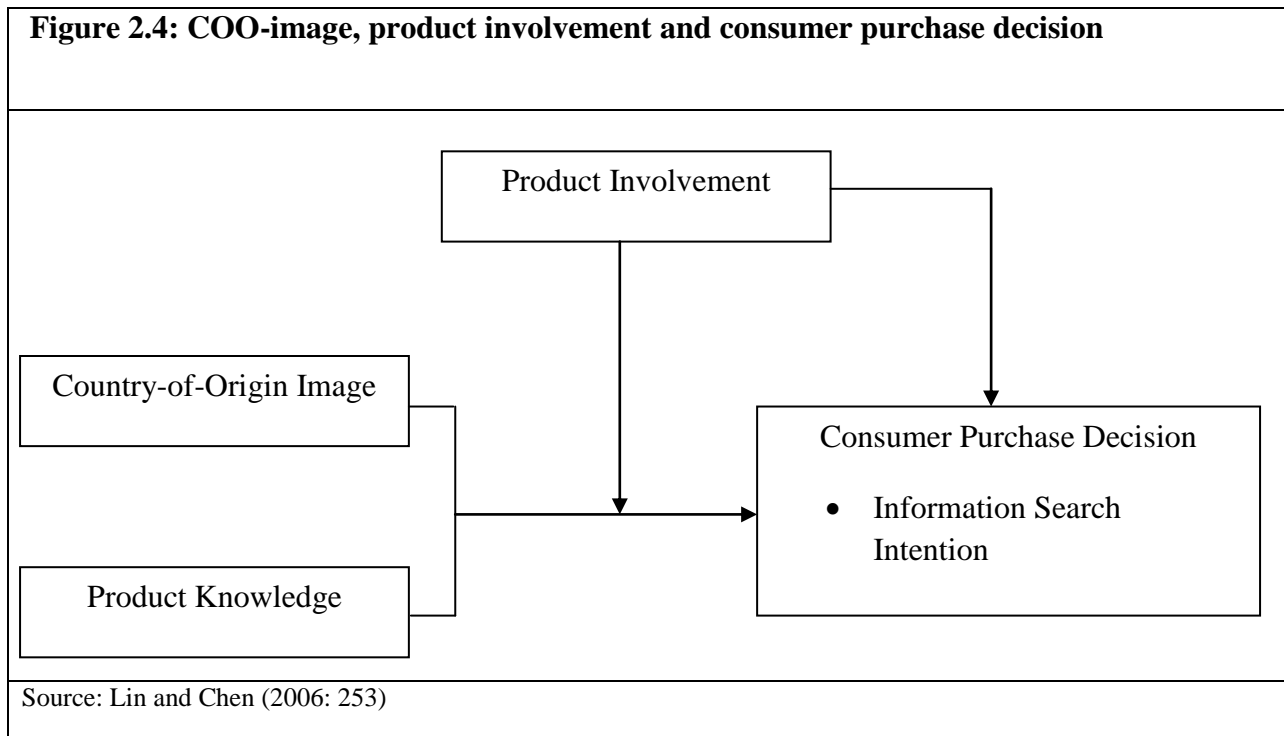
2.3.9.2. Association of Consumers' Product Involvement and the COO-image

Regardless of whether it is based on stereotype or factual information, the COO plays a crucial role in forming consumer perceptions (Ahmed and d'Astous, 1995; Chao, 1998). These perceptions are influenced by many factors such as product complexity (Samiee, 1994), the level of involvement in a product class (Maheswaran, 1994), the familiarity with a COO (Zhang, 1997), as well as demographic and socio-psychological characteristics (Kucukemiroglu *et al.*, 2005).

The effect of the COO on product quality evaluations is dependent upon the technical complexity and involvement of the product as well as the consumer's age, education level, and degree of familiarity with the product (Insch and McBride, 1998; 2004). Research found that consumers in the USA and the UK were only able to identify the COO of limited brands (Samiee *et al*., 2005; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2008). These studies demonstrated that consumers neither possess accurate knowledge of origins of brands, nor do they have an active intention to undertake an information search. Other research supported the assertion that consumers' COO knowledge is remarkably poor and thus it cannot be an important factor affecting consumers' product involvement, attitudes and behaviour (Liefeld, 2004; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2008; Samiee, 2010).

On the other hand, Magnusson *et al.* (2011) found that consumers recognise a COO of a brand regardless of an objective accuracy of its country-product-category-associations. The study rejects the notion that the COO information is an irrelevant cue for consumers, for instance in a case of buying high involvement automobiles, how can the association of a brand with Germany be any less influential for a consumer who incorrectly perceived Volvo to be German than for the same consumer who correctly perceived Mercedes to be German? Researchers such as Josiassen and Harzing (2008) supported this argument by giving examples of foreign branding where companies deliberately create an inaccurate product's COO perception, which provides evidence that the COO-image is important in shaping up the consumer behaviour. Some examples of foreign branding based on the COO are as follows:

- "Hinari" – a Scotish electronics company, with a deliberately Japanese sounding name

- "Spliigenbock" –an Italian beer (made by 'Birra Peroni'), the name is designed to sound German, as Germany has a reputation for beer.

- "Hoffmeister" laager – a UK beer, with a German sounding name for the same reason as above.

The COO-image is such an important cue that it is widely used for marketing by various companies. The COO-image marketing is used to position both low involvement products such as food and drinks, shoes, toiletries etc, and high involvement products such as automobiles, luxury fashion accessories, furniture etc (Magnusson *et al.*, 2011). In the case of food products, COO-image is used as an indicator of quality by consumers (Verbeke and Ward, 2006; Dekhili and d'Hauteville, 2009; Yeh, Chen, and Sher, 2010). The association between COO-image and food quality is especially strong in products in which a higher risk in terms of health and safety is perceived (Claret *et al.*, 2012). The study conducted on concumers' perceptions of electrical appliances discovered that the COO-image has a significant impact on brand dimensions and consumer purchase behaviour (Norjaya Mohd *et al.*, 2007).

In the global marketplace, it is very important to understand the effect of the COO-image on consumers' purchasing habits (Rezvani *et al.*, 2012). The research conducted by Ozretic-Dosen, *et al.* (2007) concludes that there are four reasons that the COO-image is used as a strong source of product evaluation by marketers and consumers:

1- Firstly, because of growing globalisation, consumers tend to base their product evaluation on their COO-image.

2- Secondly, the products related information is increasingly complex, so consumers have to rely on the product's COO in their purchase decision;

3- Thirdly, the use of the COO-image as a part of global marketing positioning strategy encourages consumers to focus on the product's COO rather than its attributes to base their purchase decision; and

4- Finally, consumers are now more aware of other country's products, and may have tried products from different countries.

According to Chattalas *et. al.,* (2008), national stereotypes exist at the global or macro level and also occur at the product type or micro level. For example, Japanese electronic products are evaluated as high quality by consumers around the globe, and at the same time Japanese food products are perceived as being of low quality (Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983). Thus, the COO-image varies across product categories or involvement levels. LeClerc *et al.*, (1994) found that the magnitude of effects of the COO-image is larger for technically complex, expensive or fashion-oriented products, than those used on daily basis with less cost involved. Other researchers found that the COO-image has a stronger influence on the consumers' perception of hedonic products that are consumed based on the 'affective experience', pleasure and cognitive drive, than the 'utilitarian' products that are purchased based on their functional and economical benefits (Chattalas *et. al.,* 2008).

Most international research in this regard concluded that consumers use the information related to the COO-image cues to infer product quality (Sohail, 2005; Karunaratna and Quester, 2007). Consumers develop product images through their familiarity with a particular country, and later on use this information to perceive the risk and quality attached to the products originated in that country (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993). However, the effects of the COO-image of a product on consumer perception and behaviour vary from country to country, mainly due to the socio-cultural, economic, political-legal, traditions, relationships, historical events, level of industrialisation, representative products, the degree of technological advancement, and geographical closeness (Nayir and Durmusoglu, 2008). Also, a greater level of direct contact with a country's products or with the country itself leads to more objective consumer knowledge and perceptions (Balabanis *et al*., 2002). These consumer perceptions also tend to vary over time because of changes in lifestyle patterns, the degree of industrialisation and marketing sophistication (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993).

Researchers further concluded that there are differences in the level of importance given to the COO by consumers (Samiee, 1994). The consumers' socio-demographic characteristics such as: age, gender, education level and income, play a moderating role on the impacts of the COO-image (Samiee, 1994; Balabanis *et al*., 2002; Ahmed and d'Atous, 2007). The psychographic characteristics of consumers were also found to influence the COO evaluations as Rawwas *et al*. (1996) reported that world-minded consumers who are younger, better educated and more affluent (Hett, 1993) display a lower level of bias towards foreign products. Similarly, Niss (1996) stated that consumers with more income and higher education more readily accept foreign products. Several researchers supported these findings by

concluding that younger, highly educated and wealthier consumers show less prejudice towards products from developing countries and evaluate foreign products more favourably (Leonidou *et al.*, 1999; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2002). For example, young consumers show a positive attitude towards foreign brands of chocolates in Malaysia (Chuin and Mohamad, 2012). While conducting a comparative analysis of American and Japanese consumers, Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran (2000) found that the cultural orientation dimension of individualism/collectivism significantly explains the COO evaluations. This suggests that consumers' ethnicity also plays an important role in their perceptions of the COO-image. However, other studies found no relationship between consumers' socio-demographic backgrounds and the COO-image impacts (Chuin and Mohamad, 2012). Balabanis *et al.* (2002) and Samiee *et al.* (2005) found that the demographic variables explain the perception of the COO only to some extent and consumers from different demographic background may not evaluate various products on the basis of their COO.

A vast amount of research has dealt with the key drivers in choosing fast moving consumer goods (FMCG), including food products (Silayoi and Speece, 2004; Insch and Florek, 2009). Convenience appears to be of growing importance in food choice worldwide specially for younger consumers, who take their habits into old age (Silayoi and Speece, 2004). However, this view is derived from the fact that FMCG, including food products, are low-involvement products which do not involve much consideration by the consumers. To sum up, Pharr (2005) stated that the country stereotypes, demographics, country specific animosity and ethnocentrism act as antecedents of consumer purchase intentions. Pharr also included

involvement level and involvement type among the moderators of the COO influence on purchase intentions. The following Fig 2.5 summarises the concept:

Figure 2.5: COO influence: Antecedents, Moderators and Evaluations

Source: Ahmed and D'Astous (2008:82)
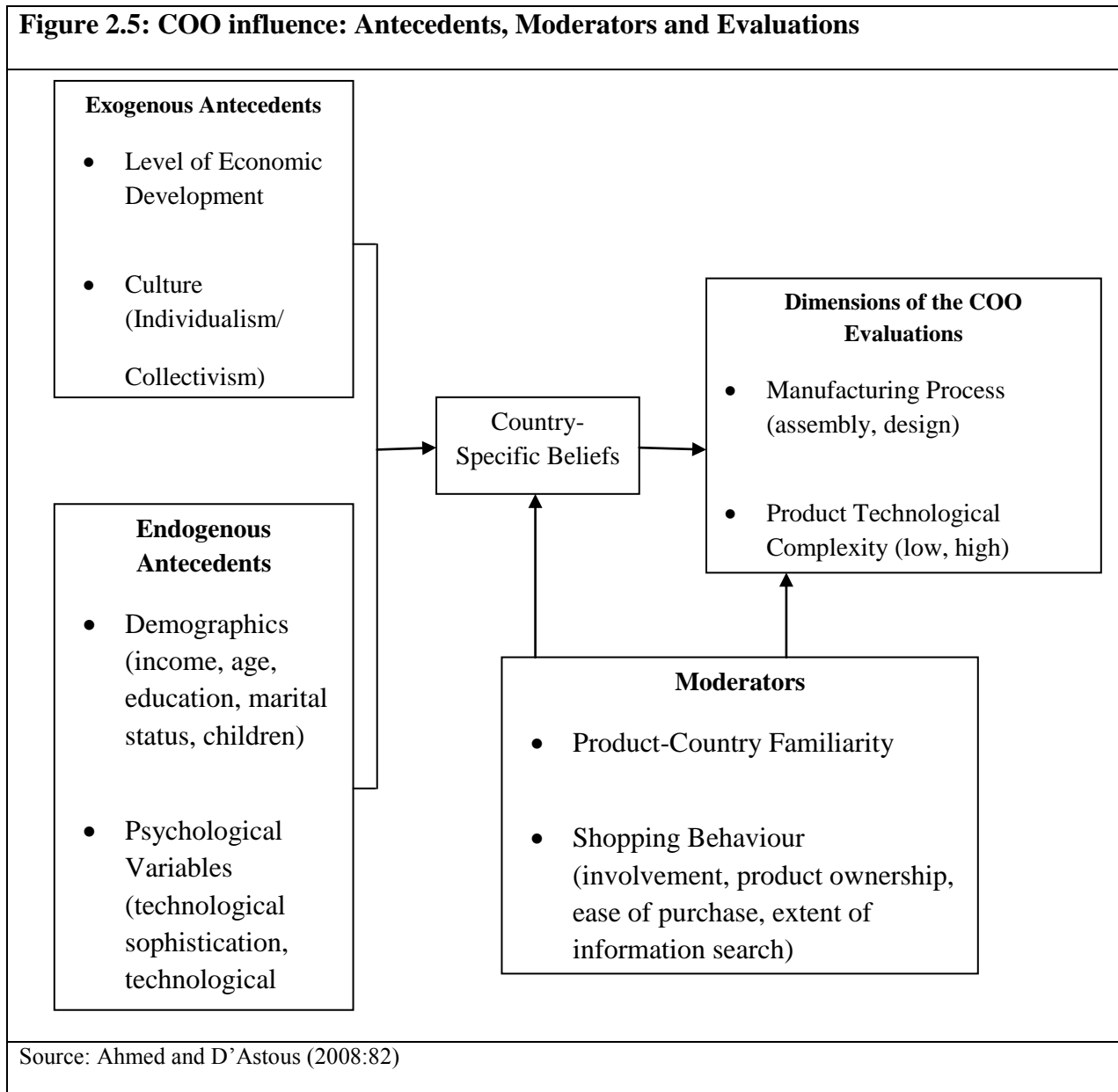
The COO-image, by itself, may have an impact on consumer's product involvement level. According to Pan and Chang (2011), when the COO-image is positive, it has strong positive effects on consumers having low product involvement level. On the other hand, if the COO-

image is low, it does not have any significant impact on either low or high consumer product involvement level.

Research suggests that the perception and evaluation of a product often depends on its COO-image (Maheswaran, 1994; Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000; Yasin and Noor, 2007). Consumers use the 'made-in' country image to evaluate the supposed 'superiority' or 'inferiority' of a product based on a particular country's competence and goodwill in a specific product category (Lin and chen, 2006). Chuin and Mohamad (2012) suggested that different countries have gained distinctive images in consumers' minds in specific categories of products. For example, the Japanese perceive Germany to be particularly good at manufacturing luxury Automobiles (Lee *et al.,* 2013). Research found a greater consumer willingness to buy products that are made in countries with a good reputation in the respective product categories than to buy the products made in countries that do not have a good reputation in those product categories (Roth and Romeo, 1992).

In order to make a buying decision, the effect of the COO-image comes from consumers' perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of a specific country (Rezvani *et al.*, 2012). The study by Pappu *et al.* (2007) related to the COO-image and its effects, found that it has strong effectswith regard to high involvement products such as Cars. Existing research highlights the need for further research to investigate that what role the COO-image plays in shaping consumer purchase behaviour for low involvement goods, and whether this role is same for high involvement products (Ahmed *et al*., 2004; Chuin and Mohamad, 2012).

According to Agarwal and Sikri (1996), in overseas markets a favourable (or unfavourable) COO-image may facilitate (or inhibit) the speed of product introduction, recognition and acceptance. Consumers often hold favourable bias towards products from developed countries, and an unfavourable bias towards the products from developing countries (Kaynak *et al*., 2000; Nayir and Durmusoglu, 2008; Wong *et al*., 2008). Researchers such as Pan and Chang (2011) further concluded that consumers from developed countries have higher perceived risk for products of developing countries and consumers from developing countries have less confidence on their home based products.

Pan and Chang (2011) found that consumers have a 'hierarchy of biases' and that is why they prefer to purchase products from economically developed countries and countries with strong product category reputation. The association of a positive COO-image with certain products may reduce the perceived risk and improve product evaluation. The level of product involvement illustrates the level of consumer concern with a product, and is influenced by their personal factors such as interests and needs (Pan and Chang, 2011).

In their study comparing the impact of the COO-image on low involvement products such as T-shirts and high involvement products such as suits, Parkvithee and Miranda (2011) found that Thai consumers perceived the T-shirts made in a developed country, such as Japan were of superior quality to those produced in a developing country, such as Vietnam. The highly perceived COO-image in terms of its economic development, have strong impacts on low involvement products. Parkvithee and Miranda (2011) also found that in the case of high

involvement products, consumers pay more attention to the product knowledge, rather than being influenced by the COO-image of the product.

In addition, Granzin and Olsen (1998) discovered that consumers in developed countries prefer products (both low and high involvement) of developed countries, especially of their own countries. Whereas, consumers from developing countries view domestic products less favourably as compared with the products of more advanced countries (Jaffe and Martinez, 1995; Phau and Suntornnond, 2006).

2.3.10. Consumer Ethnocentrism Effects

Consumer ethnocentrism is a concept that is adapted from the socio-psychological phenomenon of ethnocentrism, where the members of a group unanimously view fellow members as being superior and more virtuous than non-members (Levine and Campbell, 1972). Consumer ethnocentrism confines the personal disposition of consumers to behave in some conforming manner across all domestic and foreign products (Chattalas *et. al.*, 2008).

The concept of consumer ethnocentrism is based on consumers' association with their home country where they perceive that national products are of superior quality (Hamin and Elliot, 2006) and consumers' beliefs of social appropriateness (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). For example, research conducted in New Zealand found that even when the imported products are available with better quality and at cheaper prices, consumers favours the locally made products (Watson and Wright, 2000). Consumer ethnocentrism is further explained by

researchers as an emotional concept that shows how consumers perceive local/domestic products as objects of pride, compared with the foreign-made products (Kinra, 2006). Research also concluded that consumer ethnocentrism is a deeply engraved belief that dominates consumers' beliefs about the morality of purchasing foreign products and consumers' preference for domestic products over foreign products (Yagci, 2001; Khan, 2012). Due to globalisation, governments are reducing the trade barriers between countries, but consumer ethnocentrism still represents a strong non-tariff barrier (Shankarmahesh, 2006). Research has found that consumers' ethnocentrism has a negative relationship with the evaluations and attitudes towards foreign products (Klein, 2002; Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser 2002). This is why consumer ethnocentrism has strong implications on consumers' perceptions of imports, the COO-image, perceptions of quality, attitudes towards a specific brand, choice between domestic and foreign products, purchase intentions and their readiness to buy foreign products (Tropp and Pettigrew, 2005; Usunier and Le, 2005; Shankarmahesh, 2006). Research related to the retail sector also found that consumer ethnocentrism affects buyers' judgment of the quality of products (Khan, 2012). Ethnocentric consumers believe that buying foreign products is unpatriotic, immoral and inappropriate because it harms the domestic economy and increases un-employment (Usunier and Le, 2005). On the other hand, research has argued that non-ethnocentric consumers assess foreign products on the basis of their product attributes and quality no matter where they are made from (Balabanis *et al*, 2001; Khan, 2012; Lee *et al*, 2013).

2.3.10.1. The Effects of the Aspects of Consumer Ethnocentrism

Extensive research studies have focused on the COO-effects with levels of consumer ethnocentrism (Lee and Ganesh, 1999; Lee *et al*., 2010; Poon *et al*., 2010). Research suggested that consumer ethnocentrism and the COO are two distinct, yet related accounts of consumer preference (Zolfagharian *et al*., 2014). Researchers such as Gürhan-Canli and Maheswaran (2000) found that consumer ethnocentrism is antecedent to the COO evaluations. As discussed earlier, consumer ethnocentrism has a strong influence on consumer perception and evaluation of foreign products (Usunier and Lee, 2005; Shankarmahesh, 2006). Similarly, the COO is a multi dimensional concept that evokes a wide range of cognitive and psychological responses (Hong and Yi, 1992; Nebenzahl and Jaffe, 1996; Lim and Darley, 1997). It can be separated into two discrete components; the first is informational and second is related directly to consumer's group belonging and affiliation, i.e. national loyalty, and reinforces one's sense of national identity (Bruning, 1997). Research suggested that the COO-image is often created by affective components such as consumers' feelings of like or dislike, favourable or unfavourable emotions, good or bad feelings, towards a certain country (Hamin *et al*, 2014). Research further included that the COO-image not only has cognitive and affective aspects but also has normative associations, such that positive evaluation of products from a certain country may be perceived as an endorsement of its actions, practices and policies (Sharma, 2011). Fig 2.6 presented the aspects of consumer ethnocentrism which have varying roles to play with reference to the COO-effects:

Figure 2.6: The Aspects of Consumer Ethnocentrism
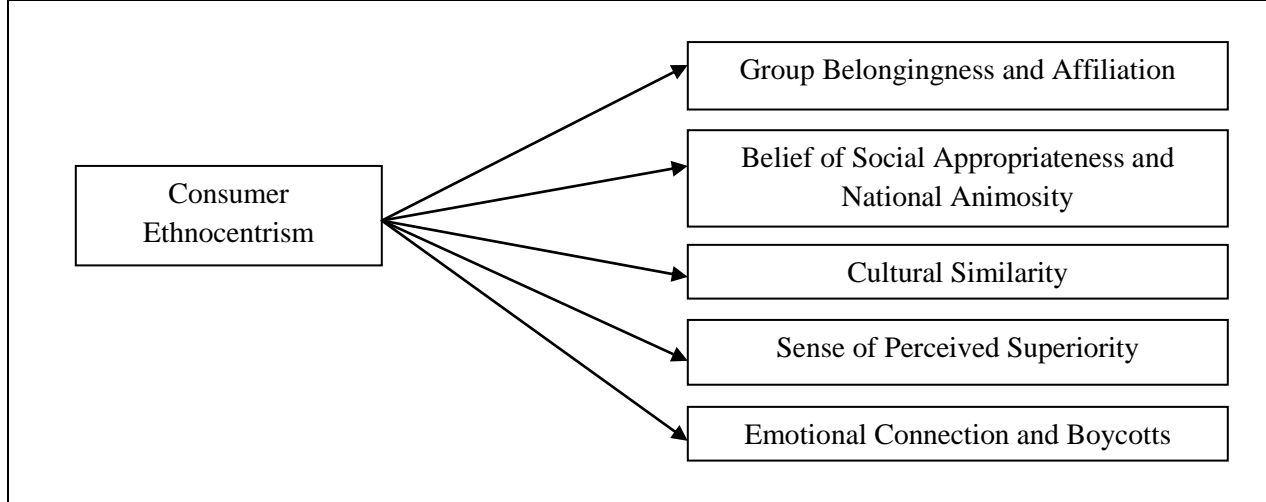
A-Group Belongingness and Affiliation

Verleegh and Steenkamp (1999) suggested that consumer ethnocentrism includes affective elements such as a sense of identity and feelings of belongingness, the late playing a strong role in influencing consumers' purchase behaviour (Lee *et al.*, 2013). On the other hand, its effects on consumer preference for a local or foreign product are moderated by consumers' cognitive beliefs about the extent to which their country is threatened by foreign competition (Usunier and Le, 2005).

Research has found that consumers prefer products manufactured in more developed countries (Balabanis *et al*., 2001), however, there is also evidence that regardless of their COO, consumers prefer home country products out of a sense of loyalty, patriotism and/or because of their perceived superiority of home country products, particularly for the consumers belonging to more developed countries (Hamin and Elliot, 2006).

Research has also found that when consumer ethnocentrism is high, the COO-image has a significant effect on consumers' product evaluation and purchase intention (Knight, 1999). Consumers who have high levels of ethnocentrism pay more attention to the COO-image cue, and reveal a greater dependence on national stereotypes for the sake of building their own national identification (Chattalas *et. al.,* 2008). It was found that consumers are also connected emotionally to local or foreign brands (Algesheimer and Dholakia, 2005; Thompson *et al*., 2006), a notion is reffered to as 'emotional brands', as the consumers form an intimate bond with a brand that is as passionate as to the bond of close circle of family and friends (Aggarwal, 2004). This 'emotional value' perceived by consumers is referred to their affective reactions to a brand (Narteh *et al*., 2012). According to Keller (2001), consumers' feelings about brands can be positive, negative, intense or mild. Research found that consumers' emotional response to a brand strongly predicts their purchase intentions and has twice the influence of cognition (Morris *et al*., 2002).

Research has emphasised the importance of these consumer emotions in relation to products (Gobe, 2001). Consumers also become emotionally attached to a particular brand, especially a car brand, due to their family attachments (Rindfleisch *et al*., 2009). An emotional connection and experience with a car brand remains in the consumers' memory as a connection made on a level beyond their basic transportation needs (Narteh *et al*., 2012). Research found that consumers are not likely to act rationally all the time when making a purchase decision because their emotional, group belongings and affiliations also play a role in decision-making (Gobe, 2001; Morris *et al*., 2002).

B- Beliefs of Social Appropriateness and National Animosity

Zdravkovic (2013) found that ethnocentric consumers show strong negative attitude towards imported products, and exhibit "domestic country bias" (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004: 80). It was suggested that consumer ethnocentrism represents the beliefs that consumers have about the social appropriateness of buying foreign products, as ethnocentric consumers believe that buying foreign products is morally wrong, unpatriotic and self-defeating (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Consumers generally prefer to buy products that are domestically manufactured as they are morally appropriate in a normative sense; this expression serves as an essential stimulus for the decision to purchase domestic or local products (Hamin and Elliot, 2006).

The research has explored the COO-image effects with reference to the consumers' national feelings towards a specific country and their effects on consumers' purchase intentions (Roth and Diamantopoulous, 2009). It was found that consumers can discriminate against the product/firms with specific country of origin, due to animosity which is a negative emotion against the manufacturing country (Hoffmann, *et al*, 2011). Hoffman *et al.*(2011) argued that the COO-image with reference to animosity is a phenomenon that not only affect the individual's buying behaviour, but it also affect the international businesses. Animosity involves hostility or dislike towards a certain country that have negative impacts on the purchase intentions of consumers to buy the products of that particular country (Jiménez and Martín, 2012). Also, Hoffmann *et al.*, (2011) suggested that hostility, animosity and antipathy

towards a specific country have a negative and direct effect on consumers' product evaluations, regardless of the evaluation of the product in terms of price and quality.

Consumer animosity is the negative attitude of consumers towards a specific foreign country (Zdravkovic, 2013). Research found that these negative attitudes could be the result of economic relations, war, or any other rivalry between consumers' own country and the foreign country (Klien, 2002; Amine *et al.*, 2005). In addition, research suggested that personal characteristics such as level of patriotism, age and country prejudice function as antecedents to consumer animosity (Klein and Ettenson, 1999). Four types of animosities are identified by the research (Zdravkovic, 2013; 93), such as:

1- Stable animosities – based on historical perspective;
2- Situational animosities – situation specific and temporary;
3- National animosities – feelings based on a macro-level perspective;
4- Personal animosities – based on an individual's personal experience.

Research found that the COO cue has a greater effect on consumers' product evaluations, purchase intentions and buying decisions in highly ethnocentric communities (Abraham, 2013). In these communities, consumers pay more attention to the COO cue, and perceive that the consumption of imported products is unpatriotic and socially unacceptable (Chattalas *et al.*, 2008). For example, there is a group of consumers in the USA who not only possess a strong animosity among themselves due to economic, cultural or political backlash, but they also spread their attitudes towards the COO cue to the other members of the community.

These consumers believe that globalisation has posed serious threats to their local markets (Balabanis *et al*., 2001). Research further suggested that the COO evaluation is influenced negatively when consumer experience animosity toward that country (Zdravkovic, 2013). The COO-image cue which is directly related to consumers' group belonging, affiliation and national loyalty can affect them to reject products from countries that have high animosity with their home country (Bruning, 1997).

Animosity is related to ethnocentrism; highly ethnocentric consumers may have high animosity which could affect their product evaluation and purchase intention to buy a specific product (Saeed *et al*, 2013). The effect of national animosity on consumer preference is evident in the case of Bangladeshi consumers who rate Indian products as being of poor quality due to unsettled diplomatic relations between the two countries; for this reason, Indian products are manufactured under Japanese or western license to create favorable image in Bangladeshi market (Kaynak *et al*., 2000). Similarly, research has found that Chinese consumers dislike Japanese products because of the Japanese war time atrocities in China (Klein *et. al.*, 1998). Mostly companies tackle the problem of national animosity by increasing consumer understanding, awareness and knowledge of the product (Hannerz, 1990). In order to deal with these feelings of animosity, companies try to detach themselves from the country name that causes animosity and link to another which does not create such feelings (Ettenson and Klein, 2005). Also the global identity and international projection can be used to reduce this hostility (Wang, 2005).

Research has also concluded that the COO-image varies across different nationalities due to consumers' national animosity and national emotions (Said *et al*., 2011). Similarly, ethnocentrism also varies across different nationalities of consumers (Roth and Diamantopoulous, 2009). It was found that the COO-image and consumers' ethnocentric tendencies act as vital determinants of consumers' bias towards products, especially in the case of foreign products (Veale and Quester, 2009). A positive COO-image in terms of reputation and trust is much stronger than the capacity of animosity to reduce it, and act as powerful determinant of consumers' purchase intention (Jiménez and Martín, 2012; Abraham, 2013). For example, Shi *et al*. (2012) concluded that in China the sales of Japanese cars are far more than cars manufactured by Korea, America and Germany. This notion is contrary to a general perception of Chinese consumers who mostly hold negative evaluation of Japanese automobiles due to national animosity.

C-Cultural similarity

Much research has been undertaken to understand the relationship between country similarity and the COO-effects (Johansson *et al*., 1985; Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Watson and Wright, 2000; Lee *et al.,* 2013). These studies found that cultural similarity often influence the effects of consumer ethnocentrism on their attitudes towards foreign products where the consumers tend to prefer products from countries with similar cultures to their own over culturally distant countries (Lantz and Loeb, 1996; Heslop *et al*., 1998). Researchers further concluded that highly ethnocentric consumers show a positive attitude towards products from countries that they believe are culturally (Khan, 2012), ethnically (Heslop *et al*., 1998), economically or

politically similar to their own. And similarly, consumers hold positive attitudes towards brands with local connections (Rahman, 2000; Khan, 2012). Research found that the US consumers have a positive attitude towards products from countries which they perceive to have a similar culture to the USA, such as Australia, some European countries and New Zealand (Lee *et al.*, 2013).

D-Sense of Perceived Superiority

Mostly researchers reffered consumer ethnocentrism to consumers' belief of their own culture to be superior to that of other culture (Orth and Firbasova, 2003; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004). Research suggested that it can be a strong and significant predictor of quality (Kinra (2006; Hamin and Elliot, 2006), willingness to buy (Abraham, 2013), the COO evaluations (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004) and their actual purchase decisions (Abraham, 2013). This expression of consumer ethnocentrism can serve as an essential stimulus for the decision to purchase domestic or local products (Hamin *et al*, 2014). Fournier (1998), on the other hand, described a case of an Italian- American woman who was strongly fond of Italian products not because of their quality, but their COO-image. Purchasing foreign-made products may be seen as immoral because it has an adverse impact on the domestic economy, which is why consumers tend to purchase local products even if the quality is lower than that of imported products (Ahmed and D'Astous, 2004). Research by Abraham (2013) suggested that domestic goods are preferred by the consumers in countries where (a) they have a strong sense of national pride, (b) they feel that the domestic economy

might be threatened by the foreign goods, (c) they have an availability of product serviceability, and (d) they are less or not familiar with foreign products and brands.

Research further concluded that nationalism and patriotism function as antecedents of ethnocentric tendencies (Balabanis *et al*., 2001). These nationalistic emotions lead to strong consumers' preference for products manufactured in their home country (Hamin *et al*, 2014). Granzin and Olsen (1998) found that American consumers' purchase of domestic products was positively related to an internalised responsibility for helping and patriotism.

Ethnocentrism is a consumers' tendency to evaluate other ethnic groups according to the standards and values of their own ethnic groups where they believe that their own ethnic group is superior to others (Hamin *et al*, 2014). Phau and Prendergast (2000) found that there are certain ethnic products which are associated with the home country, for which the producers can exploit the benefits of the linkage and are often communicated through terms such as Bohemian crystal, French lace, English cotton and Belgian chocolates.

E- Emotional Connection and Boycotts

Research suggested that emotional connection is a major determinant of consumers' purchase decision making (Gobe, 2001; Morris *et al.,* 2002; Narteh *et al*., 2012); consumers do not always make purely rational decisions while adopting a product or a service. In their research study conducted in Ghana related to Cars, Narteh *et al*. (2012) found that personal emotional

attachments towards some car brands and brands' COO influence consumers' purchase decisions.

In addition to the above considerations, it was found that the COO-image with regard to boycott based on consumer ethnocentrism, is highly correlated with political and social events (Zdravkovic, 2013). Research suggested that consumers reward some countries by boycotting and also punish some others (Sharma, 2011). Consumers' product-information-processing is influenced by strong consumer sentiments triggered by various international events, such as anti-whaling campaigns against Japanese fishermen and backlash against American products in the Middle East due to the war in Iraq (Phau and Chao, 2008). Chinese consumers' call to boycott Carrefour, the French retailer in China in response to the disruption of the Olympics torch relay in Paris by French citizens is the most recent case in point (Phau and Chao, 2008). Previous research has also highlighted the US boycotts of South African products, and also those of Australian consumers' of French products because of French nuclear tests in the Pacific (Verleegh and Steenkamp, 1999). While the COO-image serves to convey global impressions to users about the product or product attributes when knowledge is lacking, it also serves as an indicator of one's group identity (Hamin *et al*, 2014).

2.3.10.2. Consumer Ethnocentrism and the COO-image Effects

Consumer ethnocentrism and the COO-image are two crucial variables that influence consumer perceptions and purchase intentions (Khan, 2012). Research has identified product types as determinants of the effects of the strong COO-image on consumer product evaluation

(Chattalas *et al*., 2008). It was further found that the strong COO-image may have a positive effect on consumer product involvement and evaluation, but this effect may not be equally strong for all product types (LeClerc *et al*., 1994). According to Piron (2000), the level of consumer ethnocentrism sometimes varies with different levels of consumer product involvement. Khan (2012) further concluded that consumers have greater ethnocentric tendencies for product categories that are not very important, and have low consumer product involvement.

Consumers' negative feelings for a particular country may play a strong role in shaping the effects of the COO-image on products' perception, irrespective of their level of product involvement. For instance, Europeans like US made products, but they dislike the US foreign policy and similarly, Arab-Americans recognise the exceptional quality of Israeli Optical instruments, but have negative attitudes towards Israeli made products (Wang *et al*., 2012). In the case of fast moving consumer goods (FMCG), considerable national icons and symbols are used in the packaging to attract the consumers with high ethnocentrism while exploiting their associations with the COO of products and their patriotic tendencies to buy locally manufactured products (Insch and Florek, 2009). According to Zolfagharian *et al*, (2014) the COO-image is one of the most important bases of consumer preference for domestic products, for example, British consumers' shift towards buying local food and the 'new organic' trend (Insch and Florek, 2009). Roth and Romeo (1992) suggested that the national associations which influence consumer buying intentions are based on their product involvement level, product experience, knowledge of the COO and patriotism. In the case of high involvement products, an ethnocentric bias affects brand evaluations (Abraham, 2013). For example, there

are consumers in the USA that hold and disseminate attitudes towards the COO cue often due to economic, cultural or political threats to the local market posed by globalisation (Balabanis *et al.*, 2001).

Previous research found that the COO-image of a product is associated with the perceived inferiority, superiority or competence of the manufacturing country (Orth and Firbasová, 2003). This association minimises the effect of consumer ethnocentrism and has a significant influence on consumer product evaluation: German cars are viewed as superior to Russian cars, and even the Russians prefer German cars over Russian cars (Hamin *et al,* 2014). Consumers, who associate superiority with their own country and are highly ethnocentric, prefer their domestic products (Claret *et al.*, 2012). Consumers' favouritism for domestic products is strongly dependent on the perceived competence of product's COO and the COO-image in a certain product category (Roth and Diamantopoulous, 2009). The image of a country's national competence in a certain product category often has a link to its perceived competitive advantage and consumers' evaluation of the COO labels (Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2001). Quality conscious consumers base their product purchase decision on the perceived competence of a COO and perceived quality of its products in a certain product category, rather than their ethnocentrism (Rezvani *et al.*, 2012; Miranda and Parkvithee, 2013). The research found that consumers' perception of the quality of complex products has four dimensions: (1) prestige, (2) use of advanced technology, (3) cost to calibrate country's competence and (4) workmanship (Han and Terpstra, 1988). However, other COO studies measuring quality perceptions of less complex products suggested that assembly and designing capability of the COO are vital (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2004). Research found that

consumers prefer locally made products when the quality of the product is better or equivalent to that of foreign products (Hamin *et al*, 2014).

Research has found that non-ethnocentric consumers evaluate the foreign products favourably simply because they are not domestically made (Lee *et al.*, 2013). Such consumers base their product evaluation on the level of industrialisation of the COO of product (Zolfagharian *et al*., 2014). It was suggested that the impact of consumer ethnocentrism is dependent upon the level of development or advancement of consumers' home country (Poon *et al*., 2010). As previously stated, researchers are generally in agreement with the notion that the products which originate in developed countries are perceived as being of better quality, performance, reliability and workmanship, compared with those from developing countries (Kaynak *et. al*., 2000). Based on the negative stereotype of the emerging countries, consumers evaluate their product negatively since these countries are usually perceived to have average, if not bad, quality using old fashion technologies (Lee *et al.*, 2013). Studies conducted in emerging markets have mixed findings, such as the study by Klein *et al.*, (2006) that found a negative effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the evaluation of foreign products; by contrast a study by Huddleston *et al*., (2001) found no significant effects of consumer ethnocentrism on the evaluation of foreign products. Hamin and Elliott (2006) suggested that consumer ethnocentrism effects vary based on different product types; Koreans were found to be prejudiced against less favourably evaluated countries (Nebenzahl and Jaffe, 1996), while Mexicans were obsessed with American and Japanese products (Jaffe and Martinez, 1995). These findings are mostly based on cross national differences in the level of economic development, ethnocentrism, national animosity and culture. From the Nigerian consumers'

point of view, the COO is more important than price and other product attributes, such as reliability and safety (Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999). Sharma (2011) further included that consumers in developed countries tend to prefer locally-manufactured products followed by the products from other developed countries, and lastly products from less developed countries.

2.4.   The COO as a Brand

As discussed earlier, consumers generally base their opinions related to product attributes and brands based on the COO-image of these products (Tran and Fabrize, 2013). This construct of 'nation branding' where country of origin is functioning as a brand, is a strong stimulus that plays an important role in consumer buying decision making. That is why it is counted as an asset for any country and has equity associated with it just like brand (Chattalas *et al.*, 2008). The research has concluded that not only strong brands associated with a country enhance its reputation in that product category but also the positive COO-image contributes to a brand's fame (Guercini and Ranfagni, 2013).

Countries protect, preserve and use their image in certain product categories, as it has strong influence on consumer decision making. For example, France is famous for its perfumes and wines so French sounding names of the brands in these product categories are deemed to have positive effects on consumers' perceptions. Countries which are famous for their products' quality, reliability, value for money and dependability; are always involved in constant improvement process in order to retain their image using various techniques of quality

management, such as in case of Japanese automobiles. Other countries such as USA, focus on encouraging the research and development in order to encourage new product development such as technologically advanced computer machines, innovative gadgets and mobile phones etc.

In the current era of globalisation a lot of multi-nationals with famous brands are taking advantage of cheap labours and manufacturing costs in emerging markets such as China and India by outsourcing their manufacturing. However, in order to protect their 'country name as a brand' image, they use the country of design or country of brand name as 'made-in' label (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2014). For example, Apple iphone and ipads, Levis, Nike

2.5.   The COO Strategies

The COO is one of the most important factors for product evaluation, perception and purchase decision of foreign consumers (Godey *et al*, 2012) and consequently receives considerable attention from companies while designing their marketing and communications strategy (Aichner, 2014). Research found that it is common for the companies to have their brand promotions based on the COO-image of quality, where automobile manufacturers emphasise their German origin; coffee producers promote their Colombian heritage; watch manufacturers highlight their Swiss precision; and garment manufacturers draw attention to their Italian sense of style (Zdravkovic, 2013: 89). In all these cases brand itself is a "supporting actor to the COO" (Josiassen and Harzing, 2008, p. 264).

Research by Aichner (2014) found that many companies communicate their COO or their product's COO to consumers in order to get benefits from a positive COO stereotypes. A strong COO in a certain product category can translate into a competitive advantage; therefore the companies use a number of implicit and explicit strategies to make the origin of their product known. The Table 2.7 below has presented the COO strategies with their type:

Table 2.7: The COO Strategies	
Strategy Name	Strategy Type
1 "Made in…"	Explicit
2 Quality and origin labels	Explicit
3 COO embedded in the company name	Explicit
4 Typical COO words embedded in the company name	Implicit
5 Use of the COO language	Implicit
6 Use of famous or stereotypical people from the COO	Implicit
7 Use of COO flags and symbols	Explicit/ Implicit
8 Use of typical landscapes or famous buildings from the COO	Implicit
Source: Aichner (2014: 91)	

Use of the phrase 'made in…' is the most frequent strategy to communicate the COO of a product, where the COO is mentioned explicitly, for example 'Made in India', 'Made in Taiwan' etc. (Aichner, 2014). Research further included that while designing their foreign branding strategy, some companies ensure that the product appears to be originated in a more favourable COO (Leclerc *et al*, 1994), and therefore embed the COO in the company name (Josiassen and Harzing, 2008). There are companies that have the COO embedded directly in their company name, such as name of the country, a city, a region, for example (Aichner,

2014), British American Tobacco (tobacco, United Kingdom), Air France (airline, France), Royal Dutch Shell (oil and gas operations, the Netherlands), Bank of America (bank, United States of America), Deutsche Bank (bank, Germany), Alitalia (airline, Italy), Texas Instruments (digital signal processors and consumer electronics, Texas, United States of America), Singapore Airlines (airline, Singapore), China Railway Group (construction, China). The logo of Alitalia includes the colors of Italian flag: red, white and green, therefore the company is combining the two COO strategies namely, embedding the COO in the company name and the use of COO flag (Aichner, 2014).

Another COO strategy is the use of certain stereotypical names and/or elements in their company name such as country specific animal (White III *et al*, 2007). The examples of such companies are (Aichner, 2014): Sumitomo Metal Industries (materials, Japan), Lincoln National (insurance, United States of America), Novo Nordisk (drugs and biotechnology, Denmark), Dr Oetker (food processing, Germany), Sandvik (capital goods, Sweden), Dollar General (retailing, United States of America) etc.

Another possible COO strategy is the use of the COO language for the company or brand name, slogans and promotions, for example (Aichner, 2014): German automobile Audi uses the German slogan 'Vorsprung durch Technik' (advance through technology) in both domestic and foreign advertisements similar to VW who uses 'Das Auto' (the car). Ricola a Swiss herbal cough drops manufacturer not only use strong Swiss accent but also use the

Swiss flag and show a person wearing a loden coat. Similarly Dolce & Gabbana, Brunelli and Giotto are all Italian brands.

Research found that the COO is also communicated by placing famous stereotypical people from the COO in advertisement (Hinton, 2000). For example, Ferrero an Italian chocolate cookie manufacturing company launched a TV commercial of Giotto in Germany showing Elisabetta Canalis, an Italian actor and model with a typical Italian name and other characters as 'Paolo,' 'Francesco' and 'Giacomo' (typical Italian names). All these characters were dark-haired typical Italian men (Aichner, 2014). This Tv commercial was in Italian and also the brand name 'Giotto' is inspired by the notable Italian painter Giotto di Bondon, and the famous landscape of the Italian capital Rome was used as background and finally in the last frame the writing appeared as 'Genießen auf italienische Art' (enjoy the Italian way), leaving no doubt about the Italian origin of the product (Aichner, 2014).

The use of official symbols, flags, emblems and other national elements is a famous COO strategy which is widely used on product packaging on typical products (Aichner, 2014) such as ketchup, hamburger, popcorn (flag of the USA), pasta or pizza (Italian flag), and bratwurst beer (German flag). The British bookmaker William Hill uses British flags in its TV commercial for Germany, British comedian, actor and writer using British humor and accent, and the texts 'Wetten wie die Briten' (betting like the British) and 'Englands größter Wettanbieter' (England's biggest bookmaker) and finally a crown appears which is a symbol of British Royal House (Aichner, 2014).

Research found the use of famous buildings and typical landscapes from the COO as a strong strategy, such as the Eiffel Tower (France), the Leaning Tower of Pisa (Italy), the Statue of Liberty (the United States), the Coliseum (Italy), the Great Pyramid of Giza (Egypt), the Taj Mahal (India), the Sydney Opera House (Australia) and the Brazilian landscape of the Corcovado with the statue of Cristo Redentor (Aichner, 2014).

2.6.   The COO-image Effects: Pakistani Perspective

According to the CIA world factbook (2014), Pakistan is a developing country with the population of 196,174,380, majority of which (57.2%) belong to the age group of 15-54 years of age, with a relatively low literacy rate (54.9%). Pakistan is emerging as a very attractive market in the global business scenario as it has grown enormously in terms of becoming a fast growing economy with a growth rate as high as 700 percent from year 1950 to 1992 (Saeed *et al*., 2013).

Research related to Pakistani consumers is scarce, particularly with regard to their perceptions, attitudes, purchasing decisions, with reference to the effects of the COO-image (Saeed *et al*., 2013). Research by Khan and Bamber (2008) assessed the product's COO effect on elite Pakistani consumers' purchasing decision, with reference to extrinsic cues such as price, brand name, product quality and social status. The findings concluded that the COO-image has strong effects on Pakistani consumers' product evaluations and buying decisions. It is particularly important under certain conditions, for instance, when consumers make a purchase decision related to the expensive products and gifts for friends and family. However,

the COO-image has limited influence on the buying decision of the Pakistani elite and affluent consumers with high level educational qualifications, more cosmopolitan lifestyles and access to more detailed product information. These elite customers are not particularly influenced by national stereotypes as they have a greater understanding of how modern and globally structured businesses operate. The research further concluded that it is the social status and quality of products (made in countries that enjoy the good image in a certain product category) that shape the purchase behaviour of Pakistani elite consumers. Research found that Pakistani consumers are highly conscious of product quality and brand name, especially with reference to its COO-image (Saeed *et al*., 2013). Researchers further concluded that the COO of products, price, style and brands have strong effects on Pakistani consumer evaluations of product quality and purchase preference (Khan and Bamber, 2008). Generally consumers including Pakistani elite - negatively evaluate the products made in developing countries (Ahmed *et al*., 2004; Khan and Bamber, 2008).

Ahmed and d'Atous (2008) found that the evaluation of the COO-image effects on consumers' product evaluations become complicated and hard to measure due to the factors such as intense competition among the multinational companies, global nature of business, and intertwined nature of commercial transactions. The situation in Pakistan is similar, as many multinational companies are operating in the country with global brands such as P&G, Unilever, Pepsi, Coca Cola, Toyota, Honda, Toshiba, Sony, Next, etc.

Consumer perceptions tend to vary across the different levels of demographics such as education level, age group, income level and gender etc. Previous research found that

consumers' gender, education, age, income levels, social influence and professional backgrounds affect their perception of product quality, the COO of products and subsequently their choice of products, attitudes, purchasing behaviour and product evaluations (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998; Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). Khan and Bamber (2008) found that Pakistani consumers' purchase decision is influenced by their gender, education, income, professional background and social influence.

The reference groups in societies who are similar in their values, beliefs, tastes and preferences have direct influence on each others' purchasing behvaiour (Solomon, 2002). According to Schette and Ciarlante (1998) Asian and Western consumers exhibit different buying behaviours as Western consumers are more individualistic and impulsive when making purchase decisions, and are mostly influenced by personal factors. On the other hand, Asian consumers are less individualistic in their buying decisions, as their personal preferences are shaped by the input from sources such as friends, family and peers. As Asian cultures are strongly collectivist in their orientation, the family (whether extended or nuclear) is considered the most fundamental and influential group that affect people's behaviour (Schette and Ciarlante, 1998). Being a member of a collectivist society, Pakistani consumers are strongly influenced by their social class, word of mouth and experience of reference groups such as their friends and family (Khan and Bamber, 2008).

Consumers' product evaluation process can be affected by the 'made in …' label (Brodowsky *et al*., 2004; Aichner, 2014). Generally speaking, consumers from less developed countries

such as Pakistan have a more favorable image regarding the products of the more developed countries and that is why, the 'Made in…' label is carried by all imported products available extensively in Pakistan (Saeed *et al*, 2013).

Research conducted by Saeed *et al*., (2013) in Pakistan measuring the COO-effects with reference to consumer ethnocentrism, level of product knowledge and involvement and role of information cues (intrinsic and extrinsic) in cosmetics industry, found that Pakistani consumers are slightly ethnocentric but are more inclined towards purchasing reliable and high quality foreign products manufactured in developed countries. They ranked the USA the highest level in terms of reliability, followed by France. Chinese and Indian products are not evaluated favourably in terms of performance, reliability and prestige. On the other hand, the same study found that the country of manufacture (COM) is the most important extrinsic cue that plays a role in Pakistani consumers' product evaluation; brand image is the second most important factor and Price have the least importance in comparison to the first two. In case of intrinsic cues, quality was rated as the top priority, followed by ease of use, taste and packaging of cosmetic products. However, the extrinsic cue of COM is of greatest importance in their cosmetic products' evaluations out of all the cues both extrinsic and intrinsic. Research suggested that when consumers have low level of product knowledge or involvement, they rely more on the COO cue in their product evaluations (Lee, 2005; Veale and Quester, 2009). The results of this particular study by Saeed *et al*., (2013) found that Pakistani consumers had a low level of product knowledge and they relied heavily on brand and the COO cue for product evaluation. Also, the higher the level of their product

involvement, the more the consumers were inclined towards using the brand and the COO cue in their product evaluations.

Athar (2006) found that many car brands are available for consumers in Pakistan and they make the purchase decision after much consideration, comparison and evaluation. The economic development level of the manufacturing country and the influence of friends and family are important determinants of the consumer intention to adopt, in the case of the automobile industry (Evanschitzky *et al*., 2008; Wang and Yang, 2008). Social influence on the buying behaviour of Pakistani consumers shows cultural nature of the society which is collectivist in nature with large power distance, strong uncertainty avoidance and high masculinity (Bashir *et al*., 2013). That is why Pakistani consumers generally like to conform to their social groups, peers, colleagues, friends and family. For both the low and high involvement products, Pakistani consumers are highly influenced by their social groups.

Research has found that for consumers in developing countries, buying and processing imported products may denote higher levels of material achievement, as these products help them to make a positive impression on others (Cleveland *et al*., 2009; Sharma, 2011). Due to their symbolic value, such products have high popularity in emerging markets such as India (Batra *et al*., 2000; Kinra, 2006), China (Wang and Yang, 2008), Latin America (Almonte *et al*., 1995), and Eastern Europe (Manrai *et al.*, 2001). Also, consumers from developing countries may have higher preference for products imported from developed countries and show lower tendency of ethnocentrism (Hamin and Elliot, 2006). Due to globalisation, the competition between local and international brands has increased considerably (Sharma,

2011). The existing research conducted in other developing countries might have conclusions that are relevant to the Pakistani context being a developing country itself. For example, the research conducted by Zain and Yasin (1997) in Uzbekistan (on a sample of 583 urban Tashkent households), the researchers found that the consumers value the COO of a product as a very important information cue of product evaluation during their purchase decision, especially in the case of expensive and new products having a high risk of malfunction. By contrast, Lascu and Babb (1995) in their research conducted in Poland, found that the consumers consider the COO information as of lesser significant than that of the acceptance of friends and family, when making a purchase decision.

Furthermore, research by Ghazali *et al.*, (2008) undertaken in Malaysia, exploring Malaysian consumers' behaviour towards the COO effect, found that on average, Malaysian consumers do not consider the COO as a significant factor in the purchase decision, but rather the product's perceived quality, level of technological advancement and price are considered greatly important. Chakraborty *et al.* (1996) concluded that consumer ethnocentrism affects their perception and evaluation towards foreign and imported products. Pecotich *et al* (1996) with reference to the retail context, found that consumer ethnocentrism effect consumers' judgment of quality. Research conducted in China by Klein *et al.* (1998) suggested that consumer ethnocentrism is negatively related to consumers' product judgments. Researchers further believed that Chinese consumers also have a more favourable attitude towards foreign brands as compared with Chinese brands (Zhuang *et al.*, 2008; Zhou *et al.*, 2010).

Supphellen and Rittenburg (2001), reference to their Polish research, found that ethnocentrism influences consumer attitudes towards foreign brands manufactured in developed countries and countries that have high image in certain product categories. Srinivasan *et al*. (2004) also found that non-ethnocentric consumers do not mind using foreign products and services. Researchers such as Batra *et al*. (2000) found that Indian consumers are more in favour of foreign brands as compared with domestic Indian brands, no matter what product involvement they have. According to Khan (2012), Bangladeshi consumers are non-ethnocentric and prefer using foreign made products made in developed countries.

2.7. Summary of Literature Review and Gap Identification

The literature review of the current study is summarised in Table 2.8 which includes a list of prominent studies measuring aspects of the COO-effects and their findings.

Table 2.8: Summary of Literature reviewed regarding the COO-effects	
Constructs and Findings	**Studies**
Single-Cue COO-effects The COO-image has significant effects on consumer product evaluations.	Schooler (1965), Reierson (1967); Schooler and Sunno (1969), Nagashima (1970), Gaedeke (1973)
Multi-Cue COO-effects The simultaneous presence of multiple information cues (i.e. brand, company name, product features, price, etc.) can moderate the COO-effects.	Johansson *et. al.* (1985), Wall *et. al.* (1991), Liefeld (1993), Zhang (1996), Agrawal and Kamakura (1999), Verleegh and Steenkamp (1999), Bruwer and Buller (2012), Papadopoulos (2003), Srinivasan *et al*. (2004), Lui and Johnson (2005), Chattalas *et al*. (2008), Bloemer *et al*. (2009), Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2011), Diamantopoulos *et al*. (2011), Miranda and Parkvithee

	(2013), Saeed *et al*. (2013), Zdravkovic (2013)
Multiple COO Cues (hybrid) Effects When simultaneously presented, the country of manufacturing cue has a larger effect on evaluations than the country of brand origin cue. On the contrary, other studies found that when simultaneously presented, the country of brand origin cue has a larger effect on evaluations than the country of manufacturing cue.	Han and Terpstra (1988), Papadopoulos and Heslop (1993), Tse and Gorn (1993), Batra *et al*. (2000), Phau and Prendragast (2000), Quester (2000), Hui and Zhou (2003), Thakor and Lavack (2003), Insch (2004), Srinivasan *et. al*. (2004), Chao (2005), Hamin and Elliot (2006), Hamzaoui (2006), Hamzaoui and Merunka (2007), Ahmed and D'Astous (2008), Chowdhury (2009), Lee *et al*. (2010), Poon *et al*. (2010), Hamzaoui (2011), Lee *et al*. (2013), Lee and Roy (2013)
Globalisation Effects Due to globalisation the availability of foreign products and their product attribute information blurred the importance of the COO-image.	Levit (1983), Pecotich and Rosenthal (2001), Liefeld (2004), Pharr (2005), Usunier (2006), Usunier and Cestre (2008), Guercini and Raufagni (2013), Tabassi *et al*. (2013)
Product Type Effects The COO-effects on consumer evaluation vary by product type. The COO-image in a certain product category is used as a competitive advantage.	Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983), Roth and Romeo (1992), LeClerc *et. al*. (1994), Agarwal and Sikri (1996), Hui and Zhou (2003), Cervino *et al*. (2005), Amine (2008), D'Alessandro and Pecotich (2013), Lee and Roy (2013)
National and Country Stereotypes Effects The cognitive, affective and normative factors of national stereotypes and the COO, effect on product evaluations. The political, economic and technological factors of country stereotypes and the COO effect on	Obermiller and Spangenberg (1989), Verleegh and Steenkamp (1999), Wall and Liefeld (1991), Chao and Rajendren (1993), Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993), Liefeld (1993), Martin and Eroglu (1993), Almonte *et al*. (1995), Hulland et al (1996), Bailey and Guiterrez De Pineres (1997), Hussein (1997), Okechuku and Onyemah (1999), Batra *et al*. (2000), Kaynuk *et al*. (2000), O'cass and Lim (2002), Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002), Phau

consumer product evaluations.	and Yip (2008), Chen (2009), Kin *et al*. (2009), Sharma (2011), Tabassi *et al*. (2013), Hamin *et al*. (2014)
Consuming Country and Cultural Orientation Effects The COO effect on evaluations varies across consuming countries and their cultural orientations.	Narayana (1981), Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993), Wood *et al*. (1999), Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran (2000), Ahmed and D'Astous (2004), Aaker (2006), Shavit *et al*. (2006), Singh (2006), Lee *et al*. (2007), Ozretic-Dosen *et al*. (2007), Chattalas *et al*. (2008), Miranda and Parkvithee (2013), Tran and Fabrize (2013)
Consumer Expertise Effects The COO operates as a 'halo' or 'summary' construct, depending on familiarity.	Han (1989), Roth and Romeo (1992); Zhang (1997), Keller and Moorthi (2003), Beverland *et al*. (2007), Reid (2007), Zenger-Roth *et al*. (2008), Miranda and Parkvithee (2013)
Consumer Intention to Adopt in terms of Consumer Innovativeness Effects Consumer innovativeness effects consumer intention to adopt a product and moderates the COO-effects.	Rogers and Shoemaker (1971), Ostlund (1974), Midgley (1977), Midgley and Dowling (1978), Rogers (1995), Smith and Andrew (1995), Steenkamp *et al* (1999), Schiffman and Kanuk (2004), Singh (2006), Walker (2008), Xie (2008), Samiee (2010), Diamantopoulos and Zengner-Roth (2011), Magnusson *et al*. (2011), Usunier (2011), Westjohn and Magnusson (2011)
Consumer Involvement Effects The COO-effects variy at the different levels of consumer product involvement.	Mowen and Minor (2001), Reynolds and Olson (2001), Bandyopadhyay and Banerjee (2002), Ahmed and D'Astous (2004), Samiee *et al*. (2005), Schiffman *et al*. (2005), Lin and Chen (2006), Neal and Quester (2006), Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2008), Samiee (2010), Pan and Chang (2011), Parkvithee and Miranda (2011), Chuin and Mohammad (2012), Huang and Sarigollu (2012), Narteh *et al*. (2012), Said *et al*. (2012), Abraham (2013), Zdravkovic (2013)
Consumer Ethnocentrism Effects The consumer ethnocentrism increases the COO effect on evaluations as well as purchase	Shimp and Sharma (1987), Han and Tapestra (1988),Roth and Romeo (1992), Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993), Nebenzahl and Jaffe (1996),Verleegh and Steenkamp (1999), Balabanis *et. al.*

intentions.	(2001), Klein (2002), Ahmed *et al*. (2004), Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004), Amine and Chao (2005), Ettenson and Klein (2005), Usunier and Lee (2005), Wang (2005), Hamin and Elliot (2006), Kinra (2006), Klein *et al*. (2006), Usmier (2006), Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009), Insch and Florek (2009), Veale and Quester (2009), Hoffman *et al*. (2011), Sharma (2011), Jimenez and Martin (2012), Hamin *et al*. (2014), Zolfagharian et al (2014)

2.7.1. Gaps in the Existing Literature

The review of literature related to the effects of the COO-image on consumer product involvement with reference to the possible roles of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer intention to adopt in terms of their innovativeness, identified some gaps in the existing research.

Firstly, the literature review concluded that the COO-image in a product category and in terms of country's economic development has a strong influence on consumer perceptions, however there is a lack of research related to the association between the two aspects and the comparison of their effects on consumer perception (Pappu *et al*., 2007). The current study fills this gap by investigating the effects and association of the COO-image in a product category and the COO-image in terms of economic development, also the comparison of the effects of the two is undertaken.

Secondly, most of the COO-image research has either focused on high-involvement products such as motor vehicles and other high involvement objects (Peterson and Jolibert, 1995) or on low involvement FMCG (Silayoi and Speece, 2004; Usmier, 2006; Insch and Florek, 2009). However, there is a lack of research that compares both levels of involvement. Both of these levels of the COO-image are taken into account to see their impact on consumer product involvement. The current research has also taken both high and low consumer product involvement as dependent variables. It not only measured the effects of the COO-image on each of these dependent variables, but has also undertaken a comparison between the two.

Thirdly, based on the literature review, it can also be concluded that in most of the existing research related to consumer ethnocentrism, the COO-image, and consumer product involvement, has taken consumer ethnocentrism as dependent or independent variable (Wang and Chen 2004; Klein *et al.*, 2006; Chinen and Sun, 2011). Researchers have suggested that moderating role of consumer ethnocentrism should also be studied in consumers' attitudes towards the COO-image (Phau and Yip, 2008). To fill this gap, the current research has taken consumer ethnocentrism as a moderating variable.

Fourthly, consumer's innovation and intention to buy a product may influence the association of the COO-image and consumer product involvement level (low and high). It would be interesting to see whether consumer intention to adopt has any relationship with the COO-image, and with low and high involvement products. Also, to examine that it a positive consumer intention to adopt moderates the effects of the COO-image cue on consumer

product involvement. To fill this gap in the existing research, the current study has taken the consumer intention to adopt as a moderating variable. The construct of consumer intention to adopt is taken with reference to consumer innovativeness.

Finally, the COO-image is being widely researched but the review of existing research found a lack of research related to consumer behaviour in emerging markets and developing countries, as most of the COO-image research is conducted in the developed countries (Hamin and Elliott, 2006; Jiménez and Martín, 2012) without considering their cross-national validity, which shows a big gap in the existing COO research (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 1998). Researchers such as Khan (2012) suggested that the results of these studies may not be applicable to developing countries, so the research tailored at developing countries should be undertaken to explore the COO-effects on their consumer behaviour. This gap in the existing research is filled by the current study being conducted in Pakistan which is a developing country. It is an emerging market (Malik and Kotabe, 2009; Siddiqui, 2010) with a lot of marketing and business potential, yet lacks consumer behaviour research (Saeed *et al*., 2013). The current study examined the effects of the COO-image on consumer perception, involvement and purchase behaviour, keeping in view of the role of demographic variables.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research design and methodology of the current study. The chapter is divided into two sections: the first presents the paradigms (ontological and epistemological) and philosophical approaches undertaken by the current research. The second section deals with the practicality of the research process such as: methods and procedures adopted to answer the research questions, demographic details of the respondents and the methods of data analysis. Finally, ethical considerations involved in the process of the current research are discussed.

3.1. Theory Vs Research

According to researchers such as Crowther and Lancaster (2008), there is a little consensus in the social sciences as to what actually constitutes theory. However, there were more generally accepted views of researchers: one group believed that theory provides the foundations for research by providing meaningful guidance in the process of data collection and analysis (Bryman and Bell, 2007). According to Rocco *et al.* (2011:118):

> "A *theory* is a set of interrelated constructs, definitions, and the propositions that present a rational view of phenomena by explaining or predicting relationships among those elements".

The other group believed that theory is something that emerges after the collection and analysis of data (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Research verified the theoretical explanations of the reality (Rocco *et al.*, 2011) by answering the questions posed by theoretical considerations (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Research either generates and confirms theory or may develop a new theory (Rocco *et al*., 2011). To better understand the relationship between research and theory, the significant factor is whether the approach is deductive or inductive (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

The current research is designed on the basis of the gaps identified in existing research (refer back to the previous chapter) related to the country of origin image in a product category, the country of origin in terms of economic development, low and high consumer product involvement, consumer ethnocentrism, and consumer intention to adopt.

3.2. Deductive and Inductive Approach

Researchers found that the research approach is one of the most important things to consider when designing a research study; it illustrates the level of clarity the researcher displays in relation to the concerning theory at the beginning of research (Saunders *et al.,* 2007). Bryman and Bell (2007) stated that two approaches (i.e. deductive and inductive) are associated with different research philosophies. Research often used the two terms: deductive and inductive approach. Inductive means 'reasoning from the general to particular', whereas, deductive means 'reasoning from particular to general' (Gulati, 2009).

Some researchers preferred an approach to the relationship between theory and research that is inductive, in which the theory is an outcome of the research (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Inductive research essentially reversed the process found in deductive research; the strength of this approach is its flexibility, especially in terms of sample size and type of data. New theories emerged based on research observations, thereby allowing a problem or issue to be studied or approached in several possible ways with alternative explanations of what is going on, especially human and organisational behaviour (Crowther and Lancaster, 2008). The formation of theory from fact is based on an inductive approach because a generalisation is made on a limited number of observations. By contrast, deductive reasoning is the reverse of Inductive reasoning: it proceeds from the general to specific (Berg and Latin, 2007).

Research can be designed using an inductive approach such as an exploratory study, where an inductive research can be incorporated to understand the unexpected patterns emerging in the collected data for testing a hypothesis (Engel and Schutt, 2005). Deductive research is the most widely used approach in the natural sciences as it represents the commonest view of the nature of the relationship between theory and research. The researcher, on the basis of what is known about a particular domain of theoretical considerations in relation to that domain, deduces a hypothesis (or hypotheses) that must then be subjected to empirical observation (Bryman and Bell, 2007). These hypotheses are translated into operational terms to specify how data can be collected in relation to the concepts that constitute the hypotheses (Crowther and Lancaster, 2008).

Saunders *et al*. (2003) pointed out that the development of theory based on deductive research is subject to a rigorous test based on a set of techniques. The sequence of the process of deduction is outlined in the figure.

Figure 3.1: The Process of Deduction

```
        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
        │     1. Theory                   │
        └─────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
        │     2. Hypothesis               │
        └─────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
        │     3. Data Collection          │
        └─────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
        │     4. Findings                 │
        └─────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
        ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
        │  5.  Hypotheses Confirmed or Rejected │
        └─────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
        ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
        │     6. Revision of Theory       │
        └─────────────────────────────────┘
```
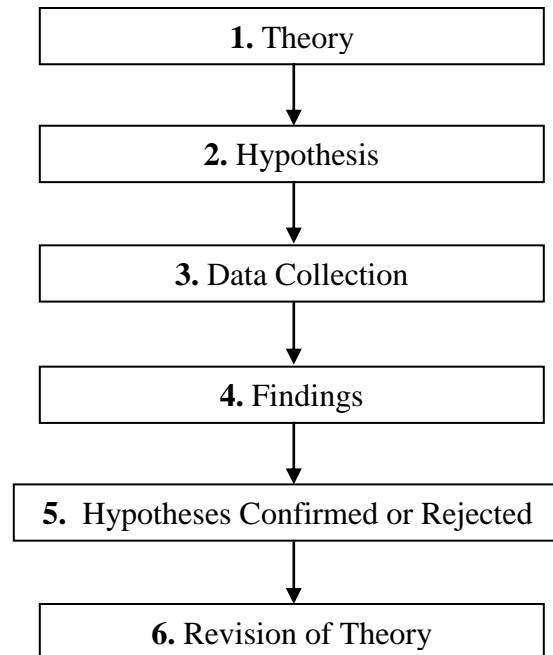
Source: Bryman and Bell (2007: 11)

The deductive research process is largely linear – one step follows the other in a clear, logical sequence, however there might be instances where the sequence needs to be altered (Bryman and Bell, 2007). For instance if new research is published while the data anylsis is carried out, additional data may need to be collected in order to achieve relevance, and the existing data may become irrelevant and may not fit with the original hypotheses (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

The deductive approach represents the main (and according to some) only justifiable method of research to develop knowledge and therefore should also be the only approach that is used in social sciences (Crowther and Lancaster, 2008). However applying the deductive method is not without its problems, for example measurement can be more problematic.

Researchers suggested that the deductive strategy is associated with a quantitative research approach, whereas an inductive strategy of linking data and theory is typically associated with a qualitative research approach (Bryman and Bell, 2007). It is useful to think of the relationship between theory and research in terms of deductive and inductive strategies; however, the related issues are not as simple. Therefore, deductive and inductive strategies should better be thought of as tendencies rather than as a hard and fast distinction (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

Considering the above discussion, a deductive approach was considered more applicable for the current study, in which agreed facts and established theories have provided the basis for the study. This was why the current research has used deductive approach to test hypotheses developed on the basis of past theories suggesting implications related to the impacts of the COO-image on the consumer product involvement- low and high. The findings would support or modify the theory, or perhaps cast doubt on its assumptions.

3.3. Research Paradigms

According to Guba (1990), a paradigm is an interpretative framework, which is guided by a set of beliefs and feelings about the reality and how it should be understood and studied. Patton (1990) presented a more general explanation of paradigm as a worldview, a general perspective and a way of breaking down the complexity of the real world. Research paradigms were explained by Guba and Lincoln (1994) as: "…research paradigms define what falls within and outside the limits of legitimate research" (p.108). Henning *et al.* (2004) further explained that a research paradigm is a framework through which theories are built that fundamentally influence the way the world is seen, determine the perspective of research, shape the understanding of how things are associated, influences personal behaviour, professional practice and ultimately the position the researcher takes with regard to the subject of research.

According to Haron and Reason (1997), and Denzin and Lincoln (2005), what is reality and how it might be identified can be understood by three basic questions:

1- *The Ontological question*: What is the nature of reality and, therefore, what is there that can be known about it?

2- *The Epistemological question*: What is the relationship between the knower and what can be known?

3- *The Methodological question:* How can the knower go about finding out whatever he believes can be known?

3.3.1. Ontological Considerations

Guba and Lincoln (1994) suggested that considerations of social ontology are concerned with the nature of social entities. It has also been suggested that the central point of orientation in the ontological question, what is the form and nature of reality, whether social entities can and should be considered social constructions built up from the perceptions and actions of social actors, or they can and should be considered objective that have a reality external to social actors (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The two positions are commonly referred to as constructionism and objectivism.

3.3.1.1. Constructionism

Bryman and Bell (2007) stated that constructionism (also referred to as constructivism) is an ontological position which states that the social phenomenon and their meanings are continually being comprehended by social actors. They suggested that there are two meanings of constructionism; firstly, in relation to the social world, constructionist believe that researchers' own accounts of social world interplay with the reality, and that the researcher always present a specific version of a social reality, rather than one that can be regarded as definitive. Secondly, constructionism sees the knowledge of the social world as indeterminate: "Constructionism is presented as an ontological position in relation to social objects and categories, views them as socially constructed and rejects the idea of objectivity in research" (Bryman and Bell, 2007: 22).

3.3.1.2. Objectivism

Objectivism is explained as the existence of objective (independent) knowledge that cannot be influenced by social actors, and the researcher can study the topic of research, being completely impartial. According to Bryman and Bell (2007: 22): "Objectivism is an ontological position that asserts that social phenomenon and their meanings have an existence that is independent of social actors".

This implies that social phenomenon and the categories that are used in everyday discourse have an existence that is independent to, or separate from, actors. This position is nearer to that of the current study, as the researcher has no influence on the participants or the responses/data provided by them. The absolute knowledge was attained without any influence from the researcher.

3.3.2. Epistemological Considerations

Ponterotto (2005) found that epistemology raises the question of what is (or should be) regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline. It is concerned with examining the relationship of a researcher with what is being researched (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). A central issue in this context is the question of whether or not the social world can and should be studied according to the same principles, procedures, and ethos as the natural sciences (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The research literature is based on three different perspectives

regarding epistemology which are realism, interpretivism, and positivism (Saunders, *et al.* 2007).

3.3.2.1. Realism

Realism is a philosophical position that claims to provide an account of the nature of scientific practice. According to Bryman and Bell (2007: 18): "Realism shares two features with positivism: a belief that the natural and the social sciences can and should apply the same kind of approach to the collection of data and to explanation; and a commitment to the view that there is an external reality to which scientists direct their attention and that is separate from researchers' descriptions of it".

Bryman and Bell (2007) suggested two major forms of realism: empirical realism and critical realism. According to Bhaskar (1979; 1989), Sayer (2000), and Archer *et al*. (2004) critical realism is a specific form of realism based on the reality of the natural order and the events. There were the structures at work that generate those events and discourses. These structures are not spontaneously apparent with the observable pattern of events; these can only be identified through the practical and theoretical work of the social sciences. On the other hand, empirical realism asserts that reality can be understood through the use of appropriate methods. However, it fails to recognise that there are enduring structures and generative mechanisms underlying and producing observable phenomena and events (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

Critical realism implies two things. Firstly, positivists take the view that the scientists' conceptualisation of reality actually directly reflects that reality; realists argue that the scientists' conceptualisation is simply a way of understanding that reality. As Bhaskar (1975: 250) has put it: "Science, is the systematic attempt to express the structures and ways of acting of things that exist and act independently of thought". Secondly, by implication, critical realists, (unlike positivists) are perfectly content to include their explanations, in theoretical terms that are not directly amenable to observation. As a result, hypothetical entities to account for regularities in the natural or social orders are perfectly admissible for realists, but not for the positivists. "What makes critical realism critical is that the identification of generative mechanisms offers the prospect of introducing changes that can transform the *status quo*" (Bryman and Bell, 2007: 18).

3.3.2.2. Interpretivism

'Interpretivism' is an epistemological consideration that considers the views of researchers who have been critical of the application of the scientific model to the study of the social world, and who have been influenced by different intellectual traditions (Bryman and Bell, 2007). They share a view that the subject matter of the social sciences – people and their institutions – is fundamentally different from that of the natural sciences (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The study of the social world therefore requires a different research procedure, one that reflects the distinctiveness of humans against the natural order (Wright, 1971). According to Bryman and Bell (2007: 19): "Interpretivism is predicated upon the view that a strategy is

required that respects the difference between people and the objects of the natural sciences and therefore requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action" .

One of the main intellectual traditions that is responsible for the anti-positivist position is phenomenology, a philosophy that is concerned with the question of how individuals make sense of the world around them and how, in particular, the philosopher should bracket out preconceptions in their grasps of that world (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

3.3.2.3. Positivism

The position that affirmed the importance of imitating the natural sciences is invariably associated with an epistemological position known as positivism (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Positivism encourages working with an observable social reality (Remenyi *et al.*, 1998). Maylor and Blackmon (2005) further found that positivism is derived from the philosophy of science in which the researcher acts as a natural scientist. The researcher studies the topic thoroughly and impartially by following scientific methods of enquiry, where the researcher and participants are two different entities that do not influence each other during the research process (Remenyi *et al.*, 1998). According to Bryman and Bell (2007: 16): "Positivism involves the principles, such as only phenomenon confirmed by the sense can genuinely be warranted as knowledge (phenomenalism), the purpose of theory is to generate hypotheses that can be tested (deductivism), knowledge is generated through the gathering of facts that provide the basis for theories (inductivism), science must be conducted in a way that is value

free (objective), and there is a clear distinction between scientific statements and normative statements".

Saunders *et al*., (2007) found that to generate a research strategy based on positivism, the data is collected and hypotheses are developed, based on existing theory, which then lead to further theory development that can be tested by the additional research.

According to Remenyi *et al.* (1998) the researcher is always external to the research, and neither effects nor is affected by the subject of the research. However, other researchers argue that the relationship between the researcher and their research is impossible to separate (Smith 1983). The issues in business and management are not so simple as to be led by generalisations because the rich insights into the business world could be lost if they are restricted to a series of laws (Saunders *et al,* 2007). Positivism may not be treated as a synonym to science and the scientific, as the philosophers of science and of the social sciences differ quite sharply over how best to characterise scientific practice (Creswell, 1994).

The aim of this section is to outline how epistemological considerations, especially those relating to the question of whether the natural science (in particular a positivist approach) can supply legitimate knowledge of the social world. It is to see how they are related to research practice. The current research was based on the deductive approach and positivist position, as earlier discussion (linking the relationship between theory and research) inferred that a deductive approach is typically associated with a positivist position. According to the unique

nature of the research, and in order to obtain the required statistics and information in an efficient manner, it was necessary to choose the research philosophy with utmost care. This research aimed to understand the impact of the COO- image (in a product category and in terms of economic development) on low and high consumer product involvement. Hence, the 'positivism' philosophy was chosen to eliminate any doubts about the reliability of collected information, and as the main technique for refining the hypothesis.

Although it is mentioned that inductivism is also a feature of positivism, in the working through of its implementation in the practice of research, it is the deductive element that tends to be emphasised (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Similarly, another level of interpretation that a researcher engaged in interpretative research must bring into operation is very much part of the kind of inductive strategy described in the previous section.

However, whilst interconnections between epistemological stance and research practice exist, it is important not to overstate them, since they represent tendencies rather than definitive points of correspondence. Thus, particular epistemological principles and research practices do not necessarily go hand in hand in a straightforward manner (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

3.4. Research Strategy: Quantitative and Qualitative

Theory is essential when conducting research and plays different roles in quantitative and qualitative research. A quantitative research study normally implies a deductive approach,

where the selected theory guides the research inquiry and the research tests the theory. Creswell (1994) defined the quantitative research as an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analysed with statistical procedures, in order to determine whether the predictive generalisations of the theory hold truth. In contrast, qualitative research often applies an inductive logic, and theory generally emerges from the research. This is particularly applicable when grounded theory is used to inductively derive theory from the data (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Qualitative approach can also apply theory deductively when the theory can be used to inform the development of the interview protocol or aid in the analysis of data (Rocco *et al*., 2011).

For many researchers, quantitative and qualitative research differ with respect to their epistemological foundations and in other respects too. Quantitative and qualitative research can be taken to form two distinctive clusters of research strategy, based on the connection between theory and research, ontological considerations, and the epistemological considerations. By a research strategy, it simply means a general orientation to the conduct of business research. Table 3.1 outlines the differences between quantitative and qualitative research in terms of the three areas.

Table 3.1: Fundamental Difference between *Quantitative* and *Qualitative* Research Strategies

Area	Quantitative	Qualitative
Principal orientation to the role of theory in relation to research	Deductive; testing of theory	Inductive; generation of theory
Ontological orientation	Objectivism	Constructionism
Epistemological orientation	Natural science model, in particular positivism	Interpretivism

Sources: Bryman and Bell (2007: 28)

Quantitative research can be defined as a research strategy that emphasises quantification in the collection and analysis of data (Bryman and Bell, 2007). By contrast, qualitative research can be defined as a research strategy that usually emphasises words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The quantitative approach has its roots in post-positivism, where knowledge is developed through cause and effect thinking, the study of variables, testing a hypothesis and verifying theories (Creswell, 2003). By contrast, the qualitative approach is based on the constructivist view-point, in which knowledge is developed by studying the phenomena in their natural settings, and trying to interpret the socially and historically constructed meanings of participants' accounts, for the purpose of developing a theory or a model (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005).

According to the information gathered from the literature review, the deductive approach is found to be mostly applicable in disciplines where agreed facts and established theories are

available. Thus the current research follows a deductive approach in order to test the hypothesis generated from existing body of knowledge. It adopts quantitative data collection technique of survey and statistical analysis procedure.

3.5. The Research Methodology

Researchers believe that the research methodology answers the vital questions that how the researcher would go about finding and gathering the information needed to answer the research questions (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). It is of great importance to select best suitable methods of conducting research, the procedures and techniques in analysing the collected information, concluding the findings and overall logic behind all these should be based on the context of research (Kothari, 2004).

Research methodologies have been generally based on quantitative or qualitative approach. The validity, reliability and precision of qualitative data are questioned when compared with quantitative data gathered on the basis of positivism (Hammersley, 2007). So, the qualitative researchers have to prove their positions accordingly. The current study is a quantitative study which believes in objectivism of reality and positivist philosophy.

The choice of research methodology is dependent on the research questions and objectives, the extent of existing knowledge, the amount of time and resources available and the philosophical foundations (Saunders *et al.,* 2007). There are various research methodologies proposed by different authors in the literature including experiment, survey, case study, action

research, grounded theory, and ethnography. Experiment is a classical form of research based on the study of the effect of change that an independent variable can bring in another dependent variable (Hakim, 2000). A Case study is defined as "a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence" (Robson, 2000: 178). Action research is focused on finding a way to bring about a change in a controlled environment (Saunders *et al.,* 2007). Grounded theory is often thought of as the best example of inductive approach as the hypothesis is developed from the data generated by a series of observations (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Ethnography is a research strategy which focuses on acquiring social knowledge in order to understand the observed patterns of human activity (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). A survey is a methodology which is usually associated with the deductive approach and is mostly used in the situations where there is a need to collect the data from large population in an economical manner (Saunders *et al*., 2007).

The questionnaire was considered as most appropriate tool to collect data for the current research as it translates the research objective into specific question and the answers to those questions provide the data for testing the research hypothesis. Also questionnaire is a valuable, fast and inexpensive way to collect a lot of information about a sample's beliefs, attitudes, and self-reported behaviours (Mitchell and Jolley, 2012). Furthermore, Questionnaires are appropriate where quantitative information is required from a large sample in less time and this data can then be summarised through the use of tables or charts, or analysed statistically to answer a research question.

The strengths of using questionnaire as a tool to collect data includes (Cargan, 2007; Gratton and Jones, 2010):

Accessibility: The data can be collected from a geographically dispersed sample group at a much lower cost using questionnaire, allowing a larger sample to be investigated than interviewing a similar sample as researcher does not needed to be present to ask questions.

Administered to a random sample: the questionnaire can give a comprehensive view of the attitudes, beliefs and values of the larger population with a smaller sampling-range error.

Anonymity: With the absence of the researcher, questionnaire allows anonymity, and may, therefore, improve the validity of the responses. Respondents have greater feelings of anonymity and thus are more comfortable in expressing their real feelings on even personal or sensitive topics.

Potential reduction in bias: Using a well-designed questionnaire reduce the potential bias into the results as may be the case with interviews, for example researcher's body language, or the way a question is responded, or simply the presence of researcher.

Increased time for respondents: respondents can easily fill questionnaires at their own convenient time and respondents are not under pressure to respond immediately as is often the case in interviews.

Uniform results: standardized instructions, wording and the order of questions produce uniform results. This can produce results that are far more valid.

Structured Data: The quantitative data provided by questionnaires can be easily used to draw comparison between subject groups or between the behaviour shown by the same group over a period of time. This data can be easily converted into charts and tables and analyse statistically.

There could also be some weaknesses of questionnaires, such as (Cargan, 2007; Gratton and Jones, 2010):

Potential problems over complex questions: if the questions are complex and not clear enough for the respondents to understand, then the researcher may need to be present to explain.

Personal characteristics of respondents: due to the personal characteristics of respondents may lead to reluctance to honest answer.

No control over who completes the questionnaires: the questionnaire may be completed by an inappropriate party in case respondent delegates the task to somebody else without researcher's knowledge.

No opportunity to probe: Once the questionnaire is returned, the researcher has no opportunity to get him/her to expand or explain any point they made.

Potentially low response rates: the low response rate due to some participants' ability to answer simple questions, let alone more complex ones. The low response rate from questionnaire may seriously affect the reliability of the study.

Considering the advantages of the questionnaire as a tool of data collection, it is preferred for the use in the current research. The questionnaire was standardised and easy to administer and analyse (Burns and Bush, 2006). The survey of the current research was designed to collect data about consumers' opinions, attitudes, behaviours, evaluations of choices and attributes for statistical analysis. Most of the COO image studies used the survey as data collection method (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2008; Chuin and Mohamad, 2012; Saeed *et al.*, 2013). The questionnaire of the current research is designed in three steps:

Fig 3.2: Designing the Questionnaire for the Current Research
First step: Create conceptual frameworks ↓ Second step: Produce the Questionnaire ↓ Third step: Pre-test the Questionnaire
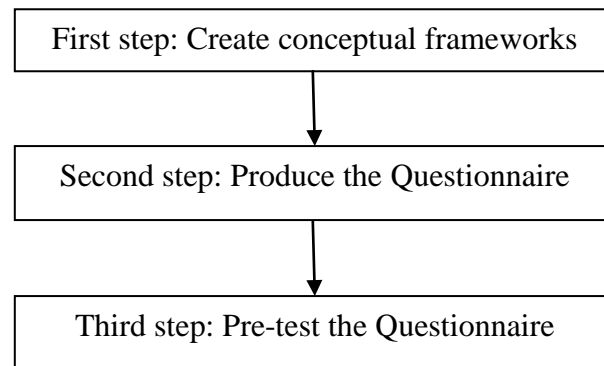
In order to design the questionnaire, the first step taken was to create conceptual frameworks of the study, including specifying the research aim, objectives, variables, hypotheses, operational definitions and valid and reliable measures of the variables, intended population, and the plan for data analysis. The second step was to produce the questionnaire. This includes writing the introduction, the information letter, the questions and responses, and designing the overall format of the questionnaire. The third and final step was to pre-test the questionnaire, to conduct a pilot test, and to revise the questionnaire.

The validity of questionnaire means that does it really measures what it claims to measure. The types of validity includes:

a- Face validity – the questions appear to be measuring the construct at face value.

b- Content validity – whether all important aspects of the construct are covered based on clear definitions of the construct and its components.

c- Criterion validity – whether scores on the questionnaire successfully predict a specific criterion.

d- Concurrent validity – whether results of a new questionnaire are consistent with results of established measures.

Research concluded that as with any measuring instrument, most important issue of a questionnaire is the validity of responses (Jackson and Disch, 2010). In order to minimise the potential disadvantages of the questionnaire and to ensure the validity of questionnaire, some important measures were taken at each of the three steps of questionnaire design.

At the first step, clear research aim, objectives and conceptual frameworks were outlined. The operational definitions of study variables and intended population were clearly defined. In the second step of producing the questionnaire, to avoid any ambiguity and confusion it was decided to divide the questionnaires into different sections. In order to ensure the validity (face, content, criterion and concurrent) each section of questionnaire was adapted from previously designed questionnaires administered by similar research. A cover letter was also added to the questionnaire that explained the objectives of the study and ensured the

respondents about their privacy and anonymity. As the questionnaire used in this study was lengthy, so it was explained in the cover letter that why it is important to answer all the questions.

Finally, pilot study was conducted to ensure the validity of the questionnaire through pre-testing. The questionnaires are pilot-tested to avoid misleading, inappropriate, or redundant questions. Pilot-testing ensures that a research instrument can be used properly and that the information obtained is consistent. Based on the pilot study conclusions, unnecessary, or ambiguous questions were discarded, shorten and revise questionnaire, established that each question gives an adequate range of responses, responses can be interpreted in terms of the information that is required, checked the reliability and validity of results and checked the statistical and analytical processes to determine if they are efficacious.

3.5.1 Sampling

Use of samples to obtain precise information about a population is an efficient technique that enables a researcher to make inferences about the overall population (Yu and Cooper, 1983). Salkind (2006) suggested that in order to have generalisable results of the study, the sample should be a representative sample of the population.

It is important that the sample characteristics will be the same as those of the population. That is the reason why, sampling is centeral to survey design. Researchers believed that the choice between probability and non-probability samples should be based on considerations such as

the nature of the research, relative magnitude of non-sampling, and degree of error tolerance (Malhotra *et al*., 2007). Convenience sampling is a type of non-probability sampling in which people are sampled simply because they are 'convenient' sources of data for researchers (Lavrakas, 2008). It is a statistical method of drawing representative data by selecting people based on the ease of access and availability. Taking into consideration what Creswell (2005) has suggested that a convenience sample includes participants who are available and willing to be a part of the study. One of the most important issues about any type of method is how representative of the population the results are. The current research is targeted towards Pakistani university teachers. Pakistan was selected due to its importance to the researcher as it is the home country of researcher, it is a developing country thus research based here would fill the gap in existing research with reference to lack of COO research based in developing countries, also, it is an emerging economy and research based in this country would be highly valuable to international business and marketing field. The Pakistani university teachers were selected as the research population of the current research as they are educated and there was a lack of evidence of any other COO research used this population. It was interesting to see how educated and affluent university teachers behave as consumers with reference to COO-image. Also, it was convenient for researcher to collect data due to personal references in universities.

When the variability in the population is low and the population is rather homogenous, the use of non-probability convenience sampling is preferable, as the use of judgment may allow greater control over the sampling process (Malhotra *et al*., 2007). The current research has adopted convenience sampling approach, targeted towards the homogenous population of university teachers of Pakistan. The current research used convenience sampling as it was

least expensive and time consuming of all sampling techniques. The sample was accessible, cooperative, and easier to measure. As research suggested that convenience sampling is used where projections to the populations are usually not needed, in such studies, interest centers on the proportion of the sample that gives various responses or expresses various attitudes (Malhotra et al., 2007). The sample of 1509 university teachers was chosen and a 100% response rate was achieved.

As mentioned earlier, convenience sampling is a method of drawing representative date by selecting people because of the ease of their availability and access. Research outlined various strengths of convenience sampling, such as, simplicity of sampling, ease of research, it can be helpful for hypothesis generation and pilot studies, it can facilitate data collection in short duration of time, and it is cost effective (Tolmie *et al*., 2011). At the same time this sampling technique has few weakness as well, such as, it is highly vulnerable to selection bias, sample might not represent the population as a whole, high level of sampling error, and generalisability is unclear.

Due to the security conditions (bombings and terrorism) in Pakistan (2008 to date), it was hard to administer the questionnaire to general consumers, as people generally avoid being contacted by strangers. It was also difficult to ensure the availability of a large number of respondents within a limited time period. In order to have a significant number of participants - almost 10% (1500 out of total 14616) of the University faculty members in Pakistan (HEC, 2011) have been recruited for the current study, using a convenience sampling approach. Thus the faculty of universities in Rawalpindi, Islamabad and Lahore (15 Universities and

146

approximately 100 participants each) such as: Mohammad Ali Jinnah University, Federal Urdu University of Arts, Science and Technology, Quaid-e-Azam Univerisity, Foundation University, Bahria University, Air University, National University of Modern Languages, Fatima Jinnah University, Riphah International University, University of Punjab, Lahore University of Management Sciences, Government College University, Kinnaird College University, University of Central Punjab, and Lahore College University, have participated in the current study. The sample was chosen mainly based on respondents' convenient availability. The sample represented the characteristics of educated and middle income population of the Pakistani consumers.

The current research has increased validity of the convenience sampling by targeting a homogenous population (university teachers with certain level of education and income). The effective and efficient use of convenience sampling strategy was appropriate to the context and assured that generalisations are as convincing as possible to as many audiences as is feasible.

The population of current research was educated. Due to their high level of education, they were capable to answer questions with full understanding and that is a reason of achievement of high response rate. Also, the anonymity was ensured to improve the validity of their responses. In order to improve the validity, researcher should try to assure that the respondents participate in the study and keep dropout rates low (Trochim *et al*., 2015). The research further concludes that a high response rate is essential to infer from results to the wider population, also if the response rate is low then there is a greater likelihood of sample bias

(Wilson, 2014). Thus the validity of the sampling method in the current research, was also improved by achieving 100% response rate. Pilot study was also used to increase the validity of the sampling method.

3.5.2 Procedure

As mentioned previously, the data for this study was collected from staff of the universities in Rawalpindi, Islamabad and Lahore, Pakistan. The researcher administered the questionnaire herself over a period of two months to ensure the maximum response rate. The questionnaire was presented to 1509 potential participants, and a 100% response was obtained.

The structured questionnaire was used as a tool. A careful review of literature and expert opinion[1] suggested that the questionnaire should be divided into six sections measuring; (a) demographics of the respondents (b) the COO image in a product category (c) the COO image in terms of economic development (d) the consumer ethnocentrism (e) the consumer intention to adopt (f) descriptive information such as:

- the influencers influencing the product adoption decision,
- the importance of attributes in low and high involvement products,
- the reputation of countries in low and high involvement product categories,
- the reason for choice of the best country, and,

---

[1] Dr. Jonathan Swift (University of Salford, United Kingdom)

- the COO awareness of brands in the low and high involvement product categories.

3.5.3 Measurement of Variables (Instrument 1)

The scale to measure the various variables of the current study was taken from the previous research (Lascu and Babb, 1995; Manning, *et al.,* 1995; Zain and Yasin, 1997; Kinra, 2006) in order to ensure the reliability and validity of the instrument (the questionnaire attached in Appendix A). The scales measuring the variables of the COO image in product category and the country of origin Image in terms of economic development along the five-point likert scale were taken from research by Lascu and Babb (1995) and Zain and Yasin (1997). The scale measuring the consumer ethnocentrism based on the five-point likert scale, was taken from research by Kinra (2006) and the scale measuring the consumer intention to adopt (with reference to innovativeness), based on the five-point likert scale, was taken from research by Manning, *et al.* (1995). To measure the variables, the scales for consumer product involvement (with reference to the COO information) and high consumer product involvement (with reference to the COO information) were taken from research by Lascu and Babb (1995) and, Zain and Yasin (1997).

The scale measuring the influence on the consumer intention to adopt is taken from research by Leavitt and Walton (1975) based on a five-point likert scale. Researchers such as Kaynak *et al*. (2000) and Chuin and Mohamad (2012) suggested that most of the COO studies use likert scales, being considered as more reliable and appropriate for studies of this nature.

The socio-demographic variables including age, sex, income level, education level, and job title, were categorical. In order to have a clear example six industries were used in the questionnaire: 1- food and drinks, 2- cosmetics, and 3- washing powder for low involvement product categories; 4- air conditioner, 5- refrigerators, and 6- automobiles for high involvement product categories. Incorporating the six categories, categorical variables were used measuring:

1-Frequency of purchase

2-Importance of attributes in low and high involvement product categories (food and drinks, cosmetics, washing powder, air conditioner, refrigerator, and automobile)

3-Reputation of countries in low and high involvement product categories (food and drinks, cosmetics, washing powder, air conditioner, refrigerator, and automobile)

4-Reason for choice of best country

5-COO Awareness of brands in low and high involvement product categories (food and drinks, cosmetics, washing powder, air conditioner, refrigerator, and automobile)

3.5.3.1 Demographic Data

To understand the population under study, demographic data was collected on respondents' age, sex, education level, job title, and income level. These control variables were used in order to find the likely impact of individual differences on the relationship between the variables. Age was measured in four categories i.e. 1 = "20-30 years", 2 = "31-40 years", 3 = "41-50 years", 4 = "51 years - above". Sex was either 'male' or 'female'. Four categories of

education level were used: 1= "MA/MSc/MBA", 2= "M.Phil", 3= "PhD". Similarly four categories were used to classify job title: 1 = "Lecturer (equivalent to a UK Lecturer 1)", 2 = "Assistant Professor (equivalent to a UK Lecturer 2)", 3 = "Associate Professor (equivalent to a UK Senior Lecturer or 'Reader')", 4 = "Professor (equivalent to a UK Professor)". In order to get the information about the income level in Rupees (Pakistani currency) per month, five categories were used: 1= "20,000 – 30,000", 2= "31,000 - 40,000", 3= "41,000 – 50,000", 4= "51,000 – 60,000" and 5= "61,000 – above".

3.5.3.2 Frequency of Purchase

The frequency of purchase variable was used to assess the number of times the consumer buys a product. The measurement of frequencies of purchase of low involvement products (food and drinks, cosmetics, and washing powder) and high involvement products (air conditioner, refrigerator, and automobile) included five categories: 1-"Daily", 2= "Weekly", 3= "Monthly", 4= "Annually" and 5= "In five to ten years time".

3.5.3.3 Importance of Attributes in Low and High Involvement Products

The importance of attributes of the low involvement product and such as: quality, technology, value for money, country of origin credibility, status and esteem; were measured by degree of importance based on five-point Likert scale starting from: 1= "Low" to 5= "High".

3.5.3.4 Reputation of Countries in Low and High Involvement Products

The country of origin reputation or image was explored across the two product levels: low involvement products and high involvement products. No country choice was given and respondents had mentioned their own choice of the country in terms of the best reputation in each industry.

3.5.3.5 Reason for Choice of Best Country

In order to relate the country of choice with the reason of choice in the two product levels (low involvement products and high involvement products), respondents were asked to give points to the product related attributes such as: quality, technology, value for money, country of origin credibility, status and esteem according to their degree of importance. These were based on five-point Likert scale starting from: 1= "Low" to 5= "High".

3.5.3.6 COO Awareness of Brands in Low and High Involvement Products

To test the level of the COO awareness of respondents, three brands from each industry: low involvement products and high involvement products were selected presumably: one as made in Pakistan, second as an imported one and third with foreign origin but manufactured in Pakistan (under license) and respondents were asked to judge the respective country of origin of the brands with a choice of three categories, "Pakistani", "imported", "foreign origin but manufactured in Pakistan".

3.5.3.7 Degree of Influence on Consumer Intention to Adopt

To measure the influences on the 'consumer intention to adopt', the scale was taken from Leavitt and Walton (1975), using nine statements, measuring the response along the five-point likert scale on the basis of their level of agreement ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree". The nine statements were:

1-"Prior to purchasing a new brand, I prefer to consult a friend who has experience with the new brand".

2- "When it comes to deciding whether to purchase a new service, I rely on experienced friends for advice".

3-"I always ask a friend about their experience with a new product before I buy that product".

4-"I decide to buy new products and services based on the opinions of family members who have already tried them".

5-"When I am interested in purchasing a new service, I rely on my friends or close acquaintances that have already used it to give me information as to whether I should try it".

6-"I rely on experienced friends for information about new products prior to making up my mind about whether or not to purchase".

7-"I always seek out information about new products and brands".

8-"I like to go to places where I will be exposed to information about new products and brands".

9-"I like magazines that introduce new brands".

3.5.3.8 COO Image in a Product Category

The scales were based on ten statements measuring the variable of the 'COO image in product category' along the five-point likert scale were adapted from research by Lascu and Babb (1997) in Poland, and also were used by Zain and Yasin (1997) in Uzbekistan, in COO studies. Respondents indicated the level of their agreement with the statements using five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree". Sample items included the following:

1-"To make sure that I buy the highest quality product or brand, I look to see what country the product was made in".

2-"I feel that it is important to look for country-of-origin information when deciding which product to buy".

3-"Seeking country-of-origin information is less important for inexpensive goods than for expensive goods".

4-"I look for country-of-origin information to choose the best product available in a product class".

5-"I find out a product's country of origin to determine the quality of the product".

6-"When I am buying a new product, the country of origin is the first piece of information that I consider".

7- "To buy a product that is acceptable to my friends and my family, I look for the product's country of origin".

8- "If I have little experience with a product, I search for country-of-origin information about the product to help me make a more informed decision".

9-"If a country has a good reputation in one product category, this will has a positive influence on the reputation of other products from the same country".

10- "Whilst a country might have a good reputation in one product category, this doesn't necessarily mean that it has the same good reputation for other products from the same country".

3.5.3.9 COO Image in Terms of Economic Development

To measure variable of the 'COO image in terms of economic development', a scale consisted upon ten statements was used along the five-point likert scale and taken from research by Lascu and Babb (1997) in Poland, also used by Zain and Yasin (1997) in Uzbekistan, in the COO studies. Respondents indicated the level of their agreement with the statements using five-point likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree". Sample items included the following:

1-"To make sure that I buy the highest quality product or brand, I look to see what country the product was made in".

2- "I feel that it is important to look for country-of-origin information when deciding which product to buy".

3- "Seeking country-of-origin information is less important for inexpensive goods than for expensive goods".

4- "I look for country-of-origin information to choose the best product available in a product class".

5- "I find out a product's country of origin to determine the quality of the product".

6- "When I am buying a new product, the country of origin is the first piece of information that I consider".

7- "To buy a product that is acceptable to my friends and my family, I look for the product's country of origin".

8- "If I have little experience with a product, I search for country-of-origin information about the product to help me make a more informed decision".

9-"Generally products from developed countries are of superior quality".

10- "Generally products from developing countries are of lesser quality".

3.5.3.10. Consumer Ethnocentrism

The scale measuring the 'consumer ethnocentrism' along the five-point likert scale, was taken from research by Kinra (2006). Respondents indicated the level of their agreement with eighteen statements using five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree". Sample items included the following:

1-"It is prestigious to buy foreign makes".

2-"Pakistani products are inferior to foreign brands".

3-"Within Pakistan access to foreign products is limited".

4-"Pakistani products are not widely advertised".

5-"True Pakistanis should buy only Pakistani brands".

6-"Only those products not available in Pakistan should be imported".

7-"Pakistani products first and last".

8-"Buying Pakistani products is good for labour".

9-"Advertising foreign brands is anti-Pakistani".

10-"We should buy products manufactured in Pakistan".

11-"It is best to purchase Pakistani products".

12-"There should be very little importing of goods".

13-"Pakistanis should not buy foreign products because it hurts Pakistani business".

14-"No imports should be allowed".

15-"It may not be good for me, but I prefer to support Pakistani products".

16-"Foreigners should not be allowed to sell their products in Pakistan".

17-"Foreign products into Pakistan should be taxed heavily".

18-"Pakistani consumers who buy foreign brands are putting Pakistanis out of work and employment".

3.5.3.11. Consumer Intention to Adopt

The scale measuring the 'consumer intention to adopt' (with reference to innovativeness) based on the five-point likert scale, was taken from that developed by Manning, *et al.,* (1995). The respondents indicated the level of their agreement via eleven statements using five-point likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree". Sample items included the following:

1-"I like to try new and different brands".

2-"I like to wait until a new product is proved to be good before I try it".

3-"When it comes to take chances with new products, I would rather be safe than sorry".

4-"I frequently look for new products and services".

5-"When I see a new brand on the shelf, I always buy it just to see what it is like".

6-"I am continually seeking new product experiences".

7-"I always try new brands before my friends and family do".

8- "Unless there is good reason for changing, I think we should continue with the same brands we are using as always".

9-"New products are usually publicity stunt".

10-"When I go shopping, I find myself spending very little time checking out new products and brands".

11-"I take advantage of the first available opportunity to find out about new and different products".

3.5.3.12 Low Consumer Product Involvement

To measure the variable 'low consumer product involvement' (with reference to COO information) the scale was taken from research by Zain and Yasin (1997). Respondents indicated the level of their agreement via three statements using five-point likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree". Sample items included the following:

1-"I look for the "Made in …" labels in clothing".

2-"A person should seek country-of-origin information when buying a product with a fairly low risk of malfunctioning, e.g. when buying shoes".

3-"When buying a product that is less expensive, such as a shirt, it is less important to look for the country of origin".

3.5.3.13 High Consumer Product Involvement

To measure the variable 'high consumer product involvement' (with reference to country of origin information), the scale was taken that used by Zain and Yasin (1997). The respondents indicated the level of their agreement with two statements using five-point likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree". Sample items included the following:

1-"When buying an expensive item, such as a car, TV or refrigerator I always seek to find out what country the product was made in".

2-"A person should always look for country-of-origin information when buying a product that has a high risk of malfunctioning, e.g. when buying a watch".

3.5.3.14 Pilot Study of the Survey Instrument

Research suggested that the survey design phase should be followed by piloting the survey with a small set of respondents in order to measure the validity and reliability of the instrument (Neuman, 2003). According to Creswell (2002) the pilot testing of a survey provides advantages such as:

- feedback from respondents regarding their understanding of the questions,

- the ability of the researcher to evaluate results from the pilot study, and

- opportunity for the instrument to be modified prior to distribution to a larger sample.

In the current study, a pilot study was conducted before formally starting the data collection process with the objectives such as to determine the clarity and readability of the questionnaire; and to test the internal reliability of the measures included in the questionnaire. Researchers such as Bryman (2008) believe that a pilot study is needed to confirm the usefulness and relevance of the research instrument before applying it to the actual study. Bearing this in mind, a survey was conducted based on the questionnaire, from 50 university tutors in Islamabad, Pakistan. The socio-demographic statistics for the respondents are described in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents (N=50)		
Characteristics	**Frequency**	**Percentage of Responses**
Age		
20-30	26	52
31-40	10	20
41-50	8	16
51-Above	6	12
Sex		
Male	35	70
Female	15	30
Educational Level		
MA/MSc/MBA	31	62
M.Phil	12	24
PhD	7	14
Job Title		
Lecturer	30	60
Assistant Professor	11	22

Associate Professor	4	8
Professor	5	10
Income Level		
20,000 – 30,000	27	54
31,000 – 40,000	3	6
41, 000 – 50,000	11	22
51,000 – 60,000	4	8
61,000 – Above	5	10

The initial draft of the questionnaire was reviewed by supervisor at Salford to ensure the face validity and readability of the scale items. Based on the feedback offered by those who examined the questionnaire, the wording of the questionnaire concerning socio-demographic information was slightly modified.

To assess the internal consistency reliability of each of the scales, tests of internal consistency – Cronbach's Alpha were conducted. According to Andrew *et al*., (2011) Cronbach's alpha measures how well a set of variables or items measures a single, uni-dimensional latent construct. It is essentially a correlation between the item responses in a questionnaire; assuming the statistic is directed toward a group of items intended to measure the same construct. Cronbach's alpha values will be high when the correlations between the respective questionnaire items are high. Cronbach's alpha values range from 0 to 1. In the social sciences, values at or above 0.7 are desirable. All the scales included in the questionnaire showed high levels of internal consistency and reliability.

Following tables report the descriptive statistics for the scales used, including arithmetic mean, standard deviation, and internal consistency and reliability – Cronbach's Alpha for each scale.

Table 3.3: Descriptive Statistics for the COO Image in a Product Category and Reliability Estimates for Pilot Study (N-50)			
Variables	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Alpha**
To make sure that I buy the highest quality product or brand, I look to see what country the product was made in.	**3.94**	.913	**.85**
I look for country-of-origin information to choose the best product available in a product class.	3.72	.963	
I find out a product's country of origin to determine the quality of the product.	3.61	.991	
If a country has a good reputation in one product category, this will have a positive influence on the reputation of other products from the same country.	3.59	.983	
I feel that it is important to look for country-of-origin information when deciding which product to buy.	3.59	1.040	
Seeking country-of-origin information is less important for inexpensive goods than for expensive goods.	3.54	1.043	
To buy a product that is acceptable to my friends and my family, I look for the product's country of origin.	3.48	1.128	
Whilst a country might have a good reputation in one product category, this doesn't necessarily mean that it has the same good reputation for other products from the same country.	3.43	1.072	
If I have little experience with a product, I search for country-of-origin information about the product to help me make a more informed decision.	3.40	1.176	
When I am buying a new product, the country of origin is the first piece of information that I consider.	3.35	1.253	

With respect to the 'country of origin image in a product category' (COOIPC) which was measured by 10 items scale with responses from 1 - Strongly Disagree to 5 - Strongly Agree, Table 3.3 reports that the mean for the 'COO image in a product category' (COOIPC) ranges from a low of 3.35 to a high of 3.94. The Cronbach's alpha also shows a high level of internal consistency and reliability i.e. .85.

Table 3.4: Descriptive Statistics for COO Image in Terms of Economic Development (COOIED) and Reliability Estimates for Pilot Study (N=50)

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	Alpha
To make sure that I buy the highest quality product or brand, I look to see what country the product was made in.	**3.94**	.913	**.84**
I look for country-of-origin information to choose the best product available in a product class.	3.72	.963	
I find out a product's country of origin to determine the quality of the product.	3.61	.991	
I feel that it is important to look for country-of-origin information when deciding which product to buy.	3.59	1.040	
Generally products from developed countries are of superior quality.	3.57	.983	
Seeking country-of-origin information is less important for inexpensive goods than for expensive goods.	3.54	1.043	
To buy a product that is acceptable to my friends and my family, I look for the product's country of origin.	3.48	1.128	
If I have little experience with a product, I search for country-of-origin information about the product to help me make a more informed decision.	3.40	1.176	
When I am buying a new product, the country of origin is the first piece of information that I consider.	3.35	1.253	
Generally products from developing countries are of lesser quality.	3.22	1.072	

With regard to the 'COO image in terms of economic development' which was measured by 10 items scale with responses from 1 - Strongly Disagree to 5 - Strongly Agree. Table 3.4 reveals that the mean for the 'COO image in terms of economic development', ranges from a low of 3.22 to a high of 3.94. The Cronbach's alpha also shows a high level of internal consistency and reliability i.e. .84.

Table 3.5: Descriptive Statistics for Consumer Ethnocentrism (CE) and Reliability Estimates for Pilot Study (N=50)

Variables	Mean	SD	Alpha
It is best to purchase Pakistani products.	**3.88**	.961	**.91**
Buying Pakistani products is good for labour.	3.68	1.062	
We should buy products manufactured in Pakistan.	3.61	.991	
Only those products not available in Pakistan should be imported.	3.56	1.228	
Foreign products into Pakistan should be taxed heavily.	3.53	1.214	
It is prestigious to buy foreign makes.	3.50	1.168	
There should be very little importing of goods.	3.49	1.119	
True Pakistanis should buy only Pakistani brands.	3.44	1.236	
Pakistani products are not widely advertised.	3.42	.965	
Pakistani consumers who buy foreign brands are putting Pakistanis out of work and employment.	3.31	1.192	
Within Pakistan access to foreign products is limited.	3.29	1.219	
Pakistanis should not buy foreign products because it hurts Pakistani business.	3.25	1.203	
It may not be good for me, but I prefer to support Pakistani products.	3.21	1.123	
Pakistani products first and last.	3.19	1.10	
Pakistani products are inferior to foreign brands.	3.09	1.076	
Advertising foreign brands is anti-Pakistani.	3.08	1.148	
Foreigners should not be allowed to sell their products in Pakistan.	2.69	1.168	
No imports should be allowed.	2.67	1.240	

With respect to the 'consumer ethnocentrism' which was measured by 18 items scale with responses from 1 - Strongly Disagree to 5 - Strongly Agree. Table 3.5 reports that the mean

for the Consumer Ethnocentrism ranges from a low of 2.67 to a high of 3.88. The Cronbach's

alpha also shows a high level of internal consistency and reliability i.e. .91.

Table 3.6: Descriptive Statistics for Consumer Intention to Adopt (CIA) and Reliability Estimates for Pilot Study (N=50)

Variables	Mean	SD	Alpha
I like to try new and different brands.	**3.74**	1.066	**.83**
Unless there is good reason for changing, I think we should continue with the same brands we are using as always.	3.56	1.049	
New products are usually publicity stunt.	3.44	.947	
I like to wait until a new product is proved to be good before I try it.	3.41	.993	
When it comes to take chances with new products, I would rather be safe than sorry.	3.36	1.023	
I am continually seeking new product experiences.	3.34	.993	
I frequently look for new products and services.	3.29	1.030	
I always try new brands before my friends and family do.	3.17	1.129	
the first available opportunity to find out about new and different products.	3.10	1.232	
When I go shopping, I find myself spending very little time checking out new products and brands.	3.04	1.138	
When I see a new brand on the shelf, I always buy it just to see what it is like.	2.96	1.105	

With regard to the 'consumer intention to adopt' which was measured by 11 items scale with

responses from 1 - Strongly Disagree to 5 - Strongly Agree. Table 3.6 reveals that the mean

for the 'consumer intention to adopt' ranges from a low of 2.96 to a high of 3.74. The

Cronbach's alpha also shows a high level of internal consistency and reliability i.e. .83.

Table 3.7: Descriptive Statistics for low consumer product involvement (LCPI) and Reliability Estimates for Pilot Study (N=50)

Variables	Mean	SD	Alpha
I look for the "Made in …" labels in clothing.	**3.33**	1.123	**.89**
When buying a product that is less expensive, such as a shirt, it is less important to look for the country of origin.	3.28	1.129	
A person should seek country-of-origin information when buying a product with a fairly low risk of malfunctioning, e.g. when buying shoes.	3.01	1.143	

With respect to the 'low consumer product involvement' which was measured by 3 items scale with responses from 1 - Strongly Disagree to 5 - Strongly Agree. Table 3.7 reports that the mean for the 'low consumer product involvement' ranges from a low of 3.01 to a high of 3.33. The Cronbach's alpha also shows a high level of internal consistency and reliability i.e. .89.

Table 3.8: Descriptive Statistics for High Consumer Product Involvement (HCPI) and Reliability Estimates for Pilot Study (N=50)

Variables	Mean	SD	Alpha
When buying an expensive item, such as a car, TV or refrigerator I always seek to find out what country the product was made in.	**4.20**	.880	**.92**
A person should always look for country-of-origin information when buying a product that has a high risk of malfunctioning, e.g. when buying a watch.	3.76	1.130	

With regard to the 'high consumer product involvement' which was measured by 2 items scale with responses from 1 - Strongly Disagree to 5 - Strongly Agree. Table 3.8 reports that

the mean for the 'high consumer product involvement', ranges from a low of *3.76* to a high of *4.20*. The Cronbach's alpha also shows a high level of internal consistency and reliability i.e. *.92.*

Table 3.9: Reliability Estimates for the complete Instrument Measuring "Effect of the COO Image on Low and High Consumer Product Involvement" (N=50)	
Cronbach's Alpha	**N of Items**
.83	**90**

Table 3.9 shows the result of the Cronbach's Alpha for the overall instrument, and infers that the instrument used in the current study had a high level of reliability (.83).

3.6. Instrument II

After considering the results of the pilot study, the questionnaire was finalised to be used to collect the data. The reliability of the instrument was significant; however there was a general boredom among the participants due to the length of the descriptive side of the questionnaire answering under six product categories. To deal with that, the product categories were reduced from three in each product involvement levels to one each i.e. low involvement products – cold drinks, and automobile for high Involvement Products. A complete set of survey statements is attached in Appendix B.

3.7. Data Analysis

The data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. First of all under descriptive statistics, frequencies of responses were calculated for each of the socio-demographic categorical variables including: age, sex, income level, education level, and job title. Then frequencies for the other responses were calculated for other categorical variables including frequency of purchase (both categories of cold drinks and automobiles), the importance of attributes in low and high involvement product categories (cold drinks and automobiles, respectively); the reputation of countries in low and high involvement product categories (cold drinks and automobiles, respectively); the reason for choice of best country; and the COO awareness of brands in low and high involvement product categories (cold drinks and automobiles, respectively). Under the descriptive statistics, the responses related to the mean value of numeric variables was calculated such as the degree of influence on consumer intention to adopt, the COO image in a product category, the COO Image in terms of economic development, the consumer intention to adopt, the consumer ethnocentrism, the low consumer product involvement and the high consumer product involvement. To infer the results and test the hypotheses, inferential statistics were used, such as correlation analysis and regression analysis.

3.7.1. Correlation Analysis

The correlation refered to the statistical technique used in measuring the closeness of the relationship between the variables (Jain and Aggarwal, 2010). According to Achelis (2001),

correlation analysis deals with the association between two or more variables. Correlation analysis is used to determine the degree of relationship, and works as a numerical measure of direction and magnitude of mutual relationship between the values of two or more variables (Jain and Aggarwal, 2010). The presence of correlation does not mean that the two correlated variables necessarily have a causal relationship. However, with the presence of causal relationship, correlation is certain to exist.

For the purpose of analysis, the main variables such as independent variables, dependent variables and moderating variables were computed using SPSS. In order to measure the level of association between these main study variables such as: COOIPC (country of origin image in a product category), COOIED (country of origin image in terms of economic development), CE (consumer ethnocentrism), CIA (consumer intention to adopt), LCPI (low consumer product involvement), and, HCPI (high consumer product involvement), correlation analysis was used. Since the main objective of the current study is to measure the effect of two independent variables - COOIPC and COOIED, on dependent variables - LCPI and HCPI, keeping in view of the moderating effects of CE and CIA. The correlation analysis was necessary to measure the significance of the association between these variables.

3.7.2. Regression Analysis

According to Jain and Agarwal (2010) regression is the study of the nature of relationship between the variables so that one may be able to predict the unknown value of one variable for a known value of another variable. Regression analysis measures the nature and extent of the

169

relation between two or more variables, and thus enables the researcher to make predictions. The study of regression has special importance in statistical analysis. The mutual relationship between two variables is measured with the help of correlation. Under correlation, the direction and magnitude of the relationship between two variables is measured. But it is not possible to make the best estimate of the value of a dependent variable on the basis of the given value of the independent variable by correlation analysis. Therefore, to make the best estimates and future estimation, the study of regression analysis is very important and useful.

In order to measure the effects of independent variables on dependent variables keeping in view of moderating effects of moderating variables, regression analysis was used. For the purpose of analysis the regression equation was used to measure the fitness of the model which is:

$$LCPI = \alpha + \beta_1(COOIPC) + \beta_2 COOIED) + \beta_3 (CE) + \beta_4(CIA)$$

$$HCPI = \alpha + \beta_1(COOIPC) + \beta_2 COOIED) + \beta_3 (CE) + \beta_4(CIA)$$

Where:

$\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ = constant value,

COOIPC = Country of Origin Image in Product Category

COOIED = Country of Origin Image in terms of Economic Development

CE = Consumer Ethnocentrism

CIA = Consumer Intention to Adopt

HCPI = High Consumer Product Involvement

LCPI = Low Consumer Product Involvement

3.8. Framework of the Current Research and List of Hypotheses

To address the gaps identified in the literature review (from the previous chapter), the current study developed a conceptual framework (fig 3.2) incorporating the COO image in a product category, the COO image in terms of economic development as independent variables; consumer ethnocentrism and consumer intention to adopt as moderating variables and low consumer product involvement and high consumer product involvement as dependent variables. This conceptual framework hypothesised the effects and associations of these variables to understand the consumer behaviour in a developing country such as Pakistan.

Figure 3.3: The Current Research Framework

IV=Independent Variables

DV=Dependent Variables

MV=Moderating Variables
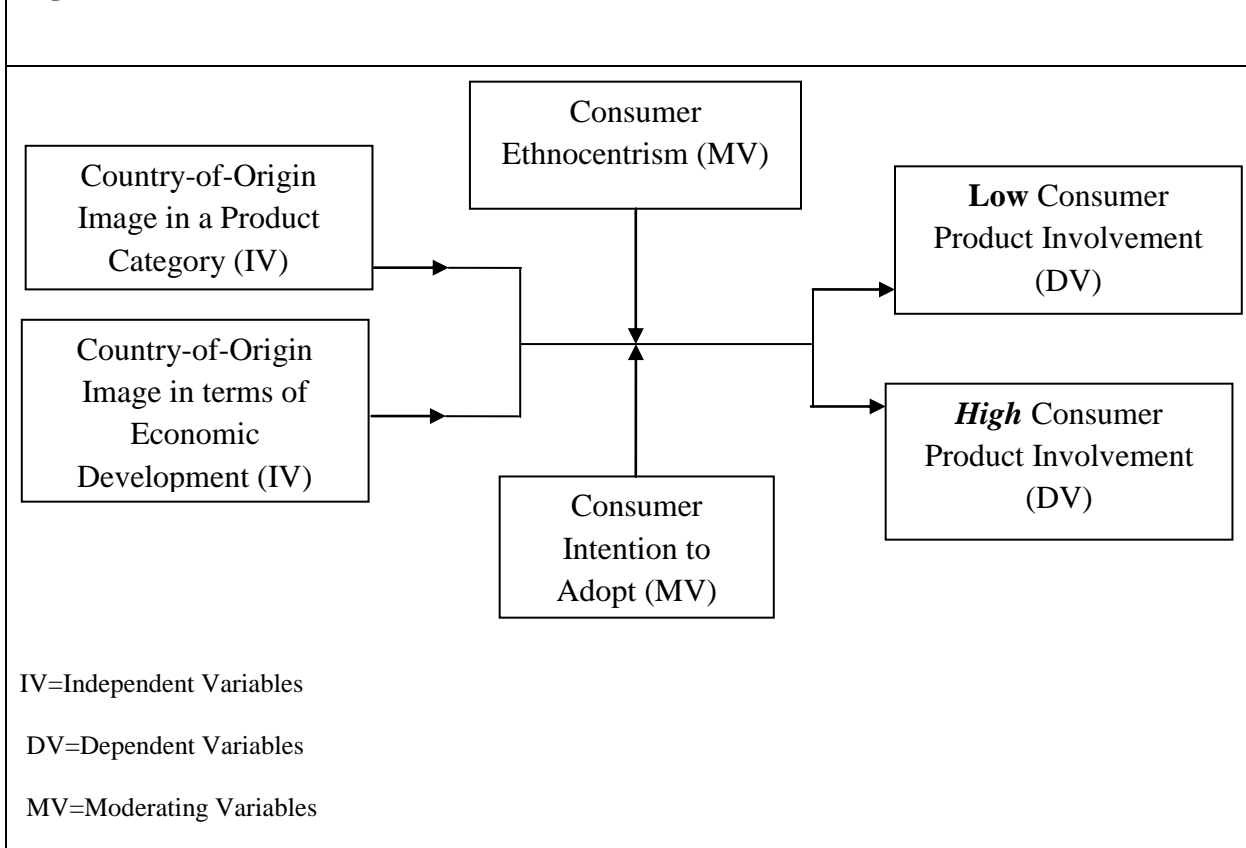
Based on the preceding discussion of the review of existing literature and gaps, a number of research hypotheses have emerged for the current study.

H_1: There is a significant association between the COO-image in terms of economic development, the COO-image in a product category, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer intention to adopt, low consumer product involvement and high consumer product involvement.

H_{2a}: There is a significant positive effect of the COO-Image in a product category on low consumer product involvement.

H_{2b}: There is a significant positive effect of the COO-Image in a product category on high consumer product involvement.

H_{3a}: There is a significant positive effect of the COO-Image in terms of economic development on low consumer product involvement.

H_{3b}: There is a significant positive effect of the COO-Image in terms of economic development on high consumer product involvement.

H_4: The consumer ethnocentrism moderates the effects of the COO-Image in a product category and the COO-Image in terms of economic development on low and high consumer product involvement.

H_5: The consumer intention to adopt moderates the effects of the COO-Image in a product category and the COO-Image in terms of economic development on low and high consumer product involvement.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS

In this chapter the results and empirical findings are reported. The data was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. The presentation of analysis is divided into two sections (fig 4.1). The first section includes the descriptive statistics including the frequencies of response of categorical variables and arithmetic means related to the numeric variables. The second section includes the inferential statistics based on correlation analysis and regression analysis. (Note: whenever Pakistani consumers are mentioned in the current chapter, they refer to the younger Pakistani university teachers, which represent highly educated and affluent population of the Pakistani consumers).

Figure 4.1: Components of the Data Analysis of the Current Study
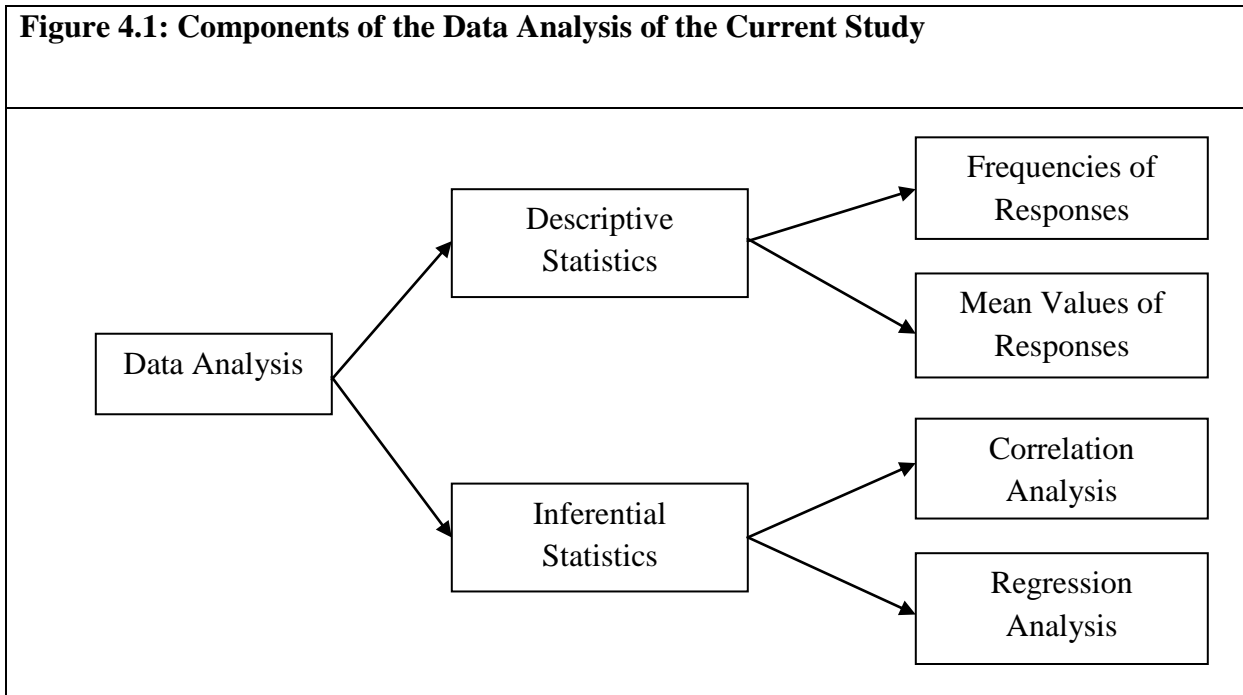
4.1. Descriptive Statistics – Frequencies and Mean

This section of the data analysis is related to descriptive statistics. The descriptive statistics are used to summarise the location, variability and the shape of a data distribution (Anderson *et al.*, 2009). For the purpose of analysis this section includes: frequencies of responses of respondents and the mean values of responses related to study variables.

4.1.1. Frequencies of Responses of Categorical Variables

A categorical variable (sometimes called a nominal variable) is one that has two or more categories but there is no intrinsic ordering to the categories (Powers and Xie, 2008). The frequencies of the responses related to the categorical variables are presented in the table 4.1 (for understanding the highest values are highlighted):

Table 4.1: Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents (N=1509)		
Category	**Frequency**	**Percentage of Total**
Age		
20-30	514	34
31-40	**735**	**49**
41-50	199	13
51-60	61	4
Sex		
Male	**843**	**56**
Female	666	44
Education Level		
MA/MSc/MBA	**661**	**44**
M.Phil	634	42
PhD	214	14
Job Title		
Lecturer	**857**	**57**
Assistant Professor	363	24
Associate Professor	243	16

Professor	46	3
Income Level		
20,000–30,000	330	22
31,000-40,000	**436**	**29**
41,000-50,000	331	22
51,000-60,000	197	13
61,000-Above	215	14

Table 4.1 reports the socio-demographic information of the respondents of the study. This information can play a vital role as the respondents represent the consumer behaviour in Pakistan (with reference to educated and middle to upper income population). Table 4.1 reveals that the majority of the respondents (735 or 49% of the total) were aged 31-40. The second largest group of respondents (514) belonged to the age group of 20-30 which is 34% of total respondents. This means that 83% of the total respondents belonged to the age group of 20–40.

Table 4.1 shows that out of the total respondents of the study (1509), 56% are male and 44% are female. Table 4.1 also shows the socio-demographics of the participants by illustrating the academic qualification of the participants. The majority of the respondents (661) of the survey have a higher education level qualification (MA/MSc/MBA). The second highest value is (634), have the higher education level of M.Phil. According to Higher Education Commission Pakistan (2004) there is 43% MA/MSc/MBA, 36% M.Phil and 21% PhD faculty in the country. The percentage of MA/MSc/MBA (43%) is approximately same as of current study (44%). However, the difference between the two percentages of M.Phil and PhD may have an effect on the results. Table 4.1 shows that the majority of the respondents of current study (857) are Lecturers. Also 29% of the respondents belong to the income level of Rs.31,000 - Rs.40,000.

In summary, table 4.1 reveals that the majority of the respondents are: young, highly qualified lecturers and assistant professors and belong to upper middle income groups of the country. It is also evident that there is a good blance of male and female respondents of current study. This socio-demographic information is vital as it might have strong influence on consumer beliefs, attitude and behaviour.

Table 4.2: Frequency of Purchase (N=1509)

Product	Frequency	Percentage of Total
Cold Drinks		
Daily	**977**	**65**
Weekly	486	32
Monthly	46	3
Automobiles		
Annually	181	12
In Five to Ten years Time	**1328**	**88**

Table 4.2 shows the frequency of purchase of cold drinks and automobiles and illustrates that the majority of the participants (65%) purchase cold drinks on a daily basis. Another 32% purchase them on a weekly basis and finally very few of the respondents (3%) purchase cold drinks on a monthly basis. The high frequency of the purchase of cold drinks shows that they belong to a low involvement product category that involves less thought, cost and risk (Lin and Chen, 2006). However, table 4.2 also shows that most of the respondents (88%) purchase an automobile over a five to ten year cycle. This purchase behaviour shows that the Automobile is a high involvement product that may involve much consideration, cost and risk (Lin and Chen, 2006).

Table 4.3: Reputation of Countries in a Certain Product Category (N=1509)		
Best Country of Origin	**Frequency**	**Percentage of Total**
Low Involvement Products: *Cold Drinks*		
Developed Country(s)	**756**	**50**
Other Developing Country (s)	60	4
Pakistan	693	45

In the questionnaire (see Appendix B), there was an open ended question in which respondents were asked to mention their choice of best manufacturing country for cold drinks and Automobiles. For cold drinks, a variety of responses were obtained. In order to effectively use this information for data analysis, the responses were grouped including: developed countries - countries that have high industrialisation as defined by the United Nations (2011), developing countries - countries that have low industrialisation as defined by the United Nations (2011), and Pakistan (although it is a developing country but considered separate in order to appropriately differentiate between the local/domestic and foreign manufacturer). Table 4.3 shows that half of the respondents believe that the best manufacturing country for cold drinks is one of the developed countries (54%). However, another 44% believe that Pakistan is best at manufacturing cold drink. Similarly for automobiles, a variety of responses were obtained. In order to effectively use this information in the data analysis and on the basis of responses and their likeness, the responses were grouped: developed countries, Japan (though it is a developed country but it has great reputation in automobile industry, that is why taken independently), Germany (though it is a developed country but it has a great reputation in automobile industry, that is why taken independently) and Pakistan (although it is a developing country but considered separate in order to appropriately differentiate between the local/domestic and foreign manufacturer). Table 4.3 reports that almost half of the

respondents (42%) believe that Japan is the best automobile manufacturing country. Table 4.3
with respect to participants' choice of best manufacturing country of cold drinks and
automobiles illustrates that they base their choice on the economic development of the
manufacturing country.

Table 4.4: Country of Origin Awareness of *Cold Drink* Brands (N=1509)		
Brand Origin	**Frequency**	**Percentage of Total**
Coca Cola		
Pakistani	229	15
Imported	150	10
Foreign Origin but Manufactured in Pakistan (Under License)	**1130**	**75**
Pakola		
Pakistani	**950**	**63**
Imported	377	25
Foreign Origin but Manufactured in Pakistan (Under License)	182	12
Red Bull		
Pakistani	105	7
Imported	**1193**	**79**
Foreign Origin but Manufactured in Pakistan (Under License)	211	14

Table 4.4 shows the country of origin awareness of cold drink brands in Pakistan; the majority
of the respondents (75%) believe that Coca Cola is a foreign brand manufactured under
license in Pakistan (which is true). This is also evident in table 4.4 that more than half of the
respondents (63%) believe that Pakola is a Pakistani brand (which is also true) and 79%
respondents believe that Red Bull is a totally imported brand (which is true again). Table 4.4

reveals that majority of the respondents are aware of the country-of-origin of the three popular brands of cold drinks in Pakistan.

Table 4.5: Country of Origin Awareness of *Automobiles* Brands (N=1509)		
Brand Origin	**Frequency**	**Percentage of Total**
Honda		
Pakistani	211	14
Imported	408	27
Foreign Origin but Manufactured in Pakistan (Under License)	**890**	**59**
Suzuki Mehran		
Pakistani	592	39
Imported	227	15
Foreign Origin but Manufactured in Pakistan (Under License)	**690**	**46**
Toyota Land Cruiser		
Pakistani	77	5
Imported	**1068**	**71**
Foreign Origin but Manufactured in Pakistan (Under License)	364	24

Table 4.5 shows the country-of-origin awareness of automobile brands in Pakistan; the majority of respondents (59% and 46% respectively) believe that Honda and Suzuki Mehran are foreign brands which are manufactured under license in Pakistan. Table 4.5 also reveals that 71% respondents believe that the Toyota Land Cruiser is an imported brand. From table 5.5, with respect to respondents' country of origin awareness of famous automobiles brands in Pakistan, it would appear that the majority of respondents have a high level of country-of-origin awareness.

4.1.2. Mean Values of Responses under Numeric Variables

The descriptive statistics are used to summarise the location, variability and the shape of the data distribution (Anderson *et al.*, 2009). The numeric variables are used to store the quantitative data (Cody, 2008). The mean values of responses relate to the numeric variables that are presented in the tables below (highest values are highlighted).

Table 4.6: Importance of Attributes in Low Involvement Products - *Cold Drinks*

Degree of Importance of Attribute in *Cold Drinks*	Mean	Std. Deviation
Quality	**4.16**	1.127
Technology	3.14	1.340
Value for Money	3.47	1.439
Country of Origin Credibility	2.37	1.352
Status and Esteem	3.14	1.512

Table 4.6 shows that the degree of importance of attributes in low involvement products, such as cold drinks. It shows that, at the time of purchase, respondents gave the highest importance (4.16) to the quality attribute. The table also reveals that "value for money" is also an important aspect of the purchase (3.47).

Table 4.7: Importance of Attributes in High Involvement Products – *Automobiles*

Degree of Importance of Attribute in *Automobiles*	Mean	Std. Deviation
Quality	4.45	.963
Technology	**4.47**	.889
Value for Money	4.23	1.095
Country of Origin Credibility	3.46	1.548
Status and Esteem	3.98	1.385

Table 4.7 shows the importance of attributes in high involvement products such as automobiles. It reveals that the highest importance (4.47) is given to the technology attribute. Table 4.7 also reports that the respondents give great deal of importance (4.45 and 4.23 respectively) to the quality and the "value for money" attributes of automobiles.

Table 4.8: Reasons for the Choice of Best Country - *Cold Drinks*		
Degree of Importance of the Attribute in selecting the Best Country in *Cold Drinks* Category	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Quality	**4.08**	1.272
Technology	2.98	1.441
Value for Money	3.36	1.470
Country of Origin Credibility	2.78	1.359
Status and Esteem	2.77	1.499

Table 4.8 reveals the reasons for the respondents' choice of the best manufacturing country for cold drinks: the highest importance (4.08) is given to quality. It is very important to relate this information to the results reported in table 4.3 where the majority of respondents believe that the best manufacturing county for cold drinks is one of the developed countries. Thus, it can be inferred that the Pakistani consumers believe the cold drinks manufactured in developed countries are of high quality.

Table 4.9: Reasons for the Choice of Best Country – *Automobiles*		
Degree of Importance of the Attribute in selecting the Best Country in *Automobiles* Category	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Quality	4.48	.920
Technology	**4.50**	.924
Value for Money	4.32	1.11
Country of Origin Credibility	3.81	1.44
Status and Esteem	3.98	1.45

Table 4.9 reports that the respondents give the highest importance (4.50) to technology of an automobile. It is important to relate this information to the results shown by table 4.3 where the respondents have selected Japan as the best manufacturing country for automobiles. Thus, it can be inferred that the Pakistani consumers believe that Japanese automobiles are technologically the best.

Table 4.10: Degree of Influence on Consumers' Intention to Adopt		
Degree of Influence on the Consumers' Intention to Adopt	Mean	Std. Deviation
1- Prior to purchasing a new brand, I prefer to consult a friend who has experience of the new brand.	**3.79**	.930
2- I always seek out information about new products and brands.	3.72	1.041
3- When it comes to deciding whether to purchase a new service, I rely on experienced friends for advice.	3.62	.935
4- I like to go to places where I will be exposed to information about new products and brands.	3.60	1.106
5- I rely on experienced friends for information about new products prior to making up my mind about whether or not to purchase.	3.53	1.056
6- I like magazines that introduce new brands.	3.48	1.144
7- I decide to buy new products and services based on the opinions of family members who have already tried them.	3.41	.990
8- I always ask a friend about their experience with a new product before I buy that product.	3.37	1.017
9- When I am interested in purchasing a new service, I rely on my friends or close acquaintances that have already used it to give me information as to whether I should try it.	3.36	1.073

With respect to the influence on consumers' intention to adopt table 4.10 shows that respondents show the highest level of agreement (3.79) with the statement 'Prior to purchasing a new brand, I prefer to consult a friend who has experience of the new brand'. This suggests that the opinion of their friends has a strong influence on their intention to purchase a product. Table 4.10 also shows that the respondents show a high level of

agreement to the notion that they are influenced by various sources, such as friends, family, magazines, store displays etc.

4.1.3. Mean Values of the Study Variables

The mean values related to the study variables (independent – COOIPC, COOIED; dependent variables – LCPI, HCPI; and moderating – CE, CIA) are presented as follows:

Table 4.11: COO Image in a Product Category		
COO Image in a Product Category	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
(CCOIPC)	**3.57**	**.548**
1- To make sure that I buy the highest quality product or brand, I look to see what country the product was made in.	**3.94**	.913
2- I look for the country-of-origin information to choose the best product available in a product class.	3.72	.963
3- I find out a product's country of origin to determine the quality of the product.	3.61	.991
4- If a country has a good reputation in one product category, this will have a positive influence on the reputation of other products from the same country.	3.60	.983
5- I feel that it is important to look for the country-of-origin information when deciding which product to buy.	3.59	1.040
6- Seeking country-of-origin information is less important for inexpensive goods than for expensive goods.	3.54	1.043
7- To buy a product that is acceptable to my friends and my family i look for the product's country of origin.	3.48	1.128
8- If I have little experience with a product i search for the country-of-origin information about the product to help me make a more informed decision.	3.40	1.176
9- When I am buying a new product, the country of origin is the first piece of information that I consider.	3.35	1.253
10- Whilst a country might have a good reputation in one product category, this doesn't necessarily mean that it has the same good reputation for other products from the same country.	3.21	1.072

From table 4.11, with respect to the country-of-origin image in a certain product category, it would appear that respondents show the highest level of agreement (3.94) with the statement: 'to make sure that I buy the highest quality product or brand, I look to see what country the product was made in'. This means that Pakistani consumers strongly relate the quality of the product or brand to its 'made in' country. It also confirms the results reported in table 4.3, in which respondents stated that developed countries are best in manufacturing both low and high involvement products, such as cold drinks and automobiles respectively.

Table 4.11 further shows that respondents believe that it is important to look for a product's country-of-origin information, no matter whether it is expensive or not. Respondents also agree with the notion that if a product is new, or they do not have enough prior experience of that product, they use the country-of-origin of the product to help make a more informed decision. Table 4.11 also reports that the respondents agree that they look for that product's country-of-origin to buy a product that is acceptable to their friends and family.

Table 4.12: COO Image in Terms of Economic Development		
COO Image in Terms of Economic Development	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
(CCOIED)	**3.54**	**.571**
1- Generally products from developing countries are of lesser quality.	**3.98**	1.069
2- To make sure that I buy the highest quality product or brand, I look to see what country the product is made in.	3.84	.913
3- I look for the country-of-origin information to choose the best product available in a product class.	3.72	.963
4- I find out a product's country of origin to determine the quality of the product.	3.61	.991

5-	Generally products from developed countries are of superior quality.	3.59	1.095
6-	I feel that it is important to look for country-of-origin information when deciding which product to buy.	3.59	1.040
7-	Seeking country-of-origin information is less important for inexpensive goods than for expensive goods.	3.54	1.043
8-	If I have little experience with a product, I search for country-of-origin information about the product to help me make a more informed decision.	3.40	1.176
9-	When I am buying a new product, the country of origin is the first piece of information that I consider.	3.35	1.253
10-	To buy a product that is acceptable to my friends and my family, I look for the product's country of origin.	3.21	1.128

Table 4.12 shows the country-of-origin image in terms of economic development. It suggests that respondents show the highest level of agreement (3.98) with the statement that 'generally products from developing countries are of lesser quality'. Table 4.12 further reports that the respondents agree (3.59) that products from developed countries are of superior quality; these results match to those already reported by table 4.3. Thus, it can be asserted that Pakistani consumers generally believe that products from developed countries are of superior quality to those from developing countries.

Table 4.13: Consumer Ethnocentrism		
Consumer Ethnocentrism	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
(CE)	**3.31**	**.567**
1- It is best to purchase Pakistani products.	**3.72**	.960
2- Buying Pakistani products is good for labour.	3.71	1.079
3- We should buy products manufactured in Pakistan.	3.63	.996
4- Foreign products into Pakistan should be taxed heavily.	3.59	1.210
5- Only those products not available in Pakistan should be imported.	3.59	1.210
6- It is prestigious to buy foreign makes.	3.47	1.178
7- There should be very little importing of goods.	3.46	1.109

8-	Pakistani products are not widely advertised.	3.44	.953
9-	True Pakistanis should buy only Pakistani brands.	3.40	1.226
10-	Pakistani consumers who buy foreign brands are putting Pakistanis out of work and employment.	3.35	1.187
11-	Within Pakistan access to foreign products is limited.	3.28	1.225
12-	Pakistanis should not buy foreign products because it hurts Pakistani business.	3.25	1.211
13-	It may not be good for me, but I prefer to support Pakistani products.	3.23	1.079
14-	Pakistani products first and last.	3.13	1.091
15-	Pakistani products are inferior to foreign brands.	3.06	1.084
16-	Advertising foreign brands is anti-Pakistani.	3.02	1.116
17-	Foreigners should not be allowed to sell their products in Pakistan.	2.66	1.192
18-	No imports should be allowed.	2.65	1.251

The findings of the current research (table 4.13) show that the young, highly educated and affluent Pakistani consumers were only moderately ethnocentric. The responses presented in table 4.13 shows that respondents show medium level (3.31) of ethnocentrism. However, the results reported in table 4.13 show contradictory behaviour of respondents. On one hand they have the highest level of agreement (3.72) with the statement: 'it is best to purchase Pakistani products'. Also, they have agreement to the notions such as 'Buying Pakistani products is good for labour' (3.71); 'True Pakistanis should buy only Pakistani brands' (3.40); 'Only those products not available in Pakistan should be imported' (3.59); 'Pakistani products first and last' (3.13); 'We should buy products manufactured in Pakistan' (3.63); 'There should be very little importing of goods' (3.47); 'Pakistanis should not buy foreign products because it hurts Pakistani business' (3.25); 'Foreign products into Pakistan should be taxed heavily' (3.59); and, 'Pakistani consumers who buy foreign brands are putting Pakistanis out of work and employment' (3.35); On the other hand, they also agree with the notions that 'It is prestigious to buy foreign makes' (3.47); 'Pakistani products are inferior to foreign brands'

(3.06); and disagree to the notions such as: 'No imports should be allowed' (2.65); and Foreigners should not be allowed to sell their products in Pakistan' (2.66).

These findings suggested that Pakistani consumers may not be highly ethnocentric and either they are confused with what they feel in terms of ethnocentrism or they want to look good in the eyes of others, being part of the collectivist society (as table 4.10 concluded that how strongly they are influenced by their friends and family).

Table 4.14: Consumer Intention to Adopt		
Consumer Intention to Adopt	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
(CIA)	**3.314**	**.5557**
1- I like to try new and different brands.	**3.75**	1.062
2- Unless there is good reason for changing, I think we should continue with the same brands we are always using.	3.54	1.035
3- I like to wait until a new product is proven to be good before I try it.	3.44	.984
4- New products are usually a publicity stunt.	3.42	.960
5- When it comes to taking chances with new products, I would rather be safe than sorry.	3.36	1.025
6- I am continually seeking new product experiences.	3.31	.968
7- I frequently look for new products and services.	3.29	1.023
8- I always try new brands before my friends and family do.	3.18	1.134
9- I take advantage of the first available opportunity to find out about new and different products.	3.14	1.187
10- When I go shopping, I find myself spending very little time checking out new products and brands.	3.07	1.142
11- When I see a new brand on the shelf, I always buy it just to see what it is like.	2.95	1.108

These Pakistani consumers mostly have mixed beliefs, as on one hand they show their early intentions to adopt and display innovative behaviour by agreeing to the statement that they like to try new and different brands (mean value 3.75); they frequently look for new products and services (mean value 3.29); when they see a new brand on the shelf, they always buy it just to see what is like (mean value 2.95); they continually seek new product experience (mean value 3.31); they always try new brands before their friends and family do (mean value3.18); and they take advantage of the first available opportunity to find out about new and different products (mean value 3.14). Contrary to their intention to early adoption, these consumers also showed behaviour patterns of followers or even of laggards by agreeing that they like to wait until a new product is proved to be good before they try it (mean value 3.44); when it comes to take chances with new products, they would rather be safe than sorry (mean value 3.36); unless there is a good reason for changing they think they should continue with the same brands they have always used (mean value 3.54); new products are usually a publicity stunt (mean value 3.42); and, when they go shopping, they find themselves spending very little time checking out new products and brands (mean value 3.07).

Table 4.14 reveals that generally the respondents are not innovative in their purchase behaviour, rather they take their time to show purchase intention. This consumer behaviour may have implications on the findings of the current study.

Table 4.15: Low Consumer Product Involvement			
Low Consumer Product Involvement (LCPI)		**Mean 3.201**	**Std. Deviation .695**
1-	I look for the "Made in …" labels in clothing.	**3.35**	1.126
2-	When buying a product that is less expensive, such as a shirt, it is less important to look for the country of origin.	3.29	1.125
3-	A person should seek the country-of-origin information when buying a product with a fairly low risk of malfunctioning, e.g. when buying shoes.	2.96	1.148

This is apparent in Table 4.15, with respect to the 'low consumer product involvement', that respondents show a high level of agreement (3.35) with the notion 'I look for the "Made in …" labels in clothing'. Table 4.15 also shows that generally, respondents pay attention to the country-of-origin information for low involvement products (3.20). However, table 4.15 also reveals that respondents agree (3.29) to the statement: 'When buying a product that is less expensive, such as a shirt, it is less important to look for the country- of- origin'. This also corresponds with the previously reported results in table 4.11 'Seeking country-of-origin information is less important for inexpensive goods than for expensive goods' (3.54).

Table 4.16: High Consumer Product Involvement			
High Consumer Product Involvement (LCPI)		**Mean 4.02**	**Std. Deviation .813**
1-	When buying an expensive item, such as a car, TV or refrigerator I always seek to find out what country the product was made in.	**4.21**	.875
2-	A person should always look for the country-of-origin information when buying a product that has a high risk of malfunctioning, e.g. when buying a watch.	3.83	1.081

Table 4.16 relates to 'high consumer product involvement'. It suggests that respondents have a high level of agreement (4.21) with the statement 'When buying an expensive item, such as a car, TV or refrigerator I always seek to find out what country the product was made in'. Table 4.16 also reports a high level of agreement (3.83) to the statement 'A person should always look for the country-of-origin information when buying a product that has a high risk of malfunctioning, e.g. when buying a watch'.

Based on the results presented in table 4.16, it can be concluded that Pakistani consumers give a high importance to the country-of-origin information at the time of purchase of high involvement products, with high risk and cost.

4.2.   Inferential Statistics – Correlation and Regression Analysis

Inferential statistics are used in current data analysis in order to make inferences - draw conclusions, make predictions and make decisions about the characteristics of a population from information contained in a sample (Mendenhall *et al*. 2009).

4.2.1. Correlation between Variables

To address the objectives of the current research, the Correlation test was performed. In order to test H_1, Pearson correlation coefficient is performed to assess the association between all the study variables. As discussed in the previous chapter, correlation is a statistical test that measures the association between two variables (Jain and Aggarwal, 2010). The presence of

correlation does not mean the two variables necessarily have causal relationship. However, for the causal relationship, existence of correlation is mandatory (Achelis, 2001). The correlation coefficient 'r' (full name is Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient) measures the strength of association or relationship between two numerical variables (0.0-1.0), that is, the degree to which they are related (Jackson, 2011). According to Rubin (2010), positive values of the correlation coefficient indicate a positive relationship (as one variable increases, the other variable tends to increase); negative values show a negative relationship (as one variable increases, the other variable tends to decrease). For example, in case of the positive relationship: as the age of an individual increases, the number and level of their educational qualifications increases. Similarly, in case of negative relationship; as the cost of higher education increases, the number of people participating decreases. Whereas, 'r' value measures the strength of the association, 'p' value (accept at 0.0 - 0.5) shows the significance of the relationship.

The study variables include independent variables - country of origin image in product category (COOIPC), and, country of origin image in terms of economic development (COOIED). The moderating variables are consumers' ethnocentrism (CE), and consumer intention to adopt (CIA). Finally the dependent variables are high consumer product involvement (HCPI), and low consumer product involvement (LCPI). The results of the Bivariate Correlation analysis are presented in table 4.17 and briefly explained below. However, these results will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

Table 4.17: Correlations Matrix						
	COOIPC	COOIED	LCPI	HCPI	CE	CIA
COOIPC	1					
COOIED	.941	1				
LCPI	.489	.494	1			
HCPI	.476	.474	.300	1		
CE	.470	.466	.431	.255	1	
CIA	.426	.395	.429	.486	.485	1

All Correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). N = 1509

H₁: There is a significant association between COOIPC, COOIED, LCPI, HCPI, CE and CIA.

Table 4.17 shows the correlation matrix, and suggests a significant association between all the study variables, so H_1 is accepted. This significant association between all the study variables provides the ground for the upcoming regression analysis in order to understand the cause and effect.

COOIPC and COOIED: Table 4.17 shows that the coefficient of correlation between the country of origin image in terms of economic development, and the country of origin image in a product category is highly significant at the level of .01 (P = .000 < .01) with the value of 0.941. This supports part of the *hypothesis 1* of the study that a positive and significant association exists between COOIPC and COOIED.

COOIPC and LCPI: Table 4.17 reveals that a significant and positive relationship exists between the country of origin image in a product category and the low consumer product involvement as hypothesised in this study. The value of the correlation coefficient between these variables is 0 .489, and it is highly significant at the level of .01 (P = .000 < .01). Thus it can be inferred that COOIPC and LCPI are significantly and positively associated with each other and part of the *hypothesis 1* is accepted.

COOIPC and HCPI: Table 4.17 shows that the pearson correlation coefficient between the country of origin image in a product category and the high consumer product involvement is 0.476 and is significant at the .01 level (P = .000 < .01). This means that the relationship between COOIPC and HCPI is highly significant and positive. This supports a part of the *hypothesis 1* of the study.

COOIPC and CE: Relationship between the country of origin image in a product category and the consumer ethnocentrism is examined through the pearson correlation coefficients. Table 4.17 reports that the coefficient of correlation between these variables is relatively strong (0.470) and is significant at the level of .01 (P = .000 < .01). Thus it can be stated that there is a positive and significant relationship between COOIPC and CE, and a part of the *hypothesis 1* of study is accepted.

COOIPC and CIA: Table 4.17 shows that the value of the pearson correlation coefficient between the country of origin image in a product category and the consumer intention to adopt is 0.426 and is significant at the .01 level (P = .000 < .01). Thus it can be inferred that COOIPC and CIA are highly, significantly and positively correlated. This supports a part of the H_1.

COOIED and LCPI: Table 4.17 shows a significant association between the country of origin image in terms of economic development and the low consumer product involvement. The correlation coefficient 0.494 is observed between COOIED and LCPI at the significant level of .01 (P = .000 < .01). This result contributes to the acceptance of a part of the H_1 of the study.

COOIED and HCPI: Table 4.17 shows that the coefficient of correlation between the country of origin image in terms of economic development and the high consumer product involvement is found highly significant at the level of .01 (P = .000 < .01) with a value of 0.474. This partially supports the *hypothesis 1* of the study that a positive and significant association exists between COOIED and HCPI.

COOIED and CE: Table 4.17 also reveals that a significant and positive relationship exists between the country of origin image in terms of economic development and the consumer ethnocentrism as hypothesized (H_1) in this study. The value of correlation coefficient between

these variables is 0.466 and it is significant at the level of .01 (P = .000 < .01). Thus part of the *H₁* is accepted which states that there is a significant and positive association between COOIED and CE.

COOIED and CIA: Table 4.17 shows that the pearson correlation coefficient between the country of origin image in terms of economic development and the consumer intention to adopt is found 0.395 which is significant at the .01 (P = .000 < .01) level. This means that a highly significant and positive association exist between COOIED and CIA, and supports a part of the *H₁*.

LCPI and HCPI: Table 4.17 illustrates that the relationship between the low consumer product involvement and low consumer product involvement is examined through their pearson correlation coefficients. It is found that the coefficient of correlation between these variables is 0.300 and is significant at the level of .01 (P = .000 < .01). On the basis of this result, it can be said that there is a positive and significant relationship between LCPI and HCPI. Thus a part of the *H₁* is accepted.

LCPI and CE: Table 4.17 reports that the pearson correlation coefficient of 0.431 is found to be significant at the level of .01 (P = .000 < .01) for the relationship between the low consumer product involvement and the consumer ethnocentrism. Thus support the *H₁* by inferring that LCPI is significantly and positively associated with CE.

LCPI and CIA: Table 4.17 shows a correlation coefficient of 0.429 between the low consumer product involvement and the consumer intention to adopt. It is also highly significant at the .01 (P = .000 < .01) level. Therefore it means that there is a highly significant and positive association between LCPI and CIA, and thus a part of the H_1 is accepted.

HCPI and CE: Table 4.17 shows a correlation coefficient (0.225) between the high consumer product involvement and the consumer ethnocentrism, and this is highly significant at the level of .01 (P = .000 < .01). This supports a part of the *hypothesis 1* of this study that, a positive and significant association exists between HCPI and CE.

HCPI and CIA: Table 4.17 shows a significant and positive relationship between the high consumer product involvement nand the consumers' Intention to Adopt as hypothesised in this study. The value of the correlation coefficient between these variables is 0.486 and it is significant at the level of .01 (P = .000 < .01). Thus HCPI and CIA are significantly and positively association with each other.

CE and CIA: It is apparent in table 4.17 that the pearson correlation coefficient between the consumers' ethnocentrism and the consumers' intention to adopt is 0.485 which is significant at the .01 level (P = .000 < .01). This means that a strong, positive correlation exists between CE and CIA. This result supports with the *hypothesis 1* of this study, that there is a positive and significant association between CE and CIA.

4.2.2. Multiple Regression

According to Wooldridge (2009) generally one variable is the main variable of interest. The variable to be explained or predicted is called response or dependent variable. The other variables are called explanatory or independent variables. Multiple regression analysis is concerned with statistical relationship between two or more numerical predictor (independent) variables and response (dependent) variables (Jackson, 2011). There are functional dependencies between the variables – which imply that with the increase/decrease in predictor or independent variables, there will be an increase/decrease in response variable (Humbert, 2007). Regression analysis in the current study is performed to assess contribution of the COOIPC and the COOIED in explaining the variation in the LCPI and the HCPI respectively. Two moderating variables are also included in the current study – the CE and the CIA. Thus, the two models of the current study proposed are as follows:

Figure 4.2: Model I for *Regression* Analysis (Low Involvement Products)
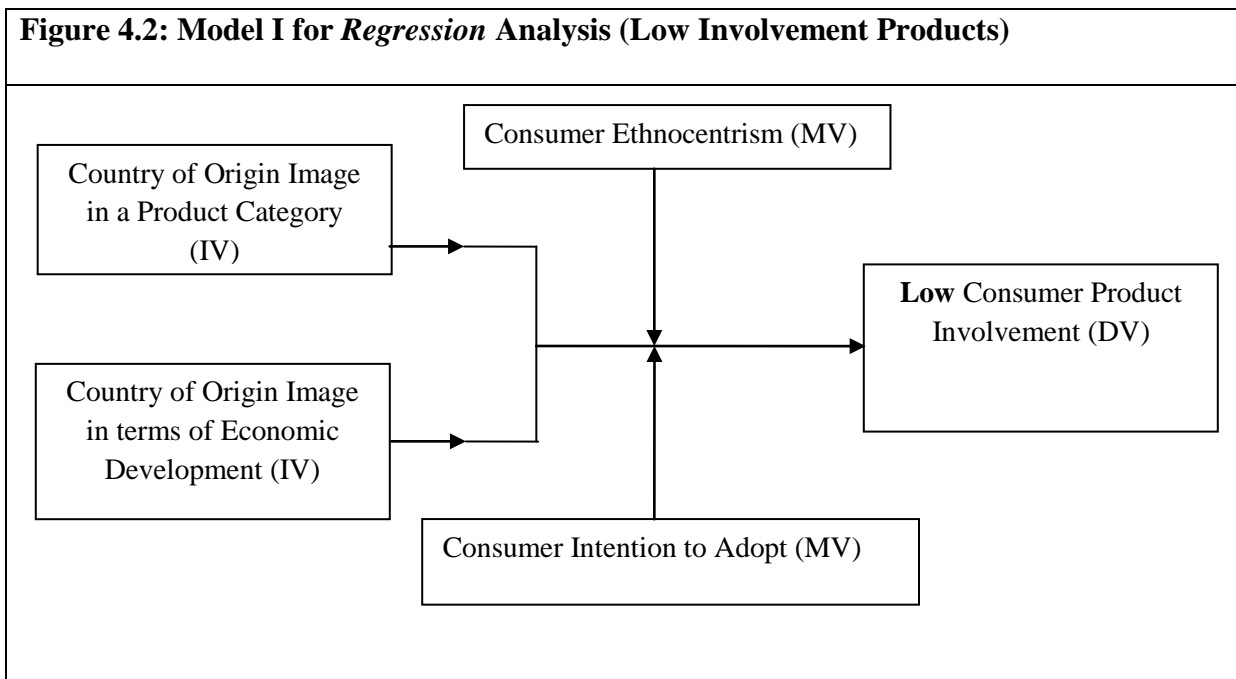
IV = Independent Variable

DV = Dependent Variable

MV = Moderating Variable

The model I for regression analysis is performed to assess contribution of COO-image in a product category, and COO-image in terms of economic development in explaining the variation in low consumer product involvement. Consumer ethnocentrism and consumer intention to adopt are included as moderating variables in this model.

Figure 4.3: Model II for *Regression* Analysis (High Involvement Products)

Consumer Ethnocentrism (MV)

Country of Origin Image in a Product Category (IV)

Country of Origin Image in terms of Economic Development (IV)

High Consumer Product Involvement (DV)

Consumer Intention to Adopt (MV)

IV = Independent Variable

DV = Dependent Variable

MV = Moderating Variable
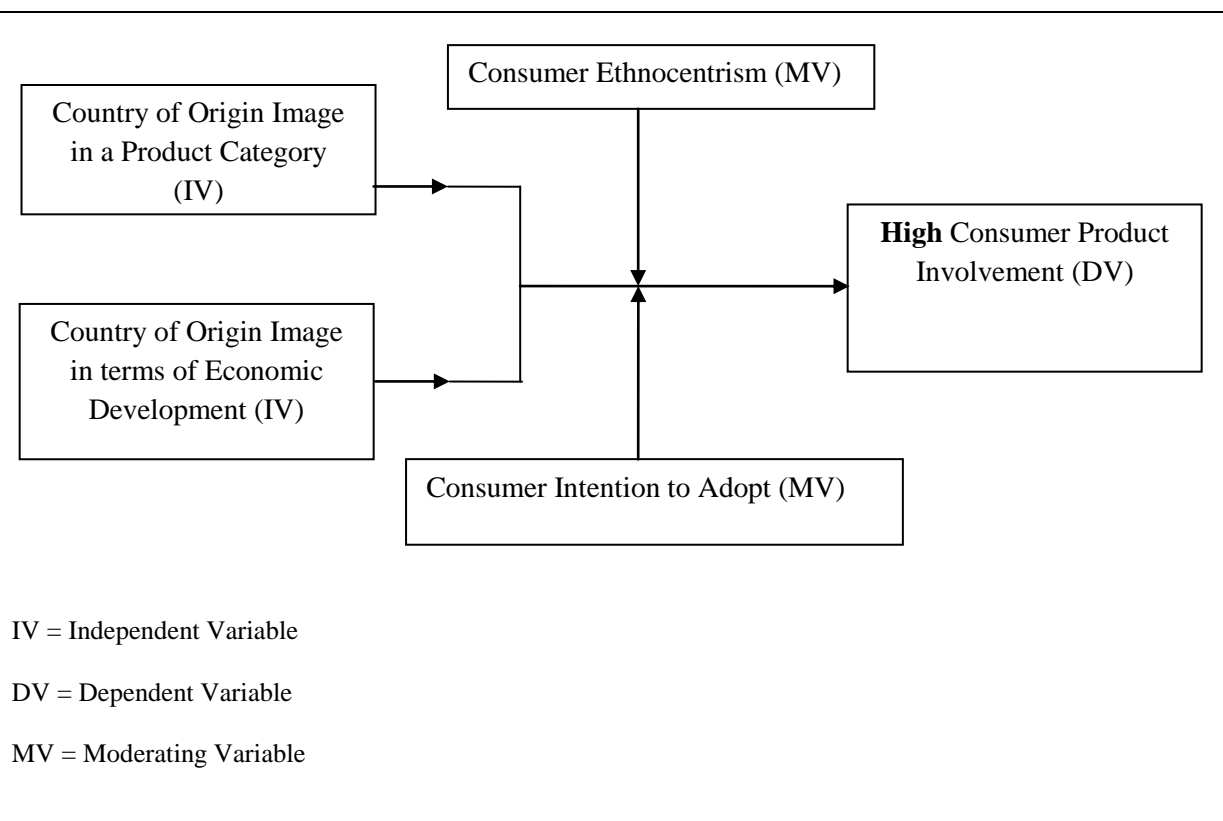
Model II (fig 4.3) of regression analysis is performed to assess the effect of independent variables – COO-image in a product category and COO-image in terms of economic development, on the dependent variable – high consumer product involvement. The two moderating variables are also included in the model – consumer ethnocentrism and consumer intention to adopt.

It is very important to note that when multiple regression is performed using the SPSS, it gives three outputs: Model Summary, ANOVA table and Regression table (Humbert, 2007):

Model Summary: The Model Summary gives the value of R^2. This is called the coefficient of determination, or the square of the multiple correlation coefficient. It is often multiplied by 100 and expressed as a percentage $(100R^2\%)$. R^2 is a standard measure of goodness of fit of the model. Adjusted R^2 is slightly smaller than R^2 but more accurate in measuring the goodness of fit of the model as it adjusts the standard errors of the model.

ANOVA table: The Analysis of Variance table shows the F- ratio and P-value. The F-ratio is used to test the null hypothesis that all regression parameters except the constant are zero. The alternative hypothesis is that at least one of the variables has a non-zero coefficient. The P–value shows that at a certain level of confidence, what is the significance of value and provides the evidence for or against the null hypothesis. Such as P=.000 <.001 means highly significant and provide very strong evidence against null hypothesis.

Regression Table: The Regression tables contain the regression coefficients (Unstandardised and Standardised), their standard errors and the associated t-tests. A regression carried out on raw or original (unstandardised) variables produces unstandardised coefficients. SPSS show 'B' value for unstandardised coefficients that show the increase or decrease in independent or predictor variables. Before solving a multiple regression, the SPSS standardises each variable by subtracting its mean from each of its values and then dividing these new values by the standard deviation of the variable. This standardising in a multiple regression yields standardised regression coefficients that show the change in the dependent variable measured in standard deviations. The standard error is an estimate of that standard deviation computed from the sample of data being analysed. Each t-value tests whether or not the coefficient is zero – if the coefficient is not zero, it means the predictor has contribution in explaining the dependent variable.

4.2.2.1.   Effect of Independent Variables – COOIPC and COOIED on Dependent Variable –LCPI

To address the objectives of the study and to see the cause and effect of the COO-image in a product category and the COO-image in terms of economic development, on low consumer product involvement, a regression test was performed (table 4.18).

The results of regression analysis show that the independent variables – COOIED and COOIPC account for 24.8% (Adjusted R^2=.248) variance in the dependent variable – LCPI. The ANOVA (analysis of variance) table provides strong evidence that the independent

variables – COOIPC and COOIED have a non-zero coefficient (F = 249.816, P < 0.01). This

reflects the supposition that the independent variables have a contribution in explaining the

dependent variable (see Appendix C – section I).

Table 4.18: Regression Table – Effect of COOIPC and COOIED on LCPI					
Coefficients[a]					
Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	.971	.102		9.494	.000
COOIPC	.265	.084	.209	3.165	.002
COOIED	.362	.081	.297	4.495	.000
a. Dependent Variable: LCPI					

Based on the table 4.18, the *regression equation* is as follows:

$$\textbf{LCPI} = \quad \boldsymbol{\alpha} \quad + \quad \boldsymbol{\beta_1}\textbf{(COOIPC)} \quad + \quad \boldsymbol{\beta_2}\textbf{(COOIED)}$$

$$\text{LCPI} \quad = \quad .971 \quad + \quad .265\,(\text{COOIPC}) \quad + \quad .362\,(\text{COOIED})$$

$$\text{(SE)} \quad\quad (.102) \quad\quad (.084) \quad\quad\quad\quad\quad (.081)$$

Table 4.18 and the figures in above mentioned regression equation, show that the LCPI is

expected to increase by 0.362 if the COOIED increases by 1, if the COOIPC is held constant.

Similarly, the LCPI is expected to increase by 0.265 if the COOIPC increases by 1, with the

COOIED held constant. The Regression table 4.18 also shows that the COOIED is a more

significant contributor to LCPI (b = 0.362, t = 4.495, P < 0.01), followed by the COOIPC (b =

.265, t = 3.165, P < 0.05).

In general terms, this means that both the COO- image in terms of economic development and

the COO- image in a certain product category have highly significant and positive effects on

the low consumer product involvement. With the increase in the COO-image in terms of

economic development and the COO-image in a certain product category, the low consumer product involvement is also increased. However, the effects of the COO-image in terms of economic development are more than the effects of the COO- image in a certain product category, in the case of low consumer product involvement.

H₂ₐ: There is a significant positive effect of the COOIPC on the LCPI

Table 4.18 shows strong evidence that there is a significant positive effect of the COOIPC on the LCPI and thus the hypothesis is accepted. This finding can be presented in the figure (4.4) as follows:

Figure 4.4: Effect of the COO-image in a Product Category on Low Consumer Product Involvement (based on table 4.18)

Country of Origin Image in a Product Category (IV)	(b = .265, t = 3.165, P < 0.05) →	*Low* Consumer Product Involvement (DV)
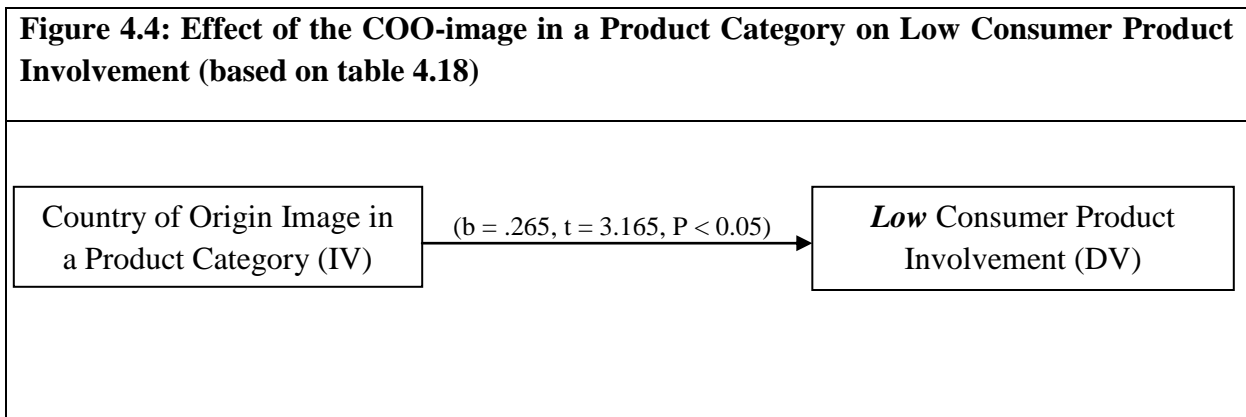
Results of the correlation test (table 4.17) showed that the COO-image in terms of economic development has a significant association with the low consumer product involvement. Since the association was proved between the two, in order to measure the nature of cause and effect of the COO-image in terms of economic development on the low consumer product involvement, regression test was performed (table 4.18).

H_{3a}: There is a significant positive effect of the COOIED on the LCPI

H₃ₐ: There is a significant positive effect of the COOIED on the LCPI

Table 4.18 shows strong evidence that there is a significant positive effect of the COOIED on the LCPI and thus the hypothesis is accepted. This notion is presented in figure (4.5) as following:

Figure 4.5: Effect of the COO-image in terms of Economic Development on Low Consumer Product Involvement (table 4.18)

| Country of Origin Image in terms of Economic Development (IV) | $(b = 0.362, t = 4.495, P < 0.01)$ → | *Low* Consumer Product Involvement (DV) |

4.2.2.2. Effect of Independent Variables – COOIPC and COOIED on Dependent Variable –HCPI

To further test the hypotheses and measure the cause and effect, the independent variables - the COO-image in a product category and the COO-image in terms of economic development and dependent variable – high consumer product involvement, are introduced to the regression equation.

Table 4.19 shows that the independent variables – COOIED and COOIPC account for 23.1% (Adjusted R^2=.231) variance in the dependent variable – HCPI. The ANOVA table provides

strong evidence that the independent variables – COOIPC and COOIED have a non-zero coefficient (F = 228.031, P < 0.01). This reflects the fact that the independent variables have a significant contribution in explaining the dependent variable (see Appendix C – section II).

Table 4.19: Regression Table – Effect of COOIPC and COOIED on HCPI					
Coefficients[a]					
Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	1.481	.121		12.238	.000
COOIPC	.393	.099	.265	3.967	.000
COOIED	.320	.095	.224	3.354	.001
a. Dependent Variable: HCPI					

Based on the table 4.19, the regression equation is as follows:

$$\textbf{HCPI} = \quad \boldsymbol{\alpha} \quad + \quad \boldsymbol{\beta_1}\textbf{(COOIPC)} \quad + \quad \boldsymbol{\beta_2}\textbf{(COOIED)}$$

HCPI =   1.481 +   . 393 (COOIPC)   +   .320 (COOIED)
 (SE)   (.121)   (.099)   (.095)

Table 4.19 and the figures of the regression equation, show that the HCPI is expected to increase by 0.393 if the COOIPC increases by 1 (if the COOIED is held constant). Similarly, the HCPI is expected to increase by 0.320 if the COOIED increases by 1, with the COOIPC held constant.

Table 4.19 also shows that the COOIPC is a more significant contributor to the HCPI (b = 0.393, t = 3.967, P < 0.01), than is the COOIED which is also significant in explaining the variation in the dependent variable HCPI (b = .320, t = 3.354, P < 0.01).

Generally, it can be stated that with the increase of the COO- image in a certain product category and the COO-image in terms of economic development, the high consumer product involvement is increased as well. Both the country-of-origin image in a certain product category, and the country-of-origin image in terms of economic development, have highly significant positive influences on high consumer product involvement. However, the COO-image in a certain product category has greater influence on the high consumer product involvement than that of the COO-image in terms of economic development.

H$_{2b}$: There is a significant positive effect of the COOIPC on the HCPI

Table 4.19 shows strong evidence that there is a significant positive effect of the COOIPC on the HCPI and thus, the hypothesis is accepted. This notion can be presented in the following figure (4.6):

Figure 4.6: Effect of the COO-image in a Product Category on High Consumer Product Involvement (based on table 4.19)

Country of Origin Image in a Product Category (IV) $(b = 0.393, t = 3.967, P < 0.01)$ → *High* Consumer Product Involvement (DV)

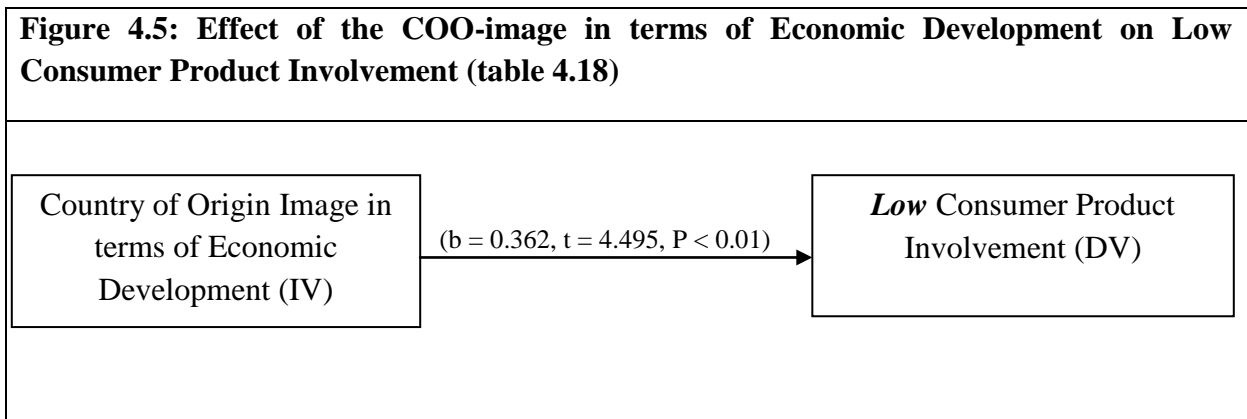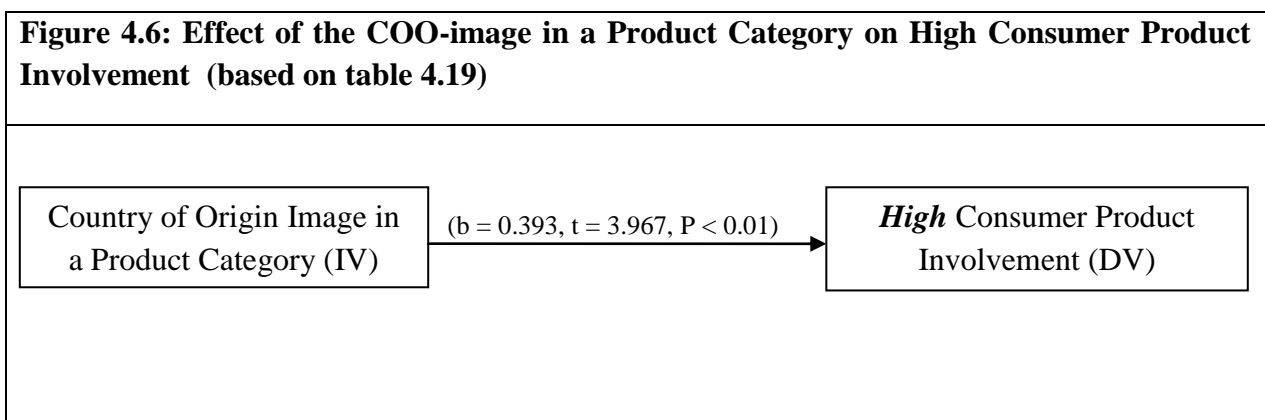*H$_{3b}$: There is a significant positive effect of the COOIED on the HCPI*

Table 4.19 shows strong evidence that there is a significant positive effect of the COOIED on the HCPI and thus, the hypothesis is accepted. This result can be presented in the following figure (4.7):

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">Figure 4.7: Effect of the COO-image in terms of Economic Development on High Consumer Product Involvement (table 4.19)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Country of Origin Image in terms of Economic Development (IV)</td><td>$(b = .320, t = 3.354, P < 0.01)$ →   High Consumer Product Involvement (DV)</td></tr>
</table>
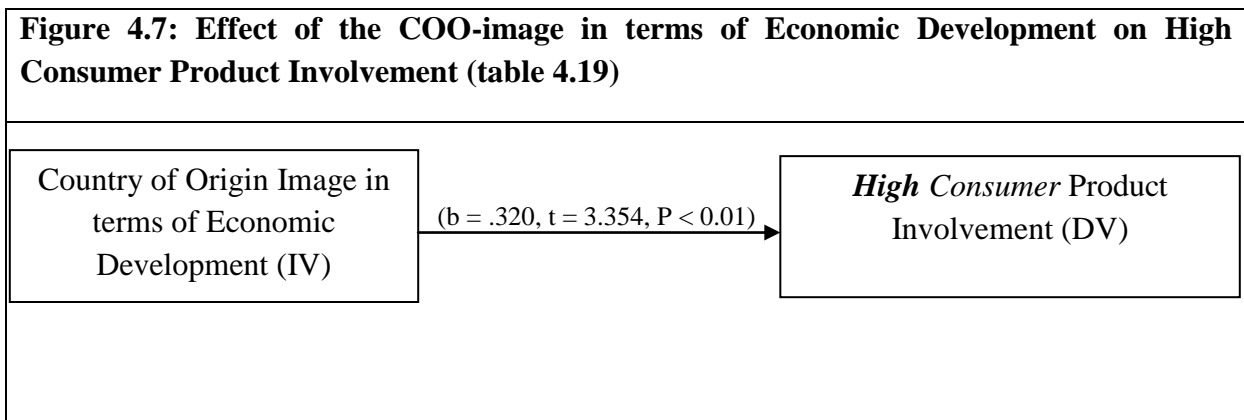
4.2.2.3. Moderating Variables - Consumer Ethnocentrism (CE) and Consumer Intention to Adopt (CIA)

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), for the variables to play a moderating role, they must satisfy the following three conditions:

1- The independent and dependent variable are significantly associated.

In the current study, the country of origin image in a product category (COOIPC) and the country of origin image in terms of economic development (COOIED) are the independent variables. The low consumer product involvement (LCPI) and the (HCPI) are the dependent

variables. Table 4.17 presenting Correlation analysis shows the significant association between these variables, thus satisfying the first condition.

2-The moderating variable is significantly associated to the independent and dependent variable.

Since the current study assesses the role of the consumer ethnocentrism (CE) and the consumer intention to adopt (CIA) as moderating variables, these variables have to be significantly associated to the COOIPC and the COOIED (independent variables), and the LCPI and the HCPI (dependent variables). Table 4.17 presenting Correlation analysis shows that the CE and the CIA are significantly associated with the independent and dependent variables, thus satisfying the second condition as well.

3- When the moderating variable is introduced in the equation, the association between the independent and dependent variables become partially or totally insignificant.

When the CE and the CIA are introduced into the equation, the association between the COOIPC and the COOIED (independent variables), and, the LCPI and the HCPI (dependent variables) should become partially or totally insignificant. To assess this third condition of moderation, the multiple regression is performed which produces the following results.

4.2.2.3.1. Moderating Effects of CE (in Model 1-Low Involvement Products)

To play a moderating role the CE meets the first two conditions prescribed by Baron and Kenny (1986). In order to meet the third condition of being a moderating variable, the CE is introduced in the model along with the independent variables – COOIED and COOIPC. For the CE to be a moderating variable, the association between the independent and dependent variables should become partially or totally insignificant.

For the purpose of clarity, the CE is introduced separately to the regression equation of the COOIPC and the LCPI and the COOIED and the LCPI:

Table 4.20: Regression Table – Moderating Effect of CE on the relationship of COOIPC and LCPI

Coefficients[a]					
Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	.489	.110		4.437	.000
COOIPC	.466	.031	.368	14.951	.000
CE	.316	.030	.258	10.492	.000
a. Dependent Variable: LCPI					

The value of adjusted R^2 is 29.0%.

H: There is a moderating effect of the CE on the relationship of the COOIPC and the LCPI.

Table 4.20 shows that the effects of the COOIPC (independent variable) on the LCPI (dependent variable) remained highly significant ($P = .000 < .001$) even after introducing the

CE, which means that it is not fulfilling the final condition for moderation and thus the hypothesis is rejected. This notion is explained in the following figure (4.8):

Figure 4.8: Moderating effect of CE on the relationship of COOIPC and LCPI (table 4.20)
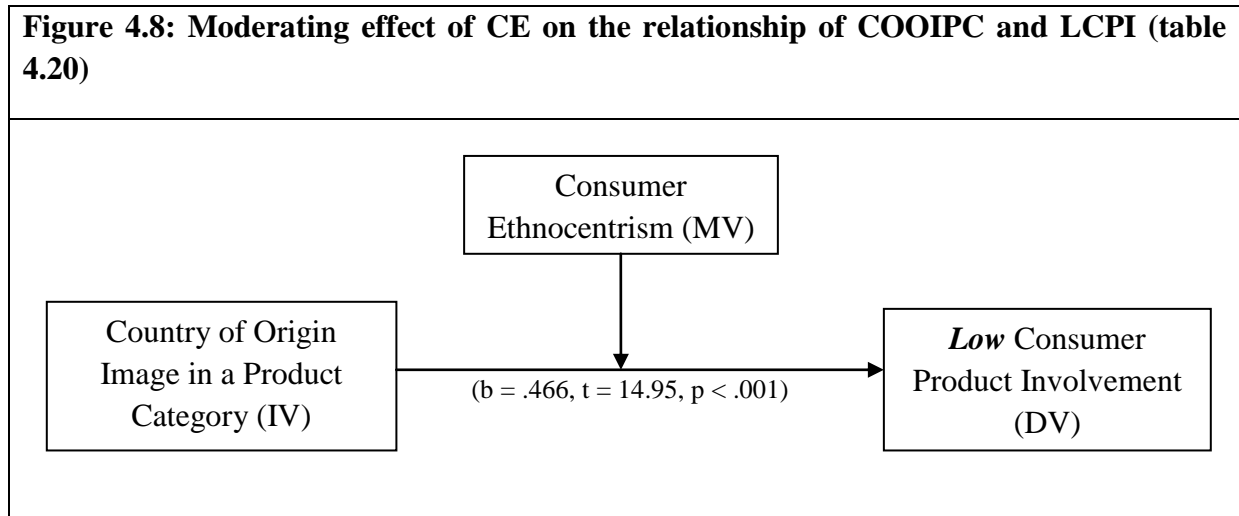
In order to measure role of the consumer ethnocentrism as a moderating variable, when it is introduced to the model, the highly significant and positive effects of the COO-image in a product category on the low consumer product involvement, should become partially or totally insignificant. The high significance (P = .000 < .001) of COOIPC in table 4.20 provides evidence that even with the introduction of the consumer ethnocentrism, the COO-image in a product category still have highly significant and positive effects on the low consumer product involvement. This means that the consumer ethnocentrism does ***not*** play a role of the moderating variable in this case.

Now CE is introduced to the regression equation of COO-image in terms of economic development and low consumer product involvement to assess its role as a moderating variable. Table 4.21 presents the outcome:

Table 4.21: Regression Table – Moderating Effect of CE on the relationship of COOIED and LCPI

Coefficients[a]					
Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	.543	.107		5.077	.000
CE	.314	.030	.256	10.481	.000
COOIED	.456	.030	.375	15.328	.000
a. Dependent Variable: LCPI					

The value of adjusted R^2 is 29.5%.

H: There is a moderating effect of the CE on the relationship of the COOIED and the LCPI.

Table 4.21 shows that the effects of the COOIED (independent variable) on the LCPI (dependent variable) remained highly significant (P = .000 < .001) even after introducing the CE. This means that the CE is not fulfilling the final condition for moderation and thus the hypothesis is rejected. This finding can be explained by the figure (4.9) below:

Figure 4.9: Moderating effect of CE on the relationship of COOIED and LCPI (table 4.21)

```
                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │      Consumer       │
                    │   Ethnocentrism     │
                    │       (MV)          │
                    └─────────────────────┘
                              │
                              │
                              ▼
┌─────────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────────┐
│ Country of Origin Image │        │ *Low* Consumer Product  │
│   in terms of Economic  │───────►│   Involvement (DV)      │
│    Development (IV)      │        │                         │
└─────────────────────────┘        └─────────────────────────┘
          (b = .456, t = 15.328, p < .001)
```
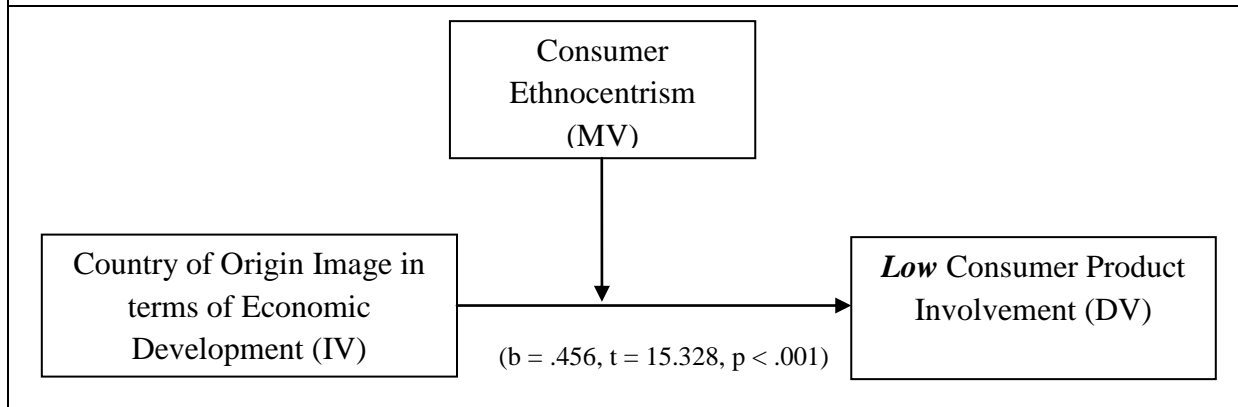
The results show that the CE has no moderating effects on the equation. The high level of significance (P = .000 < .001) of COOIED in table 4.21, provides evidence that the consumer ethnocentrism does not reduce or exclude the significance of the COO-image in terms of economic development. It still has a highly significant and positive effect on the low consumer product involvement. Thus, the hypothesis that claims that there is a moderating effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the relationship of the COO-image in terms of economic development on the low consumer product involvement is rejected. It can be concluded that consumer ethnocentrism does not have a significant influence on Pakistani consumers' low product involvement, as compared to the influence of the COO-image of a product in terms of manufacturing country's economic development. It was already found that Pakistani consumers perceive that the low involvement products that are made in developed countries are superior and of higher quality (table 4.3 and table 4.8).

4.2.2.3.2. Moderating Effects of CE (in Model II – High Involvement Products)

To play a moderating role, the CE meets the first two conditions prescribed by Baron and Kenny (1986). In order to meet the final condition of being a moderating variable, the CE is introduced in the model along with the independent variables – COOIED and COOIPC. For the CE to be a moderating variable, the association between the independent and dependent variables should become partially or totally insignificant.

For the purpose of clarity the CE is introduced separately to regression equations of the COOIPC and the LCPI, and, the COOIED and the HCPI:

Table 4.22: Regression Table – Moderating Effect of CE on the relationship of COOIPC and HCPI

Coefficients[a]					
Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	1.404	.134		10.440	.000
COOIPC	.678	.038	.457	17.818	.000
CE	.058	.037	.040	1.578	.115
a. Dependent Variable: HCPI					

The value of adjusted R^2 is 22.7%.

H: There is a moderating effect of the CE on the relationship of the COOIPC and the HCPI.

Table 4.22 shows that the effects of COOIPC on HCPI remained highly significant (P = .000 < .001) even after introducing the CE, which means that it is not fulfilling the final condition for moderation, and thus the hypothesis is rejected. This finding is presented in the following figure (4.10):

Figure 4.10: Moderating effect of CE on the relationship of COOIPC and HCPI (table 4.22)
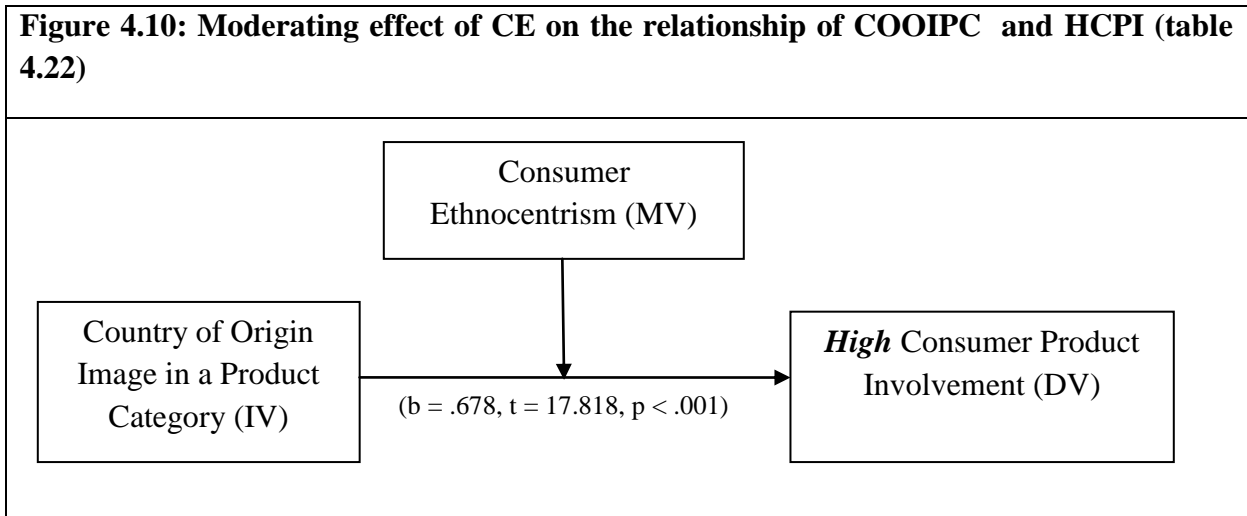
The findings based on Table 4.24 point out that when the CE is introduced to the regression model, the effect of the COOIPC on the HCPI remained significant (P = .000 < .001). This illustrates that consumer ethnocentrism does not serve as a moderating variable. Therefore, the hypothesis that, CE has a moderating effect on the relationship of the COO-image in a product category and high consumer product involvement is rejected.

Interestingly, when the results presented in the regression table are thoroughly examined, it can be seen that the independent variable (the COO-image in a product category) is rather acting as a moderating variable for the regression equation of consumer ethnocentrism and high consumer product involvement. It not only fulfils the first two conditions of the

moderation by Baron and Kenny (1986), but when COO-image in a product category is introduced to the regression equation, the CE becomes insignificant (P = .115). This result can be shown in fig 4.11, as follows:

Figure 4.11: The current research finding: COOIPC serves as a moderating variable in the *regression* equation of CE and HCPI.
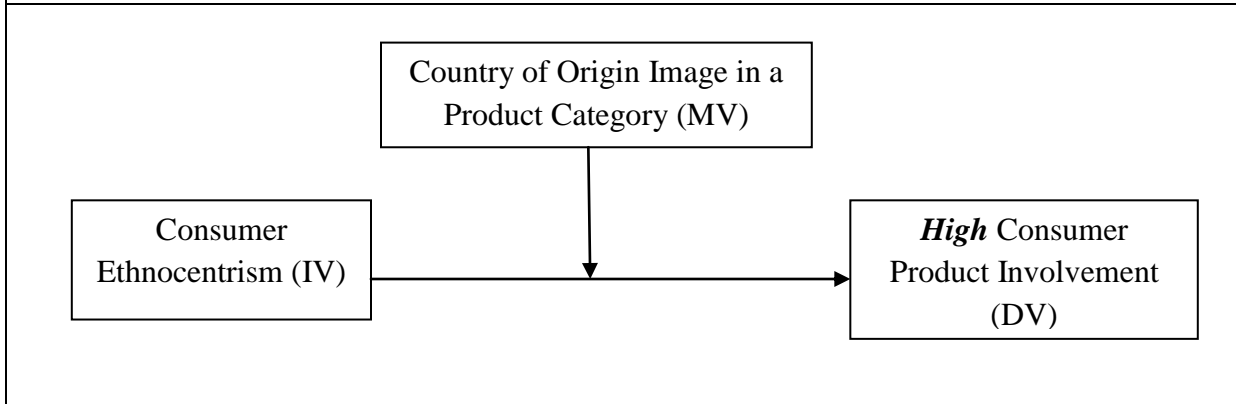
In order to measure the effects of the consumer ethnocentrism as a moderating variable on the relationship of the COO in terms of economic development and high consumer product involvement, multiple regression analysis was performed with reference to the three variables (table 4.23).

Table 4.23: Regression Table – Moderating Effect of CE on the relationship of COOIED and HCPI

Coefficients[a]					
Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	1.519	.131		11.579	.000
CE	.063	.037	.044	1.727	.084
COOIED	.646	.037	.453	17.683	.000
a. Dependent Variable: HCPI					

The value of adjusted R^2 is 22.5%.

H: There is a moderating effect of the CE on the relationship of the COOIED and the HCPI.

Table 4.23 shows that the effects of the COOIED on the HCPI remained significant even upon the introduction of CE. To be the moderating variable in the study, the consumer ethnocentrism should reduce or exclude the significance of the effect of the country of origin image in terms of economic development on the high consumer product involvement. Table 4.23 shows the high significance (P = .000 < .001) of COOIED which means consumer ethnocentrism is not playing a role of the moderating variable. The result of this regression is presented in the following fig 4.12:

Figure 4.12: Moderating effect of CE on the relationship of COOIED and HCPI (table 4.23)
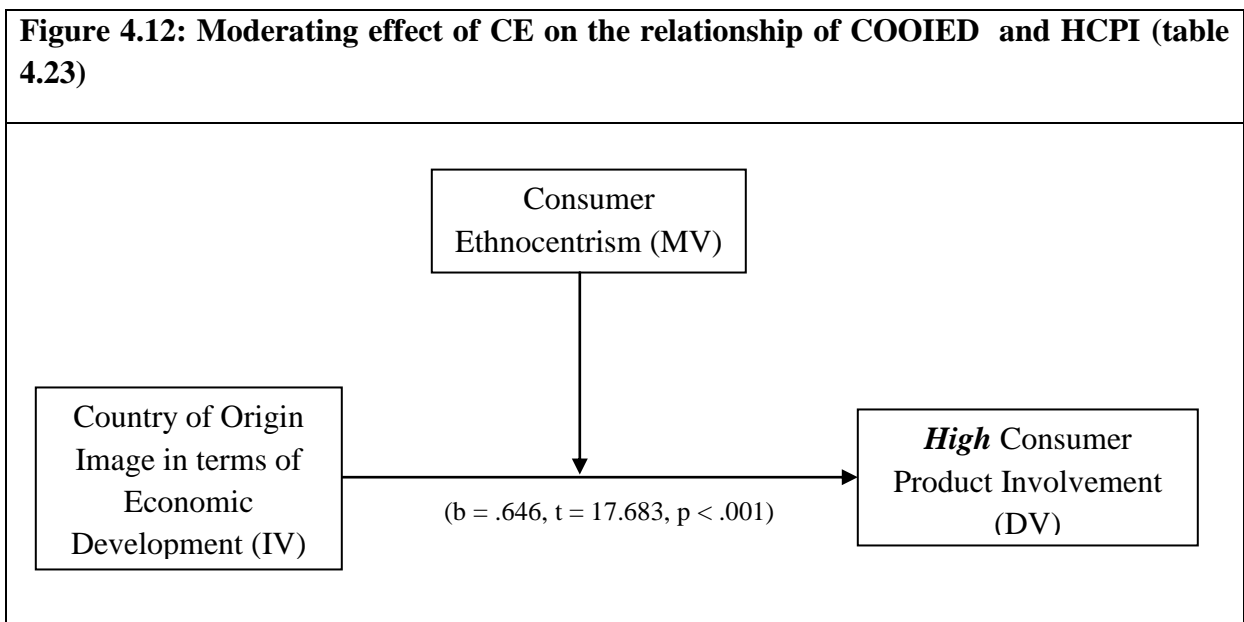
The result presented in fig 4.12 (based on table 4.23), show that consumer ethnocentrism did not have moderating effects on the relationship of the COO-image in terms of economic development and the high consumer product involvement, as their values remained

215

significant, even after introduction of the CE. Therefore, the hypothesis that 'there is a moderating effect of the consumer ethnocentrism on the relationship of the COO-image in terms of economic development and the high consumer product involvement' was rejected. However, similar to the COO-image in a product category, the COO-image in terms of economic development also served as a moderating variable for the regression equation of consumer ethnocentrism and high consumer product involvement. It was found that when the COOIED is introduced to the regression equation of CE and HCPI as dependent variable, the value of CE became insignificant ($P = .084$) which means COOIED was rather fulfilling the conditions of moderation by Baron and Kenny (1986). This effect can be presented as follows in fig 4.13:

Figure 4.13: The current research finding: COOIED serves as a moderating variable in the *regression* equation of CE and HCPI.

Country of Origin Image in terms of Economic Development (MV)

Consumer Ethnocentrism (IV)	*High* Consumer Product Involvement (DV)
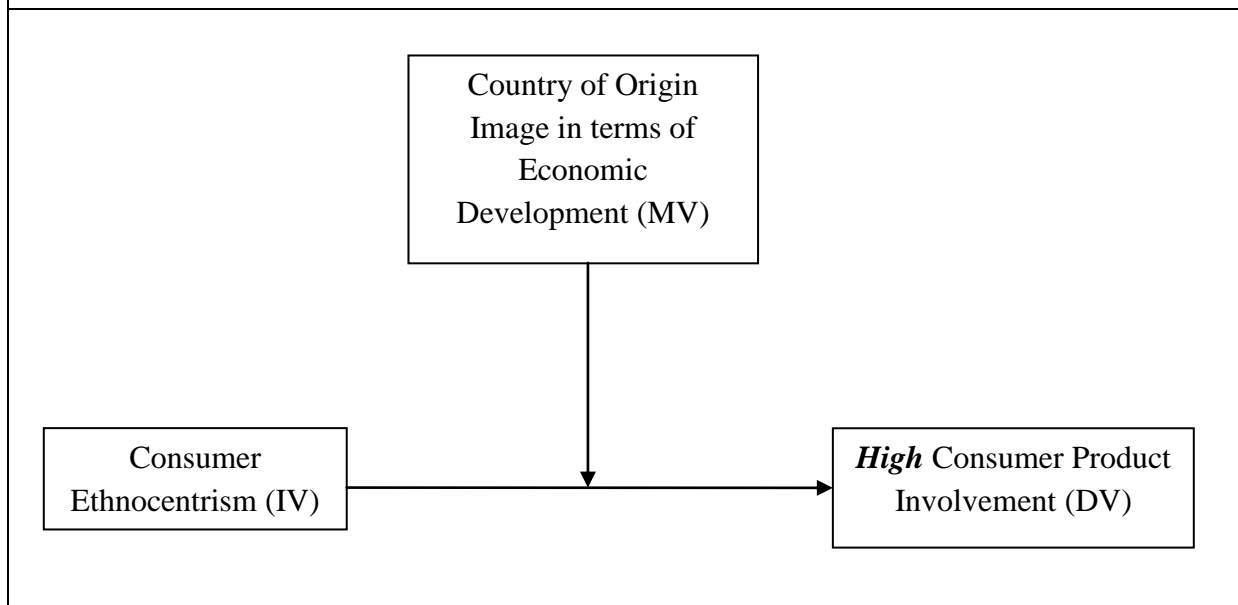
H₄: The CE moderates the effect of the COOIPC and COOIED on LCPI and HCPI.

The results of table 4.20, table 4.21, table 4.22, and table 4.23 show that the CE does not have significant moderating effects in both the study models, thus H_4 is rejected. The rejection of H_4 suggested that the consumer ethnocentrism does not play the role of the moderating variable in these two regression models of the study. This finding will be discussed in detail in forthcoming chapter.

However, based on the findings of the current research (table 4.22, p. 203 and table 4.23, p.205), another interesting model has emerged which is illustrated below in figure (4.14) below:

Figure 4.14: Emerged Model from the Current Research Findings (based on table 4.22 and table 4.23)
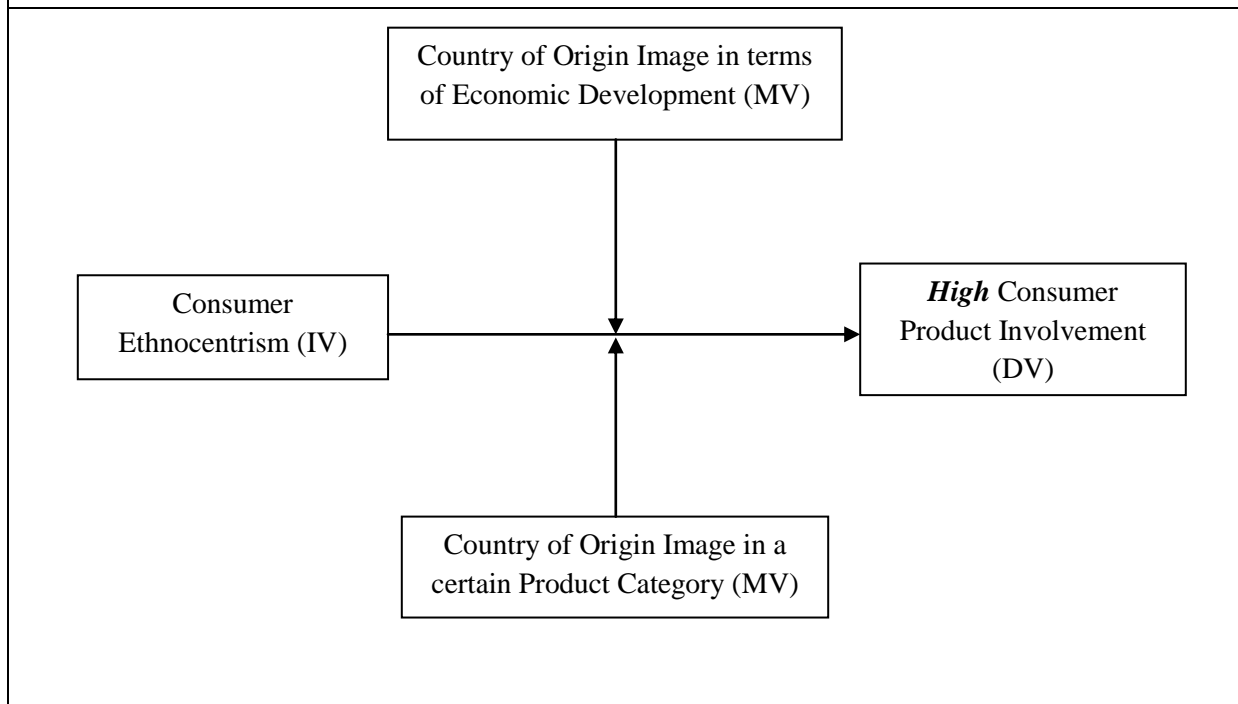
Based on the results of current research it can be inferred that consumer ethnocentrism works as an independent variable and has significant effects on high consumer product involvement. Both the COO-image in a certain product category and the COO-image in terms of its economic development level behave as moderating variables (as the two variables reduced the significance of the CE when introduced to the multiple regression equation presented in table 4.22 and table 4.23, p.203-205). Thus it can be concluded that Pakistani consumers base their perception of high involvement products on the information related to the COO-image in product category and the COO-image in terms of economic development, rather than their ethnocentrism.

4.2.2.3.3. Moderating Effects of CIA (in Model 1-Low Involvement Products)

To play a moderating role the CIA must meet the three conditions prescribed by Baron and Kenny (1986). The results presented in table 4.17 found that CIA meets the first two conditions of moderating variable. In order to meet the third condition of being a moderating variable, the CIA is introduced in the model along with the independent variables – COOIED and COOIPC. For the CIA to be a moderating variable, the association between the independent and dependent variables should become partially or totally insignificant.

For the purpose of clarity the CIA is introduced separately to regression equation of COOIPC and LCPI, and, COOIED and LCPI:

Table 4.24: Regression Table – Moderating Effect of CIA on the relationship of COOIPC and LCPI

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
Coefficients[a]					
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	.392	.112		3.493	.000
COOIPC	.475	.030	.374	15.686	.000
CIA	.336	.030	.269	11.277	.000
a. Dependent Variable: LCPI					

The value of adjusted R^2 is 29.7%.

H: There is a moderating effect of the CIA on the relationship of the COOIPC and the LCPI.

The results (table 4.24, p.) show that the consumer intention to adopt did not moderate the relationship of the COO-image in a product category and the low consumer product involvement. Although it was already concluded that the COO-image in a product category has a positive effect on the low consumer product involvement, when the consumer intention to adopt was introduced to the regression equation, the values of all the variables remained significant. It means that the third condition of moderation by Baron and Kenny (1986) is not fulfilled with reference to the consumer intention to adopt. Thus the hypothesis stating that 'there is a moderating effect of the consumer intention to adopt on the relationship of the COO in a product category and the low consumer product involvement' is rejected. This finding is presented in the fig (4.15) below:

Figure 4.15: Moderating effect of the CIA on the relationship of the COOIPC and the LCPI (table 4.24)
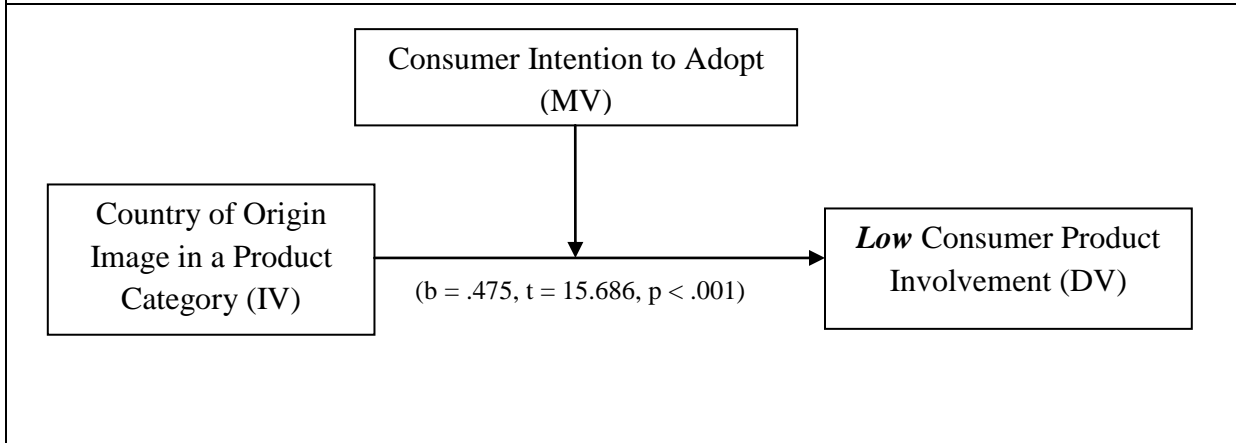
In order to measure the moderating effects of CIA, it is introduced to the regression equation of the COO-image in terms of economic development and low consumer product involvement. The results are presented in the following table (4.25):

Table 4.25: Regression Table – Moderating Effect of CIA on the relationship of COOIED and LCPI

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	.395	.110		3.603	.000
CIA	.346	.029	.276	11.851	.000
COOIED	.469	.028	.385	16.497	.000
a. Dependent Variable: LCPI					

Coefficients[a]

The value of adjusted R^2 is 30.8%.

H: There is a moderating effect of the CIA on the relationship of the COOIED and the LCPI.

When the consumer intention to adopt was introduced to the regression equation of the COO in terms of economic development and the low consumer product involvement, all the values remained significant, which means that it does not fulfil the third condition of moderation by Baron and Kenny (1986) and can not be treated as a moderating variable. It can be inferred that for Pakistani consumers, the COO-image in terms of the country's economic development has such a strong impact on their perception of low involvement products that it did not become partially or totally insignificant even based on their intentions to early or late adoption. So the hypothesis that 'there is a moderating effect of the consumer intention to adopt on the relationship of the COO in terms of economic development and the low consumer product involvement', is rejected. This finding is presented in the following fig (4.16):

Figure 4.16: Moderating effect of the CIA on the relationship of the COOIED and the LCPI (table 4.25)
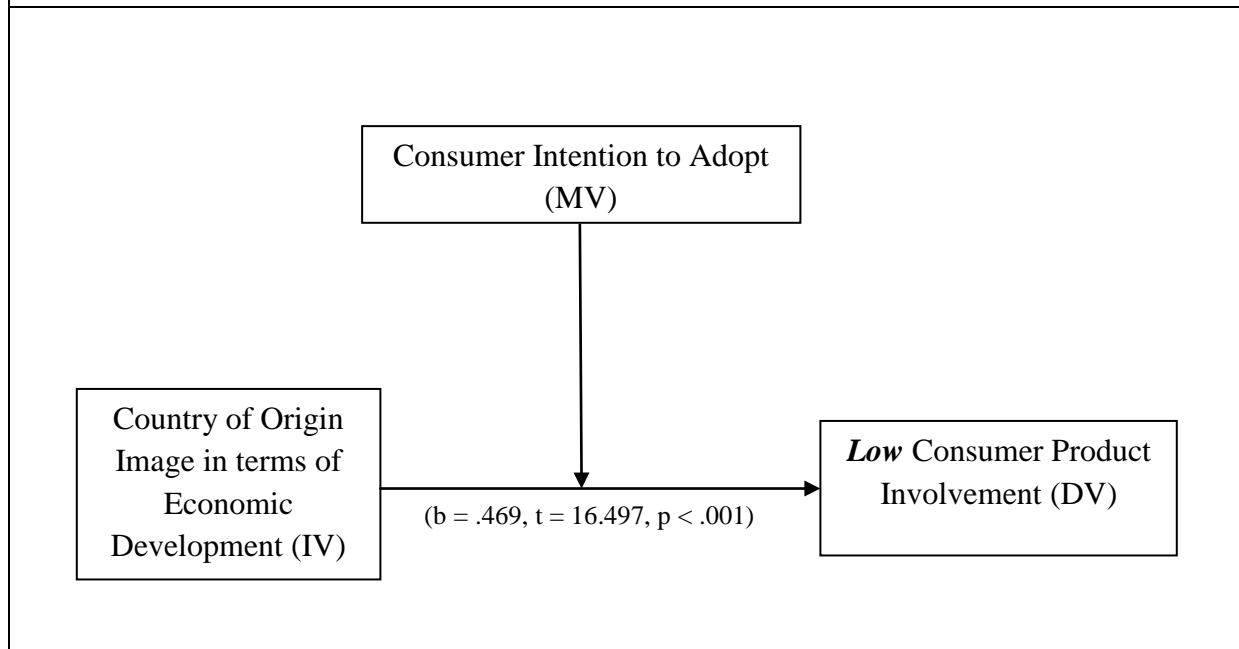
The results (presented by table 4.14.) show that Pakistani consumers like to try new and different brands but they also want to conform with their friends and family. At the same time, they show an agreement to this statement that they always look for product's country of origin in order to buy the products that are acceptable to their friends and family (table 4.12). These results provided the evidence of one of the possible reasons, that why the consumer intention to adopt in terms of their innovativeness did not have so significant moderating effects, in case of Pakistani consumers.

4.2.2.3.4. Moderating Effects of CIA (in Model II – High Involvement Products)

To play a moderating role the CIA meets the first two conditions prescribed by Baron and Kenny (1986). In order to meet the condition of being a moderating variable, the CIA is introduced in the model along with the independent variables – COOIED and COOIPC and dependent variable - HCPI. For the CIA to be a moderating variable, the association between the independent and dependent variables should become partially or totally insignificant, when it is introduced in the regression model.

For the purpose of clarity the CIA is introduced separately to the regression equation of the COOIPC and the LCPI, and, the COOIED and the HCPI:

Table 4.26: Regression Table – Moderating Effect of CIA on the relationship of COOIPC and HCPI

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	.601	.129		4.667	.000
COOIPC	.488	.035	.329	14.051	.000
CIA	.505	.034	.345	14.749	.000
a. Dependent Variable: HCPI					

The value of adjusted R^2 is 32.3%.

H: There is a moderating effect of the CIA on the relationship of the COOIPC and the HCPI.

In order to have the moderating effects, the consumer intention to adopt should reduce or exclude the significance of the effect of the country of origin image in a product category, on the high consumer product involvement. Table 4.26 shows that the effects of the COOIPC on the HCPI remained significant (P = .000 < .001) even after introducing the CIA, and provides strong evidence that even in the presence of the consumer intention to adopt, the country of origin image in a product category still has a significant and positive effect on the high consumer product involvement. It means that the consumer intention to adopt does not play the role of the moderating variable as it is not fulfilling the final condition for moderation, and thus the hypothesis is rejected. This finding is presented in the following fig (4.17):

Figure 4.17: Moderating effect of CIA on the relationship of COOIPC and HCPI (table 4.26)
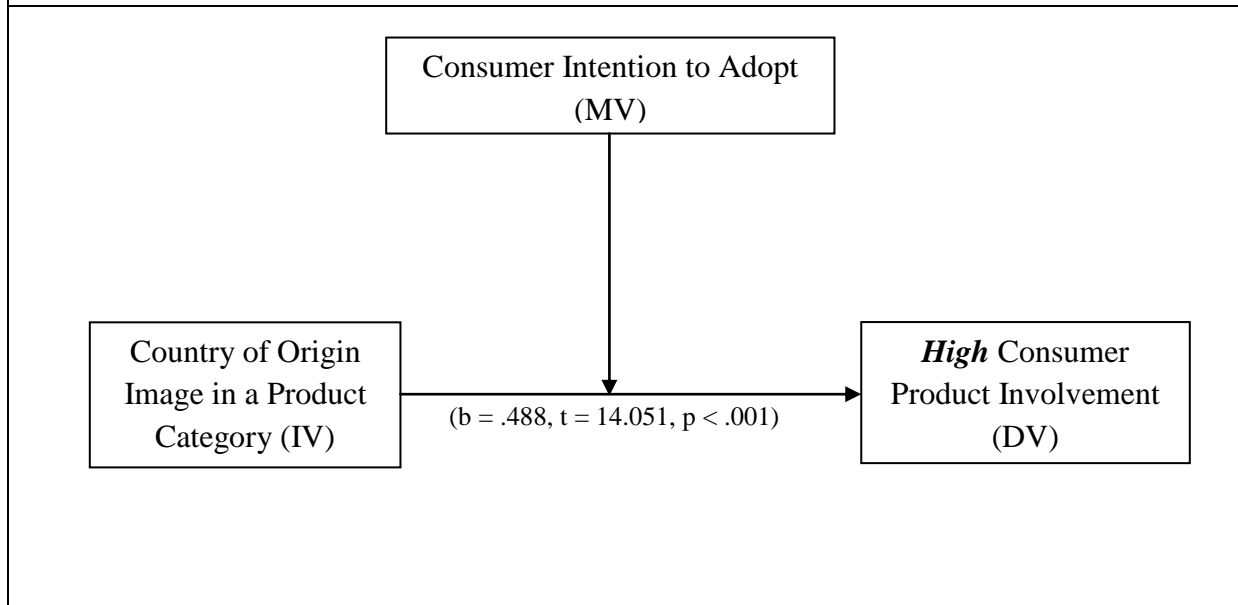
Finally, to measure the moderating effects of the consumer intention to adopt on the relationship of the COO-image in terms of economic development and the high consumer product involvement; two statistical tests were performed. Firstly, the correlation test was performed; the result (table 4.17) found that there was a significant association among the consumer intention to adopt, the COO-image in terms of economic development and the high consumer product involvement. These findings provide evidence that the consumer intention to adopt was fulfilling the two conditions of moderation by Baron and Kenny (1986). However, in order to assess the fulfilment of third condition, regression test was performed as follows (table 4.27):

Table 4.27: Regression Table – Moderating Effect of CIA on the relationship of COOIED and HCPI

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	.617	.126		4.891	.000
CIA	.517	.034	.353	15.393	.000
COOIED	.476	.033	.334	14.544	.000
a. Dependent Variable: HCPI					

The value of adjusted R^2 is 32.9%.

H: There is a moderating effect of the CIA on the relationship of the COOIED and the HCPI.

Table 4.27 shows that the effects of the COOIED on the HCPI remained significant (P = .000 < .001) even after introducing the CIA, which means that it does not fulfill the final condition for moderation, and thus the hypothesis is rejected. The result of this regression analysis is presented in the following fig 4.18:

Figure 4.18: Moderating effect of the CIA on the relationship of the COOIED and the HCPI (table 4.27)
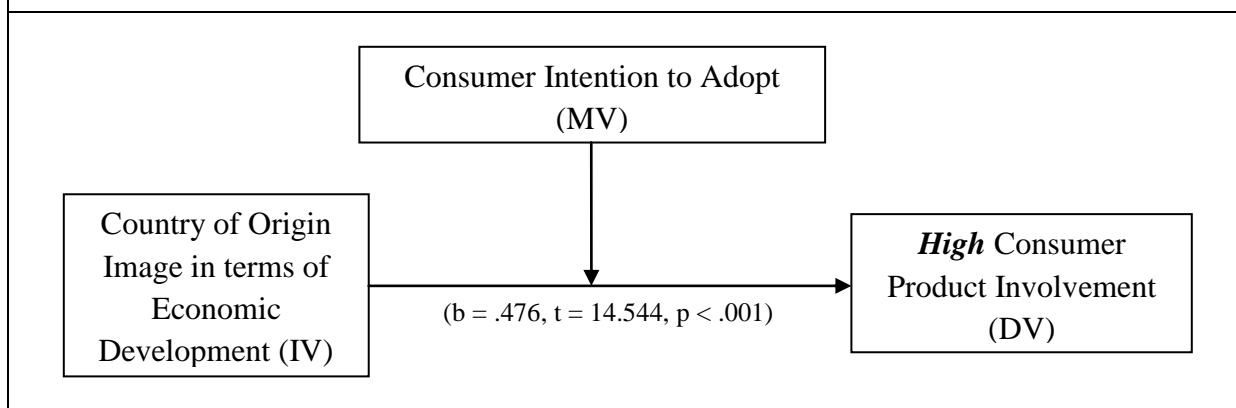
This finding presented in the fig 4.18 can be further concluded that young, educated and affluent Pakistani consumers are not innovative, but they rather take their time to decide (mostly based on the influence of their friends and family) and pay considerable attention to information related to the COO-image in terms of its economic development level while purchasing high involvement products, such as automobiles. Furthermore, these Pakistani consumers regard economically developed countries as the best manufacturing country of automobiles and show their intention to adopt based on the attributes of quality, technology, value for money, and status and esteem.

H_5: The CIA moderates the effect of the COOIPC and COOIED on LCPI and HCPI.

The results of table 4.24, table 4.25, table 4.26 and table 4.27, show that consumer intention to adopt does not have play a role of moderating variables with reference to the effects of the COO image in a product category, and the COO image in terms of economic development on the low and high consumer product involvement and thus H_5 is rejected. The rejection of H_5 suggests that besides the strong implications, consumers' intention to adopt did not play a moderating role for the equation of the COOIED and the COOIPC as independent variables and the LCPI and the HCPI as dependent variables.

4.2.3. Backward Regression Analysis

To analyse the two models, backward regression analysis was used. The backward regression initially includes all the potential predictor variables and then eliminates all variables with

insignificant values one by one as they emerge and finally gives a model with all the significant values (Humbert, 2007).

4.2.3.1. Model I: Backward Regression Analysis

Figure 4.19: Model I of Current Research
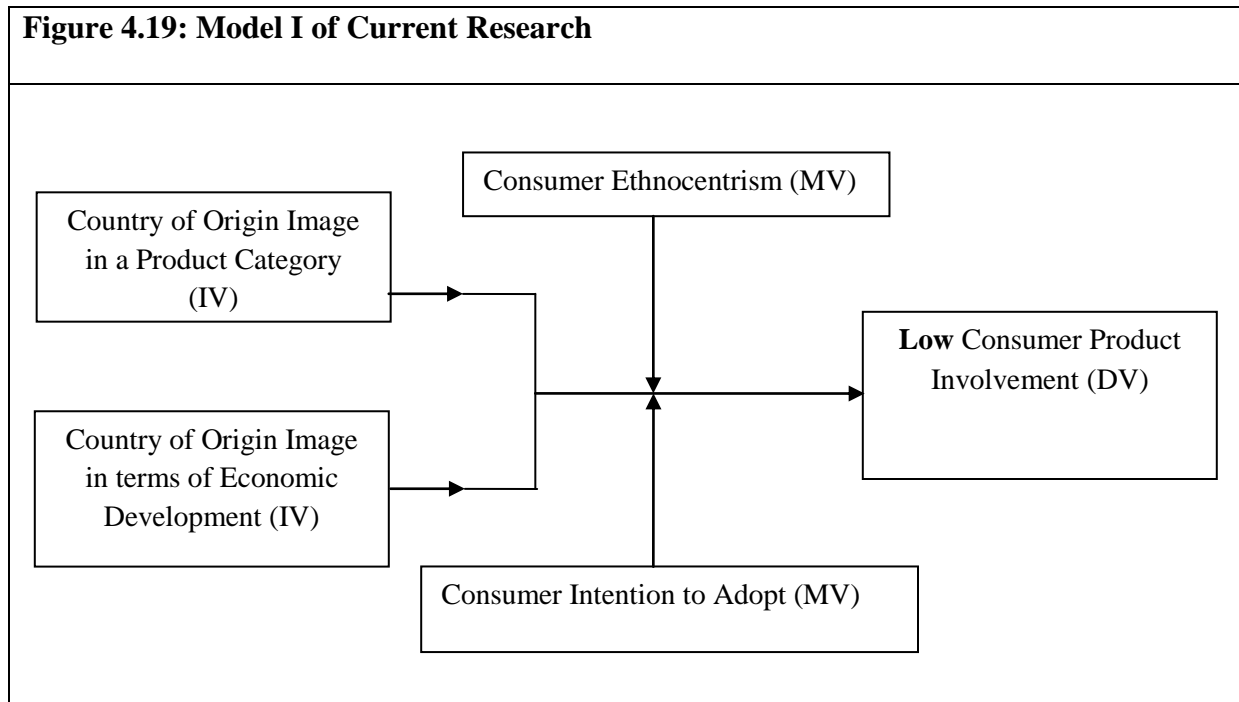
For model 1, backward regression (table 4.28) shows that the value of the COOIPC is insignificant and that is why it is excluded in the second model whereas all the other variables with significant values are included. The result of regression analysis shows that the adjusted R^2 value is 32.8% which shows a goodness of fit of the model. The ANOVA table shows strong evidence that the variables COOIED, CE and CIA have a non-zero coefficient (F = 246.007, P < 0.01). This reflects the fact that these variables have a significant contribution in explaining the dependent variable – LCPI (see Appendix C – section III).

Table 4.28: Regression Table for Model 1

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	.171	.114		1.509	.132
	COOIPC	.078	.081	.061	.967	.334
	COOIED	.332	.076	.272	4.339	.000
	CE	.212	.032	.173	6.719	.000
	CIA	.264	.031	.211	8.436	.000
2	(Constant)	.189	.112		1.686	.092
	COOIED	.400	.030	.328	13.422	.000
	CE	.213	.031	.174	6.770	.000
	CIA	.268	.031	.215	8.671	.000
a. Dependent Variable: LCPI						

The regression equation for model I, is as follows:

$$LCPI = \alpha + \beta_1(COOIPC) + \beta_2(COOIED) + \beta_3(CE) + \beta_4(CIA)$$

Based on the results presented by table 4.28, the COOIPC has no significant value which means that the new *regression* equation for the current model will be:

$$LCPI = \alpha + \beta_1(COOIED) + \beta_2(CE) + \beta_3(CIA)$$
$$LCPI = .189 + .400\,(COOIED) + .213\,(CE) + .268$$
$$(SE) \quad (.112) \quad (.030) \quad (.031) \quad (.031)$$

The numbers in the equation show that the LCPI is increased by 0.400 if the COOIED is increased by 1, keeping the CE and the CIA constant. The same way, the LCPI is increased by 0.213 if the CE is increased by 1, keeping the COOIED and the CIA constant and finally the LCPI is increased by 0.268 if the CIA is increased by 1, keeping the other two constant. It means that an increase in the image of a product's country of origin in terms of its economic

development, will improve the low consumer product involvement. An increase in consumer ethnocentrism also positively increases high consumer product involvement. If the consumer intention to adopt is increased, it will also result in an amplification of the low consumer product involvement.

The regression analysis shows that when it is applied to model I, the country of origin image in a product category is found to have no significance (P = .334) which means it does not have a significant effect on the low consumer product involvement in this model. However, the regression table in Appendix C (section IV) shows that the country of origin image in a product category has a highly significant value (P = .000) in the model, in the absence of the country of origin image in terms of economic development. When the country of origin image in terms of economic development is introduced into the model, the country of origin image in a product category loses its significance (P = .334). So, it can be inferred that the country of origin image in terms of economic development plays the role of a moderating variable (as it fulfills the conditions of moderating variable by Baron and Kenny (1986)) for the relationship of the country of origin image in a product category (independent variable) and the low consumer product involvement (dependent variable).

In the fig 4.19 based on model-I, the COO in a product category and the COO-image in terms of economic development were taken as independent variables and their effect was measured on the dependent variable that is low consumer product involvement, keeping in view the effects of moderating variables: consumer ethnocentrism and consumer intention to adopt.

Since the results reject the original hypotheses of moderation, a new model was emerged based on the results of multiple regression with reference to model I (table 4.28). The model illustrated below shows the variables – COO-image in a product category, the consumer intention to adopt, and the consumer ethnocentrism, are performing the role of predictors or independent variables. The low consumer product involvement is a dependent or response variable. Interestingly, the COO-image in terms of economic development is acting as a moderator between the predictor (the COO-image in a certain product category) and the response variable. The model is presented in the following fig (4.20):

Figure 4.20: Derived Model I of Current Research
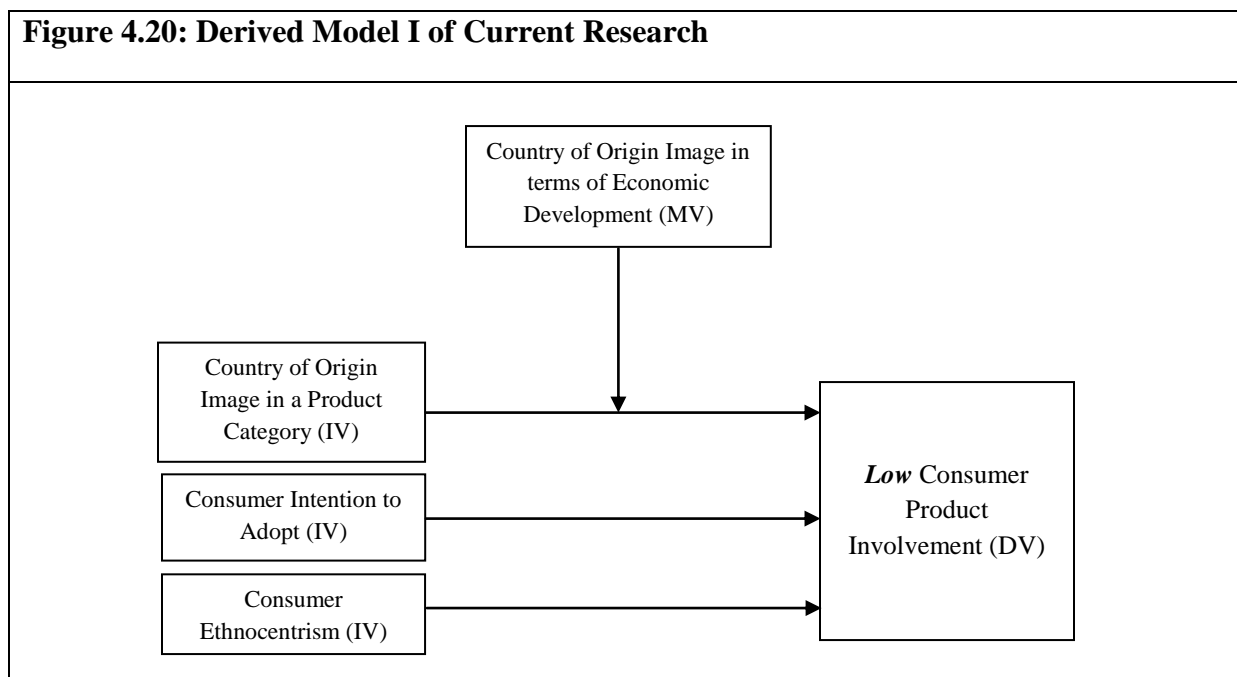
This means that a country which has a good reputation/image in a certain product category, has a positive influence on consumer perception at the time of purchasing low involvement products. However, when the consumers relate the country of origin image to the level of economic development, the country's reputation in a certain product category loses its impact, as the consumers give greater importance to the information related to the level of economic

230

development of the manufacturing country. For example, if an economically developing country has a good reputation for manufacturing products in a low involvement product category (e.g. Bangladesh is famous for its Jute products), its reputation in this category will have no impact on consumer perception of other low involvement products from this country, and the consumer would rather pay more attention to this country being developing and relate that with the quality of its product. So, it could be inferred that consumers believe that the products manufactured in economically developed countries are of higher quality than those manufactured in developing countries. This result is consistent with studies by Chao, (2001), Anderson and Chao, (2003), and Cervino *et al.* (2005). The previously mentioned descriptive statistics also support this finding by relating consumers' responses to it such as:

- The most important attribute in the product category of the cold drinks is quality.
- The best countries for the manufacture the cold drinks are developed countries.
- The reason for the choice of best country is quality.

Table 4.28 also shows that the consumer ethnocentrism has a significant (P = .000) and positive influence on the low consumer product involvement. It means that with an increase in the consumer ethnocentrism, the perception of low involvement products is also increased. In the case of low involvement products such as cold drinks, a high ethnocentrism has a strong positive influence on consumers' perception and thus they prefer locally manufactured cold drinks (see results of table 4.3 – 45% of the respondents believe Pakistani cold drinks are best).

Table 4.28 reveals that the consumer intention to adopt also has a significant (P = .000) and positive influence on the low consumer product involvement. Theoretically, it means that with an increase in the consumer intention to adopt, their perception of low involvement products is also increased. The mean value of the consumer intention to adopt (table 4.14: *mean value =* 3.31) and the frequency of purchase of low involvement product category cold drinks (table 4.2: 65% buy *daily*) support this result.

4.2.3.2. Model II: Backward Regression Analysis

In order to test the second model of the study, another multiple regression test was performed and the results are presented in table 4.29 (p.). In the second model, the COO-image in a product category and the COO-image in terms of economic development were taken as independent variables, and their effect was seen on the high consumer product involvement as a dependent variable. Also, the consumer ethnocentrism and the consumer intention to adopt were taken as moderating variables. This model-II is presented in fig 4.21 as follows:

Figure 4.21: Model II of Current Research

```
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│  Country of Origin Image    │        ┌──────────────────────────────┐
│  in a Product Category      │        │  Consumer Ethnocentrism (MV) │
│  (IV)                       │        └──────────────────────────────┘
└─────────────────────────────┘                      │
                                                      │
                                        ┌──────────────────────────────┐
┌─────────────────────────────┐         │  High Consumer Product       │
│  Country of Origin Image    │         │  Involvement (DV)            │
│  in terms of Economic       │         └──────────────────────────────┘
│  Development (IV)           │
└─────────────────────────────┘
              ┌──────────────────────────────────┐
              │  Consumer Intention to Adopt (MV) │
              └──────────────────────────────────┘
```
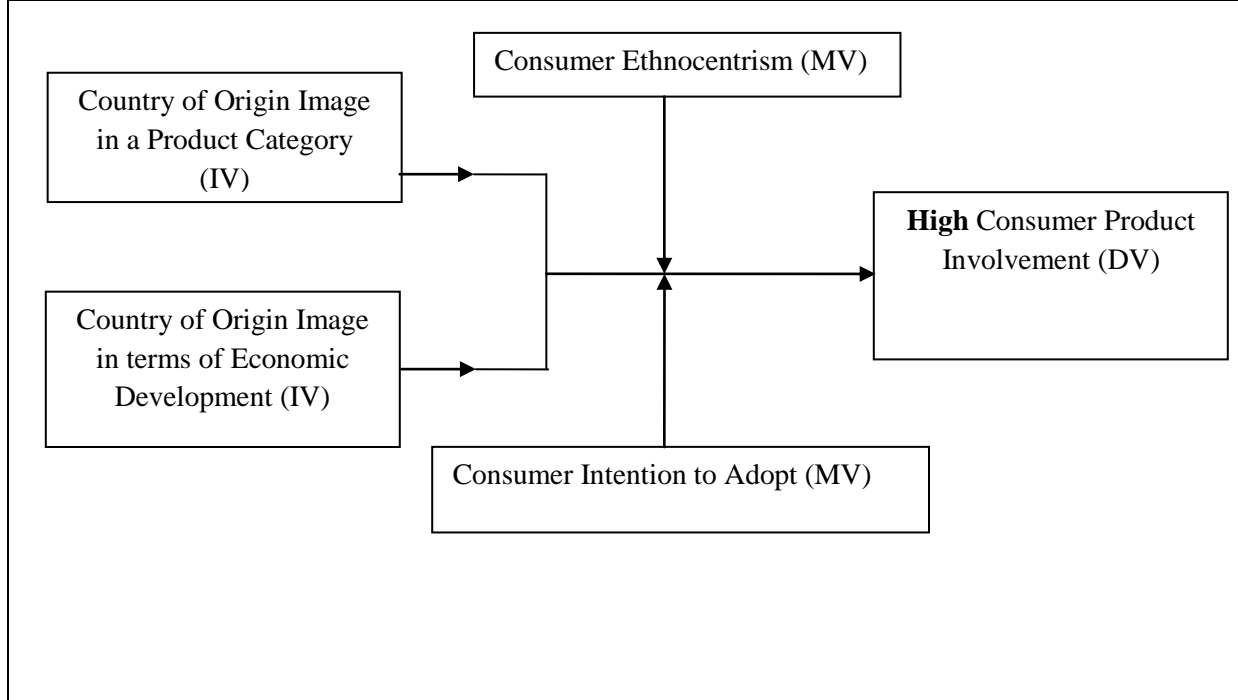
For model II, backward regression analysis (table 4.29) shows the value of the COOIPC is insignificant and that is why it is not included in the final model where all the remaining values are significant.

The result of regression analysis shows that the adjusted R^2 value is 33.7% which shows a good fit of the model. The ANOVA table provides strong evidence that the variables COOIED, CE and CIA have a non-zero coefficient (F = 192.698, P < 0.01). This suggests that these variables have a significant contribution in explaining the dependent variable the HCPI (see Appendix C – section V).

Table 4.29: Regression Table for Model II

<table>
<tr><td colspan="7" align="center">Coefficients</td></tr>
</table>

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	.726	.132		5.498	.000
	COOIPC	.167	.094	.113	1.787	.074
	COOIED	.379	.089	.266	4.265	.000
	CE	-.155	.037	-.108	-4.229	.000
	CIA	.563	.036	.385	15.492	.000
1	(Constant)	.764	.130		5.857	.000
	COOIED	.525	.035	.368	15.160	.000
	CE	-.152	.037	-.106	-4.149	.000
	CIA	.572	.036	.391	15.913	.000
a. Dependent Variable: HCPI						

The regression equation for Model-II is as follows:

$$\text{HCPI} = \alpha + \beta_1(\text{COOIPC}) + \beta_2(\text{COOIED}) + \beta_3(\text{CE}) + \beta_4(\text{CIA})$$

Table 4.29 shows that the COOIPC is not significant (P = .074) and does not contribute to the explanation of the HCPI, and is therefore, excluded. So, the regression equation relating to this model is as follows:

$$\text{HCPI} = \alpha + \beta_1(\text{COOIED}) + \beta_2(\text{CE}) + \beta_3(\text{CIA})$$

HCPI =   .764   +   .525 (COOIED) +   -.152 (CE)   +   .572

(SE)   (.130)   (.035)   (.037)   (.036)

Table 4.29 shows that, with the increase of 0.525 in the HCPI, the COOIED will increase by 1, keeping the CE and the CIA constant. Similarly, the increase of 0.572 in the HCPI will increase the CIA by 1. The most interesting result inferred from the table 4.29 is that the CE has a negative value which means that the HCPI will be decrease by 0.152 by the increase of 1 in the CE.

Before explaining the above mentioned information, it is important to keep in mind that the COOIPC is excluded by the regression model due to its insignificant value ($P = 0.074$). However, the regression table in Appendix C (section VI) shows that the COOIPC has a significant value ($P = .000$) in the model, unless the COOIEC is introduced. So it can be concluded that the high consumer product involvement is positively influenced by the country of origin image in a product category. However, if the country of origin image in terms of economic development, is introduced to the regression equation, it reduces the influence of the country of origin image in a product category on the high consumer product involvement. It can also be implied that if the country of manufacture is a developing country, then its reputation in a specific product category does not adequately influence the customers' extensive information search related to products that are high in costs and risks. It can be inferred that consumers pay more attention to the manufacturing country's economic conditions than to its image in a certain product category, when selecting products that demand high involvement.

Also table 4.29 shows that the consumer intention to adopt significantly influences (P = .000) their perception of high involvement products. This would appear to suggest that with the high level of consumer intention to adopt, consumer perceptions of high involvement products also increases. As high involvement products require high levels of consideration, information search, risks and costs; (table 4.10 shows) Pakistani consumers rely on information sources such as friends, family, magazines, store displays etc for the decision of purchase of high involvement products.

Table 4.29 reveals that consumer ethnocentrism significantly (P = .000) but negatively, influences their perceptions of high involvement products, suggesting that the decrease in consumer ethnocentrism will increase the high consumer product involvement. The descriptive analysis presented in Table 4.3 shows that the Pakistani consumers believe the automobiles manufactured in economically developed countries such as Japan and Germany are of highest quality, with the most important attribute being the level of technology. The results of table 4.3 and table 4.29 show that the moderate level of ethnocentrism displayed by Pakistani consumers does not necessarily result in hostility to foreign products. These results confirm to those of previous research by Jaffe and Martinez (1995) and Kinra (2006).

In summary, the results of this regression show (table 4.29) that neither consumer ethnocentrism nor consumer intention to adopt do not act as moderating variables. The COO-image in a product category functions as an independent variable, however, when the COO-image in terms of economic development is introduced to the regression, it excludes the

effects of the COO-image in a product category. The variable has such a significant effect that the COO-image in product category loses its significance.

Similar to the regression analysis of Model-I, it shows that the COO-image in terms of economic development acts as a moderating variable with reference to the effect of the COO-image in a product category on high consumer product involvement. This result is presented in the fig 4.22 as follows:

Figure 4.22: Derived Model II of Current Research
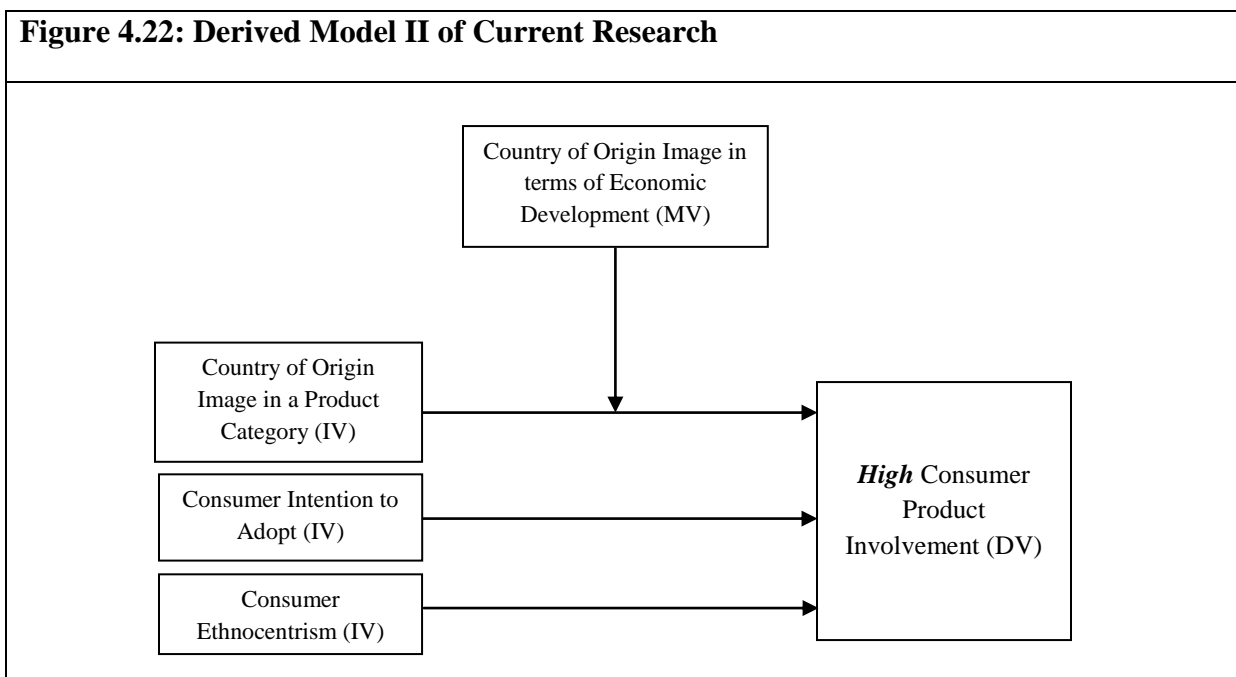
In summary, the result of the current research with reference to high consumer product involvement in Pakistan has led to the emergence of the model below (figure 4.23). The model shows that the consumer ethnocentrism is performing a role of predictor or independent variable. The high consumer product involvement is a response or dependent variable. For the

237

effects of the consumer ethnocentrism on the high consumer product involvement, the COO-image in a product category and the COO-image in terms of economic development, perform the role of moderating variables. The two moderating variables perform the moderation between the predictor and response variables.

Figure 4.23: Emerged Model based on the results of the Current Research

Country of Origin Image in terms of Economic Development (MV)

Consumer Ethnocentrism (IV)

High Consumer Product Involvement (DV)

Country of Origin Image in a Product Category (MV)
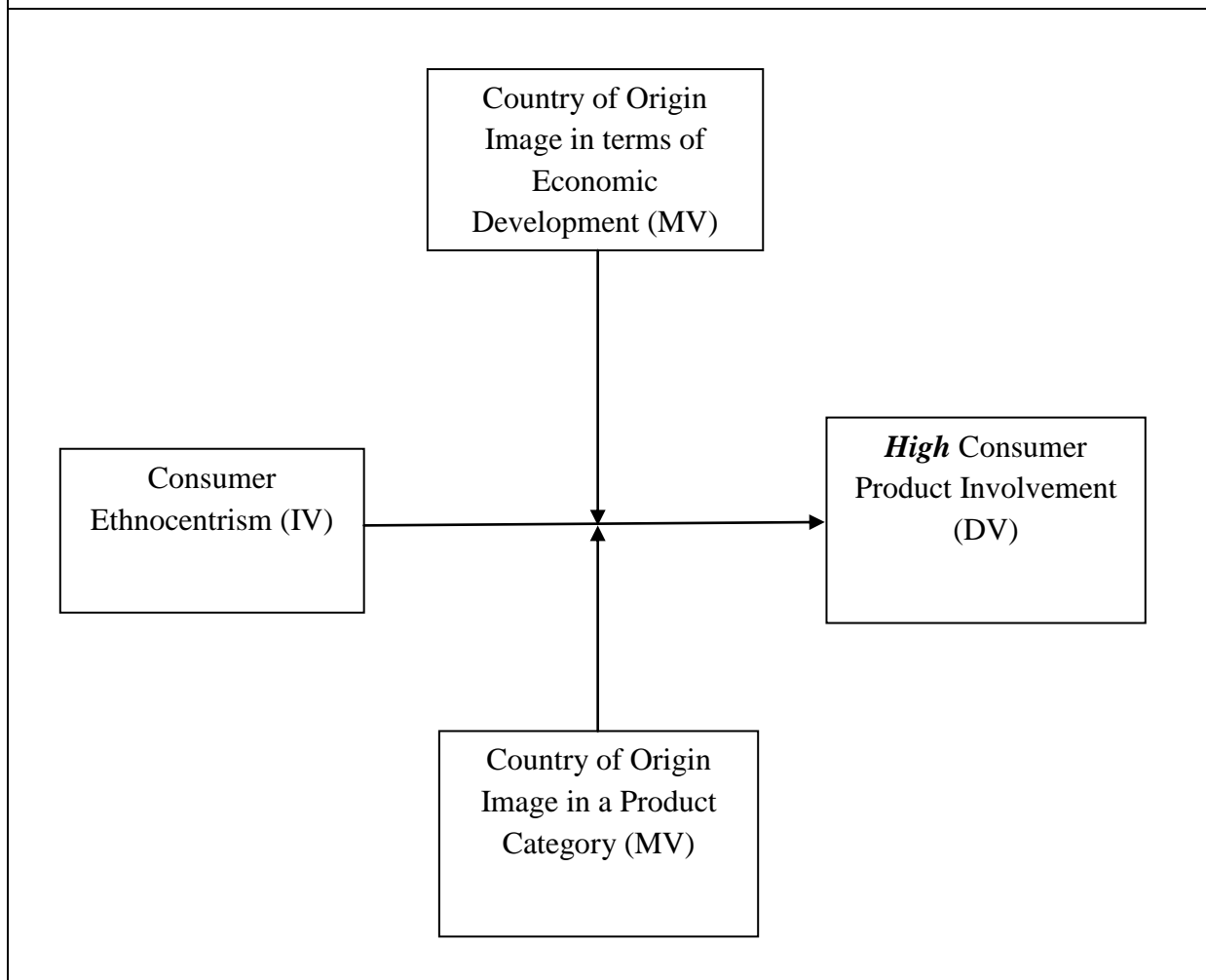
4.3.Summary of the Findings and Analysis

The following table summarises the results of research hypotheses of the current research:

Table 4.30: Summary of the Results of Hypotheses	
List of Hypotheses	**Result**
H_1: There is significant association between the COOIPC, COOIED, CE, CIA, LCPI and HCPI.	*Accepted*
H_{2a}: There is a significant positive effect of the COO image in a product category on low consumer product involvement.	*Accepted*
H_{2b}: There is a significant positive effect of the COO image in a product category on high consumer product involvement.	*Accepted*
H_{3a}: There is a significant positive effect of the COO image in economic development on low consumer product involvement.	*Accepted*
H_{3b}: There is a significant positive effect of the COO image in economic development on high consumer product involvement.	*Accepted*
H_4: The consumer ethnocentrism moderates the effect of the COO image in product category and the COO image in economic development, on low and high consumer product involvement.	*Rejected*
H_5: The consumer intention to adopt moderates the effect of the COO image in product category and the COO image in economic development, on low and high consumer product involvement.	*Rejected*

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The current chapter discusses the findings which have been presented in the previous chapter. Major findings are discussed in the view of research objectives and underpinning theories of the COO and the effects of COO-image. The chapter has been divided into five sections. The first section examines the effects of the COO-image (in a product category and in terms of economic development). The second section discusses the findings related to the effects of the COO-image on consumer product involvement. This section is sub-divided into two parts. First, discusses the effects of COO-image in a product category on consumer product involvement levels: low and high. Second, is based on the findings related to the effects of the COO-image in terms of economic development on consumer product involvement levels: low and high. In the third section, role of consumer ethnocentrism in the relationship of the COO-image and consumer product involvement will be discussed. The fourth section includes the discussion on the role of consumer intention to adopt (based on their innovativeness) on the relationship of the COO-image and consumer product involvement. Finally, the fifth and last section presents the summary of discussion and conclusion of the current research.

5.1. Does the COO-Image matter?

In the current study the COO-image was taken in two dimensions, such as COO-image in a product category and COO-image in terms of economic development. The findings showed

that both are correlated and associated to each other and have strong impacts on Pakistani consumers' behaviour.

This study, in essence, found some patterns of consumer behaviour with reference to the effects of the COO-image. Firstly, Pakistani consumers pay great attention to the cues of the COO-image both in a product category and in terms of economic development. These findings provided strong evidence that these cues have a strong influence on Pakistani consumers' perceptions and purchase intentions. They actively look for the COO tags and pay great attention to the COO-image cue at the time of product selection and purchase. These findings were in line with those of Kabadayi and Lerman (2011) and Ahmed and D'Astous (2008) who found that the COO-image phenomenon is not only vital to attract consumers, but also influences their product choices. However, these findings were contrary to the findings of some research which suggested that the impact of COO-image is very weak and consumers are mostly indifferent to the COO-image cue (Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2006; Josiassen *et al.*, 2008; Samiee, 2010).

Secondly, this study found that Pakistani consumers relate the quality of the product with its COO-image. They perceived that the COO-image in a product category is a strong indicator of perceived product quality and perceived product risk. These findings were in line with the previous research by Canli and Maheswaran (2000) and Yasin and Noor (2007) who have found that the COO-image plays an important role in consumers' evaluation of quality and

risk of the product, such as the level of superiority of a product based on the COO's competence.

Thirdly, this research found that the COO-image in a certain product category is so significant for the Pakistani consumers that they relate it to other products from the same COO. Pakistani consumers not only related Japan and Germany with products that are of high quality and better technology, but they further believed that the two countries are the best especially in terms of production of automobiles. These findings are in line with existing research that found that Japanese products are considered by consumers as durable, and that German products are associated with high quality, workmanship, precision and technology (Lee and Lee, 2009; Chuin and Mohamad, 2012). These findings have been also in line with the existing research with reference to electrical appliance, which provides evidence for strong COO-image effects on brand image, brand dimensions and brand loyalty (Norjaya *et al.*, 2007). For example, Anholt (2010) found that consumers who perceive Samsung's country of origin is Japan, have highly positive and favourable attitude towards the brand on the basis of the reputation of Japan being a highly innovative country, with a strong focus on quality and technology (whereas it actually comes from South Korea). This notion is further strengthened by the research that suggested that companies sometimes deliberately promote their products by creating inaccurate country of origin perception (Josiassen and Harzing 2008). It confirmed that the COO-image association does matter for consumer evaluations and negated the notion that COO-image information has become irrelevant. One more example is of the existing research suggested that the association of Germany with the manufacture of technologically highly-sophisticated Automobiles such as Mercedes could have positive influence on

consumers' brand attitude toward even though many incorrectly perceived Volvo to be a German car (Magnusson *et al.*, 2011).

Fourthly, the findings of this study showed that in order to buy the highest quality brand, Pakistani consumers make sure that they seek the "made-in" information, particularly to ascertain whether the product is made in a developed or a developing country. They perceive that generally products from developing countries are of lower quality than products from developed countries. These findings are in line with the findings of existing research by Rezvani *et al.* (2012) in which the researcher argued that the level of economic development, stability and growth of a country's economy are the factors that positively affect the consumer evaluation of its brands. These findings were also in line with the findings of Amine (2008) that consumers from developing countries are more willing to buy foreign products that are made in developed countries. As the current research was based in Pakistan which is a developing country, these findings are also important as a developing country's consumers' perspective.

Another interesting consumer behaviour pattern with reference to the Pakistani consumers, is that they actively look for a product's COO information not only because it strongly influences their perceptions of quality, risk and competence associated with the product; but also to conform with the expectations of their friends and family. These findings are consistent with the existing research that found that consumers use the COO-image information in their

product evaluation and purchase decision keeping the expectations of friends and family in mind (Evanschitzky *et al*., 2008; Wang and Yang, 2008).

Finally, as mentioned above, Pakistani consumers choose the best brand in a product category based on its COO information and for them, the strong COO-image in a product category is important cue to determine product quality, but the manufacturing country has to be a developed country. In other words, the COO-image in terms of economic development has stronger effects on consumer perceptions, than any other cue. This finding is consistent with the studies by Phau and Prendergast (2000) and Saeed *et al*., (2013) who found that the effects of the COO-image in terms of economic development surpasses the positive influence of the COO-image in a product category. As for the consumers from developing countries, products made in other developing countries are of lesser quality even if the COO has strong product category image (Hamin *et al*, 2014).

The current study also demonstrate that the Pakistani consumers have a highly accurate brand COO awareness with reference to most prominent brands in the two product categories of cold drinks and automobiles. These findings were in contrast to empirical evidence provided by research studies that generally consumers do not know the correct COO of even famous brands, as they either have less product/brand familiarity, or they believe that it is not important to know the COO information of a brand (Samiee *et al.* 2005; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2008). In addition, two findings; (1) Pakistani consumers have high awareness of brand's COO, and (2) their product perceptions are strongly influenced by the

COO-image (in a product category and in terms of economic development) contradicted the conclusions of the existing research. As the existing research suggested that consumer behaviour is less affected by the COO-image cue if consumers possess high product knowledge (Chao and Wührer, 2005) and brand awareness (De Wulf *et al.,* 2005; Parkvithee and Miranda, 2011).

5.2. Effect of the COO-image on Consumer Product Involvement

In order to assess the effects of the COO-image on the low and high consumer product involvement, two product categories were selected: cold drinks and automobiles. The 'cold drinks' which were consumed on daily basis are one of the fast moving consumer goods and belong to low consumer involvement products. The 'automobiles', on the other hand, were generally purchased only a few times in the life, and involve considerable thinking of cost and risk; and therefore belong to the high consumer involvement products. The selection of the product categories was made keeping in view previous research who have studied food and cold drinks industry as a low consumer involvement product categories (Dekhili and d'Hauteville*,* 2009; Magnusson *et al.*, 2011; Claret *et al*., 2012); and automobile industry as a high consumer involvement product category (Sánchez *et al.* 2011; Lee and Roy, 2013; Hamin *et al,* 2014).

The findings of this study demonstrated that Pakistani consumers mostly consume cold drinks on a daily basis, and on the other hand, purchase an automobile once in a five to ten years. They believe that developed countries are the best manufacturers of cold drinks. Similarly,

they believe developed countries (especially Japan and Germany) are the best manufacturers of automobiles. These findings are in line with existing research which found that consumer perceive Japan and Germany as the best automobile manufacturers (Chuin and Mohamad, 2012; Hamin *et al,* 2014).

The study found that Pakistani consumers give much importance to the attribute of 'quality' while purchasing low involvement products and it is the same attribute which they relate to the best country of manufacture of low involvement products such as cold drinks. On the other hand, in case of high involvement products such as automobiles, they give maximum importance to the attributes of 'technology' and 'quality'. They relate these two attributes to the best country of manufacture of automobiles. Pakistani consumers relate these attributes to the level of economic development of the manufacturing country. They believe that the products (no matter belonging to low involvement or high involvement product categories) manufactured in developed countries are of high quality and high technological sophistication. These consumer perceptions were evident from their selection of best country of manufactures in both low and high involvement product categories. It was also evident that brands from highly developed countries have highly favourable impacts on Pakistani consumer perceptions, such as those manufactured in Japan and Germany in case of automobiles. Interestingly, these finding were more valid for the respondents who belong to high income brackets and have high levels of education. These findings were in line with the existing research of Butt *et al*. (2012), which was based in Pakistan. It also concluded that the perceived quality plays the most important role in consumers' purchase intentions for products

manufactured in the developed countries as compared with those manufactured in the developing countries.

The discussion related to the findings with reference to the effects of the COO-image in a product category and the COO-image in terms of economic development, on consumer product involvement is presented separately as follows:

5.2.1. Effect of the COO-image in a Product Category on Consumer Product Involvement

The current study discusses the major findings related to the Pakistani consumers' behaviour with reference to the effects of the COO-image in a product category on their product involvement, as follows:

Firstly, the current research found that when Pakistani consumers have low intention for information search or have low product knowledge, as in case of low involvement products, they rely more on the information related to the COO-image in that product category. It further concluded that in case of low involvement products, positive COO-image in a product category positively and significantly affect their product selection and purchase behaviour. On the other hand, negative or weak COO-image in a product category would negatively influence their product preference and purchase. Therefore the relationship between the COO-image in a product category and low consumers product involvement has a direct and positive

relationship, where a positive COO-image affect the consumers' involvement positively, and a negative COO-image affects the consumers' involvement negatively for the low involvement products. These findings of the current research provided evidence that in the absence of sufficient information related to the foreign products, consumers usually relate the quality and risk to the COO-image in that product category and make the purchase decision. These findings were in line with that of the research by Shi *et al*. (2012). Therefore, it may be concluded that with a lack of information, the COO-image summarises the quality attributes of the products as suggested by Hamzaoui, *et al.*, (2011). The COO-image is very important in terms of information for the food and cold drinks industry, as consumers relate the quality and health and safety risks to this information (Verbeke and Ward, 2006; Dekhili and d'Hauteville, 2009; Yeh *et al*., 2010). Research by Veale and Quester (2009) also found that the COO-image information has a significant influence on consumers' purchase decision of 'Wine'.

Secondly, this study found that Pakistani consumers also give significant importance to 'status and esteem' while selecting low involvement products such as cold drinks. It can be implied that the Pakistani consumers' product selection in low involvement product categories, was highly influenced by the COO-image in a product category based on their status and esteem needs. This finding was in line with the findings of existing research, as Ahmed and D'Astous (2004) and O'Cass (2004) suggested that the COO-image based on consumers' level of involvement related to product categories has a significant impact on their purchase decisions because the consumers attach varying degrees of risks, such as monetary outlays and social implications of the usage of products.

Thirdly, the findings of the current study demonstrated that the COO-image in certain product category also has significantly positive effects on the high consumer involvement products such as, the automobiles. Pakistani consumers seek out the information related to the COO-image and relate it to the quality, risk and cost associated with the purchase of high involvement products. They are highly influenced by the COO-image in a product category in terms of manufacturing country's reputation based on its competence, expertise, knowledge, manufacturing and designing sophistication etc, while making a purchase decision of high involvement products such as Automobiles. In case of automobiles, it is already mentioned above that Pakistani consumers are strongly influenced by the reputation of Japanese and German automobiles.

Fourthly, due to the involvement of high cost, high risk and much consideration, in purchase of high involvement products (Lin and Chen, 2006; Abraham, 2013; Zdravkovic, 2013), Pakistani consumers do not purchase automobiles so frequently, which make this purchase decision to become even more crucial. However, the results of the current research showed that for Pakistani consumers, the COO-image in a product category is one of the most important deciding factors in terms of product evaluation and purchase decision of high involvement products. These findings were in line with the existing research that found that in case of high involvement products, consumers often make their product purchase decision based on the COO-image of available products (Narteh *et al*., 2012; Hamin *et al,* 2014), especially in the absence of prior knowledge of product (Ahmed and d'Astous 2004; Chattalas *et. al.*, 2008). In the case where the product is new and no prior information is available, Pakistani consumers consider the COO-image in a product category vital to make purchase

decision. This finding is in line with the existing research, based on the COO- effect on elite Pakistani consumers' purchasing decision: Khan and Bamber (2008) found that the COO-image in a product category has strong effects on consumers' product evaluations and buying decisions, especially in case of high involvement products such as expensive products and gifts for friends and family.

Furthermore, the findings showed that Pakistani consumers are strongly influenced by COO-image in a product category to be in line with the expectations of friends and family. For example, as generally their friends and relatives perceive that Japanese manufactured cars are the best in technology and quality, therefore, at the time of purchase of a car, they would prefer Japanese cars to conform to their social clan.

Finally, the findings of current research showed that the Pakistani consumer behaviour with reference to the COO-image in a product category is same for low and high involvement products. These conclusions were in contrast to the existing research, which suggested that different product involvement levels require different kinds of consumer purchase behaviour, including the processing of information and decision of purchase (Ahmed and D'Astous, 2004; Pecotich and Ward, 2007).

5.2.2. Effects the COO-image in terms of Economic Development on Consumer Product Involvement

This study found that the information regarding the COO in terms of economic development plays a vital role in Pakistani consumers' purchase decision. As discussed earlier, it is important for them to see the 'made in country' label (manufacturing country name) to assess the quality of a product or brand. It is the first piece of information they see for a given product. They also seek this information as it provides the base for their selection of best product, especially in the case of no prior knowledge of the product. They also actively search for the COO information in terms of its economic development, to conform to the expectations of friends and family.

For the purpose of the comparison of the effects of the COO-image in terms of economic development, the low involvement category of cold drinks; and the high involvement category of automobile were selected. this selection is in line with the existing research by Magnusson *et al.* (2011) who selected cold drinks and automobile industry for their study of low and high involvement products. The findings of the current research provided evidence for Pakistani consumers' perception of developed countries being the best manufactures of both low and high involvement products such as cold drinks and automobiles. These findings are consistent with research that concluded that consumer perception of a product's quality was dependent on its manufacturing country's economic background (Rezvani *et al.*, 2012).

Firstly, the current research findings showed that Pakistani consumers are significantly and positively influenced by the COO-image in terms of economic development in case of low consumer product involvement. This finding showed that in case of low involvement products, where consumers are not involved in extensive information search, they base their purchase decision on the information related to the product's COO-image in terms of economic development. This finding is in line with the existing research that found that made-in country's industrialisation, economics and degree of technological advancement effects consumer product preference (Chryssochoidis *et al.*, 2007; Nayir and Durmusoglu, 2008) in low involvement product categories (Verbeke and Ward, 2006; Dekhili and d'Hauteville, 2009; Yeh *et al.*, 2010). From this perspective, the COO plays a role of brand name and this brand name assures the consumers that the product made in this country is of high standard (Pappu *et al,.* 2006).

Although the findings of the current research emphasised the influence of the COO-image in terms of its economic development on the consumer product involvement, it suggested that the COO-image (in terms of economic development) effects remained significant and positive in affecting the Pakistani consumers' products involvement, regardless of their low and high level. This is contrary to the findings of research which suggest that the effects of COO-image (in terms of economic development) increases with an increase in level of involvement of products, and that it has no or less effects on low involvement consumer product (Pan and Chang, 2011).

This finding show a strong consumer reliance on the information related to the COO-image in terms of economic development for product purchase decision making. From this perspective, level of COO's industrialisation and technological advancement play a strong role in influencing consumers' perception, since they strongly relate these factors to the perceived quality and risk. These findings support the previous studies which have also suggested that the COO-image in terms of economic development influence consumer perceptions of product quality and risk in both low (Verbeke and Ward, 2006; Dekhili and d'Hauteville, 2009; Yeh *et al*., 2010) and high (Norjaya *et al*., 2007; Hamin *et al*., 2014) consumer product involvement categories.

The findings of the current research revealed that the Pakistani consumers believe that the products (both low and high consumer involvement) manufactured in the developed countries are of a superior standard to those manufactured in the developing countries. They negatively evaluate the products made in developing countries: in line with existing research which found that consumers' perceive that products made in developed countries are manufactured by trained and educated workforce, using technologically advanced tools, mechanisms and following high standards (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). These Pakistani consumer perceptions, in this regard are similar to that of Thai consumers found by Parkvithee and Miranda (2011) as they perceive the products manufactured in the developed countries, such as Japan, to be of a higher standard than those produced in a developing country such as Vietnam. The findings of the current research were also in line with the findings of another study based on the Pakistani consumer behaviour with reference to the COO effects on low involvement products (such as cosmetics) by Saeed *et al*. (2013). It found that the Pakistani

consumers give so much consideration to the COO-image of manufacturing country's economic development, that all imported products which are available in Pakistan must carry 'made in ...' labels. This study found that Pakistani consumers themselves belong to a developing country and prefer products manufactured in economically developed countries. These findings were in line with the results of various studies conducted in Pakistan (Khan and Bamber, 2008), Mexico (Bailey and Gutierrez De Pineres, 1997), Jordan (Hussein, 1997), Nigeria (Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999), and Philippines (Hulland *et al*., 1996), which found that the consumers of the developing countries evaluate imported products from more developed countries more favourably than domestically-made products.

It may also be inferred from the findings of this study that at the time of purchase of automobiles, though attributes such as quality, technology, value for money, status and esteem also play vital role for Pakistani consumers' buying decision and their selection of the best manufacturing country for automobiles. However, Pakistani consumers pay special attention to the COO-image in terms of economic development. These findings were in line with the existing research by Athar (2006) based in Pakistan with reference to automobile industry. It found that as there are many car brand choices available in Pakistan, consumers take much time to search the product information and make the purchase decision after much consideration, evaluation and comparison. However, they relate the quality and technology to the country of manufacture of the automobile. As mentioned earlier that Pakistani consumers are also influenced by their family and friends while making purchases of high involvement products. This pattern of consumer behaviour is especially vital with reference to the influence

of the COO-image (in terms of economic development) of the automobile. Since buying an automobile is once in a while kind of purchase involving high risk and cost, it has great significance for Pakistani consumers. That is the reason why, they actively get involved in information search. The prime source of their search is however, their friends and family. These results were in line with previous research in automobile industry that found the similar influence of the COO-image in terms of economic development on consumer product evaluation (Pappu *et al.* 2007; Evanschitzky *et al.*, 2008; Wang and Yang, 2008; Rezvani *et al.*, 2012). Especially, study by Lascu and Babb (1995) found that the acceptance of family and friends is of more significance than the effect of the COO-image on consumer product purchase decision. However, these finding were in contrast with the findings of previous research which suggested that in case of high involvement products, consumers tend to have more product knowledge (Parkvithee and Miranda, 2011), motivation to have extensive information search and that they rely on more credible intrinsic cues such as product attributes rather than the extrinsic cue of the COO-image in terms of economic development (Pan and Chang, 2011).

In summary, this study found a positively significant influence of the COO-image in terms of economic development on Pakistani consumers' high product involvement and their preference of buying products made in developed countries. These findings were in line with previous research based on the high consumer involvement product categories, such as: a study conducted in Pakistan on the electronic industry found that Pakistani consumers prefer products manufactured in the developed countries such as: Japan, USA, and Germany (Bandyopadhyay and Anwar, 1998). Another study conducted in Uzbekistan found that the

COO-image (in terms of economic development) has a strong influence on consumer purchase decisions in terms of high perceived risk of malfunctioning of high involvement products (Zain and Yasin, 1997).

5.3.   Role of Consumer Ethnocentrism

The current research found that Pakistani consumers are moderately ethnocentric. The findings of the study further showed that consumer ethnocentrism was correlated with COO-image both in a product category and in terms of economic development. It was also found to be correlated to low and high consumer product involvement. However, the current study has taken consumer ethnocentrism as a moderating variable for the relationship of COO-image in a product category and COO-image in terms of economic development, and, low and high consumer product involvement.

The findings demonstrated that when consumer ethnocentrism is considered, Pakistani consumers (even being moderately ethnocentric) still pay greater attention to the COO-image in a certain product category, with reference to the low involvement products. It can also be concluded that since the consumer ethnocentrism does not affect the strong influence of the COO-image in a certain product category, on low consumer product involvement, it does not moderate the relationship of the two variables. It has already been discussed that Pakistani consumers perceive the products manufactured in countries with positive reputation in terms of competence, technology and expertise, to be of high quality. This perception has such a

strong influence on their purchase behaviour that their ethnocentric tendencies are failed to effect their purchase behaviour and product selection.

The findings of the study show that the consumer ethnocentrism has significant effects on high consumer product involvement, however, the stronger effects of the COO-image in a product category moderates (either minimise or maximise) the effects of the consumer ethnocentrism in case of high involvement products. For example, if a high involvement product was manufactured in a country which has a greater reputation in a product category, it can minimise the effects of consumer ethnocentrism. On the other hand, if a COO of a high involvement product does not have a positive COO-image, the effects of the consumer ethnocentrism will be stronger. As discussed earlier, Pakistani consumers perceive products manufactured in the countries with high COO-image in a product category, to be of higher quality. Even being moderately ethnocentric, Pakistani consumers' selection of best manufacturing countries of automobile was Japan and Germany, which are famous in automobile manufacturing worldwide (Lee and Roy, 2013; Lee *et al.,* 2013). These findings are in line with existing research that provides strong evidence that the COO-image of a product is associated with the perceived inferiority or superiority of the manufacturing country (Orth and Firbasová, 2003). However, as Pakistan does not enjoy a positive image in automobile manufacturing, Pakistani consumers do not prefer local made automobiles. This finding was also in line with the existing research which maintains that consumers who associate superiority with their own country, being ethnocentric, prefer their domestic products (Claret *et al.,* 2012). Research also pointed out that consumers' favouring of

domestic products is strongly dependent on the perceived competence of product's country of origin and the COO-image in a certain product category (Roth and Diamantopoulous, 2009).

The current study further found that consumer ethnocentrism does not have a significant influence on Pakistani consumers' low product involvement, as compared to the influence of the COO-image of a product in terms of manufacturing country's economic development. It was already discussed that Pakistani consumers perceive that the low involvement products that are made in developed countries are superior and of higher quality. Their ethnocentric tendencies do not change or affect these perceptions, and their selection of best manufacturing country of these products is based on the economic development level of the COO. The current research further inferred that although Pakistani consumers are moderately ethnocentric, in order to select the best country of manufacture for low involvement products, they pay more attention to the information related to the level of economic development of the COO and selected 'developed countries' as the best.

This study also found that due to much stronger impacts of the COO-image in terms of economic development, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism is minimised or eliminated in the case of high product involvement. This means that the COO-image (in terms of economic development) is playing a role of moderating variable with reference to the effects of consumer ethnocentrism on high product involvement. This finding provided a strong theoretical contribution, as it offered new venues for future research with reference to the COO-image. This finding showed that even being moderately ethnocentric Pakistani consumers preferred high involvement products specially automobiles that are manufactured

in the developed countries. This finding supports existing research that suggested that consumers from developing countries have a higher preference for products imported from developed countries and they show lower tendency of ethnocentrism (Hamin, 2006). Similar research based in India, China, Bangladesh and Pakistan showed similar findings: that the consumers from the developing countries favour imported high involvement products that were manufactured in the developed countries such as the UK, the USA, Germany and Japan (Rehman, 2000; Batra *et al*. 2000; Zhuang *et al*., 2008; Zhou *et al*., 2010; Khan 2012; Saeed *et al*., 2013). Another interesting point is that the consumers from all these above mentioned studies belong to countries with a collectivist culture.

Finally, the current research found that consumer ethnocentrism functioned as an independent variable and has significant effects on high consumer product involvement. Both the COO-image in a product category and the COO-image in terms of its economic development level behave as moderating variables (as the two variables reduced the significance of the consumer ethnocentrism) in this framework. In other words, it can be concluded that Pakistani consumers give more importance to the information related to the COO-image in product category and the COO-image in terms of economic development, more than their ethnocentrism, with reference to high involvement products.

In summary, the findings of the current research provided strong evidence that the Pakistani consumers significantly associate the information of the COO-image in terms of economic development and in a product category with both low and high involvement products. Although consumer ethnocentrism has a significant association with the COO-image in terms

of economic development and image in a product category as concluded by correlation test, Pakistani consumers either completely ignore or pay less attention to ethnocentrism, when the variables such as COO-image in terms of economic development and COO-image in a product category come into play. However, Pakistani consumers show inconsistency in their responses to ethnocentrism. On the one hand, they show moderately ethnocentric tendencies but on the other hand, their behaviour shows that they are not very ethnocentric and would rather use product and country information for their product purchase decision. Therefore, it may be concluded that they express their views of ethnocentrism to conform with their social groups because it seems more appropriate and patriotic. However, when it comes to the actual buying (act/behaviour) they prefer foreign brands with strong COO-image.

5.4. Role of Consumer Intention to Adopt (in terms of their innovativeness)

The findings of the current study were based on the perceptions of young, highly educated and affluent individuals. These Pakistani consumers mostly have mixed beliefs as on one hand they show their early intentions to adopt and display innovative behaviour, as the review of literature suggested that some consumers are impulsive and like to try new products (Liefeld 2004; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2008). Contrary to their intention to early adoption, these consumers also showed behaviour patterns of followers or even of laggards, described by researchers as those who like to take their time to decide and take note of others' opinions such as their friends and family for purchase decision making (Diamantopoulos and Zeugner-Roth 2011).

The mixed responses of the respondents (with reference to the consumer intention to adopt), suggested that the Pakistani consumers are generally moderately innovative and take their time to show their intention to adopt. The discussion of the findings has already established that Pakistani consumers take great influence of friends and family for their product evaluation and their intention to adopt.

The current research was aimed at measuring the impact of the consumer intention to adopt (in terms of their innovativeness) as a moderating variable to understand the relationship of independent variables - the COO-image in terms of economic development and the COO-image in a product category and dependent variables - the low consumer product involvement and the high consumer product involvement. A similar framework was proposed in the research study by Kabadayi and Lerman (2011) who used consumer intention to adopt as a moderating variable in the relationship of the COO-image and product quality evaluation.

As stated earlier, Pakistani consumers are moderate with reference to their intentions to adopt, and not generally impulsive innovators. So it can be inferred that at the time of purchase of low involvement products such as cold drinks, Pakistani consumers do not show impulsive behaviour to select a product rather they pay greater attention to the product's COO-image. On the other hand, the findings of the current research provided evidence that, in case of high involvement product such as automobiles, Pakistani consumers preferred those manufactured in countries with high COO-image in car manufacturing, such as Japan and Germany. This preference was based on their perceptions of perceived quality attached to these automobiles.

Since Pakistani consumers buy automobiles once in a five to ten years, they take their time and great care in considering all kinds of alternatives, product attributes and also the information related to the COO of automobile. Although Pakistani consumers like to try new and different brand but they also want to conform to their friends and family. That is why they do not take this purchase decision impulsively without taking advice from their friends and family. These results provided the evidence of one of the possible reasons, that why the consumer intention to adopt in terms of their innovativeness did not have significant moderating effects, in case of Pakistani consumers. These results are in line with those of the existing research conducted in Pakistan by Athar (2006) based on automobile industry, which found that friends and family have strong influence of the purchase behaviour of Pakistani consumers, in case of automobiles.

The findings of the current research showed that the Pakistani consumers also pay considerable attention to information related to the COO-image in terms of its economic development level while purchasing high involvement products, such as automobiles. They believed that economically developed countries are the best manufacturing countries for automobiles and show their intention to adopt based on the attributes of quality, technology, value for money, and status and esteem. These findings were in line with the existing research which suggested that in case of high involvement products such as automobiles, consumer intention to adopt is associated with their own expression and identities, and their selected brands are symbolic representations of their lifestyle and personality (Walker, 2008). The findings of the current research were also in line with the findings of the existing research by

Athar (2006) who found that Pakistani consumers prefer automobiles manufactured in economically developed countries as it involves high cost and risk.

From a theoretical perspective the results of the current research highlighted how powerful the COO-image cue is for Pakistani consumers regardless of their level of innovativeness and product involvement. These results were in contrary to existing research that suggested that the consumer intention to adopt influences the COO-image effects, as some consumers are impulsive and like to try any new product which minimise the effects of the COO-image (Liefeld 2004; Hennebichler 2007; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2008). On the other hand, the current findings are in line with research that claimed that the consumers like to take their time to decide, take note of others' opinions for purchase decision making, such as their friends and family, and also pay great attention to the COO-image information (Diamantopoulos and Zeugner-Roth 2011). This rational behaviour allows the COO-image cue to positively influence on the consumer perception (Westjohn and Magnusson, 2011).

5.5. Summary of Discussion and Conclusion

The findings of this research study suggest that, in the perspective of Pakistani consumers' behaviour, the consumer intention to adopt and the consumer ethnocentrism do not act as moderating variables, but rather these variables play the role of independent variables. As discussed earlier, Pakistani consumers are moderately ethnocentric and also have moderate intention to adopt in terms of innovative behaviour, but these do not influence their use of information related to the COO-image with reference to low involvement products. However,

it can be concluded that the COO-image in terms of economic development has the most significant influence on Pakistani consumers' product involvement, no matter low or high. In other words, the COO-image in terms of economic development moderated the effects of the COO-image in a product category on low and high consumer product involvement. It may therefore be concluded that Pakistani consumers prefer products that are manufactured by highly economically developed countries even if they do not have the best country reputation in both low and high involvement product categories.

The findings of the current research concluded that at the time of purchase of low consumer involvement products such as cold drinks, and high consumer involvement products such as automobiles, Pakistani consumers base their product preference and evaluation on the COO-image in terms of economic development as they relate it to the quality of the product. The influence of the COO-image in terms of economic development is so strong that the Pakistani consumers ignored the manufacturing country's reputation, competence or fame in automobile manufacturing. They take their time to purchase and do not show impulsive buying behaviour.

Finally, another important conclusion is that although consumer ethnocentrism has a significant impact on high consumer product involvement, this effect is negative. Thus it can be suggested that in case of high consumer product involvement, the effects of consumer ethnocentrism decreases. In other words, as the level of consumer involvement increases, Pakistani consumers' ethnocentrism level decreases and they pay less attention to their own ethnocentric tendencies.

CHAPTER 6: CONTRIBUTIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE CURRENT RESEARCH

The current chapter presents the contributions, implications and limitations of the current research while proposing the avenues for the future research. This chapter is divided in two sections starting with the first that discusses the contributions. It also includes the theoretical and managerial implications of the current research based on the findings. In the second section the limitations of current research are included along with the suggestions made for future research.

6.1. Contributions and Implications

For the present development and growth of international business, globalised presence of multinationals, open door economies, international collaborations, joint ventures of big players (businesses), international production, marketing, sales and operations, it is crucial to understand how the origin of a product matters to the consumers. The impacts of the COO stereotypes and image are critical in shaping up the consumer perceptions, product evaluations, and purchase intentions. The current research explained the effects of the COO image on consumer product involvement with reference to Pakistan, which is a developing country and an emerging economy. The present study has some significant contributions to the COO research and has strong theoretical and practical implications.

Contribution 1: Addressing the Gap in the COO Research with reference to the Developing Country's Perspective

Most of the existing research related to the effects of the COO image has been conducted in developed countries and therefore, there was a need to present a developing country perspective by conducting research measuring the effects of the COO image in a developing country. The current study was conducted in Pakistan, a developing country, adding to the existing body of the COO research. With a different context, interesting conclusions were inferred that reflects on another perspective of the COO image. The findings of the current research have strong theoretical implications for future researchers since it provides a base for new research to build new research frameworks. Also, the current research has strong managerial implications for international businesses as it can help them to understand the effect of the COO image on consumer perceptions in developing countries such as Pakistan.

Contribution 2: Addressing the Gap in the COO Research with reference to the Association and Comparison of the Effects of the COO Image in a Product Category and the COO Image in terms of Economic Development

The current research measuring the effects of the COO image has divided the construct into two levels namely: micro and macro level. The micro level of the COO image depicted the level of competence, expertise and competitive advantage of the manufacturing country in a specific product category. The macro level of the COO image, on the other hand, involved the general economic conditions of the manufacturing country i.e. whether the manufacturing

country is a developed country or a developing country. Most existing research is either related to measure the effect of the COO image at the micro level – in a certain product category, or the macro level – in terms of manufacturing country's economic development. Very few studies have taken both levels into account. However, the current study extended previous research by examining the associations and drawing a comparison between the effects of both micro and macro levels of the construct of the COO image on consumer perception. There was significant theoretical implication of the conclusions of the current research as it added to the body of existing research by presenting the comparison of the effects at both micro and macro levels of COO image. Future studies on the COO image can use these conclusions to base their selection of related variables.

The significant effects of the COO image in a product category and the COO image in terms of economic development have strong business and managerial implications as well. Marketing managers can design effective promotional campaigns based on a country's reputation in a certain product category and the knowledge of the COO image effects on consumers. Based on the result of the current research, managers in Pakistan can also design strategies to successfully collaborate with foreign organisations especially those from developed countries (in case of Automobiles - Japan and Germany). This can earn them the benefits of the COO image and increase their market share. Also, Pakistani retailers can use the conclusions of the current research in order to understand and manage the negative effects of the COO image.

Contribution 3: Addressing the Gap in the COO Research with reference to the Comparison of the Effect of the COO Image on both Low and High Consumer Product Involvement

As most of the existing research has studied the COO image either on high involvement product level or on low involvement product level, the current study contributed to the field of the COO image research by drawing comparisons of the effects of the COO image on low and high involvement product levels. The research has added insights on the COO research literature both at national and international levels. Furthermore, previous research is based on measuring the effects of COO image in terms of country's economic development level or in a certain product category on either consumer perception of low or high involvement product levels. By contrast, the current research has not only examined the effects of the COO image in terms of economic development level and in a certain product category, but it has also included the consumer perception of both low and high product involvement levels. The research offers another significant contribution by adding the developing country's perspective in the existing knowledge-base of COO effects, which is mainly formed in the developed countries.

The findings of the current research that the COOIPC and COOIED have highly significant and positive effects on CPLIP and CPHIP, have strong managerial implications. Marketing managers can use this information to design their operations and promotional campaigns of both low and high involvement more effectively. It can also be helpful for multi-national

corporations who have a presence in both developed and developing countries in order to position their products in the minds of consumers from developing countries, such as Pakistan.

Contribution 4: Addressing the Gap of the COO research by providing Affective Perspective of the COO Effects with reference to the Consumer Ethnocentrism

The COO image research has mostly been focused on consumers' cognitive aspects of the COO image such as their beliefs of a country's level of industrialisation, economic development, technological advancement, living standards and so forth, and their influences on consumers' evaluations of product quality (Wang *et al.*, 2012). Another gap in the existing research was the scarcity of research studying the moderating effects of the consumer ethnocentrism with reference to the relationship of the COO image and the consumers' involvement levels. The current research has contributed towards filling this gap. The current research contributed towards the mainstream COO image research by offering an analysis of the affective dimension of the COO image, (such as negative or positive) when buying imported/foreign products, and the degree of like/dislike of buying products from other countries (ethnocentrism) with reference to low and high involvement product categories. The developing countries' perspective, especially with reference to Pakistan, was not well researched. The current research fills this theoretical gap by offering an insight to the Pakistani consumers' beliefs, behaviour and decision making with respect to the COO image.

Contribution 5: Addressing the Gap in the COO research with reference to the Consumer Intention to Adopt

Most of the existing research measuring consumer intention to adopt has been conducted with reference to the automobile industry and focused only on the developed countries (Lieven *et al.*, 2011, Tang *et al.*, 2011) with a little focus on the developing countries (Peters *et al.*, 2011). The current research has drawn a comparison between low involvement and high involvement product categories in Pakistan, with reference to the moderating effects of consumer intention to adopt. Findings of the current research showed that the COO image is such a strong cue that it can even manipulate consumers' intention to adopt – early or delayed, regardless of the product category and consumer product involvement level. These results have significant contribution towards the existing body of research related to COO image, consumer adoption and consumer innovation.

Existing research found that 80% of the world's consumers live in developing countries, however, the research related to their behaviour is insufficient (O'Neill *et al.*, 2011; Jiménez and Martín, 2012). Thus the current research is of enormous importance due to its implications for marketing and consumer behaviour knowledge. The findings of current research have important implications for theory and practice. From a theoretical perspective, results of the current research has highlighted the powerful impact of the COO image cue on Pakistani consumers' behaviour, no matter what is their level of product involvement. This notion opens up vast avenues for future research. This impact is so strong that it works even in the absence of consumer intention to adopt (in terms of innovativeness) and presence of consumer ethnocentrism. More importantly, the current research highlighted the distinct effects of micro (in a product category) and macro (level of economic development) level of COO image. From a managerial perspective, the current research provided marketing

practitioners with empirically-based findings that could be helpful for incorporating the COO image cue in their brand and marketing communications. As researchers such as Papadopoulos *et al*. (2011) found, many brand owners in various product categories highlight the COO image of the product in their product packaging, advertising and promotional displays etc. Especially, the current research discussed how to (or not to) promote a product's COO in marketing communications and address the consequences of matching (mismatching) of the later with the underlying country image.

6.2. Limitations of the Current Research and Suggestions for Future Research

Despite adding new avenues to the well-researched COO effects, this research has some limitations that future research may address. First, the current research has analysed consumers' perceptions and behaviours related to the effects of the COO image on their product involvement in a given period of time. However, it would be highly effective to conduct a longitudinal study over a period of years to see how these consumer perceptions and behaviours would be changing.

Second, the current research framework used the COO image in terms of product category and the COO image in terms of economic development, as independent variables, and measured their effects on low and high consumer product involvement, keeping in view of the moderating effects of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer intention to adopt. Though these variables were selected keeping in view of the focus of the research, however, it can be

suggested that in order to further understand the complexity of this phenomenon, it is important to study the COO image from a variety of different perspectives including investigating the relevance of the COO and psycho-sociological constructs in new social settings. Also to gauge whether consumer perceptions and buying behaviour are determined by analytical perspectives of the COO image using concepts related to marketing, sociology and psychology to enrich the perspective of emerging markets and their consumer behaviour.

Furthermore, the current study focused on the effects of the COO image (in a product category and in terms of economic development) on consumer product involvement (low and high) and the moderating roles of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer intention to adopt (in terms of innovativeness) were assessed. There could be several other factors such as: consumer expertise, consumers' cultural orientation, price, store image, brand equity etc which can moderate the effects of the COO image on consumer product involvement. Another avenue for the further research could be to investigate the moderating role of these factors. Also, the findings of the current research related to the role of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer intention to adopt, COO image and consumer product involvement, can provide adequate basis for future research in emotional branding.

Thirdly, the current study has employed a single industry in each low and high product category, where it focused on Pakistani consumers' evaluations of cold drinks and automobiles. In future it would be interesting yet challenging to conduct and apply this study on a diverse category of products to analyse the association between the COO image and

consumer product involvement with products at various consumer involvement levels such as: low involvement, medium involvement, high involvement.

Fourthly, the current research employed University teachers as the sample of the study, due to the security situation of the country (lack of consumers' willingness to talk to strangers). This sampling approach helped to minimise the influence of various confounding variables, and allowed the comparison of relationships among all the variables across controlled demographic characteristics, but the findings may not be generalised to the overall population of Pakistan. To generalise the results of this study, it would be desirable to conduct further research with a variety of respondent groups.

Finally, the study was conducted in a single country (Pakistan). Hence, the results of the study should be treated with caution when extrapolating to other countries. There is a need to replicate the current research in different countries and empirical settings in order to compare the results, and arrive at new conclusions, that can contribute to the field of the COO image research. For example, by using the same framework, selecting the sample of consumers from developed countries, and comparing the results with the current research may enlighten new avenues of research conclusions.

The current research concluded that the COO image of products from developing countries have negative influence on the consumer perceptions and purchase intentions. Further research is needed to ascertain how to reduce these negative influences. Furthermore, consumers generally relate a well-known brand from a specific country to the expertise of that

country. For example German Automobile brands such as Mercedes and BMW have strong associations with the country's reputation for car manufacturing. It opens new venues for interesting research, that does the COO image supports the brand, or does the brand image support the country? For example, which come first, German cars (brands such as VW, Mercedes, Audi, Porche), or German reputation for the production of cars? Other countries can also capitalise on their product related advantages and come up with strong brands. For example, Turkey may develop strong reputation for Carpets due to its high capabilities but lack a focus and relevant skills to use these capabilities into well-known and strong brands (Diamantopoulos *et al*., 2011).

REFERENCE

Aaker, J. (2006) 'Delineating Culture', *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 16(4), pp. 343-347.

Abraham, V. (2013) 'Does Consumer Animosity Impact Purchase Involvement? An Empirical Investigation', *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, Vol. 4(1), pp.1-11.

Achelis, S. B. (2001) Technical Analysis from A to Z, New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Professional.

Agarwal, S. and Sikri, S. (1996) 'Country Image: Consumer Evaluation of Product Category Extensions', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 13(4), pp.23-37.

Aggarwal, P. (2004) 'The Effects of Brand Relationship Norms on Consumer Attitudes and Behavior', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 31(1) pp. 87-101.

Ahmed, S.A. and D'Astous, A. (1995) 'Multidimensional Country of Origin Effects on Product Evaluations: A Study in Morocco', *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, Vol. 5(3), pp. 32-45.

Ahmed SA, D'Astous A. (1996) 'Country of Origin and Brand Effects: A Multi-Dimensional and Multi-Attribute Study', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 9(2), pp. 93-115.

Ahmed, S.A. and d'Astous, A. (2002) 'South East Asian Consumer Perceptions of Countries of Origin', *Journal of Asia Pacific Marketing*, Vol. 1(1), pp. 19-41.

Ahmed, S.A. and D'Astous, A. (2003) ''Product-Country Images in the Context of NAFTA: A Canada-Mexico study'', *Journal of Global Marketing*, Vol. 17(1), pp. 23-43.

Ahmed, S.A. and D'Astous, A. (2004) 'Perceptions of Countries as Producers of Consumer Goods – A T-shirt Study in China', *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, Vol. 8(2), pp. 187-200.

Ahmed, S.A. and D'Astous, A. (2007) 'Moderating Effect of Nationality on Country of Origin Perceptions: English-speaking Thailand versus French speaking Canada', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 60(2), pp. 240-248.

Ahmed, S.A. and D'Astous, A. (2008) 'Antecendents, Moderators and Dimensions of Country of Origin Evaluations', *Journal of International Marketing Review*, Vol. 25(1), pp. 75-106.

Ahmed, Z. U., Johnson, J. P., Ling, C. P., Fang, T. W., and Hui, A. K. (2002) 'Country-of-Origin and Brand Effects on Consumers' Evaluation of Cruise Lines', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 19(3), pp. 279-302.

Ahmed, Z.U., Johnson, J.P., Xia, Y., Chen, K.F., Teng, H.S. and Boon, L.C. (2004) 'Does Country-of-Origin matter for Low Involvement Products?', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 21(1), pp. 102-120.

Aichner, T. (2014) 'Country-of-Origin Marketing: A List of Typical Strategies with Examples', *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 21(1), pp. 81-93.

Alba, J.W., Hutchinson, J.W. (1987) 'Dimensions of Consumer Expertise', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 13(4), pp.441-454.

Algesheimer, R. and Dholakia, U.M. (2005) 'The Social Influence of Brand Community: Evidence from European Car Clubs', *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 69(3), pp. 19-34.

Anderson, P. H. and Chao, P. (2003) ''COO Effects in Global Industrial Sourcing: Toward an Integrated Framework'', *Management International Review*, Vol. 43(4), pp. 339-60.

Anderson, D.R., Sweeney, D.J., Williams, T.A. and Williams, T. A. (2009) *Statistics for Business and Economics*, Cengage Learning.

Andrew, D.P.S., Pedersen, P.M. and McEvoy, C.D. (2011) *Research Methods and Design in Sport Management*, Human Kinetics.

Agrawal J., and Kamakura, W.A. (1999) 'Country of Origin: A Competitive Advantage', *International Journal of Research in Marketing,* Vol. 16(4), pp. 255–267.

Agarwal, S. and Sikri, S. (1996) 'Country Image: Consumer Evaluation of Product Category Extensions', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 13(4), pp.23-37.

Ahmed S.A., and D'Astous A. (1996) 'Country of Origin and Brand Effects: A Multi-dimensional and Multi-attribute Study', *International Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 9(2), pp.93-115.

Ahmed, S.A. and D'Astous, A. (2004) 'Perceptions of Countries as Producers of Consumer Goods – A T-shirt Study in China', *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, Vol. 8(2), pp. 187-200.

Ahmed, S.A. and D'Atous, A. (2008) ''Antecedents, Moderators and Dimensions of Country-of-Origin Evaluations'', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 25(1), pp. 75-106.

Ahmed, Z.U., Johnson, J.P., Ling, C.P., Fang, T.W. and Hui, A.K. (2002) 'Country-of-Origin and Brand Effects on Consumers' Evaluation of Cruise Lines', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 19(3), pp. 279-302.

Ahmed, Z.A., Johnson, J.P., Yang, X., Fatt, C.K., Teng, H.S. and Boon, L.C. (2004) ''Does Country of Origin Matter for Low-involvement Products'', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 21(1), pp. 102-120.

Alvarez, J.A. (2010) *The Influence on Consumer Behavior by Country Equity and Country of Origin*, Associated Content, [Online], Available at: www.associatedcontent.com

Amine, L.S. (2008) 'Country-of-Origin, Animosity and Consumer Response: Marketing Implications of Anti-Americanism and Francophobia', *International Business Review*, Vol. 17(4), pp. 402–422.

Amine, L.S., Chao, M. and Arnold, M. (2005) 'Exploring the Practical Effects of Country of Origin, Animosity, and Price-Quality Issues: Two Case Studies of Taiwan and Acer in China', *Journal of International Marketing*, Vol. 13(2), pp. 114-150.

Amonini C, Keogh J, Sweeney JC. (1998) 'The Dual Nature of Country-of-Origin Effects: A Study of Australian Consumers' Evaluations', *Journal of Australian Marketing,* Vol. 6(2), pp.13–27.

Almonte, J., Falk, C., Skaggs, R. and Cardenas, M. (1995) ''Country-of-origin Bias among High Income Consumers in Mexico: an Empirical Study'', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 8(2), pp. 27-44.

Al-Sulaiti, K. and Baker, M.J. (1998) 'COO Effects: a Literature Review', *Marketing Intelligence and Planning,* Vol. 16(3), pp. 150-199.

Anderson, P. H. and Chao, P. (2003) ''COO Effects in Global Industrial Sourcing: Toward an Integrated Framework'', *Management International Review,* Vol. 43(4), pp. 339-360.

Anderson, D.R., Sweeney, D.J., Williams, T.A. and Williams, T. A. (2009) *Statistics for Business and Economics*, Cengage Learning.

Anholt, S. (2010) *Places: Identity, Image and Reputation*, New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Archer, M., Bhaskar, R., Collier, A., Lawson, T. And Norrie, A. (2004) *Critical Realism: Essential Reading*, Routledge: London.

Ashill, N.J. and Sinha, A. (2004) 'An Exploratory Study into the Impact of Components of Brand Equity and Country-of-Origin Effects on Purchase Intention', *Journal of Asia-Pacific Business*, Vol. 5(3), pp. 27-43.

Askegaard, S. and Ger, G. (1998) 'Product-Country Images: Toward A Contextualized Approach', *European Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 31(3), pp. 37-53.

Athar, M.K. (2006) *Automotive Component and Associated Products*, Free Virtual Catalogue Show: Karachi, pp. 22-24.

Baek, T.H., Kim, J. and Yu, J.H. (2010) 'The Differential Roles of Brand Credibility and Brand Prestige in Consumer Brand Choice', *Psychology and Marketing*, Vol. 27(7), pp. 662-678.

Bailey, W. and Gutierrez De Pineres, S.A. (1997) ''COO Attitudes in Mexico: The Malinchismo Effect'', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 9(3), pp. 25-41.

Baker, M. and Ballington, L. (2002) 'Country of Origin as A Source of Competitive Advantage', *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, Vol. 10(2), pp. 157-168.

Balabanis, G., Diamantopoulos, A., Mueller, R.D. and Melewar, T.C. (2001) 'The Impact of Nationalism, Patriotism and Internationalism on Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 32(1), pp. 157-175.

Balabanis, G. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2004) 'Domestic Country Bias, COO Effect and Consumer Ethnocentrism', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 32(1), pp. 80-91.

Balabanis, G. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2008) ''Brand Origin Identification by Consumers: A Classification Perspective'', *Journal of International Marketing*, Vol. 16(1), pp. 39-71.

Balabanis, G. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2011) 'Gains and Losses from the Misperception of Brand Origin: The Role of Brand Strength and COO', *Journal of International Marketing*, Vol. 19(2), pp. 95-116.

Balabanis, G., Mueller, R. and Melewar, T.C., (2002) 'The Human Values' Lenses of Country of Origin Images', *Journal International Marketing Review*, Vol. 19(6), pp.582-610.

Balabanis, G. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2008) 'Brand Origin Identification by Consumers: A Classification Perspective', *Journal of International Marketing*, Vol. 16(1), pp. 39-71.

Bandyopadhyay, S., and Banerjee, B. (2002) 'A Country of Origin Analysis of Foreign Brands by Indian Consumers', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 15(2), pp. 85–104.

Baron, R.M. and Kenny, D.A. (1986) 'The Moderator-Mediator Variable Distinction in Social Psychological Research: Conceptual, Strategic and Statistical Considerations', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 51(6), pp. 1173-1182.

Bashir, S., Zeeshan, M., Sabbar, H.A.M., Hussain, R.I. and Sarki, I.H. (2013) 'Impact of Cultural Values and Life Style on Impulse Buying Behavior: A Case Study of Pakistan', *International Review of Management and Business Research,* Vol. 2(1), pp. 193-200.

Batra, R., Ramaswamy, V., Alden, D.L., Steenkamp, J.B.E.M. and Ramachander, S. (2000) 'Effects of Brand Local and Nonlocal Origin on Consumer Attitudes in Developing Countries', *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 9(2), pp. 83-95.

Bearden, W.O., Netemeyer, R.G. and Teel, J.E. (1989) 'Measurement of Consumer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 15(4), pp. 473-479.

Beharrell, B. and Denison, T.J., (1995) 'Involvement in A Routine Food Shopping Context', *British Food Journal*, Vol. 97(4), pp. 24-29.

Belch, G.E. and Belch, M. A. (1995) *Introduction to Advertising and Promotion: An Integrated Marketing Communications Perspective in*, 3rd edition, Boston: Irwin.

Berg, K.E. and Latin, R.W. (2007) *Essentials of Research Methods in Health, Physical Education, Exercise Science, and Recreation in*, 3rd edition, Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott Williams and Wilkins.

Beverland, M., Napoli, J. and Lindgreen, A. (2007) 'Industrial Global Brand Leadership: A Capabilities View', *Industrial Marketing Management*, Vol. 36(8), pp.1082-1093.

Bhambri, P. (2013) 'Indian Consumers' Perceptions of Country of Origin on Organisational capabilities', *Journal of Research in Marketing*, Vol. 1(2), pp. 50-54.

Bhaskar, R. (1975) *A Realist Theory of Science*, Leeds Books.

Bhaskar, R. (1989) *Reclaiming Reality*, Verso London.

Bhaskaran S, and Sukumaran N. (2007) 'National Culture, Business Culture and Management Practices: Consequential Relationships', *Cross-Cultural Management*, Vol. 14(1), pp.54–67.

Bilkey, W.J. and Nes, E. (1982) 'Country of origins Effects on Product Evaluations', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 13(1), pp. 89- 99.

Brijs, K., Bloemer, J. and Kasper, H. (2011) 'Country Image Discourse Model: Unravelling Meaning, Structure and Function of Country Images', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 64(12), pp. 1259-1269.

Bloemer J, Brijs K, and Kasper H. (2009) 'The COO-ELM Model: A Theoretical Framework for the Cognitive Processes underlying Country-of-Origin Effects', *European Journal of Marketing*; Vol. 43(1/2), pp.62–89.

Botschen, G., and Hemettsberger, A. (1998) 'Diagnosing Means-end Structures to Determine The Degree of Potential Marketing Program Standardisation', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 42(2), pp. 151-159.

Boyd, T.C., and Mason, C.H. (1999) 'The Link Between Attractiveness of 'Extrabrand' Attributes and The Adoption of Innovations', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 27(3), pp. 306-319.

Bredahl, L. (2004) ''Cue Utilisation and Quality Perception with Regard to Branded Beef'', *Food Quality and Preference*, Vol. 15(1), pp. 65-75.

Brodowsky, G. H., Tan, J. and Meilich, O. (2004) 'Managing Country-of-Origin Choices: Competitive Advantages and Opportunities', *International Business Review*, Vol. 13(6), pp.729-748.

Brown, U. and O'Cass, A. (2006) 'Foreign Wine Consumption in Australia: The Influence of Consumer Perceptions to Foreign Cultures on Wine Choice', *Journal of Food Marketing Products*, Vol. 12(2), pp. 15-26.

Bruning, E.R. (1997) 'COO, National Loyalty and Product Choice: The Case of International Air Travel', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 14(1), pp.59-74.

Bruwer, J. and Buller, C. (2012) 'Country-of-Origin (COO) Brand Preferences and Associated Knowledge Levels of Japanese Wine Consumers', *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol. 21(5), pp. 307 – 316.

Bryman, A.(2008) *Social Research Methods*, Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2007) *Business Research Methods in*, 2nd edition, New York, NY: Oxford University Press Inc.

Buehlmann, U., Bumgardner, M., Lihra, T. and Frye, M. (2006) ''Attitudes of US Retailers toward China, Canada, and The United States as Manufacturing Sources for Furniture: An Assessment of Competitive Priorities'', *Journal of Global Marketing*, Vol. 20(1), pp. 61-73.

Burns, A.C. and Bush, R.F. (2006) *Marketing Research in*, 5th edition, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Butt, I., Javed, M., Khan, Z.A., Salman, Z., Chaudhry, I. and Siddiqui, M. (2012) 'Country-Specific Trust as a Barrier to E-Shopping Adoption A Developing Country Perspective', *International Conference on Excellence in Business,* Sharjah, United Arab Emirates (9th and 10th May)

Calmorin, L.P. and Calmorin, M.A. (2008) *Research Methods and Thesis Writing in*, 2nd edition, Quezon, Philippine : Rex Printing Company Inc.

Cervino, J., Sanchez, J. and Cubillo, J.M. (2005) ''Made in Effect, Competitive Marketing Strategy and Brand Performance: An Empirical Analysis for Spanish Brands'', *Journal of American Academy of Business*, Vol. 6(2), pp. 237-43.

Chakraborty G., Allred G. T., and Bristol T., (1996) 'Exploring Consumers' Evaluation of Counterfeits: The Roles of Country-of-origin and Ethnocentrism'. *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 23(1), pp. 379-384.

Chao, P. (1993) 'Partitioning Country of origin Effects: Consumer Evaluations of a Hybrid Product', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 24(2), pp. 291-306.

Chao, P. (1998) 'Impact of Country-of-origin Dimensions on Product Quality and Design Quality Perceptions', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 42(1), pp. 1-6.

Chao, P. (2001) 'The Moderating Effects of Country of Assembly, Country of Parts, and Country of Design on Hybrid Product Evaluation', *Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 30(4), pp. 67-81.

Chao, P. and Rajendran, K. N. (1993) 'Consumer Profiles and Perceptions: Country-of-origin Effects', *International Marketing Review,* Vol. 10(2), pp. 22-39.

Chao, P. and Wührer, G. (2005) 'Celebrity and Foreign Brand Name as Moderators of Country-of-origin Effects', *International Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 24(2), pp. 173-192.

Chattalas, M., Kramer, T. and Takada, H. (2008) 'The Impact of National Stereotypes on the Country of Origin Effect: A Conceptual Framework', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 25(1), pp. 54-74.

Chattopadhyay, T., Shivani, S., Krishnan, M. and Pillania, R.K. (2009) 'Consumer Imperfection in Observation – Is it A Boon for Manufacturers? The Case of India's Automobile Sector', *International Journal of Electric and Hybrid Vehicles*, Vol. 2(1), pp. 1-17.

Chau, P.Y.K. and Hui, K.L. (1998) 'Identifying Early Adopters of New IT Products: A Case of Windows 95', *Information and Management*, Vol. 33(5), pp. 225-230.

Chen, H. (2004) 'Testing the Role of Country of Origin in Consumer Adoption of New Products', *International Advances in Economics Research*, Vol. 10(3), pp. 245-56.

Chen H. (2009) 'Effects of Country Variables on Young Generation's Attitude towards American Products: A Multi-attribute Perspective', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 26(3), pp. 143–154.

Chinen, K. and Sun, Y. (2011) 'Effects of Country-of-origin on Buying Behaviour: A Study of the Attributes of United States Consumers to Chinese-brand Automobiles', *International Journal of Management*, Vol. 28(2), pp. 553-63.

Chinen, K., Jun, M. and Hampton, G.M. (2000) 'Product Quality, Market Presence, and Buying Behavior: Aggregate Images of Foreign Product in the US', *Multinational Business Review*, Vol. 8(1), pp. 29-38.

Ching, A., Erdem, T.U. and Keane, M. (2009) 'The Price Consideration Model of Brand Choice', *Journal of Applied Econometrics*, Vol. 24(3), pp. 393-420.

Chowdhury, H. K. (2009) 'An Examination of Effects of Partitioned Country of Origin on Consumer Product Quality Perceptions' *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, Vol. 33(4), pp. 496-502.

Chowdhury, H.K. and Biswas, K. (2011) 'The Effects of Country Associations and Price on Consumer Quality Perceptions: A Cognitive Information Processing Perspective', *International Journal of Management*, Vol. 28(1-part 1), pp. 111-126.

Chryssochoidis, G., Krystallis, A. and Perreas, P. (2007) ''Ethnocentric Beliefs and Country-of-origin (COO) Effect: Impact of Country, Product and Product Attributes on Greek Consumers' Evaluation of Food Products'', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 41(11/12), pp. 1518-544.

Chu, P.Y., Chang, C.C., Chen, C.Y. and Wang, T.Y. (2010) 'Countering Negative Country of Origin Effects: The Role of Evaluation Mode', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 44(7/8), pp. 1055-1076.

Chuin, T. P. and Mohamad, O. (2012)'Young Malaysians' Chocolate Brand Familiarity: The Effect of Brand's Country of Origin and Consumer Consumption Level', *Business Strategy Series*, Vol. 13(1), pp. 13 – 20.

Chung, J., Pysarchik, T.D., and Hwang, S. (2009) 'Effects of Country of Manufacture and Brand Image on Korean Consumers' Purchase Intention', *Journal of Global Marketing*, Vol. 22(1), pp. 21-41.

CIA world Factbook: Pakistan (2014) [Online], Available at: www.worldfactbook.com, visited on 20th Feb, 2014.

Claret, A., Guerrero, L., Aguirre, E., Rincón, L., Hernández, M.D., Martínez, I., Peleteiro, J.B., Grau, A. and Rodríguez-Rodríguez, C. (2012) 'Consumer Preferences for Sea Fish using Conjoint Analysis: Exploratory Study of The Importance of Country of Origin, Obtaining Method, Storage Conditions and Purchasing Price', *Journal of Food Quality and Preference*, Vol. 26(2), pp. 259–266.

Cleveland, M., Laroche, M., and Papadopoulos, N. (2009) 'Cosmopolitanism, Consumer Ethnocentrism, and Materialism: An Eight-Country Study of Antecedents and Outcomes', *Journal of International Marketing*, Vol. 17(1), pp. 116–146.

Cody, R. (2008) *Cody's Data Cleaning Techniques Using SAS*, SAS Publishing.

Cordell, V. V. (1992) 'Effects of Consumer Preferences for Foreign-Sourced Products', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 23(2), pp. 251- 270.

Cordell, V.V. (1993) 'Interaction Effects of COO with Branding, Price and Perceived Performance Risk', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 5(2), pp.5-18.

Creswell, J.W. (1994) *Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J.W (2002) *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches to Research*, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Pearson Education.

Creswell, J.W. (2003) *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Method Approaches*, London: Sage.

Creswell, J.W. (2005) *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*, Merrill.

Creswell, J.W. (2007) *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing among the Five Approaches*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crowther, D. and Lancaster, G. (2008) *Research Methods: A Concise Introduction to Research in Management and Business Consultancy,* Butterworth-Heinemann.

Darling, J.R. and Wood, V.R. (1990) 'A Longitudinal Analysis of the Competitive Profile and Associated Marketing Practices of Selected European and Non-European Countries', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 21(3), pp. 18- 29.

D'Alessandro and Pecotich, A. (2013) 'Evaluation of Wine by Expert and Novice Consumers in the Presence of Variations in Quality, Brand and Country of Origin Cues', *Food Quality and Preference*, Vol.28(1), pp. 287-303.

D'Astous, A. and Ahmed, S.A. (1992) 'Multi-cue Evaluation of Made-in Concept: A Conjoint-Analysis Study in Belgium', *Journal of Euro-marketing*, Vol. 2(1), pp. 9- 31.

Daga, N. (2007) 'Nokia's Marketing Strategies in India', [Online], Available at: www.edissertations.nottingham.ac.uk, visited on 9th August, 2009.

Dawar, N., and Parker, P. (1994) 'Marketing Universals: Consumers' Evaluations Use of Brand Name, Price, Physical appearance and Retailer Reputation as Signals of Product Quality', *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 58(2), pp. 81-95.

De Chernatony, L. and McDonald, M. (2003) *Creating Powerful Brands in*, 3rd edition, Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

De Mooij, M. and Hofstede, G. (2010) 'The Hofstede Model – Applications to Global Branding and Advertising Strategy and Research', *International Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 29(1), pp.85-110.

De Wulf, K., Odekerken-Schr-der, G., Goedertier, F. and Van Ossel, G. (2005) 'Consumer Perceptions of Store Brands Versus National Brands', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 22(4), pp. 223-32.

Dekhili, S. and D'Hauteville, F. (2009) 'Effect of the Region of Origin on the Perceived Quality of Olive Oil: An Experimental Approach using a Control Group', *Food Quality and Preference*, Vol. 20(7), pp.525–532.

Delener, N. and Neelankavil, J.P. (1990) 'Informational Sources and Media Usage: A Comparison between Asian and Hispanic Subcultures', *Journal of Advertising Research*, Vol. 30(3), pp. 45-52.

Demirbag, M., Sahadev, S. and Mellahi, K. (2010) 'Country Image and Consumer Preference for Emerging Economy Products: The Moderating Role of Consumer Materialism', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 27(2), pp. 141-63.

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (2005) 'Introduction: The Discipline and Practice of Qualitative Research', in *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research in*, 3rd edition, Thousand Oaks, Sage.

Diamantopoulos, A., and Zeugner-Roth, K. P. (2010) 'Country-of-Origin as Brand Element', in Bello, D.C. and Griffith, D. A.(ed.) *Wiley international Encyclopaedia of Marketing in*, Vol. 6,   John Wiley and Sons.

Diamantopoulos, A., Schlegelmilch, B. and Palihawadana, D. (2011)'The Relationship between Country-of-Origin Image and Brand Image as Drivers of Purchase Intentions: A Test of Alternative Perspectives', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 28(5), pp. 508 – 524.

Dickerson, M.D. and Gentry, J.W. (1983) 'Characteristics of Adopters and Non-Adopters of Home Computers', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 10(2), pp.225-235.

Dills, C. R., and Romiszowski, A. J. (1997) 'The Instructional Development Paradigm: An Introduction', in C. R. Dills, and A. J. Romiszowski (ed.) *Instructional Development Paradigms*, Englewood, NJ: Educational Technology Publications, Inc.

Dinnie, K., Melewar, T.C., Seidenfuss, K.-U. and Musa, G. (2010) 'Nation Branding and Integrated Marketing Communications: An ASEAN Perspective', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 27(4), pp. 388-403.

Engel, R.J. and Schutt, R.K. (2005) *The Practice of Research in Social Work in*, 1st volume, London: SAGE.

Engel, J.F., Blackwell, R.D. and Miniard, P.W. (1993) *Consumer Behaviour*, Fort Worth, TX: The Dryden Press.

Erickson, G.M., Johansson, J.K. and Chao, P. (1984) 'Image Variables in Multi-Attribute Product Evaluation: Country of Origin Effect', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 11(1), pp. 694-699.

Eroglu, S.A. and Machleit, K.A. (1988) 'Effects of Individual and Product-Specific Variables on Utilising Country of Origin as A Product Quality Cue', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 6(6), pp. 27-41.

Ettenson, R. (1993) 'Brand Name and Country of Origin Effects in the Emerging Market Economies of Russia, Poland and Hungary', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 10(5), pp. 14- 36.

Ettenson, R. and Mathur, S.K. (1995) 'A Conjoint Analysis of Chinese Consumer's Decision Making for Hybrid (Bi-national) Products', *Asian Journal of Marketing*, December, pp. 37-46.

Ettenson, R. and Gaeth, G. (1991) 'Consumer Perceptions of Hybrid (Bi-national) Products', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 8(4), pp. 13- 18.

Ettenson, R., and Klein J.G. (2005) 'The Fallout from French Nuclear Testing in the South Pacific' *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 22(2), pp. 199-224.

Evanschitzky, H., Wangenheim, F.V., Woisetschlager, D. and Blut, M. (2008) 'Consumer Ethnocentrism in the German Market', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 25(1), pp. 7-32.

Fetscherin M, Toncar M. (2010) 'The Effects of the Country of Brand and the Country of Manufacturing of Automobiles: An Experimental Study of Consumers' Brand Personality Perceptions', *Journal of International Marketing Review*, Vol. 27(2), pp.164–78.

Fishbein, M. and Ajzen, I. (1975) *Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research*, Reading, MA: AddisonWisley.

Fiske, S. and Taylor, S. (1991) *Social Cognition in*, 2nd edition, New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Fournier, S. (1998) 'Consumers and Their Brands: Developing Relationship Theory in Consumer Research', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 24(4), pp.343-373.

Foxall, G. R. (1995) 'Cognitive Styles of Consumer Initiators', *Technovation*, Vol. 15(5), pp. 269-288.

Friedman, M.L. and Smith, L. (1993) 'Consumer Evaluation Process in A Service Setting', *Journal of Service Marketing*, Vol. 7(2), pp. 47-61.

Gaedeke, R. (1973) 'Consumer Attitudes toward Products 'Made in' Developing Countries', *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 49(2), pp. 13-24.

Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R., and Gall, J. P. (1996) *Educational Research: An Introduction in*, 6th edition, White Plains, NY: Longman.

Gao, H. and Knight, J. (2007) 'Pioneering Advantage and Product-Country Image: Evidence from An Exploratory Study in China', *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 23(3/4), pp. 367-385.

Gatignon, H. and Robertson, T. S. (1991) 'Innovative Decision Processes', In T. S. Robertson and H. H. Kassarjian (ed.) *Handbook of consumer behaviour*, pp. 316-348, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Ger, G. (1991) 'Country Image: Perceptions, Attitudes, Associations, and Their Relationships to Context', Dholakia, R.R and Bothra, K.C. (ed.) *Proceedings of the Third International Conference on Marketing and Development*, New Delhi, India, pp. 390-398.

Ghazali, M., Othman, M.S., Yahya, A.Z. and Ibrahim, M.S. (2008), 'Products and Country of Origin Effects: The Malaysian Consumers' Perception', *International Review of Business Research papers*, Vol. 4(2), pp. 91-102.

Gill, J. And Johnson, P. (1997) *Research Methods for Managers in*, 2nd edition, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Glaser, B. and Strauss, A. (1967) The Discovery of Grounded Theory, Chicago, IL: Aldine.

Gratton, C. and Jones, I. (2010) Research Methods for Sports Studies, Taylor and Francis.

Gobe, M. (2001) Emotional Branding: A New Paradigm for Connecting Brands to People, New York, NY: Allworth Press.

Godey, B., Pederzoli, D., Aiello,G., Donvito, R., Chan, P., Oh, H., Singh, R., Skorobagatykh, I.I., Tsuchiya, J. and Weitz, B. (2012) 'Brand and Country-of-Origin on Consumers' Decision to Purchase Luxury Products', Journal of Business Research, Vol. 65(10), pp. 1461-1470.

Goldsmith, R.E. and Emmert, J. (1991) 'Measuring Product Category Involvement: A Multitrait-multimethod Study', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 23(4), pp. 363-371.

Goldsmith, R.E., Hofacker, C.F. (1991) 'Measuring Consumer Innovativeness', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 18(3), pp. 209-221.

Goldsmith, R. E., Freiden, J. B. and Eastman, J.K. (1995) ''The Generality/Specificity Issue in Consumer Innovativeness Research', *Technovation*, Vol. 15(10), pp. 601-611.

Granzin, K. L., and Olsen, J. E. (1998) 'Americans' Choice of Domestic Over Foreign Products: A Matter of Helping Behaviour?', *Journal of Business*, Vol. 43(1), pp. 39-54.

Guba EG and Lincoln YS (1994) 'Competing Paradigms in Qualitative Research: Ch 6' In: Denzin and Lincoln (1994) *Handbook of Qualitative Research,* USA: Sage Publishers.

Guercini, S. and Ranfagni, S. (2013) 'Integrating Country-of-Origin Image and Brand Image in Corporate Rebranding: The Case of China', *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, Vol. 31(5), pp.508-521.

Guidry, J.A., Babin, B.J., Graziano, G.W. and Schneider, W.J. (2009) 'Pride and Prejudice in the Evaluation of Wine?', *International Journal of Wine Business Research*, Vol. 21(4), pp. 298-311.

Gulati, P.M. (2009) *Research Management: Fundamental and Applied Research,* New Dehli: Global India Publications.

Gurhan-Canli, Z. and Maheswaran, D. (2000) 'Determinants of Country-of-Origin Evaluations', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 27(1), pp. 96-108.

Hamin, G.E. and Elliott G. (2006) 'A Less-developed Country Perspective of Consumer Ethnocentrism and ''COO'' Effects: Indonesian Evidence', *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, Vol. 18(2), pp. 79-92.

Hamin, H., Baumann, C. and Tung, R. L. (2014) 'Attenuating Double Jeopardy of Negative Country-of-Origin Effects and Latecomer Brand: An Application Study of Ethnocentrism in Emerging Markets', *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistic*, Vol. 26(1), pp. 54-77.

Hamazaoui-Essoussi, L., and Merunka, D. (2006) 'The Impact of Country of Design and Country of Manufacture on Consumer Perceptions of Bi-national Products' Quality: An Empirical Model based on the Concept of Fit', *The Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 23(3), pp.145–155.

Hamazaoui-Essoussi L, and Merunka D. (2007) 'Consumers' Product Evaluations in Emerging Markets Does Country of Design, Country of Manufacture, or Brand Image Matter?' *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 24(4), pp. 409–426.

Hamazaoui-Essoussi, L., Merunka, D. and Bartikowski, B. (2011) 'Brand Origin and Country of Manufacture Influences on Brand Equity and The Moderating Role of Brand Typicality', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 64(9), pp.973-978

Han, C.M. (1988) 'The Role of Consumer Patriotism in the Choice of Domestic versus Foreign Products', *Journal of Advertising Research*, Vol. 28(3), pp. 25- 32.

Han, C. M. (1989) 'Country Image: Halo or Summary Construct?', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 26(2), pp. 222-229.

Han, C.M. and Terpstra, V. (1988) 'Country-of-Origin for Uni-National Products', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 19(2), pp. 235-255.

Han, H.T. (2010) 'The Investigation of Country of Origin Effect- Using Taiwanese Consumers' Perceptions of Luxury Handbags as Example,' *Journal of American Academy of Business*, Vol. 15(2), pp. 66-72.

Hannerz, U. (1990) 'Cosmopolitans and locals in world culture', *Theory, Culture and Society*, Vol. 7(2), pp.237−251.

HEC Faculty Statistics Report, [Online], Available at: www.hec.gov.pk visited on 16th March, 2011.

HEC, Statistical Information Unit , [Online], Available at: www.hec.gov.pk visited on 17th March, 2011.

Henderson, S. (2010) 'The Ethnicity Impact on Attitude toward Country of Origin for Products with Different Involvement Levels', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 22(3), pp. 271-291.

Hennebichler, P. (2007) 'Country of Origin Knowledge: Insights into Consumers' Knowledge', In Saarbrücken, V.D.M., Verlag, Dr. M., Hoffmann, S., Mai, R., and Smirnova, M. (2011) 'Development and Validation of a Cross-Nationally Stable Scale of Consumer Animosity', *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, Vol. 19(2), pp. 235−251.

Hennessy, H. and Tol, R.S.J. (2011) 'The Impact of Tax Reform on New Car Purchases in Ireland', *Energy Policy*, Vol. 37(12), pp. 5184-5191.

Henning E, Van Rensburg W. and Smit B. (2004) 'Theoretical Frameworks. Ch 2' In: Henning E, Van Rensburg W. and Smit B. (2004) *Finding your Way in Qualitative Research,* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Henry, P. (2006) 'Consumption, Culture and Consumers Life Choices in Australia', *Qualitative Market Research, An International Journal*, Vol. 9(2), pp. 111-192.

Herz, M.F. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2012) 'Activation of Country Stereotypes: Automaticity, Consonance and Impact', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Sciences*, Vol. 41(4), pp. 400-417.

Heslop, L., Papadopoulos, N. and Burke, M. (1998) 'An Interregional and Intercultural Perspective on Subculture Differences in Product Evaluation', *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, Vol. 15(2), pp. 113-127.

Heslop, L.A., Lu, I.R. and Cray, D. (2008) 'Modelling Country Image Effects through An International Crisis', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 25(4), pp. 354-378.

Heslop, L.A., Nadeu, J. and O'Reilly, N. (2010) 'China and the Olympics: Views of Insiders and Outsiders', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 27(4), pp. 404-433.

Hett, E.J. (1993) 'The Development of An Instrument to Measure Global-Mindedness', *Dissertation Abstracts International*, Vol. 52, p. 2099A.

Hoffmann, S., Mai, R., and Smirnova, M. (2011) 'Development and Validation of a Cross-Nationally Stable Scale of Consumer Animosity', *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, Vol. 19(2), pp. 235–251.

Hofstede, G. (1983) 'The Cultural Relativity of Organizational Practices and Theories', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 14(2), pp. 75-90.

Hofstede, G. (1991) *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*, McGraw-Hill International, New York, NY.

Hofstede, G. (2001) *Culture's Consequences*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.

Hofstede, G. (2014) *National Cultrual Dimensions*, Hofstede Centre, [Online], Available at: www.geert-hofstede.com

Hinton, P.R. (2000) *Stereotypes, Cognition and Culture*. Hove, UK: Psychology Press.

Hirschman, E. C. (1980) 'Innovativeness, Novelty Seeking, and Consumer Creativity', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 7(3), pp. 283-295.

Hirunyawipada, T. and Paswan, A. K. (2006) 'Consumer Innovativeness and Perceived Risk: Implications for High Technology Product Adoption', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 23(4), pp. 182-198

Hong, S. and Wyer, R.S. (1989) 'Effects of Country of Origin and Product-Attribute Information on Product Evaluation: An Information Processing Perspective', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 16(2), pp. 175- 187.

Hong, S.T. and Yi, Y. (1992) 'A Cross-national Comparison of COO Effects on Product Evaluations', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 4(4), pp.49-69.

Hooley, G.J.; Shipley, D. and Krieger N. (1988) 'A Method for Modelling Consumer Perceptions of Country of Origin', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 5(3), pp. 67-76.

Howard, D.L. (1989) 'Understanding How American Consumers Formulate their Attitudes about Foreign Products', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 2(2), pp. 7- 22.

Hu, X., Li, L., Xie, C and Zhou, J. (2008) 'The Effects of Country of Origin on Chinese Consumers' Wine Purchasing Behaviour', *Journal of Technology Management in China*, Vol. 3(3), pp.292-306.

Huang, R. and Sarigollu, E. (2012) 'How Brand Awareness Relates to Market Outcome, Brand Equity, and the Marketing Mix', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 65(1), pp. 92-99.

Huber, J. and McCann, J. (1982) 'The Impact of Inferential Beliefs on Product Evaluations', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 19(3), pp. 324-333.

Huddleston, P., Good, L. K., and Stoel, L. (2001) 'Consumer Ethnocentrism, Product Necessity and Polish Consumers' Perceptions of Quality', *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, Vol. 29(5), pp. 236–246.

Hugstad, P. and Durr, M. (ed.) (1986) *A Study of Country of Manufacturer Impact on Consumer Perceptions*, Coral Gables, FL: Academy of Marketing Science.

Hui, K.M. and Zhou, L. (2003) ''Country of Manufacture Effects for Known Brands'', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 37(1/2), pp. 133-153.

Hulland, J., Todino, H.S. Jr. and Lecraw, D.J. (1996) ''Country-of-origin Effects on Sellers' Price Premiums in Competitive Philippine Markets'', *Journal of International Marketing*, Vol. 4(1), pp. 57-79.

Humbert, A. (2007) *Quantitative Data Analysis in*, 1st edition, MUBS

Hussein, R.T. (1997) ''Jordanian Consumers Attitudes towards Products of Foreign Origin vs. Domestic Products'', *Journal of International Marketing and Marketing Research*, Vol. 22(3), pp. 157-63.

Im, S., Bayus, B.L. and Mason, C.H. (2003) 'An Empirical Study of Global Consumer Innovativeness, Personal Characteristics, and New Product Adoption Behavior', *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 31(1), pp. 61-73.

Insch, A. and Florek, M. (2009)'Prevalence of Country of Origin Associations on the Supermarket Shelf', *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, Vol. 37(5), pp. 453-471.

Insch, G.S. and McBride, B. (1998) 'Decomposing the Country-of-origin Construct: An Empirical Test of Country of Design, Country of Parts, and Country of Assembly', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 10(4), pp. 69-91.

Insch, G.S. and McBride, J.B. (2004) 'The Impact of Country-of-Origin Cues on Consumer Perceptions of Product Quality: A Bi-national Test of the Decomposed Country-of-Origin Construct', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 57(3), pp.256–265.

Iyer, G.R., and Kalita, J.K (1997) 'The Impact of Country-of-Origin Cues on consumer Perceptions of Quality and Value', *Journal of Global Marketing*, Vol. 11(1), pp. 7-28.

Jackson, A. W. and Disch, J. G. (2010) Measurement and Evaluation in Human Performance, Human Kinetics.

Jackson, S.L. (2011) *Research Methods and Statistics: A Critical thinking Approach* in, 4th edition, Belmont, CA: Cengage Learning

Jaffe, E.D. and Martinez, C.R. (1995) 'Mexican Consumer Attitudes Towards Domestic and Foreign Made Products', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 7(3), pp. 7-26.

Jaffe, E.D. and Nebenzahl, I.D. (2001) *National Image and Competitive Advantage: The Theory and Practice of Country-of-origin Effect*, Copenhagen: Copenhagen Business School Press.

Jaffe, E. D., and Nebenzahl, I.D. (2006) *National Image and Competitive Advantage: The Theory and Practice of Place Branding in*, 2nd edition, Copenhagen: Copenhagen Business School Press.

Jain, T.R. and Aggarwal, S.C. (2010) *Statistical Analysis for Business,* Delhi: Vaibhav Printers.

Jiménez, N. and Martín, S.S.(2012) 'Emerging Markets Commerce: The Role of Country-of-Origin and Animosity in Purchase Intention,' *International Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 7(17), pp. 34-42.

Jin, B., Park, J.Y. and Ryu, J.S. (2010) 'Comparison of Chinese and Indian consumers' Evaluative Criteria When Selecting Denim Jeans: A Conjoint Analysis', *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, Vol. 14(1), pp. 180-194.

Johansson, J.K. and Nebenzahl, I.D. (1986) 'Multinational Production: Effect on Brand Value', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 17(3), pp. 101-126.

Johansson, J.K., Douglas, S.P. and Nonaka, I. (1985) 'Assessing the Impact of Country of Origin on Product Evaluations', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 22(4), pp. 388-396.

Josiassen, A., and Harzing, A.W. (2008) 'Descending from the Ivory Tower: Reflections on the Relevance and Future of Country-of-Origin Research', *European Management Review*, Vol. 5(4), pp.264–270.

Josiassen, A., Lukas, B.A. and Whitwell, G.J. (2008) 'Country of Origin Contingencies: Competing Perspectives on Product Familiarity and Product Involvement', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 25(4), pp. 423-440.

Kabadayi, S. and Lerman, D. (2011)'Made in China but Sold at FAO Schwarz: Country-of-Origin Effect and Trusting Beliefs', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 28(1), pp. 102 – 126.

Kang, M. and Yang, S.U. (2010) 'Comparing Effects of Country Reputation and the Overall Corporate Reputations of a Country on International Consumers' Product Attitudes and Purchase Intentions', *Corporate Reputation Review*, Vol. 13(1), pp.52-63.

Kardes, F.R., Cronley, M.L., Kellaris, J.J. and Posavac, S.S. (2004) 'The Role of Selective Information Processing in Price-quality Inference'', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 31(2), pp. 368-374.

Kalish, S. and Lilien, G.L. (1986) 'A Market Entry Timing Model for New Technologies', *Management Science*, Vol. 32(2), pp 194-205.

Kamakura W.A. and Balasubramanian, S.K. (1988) 'Long-Term View of the Diffusion of Durables', *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, Vol. 5(1), pp 1-13

Karunaratna, A.R. and Quester, P.G. (2007) ''Influence of Cognition on Product Component Country of Origin Evaluation'', *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 19(4), pp. 349-362.

Kaynak, E. and Cavusgil, S.T. (1983) 'Consumer Attitudes Towards Products of Foreign Origin: Do They Vary Across Product Classes?', *International Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 2(2), pp.147-157.

Kaynak, E., Kucukemiroglu, O. and Hyder, A.S. (2000) 'Consumers' Country-of-Origin (COO) Perceptions of Imported Products in a Homogeneous Less-Developed Country', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 34(9/10), pp. 1221-1241.

Keller, K.L. (2001) 'Building Customer-based Brand Equity', *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 10(2), pp. 14-21.

Keller, K.L. (2009) 'Managing the Growth Tradeoff: Challenges and Opportunities in Luxury Branding', *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 16(5), pp. 290-301.

Keller, L.K. and Moorthi, Y.L.R. (2003) 'Branding in Developing Markets', *Business Horizon*, Vol. 46(3), pp.49–59.

Khachaturian, J.L. and Morganosky, M.A. (1990) 'Quality Perceptions by Country-of-origin', *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, Vol. 18(5), pp. 21- 30.

Khan, H. And Bamber, D. (2008) 'Country of Origin Effects, Brand Image, and Social Status in an Emerging Market', *Human Factors and Ergonomics in Manufacturing*, Vol. 18(5), pp.580-588.

Kinra, N. (2006) 'The effect of COO on foreign brand names in the Indian country', *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, Vol. 25(1), pp. 15-30.

Klein, J. G. (2002) 'Us versus Them, or Us versus Everyone? Delineating Consumer Aversion to Foreign Goods', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 33(2), pp. 345–363.

Klein, J.G. and Ettenson, R. (1999) ''Consumer Animosity and Consumer Ethnocentrism: An Analysis of Unique Antecedents'', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 11(4), pp. 5-24.

Klein, J.G., Ettenson, R. and Morris, M.D. (1998) 'The Animosity Model of Foreign Product Purchase: An Empirical Test in the People's Republic of China', *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 62(1), pp. 89-100.
Klein, G.J., Ettenson, R. and Krishnan, B.C. (2006) 'Extending the Construct of Consumer Ethnocentrism: When Foreign Products are Preferred', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 23(3), pp. 304-321.

Kleppe, I.A. (2002) 'Country Images in Marketing Strategies: Conceptual Issues and An Empirical Asian Illustration', *Brand Management*, Vol. 10(1), pp. 61-74.

Kleppe, I. A. and Mossberg, L.L. (2001) *Country and Destination Image: Similar or Different Image Objects*, working paper No. 64, Bergen: Foundation for Research in Economics and Business Administration.

Kleppe, I.A., Iversen, N.M. and Stensaker, I.G. (2002) 'Country Image in Marketing Strategies: Conceptual Issues and An Empirical Asian Illustration', *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 10(2), pp. 61-74.

Klonglan, G. E. and Coward, E. W. Jr. (1970) 'The Concept of Symbolic Adoption: A Suggested Interpretation', *Rural Sociology*, Vol. 35(1), pp. 77-83.

Knight, G. (1999) 'Consumer References for Foreign and Domestic Products', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 16(2), pp. 151-162.

Kotabe, M. and Jiang, C.X. (2009) 'Contemporary research trends in international marketing: The 2000s', in: A.M. Rugman (ed.) *The Oxford Handbook of International Business,* Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press, pp. 447–501.

Kotler, P. and Gertner, D. (2002) 'Country as Brand, Product, and Beyond: A Place Marketing and Brand Management Perspective', *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 9(4), pp. 249-261.

Kolossov, V. (2003) 'High and Low Geopolitics: Images of Foreign Countries in the Eyes of Russian Citizens', *Geopolitics*, Vol. 8(1), pp. 121-148.

Kramer, T., Spolter, S. and Thakkar, M. (2007) 'The Effect of Cultural Orientation on Responses to Personalization', *Marketing Science*, Vol. 26(2), pp. 246-258.

Kim, E.Y., Knight, D.K. and Pelton, L.E. (2009) 'Modelling brand equity of a US apparel brand as perceived by generation Y consumers in the emerging Korean market', *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, Vol. 27(4), pp. 247-258.

Kim, W.G. (2008) 'Branding, Brand Equity and Brand Extensions', in Oh, H. and Pizam, A. (ed.) *Handbook of Hospitality Marketing Management*, New York, NY: Elsevier, pp. 87-118.

Khan, I. (2012) *Effect of Consumer Ethnocentrism and Country-of-Origin Image: An Overview of Bangladeshi Consumers' Perception Towards Foreign Banks*, [Online], Available at SSRN: http://ssrn.com/abstract=2120377 [June 20, 2012].

Kinra, N. (2006) 'The Effect of Country-of Origin on Foreign Brand Names in The Indian Market', *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, Vol. 24(1), pp.15-30.

Klein, J. G. (2002) 'Us versus Them, or Us versus Everyone? Delineating Consumer Aversion to Foreign Goods', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 33(2), pp.345-363.

Koubaa Y. (2008) 'Country of Origin, Brand Image Perception, and Brand Image Structure', *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, Vol. 20(2), pp.139–155.

Kucukemiroglu, O., Kara, A. and Harcar, T. (2005) 'Exploring Buyer Life-style Dimensions and Ethnocentrism among Canadian Consumers: An Empirical Study', *The Business Review*, Vol. 4(1), pp. 210-217.

Kumura, P.A.P.S. and Canhua, K. (2010) 'Perceptions of Country of Origin: An Approach to Identifying Expectations of Foreign Products', *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 17(5), pp. 343–353.

Labay, D. G. and Kinnear, T. C. (1981) 'Exploring The Consumer Decision Process in The Adoption of Solar Energy Systems', *The Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 8(3), pp. 271-278.

Lampert S.I. and Jaffe E.D. (1998) 'A Dynamic Approach to Country-of-Origin Effect', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 32(1/2), pp. 61-78.

Lantz, G. and Loeb, S. (1996) 'Country of Origin and Ethnocentrism: An Analysis of Canadian and American Preferences using Social Identity Theory', *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 23(1), pp. 374-378.

Laroche, M., Papadopoulos, N., Heslop, A.L. and Mourali, M. (2005) 'The Influence of Country Image Structure on Consumer Evaluations of Foreign Products', *Journal of International Marketing Review*, Vol. 22(1), pp.96-115.

Lascu, D. N. and Babb, H.W. (1995) 'Market Preferences in Poland: Importance of Product Country-of-Origin', in Kaynak, E. and Eren, Y. (ed.) *Technology and Information Management for Global Development and Competitiveness*, Istanbul: Prentice-Hall, pp. 216-222.

Laufer, D., Gillespie, K. and Silvera, D.H. (2009) 'The Role of Country of Manufacture in Consumers' Attributions of Blame in An Ambiguous Product-harm Crisis', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 21(3), pp. 189–201.

Lavrakas, P. J. (2008) Encyclopedia of Survey Research Methods, Sage.

Leavitt, C. and Walton, J.R., (1975) 'Development of A Scale for Innovativeness', *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 2(1), pp. 545-554.

Lefkoff-Hagius, R., and Mason, C. H. (1993) 'Characteristic, Beneficial, and Image Attributes in Consumer Judgments of Similarity and Preference', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 20(1), pp. 100-110.

Leclerc, F., Schmitt, B.H. and Dubé, L. (1994) 'Foreign Branding and Its Effects on Product Perceptions and Attitudes', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 31(2), pp. 263–270.

Lee, W. N. (2005) 'The Role of Involvement in Country-of-origin Effects on Product Evaluation: Situational and Enduring Involvement', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 17(2/3), pp. 51-72.

Lee, D. and Ganesh, G. (1999) 'Effects of Partitioned Country Image in the Context of Brand Image and Familiarity', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 16(1), pp. 18- 39.

Lee, H., Kim, C. and Miller, J. (1992) 'The Relative Effects of Price, Warranty and Country of Origin on Consumer Product Evaluations', *Journal of Global Marketing*, Vol. 6(1/2), pp. 55- 80.

Lee, J. K. and Lee, W. N. (2009) 'Country-of-Origin Effects on Consumer Product Evaluation and Purchase Intention: The Role of Objective versus Subjective Knowledge', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 21(2), pp.137-151.

Lee, J. A., Garbarino, E., and Lerman, D. (2007) 'How Cultural Differences in Uncertainty Avoidance Affect Product Perceptions', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 24(3), pp. 330-349.

Lee, R., Klobas, J., Tezinde, T. and Murphy, J. (2010) 'The Underlying Social Identities of A nation's Brand', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 27(4), pp. 450-465.

Lee, W.J., Phau, I. and Roy, R. (2013) 'Bonds' or 'Calvin Klein' Down-under: Consumer Ethnocentric and Brand Country Origin Effects towards Men's Underwear', *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, Vol. 17(1), pp. 65-84.

Leonidou, L.C., Hadjimarcou, J., Kaleka, A. and Stamenoua, G.T. (1999) 'Bulgarian Consumers' Perceptions of Products Made in Asia Pacific', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 16(2), pp. 126-142.

Levine, R. and Campbell, D. (1972) *Ethnocentrism*, New York, NY: Wiley.

Levitt, T. (1983) 'The Globalisation of Markets', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 61(3), pp. 92 - 102.

Liefeld, J. P. (1993) 'Experiments on Country-of-Origin Effects: Review and Meta-Analysis of Effect Size', in Papadopoulos, N. and Heslop, L. A. (ed.) *Product-Country Images*, New York: International Business Press, pp. 117-146.

Liefeld, J.P. (2004) 'Consumer Knowledge and Use of Country-of-Origin Information at the Point of Purchase', *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, Vol. 4(2), pp. 85-96.

Lieven, T., Mu¨hlmeier, S., Henkel, S. and Waller, J.F. (2011) 'Who will Buy Electric Cars? An Empirical Study in Germany', *Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment*, Vol. 16(3), pp. 236-243.

Lin, L. and Chen, C. (2006) 'The Influence of Country of Origin Image, Product Knowledge and Product Involvement on Consumer Purchase Decisions: An Empirical Study of Insurance and Catering Services in Taiwan', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 23(5), pp. 248 -265.

Lincoln, Y. S. and Guba, E., G. (2000) 'Paradigmatic Controversies, Contradictions and Emerging Confluences', in N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (ed.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research in*, 2nd edition, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc, pp. 163-188.

Lim, J.S., and Darley, W.K. (1997) 'An Assessment of Demand Artefacts in Country-of-Origin Studies using Three Alternative Approaches', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 14(4/5), pp. 201–218.

Lim, J.S., Darley, W.K. and Summers, J.O. (1994) 'An Assessment of Country of Origin Effects under Alternative Presentation Formats', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 22(3), pp.274–283.

Lim, K.H., Hu, W., Maynard, L.J. and Goddard, E. (2014) 'A Taste for Safer Beef? How Much Does Consumers' Perceived Risk Influence Willingness to Pay for Country-of-Origin Labeled Beef', *Agribusiness: An International Journal*, Vol. 30(1), pp. 17-30.

Lim, K. and O'Cass, A. (2001) 'Consumer Brand Classifications: An Assessment of Culture of Origin Versus Country of Origin', *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol. 10(2), pp.120-136.

Lin, L. and Chen, C. (2006) 'The Influence of Country of Origin Image, Product Knowledge and Product Involvement on Consumer Purchase Decisions: An Empirical Study of Insurance and Catering Services in Taiwan', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 23(5), pp. 248-265.

Lockshin, L., and Hall, J. (2003) *Consumer purchasing behaviour for wine: What We Know and Where We are Going*, 1st International Wine Marketing Colloquium, Adelaide: University of South Australia.

Lockshin, L. and Spawton, T. (2001) 'Using Involvement and Brand Equity to Develop A Wine Tourism Strategy', *International Journal of Wine Marketing*, Vol. 13(1), pp.72-81.

Madden, N. (2003) 'Survey: Brand Origin Not Major Factor for Most Asians', *Advertising Age*, Vol. 74(14), pp. 33.

Magnusson, P., Westjohn, S.A. and Zdravkovic, S. (2011) 'What? I thought Samsung was Japanese': Accurate or Not, Perceived Country of Origin Matters', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 28(5), pp. 454 – 472.

Mahajan, V., Muller, E. (1998) 'When Is It Worthwhile Targeting The Majority Instead of The Innovators in A New Product Launch?', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 35(4), pp.488-495.

Mahajan, V., Muller, E. and Bass, F.M. (1990) 'New Product Diffusion Models in Marketing: A Review and Directions for Research', *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 54(1), pp. 1-26.

Maheswaran, D. (1994) 'COO as a Stereotype: Effects of Consumer Expertise and Attribute Strength on Product Evaluations', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 21(2), pp. 354-365.

Maheswran, D. and Yi Chen, C. (2006) 'Nation Equity: Incidental Emotions in Country-of-Origin Effects', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 33(3), pp. 370-376.

Malhotra, N., Hall, J., Shaw, M. and Oppenheim, P. (2007) Essentials of Marketing Research, An Applied Orientation, AU: Pearson Higher Education.

Malik, O. R. and Kotabe, M. (2009) 'Dynamic Capabilities, Government Policies, and Performance in Firms from Emerging Economies: Evidence from India and Pakistan', *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 46(3), pp. 421–450.

Manrai, L., Lascu, D.N. and Ryans, J. (1997) 'How Green-claim Strength and Country Disposition Affect Product Evaluation and Company Image', *Psychology and Marketing*, Vol. 14(5), pp. 511-537.

Manning, K. C., Bearden, W.O. and Madden, T.J. (1995) 'Consumer Innovativeness and the Adoption Process', *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 4(4), pp.329 – 345.

Martin, B., Lee, M. S. W., and Lacey, C. (2011) 'Countering Negative Country-of-Origin Effects using Imagery Processing', *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, Vol. 10(2), pp. 80–92.

Martin, I. and Eroglu, S. (1993) 'Measuring a Multi-Dimensional Construct: Country Image', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 28(3), pp. 191-210.

Martinex, E., Polo, Y. and Favian, C. (1998) 'The Acceptance and Diffusion of New Consumer Durables: Difference Between First and Last Adopter', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 15(4), pp. 323-342.

Mason C.H. (1990) 'New Product Entries and Product Class Demand', Marketing Science, Vol. 9(1), pp 58-73.

Mehta, V.A. (2006) 'Strategies for Indian Manufacturing Firms – A Focus on Branding and Country of Origin Effects on Construction Equipments'[Online], Available at: www.edissertations.nottingham.ac.uk, visited on 9th August, 2009.

Mendenhall, W., Beaver, R.J. and Beaver, B.M. (2009) *Introduction to Probability and Statistics*, Cengage Learning.

Menon, S. and Kahn, B.E. (1995) 'The Impact of Context on Variety Seeking in Product Choices', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 22(3), pp. 285-295.

Meyers-Levy, J. (2006) 'Using the Horizontal/Vertical Distinction to Advance Insights into Consumer Psychology', *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 16(4), pp. 347-351.

Midgley, D. F. (1977) *Innovation and New Product Marketing*, New York: Halsted Press.

Midgley, D. F. and Dowling, G. R. (1978) 'Innovativeness: The Concept and Its Measurement,' *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 4(4), pp. 229-242.

Midgley, D. F. and Dowling, G. R. (1993) 'A Longitudinal Study of Product form Innovation: The Interaction between Predispositions and Social Messages', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 19(4), pp. 611-625.

Miranda, M.J. and Parkvithee, N. (2013) 'The Influence of Social Class on the Perceptions of Country of Origin: National Brands Produced in Overseas Locations', *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, Vol. 31(4), pp. 388-404.

Mitchel, M. and Jolley, J. (2012) Research Design Explained, Cengage Learning.

Mittal, B., Ratchford, B. and Prabhakar, P. (1990) 'Functional and Expressive Attributes as Determinants of Brand-Attitude', in *Research in Marketing*, J.N. Sheth (ed.), Greenwich, CT: JAI Press

Moore C.C. and Benbasat, I. (1990) *Development of an Instrument to Measure the Perceived Characteristics of Adopting and Information Technology Innovation*, University of Calgary Working Paper Management, pp 90-105.

Morris, J.D., Woo, C., Geason, J.A. and Kim, J. (2002) 'The Power of Affect: Predicting Intention', *Journal of Advertising Research*, Vol. 43(3), pp. 7-17.

Mort, G. S. and Duncan, M. (2003) 'Owned by...' Country of Origin's New Cue', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 15(3), pp. 49-69.

Mowen, J.C. and Minor, M.S. (2001) *Consumer Behaviour: A Framework*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Nakata, C. and Sivakumar, K. (1996) 'National Culture and New Product Development: An Integrative Review', *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 60(1), pp. 61-72.

Nagashima, A. (1970) 'A Comparison of Japanese and US Attitudes toward Foreign Products', *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 34(1), pp. 68-74.

Neal, C. and Quester, P., (2006) *Consumer Behaviour: Implications for Marketing Strategy in,* 4th edition, Australia: McGraw-Hill.

Nebenzahl, I.D. and Jaffe, E.D. (1996) 'Measuring The Joint Effect of Brand and Country Image on Consumer Evaluation of Global Products', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 13(4), pp. 5-22.

Nebenzahl, I.D., Jaffe, E.D. and Lampert, S.I. (1997) 'Towards A Ttheory of Country Image Effect on Product Evaluation', *Management International Review*, Vol. 37(1), pp. 27-49.

Nebenzahl, I.D., Jaffe, E.D. and Usunier, J. (2003) 'Personifying Country-of-Origin Research', *Management International Review*, Vol. 43(4), pp. 383-406.

Narteh,B., Odoom, R., Braimah, M., and Buame, S. (2012)'Key Drivers of Automobile Brand Choice in Sub-Saharan Africa: The Case of Ghana', *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol. 21(7), pp. 516 – 528.

Nayir, D.Z. and Durmusoglu, S.S. (2008) 'Country Image in the Context of European Union Membership: The Turkish Case', *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 27(7), pp. 791-808.

Neuman, W.L. (2003) *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches,* Boston, MA: Pearson.

Niss H. (1996) 'COO Marketing Over the Product Life Cycle: A Danish Case Study', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 30(3), pp. 6-22.

Norjaya M. Y, Nasser, M. N. and Osman, M.(2007) 'Does Image of Country-of-Origin matter to Brand Equity', *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol. 16(1), pp. 38–48.

Obermiller, C., and Spangenberg, E. (1989) 'Exploring The Effects of Country-of-Origin Labels: An Information Processing Framework', *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 16(1), pp. 454-459.

Ohmae, K. (1992) 'Managing in A Borderless World', *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 67(May- June), pp. 152-161

O'Cass, A. (2004) 'Fashion Clothing Consumption: Antecedents and Consequences of Fashion Clothing Involvement', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 38(7), pp. 869-882.

O'Cass, A. and Lim, K. (2002) 'Understanding Younger Singaporean Consumers' Views of Western and Eastern Brands', *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, Vol. 14(4), pp. 54–79.

Okechuku, C. and Onyemah, V. (1999) 'Nigerian Consumer Attitudes Toward Foreign and Domestic Products', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 30(3), pp. 611-622.
O'Neill, J., Stupnytska, A., and Wrisdale, J. (2011) 'It is Time to Re-define Emerging Markets', *Goldman Sachs Asset Management Strategy Series 31*, pp.1-12.

Olins, W. (1999) *Trading Identities*, London: The Foreign Policy Centre.

Orth, U. R., and Firbasová, Z. (2003) 'The Role of Consumer Ethnocentrism in Food Product Evaluation', *Agribusiness*, Vol. 19(2), pp.137–153.

Osterhus, T. L. (1997) 'Pro-social Consumer Influence Strategies: When and How Do They Work?', *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 61(4), pp. 16-29.

Ostlund L.E. (1974) 'Perceived Innovation Attributes as Predictors of Innovativeness', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 1(2), pp 23-29.

Oyserman, D. (2006) 'High Power, Low Power, and Equality: Culture Beyond Individualism/Collectivism', *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 16(4), pp. 352-356.

Ozretic-Dosen, D. and Skare, V. (2007) 'Assessments of Country-of-Origin and Brand Cues in Evaluating a Croatian, Western and Eastern European Food Product.' *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 60(2), pp.130-136.

Pan, L.Y. and Chang, S.C. (2011)'The Impacts of Country-of-Origin Effect, Endorser's Expertise, and Product Involvement on Product Attitude and Purchase Intention', *Proceedings of PICMET '11: Conference Publications,* Technology Management in the Energy Smart World (PICMET) IEEE, pp. 1-8.

Papadopoulas, N., Heslop, L.A. and Beracs, J. (1990) 'National Stereotypes and Product Evaluations in a Socialist Country', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 7(1), pp. 32- 47.

Papadopoulos, N. and Heslop, L.A (1993) *Product-Country Images: Impact and Role in International Marketing*, New York, NY: Haworth Press.

Papadopoulos, N. and Heslop, L.A. (2003) 'Country Equity and Product–Country Images: State-of-the-Art in Research and Implications', In: Jain SC, (ed.) *Handbook of Research in International Marketing,* pp. 402–433, Northhampton, MA: Edward Elgar Publishing

Papadopoulos, N. and Heslop, L. A. (2014) Product-Country Images: Impact and Role in International Marketing, Routledge.

Papadopoulos, N., Banna, A. E., Murphy, S. A., and Rojas-Méndez, J. I. (2011) 'Place Brands and Brand-Place Associations: The Role of 'Place' in International Marketing', In Jain, S.C. and Griffith, D. (ed.) *Handbook of Research in International Marketing in*, 2nd edition, pp. 88–113. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Pappu R., Quester P.G., and Cooksey R.W. (2006) 'Consumer-Based Brand Equity and Country-of-Origin Relationships', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 40(5/6), pp. 696–717.

Pappu, R., Quester, P.G. and Cooksey, R.W. (2007) 'Country Image and Consumer-Based Brand Equity: Relationships and Implications for International Marketing', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 38(5), pp. 726-745.

Parkvithee, N. and Miranda, M.J. (2012) 'The Interaction Effect of Country-of-Origin, Brand Equity and Purchase Involvement on Consumer Purchase Intentions of Clothing Labels', *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, Vol. 24(1), pp. 7 – 22.

Paswan, A.K. and Sharma, D. (2004) 'Brand-country-of-origin (COO) Knowledge and COO Image: Investigation in An Emerging Franchise Market', *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol. 13(3), pp. 144-155.

Patton, M. Q. (1990) *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods in*, 2nd edition, Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Pearson, P.H. (1970) 'Relationships between Global and Specified Measures of Novelty Seeking', *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, Vol. 34(2), pp. 199-204.

Pecotich, A., Pressley, M. and Roth D., (1996) 'The Impact of Country-of-origin in the Retail Service Context', *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*', Vol. 3(40), 213-224.

Pecotich, A. and Rosenthal, M.J. (2001) 'Country of Origin, Quality, Brand and Consumer Ethnocentrism', *Journal of Global Marketing,* Vol. 15(2), pp. 31-60.

Pecotich, A. and Ward, S. (2007) 'Global Branding, Country of Origin and Expertise,' *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 24(3), pp. 271-296.

Pereira A., Hsu C.C. and Kundu, S.K. (2005) 'Country-of-Origin Image: Measurement and Cross-national Testing', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 58(1), pp. 103–106.

Peter, J.P. and Donnelly, J.H. (2004) *Marketing Management: Knowledge and Skills in*, 7th edition, McGraw-Hill Professional.

Peters, A., Gutscher, H. and Scholz, R.W. (2011) 'Psychological Determinants of Fuel Consumption of Purchased New Cars', *Transportation Research, Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour*, Vol. 14(3), pp. 229-39.

Peterson, K. (2009) 'Brand Origin and Consumers' Perceptions of Apparel Product Attributes Relating to Quality', [online], Available at: www.edt.missouri.edu, visited on 9th August, 2009.

Pfister, R.H. (2003) ''Decision Making is Painful- We Knew it All Along'', *Journal of Behavioural Decision Making*, Vol. 16(1), pp. 73.

Pharr, J.M. (2005) ''Synthesizing Country-of-origin Research from the Last Decade: Is the Concept Still Salient in An Era of Global Brands'', *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, Vol. 13(4), pp. 34-45.
Phau, I. and Chao, P. (2008) 'Country-of-Origin: State of the Art Review for International Marketing Strategy and Practice', *International Marketing Review,* Vol. 25(4), pp. 349-353.

Phau, I. and Prendergast, G. (2000) 'Conceptualising the Country of origin of Brand', *Journal of Marketing Communication*, Vol. 6(3), pp. 159-170

Phau, I. and Suntornnond, V. (2006) 'Dimensions of Consumer Knowledge and Its Impacts on Country-of-origin Effects among Australian Consumers: A Case of Fast-consuming Product', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 23(1), pp. 34-42.

Phau, I. and Yip, S.L. (2008) 'Attitudes toward Domestic and Foreign Luxury Brand Apparel: A Comparison between Status and Non-status Seeking Teenagers', *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, Vol. 12(1), pp. 68-89.

Piron, F. (2000) 'International Out Shopping and Ethnocentrism', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 36(1/2), pp. 189-210.

Poon, P., Evangelista, F. and Albaum, G. (2010) 'Attitudes of Migrants towards Foreign-made Products: An Exploratory Study of Migrants in Australia', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 27(1), pp. 35-42.

Powers, D.A. and Xie, Y. (2008) *Statistical Methods for Categorical Data Analysis,* Emerald Group Publishing.

Prendergast, G. P. (2010) 'The Interactive Influence of Country of Origin of Brand and Product Involvement on Purchase Intention', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 27(2), pp. 180-188.

Radder, L. and Huang, W. (2008) 'High-Involvement and Low-Involvement Products: A Comparison of Brand Awareness among Students at a South African University', *Journal of Fashion Marketing Management*, Vol. 12(2), pp. 232-243.

Rahman, S. (2000) *Country of Origin Effect in a Developing Country: Does it really Matter,* Dissertation University of Western Sydney, Sydney.

Rawwas, M.Y.A., Rajendran, K.N. and Wuehrer, G.A. (1996) 'The Influence of World Mindedness and Nationalism on Consumer Evaluation of Domestic and Foreign Products', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 13(2), pp. 20-38.

Reid, D.M. (2007) 'Consumer Change in Japan: A Longitudinal Study', *Thunderbird International Business Review*, Vol. 49(1), pp.77-101.

Reierson, C.C. (1966) 'Are Foreign Products seen as National Stereotypes?' *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 42(3), pp. 33-40.

Reierson, C.C. (1967) 'Attitude Changes toward Foreign Products', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 4(4), pp. 385-387.

Reynolds, T.J. and Olsen, J.C. (2001) *Understanding Consumer Decision Making: The Means-End Approach to Marketing and Advertising Strategy*, Psychology Press.

Rezvani, S., Shenyari G., Dehkordi, G.J., MehrdadSalehi, Nahid, N. and Soleimani, S. (2012) 'Country of Origin: A Study over Perspective of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Cues on Consumers` Purchase Decision', *Business Management Dynamics*, Vol. 1(11), pp.68-75.

Rindfleisch, A., Burroughs, J.A. and Wong, N. (2009) 'The Safety of Objects: Materialism, Existential Insecurity and Brand Connection', *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 36(1), pp. 1-16.

Rocco, T.S., Hatcher, T. and Creswell, J.W. (2011) *The Handbook of Scholarly Writing and Publishing*, John Wiley and Sons.

Roehrich, G. (2004) 'Consumer Innovativeness: Concepts and Measurements', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 57(6), pp. 671-677.

Rogers, E. M. (1962) *Diffusion of Innovations*, New York, NY: Free Press.

Rogers, E.M. (1995) *Diffusion of Innovations in*, 4th edition, New York, NY: Free Press.

Rogers EM and FF Shoemaker (1971) *Communication of Innovations*, New York, NY: Free Press.

Roth, K.P., and Diamantopoulos, A. (2009) 'Advancing the Country Image Construct', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 62(7), pp.726-740.

Roth, M.S. and Romeo, J.B. (1992) 'Matching Product Category and Country Image Perceptions: A Framework for Managing COO Effects', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 26(3), pp.477-497.

Rubin, A. (2010) *Statistics for Evidence-Based Practice and Evaluation in*, 2nd edition. Belmont, CA: Cengage Learning.

Saaksjarvi, M. (2003) 'Consumer Adoption of Technological Innovations', *European Journal of Innovation Management*, Vol. 6(2), pp. 90-100

Saeed, R., Khurshid, N., Safdar, M., Ahmad, W., Lodhi, R.N. and Ahmad, W. (2013) 'Country-of-Origin Effect on Pakistani Consumers' Evaluation of French Cosmetics products', *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research*, Vol. 3(6), pp.988 – 1000.

Sae-Jiu, S. (2007) 'Consumer Perception and Attitude Towards Foreign Versus Domestic Apparel in Thailand', *PhD dissertation, University of Nottingham.*
Said, M., Hassan, F. and Musa, R. (2011) *Empirical Study on The Influence of Country-of-Origin on Consumers' Perception towards Their Purchase Intention of Malaysia's Halal Food Products*, In Humanities, Science and Engineering (CHUSER), 2011 IEEE Colloquium on, pp. 865-870. IEEE, Penang

Salkind, N.J. (2006) *Exploring Research in*, 6th edition, Pearson Prentice Hall.

Samiee, S. (1994) ''Customer Evaluation of Products in a Global Market'', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 25(3), pp. 579-604.

Samiee, S. (2010) 'Advancing the Country Image Construct – A Commentary Essay', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 63(4), pp. 442-445.

Samiee, S. (2011) 'Resolving the Impasse regarding Research on the Origins of Products and Brands', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 28(5), pp.473–485.

Samiee, S., and Leonidou, L. C. (2011) 'Relevance and Rigor in International Marketing Research: Developments in Product and Brand Origin Line of Inquiry', In Jain S.C. and Griffith, D.A. (ed.) *Handbook of research in international marketing in*, 2nd edition, pp. 68–87. Cheltenham: Edgar Elgar Publishing.

Samiee, S., Shimp, T.A. and Sharma, S. (2005) 'Brand Origin Recognition Accuracy: Its Antecedents and Consumers' Cognitive Limitations', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 36(4), pp. 379-397.

Sánchez, M., and Beriain, M. (2011) 'Socio-Economic Factors affecting Consumer Behaviour for United States and Spanish Beef under Different Information Scenarios', *Food Quality and Preference,* Vol. 24(1), pp. 30-39.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2003) *Research Methods for Business Students in*, 3rd edition, Harlow: Pearson Education.

Sayer, A. (2000) *Realism and Social Science*, London: Sage Publication.

Schaefer, A. (1997) 'Consumer Knowledge and Country of Origin Effects', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 31(1), pp. 56- 72.

Schette, H., and Ciarlante, D. (1998) *Consumer Behaviours in Asia,* London: Macmillan Business.

Schiffman, L.G., Hansen, H. And Kanuk, L.L. (2008) *Consumer Behaviour: A European Outlook in*, 5th edition, Pearson Education.

Schiffman L. and Kanuk, L. (2004) *Consumer Behaviour in*, 8th edition, Prentice Hall.

Schiffman, G.L. and Kanuk, L.L. (2009) *Consumer Behaviour*, 9th edition, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Schiffman, L.G., Bednall, D., O'Cass, A., Paladino, A. and Kanuk, L.L. (2005) *Consumer Behaviour*, Frenchs Forest: Pearson Prentice-Hall.

Schooler, R.D. (1965) 'Product Bias in the Central American Common Market', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 2(4), pp. 394-397.

Schooler, R.D. and Sunoo, D.H. (1969) 'Consumer Perceptions of International Products', *Social Science Quarterly*, Vol. 49(4), pp. 886-890.

Schneider, D. (2005) *The Psychology of Stereotyping*, New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Schuitema, G., Anable, J., Skippon, S. and Kinnear, N. (2013) 'The Role of Instrumental, Hedonic and Symbolic Attributes in the Intention to Adopt Electric Vehicles', *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, Vol. 48(3), pp. 39-49

Schweiger, G., Otter, T. and Strebinger. A. (1997) 'The Influence of Country-of-origin and Brand on Product Evaluation and the Implications thereof for Location Decisions', *CEMS Business Review*, Vol. 2(1), pp. 5- 26.

Shabbir, S., Kauffmann, H.R., Ahmad, I. and Qureshi, I.M. (2009) 'Cause related Marketing Campaigns and Consumer Purchase Intentions: The Mediating Role of Brand Awareness and Corporate Image', *African Journal of Business Management*, Vol. 4(6), pp. 1229-1235.

Shankarmahesh, Mahesh N. (2006) 'Consumer Ethnocentrism: An Integrative Review of Its Antecedents and Consequences', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 23(2), pp. 146–172.

Sharma, P. (2011) 'Country of Origin Effects in Developed and Emerging Markets: Exploring the Contrasting Roles of Materialism and Value Consciousness', *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 42(2), pp. 285-306.

Shavitt, S., Lalwani, A.K., Zhang, J. and Torelli, C.J. (2006) 'The Horizontal/Vertical Distinction in Cross-Cultural Consumer Research', *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 16(4), pp. 325-342.

Shi, Z., Wen, L. and Fan, L. (2012) 'How Chinese Face Perception Influences Consumer's Implicit and Explicit Attitude towards Brand Country of Origin', *International Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 7(5), pp. 123- 139.

Shimp, T. A., and Sharma, S. (1987) 'Consumer Ethnocentrism: Construction and Validation of The CETSCALE', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 24(3), pp.280-289.

Shimp, T.S., Samie, S. and Madden, T.J. (1993) 'Countries and their Products: A Cognitive structure perspective', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 21(4), pp. 323-330. Siddiqui, J. (2010) 'Development of Corporate Governance Regulations: The Case of An Emerging Economy', *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 91(2), pp. 253-274.

Silayoi, P. and Speece, M. (2004) 'Packaging and Purchase Decisions', *British Food Journal*, Vol. 106(8), pp. 607–628.

Singh, S. (2006) 'Cultural Differences in, and Influences on, Consumers' Propensity to Adopt Innovations', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 23(2), pp. 173-191.

Sirgy, M.J. (1998) 'Does Television Viewership Play a Role in the Perception of Quality of Life?', *Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 27(1), pp. 125-142.

Smith, N. (1990) *Morality and the Market*, London: Routledge.

Smith DC and J Andrew (1995) 'Rethinking The Effect of Perceived Fit on Customers' Evaluations of New Products', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 23(1), pp 115-124.

Smith, P., and Ragan, T. J. (1999) *Instructional Design in*, 2nd edition, John, Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Sohail, M.S. (2005) ''Malaysian Consumers' Evaluation of Products Made in Germany: The Country of Origin Effect'', *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, Vol. 17(1), pp. 89-100.

Solomon, M.R.(2002) *Consumer Behaviour: Buying, Having and Being in*, 5th edition, Prentice Hall.

Sorlin, P. (1998) 'Stop the Rural Exodus: Images of the Country in France', *Historical Journal of Film, Radio and Television*, Vol. 18(2), pp. 183-197.

Speece, M. and Nguyen, D.P. (2005) 'Countering Negative Country of Origin with Low Prices: A Conjoint Study in Vietnam', *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol. 14(1), pp. 39-48.

Srikatanyoo, N. and Gnoth, J. (2002) 'Nation Branding - Country Image and International Tertiary Education', *Brand Management*, Vol. 10(2), pp. 139 - 146.

Srinivasan, N., Jain, S.C. and Sikand, K. (2004) 'An Experimental Study of Two Dimensions of Country-of-origin (Manufacturing Country and Branding Country) using Intrinsic and Extrinsic Cues', *International Business Review*, Vol. 13(1), pp. 65-82.

Srinivasan, S., Vanhuele, M. and Pauwels, K. (2010) 'Mindset Metrics in Market Response Models: An Integrative Approach', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 47(4), pp. 672-84.

Standard Country and Area Codes Classifications - M49 (2011) United Nations Statistics Division, [Online], Available at: www.unstats.un.org, visited at 12 March, 2012

Steenkamp, J. E. M. (1990) 'Conceptual Model of The Quality Perception Process', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 21(4), pp. 309-333.

Steenkamp, J.E.M. and Baumgartner, H. (1992) 'The Role of Optimum Stimulation Level in Exploratory Consumer Behaviour', *Journal of Consumer Research,* Vol. 19(3), pp. 434-448.

Steenkamp, J.E.M., Hofstede, F. and Wedel, F. (1999) 'A Cross-National Investigation into The Individual and National Cultural Antecedents of Consumer Innovativeness', *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 63(2), pp. 55-69.

Subramanian, S. and Mittelstaedt, R. A. (1991) 'Conceptualizing Innovativeness as A Consumer Trait: Consequences and Alternatives', in *American Marketing Association Educator's Proceedings*, Vol. 2, pp. 352-360.

Supphellen, M. and Rittenburg, T. L. (2001) 'Consumer Ethnocentrism When Foreign Products are Better', *Psychology and Marketing,* Vol. 18(9), pp. 907-927.

Tabassi, S., Esmaeilzadeh, P. And Sambasivan, M. (2013) 'The Influence of Product Involvement and Country of Origin on Purchase Intention: A Study in Malaysia toward European Brands', *International Journal of Application or Innovation in Engineering and Management*, Vol. 2(11), pp.269-277.

Tang, Z., Lou, J. and Xiao, J. (2011) 'Antecedents of Intention to Purchase Mass Customized Products', *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol. 20(4), pp. 316-326.

Tellefsen, T. and Takada, H. (1999) 'The Relationship between Mass Media Availability and the Multi-Country Diffusion of Consumer Products', *Journal of International Marketing*, Vol. 7(1), pp. 77-96.

Thakor, V. M. and Kohli, C. S. (1996) 'Brand Origin: Conceptualization and Review', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 13(3), pp. 27-42.

Thakor, M.V. and Katsanis, L.P. (1997) 'A Model of Brand and Country Effects on Quality Dimensions: Issues and Implications', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 9(3), pp. 79-100.

Thakor, M.V. and Lavack, A.M. (2003) 'Effect of Perceived Brand Origin Association on Consumer Perceptions of Quality', *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol. 12(6), pp. 394-408.

Thomas, C. B. and Charlotte, H. M. (1999) 'The Link between Attractiveness of 'Extraband' Attributes and The Adoption of Innovations', *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 27(3), pp. 306-319.
Thomas T and T Hirokazu (1999) 'The Relationship between Mass Media Availability and the Multi-country Diffusion of Consumer Products', *Journal of International Marketing*, Vol. 7(1), pp 77-96.

Thompson, C.J., Rindfleisch, A. and Arsel, Z. (2006) 'Emotional Branding and the Strategic Value of the Doppelganger Brand Image', *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 70(1), pp. 50-64.

Tolmie, A., Muijs, D. and McAteer, E. (2011) Quantitative Methods in Educational and Social Research Using SPSS, McGraw-Hill International.

Tornatzky LO and KJ Klein (1982) 'Innovation Characteristics and Innovation Adoption-Implementation: A Meta-Analysis of Findings', *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, Vol. 29(1), pp. 28-46.

Tran, T.P. and Fabrize R.O. (2013) 'The Effect of the Foreign Brand on Consumer Perception', *Journal of Marketing Development and Competitiveness*, Vol. 7(2), pp. 23-36.

Trochim, W., Donnelly, J. and Arora, K. (2015) Research Methods: The Essential Knowledge Base, Cengage Learning.

Tropp, Linda R. and Thomas F. Pettigrew (2005) 'Differential Relationships between Intergroup Contact and Affective and Cognitive Dimensions of Prejudice,' *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, Vol. 31(8), pp. 1145–58.

Tropp, L. R. and Thomas F. P. (2005) 'Differential Relationships between Intergroup Contact and Affective and Cognitive Dimensions of Prejudice,' *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, Vol. 31(8), pp. 1145–1158.

Tse, D.K. and Gorn, G.J. (1993) 'An Experiment on the Salience of COO in An Era of Global Brands', *Journal of International Marketing*, Vol. 1(1), pp.57-76.

Tseng, T. and Balabanis, G. (2011) 'Explaining the Product-Specificity of Country-of-Origin Effects', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 28(6), pp. 581-600.

Ulgado, M. F. (2002) 'Country of Origin Effects on E-Commerce', *Journal of American Academy of Business Cambridge,* Vol. 2(1), pp. 250-253.

Ulgado, F., and Lee, M. (1998) 'The Korean Versus American Marketplace: Consumer Reactions to Foreign Products', *Journal of Psychology and Marketing*, Vol. 15(6), pp. 595-614.

Usunier, J.C. (2006) 'Relevance in Business Research: The Case of Country-of-origin Research in Marketing', *European Management Review*, Vol. 3(1), pp.60–73.

Usunier, J.C. and Cestre, G. (2008) ''Further Considerations on the Relevance of Country-of-origin Research'', *European Management Review*, Vol. 5(4), pp. 271-274.

Usunier, J.C. and Lee, J. (2005) *Marketing across Cultures in*, 4th edition, New York: Financial Times Prentice Hall, pp. 285-314.

Veale, R. and Quester, P. (2009) 'Do Consumer Expectations Match Experience? Predicting the Influence of Price and Country of Origin on Perceptions of Product Quality', *International Business Review*, Vol. 18(2), pp. 134-144.

Venkatraman, M.P. (1991) 'The Impact of Innovativeness and Innovation Type on Adoption', *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 67(1), pp. 51-67.

Venkatraman, M.P. and Price, L.L. (1990) 'Differentiating between Cognitive and Sensory Innovativeness: Concepts, Measurement, and Implications', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 20(4), pp. 293-315.

Verbeke, W., and Ward, R. W. (2006) 'Consumer Interest in Information Cues Denoting Quality, Traceability and Origin: An Application of Ordered Probit Models to Beef Labels', *Food Quality and Preference*, Vol. 17(6), pp.453–467.

Verleegh, P.W.J. and Steenkamp, J.E.M. (1999) 'A Review and Meta-analysis of Country-of-origin Research', *Journal of Economic Psychology*, Vol. 20(5), pp. 521-546.

Walker, R. (2008) *Buying in: The Secret Dialogue between What We Buy and Who We are*, New York, NY: Random House.

Wall, M., and Liefeld, J. (1991) 'Impact of Country-of-Origin Cues on Consumer Judgments in Multi-Cue Situations: A Covariance Analysis', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 19(2), pp.105-113.

Wall, M., Liefeld, J. and Heslop, L.A. (1991) 'Impact of Country-of-origin Cues on Consumer Judgments in Multi-cue Situations: A Covariance Analysis', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 19(2), pp. 105-113.

Wang, J. (2005) 'Consumer Nationalism and Corporate Reputation Management in the Global Era', *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, Vol. 10(3), pp. 223-239.

Wang, C.L., Li, D., Barnes, B.R. and Ahn, J. (2012) 'Country Image, Product Image and Consumer Purchase Intention: Evidence from an Emerging Economy', *International Business Review*, Vol. 21(6), pp. 1041–1051.

Wang, C.L. and Chen, Z.X. (2004) 'Consumer Ethnocentrism and Willingness to Buy Domestic Products in a Developing Country Setting: Testing Moderating Effects', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 21(6), pp. 391-400.

Wang, X. and Yang, Z. (2008) 'Does Country of Origin Matter in the Relationship between Brand Personality and Purchase Intention in Emerging Economies? Evidence from China's Auto Industry', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 25(4), pp. 458-474.

Wang, X. and Yang, Z. (2011) 'Standardisation or Adaptation in International Advertising Strategies: The Roles of Brand Personality and Country-Of-Origin Image', *Asian Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 1(2), pp. 25-36.

Watson, J.J. and Wright, K. (2000) 'Consumer Ethnocentrism and Attitudes toward Domestic and Foreign Products', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 34(9/10), pp. 1149-66.

White III G.O., Bao, Y. and Brouthers, L.E. (2007) 'Manufacturing and selling in China', in: B.D. Keillor, T.J. Wilkinson and A.R. Thomas (ed.) *Marketing in the 21st Century: New World Marketing,* Westport, CT: Praeger, pp. 65–80.

White, D.W. and Absher, K. (2013) 'Red Devils, Royals, and The River Thames – The Ambassadorial Role of Sports in Heightening Country-of-Origin Image', *Sport, Business and Management: An International Journal*, Vol. 3(4), pp. 312-326.

Westjohn, S. A., and Magnusson, P. (2011) 'Theory of the Global Consumer', in Jain S.C. and Griffith D.A. (ed.) *Handbook of Research in International Marketing in*, 2nd edition, pp. 317–332, Cheltenham: Edgar Elgar Publishing.

Wilson, J. (2014) Essentials of Business Research: A Guide to Doing Your Research Project, SAGE.

Wood, V., Darling, J. and Siders, M. (1999) 'Consumer Desire to Buy and Use Products in International Markets', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 16(3), pp. 231-256.

Wooldridge, J.M. (2009) *Introductory Econometrics: A Modern Approach,* Cengage Learning.

Wong, C.Y., Polonsky, M.J. and Garma, R. (2008) 'The Impact of Consumer Ethnocentrism and Country-of-Origin Sub-Components for High Involvement Products on Young Chinese Consumers' Product Assessments', *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, Vol. 20(4), pp. 455-478.

Wooldridge, J.M. (2009) *Introductory Econometrics: A Modern Approach,* Cengage Learning.

Wu, S.I. and Lo, C. (2009) 'The Influence of Core-brand Attitude and Consumer Perception on Purchase Intention towards Extended Product', *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, Vol. 21(1), pp. 174-194.

Xie, Y.H. (2008) 'Consumer Innovativeness and Consumer Acceptance of Brand Extensions', *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol. 17(4), pp. 235-243.

Yagci, M.I. (2001) 'Evaluating the Effects of Country-of-Origin and Consumer Ethnocentrism: A case of a Transplant Product', *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 13(3), pp. 63-85.

Yang, W.-S. (2001) 'The Study of Relationships Between The Involvement Levels and Related Factors of Purchasing Decision of The Mobile Phone Consumers', *Masters degree Thesis, Graduate School of Management of Business, National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu.*

Yasin, N.M. and Noor, M.N. (2007) 'Does Image of Country-of-Origin matter to Brand Equity?', *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol. 16(1), pp. 38-51.

Yeh, C. H., Chen, C. I., and Sher, P. J. (2010) 'Investigation on Perceived Country Image of Imported Food', *Food Quality and Preference*, Vol. 21(7), pp.849–856.

Yu, J. And Cooper, H. (1983) 'A Quantitative Review of Research Design Effects on Response Rates to Questionnaires', *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 20(1), pp. 36 – 44.

Zain, O. M. and Yasin, N. M. (1997) 'The Importance of Country-of-Origin Information', *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, Vol. 25(4), pp.138 – 145.

Zarkada-Fraser, A. and Campbell F. (2002) 'Store Patronage Prediction for Foreign-Owned Supermarkets', *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, Vol. 30(6), pp. 282-299.

Zarkada-Fraser, Anna and Campbell Fraser (2002) 'Store Patronage Prediction for Foreign-Owned Supermarkets', *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management,* Vol. 30(6), pp. 282-299.

Zdravkovic, S. (2013) 'Does Country-Of-origin Matter to Generation Y?', *Young Consumers: Insight and Ideas for Responsible Marketers*, Vol. 14(1), pp. 89-102.

Zeithaml, V. A. (1988) 'Consumer Perception of Price, Quality and Value: A Means-end Model and Synthesis of Evidence', *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 52(3), pp. 12-22.

Zeugner-Roth, K.P., Diamantopoulos, A. and Montesinos, M.Á. (2008) 'Home Country Image, Country Brand Equity and Consumers' Product Preferences: An Empirical Study', *Management International Review*, Vol. 48(5), pp.577–602.

Zhang, Y. (1996) 'Chinese Consumers' Evaluation of Foreign Products: The Influence of Culture, Product Types, and Product Presentation Format', *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 30(12), pp. 50-69.
Zhang, Y. (1997) 'COO Effect: The Moderating Function of Individual Difference in Information Processing', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 14(4), pp. 266-287.

Zhou, L., Yang, Z. and Hui, M.K. (2010) 'Non-Local or Local Brands? A Multi-level Investigation into Confidence in Brand Origin Identification and Its Strategic Implications', *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 38(2), pp. 202-218.

Zhuang, G., Wang, X., Zhou, L. and Zhou, N. (2008) 'Asymmetric Effects of Brand Origin Confusion', *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 25(4), pp. 441-457.

Zolfagharian, M., Saldivar, R. and Sun, Q. (2014) 'Ethnocentrism and Country of Origin Effects among Immigrant Consumers', *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 31(1), pp. 68-84.

APPENDIX: A

PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Participant,

This questionnaire will be used for research, which aims to identify the effect of country of origin (COO) image on consumer product involvement (based on low and high involvement product categories) in Pakistan. Your answer will be kept strictly confidential and will only be used for research purposes. Because you are the one who can provide a true picture, so a frank and honest response is requested.

Q#1 To what extent do you agree with the following statements related to Country of Origin Information of a product.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
"When buying an expensive item, such as a car, TV or refrigerator I always seek to find out what country the product was made in".					
"To make sure that I buy the highest quality product or brand, I look to see what country the product was made in".					
"I feel that it is important to look for country-of-origin information when deciding which product to buy".					
"I look for the "Made in …" labels in clothing".					
"Seeking country-of-origin information is less important for inexpensive goods than for expensive goods".					
"A person should always look for country-of-origin information when buying a product that has a high risk of malfunctioning, e.g. when buying a watch".					
"I look for country-of-origin information to choose the best product available in a product class".					
"I find out a product's country of origin to determine the quality of the product".					

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
"When I am buying a new product, the country of origin is the first piece of information that I consider".					
"To buy a product that is acceptable to my friends and my family, I look for the product's country of origin".					
"If I have little experience with a product, I search for country-of-origin information about the product to help me make a more informed decision".					
"A person should seek country-of-origin information when buying a product with a fairly low risk of malfunctioning, e.g. when buying shoes".					
"When buying a product that is less expensive, such as a shirt, it is less important to look for the country of origin".					

Q#2 To what extent do you agree with the following statements.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
"It is prestigious to buy foreign makes".					
"Pakistani products are inferior to foreign brands".					
"Within Pakistan access to foreign products is limited".					
"Pakistani products are not widely advertised".					
"True Pakistanis should buy only Pakistani brands".					
"Only those products not available in Pakistan should be imported".					
"Pakistani products first and last".					
"Buying Pakistani products is good for labour".					

"Advertising foreign brands is anti-Pakistani".					
"We should buy products manufactured in Pakistan".					
"It is best to purchase Pakistani products".					
"There should be very little importing of goods".					
"Pakistanis should not buy foreign products because it hurts Pakistani business".					
"No imports should be allowed".					
"It may not be good for me, but I prefer to support Pakistani products".					
"Foreigners should not be allowed to sell their products in Pakistan".					
"Foreign products into Pakistan should be taxed heavily".					
"Pakistani consumers who buy foreign brands are putting Pakistanis out of work and employment".					
"Generally products from developed countries are of superior quality".					
"Generally products from developing countries are of lesser quality".					
"If a country has a good reputation in one product category, this will have a positive influence on the reputation of other products from the same country".					
"Whilst a country might have a good reputation in one product category, this doesn't necessarily mean that it has the same good reputation for other products from the same country".					

Q#3 (a) To what extent do you agree with the following statements.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
"I like to try new and different brands".					
"I like to wait until a new product is proved to be good before I try it".					
"When it comes to take chances with new products, I would rather be safe than sorry".					
"I frequently look for new products and services".					
"When I see a new brand on the shelf, I always buy it just to see what it is like".					
"I am continually seeking new product experiences".					
"I always try new brands before my friends and family do".					
"Unless there is good reason for changing, I think we should continue with the same brands we are using as always".					
"New products are usually publicity stunt".					
"When I go shopping, I find myself spending very little time checking out new products and brands".					
"I take advantage of the first available opportunity to find out about new and different products".					

(b) To what extent do you agree with the following statements.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree Nor	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

			Disagree		
"Prior to purchasing a new brand, I prefer to consult a friend who has experience with the new brand".					
"When it comes to deciding whether to purchase a new service, I rely on experienced friends for advice".					
"I always ask a friend about their experience with a new product before I buy that product".					
"I decide to buy new products and services based on the opinions of family members who have already tried them".					
"When I am interested in purchasing a new service, I rely on my friends or close acquaintances that have already used it to give me information as to whether I should try it".					
"I rely on experienced friends for information about new products prior to making up my mind about whether or not to purchase".					
"I always seek out information about new products and brands".					
"I like to go to places where I will be exposed to information about new products and brands".					
"I like magazines that introduce new brands".					

Q#4: Age

☐ 20-30   ☐ 31-40   ☐ 41-50   ☐ 51-above

Q#5: Gender

☐   Male   ☐   Female

Q#6: Your education level

☐ MA/MSc/MBA   ☐ M.Phil / M.S   ☐ PhD

Q#7: Your Job Title

☐ Lecturer   ☐ Assistant Professor   ☐ Associate Professor   ☐ Professor

Q#8: Your income level (in Pak Rupees)

☐ 20,000–30,000 ☐ 31,000-40,000 ☐ 41,000-50,000 ☐ 51,000-60,000 ☐ 61,000-Above

Q#9: How often do you buy products under the following categories.

Food & Drink	☐ Daily	☐ Weekly	☐ Monthly	☐ Annually	☐ Once/Twice in a life time
Cosmetics	☐ Daily	☐ Weekly	☐ Monthly	☐ Annually	☐ Once/Twice in a life time
Washing Powder	☐ Daily	☐ Weekly	☐ Monthly	☐ Annually	☐ Once/Twice in a life time
Air Conditioner	☐ Daily	☐ Weekly	☐ Monthly	☐ Annually	☐ Once/Twice in a life time
Refrigerator	☐ Daily	☐ Weekly	☐ Monthly	☐ Annually	☐ Once/Twice in a life time
Automobile	☐ Daily	☐ Weekly	☐ Monthly	☐ Annually	☐ Once/Twice in a life time

Q#10 What is most important for you when buying a product in the following categories (Please give numbers according to the degree of importance as:

0 = Not Important,

1 = Of Some Importance,

2 = Important,

3 = Very Important).

Food & Drink	☐ Quality	☐ Technology	☐ Value for Money	☐ COO Credibility	☐ Status & Esteem
Cosmetics	☐ Quality	☐ Technology	☐ Value for Money	☐ COO Credibility	☐ Status & Esteem
Washing Powder	☐ Quality	☐ Technology	☐ Value for Money	☐ COO Credibility	☐ Status & Esteem
Air Conditioner	☐ Quality	☐ Technology	☐ Value for Money	☐ COO Credibility	☐ Status & Esteem
Refrigerator	☐ Quality	☐ Technology	☐ Value for Money	☐ COO Credibility	☐ Status & Esteem
Automobile	☐ Quality	☐ Technology	☐ Value for Money	☐ COO Credibility	☐ Status & Esteem

Q#11 For each of the following product categories, please indicate which one country has the best overall reputation.

Food & Drink _____

Cosmetics _____

Washing Powder _____

Air Conditioner _____

Refrigerator _____

Automobile _____

Q#12 Please indicate the reasons for your choice of above mentioned country in each industry (give numbers in each column) according to the degree of importance as:

0 = Not Important,

 1 = Of Some Importance,

2 = Important,

3 = Very Important)

Category	Quality	Technology	Value for Money	COO Credibility	Status & Esteem
Food & Drink					
Cosmetics					
Washing Powder					
Air Conditioners					
Refrigerators					
Automobile					

Q#13 Please indicate where <u>you think</u> that the following brands come from.

Brands	Pakistani	Imported	Foreign origin but *Manufactured in Pakistan* (Under License)
Food & Drinks *Coca Cola*			
Vita bread			
Red Bull			
Cosmetics *Revlon*			
Lux			
Bio Amla			
Washing powder *Bonus*			
Ariel			
Surf			
Air Conditioner *Mitsubishi*			
LG			
PEL			
Refrigerator *Dawlence*			
PEL			
Phillips			
Automobile *Honda*			
Suzuki Mehran			
Toyota Land Cruiser			

Thank You for your cooperation.

APPENDIX: B

Effect of Country of Origin (COO) Image on Consumer Product Involvement: A Pakistani University Teachers' Perspective

The study is a part of my research degree of PhD in Business and Management from Salford Business School, University of Salford, UK. The current study focus is on the consumer behaviour in Pakistan with reference to Country of Origin (COO) image and its effects on low involvement product categories (where consumers purchase products with little thought and effort and this purchase involve little or no risk and cost) and high involvement product categories (where consumers purchase products after great consideration and this purchase might involve high risk and cost). The aim of this study is to assess the effect of the COO image (in a certain product category and in terms of country's level of economic development) on consumer product involvement (low and high) in university teachers (as consumers) of Pakistan.

Respondents' role in the study

The study requires you to fill thirteen items questionnaire in which you will be asked about your perceptions of COO image of low and high involvement product categories. This paper based questionnaire should take approximately 20 minutes to fill. Respondents are not required to write their identities in any form anywhere on the questionnaire. This is to confirm that the data will be available only to the researcher and in some instances to the supervisory team. However, the data remains confidential. Respondents' anonymity shall also be ensured throughout the research process as well as in further publications following this thesis. Respondents will have right to contact the researchers at any point to withdraw their participantion in the study. Each respondent is assigned a unique number to keep for future references which you can mention in your correspondence incase you want to withdraw your participation. They are also welcomed to see the research findings once the process is completed.

Thank you for your valuable input for this study. Should you require any further information about my study, please don not hesitate to contact me through the following contact details.

Researcher: Ms. Amna Shahzad
　　　　　Salford Business School, University of Salford, Manchester, UK
　　　　　　E-mail (Preferred): amnaayazpk@gmail.com
　　　　　　Cell: 0300-9403936 (9:30 am – 6:00 pm)

Effect of Country of Origin (COO) Image on Consumer Product Involvement: A Pakistani University Teachers' Perspective

No. ---------
(To be filled by researcher)

QUESTIONNAIRE

Q#1 To what extent do you agree with the following statements related to Country of Origin Information of a product.

Sr. No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	"When buying an expensive item, such as a car, TV or refrigerator I always seek to find out what country the product was made in".					
2	"To make sure that I buy the highest quality product or brand, I look to see what country the product was made in".					
3	"I feel that it is important to look for country-of-origin information when deciding which product to buy".					
4	"I look for the "Made in …" labels in clothing".					
5	"Seeking country-of-origin information is less important for inexpensive goods than for expensive goods".					
6	"A person should always look for country-of-origin information when buying a product that has a high risk of malfunctioning, e.g. when buying a watch".					
7	"I look for country-of-origin information to choose the best product available in a product class".					
8	"I find out a product's country of origin to determine the quality of the product".					

Sr. No.	Statement					
9	"When I am buying a new product, the country of origin is the first piece of information that I consider".					
10	"To buy a product that is acceptable to my friends and my family, I look for the product's country of origin".					
11	"If I have little experience with a product, I search for country-of-origin information about the product to help me make a more informed decision".					
12	"A person should seek country-of-origin information when buying a product with a fairly low risk of malfunctioning, e.g. when buying shoes".					
13	"When buying a product that is less expensive, such as a shirt, it is less important to look for the country of origin".					

Q#2 To what extent do you agree with the following statements.

Sr. No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	"It is prestigious to buy foreign makes".					
2	"Pakistani products are inferior to foreign brands".					
3	"Within Pakistan access to foreign products is limited".					
4	"Pakistani products are not widely advertised".					
5	"True Pakistanis should buy only Pakistani brands".					
6	"Only those products not available in Pakistan should be imported".					
7	"Pakistani products first and last".					

8	"Buying Pakistani products is good for labour".					
9	"Advertising foreign brands is anti-Pakistani".					
10	"We should buy products manufactured in Pakistan".					
11	"It is best to purchase Pakistani products".					
12	"There should be very little importing of goods".					
13	"Pakistanis should not buy foreign products because it hurts Pakistani business".					
14	"No imports should be allowed".					
15	"It may not be good for me, but I prefer to support Pakistani products".					
16	"Foreigners should not be allowed to sell their products in Pakistan".					
17	"Foreign products into Pakistan should be taxed heavily".					
18	"Pakistani consumers who buy foreign brands are putting Pakistanis out of work and employment".					
19	"Generally products from developed countries are of superior quality".					
20	"Generally products from developing countries are of lesser quality".					
21	"If a country has a good reputation in one product category, this will have a positive influence on the reputation of other products from the same country".					
22	"Whilst a country might have a good reputation in one product category, this doesn't necessarily mean that it has the same good reputation for other products from the same country".					

Q#3 (a) To what extent do you agree with the following statements.

Sr. No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	"I like to try new and different brands".					
2	"I like to wait until a new product is proved to be good before I try it".					
3	"When it comes to take chances with new products, I would rather be safe than sorry".					
4	"I frequently look for new products and services".					
5	"When I see a new brand on the shelf, I always buy it just to see what it is like".					
6	"I am continually seeking new product experiences".					
7	"I always try new brands before my friends and family do".					
8	"Unless there is good reason for changing, I think we should continue with the same brands we are using as always".					
9	"New products are usually publicity stunt".					
10	"When I go shopping, I find myself spending very little time checking out new products and brands".					
11	"I take advantage of the first available opportunity to find out about new and different products".					

(b) To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	"Prior to purchasing a new brand, I prefer to consult a friend who has experience with the new brand".					
2	"When it comes to deciding whether to purchase a new service, I rely on experienced friends for advice".					
3	"I always ask a friend about their experience with a new product before I buy that product".					
4	"I decide to buy new products and services based on the opinions of family members who have already tried them".					
5	"When I am interested in purchasing a new service, I rely on my friends or close acquaintances that have already used it to give me information as to whether I should try it".					
6	"I rely on experienced friends for information about new products prior to making up my mind about whether or not to purchase".					
7	"I always seek out information about new products and brands".					
8	"I like to go to places where I will be exposed to information about new products and brands".					
9	"I like magazines that introduce new brands".					

Q#4: Age

☐   20-30   ☐   31-40   ☐   41-50   ☐   51-above

Q#5: Gender

☐   Male   ☐   Female

Q#6: Your education level

☐   MA/MSc/MBA   ☐   M.Phil / M.S   ☐   PhD

Q#7: Your Job Title

☐   Lecturer   ☐   Assistant Professor   ☐   Associate Profess☐   Professor

Q#8: Your income level (in Pak Rupees)

☐ 20,000–30,000 ☐ 31,000-40,000 ☐ 41,000-50,000 ☐ 51,000-60,000 ☐ 61,000-Above

Q#9: How often do you buy products under the following categories.

Cold Drink ☐ Daily ☐ Weekly ☐ Monthly ☐ Annually ☐ Once/Twice in a life time

Automobile ☐ Daily ☐ Weekly ☐ Monthly ☐ Annually ☐ Once/Twice in a life time

Q#10 Please rank the following attributes on the basis of importance in these product categories from 1=Low to 5=High.

Attributes	Cold Drinks					Automobiles				
Quality	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Technology	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Value for Money	1	2/	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
COO Credibility	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Self Esteem	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Q#11 For each of the following product categories, please indicate which one country has the best overall reputation.

Cold Drinks   _____

Automobiles   _____

Q#12 Please indicate the reasons for your choice of above mentioned country in each industry by ranking the following attributes on the basis of importance in these product categories from 1=Low to 5=High.

Attributes	Cold Drinks					Automobiles				
Quality	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Technology	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Value for Money	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
COO Credibility	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Self Esteem	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Q#13 Please indicate where <u>you think</u> that the following brands come from.

Brands	Pakistani	Imported	Foreign origin but *Manufactured in Pakistan* (Under License)
Food & Drinks *Coca Cola			
*Pakola			
*Red Bull			
Automobile *Honda			
*Suzuki Mehran			
*Toyota Land Cruiser			

Thank You for your cooperation.

APPENDIX: C

Section I: Effect of COOIPC and COOIED on CPLIP (Multiple Regression)

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.499[a]	.249	.248	.60256
a. Predictors: (Constant), COOIED, COOIPC				

ANOVA[b]						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	181.406	2	90.703	249.816	.000[a]
	Residual	546.798	1506	.363		
	Total	728.204	1508			
a. Predictors: (Constant), COOIED, COOIPC						
b. Dependent Variable: CPPLIP						

Section II: Effect of COOIPC and COOIED on CPHIP (Multiple Regression)

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.482[a]	.232	.231	.71286
a. Predictors: (Constant), COOIED, COOIPC				

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	231.755	2	115.878	228.031	.000[a]
	Residual	765.297	1506	.508		
	Total	997.052	1508			
a. Predictors: (Constant), COOIED, COOIPC						
b. Dependent Variable: CPHIP						

Section III: Backward Regression for Model I

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.574[a]	.329	.328	.56980
2	.574[b]	.329	.328	.56978
a. Predictors: (Constant), COOIPC, COOIED, CIA, CE				
b. Predictors: (Constant), COOIED, CIA, CE				

ANOVA[c]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	239.904	4	59.976	184.731	.000[a]
	Residual	488.300	1504	.325		
	Total	728.204	1508			
2	Regression	239.601	3	79.867	246.007	.000[b]
	Residual	488.603	1505	.325		
	Total	728.204	1508			

ANOVA[c]						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	239.904	4	59.976	184.731	.000[a]
	Residual	488.300	1504	.325		
	Total	728.204	1508			
2	Regression	239.601	3	79.867	246.007	.000[b]
	Residual	488.603	1505	.325		
	Total	728.204	1508			
a. Predictors: (Constant), COOIPC, COOIED, CE, CIA						
b. Predictors: (Constant), COOIED, CE, CIA						
c. Dependent Variable: CPLIP						

Section IV: Regression Table - Effects of COOIPC on CPLIP (excluding COOIED in Model I)

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	.179	.114		1.563	.118
	CE	.224	.032	.183	7.103	.000
	CIA	.257	.031	.206	8.180	.000
	COOIPC	.400	.032	.315	12.663	.000
a. Dependent Variable: CPLIP						

Section V: Backward Regression for Model II

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.582[a]	.339	.337	.66205

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.582[a]	.339	.337	.66205
a. Predictors: (Constant), COOIPC, COOIED, CE, CIA				

ANOVA[b]						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	337.842	4	84.460	192.698	.000[a]
	Residual	659.211	1504	.438		
	Total	997.052	1508			
a. Predictors: (Constant), COOIPC, COOIED, CE, CIA						
b. Dependent Variable: CPHIP						

Section V1: Regression Table - Effects of COOIPC on CPHIP (excluding COOIED in Model II)

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	.734	.133		5.530	.000
	CE	-.141	.037	-.098	-3.834	.000
	CIA	.555	.036	.379	15.210	.000
	COOIPC	.535	.037	.361	14.586	.000
a. Dependent Variable: CPHIP						