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DIPLOMARBEIT

Embedding the Country-of-Origin in the Corporate Brand Name: an Empirical Study

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Angestrebter akademischer Grad

Magister der Sozial- und Wirtschaftswissenschaften

(Mag. rer. soc. oec.)

Wien, im Februar 2011

Studienkennzahl lt. Studienblatt:	157
Studienrichtung lt. Studienblatt:	Internationale Betriebswirtschaft
Betreuer:	Univ.-Prof. Dr. Adamantios Diamantopoulos

To life

Am Gelingen dieses Werks hatten viele Personen teils erheblichen Anteil. Zuallererst gilt mein großer Dank **Professor Adamantios Diamantopoulos**, meinem Betreuer, der mich in allen Situationen mit größtem Verständnis unterstützt und gefördert hat. Auch danke ich dem gesamten Chair of International Marketing, insbesondere **Katharina Zeugner-Roth** und **Birgit Löhndorf**. Große Dankbarkeit verspüre ich auch gegenüber der Deutschen Bank und dem Team „Land der Ideen“, insbesondere gegenüber **Maike Tippmann**, die mir dabei geholfen hat, mein wahres Potenzial zu erkennen und mich geduldig und mit großer Weitsicht unterstützt hat. Danke auch an meine beiden Lektoren **Frauke Grunow** und **Simon Hiscox**. Dank ihnen ergibt diese Arbeit auch sprachlich Sinn.

Meiner Mutter, **Erna Fürtner** danke ich für ihre grenzenlose Liebe und ihre unbändige Kraft, die auch mir ebensolche verliehen hat und meinem Vater, **Peter Frigo**, besonders dafür, dass er mir dabei hilft, meinen eigenen Weg zu finden und ihn auch zu gehen. Meinen drei Geschwistern **Petra Fembek**, **Christine Solchinger** und **Peter Frigo** danke ich, dass Sie mich bedingungslos bei allem unterstützen.

Zum Abschluss möchte ich noch drei Personen hervorheben: **Johanna Feuerstein**, **Odo Dvorak** und **Michel Tragschitz**, das *Triumvirat meiner Seele*; Michel, der mich immer zu Höchstleistungen antreibt, Odo der mich wieder auf den Boden der Tatsachen zurückholt und Johanna, die allein durch ihre reine Anwesenheit Wunder bewirken kann (und bewirkt). Ohne euch wäre ich ein schlechter Mensch.

Eidesstaatliche Erklärung

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Abstract

Past research has expressed doubt on the relevance of the country of origin (CoO) of products, brands and services in evaluating and/or consuming them. The present study has analysed the influence of the image of the CoO of a brand on the image of the brand itself and the intention to get in contact with it via a multicountry study. Our results provide strong support to the ongoing economical importance of CoO. It could be proved that the more consumers are (made) aware of the (desired) origin of a brand, the higher the magnitude of above-mentioned influence is. Furthermore, the effect of a series of variables on the evaluation of countries and brands and intention to consume the latter has been tested for. It has been found that higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism do not necessarily lead to derogation in the evaluation of foreign countries and brands, as well as behavioural intention towards the brand. Furthermore, sociodemographic characteristics of consumers were found to have no consistent influence on either of the three. Additionally, results reveal that higher familiarity with a country or an industry does not necessarily lead to a more positive evaluation of associated brands. Altogether this piece of work provides important insights on the functioning of the CoO cue and associated constructs, them being valuable to both, researchers and marketing practitioners. Academics get valuable insights into the functioning of CoO effects and find further proof for its' relevance. The latter can use the results in developing the communication strategy for their brand(s).

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1. Introduction

Häagen-Dazs is Danish, Coca Cola American and Red Bull also emerges from the US. Two out of these three statements are wrong. Which ones, due to the fact that Coke may be characterised as the most American of all American brands, seems to be an easy guess. However, when not in possession of this knowledge, all three origin definitions may be judged as correct, due to various reasons. Häagen-Dazs is actually American and chose this brand name to sound European and therefore be associated with the according image. Red Bull is Austrian but clearly refrains from using any origin cue whatsoever. Austrians know where it comes from and (most of) the rest of the world, due to its' trendy and hyper-modern image, think it to be American.

"Origin information is provided to consumers through hundreds of thousands of brand and company names, promotional messages, product labels, and other means, whether directly or through symbolism. In short, the images of countries and their relationships with products are an integral part of daily life" (Papadopoulos, 1993, p. 16). The usage of origin information, however, is not just a recent development. It has "played a significant role throughout history in enabling people to identify, classify, assess, think of, and act upon phenomena and objects" (p. 9). Examples therefore are definitions like Greek mythology, Russian roulette, London Fog, British rock, or Mexican standoff. Furthermore, associations like German engineering, Japanese technology, Danish and Swiss chocolate or Afghan rugs, further accentuate the usage of origin references for products (Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002).

In this context it is essential for companies and organisations, as well as academic researchers, to know how and to what extent the origin cue influences the evaluation of brands, product and services as well as the decision to buy them. This is of utmost importance, especially in situations where the country of origin (CoO) is constantly being communicated by the company or organisation.

One such example is companies bearing their CoO in their corporate brand name (e.g.: American Apparel, Gaz de France, Russian Standard Vodka, Holland Blumen Mark, Deutsche Bank). These companies have no choice but to constantly communicate their CoO, as the following quote from an article in the German magazine "DER SPIEGEL"

about Deutsche Bank illustrates: "Its' position as 'Germanys' biggest and most successful financial institute […] is by no means a simple one. Already the 'Deutsche [Editors' Note: German]' in its' name leads to a 'rather distant relationship' among many people" (Kazim, 2008). So, even though a brand may possess of a very strong image itself, its' CoO may still bear significant (positive or negative) influence. It seems only reasonable to conclude that the influence CoO has on a brand is higher for companies having their origin embedded directly in their corporate brand name (and are thus constantly communicating it), than for companies, where this is not the case.

What is suggested above, however, lacks scientific confirmation. Even though CoO and its' implications are "arguably the most researched field in international marketing" (Heslop et al., 2008, p. 356), the impact on companies presumably being most confronted with the so called country of origin effects (CoE)[1] (i.e., those having their CoO embedded in their corporate brand name) has not yet seen attention in scientific literature.

Furthermore, existing CoO literature has been rather product-oriented regardless of the increasing importance of the service industry in global economy (Harrison-Walker, 1995; Pecotich et al., 1996; Ahmed et al., 2002; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006; d'Astous et al., 2008), this representing another gap in academic research.

1.1 Research Objective

This thesis seeks to strengthen knowledge of CoE in the service industry and close aforementioned literature gaps. It will be analysed whether the influence of CoO on a brand differs when the origin cue is embedded in the corporate brand name, compared to when this is not the case.

This work is based upon a multinational quantitative study comparing the influence of CoO and several other constructs, past research has proven to carry substantial influence on brand image (brand origin recognition accuracy, the image of the industry, different types of familiarity, sociodemographic characteristics and consumer ethnocentrism).

[1] Defined as „The effect an image of a country has on brands or products related with the country" (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006, p. 31)

The results of this work are beneficial to both, academics and practitioners. Researchers can extract knowledge about CoE when CoO is visibly and prominently integrated in company essentials. Furthermore the knowledge on CoO in the service industry is deepened. Marketing practitioners, on the other hand – especially those of companies having the CoO embedded in the corporate brand name – can use the results of this study when deciding on their overall communication strategy.

1.2 Structure

This thesis is divided into 7 parts. Chapter 1 has given you a principal introduction on the basics and aims of this piece of work as well as the reason of it being of importance to marketing researchers and practitioners.

Chapter 2 provides an overview on the theoretical background for this thesis. Starting with an introductory part on history and importance of CoO, it will then cover the essentials on the other constructs relevant in this piece of work.

Chapter 3 covers the research questions this thesis is addressing as well as the hypotheses the author has developed.

Chapter 4 covers the technical, i.e., methodological framework including research method, sample and questionnaire. The chapter concludes with an overview on how the data from aforementioned questionnaires has been analysed as well as possible limitations of these procedures.

After having provided the reader with the necessary technical background, Chapter 5 deals with the results having emerged from the empirical study.

In the following part – Chapter 6 – these results are being discussed and the according implications on academic research as well as marketing practitioners shown.

Chapter 7 provides a short summary of the findings of this thesis. Furthermore, limitations of this work are covered as well as avenues for further research shown.

2. Literature Review

The aim of this chapter is to provide the essential theoretical background on the constructs used and analysed in this thesis. First, the concept of country of origin (CoO) is presented, putting a special focus on its relevance and effect. Second, the interaction between CoO and brand is discussed. The third section covers the implications of consumer sociodemographics and attitudes. In the last part, the influence of the various types of familiarity is discussed.

2.1 Country of Origin

The French are well renowned for their expertise in wine and food. Italy and France are leaders in fashion. The finest cigars are from Cuba. Japan excels in technology, as do the USA. And if a watch originates from Switzerland, it automatically is judged to be of good quality.

These *common beliefs* show that the origin of a product bears important information about the very product (e.g.: Papadopoulos & Heslop, 1993; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Ahmed et al., 2002; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2008), probably working "similar to a brand name" (Ittersum et al., 2003, p. 223). But what is the CoO? It is usually defined as the country "which consumers typically associate with a product or brand, *irrespective of where* it is *actually manufactured*" (Usunier, 2006, p. 62). In other words: It is the country that comes to ones' mind, when being confronted with a certain product, service, brand or company. The actual origin(s) therefore bear(s) only little relevance (c.f.: 1. Introduction). Many researchers have claimed that the term *country of origin* is both, too broad and too narrow at the same time, with it being necessary to also include bigger entities (e.g.: European Union) or smaller ones (e.g.: cities, regions) which may even span over political borders (e.g.: Roth, 1995; Ittersum et al., 2003; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006). Therefore, when the term *country* is being used in this thesis, it also incorporates geographic entities of different dimensions.

CoO tags bear a huge amount of information, enabling us to "identify, classify, assess, think of, and act upon phenomena and objects" (Papadopoulos, 1993, p. 9). It is "to a product what 'occupation' is to a new acquaintance we make at a party: we sort of have

to ask about it [...] to put our new friend in context" (Papadopoulos & Heslop, 1993, p. xxii). In other words, CoO provides us with some sort of an anchor in a highly globalised world (Roth & Romeo, 1992). Consumers use the CoO cue to "to form preferences and purchase decisions, but it also elicits emotions, feelings, imagery, and fantasies" (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999, p. 522).

Following Papadopoulos (1993), the CoO of a product and/or brand can – apart from the physical *made-in* label – be communicated via several methods (c.f.: Harrison-Walker, 1995; Brodowsky et al., 2004). First the CoO may be an integral part of the company's (corporate) brand name as is the case with, for example, American Airlines or Deutsche Bank (c.f.: Pecotich et al., 1996; 2.2.1 Brand Image as a Summary Construct). Second, the company and/or brand may already be strongly associated with a certain country, such as Coca Cola (American) or Sony (Japan). Third, a specific language may be used in worldwide corporate communication. Giorgio Armani evokes (correct) associations to Italy. Häagen-Dazs, as aforementioned, uses this strategy to (wrongly) be judged a Danish/Scandinavian brand. This effect can be accentuated by using the language in the corporate claim, a method that in recent years has been used e.g., by car manufacturers. Audi advertises with *Vorsprung durch Technik* (Advancement through technology), Volkswagen uses *Das Auto* (THE car) and Renault communicated itself as *créateur d'automobiles* (creator of cars). Fourth, companies may use country-symbols in order to strengthen country associations. One of the best examples therefore is IKEA, it not only using an animal strongly associated with its' home country Sweden (the elk) but solely using the colours of the Swedish flag (blue, yellow) in their logo, store design, communication material, etc. (Papadopoulos, 1993).

2.1.1 Relevance of CoO

Corresponding to above-mentioned examples, past research strongly suggests that CoO has a significant effect on product evaluation (e.g.: Han, 1989; Roth & Romeo, 1992; Papadopoulos, 1993; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Liu & Johnson, 2005).

In the beginning days of CoO-research, the focus has merely been on proving that country of origin effects (CoE) exist (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Papadopoulos, 1993; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Usunier, 2004). Since then the field has evolved to, as already mentioned, "the most researched field in international marketing" (Heslop et al.,

2008, p. 356), with "over 1,200 published works" (p. 356) on this topic (see literature reviews by Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Papadopoulos, 1993; Baughn & Yaprak, 1993, Al-Sulaiti & Baker, 1998; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2006).

The ever-recurring question is as to whether CoO is – consciously or subconsciously – noticed and used by third parties. "Nearly every country of origin study has assumed that consumers look for the made-in label when judging the characteristics of a product" (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006, p. 80, c.f.: d'Astous & Ahmed, 1999). This assumption is criticised by Jean-Claude Usunier (2006), stating that the relevance of CoO has become "factual common knowledge" (p. 63), even though its' real world relevance is decreasing (c.f.: Samiee et al., 2005). For Usunier (2006) several issues have to be addressed in order to "assess possible discrepancies between COO research and the 'real world'" (p. 63). Following his line of argumentation it is to be questioned, whether (1) information on CoO is available at all (2) consumers even use it and (3) CoE withstands the rise of importance of multinational brands.

"For customs officers, it is now sufficient to have the origin mentioned in customs documents rather than on the merchandise itself. Consequently, consumers are less informed about the origin of products, especially when it is unfavourable" (Usunier, 2006, p. 63; c.f.: Samiee, 2010). In fact, at the beginning of the 21st century, a proposal of Confindustria, an Italian employers' federation, on mandatory origin declaration for products imported into the European Union and the introduction of a *Made in the EU* Label failed due to opposition of Germany, the UK and the Netherlands (Samiee, 2010). However, in some of the most economically important countries (USA, Canada and China) the majority of imported products require origin labelling (Confindustria, 2005). Furthermore the focus on origin declaration on merchandise reduces CoO to the identification tag on the inside of a t-shirt. As already mentioned, the origin cue works via different channels, the mere presence on the product being only one of them. Of course "the key question is whether the producer elects to emphasize a particular cue beyond the point necessary by legal requirements" (Papadopoulos, 1993, p. 14). However, it is argued that marketers often use the origin cue for differentiation of their products due to the possibility of worldwide production and standardization (Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002). Niss (1996), for example, studied the usage of origin information in Danish companies, interviewing decision makers in top or middle

management in a variety of industries. His results indicate that origin cues are used (1) mostly where the image of the CoO is "considered suitable for the specific type of product on offer" (p. 14), i.e., when it matches with desired product positioning and (2) more frequently in the beginning stage of the product life cycle, gradually turning to *brand-name marketing* in later stages.

When looking at the proposed decrease in *real world relevance*, numerous examples prove CoO to still bear significant importance (Ittersum et al., 2003). For example, Ettenson and Klein (2005) found French nuclear testing in the South Pacific to have had significant influence on the intention of Australians to purchase French products, concluding "a firm may find itself mired in an unforeseen marketing crisis stemming from a controversial event external to the firm and its marketing activities" (p. 200). Other examples, such as the call-back of over 4.5 million cars by Toyota in 2010, show that actions of one single company can affect the image of a whole country (Austin, 2010; c.f.: Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006). Furthermore country image campaigns like *Germany – Land of Ideas*, *100% Pure New Zealand* or *South Africa – Alive with Possibility* show that all over the world countries engage in shaping and reshaping their image in order to foster tourism, investment and exports (Papadopoulos, 1993; c.f.: Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006).

Now, do "consumers still attach importance to the country where a product is manufactured?" (Usunier, 2006, p. 63). The author bases his assumption on the majority of people neither knowing nor caring about the country of manufacture (CoM) of products on several studies prima facie supporting his point of view. However, when examining more closely the products in question, one finds that with e.g. apparel and household appliances, his assumption is derived from low-involvement[2] goods only. Ahmed et al. (2004), analysed the impact of CoO, brand and price on the evaluation of food products, concluding that CoO "does play a role in consumers' evaluation of low-involvement product but its effect is weak" (p. 112). However, even though, according to Josiassen et al. (2008), consumers place even less importance on the CoO cue, when evaluating high-involvement products, as opposed to their low-involvement counterparts (c.f.: Schaefer, 1997), this view is being contradicted by the majority of researchers. Ahmed et al. (2002), analysed CoO effects in the services industry and

[2] involvement defined as: "A person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interests" (Zaichkowsky, 1985, p. 342).

stated, that in situations which "constitute a higher risk for the consumer" (p. 295) the CoO cue may be of higher importance than in low risk (i.e. low-involvement) situations (c.f.: Zaichowsky, 1985; Papadopoulos, 1993; Ittersum et al., 2003; Lin & Chen, 2006; Michaelis et al., 2008; Zeugner-Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2010). Furthermore, the afore-mentioned study of Confindustria in Italy, France, Germany and the UK, revealed that consumers are indeed interested in the origin of products, saying that it provides more information (agreed by approximately 80% of respondents) and helps detecting products emerging from countries engaging in e.g. child labour (agreed by 70-80%) (Confindustria, 2005). Brodowsky et al. (2004), state that "[i]n an atmosphere of renewed patriotism […] Americans are once again talking about where products are made" (p. 729 f.) and find CoO to be a "moving but not irrelevant target" (p. 730). Cordell (1992) found 69.2% of US-respondents to seek CoO information at least for some purchases and Papadopoulos & Heslop (2002) stated consumers to use origin cues "to 'chunk' information, reduce perceived risk and assess the social acceptability of their purchases" (p. 296).

Another criticism of the validity of CoO is rooted in globalization (Usunier, 2006). This development has brought forward a vast number of products whose actual origin cannot be clearly defined, so-called hybrid products (e.g.: Häubl, 1996; Al-Sulaiti & Baker, 1998; Ahmed et al., 2002). It is argued that, due to the influence of CoM, country of brand (CoB) or country of design (CoD) (c.f.: Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006), the relevance of CoO is constantly declining (Usunier, 2006). However, following the definition of CoO as the country "which consumers typically associate with a product or brand, *irrespective of where* it is *actually manufactured*" (Usunier, 2006, p. 62, c.f.: Ahmed et al., 2004; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006), globalization provides companies with a wide choice of possible countries of origin (e.g.: Papadopoulos, 1993; Klein et al., 1998; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Brodowsky et al., 2004; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006). The American brand Apple, for example, is, regardless of where their products are being manufactured, branding them as *designed by Apple in California*. This development, the focus on CoB or CoD rather than on the actual product origin has become a widespread phenomenon for multinational companies (e.g.: Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Usunier, 2006; Usunier & Cestre, 2007; Koubaa, 2008; cf.: 2.2.1 Brand Image as a Summary Construct).

However, even though "[t]here is enough evidence to confirm that origin does matter […], people do not like to admit that it does" (Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993, p. 68 f.; c.f.: d'Astous & Ahmed, 1999). An explanation for this can be found in Liu & Johnson (2005), who prove CoO to also work on a subconscious level. "Consumers' reluctance to admit the influence of COO may […] reflect the limitations of their abilities to discern the sources of influences on their evaluative judgments, rather than that of COO effects per se" (p. 87). CoO may even influence evaluations and decisions of individuals originally possessing of enough information to not have to rely on additional sources. Alba & Hutchinson (1987) hypothesise that simple repetition of tasks may lead to automatic information processing, even more so when the environment is complex. This leads to the conclusion of CoO not only bearing enough real-world relevance to allow for further investigation but probably even being "more powerful than what has traditionally been thought and detected" (Liu & Johnson, 2005, p. 95).

2.1.2 Country of Origin Image

In order to analyze why consumers prefer products or brands from one country in comparison to another, emphasis has to be put "on the perceived image of the countries involved" (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2008, p. 2), as opposed to the mere presentation of the CoO cue itself.

For "the individual, the image *represents* the object, or even *is* the object" (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006, p. 14; c.f.: Papadopoulos, 1993). Images bear a high explanatory power of how people feel and act vis-à-vis certain stimuli, regardless of them being an actual product, a brand, country, situation or person (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006). They help in classifying objects and therefore are useful if not even necessary in coping with the increasing complexity of today's society (Papadopoulos, 1993) thus bearing high importance for marketing practitioners (Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006).

In a recent paper, Roth and Diamantopoulos (2008) analysed the different definitions of country of origin image (CoI) in the literature. They found that the sum of 20 definitions could be put in three groups: (1) general image of countries, (2) image of countries and their products and (3) image of products from a country. The first group offers the most comprehensive view on CoI, it consisting of products as well as for example

economical, historical and cultural factors. The image of countries and their products, the so-called product-country image (PCI) on the other hand is restricted by only focusing on countries as origin of products. Even though this theory is partly supported by findings that CoI varies with the product categories in study (e.g.: Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Roth & Romeo, 1992) it still does not capture the whole of the CoI construct. The third group offers an even more restrictive view, as it focuses only on the products of a certain country and therefore is much more related to product image (PI) than it is to CoI (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2008).

Following image theory, Roth and Diamantopoulos (2008) conclude that an image should comprise a cognitive (degree of industrial development, political climate, etc.) (c.f.: Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006) as well as an affective (i.e., emotional) facet (c.f.: Heslop et al., 2008). The conative aspect (behavioural intention towards the country) is more of an outcome of the other two and thus should not be part of CoI. Only a few definitions meet the criteria of (1) measuring the general image of countries and (2) including (only) cognitive and affective facets (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2008), the most straightforward being by Verlegh (2001). His definition of CoI as "a mental network of affective and cognitive associations connected to the country" (p. 25) will be used in this thesis.

Of ongoing interest to researchers is, how CoI is formed, especially, since images of places are "*not directly under the marketer's control*" (Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002, p. 295; c.f.: Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994; Kim, 1995). Researchers argue, that it is based upon "general knowledge about countries picked up everywhere from geography class […] to daily newspapers and TV documentaries, friends and co-workers […], and direct experiences from visits to the country" (Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993, p. 63) and the consumption of products originating from that country (Niss, 1996; Laroche et al., 2005; Nadeau et al., 2008; d'Astous et al., 2008). It is widely recognised that the economic, political, and cultural characteristics bear significant influence on CoI (e.g.: Wang & Lamb, 1983, Lee & Ganesh, 1999; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006), leading to a bias against products from low-developed countries (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Han & Terpstra, 1988; Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993).

2.1.3 Measurement methods of CoI

Roth and Diamantopoulos (2008) further examined the existing measurement scales of CoI. They identified a total of "30 studies with a concrete measure of country image" (p. 728) 18 of which are "*really* different from one another" (p. 733).

One interesting stream of scale development covers the *personification* of CoI. Chao and Rajendran (1993) tried to capture CoI by evaluating "consumers feelings towards COO through their evaluation of individuals who are presumed to own products of different national origins" (p. 23). They compared the impact, domestic and/or foreign product ownership had on the image of a college professor vis-à-vis a plant foreman. This approach is criticized by Nebenzahl et al. (2003), stating "the reference to specific hypothetical consumer types limit[s] the potential range of responses" (p. 385). In the same paper they propose a more detailed personification scale. Respondents were asked to describe a person buying products from a certain country. Since "the country is the only cue provided to respondents, all attributes reflect back to products made in that country. Thus, the scale captures not only normative, but also emotional and social dimensions that consumers attribute to these products" (p. 400). However, Roth and Diamantopoulos (2008) criticize it as being unclear, which of the above-mentioned group of country images this scale can be attributed to, as well as whether the scale really "comprises normative and affective aspects" (p. 734), as the latter is much rather an outcome of responses. Recently d'Astous and Boujbel (2007) created a scale to "position countries on human traits" (p. 231). They hypothesise that people have no difficulty in ascribing personality traits on countries, as has already been shown for brands (Aaker, 1997). Here again, Roth and Diamantopoulos (2008) criticize the affective facet to being modelled as an outcome and thus not being part of the scale.

Another group of researchers conducted a large scale study in eight different countries (US and Europe) in order to link product-country image with the image people hold of countries and their people (Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993). The authors partly validated the model originally used by Nagashima (1977), resulting in a four-factor structure consisting of *Product Integrity*, *Price/Value*, *Market Presence* and *Response*. Parameswaran and his collaborators (e.g.: Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994) took the same path, trying to link product categories with an overall country image. After several studies, they concluded that CoI consists of general country attributes (divided into an interaction and a people facet), general product attributes (divided into desirable and

undesirable attributes as well as attributes relating to product image) and specific product attributes (no clear dimensionality) (Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994). Their results have been validated, amongst others, by Pereira et al. (2005).

Roth & Romeo (1992) proposed a framework for "linking product category perceptions to country image dimensions" (p. 479). They measured product-country match with contrasting *perceived strength of the country* and *perceived necessities for the product category* and linking the results to behavioural intention (BeI). They conclude that if "a country is perceived as having a positive image, and this image is important to a product category, consumers will be more willing to buy the product from that country" (p. 493). Whereas on the other hand, using the reference to a country having a positive image but the respective dimension(s) not being important for the product category, might not yield in benefits in sales. This approach is being backed by Ittersum et al. (2003), stating that an "important determinant for the success of regional products is the match between the product and the region of origin, as perceived by consumers" (p. 216; c.f.: Ahmed et al., 2004). The results by Veale & Quester (2009), studying the impact of CoO on the evaluation of wine, Pappu et al. (2006), studying the impact on TV-sets and cars and Usunier and Cestre (2007), analysing products ranging from cars to vacuum cleaners to shoes, provide further academic credibility to the framework. The latter advanced the concept by Roth & Romeo (1992), introducing the so-called *product ethnicity*, which measures how strongly a product category is associated with a certain country and vice versa, i.e., "the degree of product-country match" (Usunier & Cestre, 2007, p. 33).

However, as Roth and Diamantopoulos (2008) show, no scale avoids suffering from at least one severe methodological drawback. Some show a lack of external validity due to the use of non-probabilistic samples and/or the lack of cross-country and cross-culture comparisons. Others lack the report of reliability and/or validity tests, whereas others don't mention the origin of their items used. In addition, as with the definition of CoI, scales vary in which facets measuring the attitude towards the country are included. Only a few follow the aforementioned image theory including a cognitive and affective facet. (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2008)

2.1.4 Country of Origin Effects

Having clarified that CoO "plays a significant role in consumers' perceptions of products" (Roth & Romeo, 1992, p. 479), we now focus on the factual impact of the origin cue on the evaluation of products, services and brands as well as the behavioural intention towards them.

Over time, CoO research has seen numerous steps forward. The CoI of a certain country may change over time (Nagashima, 1977; Darling & Wood, 1990; Bilkey, 1993; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Nebenzahl et al., 2003), is more important for complex products (Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993), higher for more developed countries (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Cordell, 1992; Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Chinen et al., 2000) and also works in an online-context (Cheng et al., 2008). It differs by service category (Pecotich et al., 1996), as well as product category (Etzel & Walker, 1974; Han & Terpstra, 1988; Papadopoulos, 1993; Ittersum et al., 2003), by CoO and/or nationality of respondent (Cattin et al, 1982; Roth, 1995; Ahmed et al., 2002; Samiee, 2010). Its' effect does not differ not between hybrid and non-hybrid production (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999), only slightly between consumers and retail buyers (Heslop et al., 2004) and is stronger for durable goods (Hsieh et al., 2004). This knowledge has led to a much better understanding of the phenomenon per se. However, despite these advances, CoE are still not well understood (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999).

Even though the majority of past studies analysed the effect of CoO on product evaluation (Liefeld, 1993; Leclerc et al., 1994; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995), and "all of the studies reviewed indicate that country of origin does indeed influence buyers' perceptions" (Bilkey & Nes, 1982, p. 94; c.f.: Han & Terpstra, 1988), the results on the amount of impact still differ widely (Ozretic-Dosen et al., 2007), especially in the presence of other product information cues (Schaefer, 1997). For example, Ahmed et al. (2002), in their study on consumers' evaluation of cruise lines, state that in past research the CoO cue "has been found to explain a relatively small percentage of the variance of perceived quality [and] attitude, […] suggesting that its theoretical and practical importance is low" (p. 284). This is partly confirmed by the study of Fong & Burton (2008), analysing CoO effects in an online environment (discussion groups in the US and China). They found US consumers to by and large ignore the origin of digital cameras when being asked to rate or recommend them. Chinese customers on the other hand, used the origin cue quite extensively, even though most of the according

comments were directed as to boycott Japanese products (see 2.3.1 Consumer Animosity). The CoO of a product not to be the prevailing cue when evaluating a product was also found in Veale & Quester (2009) when studying the impact of CoO, price and taste on the evaluation of wine in Australia. Even though they found that even when respondents actually tasted the wine, CoO was a more important predictor of quality ratings than taste (15.08% and 13.1% respectively), both of these factors were left far behind in importance by price (71.81%). The researchers conclude, "those tasting the wine allowed their senses to be overcome by their strongly held beliefs in price and COO, possibly because they mistrusted their own palates" (p. 142), implying it to be possible, to increase perceived over intrinsic quality by adapting price and CoO. Johansson et al. (1985), found CoO to not influence overall quality ratings, but only certain key attributes of the product. In their study, the origin of a car only influenced the evaluation of gas mileage, horsepower, driving comfort and reliability for some of the CoOs, whereas no significant influence on overall quality ratings could be detected in the study.

On the other hand, Josiassen et al. (2008) found CoO to significantly impact product evaluation and quality perception with a total influence of $\beta^3 = 0.43$. The results of Laroche et al. (2005) point in the same direction. They analysed the impact of CoI on product evaluation for Japan and Sweden for consumers in North America and reported a total effect (direct and indirect via product beliefs) of $r = 0.537$ for Japan and 0.548 for Sweden (the direct effect amounted 0.414 and 0.331 respectively). Another study showing the origin cue to have a high influence in evaluating products is presented by Heslop et al. (2004). The researchers analysed the influence of CoI for consumers and retail buyers in Canada. Five countries were being rated and its influence on product evaluation and BeI was assessed. The impact of beliefs of products emerging from a certain CoO on product evaluation was found to be significant and high with coefficients ranging from $\beta = 0.61$ to 0.82. Country evaluations on a general level (e.g.: trustworthiness, quality of life), on the other hand, showed no significant influence.

In their meta-analysis, Peterson & Jolibert (1995) found an average CoE on product evaluation of $r = 0.16$, when taking into account multiple-cue studies only (i.e., studies that incorporating cues than just CoO). Verlegh & Steenkamp (1999), after analysing 41

[3] The standardized beta vaule (β) reflects „the number of standard deviations that the outcome will change as a result of one standard deviation change in the predictor" (Field, 2005, p. 193)

studies with 278 effect sizes on CoE between 1980 and 1996, state, "country of origin has a larger effect on perceived quality than on attitude toward the product" (p. 521) with an average effect size of r = 0.11 including only multiple cue studies.

As for the effect of CoO on behavioural intention towards a product – the second most researched dependent variable (Liefeld, 1993; Leclerc et al., 1994; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995) – past research suggests it to be rather low (Erickson et al., 1984; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Ahmed et al., 2002). It seems reasonable that, even though a consumer might think favourably of a certain product, (s)he might still not buy it due to various reasons, e.g. budget constraints (Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). In other words, even though I do think an Augusta Bell to be a high quality helicopter, I still won't buy it due to lack of necessity and money. Roth & Romeo (1992) reported a positive correlation between CoI and BeI. Their model was reused by e.g., Wang & Yang (2008), who confirmed their findings with CoI explaining 15.4% of BeI. Wall et al. (1991), found the impact of CoO on likelihood to purchase manufactured products to be significant but rather unimportant. Josiassen et al. (2008) studied the evaluation of cars, electronics, watches and electrical household appliances and found CoO to have an impact on BeI of $\beta = 0.31$. Ettenson et al. (1988) reported fibre content and price to be more important for BeI on apparel than CoO. Peterson and Jolibert (1995) found an average effect size on BeI of r = 0.19, which dropped to 0.03 when including multiple cue studies only. This is in line with Lim & Darley (1997), stating single-cue studies to be highly prone to demand effects.

An important point of criticism in past studies is the common usage of fictitious brand names (e.g.: Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Ahmed et al., 2002; Veale & Quester, 2009). Ahmed et al. (2002; 2004) criticize the external validity of this approach, as it doesn't reflect a real life situation. Okechuku & Onyemah (1999) propose that their usage may overestimate CoE "since, in the real world, consumers' choice sets often include well-known brands" (p. 620). Furthermore the usage of mere product descriptions is criticized, e.g. by Peterson & Jolibert (1995), stating that the presence of an actual product in CoO studies resulted in a decrease of CoE. Liefeld (1993) found no such (significant) effect, even though the results point in the same direction. Vaela & Quester (2009) on the other hand, compared the results of respondents having been confronted with the actual product and those having only received a description and found no significant differences between those two groups.

2.1.5 Service industry

"There has been tremendous world-wide growth in the services sector, leading to a substantial increase in economic contribution by services to most national economies" (Ahmed et al., 2002, p. 284). In Germany, for example, the percentage of employees in the services industry compared to overall employees has risen from 45% in 1970 to more than 72% in 2006 (Federal Statistical Office, 2009). The industry is described as *the* driving force of economic growth, accounting for 70% of Germanys' Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (BmWi, 2010). In Austria 67% of employees are working in the service industry, with it contributing 70% to GDP (Kugler, 2010).

Already Papadopoulos (1993) stated that CoO-research includes, among other things, the impact of CoO on products and services (cf.: Bilkey, 1993). However, nearly ten years later, Ahmed et al. (2002) criticize most previous CoO-research to have focused primarily on manufactured products (c.f.: Harrison-Walker, 1995; Pecotich et al., 1996; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006; d'Astous et al., 2008). They hypothesise the importance of CoO to be higher for the service industry as "purchase and consumption are usually simultaneous", resulting in a "higher risk for the consumer" (p. 295; c.f.: Michaelis et al., 2008). In their study on CoO and brand effects on cruise lines, Ahmed et al. (2002) found that CoO had an impact of $\beta = 0.268$ on product quality and 0.267 on attitude to product whereas for BeI the impact was 0.167. The results for product evaluation and BeI significantly exceed the above-mentioned average of 0.16 and 0.03. The researchers though conclude, "it appears that the interactive effects of CO […] may differ according to the type of industry: products versus services" (p. 295). Harrison-Walker (1995) analysed the relevant criteria for choosing an ophthalmologist in the United States and found provider nationality to significantly influence the selection of a service provider.

The fact that CoO, too, has a significant impact in the service industry, has received additional support through the study of Pecotich et al. (1996), who analysed CoE on service evaluation and BeI for banks and airlines. Their results reveal that, if the CoO of a service provider changes, perception of service quality and BeI, too, undergo significant changes. Furthermore Bruning (1997) found CoO to play a "significant role in the selection process for international air carriers" (p. 66) among Canadians with it being "second only to price in terms of relative importance" (p. 67). Lin & Chen (2006) analysed the influence of CoI on BeI for insurance and catering services in Taiwan,

concluding it to have a significantly positive influence, even under different product involvement levels.

Michaelis et al. (2008) studied the impact of CoO on *initial trust* (i.e. the degree of trust people award a company or brand they had no prior experience with) for service providers (telecommunication & insurance). His results reveal that for Polish customers, CoO has no direct effect on initial trust but enjoys an interaction effect with *risk level of service* i.e., services underlying a high-perceived risk (insurance) are subject to higher initial trust, when the associated CoO conveys a positive image.

2.1.6 Conclusion

We have seen that, despite – or just because of – recent developments, such as reduced customs requirements or hybrid production, CoO bears significant real-world relevance (e.g.: Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Liu & Johnson, 2005; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006). However, due to differences in definition, as well as methodological issues, its' factual impact is still not sufficiently understood (Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Heslop et al., 2004; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2008). According to past research, it though seems reasonable to conclude that direct CoE are stronger for product evaluation than BeI, as for the latter more predictors (e.g.: price) enter the equation (Baughn & Yaprak, 1993; Niss, 1996).

"[N]ational images are a given fact and it is up to […] individual firms to deal with them" (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006, p. 85). Ahmed et al. (2002) describe CoO as "producer-controlled" strategy (p. 283; c.f.: Cordell, 1992). Han (1989) states, "individual companies can benefit from favourable country image by selling inferior products" (p. 228). In other words: it might be described as a question of whether a CoO fits the companies' positioning strategy and/or increases its' sales or not (c.f.: Wang & Yang, 2008). It is reasonable to assume that, if a company has the possibility of providing its brand(s) and/or products and services with a favourable CoO – one that in the long run directly and/or indirectly has a positive influence on its balance sheet – it will consider to take this opportunity (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006). If, however, expected results on promoting a certain CoO are neutral or even negative, chances are high of the company concealing it (Han & Terpstra, 1988; Papadopoulos, 1993). Red Bull refrains from using any CoO cue whatsoever because it wants to be seen a global brand, Häagen Dazs benefits from *being* Danish and Audi as well as Volkswagen clearly communicate

German engineering skills being an integral part of their company, brand and products (c.f.: Leclerc et al., 1994; Steenkamp et al., 1999; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006).

2.2 CoO and the Brand

It has been made clear that consumers take external cues such as price or CoO into account when evaluating products and services. Several researchers, too, have included brand (name & image) into the equation (e.g.: Han & Terpstra, 1988; Wall et al., 1991; Pecotich et al., 1996; Okechuku & Onyemah, 1999; Ahmed et al., 2002, 2004; Wang & Yang, 2008), as, since both, CoO and brand are "producer-controlled strategies, the synergy of their combined inputs is of managerial interest" (Ahmed et al., 2002, p. 283). In these studies, brand name or brand image[4] has been used as another indicator for quality evaluations. As with other cues, the inclusion of brand image (BI) led the relative effect of CoO to diminish (Han & Terpstra, 1988; Cordell, 1992). Wall et al. (1991), for example, found the influence of CoO on the evaluation of manufactured products to only range from $\beta = 0.002$ (for a telephone) to 0.046 (polo shirt) in the presence of the brand and price cues.

Even though, it seems clear that "country-of-origin effect is most effective when combined with a strong national brand image" (Pecotich et al., 1996, p. 222; c.f.: Ahmed et al., 2002), past research is not conclusive on whether CoO or BI bear higher influence on product evaluation or BeI towards it. D'Astous & Ahmed (1999) compared the self-assessed importance of CoO (measured as CoM and CoD) to its factual influence on product evaluation of VCRs among salesmen and consumers in Canada. When being asked about the importance of CoO, salesmen ranked them as lowest compared to brand reputation, price and warranty. Consumers, on the other hand, ranked the two origin-cues as most important ones. However, as the researchers themselves point out, these results may be highly inflated, as these cues are usually not "available in a form that [consumers] can use to make an intelligent choice" (p. 119). They conclude that CoO "becomes an important cue for consumers whenever it is made available to them at the time of product evaluation" (p. 123). If this is not the case, its' direct influence is negligible (d'Astous & Ahmed, 1999).

[4] defined as „perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory" (Keller, 1993, p. 3)

In another study, Ahmed et al. (2002) found CoO to have a stronger effect than brand in quality evaluation of cruise products, whereas for purchase intention brand shows a stronger effect. The latter is also supported by Wang & Yang (2008), who studied the effect of brand personality[5] and CoI on BeI towards Sino-German and Sino-Japanese cars in China. The researchers found brand to explain 21.2% (Sino-German) and 19.8% (Sino-Japanese) of purchase intention, whereas for CoI the influence amounted 15.4% and 10.4%, respectively. Hsieh et al. (2004) proposed a model measuring the impact *umbrella-brand images* (consisting of Product-, Corporate- and Country-image) are having on BeI. Their survey of the automobile industry in 20 countries shows that corporate image and CoO, both part of the overall umbrella-image, bear significant main effects on purchase behaviour, amounting $\beta = 0.153$ and 0.023, respectively.

For product evaluation, Wall et al. (1991) found CoO to have a higher influence on manufactured products than price and brand. When evaluating cars and TV sets, according to Okechuku and Onyemah (1999), CoM ($\beta = 0.33$ for both) is at least as important a cue than brand name (0.28 and 0.32, respectively) for Nigerian consumers, both being more important than price, reliability and safety, all three amounting less than 0.17. However, Lee & Ganesh (1999) reported brand to have a higher impact than CoO on consumer evaluations for high-involvement binational brands.

Cordell (1992) found brand to be able to outweigh a negative CoI for products from less-developed countries (c.f.: Ahmed et al., 2004), whereas this was not the case in Wall et al. (1991). Furthermore CoI was found not to overcome a negative brand personality (Wang & Yang, 2008). Interestingly, Lee & Ganesh (1999) found BI and CoI not to interact with each other. These findings, however, are contradicted by Wang & Yang (2008), who reported CoI to positively moderate the relationship between brand and BeI. Furthermore brand influence was found to differ by product category (Wall et al., 1991; Wang & Yang, 2008).

2.2.1 Brand Image as a Summary Construct

Usunier (2006) states that nowadays brand names are more important for consumers than CoO. However, as Papadopoulos (1993) mentioned, companies (and thus the brands) themselves are some sorts of products, which might undergo significant CoE

[5] defined as a „set of human characteristics associated with a brand“ (Aaker, 1997, p. 347)

(c.f.: Han, 1989). Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999) undermine this by criticizing the reliance of CoO-studies on the product and not the brand level. Brands carry various origin information, communicated via the brand name itself or advertising (e.g.: Thakor & Lavack, 2003; Kapferer, 2004; Laroche et al., 2005; Samiee et al., 2005; Pappu et al., 2006) thus probably being significantly influenced by them (e.g.: Baughn & Yaprak, 1993; Chao, 1998; Zeugner-Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2010; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006). Lee & Ganesh (1999) define a positive CoO to be a "natural requirement" (p. 22) for a positive BI. Johansson & Nebenzahl (1986) even call the disentanglement of brand and country "an impossible task in many instances" (p. 103). Brands, such as Microsoft and McDonald's may be seen as US diplomats and the *Roman Catholic Church* as *superbrand* (Ham, 2001; c.f.: Paswan & Sharma, 2004). This leads countries to having their reputation for certain product categories primarily built on the success of certain brands (Pappu et al., 2006; Usunier & Cestre, 2007). However, these effects have seen only little attention in scientific literature (Paswan & Sharma, 2004; Samiee et al., 2005; Jin et al., 2006; Wang & Yang, 2008; Samiee, 2010).

Han & Terpstra (1988) hypothesised, "[c]onsumers utilize extrinsic cues in evaluating a brand because they often are unable to detect its true intrinsic quality" (p. 236). Accordingly, Thakor and Kohli (1996) advanced the concept of *brand origin*, defining it as "place, region or country to which the brand is perceived to belong by its target consumers" (p. 27). In other words: Mercedes-Benz is a German brand for cars. Germany is well known for its expertise in technology and craftsmanship, resulting in a worldwide reputation for building cars. Thus Mercedes-Benz builds good (excellent) cars (Thakor & Kohli, 1996; Ham, 2001; d'Astous et al., 2008). Samiee et al. (2005) identify CoB as "meaningful alternative for bypassing the many conceptual and research design difficulties and shortcomings associated with C[o]O studies" (p. 393). In total the concept has received strong support among researchers (e.g.: Lee & Ganesh, 1999; Samiee et al., 2005; Ozretic-Dosen et al., 2007; Koubaa, 2008; Zeugner-Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2010).

Johansson & Nebenzahl (1986) analysed the impact, a change of production location might have on two American (Buick & Chevy) and two Japanese car brands (Honda & Mazda). Following their results, a Honda produced in (West) Germany – if this were actively communicated – would benefit in terms of *stylishness* (4.4 to 5.2 on a 7-point Likert scale), *exclusiveness* (3.9 to 4.8), whereas loosing in *economical to run* (5.2 to

4.5) and *low service costs* (4.2 to 3.9). On the other hand, a change in production location to the Philippines would result in a severe image-deterioration for all brands. Thakor and Lavack (2003) studied the effect of *location of corporate ownership* (CoB) and *location of the source of product* (CoM), on perceived brand quality. They reported the existence of an information hierarchy, where (perceived) CoB bears significant influence on perceived brand quality, whereas for CoM this is only the case when CoB information is missing. In their study on the impact of CoO and brand on the evaluation of banks and airlines, Pecotich et al. (1996) reported a strong interaction effect between brand and CoO. D'Astous & Ahmed (1999), in their above-mentioned study on salesmen and consumers in Canada, found their results to "strongly support the theoretical proposition that brand name serves as a proxy for COO [CoO]" (p. 122).

"Foreign branding can be an effective means of influencing consumers' perceptions and attitudes" (Leclerc et al., 1994, p. 269; c.f.: Kim, 1995). Leclerc et al. (1994) and Zhuang et al. (2008) studied the impact of *foreign branding*[6] on brand image. The former found products to be perceived as more hedonic for US consumers, when the (same) brand name was pronounced in French as compared to English. Even when respondents experienced the products, actual hedonic products still were perceived more positive, due to their French naming. On the other hand the inclusion of *made in France* did not contribute significantly to the evaluations, leading to the conclusion that the foreign brand name alone communicated the origin-cue well enough (Leclerc et al., 1994). Zhuang et al. (2008) conducted a similar study in China, concluding that local brands using foreign brand names were more often judged as being foreign, resulting in a more positive evaluation.

2.2.2 Brand Origin Recognition

Claiming CoB to significantly influence quality perceptions and BeI via brand image assumes consumers to have an (correct or incorrect) origin association vis-à-vis the brand (Paswan & Sharma, 2004; Samiee et al., 2005). If this were not the case, the importance of CoO might have been inflated in past research (Samiee et al., 2005; see 2.1.3 Relevance of CoI).

[6] defined as: "the strategy of spelling or pronouncing a brand name in a foreign language" (Leclerc et al., 1994, p. 263)

Chao and Rajendran (1993), during their development of a CoI scale, checked whether US-respondents were able to locate brands they were confronted with in the study. They were asked to state for 51 brands, which of the 3 countries (USA, Germany and Japan) they were produced in. Incorrect classification reached from 1.8% (Toshiba – Japan) to 41.2% (Siemens – Germany) with a significant part being falsely classified as domestic i.e., US brands. On average, misclassification amounted approximately 10% (Chao & Rajendran, 1993). Paswan & Sharma (2004) analysed the knowledge of brand origin for four American brands (KFC, McDonald's, Pepsi and Coke) in India. The correct classification ranged from 57% (KFC) to 84% (Coke). Furthermore, they found that travel abroad, socio-economic classification, education and to a certain extent, familiarity with the US significantly influenced correct classification. The researchers conclude with advising marketing managers to support better knowledge of brand origin (Paswan & Sharma, 2004). However, their results may be inflated due to the use of very well known brands, all of them emerging from the same country (US). In their study of the influence of CoI on brand equity, Jin et al. (2006) checked for correct country-brand associations in India and found them to be very high for widespread brands within the country. However, they note that "[t]he association becomes weaker overtime as the brands are produced locally" (p. 294). Yasin et al. (2007) state, "[s]ince consumers today are mostly well educated […], it can be expected that they are well informed about the original country of their selected brands" (p. 44 f.).

However, in a study on the evaluation of a low-involvement product (food) in Croatia, Ozretic-Dosen et al. (2007) found respondents to have only minor knowledge of the origin of the brands in study. Detailed figures are however lacking, which hinders an extensive interpretation. Zhuang et al. (2008) claimed that consumers in China often are "confused about the origin of local versus foreign brands" (p. 442), as foreign brands may choose local sounding names to foster localness. On the other hand, local brands choose foreign sounding brands to be perceived as Western (and thus hip and modern). Figures for misjudgement of foreign brands were negatively correlated with product knowledge and ranged from Nike (1%) to Heineken (53.8%) and – for local brands – from shoe-producer Li-Ning (3.3%) to casual-wear producer Jasonwood (75.5%, *intentional*). Local companies pretending to be foreign thereby profited of the higher evaluation of (actual) foreign brands (Zhuang et al., 2008). In another study, Samiee et al. (2005) studied brand origin recognition accuracy (BORA) through a survey conducted in the United States. A sample of 480 people from all over the US were

asked to classify 84 brands (40 US-brands, 44 International) on which country they believed them to originate from. Correct brand origin associations amounted only 35% with 22% for foreign and 49% for US-brands. For respondents with higher brand familiarity, numbers rose to 33% and 68%, respectively. The number of "don't know"-classifications ranged from 30.1% (England) to 56.4% (Italy) suggesting that approximately 40-45% of respondents (no results provided for higher familiarity) could not make any concrete brand origin association at all (Samiee et al., 2005). The study though, has several shortcomings. Firstly, even though the authors claimed possibly severe differences between branches, no category-specific analysis has been provided. Secondly, the *don't-knowers* may still be subject to influence of certain regional cues (i.e.: Anglo-American or European brand). Third the concept of BORA is missing a measurement of the impact, this *lack* of (conscious) knowledge is having on the factual influence of brand origin (Zeugner-Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2010).

These results lead to mixed conclusions about the widespread accuracy of brand origin associations. D'Astous & Ahmed (1999) found this to be attributable to product category involvement. In their study, respondents were split into high- and low-involvement groups, resulting in significantly higher brand-country matches for the high-involvement group. In general, past research strongly suggests, that "managers […] should periodically monitor the origins associated with their brands" (Samiee et al., 2005, p. 393) in order to prevent possible negative impacts on their brand due to (correct or) wrong linkages.

2.3 CoO and the Consumer

Many researchers have studied sociodemographic variables as predictors of product ownership and/or evaluation (e.g.: Schooler, 1971; Wall et al., 1991; Baughn & Yaprak, 1993; Josiassen et al., 2008; Wang & Yang, 2008). However, even though they are seen as important moderators (Johansson et al., 1985; Chao & Rajendran, 1993; Baughn & Yaprak, 1993; Hsieh et al., 2004), very often no significant results or clear pattern of influence could be detected (Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993). Heslop & Papadopoulos (1993) attribute this to the fact that the focus has much rather been on products in general. Thus every respondent uses his/her own reference point (different types of

products) and arrives at different results, which reduces the probability of detecting effects attributable to sociodemographic characteristics.

Wall et al. (1991) found older persons to evaluate products higher, whereas Schooler (1971) found the exact opposite, but only for foreign products. Kapferer (2004) stated younger people to prefer products of international origin. Johansson et al. (1985) reported this effect for foreign and domestic products, but only for certain product attributes. Anderson & Cunningham (1972) on the other hand found no such effect. For gender Schooler (1971) found females to give higher ratings than males whereas Johansson et al. (1985) and Baughn & Yaprak (1993) reported mixed results and Wall et al. (1991) found no significant results at all. Education has been found to positively moderate product evaluation in Schooler (1971) and Anderson & Cunningham (1972) and negatively in Wall et al. (1991), whereas Josiassen et al. (2008) found no such effect. Income was found to be positively correlated with product evaluation in Han & Terpstra (1988) for all and Jin et al. (2006) for foreign products. Johansson et al. (1985) found income to have relatively little and Anderson & Cunningham (1972) and Josiassen et al. (2008) reported it to have no impact.

As opposed to the inconsistent findings concerning sociodemographic characteristics, CoE have proven to differ by respondent (Cattin et al., 1982; Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Baughn & Yaprak, 1993; Klein et al., 1998). Jaffe & Nebenzahl (2006) identified four consumer segments in order to group consumers by their usage of the CoO cue: Patriots, Cosmopolitans, Traitors and Hostiles. Patriots prefer goods of domestic origin, downplaying or even ignoring possible image and/or quality differences. Cosmopolitans are indifferent vis-à-vis origin. Traitors prefer imported goods and Hostiles tend to boycott goods from certain foreign countries. From this segmentation, the authors arrived at their *Two Dimensional Consumer Segmentation Model* (see table 1).

According to Jaffe & Nebenzahl (2006), consumers can be classified by their degree of *ethnocentrism-othercentrism* (i.e.: patriot vs. traitor; local vs. foreign goods) and *animosity-affinity* (i.e.: hostile vs. friend; attitudes towards a specific country) on a continuous scale. The concepts of consumer ethnocentrism (CE) and consumer animosity[7] (CA) (and thus their respective counterparts) have shown to be valid in CoO-

[7] defined as "a consumer's emotional attachment to the geographic origin of a product." (Jiménez & Martìn, 2010, p. 38)

research (e.g.: Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Klein et al., 1998; Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006; Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007; Jiménez & Martìn, 2010).

Table 1: Two Dimensional Consumer Segmentation Model

Attitude toward Imports	Attitude toward a country		
	Animosity	Indifferent	Affinity
Othercentricity	1 Conflict	2 Dominated by Othercentricity	3 Strong attraction to imports from the country
Cosmopolitan	4 Dominated by Animosity	5 No emotional preference	6 Dominated by affinity
Ethnocentricity	7 Strong repulsion of imports from the country	8 Dominated by Ethnocentricity	9 Conflict

Source: Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006

2.3.1 Consumer Animosity

Tensions among countries, regions or national groups are generally known to exist all over the world. They may be due to questions over territory, economy, diplomacy, religion or mentality (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007). These tensions may translate into a boycott of brands, products and services based on their CoO (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Brodowsky et al., 2004; Heslop et al., 2004). This has been the case, for example, for products from certain countries in the Middle East and South Asia, (Heslop et al., 2008). On the other hand, it is being argued that "consumers show a bias for products from countries with which they have some particular relationships, whether these relationships are based on geographical proximity, common history, shared values, shared language, political or economic ties" (d'Astous et al., 2008, p. 382) or whether they have, for example, emigrated from this country (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006). The former, however, is being contradicted by the results of Riefler & Diamantopoulos (2007) who, with Austrians expressing animosity towards Germans, found the construct to be independent of cultural similarity. Their study, though, is

lacking information on whether such animosity based on *being wrongly judged as German* and *slight differences in mentality* translate into product-avoidance.

The fact that animosity may result in serious economical consequences, however, is a common phenomenon. Klein et al. (1998) conducted the first study in this area, analysing the effect, negative emotions of Chinese consumers towards Japan are having on BeI towards Japanese products. They hypothesised that Chinese consumers "might avoid products […] because the exporting nation [Japan] has engaged in military, political, or economic acts that a consumer finds both grievous and difficult to forget" (p. 90). Indeed, their study revealed animosity to be "related negatively to their willingness to purchase Japanese products" (p. 96) whereas there was no significant effect on product evaluation (c.f.: Fong & Burton, 2008). However, "[i]f animosity is sufficiently strong, its effect may be dominant enough for purchase decisions no longer to be influenced by evaluations of the product" (p. 97).

Ettenson and Klein (2005) analysed the impact French nuclear testing in the South Pacific had on the evaluation of and intention to purchase French products in Australia. Their study revealed that this act led to animosity towards France, which resulted in a de facto consumer boycott of "French firms […], all products perceived to be made in France, and even enterprises with only a spurious association to France" (p. 202). In numbers, animosity had an effect of b = -0.59 on willingness to buy. A year later, after nuclear testing had been stopped, animosity decreased, but still amounted -0.53, indicating a negative long-term effect. The researchers further found animosity to be independent of product evaluation during the *conflict*. In other words: Australians still regarded French products as being of high quality, but refrained from actual purchase due to negative attitudes (i.e. animosity) towards France. However, after some time, a certain denigration of product quality perceptions (-0.26) seemed to occur. The incident attracted further scientific attention, with Heslop et al. (2008) publishing a longitudinal study, measuring country-people image effects before, during and after French nuclear testing (1992, 1995 and 2005, respectively). Their results support the study of Ettenson & Klein (2005) with product evaluation staying rather stable over time (0.78, 0.84 and 0.82 out of 1, respectively) whereas their influence on BeI suffered intensely during the incident (dropping from $\beta = 0.67$ to 0.48). However, 10 years after nuclear testing had been stopped, numbers had recovered "even beyond pre-incident attitude levels"

(Heslop et al., 2008, p. 371), thus implying that, even though there is a significant long-term effect, numbers and emotions may balance out at some point.

2.3.2 Consumer Ethnocentrism

As mentioned above, consumer attitudes may also be positive or negative towards foreign countries, products and services in general. This so-called consumer ethnocentrism (CE) has been introduced to marketing literature by Shimp & Sharma (1987), them describing the phenomenon as the "beliefs held by the consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products" (p. 280). Or, as Shankarmahesh (2006) puts it, CE "indicates a general proclivity of buyers to shun all imported products irrespective of price or quality considerations due to nationalistic reasons" (p. 147).

Higher levels of CE have found to be the result of a perceived necessity to protect oneself and one's in-group (in this case: residents of one's home country) against the threat of foreign competition, leading to a preference for local brands, products and services (e.g.: Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Han, 1988; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999) and a higher usage of the CoO cue (Brodowsky et al., 2004). The degree of CE is positively influenced by factors such as patriotism, nationalism, salience, out-group size, age, threat of foreign competitors and conservatism and negatively influenced by factors such as cultural openness, income, education and capitalism – the strength of influence though, is situation specific (Balabnis et al., 2001; Shankarmahesh, 2006; Verlegh, 2007).

The phenomenon is being supported by many *buy-national* campaigns worldwide (e.g.: Crafted With Pride in U.S.A. in 1985; Buy Russia in the 1990s; Buy Australian Made in 1996; c.f.: Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002). "Almost every country has had an industry group, labor union or nation-wide campaign to promote domestic products" (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006, p. 170). However, Jaffe & Nebenzahl (2006) note that no evidence has been gathered to support these campaigns for having significant impact on buying decision, even more so if the superiority proclaimed by the campaign is not backed by products or services offered (c.f.: Ettenson et al., 1988; Usunier & Cestre, 2007).

Seeing as a significant influence of CE has been found in virtually every CoO study that checked for it (except Oretic-Dosen et al. (2007) among young Croatian costumers), there is a general consensus among the majority of researchers that higher CE leads to an increase in evaluations for domestic and a denigration concerning foreign products. In their study, Shimp & Sharma (1987) found respondents with higher levels of CE to "discount the virtues of foreign-made items" (p. 287). Ettenson & Klein (2005), in their study mentioned above, reported respondents with higher levels of CE to judge French products as being of lower quality and experience lower purchase intention. D'Astous et al. (2008) examined the influence of *openness to foreign cultures* (OFC) on the evaluation of art products emerging from 16 different countries. Their results showed that low OFC (high ethnocentrism) has a "negative impact on the evaluation of foreign products" (p. 379). These results are backed by Heslop et al. (2008), finding CE to have a "generalized negative affect towards foreign goods that transcends assessments of their quality and value" (p. 358).

On the other hand, Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004) found CE to be "a more consistent predictor of preferences for domestic […] rather than for foreign products" (p. 88), concluding "marketers of foreign products cannot always rely on CE as an indicator of the likely resistance to their offerings" (p. 91). They found CE to explain only little variance of respondents' preference, ranging from 3.3% (for DIY tools) to 8.8% (for TV sets). An explanation for these diverging results can be found in Verlegh (2007). After having conducted two separate studies, analysing the impact of CE on evaluation of foreign goods, he concludes, when an industry experiences threat from abroad, high CE leads to a deduction in the evaluation of foreign companies, products and services, whereas this is not the case when the local industry is *stable*. In other words, it is hypothesised that CE differs by product category (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006; Verlegh, 2007; d'Astous, et al., 2008).

According to these results, "universal domestic preference is a fallacy" (Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993, p. 45). Bruning (1997) found frequent Canadian air travellers to be "eager to trade off country loyalty for either lower prices or better services offered by foreign carriers" (p. 69). Brodowsky et al. (2004) analysed US consumers' evaluation of cars having either Japan or the US as CoM and/or CoD, finding low ethnocentric consumers to favour Japanese-designed cars. Shimp and Sharma (1987) provide an

explanation, as "to nonethnocentric consumers, […] foreign products are objects to be evaluated on their own merits without considerations for where they are made (p. 280).

Especially in developing countries, foreign companies, brands, products and services often even benefit from their foreignness – enjoying the effect of the so-called othercentrism (Wang & Lamb, 1983; Cordell, 1992; Okechuku & Onyemah, 1999; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006). Okechuku and Onyemah (1999) studied the evaluation of foreign and homemade goods by Nigerian consumers. They found the CoO cue to be an important feature of products, because consumers "want to make sure it is *not* a domestic brand" (p. 616), resulting in a higher overall image for European and Asian cars and TV sets. German-made products, for example, are seen as higher in reliability, technological advancement, prestige and workmanship compared to their Nigerian counterparts (Okechuku & Onyemah, 1999). According to Jin et al. (2006), consumers in India prefer products from the UK, as they are "perceived to be technically advanced, good design, good quality, good reliability[,] for upper class to be proud of ownership with good appearance [and] good performance [sic]" (p. 299). Tan & Farley (1987) found consumers in Singapore to prefer goods of foreign origin. Verlegh (2007) reasoned that, even if there exists a certain home-country bias, it is not (always) "strong enough to compensate for shortcomings" (p. 363) of the respective product(s).

2.4 CoO and Familiarity

Familiarity[8] is "a crucial element in the information processing model of human behavior" (Brucks, 1985, p. 1). Past research suggests that consumers with a higher degree of familiarity vis-à-vis a certain stimuli are able to evaluate it in higher detail (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Shimp et al., 1993; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994; d'Astous et al., 2008), or, as Papadopoulos (1993) puts it, the evaluation "is likely to move closer to 'objective reality'" (p. 6), regardless of whether this shift is positive or negative (c.f.: Johansson et al., 1985; Ahmed et al., 2002; Heslop et al., 2004). The degree of familiarity, too, influences, which cues are used to evaluate a product, brand or service and to what extend this is the case (Rao & Monroe, 1988). It's exact effect though, is still unclear (Lee & Ganesh, 1999).

[8] defined as "*the number of* [brand-, country- or] *product-related experiences that have been accumulated by the consumer*" (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987, p. 411)

Even though, Usunier (2006) claims studies to often fail checking for respondent familiarity with all "goods and origins mentioned in the research instrument" (p. 62), many researchers included familiarity in one way or another in their study (e.g.: Han & Terpstra, 1988; Wall et al., 1991; Roth & Romeo, 1992; Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993; Lee & Ganesh, 1999; Ahmed et al., 2002; Thakor & Lavack, 2003; Paswan & Sharma, 2004; Samiee et al., 2005; d'Astous & Boujbel, 2007).

Lee & Ganesh (1999) reported consumers with low country familiarity to rely more strongly on the CoO cue in their evaluation of binational brands, whereas Laroche et al. (2005) found CoO to impact product evaluation regardless of the level of country familiarity. For brand familiarity, Cordell (1992), studying US-consumers' evaluation of watches and shoes from 14 different countries found the importance of the CoO cue to decline with higher brand familiarity. This view is supported by Brucks (1985) hypothesizing, "in situations where known brands […] are used, knowledge of the attribute values of available brands is used as a substitute for more effortful external search" (p. 12) and Jaffe & Nebenzahl (2006) stating CoI to be *just another attribute* for familiar brands. Lee & Ganesh (1999) reached the opposite conclusion, finding consumers scoring high on brand familiarity to put more emphasis on the CoO cue. Schaefer (1997) support these findings after studying the evaluation of brands of lager in 7 countries for English costumers, but only when product class knowledge is high. A positive correlation between product class familiarity and the usage of the CoO cue has also been found in Lee & Ganesh (1999), Usunier & Cestre (2007) and is proposed in Alba & Hutchinson (1987). Knight & Cantalone (2000) reported CoE to be independent of product class knowledge, whereas Ahmed et al. (2004) hypothesised it to be negatively related. The results of Josiassen et al. (2008) supported this view with the researchers concluding it to be "exceedingly important for consumers when they evaluate products that are associated with product categories they are very unfamiliar with" (p. 430; c.f.: Cattin et al., 1982).

An explanation for these inconclusive results on the usage of the CoO cue can be found in Rao & Monroe (1988): "Low-familiar consumers are more likely to use extrinsic information based on their *belief* that a quality-extrinsic cue relationship exists in the marketplace" (p. 262). However, when consumers get more familiar with the country, and are able to verify (falsify) this relationship, further evaluations are based upon the knowledge of its (in-)existence. In other words, when consumers arrive at the

conclusion that CoO indeed is a criterion upon which a product can be evaluated, they will put more emphasis on it. If this, however, is not the case, CoO will be disregarded in the product evaluation process. (Rao & Monroe, 1988)

2.4.1 Familiarity as a Summary Construct

Until now it has been made clear, that "[...] consumers' perceptions are formed by relating to a product [or brand] what they know about a country's ability to produce goods and services" (Roth & Romeo, 1992, p. 482). This process, the inferring of attitudes from one concept (country) to another (product, brand) is called a halo construct (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Han, 1989; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006). Han (1989) states that past studies have solely relied on this construct in defining CoE. In his study he found that this, in fact, is true, but only for people of low product familiarity. Information on the country is transferred to the products or brands in question, making them similar or even virtually *identical* in some or all aspects (c.f.: Alba & Hutchinson, 1987). Han (1989) proved, that this transfer might be reversed when consumers are highly familiar with a nations' products resulting in them influencing CoI (c.f.: Baughn & Yaprak, 1993, Schaefer, 1997; Kapferer, 2004). These findings, however, were contradicted by Knight & Cantalone (2000), Heslop et al. (2004), and Laroche et al. (2005), who found CoI to impact product evaluations regardless of the level of familiarity.

Furthermore, Han (1989) treated the constructs as independent of each other with an occurrence of both when being in the transition phase. Jaffe & Nebenzahl (2006) analysed past research in this field, concluding that the two may operate simultaneously. Nebenzahl et al. (1997) created a model where brand, product (service) and country constantly interact with each other. An experience with a product, service or brand is influencing the products' CoO, which, in turn, leads to a revision of the CoI. The *updated* image then influences the evaluation and, possibly, intention to buy of brands, products or services emerging from this country.

3. Research Question, Hypotheses & Model

This chapter covers the research question, this thesis is going to answer. Next the hypotheses based upon the literature review are drawn and the models for the empirical study presented.

3.1 Research Question

The preceding chapter has shown that the evaluation of and intention to buy brands, products and services may be significantly influenced by their respective country of origin (CoO) (e.g.: Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993; Okechuku & Onyemah, 1999; Ahmed et al., 2002; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006). Still, Verlegh & Steenkamp (1999) stated country of origin effects (CoE) to not be well understood and Peterson & Jolibert (1995) saw the need for additional empirical research on the consequences of CoO "under a variety of circumstances" (p. 895; c.f.: Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994). Furthermore, examining how CoO influences brand image (BI) should "reveal the means to protect or enhance the core essence of a brand" (Pappu et al., 2006, p. 697).

Companies (and, of course, public institutions) all over the world and in a variety of industries are constantly communicating their CoO via their company essentials. One such example is carrying it embedded in ones' corporate brand name. For example in the airline industry (e.g.: British Airways, Austrian Airlines, Emirate Airlines, Air Berlin) and the financial services industry (e.g.: Deutsche Bank, Bank of America, Royal Bank of Scotland, Banque Nationale de Paris), carrying an origin indication is not just an exception to the rule. Through their corporate brand name alone, these companies are constantly, visibly and prominently communicating their CoO. It is thus reasonable to assume that they not only experience high CoE, but these effects are significantly higher compared to companies without an explicit origin indication. However, to date no study has analysed these effects. Thus the research question of this thesis is as follows:

Research Question: Does the country of origin effect differ between companies, bearing their origin in their corporate brand name, compared to companies where this is not the case?

3.2 Hypotheses & Model

In order to answer above posited research question and to check for the influence of the constructs and associated phenomenon presented in the literature review, several hypotheses have to be tested for.

Following CoO-literature, the evaluation of a brand is significantly influenced by the image of its country of origin (CoI) (e.g.: Chao 1998; Baughn & Yaprak, 1993; Zeugner-Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2010). Furthermore, according to Papadopoulos (1993), one can assume that consumers who are more strongly confronted with a brands' (desired) CoO, are more affected by it in forming attitudes towards the brand, the latter thus experiencing higher CoE (c.f.: Pecotich et al., 1996). One possibility to enhance country associations of a brand is the integration of the CoO in the corporate brand name (e.g.: Papadopoulos, 1993). Therefore the first hypothesis reads:

> **H1:** CoE are higher for companies, having their origin cue embedded in their corporate brand name, than for companies, where this is not the case.

CoI, in fact, "may lead to a range of reactions, from simple awareness to attitude formation to 'intention to buy'" (Papadopoulos, 1993, p. 22). Past research has confirmed the positive effect of CoI on both, brand image (e.g.: Johansson & Nebenzahl, 1986; Thakor & Lavack, 2003) and behavioural intention (BeI) towards products (e.g.: Roth & Romeo, 1992; Wang & Yang, 2008) Therefore it is hypothesized:

> **H2a:** CoI has a significant positive effect on BI
>
> **H2b:** CoI has a significant positive effect on BeI

However, past studies have shown that CoO has higher influence on the evaluation of brands, products and services, than on intention to buy (Erickson et al., 1984; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Ahmed et al., 2002).

> **H3:** CoO has a higher influence on brand image, than on behavioural intention.

CoE have been found to be specific to the product category (e.g.: Etzel & Walker, 1974; Han & Terpstra, 1988; Papadopoulos, 1993; Ittersum et al., 2003), the image of the latter thus bearing significant influence on BI (e.g.: Wall et al., 1991; Wang & Yang,

2008). In other words, it is hypothesised that the higher the image of a product category or industry, the higher BI.

H4: Industry Image (II) has a significant positive effect on BI

Sociodemographic characteristics of respondents (age, gender, income and level of education) are seen as important indicators of CoE (Johansson et al., 1985; Baughn & Yaprak, 1993; Chao & Rajendran, 1993; Hsieh et al., 2004). However, comparing different studies, results were either insignificant or pointing in different directions, their influence thus remaining inconclusive (Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993). Still, as comparable studies have, as to the authors' knowledge, not yet been accomplished, their influence on BI and BeI is of interest, even though no directionalities can be hypothesised.

H5a: Age has a significant influence on BI

H5b: Gender has a significant influence on BI

H5c: Income has a significant influence on BI

H5d: Education has a significant influence on BI

H5e: Age has a significant influence on BeI

H5f: Gender has a significant influence on BeI

H5g: Income has a significant influence on BeI

H5h: Education has a significant influence on BeI

Anderson & Cunningham (1972), in their study, analysed the impact of *occupation of the household head* on foreign product preference. Even though he found no significant effect, occupation is still included in this thesis for the sake of completeness.

H5i: Occupation has a significant influence on BI

H5j: Occupation has a significant influence on BeI

Diverging results, too, have been found for the effect of consumer ethnocentrism (CE) on the evaluation of brands and BeI towards them (Verlegh, 2007). Most of the literature though, suggests a negative influence on foreign product evaluation (e.g.:

Shimp & Sharma ,1987; Ettenson & Klein, 2005; d'Astous et al., 2008). On the other hand, as only Ettenson & Klein (2005) found CE to (negatively) impact purchase intention, it is hypothesised that CE doesn't influence BeI.

H6a: CE has a significant negative influence on BI

H6b: CE has no significant influence on BeI

Familiarity has been found to influence both, BI and BeI (Han & Terpstra, 1988; Liefeld, 1993; Lin & Chen, 2006; Wan & Yang, 2008). However, no consensus among researchers about the directionality of its general influence has been reached. Even more so, as familiarity has been hypothesised to strengthen perceived images of the individual person, rather than per se biasing it in any way (e.g.: Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Papadopoulos, 1993; Shimp et al., 1993; d'Astous et al., 2008). It is for these results, the influence of the diverse familiarities (country, industry and brand) on BI and BeI are expected to not reach significance. As no relationship between II and BeI is hypothesised, the effects of industry familiarity on BeI are not tested for.

H7a: The influence of country familiarity on BI is insignificant

H7b: The influence of industry familiarity on BI is insignificant

H7c: The influence of brand familiarity on BI is insignificant

H7d: The influence of country familiarity on BeI is insignificant

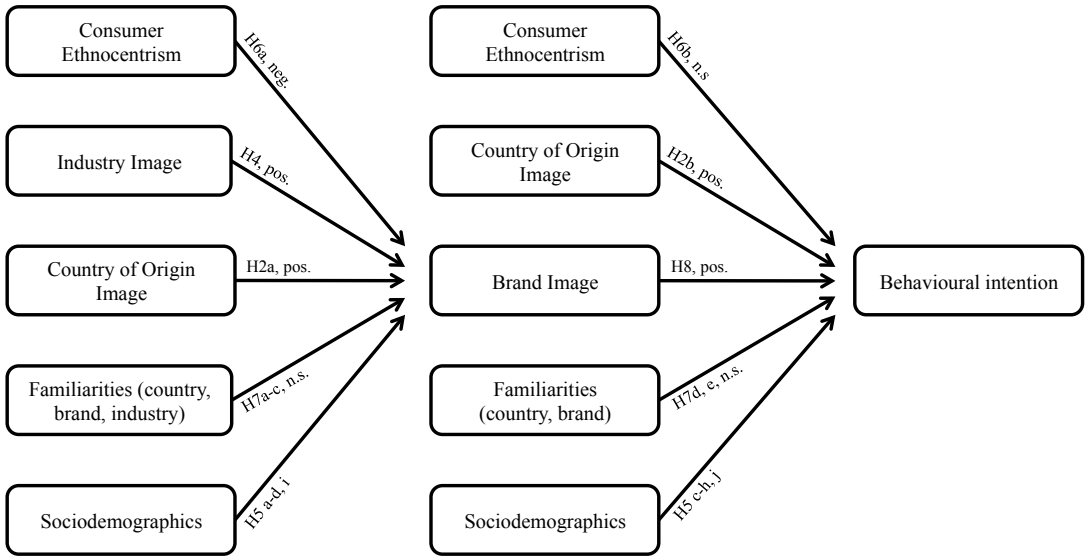
H7e: The influence of brand familiarity on BeI is insignificant

Furthermore, past research suggests BI to have a significant and positive influence on BeI, implying that the higher consumers think of a brand, the more likely they are to purchase (consumer) it (e.g.: Ahmed et al., 2002; Wang & Yang, 2008).

H8: BI has a significant positive influence on BeI

From these hypotheses, we arrive at the following study-model:

Figure 1: Hypothetical Model for BI and BeI



As a further step, the composition of CoI will be analysed and compared with previous research. For this purpose, the following hypotheses are created:

Even though Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004) reported CE to be a less consistent predictor of products of foreign origin, the majority of past research still found CE to negatively influence the evaluation of foreign countries (e.g.: Ettenson & Klein, 2005; d'Astous et al., 2008; Heslop et al., 2008).

H9: CE has a significant negative influence on CoI

Next, as CoE are said to be product-class specific (e.g.: Papadopoulos, 1993), the image of the industry is hypothesised to positively influence CoI

H10: II has a significant positive influence on CoI

As with BI and BeI, familiarity is said to strengthen country-perception, but not per se biasing it in a positive or negative way (e.g.: Papadopoulos, 1993).

H11a: The influence of country familiarity on CoI is insignificant

H11b: The influence of industry familiarity on CoI is insignificant

Furthermore, past research on the influence on sociodemographic data is, as already mentioned, inconclusive. However, e.g., Baughn & Yaprak (1993) define them as

important predictors of CoI. Thus, they are, as above, said to have a direct influence on CoI, even though no directionalities can be hypothesised.

H12a: Age has an influence on CoI

H12b: Gender has an influence on CoI

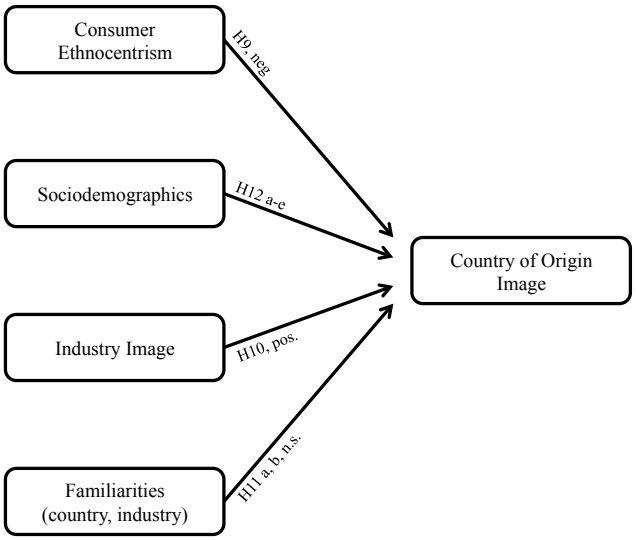
H12c: Income has an influence on CoI

H12d: Education has an influence on CoI

H12e: Occupation has an influence on CoI

From these hypotheses, we derive at the following model:

Figure 2: Hypothetical Model for CoI



4. Methodology

This chapter focuses on the methodology of the empirical study for this thesis. The first part covers study design, i.e., the companies and countries under study and where the study has been conducted. Next, the questionnaire development and scales included are discussed. The following part covers the procedures for data analysis. Last, the sample description and sampling procedure will be shown and the final study sample described.

4.1 Study Design

In order to answer the studies' research question and the according hypotheses, a quantitative study was conducted. Country of origin effects (CoE) were compared between a company bearing its origin cue in its corporate brand name to one where this is not the case. In order to achieve a certain amount of comparability and thus generalizability, both companies had to have same CoO and be active in the same industry. Furthermore, to reduce possible bias, the two brands to be compared should both be active on an international market. The study was conducted in two different countries, in order to obtain a certain international generalizability and follow the ever-increasing need for international marketing research (Craig & Douglas, 2005). The study design is presented in table 2:

Table 2: Study design

			Country A	Country B
CoO	Industry	Brand A		
		Brand B		

Following these prerequisites, it was necessary to analyse an industry, where a significant number of companies carry their origin cue in their corporate brand name. The financial services industry and Germany proved suitable for this purpose, as in the former the usage of an origin indication in the corporate brand name is quite common (c.f.: 3.1 Research Question). Germany, on the other hand, is home of one of the biggest banks worldwide (Rogers, 2009). Still, it has to be kept in mind that, following the recent financial crisis, the image of the financial services industry, as well as associated

brands have suffered in the eyes of the consumer (James, 2009), leading to a possible lack in cross-industry generalizability of the results.

According to Lim & Darley (1997), Okechuku & Onyemah (1999) and Ahmed et al. (2002, 2004), real brands were used in the study, in order to obtain more valid results. Accordingly, Deutsche Bank (DB) and Commerzbank (CB) were selected. Deutsche Bank currently employs more than 82,000 people in about 72 countries (Deutsche Bank, 2010) and is one of the world's biggest banks, being second only to Royal Bank of Scotland in terms of assets (Rogers, 2009). Commerzbank employs over 60,000 people (with over 30% working outside of Germany) and has, after taking over its competitor Dresdner Bank, strengthened its position as the countries' second biggest bank (Commerzbank, 2010). In terms of Assets, when combining the numbers of both brands, it currently holds 11th place (Rogers, 2009).

The decision on where to conduct the survey was based upon the fact, in which countries the respective companies both held branches in the area of private banking at the time of the study, as this would allow consumers to enjoy a certain familiarity with both brands. Spain and Italy were found to fulfil these requirements. DB holds more than 250 branches in both countries, respectively. CB holds two branches in Spain (Madrid, Barcelona) and Italy (both in Milan), thus restricting the data gathering to these three cities. Germany was not included in the study, as the according results were not expected to provide information, necessary for reaching the aims of this thesis.

4.2 Questionnaire Development

The following section provides an overview on the development of the questionnaire. It will be explained, which scales were used to capture the constructs necessary to answer our research question and the according hypotheses: country of origin image (CoI), industry image (II), brand image (BI), behavioural intention (BeI) towards the brands, brand origin recognition accuracy (BORA), consumer ethnocentrism (CE), familiarity and sociodemographic characteristics of respondents.

While designing the questionnaire, care was taken to reduce possible demand artefacts and response bias, while at the same time keeping it at a manageable length. The order of stimuli was not rotated, as this would have led to a possible overestimation of CoE (with CoI measured before BI) or CE (with putting an additional emphasis on the

foreignness of the brands). As in a "well-designed experiment, the interest and purpose of the researcher is hidden from the subjects" (Liefeld, 1993, p. 118; c.f.: Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Lim & Darley, 1997), consumers were informed, that the purpose of the study is on globalisation, using the example of the financial services industry. Furthermore, all measurement scales have been taken from previous country of origin (CoO) studies, even though some had to be slightly adapted.

The questionnaire was divided into five parts. First, sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents were gathered. Second consumers' perception of the financial services industry (II) was assessed, followed by the evaluation of and intention to buy the respective brands (BI & BeI). Fourth, the CoO was evaluated (CoI) and lastly, respondents' level of CE was assessed.

Sociodemographic characteristics were put first, as they were needed to filter out respondents who did not fit the quotas (Wilson, 2006). Respondents were asked to indicate their age (in numbers) and gender (male or female). Personal income of respondents was assessed in different categories of monthly income (steps of € 500, starting at *€ 0 - € 500* and ending at *over € 2,500*). For profession and education, respondents were asked to check their current profession and highest completed level of education out of a list of several alternatives. The measures were constructed on the broadest categories possible in order to improve comparability (Craig & Douglas, 2005). For profession, the possibility to choose *other* was included, with asking respondents, choosing this category, to specify their profession.

The next three parts covered the images of industry, brands and country, respectively. Due to the fact that the constructs were put into a direct relationship, a single scale, able to measure all three stimuli was deemed preferable. As only the product-related image of the CoO was of interest for this thesis, the usage of a method measuring the product-country image was possible. The scale by Roth & Romeo (1992) proved to be appropriate for the purpose of this study, even though the lack of an affective facet may reduce generalizability of results. It was originally developed as to measure the degree of match between (a) product and (a) country. The researchers analysed past CoO-studies (e.g.: Nagashima 1977; Cattin et al., 1982; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 1984; Han & Terpstra, 1988) and identified four common dimensions measuring cognitive production and marketing attributes of countries and products (innovativeness, design, prestige and workmanship). As the scale was developed for studying manufactured products, slight

adaptations were made for it to fit the service industry. Furthermore, a short explanation was added to clarify the purpose of the question and reduce bias due to diverging assumption by respondents (e.g.: How would you evaluate the design of services offered by the banking industry, *where design means user friendliness and customer support?*). Attitudes were measured on a 7-point semantic differential scale, where only the two endpoints of the scale were labelled (e.g.: *not appealing* and *very appealing* for design). This approach allows respondents to take a neutral position if they have no clear opinion (Wilson, 2006). The evaluation of both brands was assessed simultaneously, as this approach is said to be closer to real-world situations (Han & Terpstra, 1988).

All three stimuli were framed by different measures of familiarity, following the need of covering an appropriate range of experience levels (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987). First, respondents were asked to self-assess their familiarity with the respective stimuli on a 4-item scale, as was done for example in Laroche et al. (2005), Ahmed et al. (2004) and Josiassen et al. (2008). An unbalanced scale was used, as for familiarity there seemed no necessity of including a neutral position. Furthermore, the amount of previous contact with industry, brands and country (4-item scale) was measured. For generating a clearer picture of the familiarity with the CoO (Germany), another variable, intensity of previous relations (3-item scale) was included.

For the brands, two further constructs were included. BORA was measured at the beginning of the brand part, with respondents filling in the respective perceived CoO or, if they had no such knowledge, indicating they don't know it. After evaluating the brands, behavioural intention (BeI) was measured with respondents indicating their intention to contact the companies, if they were looking for private banking services, on a scale from 0 to 100 (c.f.: Pecotich et al., 1996).

Consumer ethnocentrism (CE) was assessed last, as to prevent putting special attention on the foreignness of the two brands. CE was measured using the CETSCALE developed by Shimp & Sharma (1987). However, as the original version consists of 17 items a shortened 5-item version (c.f.: Steenkamp et al., 1999; Verlegh, 2007) was used, in order to keep the questionnaire at a manageable length. Respondents' attitudes were measured on 5-item Likert scales, ranging from *fully disagree* to *fully agree*.

The questionnaire was first constructed in English. A pre-test with 10 native speakers showed no necessities for changes. Next the questionnaire had to be translated into Spanish and Italian. A translation agency was hired to fulfil this task. As special care has to be taken, when translating constructs (Craig & Douglas, 2005), two natives in both English and the respective target language checked the final version from the agency, to reduce possible translation errors. They were briefed about the aims of the study and given the original questionnaire, in order to ensure correctness of translation. The final questionnaires can be found in the Appendix (A, B and C; due to the online gathering of data, the formatting is not visually representative of the online version).

4.3 Data analysis

The data will be analysed in three parts, the preliminary, main and further analysis.

In the first part, the data will be screened and purified from incomplete questionnaires or those, who are sucseptible of the usage of response patterns. Next, it will be analysed, whether for the five stimuli (II, BI_{DB}, BI_{CB}, CoI and CE) the mean can be used for further analysis via e.g., Cronbachs alpha, a method of assessing the internal consistency of a scale (e.g.: Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 1984; Craig & Douglas, 2005). Next, via comparison of means within countries, it will be analysed, whether for the diverse familiarity variables, one single variable can be constructed, in order to ease further analysis. These two steps further provide a basis for the validity of cross-country comparison of results, as it has to be ensured that differences in ratings by respondents is attributable to real differences in perceptions and not bias induced by e.g. response styles (Craig & Douglas, 2005). The next analysis consists of checking the BORA rates as it has to clarified to what extend respondents are aware of the origin of the brands (c.f.: Samiee et al., 2005). As a further step, the means of the stimuli will be compared across the two countries for getting a glimpse on possible intercountry differences. Furthermore, possible differences between the two brand images within countries will be checked for, too, via comparison of means within countries. The part closes with a correlation analysis of all variables but sociodemographic data. This method allows for the detection of relationships between variables (Field, 2005).

The second part will answer the research question and the acording hypotheses. For this matter and, according to the two research models presented above (c.f.: 3.2 Hypotheses

& Model), a multiple regression analysis will be conducted. This method allows for the analysis as to whether a variable has a significant influence on the dependent variable (BI, BeI and CoI, respectively). As all our hypotheses have been derived from past academic literature, the usage of this method will provide us with useful insights on the statistical significance of influence of variables (e.g.: Field, 2005).

4.4 Sample

„As the adequacy of the sampling procedures affects the generalizability of research findings, it must be carefully considered in designing origin-related research“ (Baughn & Yaprak, 1993, p. 103). In order to guarantee for a certain amount of comparability between the two countries, the respective samples were of equal size and demographic structure (c.f.: Häubl, 1996). Therefore, the quota sampling method was applied, resulting in a reduction of generalizability of results, due to the use of a non-probabilistic sample (Craig & Douglas, 2005; Wilson, 2006). Quotas were set at a minimum of a third per gender and city (the latter only in Spain) and care was taken to balance out the sample in terms of age of respondents. The age range was set at 20-49 years, representing a primary target group in the private banking sector. Quotas were set at a minimum of 20% per age group (20-29, 30-39, 40-49). Levels of education, income and occupation did not underlie any quotas, thus were expected to vary freely among respondents. The usage of a student sample was avoided, as the generalizability of such a sample is not clarified (e.g.: Schooler, 1997, Peterson & Jolibert, 1995). The sample size was set at 150 respondents per country.

Data was gathered in February 2009 via an online survey, a method growing in importance and seen as considerably less expensive, even though response rates are supposed to be rather low (Craig & Douglas, 2005; Wilson, 2006). The latter, though, may be reduced due to the use of research panels. For this reason, the data has been gathered with the help of the national research panels of GMR, an international research agency of the OMNICOM group.

The total sample consisted of 303 respondents. 316 originally started completing the survey but 13 were refused due to quota issues, leading to a response rate of 95.28 %. 17 questionnaires were excluded, as respondents gave the same ratings for at least three out of five stimuli, leading to the conclusion of the usage of a response pattern.

Altogether 286 questionnaires were considered valid for the analysis. The sample characteristics are shown in table 3.

Table 3: Sample characteristics by country

	Spain (n=144)		**Italy (n=142)**	
	Frequency	*%*	*Percentage*	*%*
gender				
Male	59	41.0	62	43.7
Female	85	59.0	80	56.3
age group				
20-29	52	36.1	42	29.6
30-39	52	36.1	52	36.6
40-49	40	27.8	48	33.8
education				
Grade School	13	9.0	6	4.2
High School	32	22.2	64	45.1
College (< 2 years)	9	6.3	11	7.7
College (> 2 years)	14	9.7	12	8.5
College degree	69	47.9	42	29.6
Post-graduate degree	7	4.9	7	4.9
occupation				
Student	13	9.0	10	7.0
Self-employed	18	12.5	23	16.2
Employed	97	67.4	91	64.1
Unemployed	12	8.3	10	7.0
Other	4	2.8	8	5.6
income				
Less than € 500	12	8.3	22	15.5
€ 500 – 1,000	17	11.8	26	18.3
€ 1,000 – 1,500	56	38.9	51	35.9
€ 1,500 – 2,000	26	18.1	25	17.6
€ 2,000 – 2,500	15	10.4	10	7.0
More than € 2,500	18	12.5	8	5.6

The average age of our samples was 33.8 years (Spain, standard deviation: 7.5) and 35.1 years (Italy, standard deviation: 8.3), respectively. In both samples there were more female than male respondents (Spain: 59.0%; Italy: 56.3%). Most respondents were employed (Spain: 67.4%; Italy: 64.1%) and earned between € 500 and € 2.000 (Spain: 59.9%; Italy: 71.8%). Respondents checking *Other* on occupation were mostly housewives. In both countries, high school and university graduates were most commonly represented. However, in Italy there were more high school than university

graduates (45.1% and 29.6% respectively), whereas for Spain the numbers were quite the opposite (22.2% and 47.9% respectively). Altogether the sample seems to be rather evenly balanced within and between countries.

5. Results

This part focuses on the results of the empirical study mentioned above and the testing of the respective hypothesis. The chapter starts with a preliminary analysis of the data. In a next step, the main analysis is conducted, testing for the respective hypotheses and the research question. The chapter closes with an analysis of the predictors of country of origin image (CoI), here, too, testing for the respective hypotheses.

5.1 Preliminary Analysis

Prior to running the basic regressions, some initial analyses have been conducted, in order to get a first insight into the results. This subchapter will conclude with an analysis of the correlations between the constructs.

5.1.1 Data Screening and Descriptive Statistics

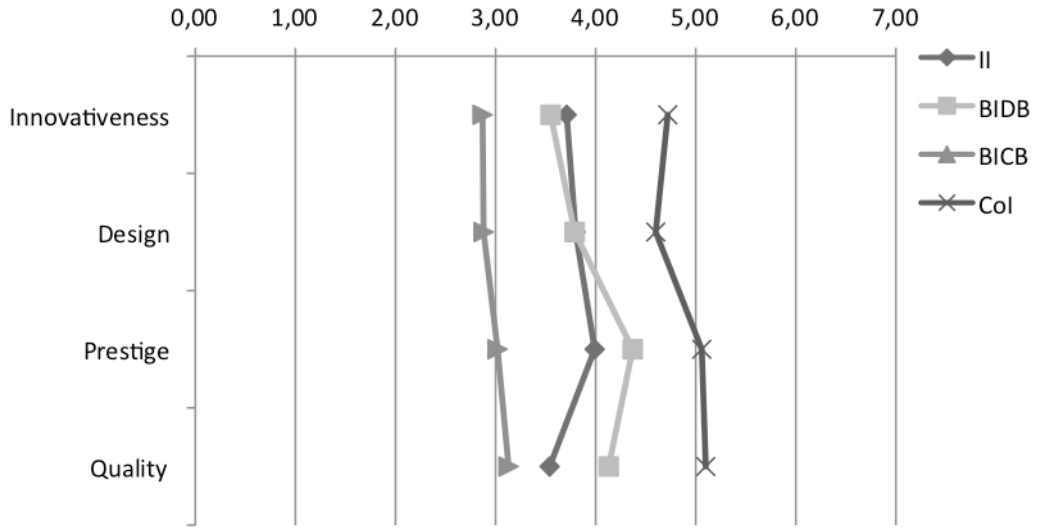
First, the data was screened for outliers due to mistakes in data entry via the use of box plot diagrams. No such errors could be detected. Furthermore the data did not suffer from missing values.

Next, the results of the four semantic scales, *industry image* (II), *brand image Deutsche Bank* (BI_{DB}), *brand image Commerzbank* (BI_{CB}) and *country of origin image* (CoI), were visualized, in order to obtain first insights into the survey-data. The results are displayed in figures 3 (Spain) and 4 (Italy).

For the Spanish sample, Germany enjoys the highest image on all four dimensions. The strengths of the country seem to lie in prestige and quality of associated products and services. These results are in line with past studies on the image of Germany with the country (1) enjoying a very favourable image and (2) its strengths lying in prestige and quality (e.g.: Lillis & Narayana, 1974; Cattin et al., 1982; Shimp et al., 1993). A similar pattern emerges for Deutsche Bank (DB), even though the company seems to lack of perceived innovativeness. Some similarities in terms of evaluation can also be spotted between DB and the financial services industry (II), both having obtained average

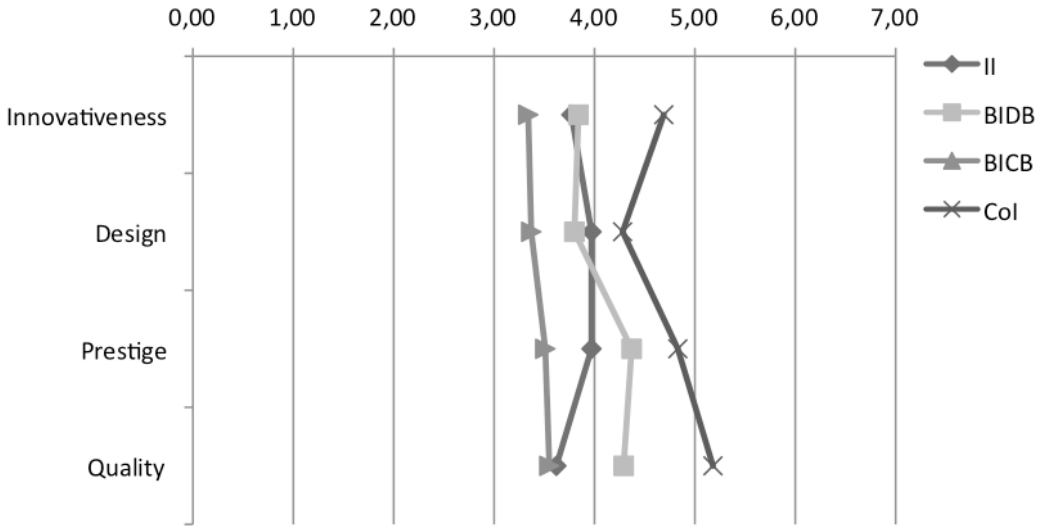
ratings. Commerzbank (CB) on the other hand, lies behind the other stimuli in every dimension, even though here, too, prestige and quality obtained slightly higher ratings.

Figure 3: Semantic Differential Scale for Images of Stimuli (Spain)



The results of the Italian sample, as shown below, are of similar nature, even though images are closer to each other. One interesting finding is the similarity with all stimuli enjoying the highest ratings on prestige and quality (only exception: quality for industry in Italy). These results indicate the existence of CoE for both brands. Furthermore, the higher similarity of ratings between CoI and BI_{DB} suggests higher CoE for this brand, thus providing principal support for the research question.

Figure 4: Semantic Differential Scale for Images of Stimuli (Italy)



As a next step, the five stimuli (CoI, BI_{DB}, BI_{CB}, CoI and consumer ethnocentrism (CE)) were transformed into means in order to simplify further analysis. Reliability was assessed via *Cronbach's alpha*. As can be seen in table 4, all values strongly exceed the recommended value of 0.6 (Craig & Douglas, 2005) and all but one are above 0.8, as recommended by Field (2005).

Table 4: Cronbach's Alphas for stimuli

	II	BI_{DB}	BI_{CB}	CoI	CE
Spain	0.798	0.912	0.928	0.941	0.916
Italy	0.857	0.899	0.921	0.902	0.900

The descriptive statistics of the stimuli, shown in tables 5 (Spain) and 6 (Italy), provide further insights into the data. Average image for Germany is 4.87 (Spain) and 4.74 (Italy) out of 7, thus by far exceeding the other images. BI_{DB} obtained second highest ratings with 3.96 and 4.07, respectively, them being located around the scale midpoint. Average image for the financial services industry amounts 3.76 and 3.83. Commerzbank, as expected according to the individual results, possesses of the lowest image of the four, with a mean of 2.98 and 3.44, respectively. Average consumer ethnocentrism was located below the scale midpoint, amounting 2.44 (Spain) and 2.70 (Italy) out of 5, indicating low to medium ethnocentrism among consumers.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of Stimuli (Spain)

	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
II	3.76	3.75	0.98	0.96	0.47	0.50
BI_{DB}	3.96	4.00	1.29	1.66	-0.46	0.04
BI_{CB}	2.98	3.25	1.17	1.37	-0.43	-1.04
CoI	4.87	5.00	1.23	1.51	-0.62	0.57
CE*	2.44	2.40	0.91	0.82	0.18	-0.70

*: measured on a 5-point scale

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics of Stimuli (Italy)

	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
II	3.83	3.88	1.27	1.61	-0.68	-0.47
BI_{DB}	4.07	4.00	1.25	1.56	-0.20	-0.24
BI_{CB}	3.44	3.75	1.23	1.50	-0.21	-0.21
CoI	4.74	5.00	1.11	1.23	-0.52	0.50
CE*	2.70	2.80	0.87	0.76	-0.07	-0.45

*: measured on a 5-point scale

Skewness and kurtosis both deviating from 0 indicate a violation of the assumption of normally distributed data (Field, 2005). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests provide further support for this finding. However, due to the large sample size, this was not considered problematic for further analysis. Furthermore, the standard deviation (ranging from 0.87 to 1.29) indicates the mean to reasonably well represent the data.

The descriptive statistics of the diverse familiarity variables (see Appendix D) show a higher familiarity with all stimuli for Italy. Across countries, respondents reported to be most familiar with the financial services industry. Both, *general familiarity* (Spain: 2.57; Italy: 2.56) and *previous contact* (both: 2.85) are rated only slightly below the midpoint of the scale (5). Germany enjoys the second highest familiarity with 2.03 (Spain) and 2.16 (Italy) for *general familiarity* and 1.73 and 2.16 for *previous contact*. *Previous relations* between respondents and Germany, however, only achieved rather low ratings (Spain: 1.42 out of 3; Italy: 1.33). As for the brands, ratings for DB are higher than for CB with 1.78 (Spain) and 2.15 (Italy), compared to 1.11 and 1.35 respectively for *general familiarity* and 1.67 (Spain) and 1.54 (Italy), compared to 1.07 and 1.04 respectively for *previous contact*. For the diverse familiarity variables, variance, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis are akin to the results for the stimuli. Only for familiarity with CB, results strongly deviate from previous results. Ratings show a strongly positive skew, and kurtosis goes as high as 38.47 (Spain, *previous contact)*. In other words, ratings for CB are strongly clustered at the lower end of the scale.

For behavioural intention (BeI), the results (see Appendix E) indicate a strong difference between the two brands. For DB, average BeI amounts 42.49 (Spain) and 48.92 (Italy) out of 100, compared to 20.46 and 29.18, respectively for CB. These results indicate a significantly higher intention to get in contact with DB than CB, probably for reasons of higher familiarity or a higher influence of CoI. Here again, the assumption of normal distribution of data could not be confirmed.

5.1.2 Cross-Tabs

In order to be able to draw valid conclusions, it has to be made sure respondents are aware of the origin of products and brands they are to evaluate (e.g.: Samiee et al.,

2005). For this reason, respondents were asked to indicate whether they know the origin of the two brands and, if yes, to specify it. The results are shown in tables 7 and 8:

Table 7: BORA-rates (Spain)

	DB				**CB**			
	Yes	*%*	*No*	*%*	*Yes*	*%*	*No*	*%*
correct	104	***72.22***	-	-	26	**18.06**		
wrong (total)	12	*8.33*	-	-	2	1.39		
wrong (home country)	9	*6.25*	-	-	1	0.69		
total	***116***	***80.55***	***28***	***19.45***	***28***	**19.45**	***116***	***80.55***

n = 144

In Spain, more than 80% of respondents indicated to know the origin of DB with 104 respondents (72.22%) having correct origin associations and only 12 respondents (8.33%) giving a wrong response. For CB the numbers are quite the opposite, with more than 80% of respondents indicating to have no knowledge of its origin. In total, only less than 20% knew the origin of CB. The figures of false origin associations are satisfactorily, with incorrect classifications lying only slightly above 10% for DB and way below for CB. In other words, if a respondent thinks to know the origin of one of the two brands, the probability of this association being correct is rather high. Interestingly, especially for DB the majority of incorrect origin classifications is attributable to respondents perceiving the brand to be of Spanish origin.

Table 8: BORA-rates (Italy)

	DB				**CB**			
	Yes	*%*	*No*	*%*	*Yes*	*%*	*No*	*%*
correct	128	***90.14***	-	-	37	**26.06**		
wrong (total)	1	*0.70*	-	-	7	4.93		
wrong (home country)	1	*0.70*	-	-	-	-		
total	***129***	***90.84***	***13***	***9.16***	***44***	**30.99**	***98***	***69.01***

n = 142

In Italy, a rather similar picture emerges, even though correct associations are higher for both brands. DB reaches a total of 128 correct classifications (90.14%) with only one respondent incorrectly classifying the brand. For CB, 37 respondents (26.06%) correctly identified the brand as of German origin. However, in total nearly 75% of respondents either did not know the origin at all (69.1%) or provided an incorrect answer (4.93%). Here again, incorrect classifications were way below 10%.

In total, these results show correct origin classification of DB to strongly exceeded those for CB, indicating a positive recognition effect. It seems reasonable to assume that this is at least partly attributable to the usage of the origin cue in the corporate brand name and the higher familiarity, respondents had with DB. Furthermore, the higher BORA rates for DB indicate higher CoE, thus providing credibility to this thesis' research question.

5.1.3 Comparison of Means

The equality of images across countries indicated by the results of the descriptive statistics calculated in the previous subchapter was assessed via independent samples t-tests. Results indicate BI_{DB}, BI_{CB}, CoI and CE to not significantly differ between the two countries (see Appendix F). Only for II, a significant difference of means at $t(265{,}39) = -0.54$, $p > .01$ could be found. The effect size ($r = 0.03$), however, is very small, indicating the image of the financial services industry to be significantly, but only slightly higher in Italy, than in Spain. Furthermore the difference between BI_{DB} and BI_{CB} within the two countries was assessed via a paired samples t-test (see Appendix G). Results reveal that, as expected, BI for DB was significantly higher at $t(143) = 9.84$, $p > 0.01$, $r = 0.64$ in Spain and $t(141) = 7.69$, $p > 0.01$, $r = 0.54$ in Italy, both indicating a large effect size (Field, 2005).

Concerning the familiarities, paired samples t-tests revealed significant differences between the diverse types for most of the stimuli (see Appendix H). Only for *general familiarity* and *previous contact*, means were found to be equal for DB and CB in Spain and for Germany in Italy. For the brands, however, results only reached borderline significance. These findings prevent the usage of only one familiarity variable as surrogate for further analysis and are in line with Alba & Hutchinson (1987), emphasising the usage of different familiarity variables.

Comparison of means of BeI between the two countries (see Appendix I), indicate no significant difference of ratings. On the other hand, a paired samples t-test between ratings of the brands within countries (see Appendix J) revealed DB to enjoy a significantly higher BeI in both, Spain and Italy with $t(143) = 10.51$, $p > 0.01$, $r = 0.66$ in Spain and $t(141) = 8.33$, $p > 0.01$, $r = 0.57$ in Italy, indicating large effect sizes (Field, 2005). In short, BeI for both brands seems to be equal across countries, with

respondents reporting significantly higher intentions to get in contact with DB in both cases, confirming the results from the previous subchapter.

5.1.4 Correlation Analysis

A correlation analysis was conducted in order to get further insights on the relationships between all stimuli (CoI, II, BI, CE, BeI and familiarity variables) within countries. For this purpose, *two-tailed Person's product-moment correlation coefficients* were calculated between all variables. The results can be found in the Appendices K and L.

Altogether, 120 coefficients per country i.e., 240 in total were analysed. 113 (47.1%) were significant at the .05 level, with 89 (37.1%) reaching significance at the .01 level. Altogether, 110 (45.83%) coefficients were positive and three negative. Not surprisingly, all image variables were positively correlated at the .01 level, with coefficients ranging from 0.262 (BI_{CB} and II, Spain) and 0.685 (BI_{DB} and BI_{CB}, Italy). The latter coefficient, too, is very high in Spain (0.527), indicating a close relationship between the images of the two brands. As for the relationship between BI and CoI, the image of Germany enjoys higher correlation with BI_{DB} than with BI_{CB} in both countries (Spain: 0.652 for DB and 0.294 for CB; Italy: 0.486 and 0.359). Similar results were found for II (Spain: 0.454 and 0.262; Italy: 0.579 and 0.515). In general, both industry and CoO variables seem to correlate higher and through more significant coefficients with DB than with CB, providing further credence to the research hypothesis.

A significant negative relationship between CoI and CE was found in Spain (-0.235), but not in Italy. Furthermore CE was negatively related to previous contact with Germany in Spain (-0.257) and general familiarity with CB in Italy (-0.172). These results indicate, contrary to our expectations, CE to not influence foreign brand and country evaluations (c.f.: Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004).

A further contradiction of our expectations was found with nearly all familiarity variables showing a significant positive coefficient with their respective images. The only exceptions were II (*general familiarity* in Italy and *previous contact* in both countries) and CoI (*previous contact* and *relations* in Italy), who were positive but didn't reach significance. These results indicate a strongly positive relationship between the image of a stimuli and its' familiarity (i.e., the higher the familiarity with a stimulus, the higher its' image). As for the correlation between the different types of familiarities

within the respective constructs (e.g.: correlation between all country familiarities), all showed a significant and positive relationship, with coefficients ranging from 0.287 (industry: *general familiarity* and *previous contact*, Italy) and 0.767 (CB: *general familiarity* and *previous contact*, Spain), indicating familiarities within the stimuli to be positively related. The *general familiarity* variable with the respective stimuli further showed positive cross-stimuli correlations, except between country and industry in both countries, indicating consumers, showing high general familiarity with e.g., Germany to also be more familiar with brands emerging from this country or industries, this country is associated with. However, for *previous contact*, this relationship could be only partly confirmed.

Correlations between familiarity variables and images of other stimuli provided no clear patterns. Even though significant and positive coefficients were found for industry and country familiarity with BI_{DB} in Spain, in Italy no such effect could be detected. Similar results were found with the familiarity of CB and II as well as familiarity with DB and CoI. In Italy, only one correlation was found to be significant (familiarity with DB and II). Here again, results indicate that for the Spanish sample the stimuli are more closely related than for Italian respondents. These results indicate, familiarities to possess of certain cross-stimuli correlations. However, no general conclusions can be drawn, as the results provide no clear patterns.

For BeI, results reveal a close relationship between ratings for both brands (Spain: 0.558; Italy: 0.501). BeI_{DB} was found to be closely and positively related to II, BI_{DB} and CoI in both countries, with coefficients ranging from 0.281 (II, Italy) to 0.605 (BI_{DB}, Spain). For BeI_{CB}, a different picture emerges, with coefficients of II and CoI not reaching significance in Italy. Another interesting result is the correlation between BI_{DB} and BeI_{CB} in Spain and BeI_{DB} and BI_{CB} in Italy, indicating that, the higher one thinks of DB (CB), the more likely one, too, considers its German competitor CB (DB) as possible banking partner. However, these results could not be replicated in the respective other country.

Familiarity with DB is positively related to BeI_{DB} in both countries. Again, for BeI_{CB}, results are somewhat different. Only *general familiarity* (in Italy) showed a significant and positive coefficient with BeI_{CB}, whereas in Spain, a relationship with familiarity with DB was detected. Familiarity with Germany showed a positive relationship to BeI_{DB} and BeI_{CB} only in Spain. Again, ratings for DB seem to be more defined across

countries with strong relations to II, BI_{DB} and CoI and *general brand familiarity* in Spain and Italy. CB, on the other hand, does not only suffer from lower ratings, but these ratings seem to only marginally be related to the images of its' origin, industry and brand, as well as familiarity with the latter.

All in all, BI_{CB} and BeI_{CB} seem to be less well defined and to a lesser extent correlated with other variables, than BI_{DB} and BeI_{DB}. This may be attributable to the lower familiarity consumers seem to have with CB. Furthermore, both, industry and CoO seem to be significantly related to BI, strengthening validity to the studies' hypotheses.

5.2 Main Analysis

The following part will answer the research question and the according hypotheses posited above. Therefore the impact of the predictors on BI and BeI, according to our hypothetical model, was assessed via regression analyses.

5.2.1 Regression analysis on BeI

In order to find the statistically significant predictors of BI four regressions (two brands in two countries) were conducted, according to our study model (c.f.: figure 1 in 3.2 Hypotheses & Model). The regression thus reads:

$$\mathbf{BI_{bc} = \beta_1 * CoI + \beta_2 * II - \beta_3 * CE +/- \beta_4 * PC_b +/- \beta_5 * FAM_b +/- \beta_6 * PC_c}$$
$$\mathbf{+/- \beta_7 * FAM_c +/- \beta_8 * PR_c +/- \beta_9 * PC_i +/- \beta_{10} * FAM_i +/- \beta_{11} * age}$$
$$\mathbf{+/- \beta_{12} * gender +/- \beta_{13} * income +/- \beta_{14} * education +/- \beta_{15} * profession + \varepsilon}$$

where

BI_{bc} = brand image for brand b in country c

β = standardized beta value

CoI = country of origin image

II = industry image

CE = consumer ethnocentrism

PC_b = previous contact with brand b

FAM_b = familiarity with brand b

PC_c = previous contact with country of origin

FAM_c = familiarity with country of origin

PR_c = previous relations with country of origin

PC_i = previous contact with industry

FAM_i = familiarity with industry

age = age of respondent

gender = gender of respondent

income = income of respondent

education = education of respondent

profession = profession of respondent

ε = error term of regression

Prior to conducting the regression it was essential to transform the variable *profession* into several dummy variables. Afterwards, variables were entered via the *blockwise entry* method. The first block included predictors, where a significant impact on the dependent variable was hypothesised, whereas the second block comprised those variables, where past literature on their effect was either inconclusive or reported a non-significant effect. Next, the analysis was rerun with only significant and borderline significant variables, as proposed by Field (2005). None of the eight regressions show signs of multicollinearity, dependent errors and heteroscedasticity, thus drawing of conclusions is valid (Field, 2005).

The final results of the four regressions on the impact on BI can be found in the Appendices M to P, a summary is shown in tables 8 and 9. For the sake of readability, only those results were included that reached significance in at least two of the four regressions.

Table 9: Regression Analysis on BI (I)

	R^2	R^2 adjusted
DB_S*	0.654	0.631
CB_S	0.203	0.186
DB_I	0.464	0.452
CB_I	0.437	0.398

*: Regression on Deutsche Bank in Spain

The goodness of fit indices for all models were significant at $p < 0.001$. Furthermore, the model seems to describe the data rather well with R^2 values ranging from 0.203 (CB, Spain) to 0.631 (DB, Spain). In other words, between 20 and 63% of variability in BI is explained by our model, with values being higher in both countries for DB.

Table 10: Regression Analysis on BI (II)

Hypothesis	Variable	Brand	B	Standard error	β	t	Sig	Confirmed?
H2a	CoI	DB_S	0.584	0.061	0.557	9.606	0.000	Yes
		CB_S	0.275	0.073	0.290	3.779	0.000	Yes
		DB_I	0.336	0.077	0.298	4.365	0.000	Yes
		CB_I	0.223	0.080	0.202	2.782	0.006	Yes
H4	II	DB_S	0.313	0.072	0.238	4.347	0.000	Yes
		CB_S					n.s.	No
		DB_I	0.408	0.068	0.415	5.987	0.000	Yes
		CB_I	0.422	0.071	0.437	5.927	0.000	Yes
H5b	Gender	DB_S					n.s.	No
		CB_S	0.447	0.181	0.189	2.472	0.015	Yes
		DB_I					n.s.	No
		CB_I	0.470	0.177	0.191	2.657	0.009	Yes
H7c	Brand Familiarity	DB_S	0.469	0.097	0.267	4.852	0.000	No
		CB_S	0.875	0.225	0.295	3.882	0.000	No
		DB_I	0.339	0.091	0.236	3.731	0.000	No
		CB_I	0.387	0.144	0.196	2.692	0.008	No

Rejected:

H5a	Age
H5c	Income
H5d	Education
H5i	Occupation
H6a	CE

Confirmed (because of non significant results):

H7a	Country Familiarity
H7b	Industry Familiarity

On average, six predictors showed to have significant influence on BI. DB in Spain and CB in Italy are both influenced by nine predictors, whereas for DB in Italy and CB in Spain, only three variables have reached statistical significance. Only CoI and *general brand familiarity*, however, were found to bear significant influence across brands and countries. Hereby, ratings for the two variables are higher in Spain than in Italy, indicating a higher importance of the two for Spanish respondents. In Spain, the most important predictor for BI_{DB} was CoI ($\beta = 0.557$), whereas for CB, *brand familiarity* had the highest influence ($\beta = 0.295$). In Italy, both images were most influenced by the image of the financial services industry (DB: $\beta = 0.415$; CB: $\beta = 0.437$).

As mentioned above, CoI proves to be a positive and significant predictor of BI with β-coefficients ranging from 0.202 (CB, Italy) to 0.557 (DB, Spain). This is in line with previous studies and this thesis' expectations. Along with H1, the influence is higher for DB than CB in both countries, indicating the origin cue to bear a higher influence on companies carrying it in their corporate brand name. If these results can be replicated for BeI, H1 is validated and the research question answered. Furthermore these results strongly support H2a, stating CoI to significantly and positively influence BI.

As CoE are widely seen to be product specific, BI was hypothesized to be influenced by II. In our analysis, the influence of II reached significance in all cases but CB, Spain. The other three regressions resulted in β-coefficients ranging from 0.238 (DB, Spain) to 0.437 (CB, Italy). H4 thus is partly supported, indicating the image of the respective industry to positively and significantly affect brand image.

The aforementioned inconclusive influence of sociodemographics (SD) is confirmed by our results. The influence of education did not reach significance in any of the four cases, thus rejecting H5d. Age and income only had a significant effect in one of four cases (age: $\beta = 0.162$; income: $\beta = -0.153$; both DB Spain), thus rejecting H5a and H5c. Gender did reach significance in both countries, with females providing higher ratings (only) for CB (Spain: $\beta = 0.189$; Italy: $\beta = 0.191$), thus providing limited support for H5b. As for occupation, no pattern of results could be detected, with students rating DB higher in Spain ($\beta = 0.122$), but CB lower in Italy ($\beta = -0.142$), people without current employment providing lower ratings for DB in Spain ($\beta = -0.119$) and CB in Italy ($\beta = -0.183$) and respondents with *other* occupations rating CB lower in Italy ($\beta = -0.173$). H5i thus is rejected. These results indicate SD to possess of scattered influence on ratings of BI. However, no clear patterns can be detected, thus preventing the possibility to forecast ratings based on sociodemographic data.

H6a posited a negative influence of CE on BI based on the brands' foreign origin. Not only did our study not reveal such an effect, CE even had a significant positive influence on BI_{DB} in Spain, ($\beta = 0.154$), thus clearly rejecting this hypothesis. These results indicate that the level of CE of consumers, contrary to the majority of past research, does not result in a derogation of the image of foreign products/brands.

The influence of the diverse familiarity variables was hypothesised to not significantly influence BI in any case. In line with our expectations, none of the country-familiarity

variables did reach significance, strongly supporting H7a. For familiarity with the industry, the picture looks similar with *previous contact* only reaching significance for BI_{DB} in Spain ($\beta = 0.118$) and *general familiarity* for BI_{CB} in Italy ($\beta = -0.164$). H7b thus is partly supported. Familiarity with the brand, on the other hand, seems to bear significant influence on BI. Even though the variable *previous contact* did only significantly predict BI_{CB} in Italy ($\beta = 0.171$), *general familiarity* with the brand was significant across brands and countries. β-values reached from 0.196 (CB, Italy) to 0.296 (CB, Spain) with coefficients being higher in Spain, indicating the variable to bear significant positive influence on brand image. These results strongly contradict our expectations, with familiarity said to sharpen images with no clear directionalities. H7c thus has to be rejected. On the whole though, apart from *general brand familiarity*, the influence of familiarity variables on BI provides no clear directionalities, thus supporting previous literature and our expectations.

5.2.2 Regression analysis on BeI

After analysing the composition of BI, a regression analysis on BeI was conducted. Here again, four regressions (two brands in two countries) were conducted, according to our study model (c.f.: figure 1 in 3.2 Hypotheses & Model). The regression thus reads:

$$\mathbf{BeI_{bc} = \beta_1 * BI_{bc} + \beta_2 * CoI - \beta_3 * CE +/- \beta_4 * PC_b +/- \beta_5 * FAM_b +/- \beta_6 * PC_c}$$
$$\mathbf{+/- \beta_7 * FAM_c +/- \beta_8 * PR_c +/- \beta_9 * age +/- \beta_{10} * gender}$$
$$\mathbf{+/- \beta_{11} * income +/- \beta_{12} * education +/- \beta_{13} * profession + \varepsilon}$$

where

BeI_{bc} = behavioural intention towards brand b in country c

β = standardized beta value

BI_{bc} = brand image for brand b in country c

CoI = country of origin image

CE = consumer ethnocentrism

PC_b = previous contact with brand b

FAM_b = familiarity with brand b

PC_c = previous contact with country of origin

FAM_c = familiarity with country of origin

PR_c = previous relations with country of origin

age = age of respondent

gender = gender of respondent

income = income of respondent

education = education of respondent

profession = profession of respondent

ε = error term of regression

The results can be found in the Appendices Q to T, a summary is shown in tables 11 and 12. Again, only variables reaching significance in at least two cases are included.

Table 11: Regression Analysis on BeI (I)

	R^2	R^2 adjusted
DB_S	0.407	0.399
CB_S	0.191	0.180
DB_I	0.374	0.360
CB_I	0.158	0.146

Table 12: Regression Analysis on BeI (II)

Hypothesis	Variable	Brand	B	Standard error	β	t	Sig	Confirmed?
H5h	Education	DB_S					n.s.	No
		CB_S					n.s.	No
		DB_I	-2.785	1.363	-0.140	-2.042	0.043	Yes
		CB_I	-3.439	1.372	-0.198	-2.507	0.013	Yes
H7e	Brand Familiarity	DB_S	9.232	2.919	0.234	3.163	0.002	No
		CB_S					n.s.	Yes
		DB_I	8.471	2.494	0.245	3.397	0.001	No
		CB_I					n.s.	Yes
H8	BI	DB_S	11.050	1.659	0.492	6.660	0.000	Yes
		CB_S	6.462	1.533	0.319	4.215	0.000	Yes
		DB_I	11.171	1.731	0.464	6.452	0.000	Yes
		CB_I	6.629	1.684	0.311	3.936	0.000	Yes

Rejected:

H2b	CoI
H5e	Age
H5f	Gender
H5g	Income
H5j	Occupation

Confirmed (because of non significant results):

H6b	CE
H7d	Country Familiarity

Compared to the results for BI, the model for BeI explains less variance with R^2 values ranging between 0.158 (CB, Italy) and 0.407 (DB, Spain). As with BI, values are higher for DB in both countries, indicating a more thorough composition for BeI_{DB}, probably attributable to the higher familiarity across both countries. Goodness of fit indices for all four regressions were significant at p <0.001. Altogether, four variables reached significance, with only BI influencing BeI across brands and countries.

Contrary to our expectations, CoI did not show any direct effect on BeI in all four cases at all, thus rejecting H2b. Furthermore, these figures indicate CoI to influence BeI only via BI, reflecting an indirect effect. Accordingly CoE on BI and BeI are higher for DB than CB, providing strong support for H1. In other words, our results indicate CoE to be significantly higher, when the origin of a company is visibly and constantly communicated by e.g., mentioning it in the corporate brand name.

Furthermore, as CoI has no direct influence on BeI, H3, positing CoI to have a higher influence on BI than BeI, is validated. These results are in line with past literature, indicating CoE to be higher for the evaluation of products and brands than for factual behavioural intention.

Again, sociodemographic characteristics were hypothesised to have a direct influence on BeI. However, only *education* was found to reach significance with it negatively influencing both brands in Italy (DB: β = -0.140; CB: β = -0.198). In other words, the higher one's education, the lower one's intention to get in contact with one of the brands. H5h thus receives limited support. On the other hand, H5e, f, g and j, (influence of age, gender, income & occupation) are rejected by our data. Accordingly, results indicate that sociodemographic variables in general bear only limited influence on both, BI and BeI.

H6b posited CE not to have any influence on BeI. Results provide strong support for this hypothesis with the variable not reaching significance in any of the four regressions. In other words, the tendency of consumers to prefer products, services and brands of local origin does influence neither evaluation nor intention to buy of their foreign counterparts, as posited by Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004), but much rather (only) positively affects local products, services or brands. This effect however, could not be tested for in this study.

Furthermore, as for BI, the effect of country and brand familiarity on BeI was hypothesised to be insignificant. For country familiarity variables, *previous relations* with Germany reached significance in one of four cases (β = 0.288; CB, Italy). The other two variables (*general country familiarity* & *previous contact*) didn't show any significant effect, supporting H7d. Apart from the indirect effect, *general brand familiarity* has via BI, a direct effect for DB in both countries could be detected with β-coefficients amounting 0.234 (Spain) and 0.245 (Italy). H7e thus receives only limited support. This result may be attributable to the higher familiarity in combination with the more positive image, DB is enjoying in both countries. In total, however, apart from *general brand familiarity*, familiarity variables show no consistent and significant effect on neither BI, nor BeI.

H8 states BI to positively influence BeI. The regression revealed significant and positive β-coefficients across brands and countries. Moreover, BI was the most important predictor in all four cases with coefficients ranging from 0.311 (CB, Italy) to 0.492 (DB, Spain). Once again, β-values are higher for DB in both countries, providing further support for a more thorough composition of BeI for companies enjoying a better image and higher familiarity.

5.3 Further Analysis

As an additional step, the influence of diverse variables on CoI was analysed via multiple regression analysis, according to figure 2 (c.f.: 3.2 Hypotheses & Model). The regression thus reads:

$$\mathbf{CoI = \beta_1 * CE + \beta_2 * II +/- \beta_3 * PC_c +/- \beta_4 * FAM_c +/- \beta_5 * PR_c}$$
$$\mathbf{+/- \beta_6 * PC_i +/- \beta_7 * FAM_i +/- \beta_8 * age +/- \beta_9 * gender}$$
$$\mathbf{+/- \beta_{10} * income +/- \beta_{11} * education +/- \beta_{12} * profession + \varepsilon}$$

where

CoI = country of origin image

β = standardized beta value

II = industry image

CE = consumer ethnocentrism

PC_c = previous contact with country of origin

FAM_c = familiarity with country of origin

PR_c = previous relations with country of origin

PC_i = previous contact with industry

FAM_i = familiarity with industry

age = age of respondent

gender = gender of respondent

income = income of respondent

education = education of respondent

profession = profession of respondent

ε = error term of regression

The analysis has been computed for both countries and according to the same rules that have been applied for the main analysis. Again, none of the regressions show signs of multicollinearity, dependent errors and heteroscedasticity, thus drawing of conclusions is valid (Field, 2005). The detailed results can be found in the Appendices U and V, a summary of statistically significant findings is reported in tables 13 and 14.

Table 13: Regression analysis on CoI (I)

	R^2	R^2 adjusted
Spain	0.203	0.186
Italy	0.213	0.202

For both regressions, goodness of fit indices were significant at p <0.001. However, R^2 values are rather low with the model only describing 20.3% (Spain) and 21.3% (Italy) of the variance in CoI. In other words, nearly 80% of influence on CoI is generated by variables other than those checked for in our model.

Again, the influence of CE does not meet our expectations. H9 posited the variable to negatively influence CoI. This, however, was only the case in the Spanish sample with β = -0.208. On the other hand, the influence of CE did not reach significance in Italy. H9, thus, is only partly supported. These results indicate CE to additionally to not influencing the evaluation of foreign products, brands and services (c.f.: Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004), furthermore to not influence the BeI towards them.

H10 posited II to have significantly positive influence on CoI. As in both countries the variable turned out to be the most important predictor with β-coefficients of 0.250 (Spain) and 0.401 (Italy), this hypothesis receives strong support. These findings are in

line with the majority of past research, indicating CoE to be specific to the product category under study.

Table 14: Regression Analysis on CoI (II)

Hypothesis	Variable	Country	B	Standard error	β	t	Sig	Confirmed?
H9	CE	Spain	-0.283	0.104	-0.208	-2.710	0.008	Yes
		Italy					n.s.	No
H10	II	Spain	0.313	0.096	0.250	3.267	0.001	Yes
		Italy	0.350	0.066	0.401	5.328	0.000	Yes
H11a	Country Familiarity	Spain					n.s.	Yes
		Italy	0.346	0.123	0.213	2.826	0.005	No
H12d	Education	Spain	0.210	0.061	0.265	3.424	0.001	Yes
		Italy					n.s.	No

Rejected:

H12a	Age
H12b	Gender
H12c	Income
H12e	Occupation

Confirmed (because of non significant results):

H11b	Industry Familiarity

As with BI and BeI, familiarity was hypothesised to have no significant effect on CoI. For CoO, only *general familiarity* did reach significance in Italy (β = 0.213) and none of the variables showed a significant effect in Spain. H12a, thus, is supported. Furthermore, as none of the industry familiarity variables reached significance in either country, H12b receives strong support. These results again support past research, indicating familiarity variables to sharpen the respective images but not per se biasing them in any way.

Last, the influence of SD (age, gender, income, education & occupation) was tested for. According to the previous regressions, but still contradicting our expectations, respondents' characteristics showed no significant and stable influence. Only *education* reached significance in one country (β = 0.265, Spain), indicating respondents with higher education to evaluate the CoO more positively. However, these results only provide limited support for H13d and H13a-c and e are rejected.

6. Discussion

In the preceding chapter the analysis of our empirical data has been conducted. On the following pages we will contrast these findings against past academic literature on country of origin (CoO). This chapter starts with an introductory part on the purpose and structure of the study. In the following subchapters the results on the three target phenomenon, brand image (BI), behavioural intention (BeI) towards a brand and country of origin image (CoI) are discussed.

Researchers have long posited the magnitude of country of origin effects (CoE) to depend on whether consumers are in fact aware of the origin of a product or service (e.g.: Papadopoulos, 1993; Pecotich et al., 1996). Furthermore, it has been stated that CoO may not only influence ratings of products and services directly but, too, work via brand origin i.e., the impact of origin associations of consumers on brand image (BI) (e.g.: Thakor & Lavack, 2003; Kapferer, 2004; Samiee et al., 2005). These origin indications may, for example, be communicated directly via the brand name with the use of e.g., a certain language (Lancôme is French, Volkswagen German) or the factual mentioning of the origin (e.g.: Deutsche Bank, Air India).

The aim of this piece of work was to analyse the influence, embedding an origin cue in the corporate brand name is having on BI and behavioural intention (BeI) towards the brand. Therefore a multicountry study has been conducted. We analysed the influence, CoO is having on the image of and BeI towards two brands emerging from the same country (Germany) and being active in the same industry (financial services) in two European countries (Spain & Italy). One brand is carrying its origin indication in its corporate brand name, whereas for the other brand, no direct indication was present. As the inclusion of real brands is said to provide more valid results (Lim & Darley; 1997; Okechuku & Onyemah, 1999; Ahmed et al., 2002, 2004), this approach was adopted for our study, using Deutsche Bank (DB) and Commerzbank (CB) as exemplary brands.

Following academic literature, several variables influencing CoE, BI and BeI were included in the analysis in order to test for their impact: industry image (II), consumer ethnocentrism (CE), familiarity with the country and brand as well as the industry and sociodemographic characteristics. As CoE are said to be product specific (e.g.: Han & Terpstra, 1988; Papadopoulos, 1993; Ittersum et al., 2003), the impact of II on BI was

assessed. The level of CE of the individual consumer was reported to negatively influence both, BI of and BeI towards foreign brands, products and services, when the home country is on the same level of development as the CoO (e.g.: Okechuku & Onyemah, 1999; Verlegh, 2007). As for familiarity, even though familiarity with the brand, industry and country has been found to influence both, BI and BeI (e.g.: Han & Terpstra, 1988; Liefeld, 1993), no consensus among researchers about a general directionality has been reached. We thus tried to prove that familiarity, even though it strengthens perceived images of stimuli, does not per se exert a positive or negative influence on CoI, BI and BeI (c.f.: Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Papadopoulos, 1993; d'Astous et al., 2008). Furthermore, the influence of sociodemographic characteristics was assessed, even though, here too, no consensus among the directionality of influence has been reached in past literature (Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993).

Our results revealed BI to be significantly and positively influenced by the image of the brands' CoO, general familiarity with the brand and II. Furthermore, BeI was found to be explained by BI and, to a certain extend, general familiarity with the brand (positive influence) and the education level of respondents (negative influence).

6.1 Composition of Brand Image

The brand of a product or service has long been identified as an important signal for cues such as price, (service and product) quality, reliability or innovativeness (Kapferer, 2004). Mercedes is a brand for cars of high comfort, high quality but, too, high acquisition costs. Goldman Sachs is an investment bank striving for profitability at (nearly) all costs, thus reflecting high market knowledge but probably being rather low on ethics. Apart from that, Mercedes is intertwined with Germany and, more especially, German Engineering and Goldman Sachs is *the* American investment bank. These two brands are highly associated with their respective CoOs, thus being influenced by their images. They in fact strongly benefit from their CoOs' reputation of leading in engineering (Germany) and being well known for being home of highly profitable and professional companies (United States). In other words, the image of the CoO significantly influences the image of brands, being known to emerge from these countries. Regardless of where a Mercedes is produced, it still is a Mercedes, thus a high quality vehicle. Put in more academical words, BI does provide consumers with important information about the products' or services' attributes and features. However,

its composition is not entirely under the marketers control, as the origin, the brand is associated with, bears significant influence on its image (e.g.: Thakor & Lavack, 2003; Kapferer, 2004; Samiee et al., 2005).

Our empirical data strongly supports these findings. CoI has been found to positively and significantly influence BI in all four cases. Consumers from both countries of analysis (Spain and Italy) used the image of the brands' CoO (Germany) to evaluate the two brands under study (Deutsche Bank & Commerzbank). In one case, CoI even was the most important predictor of BI ($\beta = 0.557$).

Several researchers stated it to be necessary for country of origin effects (CoE) to take place that the consumer is actually aware of the brands' origin (e.g.: Paswan & Sharma, 2004; Samiee et al., 2005). Additionally, Liu & Johnson (2005) proved CoE to work independent of the consumers' willingness to use CoO as a reference. In other words, as soon as the consumer knows a brands' CoO, this knowledge automatically influences his/her evaluation of the very brand. To make use of perceived positive CoE, managers thus have to make sure that consumers are aware of the brand origin, either via marketing efforts or even via the brand name itself. Accordingly, the usage of origin indications in the brand name via e.g. the use of a specific language or the factual mentioning of the brands' origin, raises brand origin recognition accuracy (BORA) among consumers. The latter statement has received strong support in our study. Levels of correct BORA were three to four times higher for Deutsche Bank than for Commerzbank, even though the origin indication is in a foreign language. The ratings for DB (72% in Spain and 90% in Italy) are way above the average for results for foreign brands found by Samiee et al. (2005) (22%) and comparable those by Paswan & Sharma (2004) reported for well-known brands such as McDonald's and Coke. However, it has to be taken into account that these results may partly be attributable to the higher familiarity, consumers had with DB. Results for the company not bearing the CoO in its' company essentials (CB), proved to be around above-mentioned average for recognition of foreign brands of 22%. In other words, when a company is constantly and visibly communicating its' CoO, consumers are in fact by and large aware of this. If, however, this information is lacking, recognition is supposedly rather low.

Accordingly, results revealed significant differences in the magnitude of CoE between the two brands across countries, with difference in β-values quite doubling in one, and being nearly 50% higher in the other country. Both values outperform the average

influence of CoO reported in past literature reviews (c.f.: Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999), contradicting the findings of Pecotich et al. (1996), who reported CoE to be low for the evaluation of banks, but supporting the theory of Jaffe & Nebenzahl (2006), hypothesising CoE to be higher in the service industry. From these results, it can be concluded that when consumers are aware of a brands' CoO, the effects its image is having on the image of the brand is significant and high.

Another fact widely recognized among researchers is the influence of industry image on the evaluation of a brand (e.g.: Wall et al., 1991; Wang & Yang, 2008). Our results provide further support, as II was found to be a significant predictor of BI in three out of four cases. In one country (Italy), it even was the most important predictor for both brands. In other words, when evaluating a brand, consumers (to a certain extent) use its image as a proxy of BI. A brands' industry thus represents yet another cue, consumers use in evaluating the brand, marketing managers have no direct and instant control of. Compared to CoI, however, whose influence can be (to a certain extent) in- or decreased (with putting the CoO in special focus, downplaying, or, in some cases, even *changing* it), controlling the influence of ones' industry is even more difficult, if not even impossible in many cases.

One factor, which can be controlled for by the company, is the familiarity with ones' brand. The scientific analysis of directionality and strength of influence of brand familiarity on BI, however, has not resulted in a consensus among researchers. They attribute this to the fact that familiarity with a stimulus aids in better evaluating it, instead of per se having a positive or negative effect (e.g.: Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; d'Astous et al., 2008). Following this theory, we expected the influence of brand familiarity to be insignificant. Even though, for all other familiarity variables with the brand, country and industry, results were indeed insignificant (in at least three out of four cases), *general brand familiarity* reached significance in all four cases. In other words, the more familiar respondents were with either brand, the higher they evaluated it. It seems reasonable to assume that this may be attributable to the positive image, both brands enjoyed in the two countries. A possible interpretation for general familiarity reaching significance with neither industry, nor country, would be the variable of analysis not being their respective stimuli (but BI). Whether familiarity with a stimulus may in fact per se result in a more positive evaluation of its very stimulus, however, is still debatable, as no well-known brand with a *weak* image has been analysed.

Another interesting finding is on the influence of CE on BI. According to the majority of past research, higher levels of CE have two major implications. On the one hand, they lead to a more favourable evaluation of local products. On the other hand, products and brands of foreign origin are said to suffer from a derogation of their image. Depending on the actual difference in product and brand attributes, this may even lead to consumers' preferring local products, even though they are of lower quality (e.g.: Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Ettenson & Klein, 2005). This view is being contradicted by Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004), who reported CE not to be a consistent predictor for foreign product preference. In other words, higher levels of CE may indeed lead to a more positive evaluation of local products, but don't necessarily have a significant impact on the evaluation of products of foreign origin. Our results provide support to the latter theory, with CE not negatively influencing BI in any of the four cases. This, however, may be attributable to the industry specificity of CE, as proposed by Verlegh (2007). According to his theory, higher levels of CE only lead to a more negative evaluation of foreign products, services and brands, when the respective local industry experiences threat from abroad. When consumers perceive the local industry as rather stable, no changes in evaluation should be expected. Due to the high globalisation in the financial services industry, it seems reasonable to assume that in this specific industry, the impact of CE may be lower than in other – more localised – industries.

Additionally, we have studied the influence of sociodemographic characteristics of consumers, on the evaluation of a brand. According to past research, they are important predictors, even though previous studies could not reveal consistent patterns throughout industries. Therefore, in our study, sociodemographics (age, gender, education, income and occupation) have been hypothesised to influence BI, even though no clear directionality could be posited. Surprisingly, none of the variables did have a consistent influence across countries and brands. In fact only three variables had significant coefficients in more than one case. Females provided higher ratings for CB in both countries. For DB, however, no such effect could be detected. Students evaluated DB higher in Spain and CB lower in Italy and people without current employment rated DB lower in Spain and CB lower in Italy. It can thus be concluded from our data, that sociodemographic characteristics possess only of scattered influence on BI, thus preventing to forecast ratings based on them.

6.2 Composition of Behavioural Intention of Brands

Positive product evaluation does not necessary lead to purchase intention of a product, brand or service, as other cues, such as price or current need are playing an important role in this process (Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Heslop et al., 2004). In the second part of our empirical work, we analysed the impact of BI, CoI, CE, familiarity and sociodemographic characteristics on BeI, in order to assess their importance. However, when interpreting these results, it has to be kept in mind that behavioural intentions are "powerful but imperfect indicators of future purchase behavior" (Morwitz & Schmittlein, 1992, p. 394; c.f.: Skaggs et al., 1996). Morwitz & Schmittlein (1992) analysed several marketing studies, finding BeI to both over- and underestimate actual behaviour, it thus being difficult to forecast consumer actions. However, even if a high BeI of an individual consumer may not necessarily lead to a purchase (straight away), its ratings still are of utter importance, as they may "influence his or her behaviour in general, or that of another individual, immediately or later" (Papadopoulos, 1993, p. 23).

Previous studies revealed the image of a brand to significantly and positively influence BeI (e.g.: Ahmed et al., 2002; Wang & Yang, 2008). Our results strongly support this theory, with BI being a significant predictor of BeI across brands and countries, it even having the highest β-value in all cases. BI thus is an important factor for consumers, when establishing behavioural intention towards a brand. In other words, the higher one thinks of a brand, the more likely one is to take this brand into consideration, when the need for a product of its' category arises.

Analysing CoE on BeI is described as elementary in establishing long-term communication strategies for a brand (Ettenson et al., 1988). Past research has revealed CoE to be lower for BeI than for evaluation of a product, service or brand (e.g.: Erickson et al., 1984; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Ahmed et al., 2002). In these studies, significant but rather low direct effects were found. However, in our study, no such effect could be detected, with CoI not reaching significance in any of the four cases. In other words, the CoO of a brand does not directly influence behavioural intention towards the brand. However, as BI affects BeI, so does (indirectly) CoI. Our results thus show that, even though consumers do not directly use the CoO of a brand when assessing choice alternatives, due to the fact that CoI significantly influences BI, it, too, influences BeI, but to a lower extent. As with BI, the impact of CoI is significantly

higher for DB than for CB. The results for both, BI and BeI, thus strongly support the hypothesis that, if one company visibly and constantly communicates its' CoO e.g., via its' company essentials such as the corporate brand name, CoE are significantly higher.

The question on whether familiarity variables affect BeI touches the same dilemma as their influence on BI. In other words, the influence of the diverse familiarity variables on behavioural intention is supposed to not be measurable i.e., to not reach significance in either a positive or negative direction. In fact, only one variable did reach significance in more than one case. Here again it was *general brand familiarity*, which, apart from its direct effect on BI, has a direct positive effect on BeI towards DB in both countries. It seems reasonable to assume that this result may be attributable to the positive image DB holds in both countries, as well as the relatively high familiarity, consumers had with it, both lying significantly above ratings for CB.

The influence of CE on BeI, contrary to BI, has been found to be significant only in the work by Ettenson & Klein (2005). In other words, the (proposed) negative influence of CE would only reduce BeI via BI. In our study, CE was found to influence neither BI, nor BeI. Thus, the evaluation and intention to get in contact with a foreign bank is not influenced by ethnocentric tendencies of consumers, providing further support to above-mentioned theory of Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004).

Furthermore, as with BI, the influence of sociodemographic characteristics was assessed, due to researchers positing them to be important predictors (e.g.: Johansson et al., 1985; Chao & Rajendran, 1993; Hsieh et al., 2004). However, results again do not support this theory as only education reached significance, with people having a higher level of education, to have lower BeI for both brands in one country (Italy). From these results and those of the analysis of BI, it can be concluded that the influence of sociodemographic characteristics on both, BI and BeI, is scattered and nowhere near a clear pattern, at least for the financial services industry. Forecasts based solely on them, thus will not lead to valid results.

6.3 Composition of Country Image

The composition of CoI is of vital importance to both, researchers and marketing practitioners (e.g.: Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002). It is for this reason, we used the available data to validate past results of CoI-research.

As CoI is said to be industry specific (e.g.: Papadopoulos, 1993), the influence of II on CoI was assessed. Our results reveal a strong and consistent influence, thus supporting this theory with the image of the financial services industry significantly affecting CoI of Germany.

CE was supposed to have a negative influence on CoI (e.g.: d'Astous et al., 2008). This theory could only be supported for one country (Spain). In Italy, however, no such effect could be detected, providing further doubt of the validity of the theory stating consumers with higher ethnocentric tendencies to evaluate foreign products, services or brands or a foreign country more negatively.

Furthermore the effects of familiarity variables and sociodemographics provide further support of previous findings. Only the effects of *general country familiarity* and *education* reached significance in one of the two cases. Consumers who were more familiar with Germany rated the country higher in Italy and respondents with higher education provided more favourable ratings for Germany in Spain. Familiarity variables, as well as sociodemographic characteristics, thus once more show no consistent patterns, providing further credence to above-made conclusion.

7. Conclusion

In the last couple of years, criticism on the validity of the country of origin effect (CoE) has gained support. Researchers argued that, due to diminishing mandatory origin declaration and the ongoing globalisation, *real world relevance* of country of origin (CoO) is decreasing (e.g.: Samiee et al., 2005; Usunier, 2006). This thesis has added credence to the ongoing importance of the CoO cue, thus contradicting above-mentioned criticism. Furthermore, another proof for the validity of CoE in the service industry has been gathered.

"[P]roducts and services are comprised of a combination of hundreds (perhaps thousands) of intrinsic and extrinsic cues" (Veale & Quester, 2009, p. 143), one of them being the brand they are sold under. Recent research has put a special focus on the effect, country of origin image (CoI) is having via brand image (c.f.: Thakor & Kohli, 1996; Kapferer, 2004; d'Astous et al., 2008; Zeugner-Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2010). Brand names are said to be globalised in 81% of cases (Kapferer, 2004), and carry various information of its' (desired) origin (e.g.: Thakor & Lavack, 2003; Laroche et al., 2005; Pappu et al., 2006). Several studies proved that, indeed, CoI influences the evaluation of a brand (e.g.: Leclerc et al., 1994; d'Astous & Ahmed, 1999; Thakor & Lavack, 2003). Combined with the results of Liu & Johnson (2005), reporting CoE to subconsciously influence consumer evaluations, it is reasonable to assume that the power of CoI may even be higher than has been thought.

CoE are said to be higher, the more consumers are (made) aware of the (desired) origin (Papadopoulos, 1993; Pecotich et al., 1996), with them being insignificant, when consumers lack such an association (Samiee et al., 2005). For a brand name, such a strong association may be created by e.g., embedding the origin directly in the corporate brand name (American Apparel, Russian Standard Vodka, Air India, Deutsche Bank). The present piece of work has analysed the effect such an indication is having on CoE. For this purpose, a multinational study on two brands of the same CoO an industry has been conducted. Deutsche Bank (DB) and Commerzbank (CB), two German brands active in the financial services industry were selected for analysis. Data has been gathered in 2009 in two European countries, namely Spain and Italy.

Our results provide interesting insights in the functioning of CoE and associated constructs, such as consumer ethnocentrism (CE). Indeed, it has been shown that a company, which actively communicates its' CoO via the brand name, enjoys significantly higher rates of brand origin recognition accuracy (BORA), i.e., consumers are more aware of the brands' CoO. Furthermore the effect, CoI has on BI is significantly higher across countries. In other words, when a brand is constantly and visibly communicating it' CoO, e.g., via carrying it in its' corporate brand name, (1) origin associations of consumers are more common and, to a higher extent, correct and (2) due to this strengthened associations, the impact of CoI on the image of the brand significantly increases. However, even though CoI directly influences BI, no such effect could be detected on behavioural intention (BeI). Its' influence is thus reduced to the impact it has via BI.

On the other hand, for the effect of industry image (II) on BI, both a direct effect and an indirect one, via CoI, could be detected. These results are in high accordance with past research, stating CoI and BI to be specific to the industry (e.g.: Etzel & Walker, 1974; Wall et al., 1991; Ittersum et al., 2003). The image of a brands' industry thus is an important predictor of the formation of the image and, to a lesser extent, intention to buy (get in contact with) a brand.

Another interesting result has been found in analysing the impact of diverse familiarity variables on CoI, BI and BeI, respectively. Past research is inconclusive on the impact, familiarity is having on the evaluation of stimuli. Some academics suggest consumers with a higher degree of familiarity vis-à-vis a certain stimuli to be able to evaluate it in higher detail, indicating a possible impact in a positive, as well as negative direction. On a global level this would indicate familiarity variables to, indeed, aid in evaluating stimuli but not per se influencing them in a positive or negative way (e.g.: Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Papadopoulos, 1993; d'Astous et al., 2008). The present piece of work supports this theory, with the majority of familiarity variables not showing consistent influence on either stimulus. Only general familiarity with the brand did reach significance across brands and countries for BI. For these results to be validated, however, well-known brands having a *weak* image have to be analysed.

Furthermore, an analysis on the influence of CE on CoI, BI and BeI, respectively leads to a strong contradiction of the majority of past research. Contrary to their results, CE did not have any influence on the evaluation of the CoO, foreign brands and the

intention to buy (get in contact with) them. These findings are in accordance with Verlegh (2007), stating CE to be specific to the industry (higher threat for local industry leads to a derogation in image of foreign brands and lower BeI) and Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004). The latter found CE to be "a more consistent predictor of preferences for domestic [...] rather than for foreign products" (p. 88). The influence of ethnocentric tendencies on the evaluation and BeI of foreign products, services and brands thus remains unclear and seems to be specific to the situation.

Way more clear are our results on the influence of sociodemographic characteristics on CoI, BI and BeI. In neither situation, one characteristic did reveal a consistent pattern – only scattered results could be spotted. Even though past research has identified them as important moderators on CoE (e.g.: Johansson et al., 1985; Hsieh et al., 2004), no consistent patterns could be extracted from the sum of their studies either. In accordance with these results, it can be concluded that sociodemographic characteristics may indeed influence the individuals' evaluation of products, services and brands, forecasting these differences on the basis of their characteristics though is not possible.

7.1 Managerial Implications

"[M]arketing directors are no longer questioning the principle of international expansion, but are preoccupied with the means by which this can be accomplished" (Kapferer, 2004, p. 395). Under this condition, it is of vital importance for them to know how and to what extent, the so-called country of origin effect influences the associations, consumers have towards their company, brand(s), products and services (Skaggs et al., 1996; Ahmed et al., 2004).

Country of origin has, in today's world, become a flexible instrument that can, to a certain extent, be changed or adapted according to a companies' positioning strategy (Papadopoulos, 1993, Kapferer, 2004). However, such moves bear significant long-term effects, as, when being associated with a certain CoO, "companies must rely on the behaviors of an entire society or country" (Michaelis et al., 2008, p. 408). Even though, brands do influence a countries' CoI, a single brand usually is not in a position to change it entirely (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006).

If a brand is to be associated with a certain country due to a positive product-country match and expected positive effects on the brands' image, it has to clearly communicate

this fact. As has been shown in this piece of work, CoE are higher, when consumers are (made) aware of a brands' CoO. One way of accomplishing closer associations with a country is the inclusion of the country in the corporate brand name or other instruments, elementary to the brand, such as the claim. If negative CoE are to be expected, then associations with the country should be kept at an absolute minimum and other associated countries having a more positive image, should be highlighted.

Furthermore, even though a certain amount of familiarity with a brand, country and industry may be a prerequisite for forming attitudes towards a brand, no per se positive effects can be expected from higher levels of familiarity. For ethnocentric tendencies of consumers, too, no general predictions can be made. It is advisable to check for possible negative effects of CE in ones' industry in every country, the company is active (or intends to extend business in) on a regular basis.

In fact, the most straightforward advise, marketing managers should follow can be found in Kapferer (2004). The French expert in brand management stated, "[e]ach company has to find its own balance between localisation […] and the deep-rooted *raison d'être* of globalisation" (p. 420). In other words, whichever country a brand is desired to be associated with, the stimuli, it will be judged on (corporate headquarter, history, brand name, etc.) should be adapted to this very country and actively communicated. If the aim is to be seen global, then origin associations with whatever country should be kept at an absolute minimum.

7.2 Limitations and Further research

As every scientific work, this thesis suffers from some limitations, reducing generalizability of the results. First of all, only two brands in one industry and one CoO have been analysed. Additionally, the study has been conducted in only two countries. Furthermore, the CoO, as well as the brands under study possessed of comparatively high images and familiarity levels. A comparable study including more CoOs, brands and industries, preferably including some with comparatively lower images and familiarity levels (e.g.: developing countries) and conducted in other countries would be desirable in order to validate the findings (c.f.: Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006).

Another factor biasing our results is the global financial crisis, which started in the fall of 2008. As data was gathered at its' peak, consumers evaluation of the financial service industry and the two brands might have been lower than were to be expected under *normal* circumstances (James, 2009). Due to this event the influence of II on BI might have been over- and the influence of CoI underestimated.

On the methodological side, only a non-probabilistic sample has been used. Second, as the stimuli in the questionnaire were not rotated, the results might include a certain order bias, leading to an overestimation of the influence on II on CoI. Third, comparison of phenomena between countries always bear the risk of taking the difference in response style as real differences in the evaluation of stimuli (Steenkamp et al., 1999; Craig & Douglas, 2005). Even though, care has been taken to ensure the validity of comparison, slight differences might have been undetected. Fourth, employing only verbal descriptions of products and brands may have resulted in an inflation of effect sizes (Peterson & Jolibert, 1995). Fifth, the R^2-values of the regressions on BeI towards CB have been rather low, with values being below 0.200, indicating more than 80% of the variable to be explained by variables other than have been checked for. A more detailed analysis of BeI would help in determining the exact composition of BeI for companies, where CoO associations are not that strong. Sixth, the usage of a CoI scale lacking of an affective facet may have further reduced generalizability of results.

In the future, more research has to be undertaken on the effects of origin indications in brand names, to validate the results of this thesis and those of Leclerc et al. (1994), especially in the context of developing countries as stimuli and countries of analysis. Furthermore, even though recently the amount of CoO research in the service industry has risen, more studies in this field are necessary in order to detect possible differences in CoE between products and services (Ahmed et al., 2002; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006). Additionally, it would be desirable to deepen knowledge on the concept of spontaneous and subconscious activation of CoE, as brought forward by Liu & Johnson (2005).

8. List of important abbreviations

BORA ..... brand origin recognition accuracy

BeI..... behavioural intention

BeI_{CB} .....behavioural intention Commerzbank

BeI_{DB} .....behavioural intention Deutsche Bank

BI ..... brand image

BI_{CB} .....brand image Commerzbank

BI_{DB} ..... brand image Deutsche Bank

CB .....Commerzbank

CBI..... corporate brand image

CE ..... consumer ethnocentrism

CoB .....country of brand

CoD..... country of design

CoE ..... country of origin effect

CoI ..... country of origin image

CoO..... country of origin

DB.....Deutsche Bank

II.....Industry Image

PCI ..... product-country images

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10. Appendices

Appendix A: Questionnaire (English)

1. Introduction

Thank you very much for agreeing on participating in this survey about **globalisation** using the example of the banking industry. This study is part of a diploma thesis at the **University of Vienna,** Department of International Marketing. Filling out this questionnaire should take no longer than 10 minutes. Please tick the answers that best represent your opinion. There are **no right or wrong answers**. The questionnaire is **anonymous** and no personal data will be stored.

Thank you very much for your participation.

First please let us have some personal information

Please indicate your age

.....

Please indicate your sex

- o male
- o female

In which country do you currently live in?

....

How high is your personal net income per month?

- o € 0-500
- o € 500-1.000
- o € 1.000 – 1.500
- o € 1.500 – 2.000
- o € 2.000 – 2.500
- o Over € 2.500

What is your current profession?

- o Student
- o Self-employed
- o Employed
- o Unemployed
- o Maternal leave
- o Other (please specify):

What is your highest completed level of education?

- o Grade/Elementary/Jr. High
- o College (2 years)
- o High School/ Secondary
- o College graduate
- o College (< 2 years)
- o Post-graduate degree

2. Part A – Banking Industry

At first we would like to get some information about your overall perceptions of the banking industry

How would you rate your personal familiarity with the banking industry?

1

Not at all familiar	Rather unfamiliar	Rather familiar	Very familiar

How would you evaluate the innovativeness of companies and services in the banking industry, where innovativeness means providing products appropriate to future consumer needs?

Not innovative						Very innovative
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

How would you evaluate the design of services offered by the banking industry where design means user friendliness and customer support?

Not appealing						Very appealing
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

How would you evaluate the prestige of companies and services in the banking industry, where prestige means exclusivity, status, brand name reputation and variety of services?

Not prestigious						Very prestigious
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

How would you evaluate the reliability and quality of services offered by the banking industry?

Not reliable						Very reliable
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

How often are you in contact with your bank?

Every 6 months or less often	Every 2-3 months	Every month	Every week or more often

2

3. Part B – Brands

Next we would like to ask you some questions about your personal opinion of two banks, Deutsche Bank and Commerzbank.

Do you know the brands' respective country of origin?

	If yes, please indicate the country below	Don't know (please tick)
Deutsche Bank		
Commerzbank		

Have you ever had private or professional contact with these brands?

	No, never	Yes, once	Yes, 2-3 times	Yes, more than 3 times
Deutsche Bank				
Commerzbank				

How would you rate your personal familiarity with these brands?

	Not at all familiar	Rather unfamiliar	Rather familiar	Very familiar
Deutsche Bank				
Commerzbank				

How would you evaluate the innovativeness of the two brands, where innovativeness means providing products appropriate to future consumer needs?

	Not innovative						Very innovative
Deutsche Bank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Commerzbank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

How would you evaluate the design of the two brands, where design means appearance and style?

	Not						Very

3

	appealing						appealing
Deutsche Bank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Commerzbank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

How would you evaluate the prestige of the two brands, where prestige means exclusivity, status, brand name reputation and variety of services?

	Not prestigious						Very prestigious
Deutsche Bank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Commerzbank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

How would you evaluate the reliability and quality of the two brands?

	Not reliable						Very reliable
Deutsche Bank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Commerzbank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

If you were searching for a bank for private banking purposes, what is the likelihood of selecting each of these companies (0 = never, 100 = I would definitely contact the bank)?

	Number of points
Deutsche Bank	...

	Number of points
Commerzbank	...

4. **Part C – Germany**

Next we would like to ask you a few questions about your personal perceptions of Germany

Have you ever been to Germany?

No, never	Yes, once	Yes, 2-3 times	Yes, more than 3 times

4

Do you have any private or professional relations to Germany?

No relations whatsoever	Rather loose relations	Intense relations

How would you rate your personal familiarity with Germany?

Not at all familiar	Rather unfamiliar	Rather familiar	Very familiar

How would you evaluate innovativeness of German products and services, where innovativeness means providing products appropriate to future consumer needs?

Not innovative						Very innovative
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

How would you evaluate the design of German products and services, where design means appearance and style?

Not appealing						Very appealing
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

How would you evaluate the prestige of German products and services, where prestige means exclusivity, status, brand name reputation and variety of services?

Not prestigious						Very prestigious
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

How would you evaluate the reliability and quality of German products and services?

Not reliable						Very reliable
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

5

5. Part D – Personal Views

Last we would like to ask you some questions on your personal views regarding imports

Spanish / Italian people should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Spanish / Italian business and causes unemployment

Fully disagree	Rather disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Rather agree	Fully agree

It is not right to purchase foreign products, because this puts Spanish / Italian people out of jobs

Fully disagree	Rather disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Rather agree	Fully agree

A real Spain/Italian should always buy Spanish / Italian products.

Fully disagree	Rather disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Rather agree	Fully agree

I always prefer Spanish / Italian products over foreign products.

Fully disagree	Rather disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Rather agree	Fully agree

We should purchase products manufactured in Spain / Italy, instead of letting other countries get rich off us.

Fully disagree	Rather disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Rather agree	Fully agree

Appendix B: Questionnaire (Spanish)

1. **Introducción**

Muchas gracias por acceder a participar en esta encuesta sobre la **globalización** en la que utilizaremos el sector de los servicios financieros como ejemplo. Esta encuesta es parte de una tesis para la obtención de un diploma en la **Universidad de Viena**, Departamento de Marketing Internacional. Completar este cuestionario no le llevará más de 10 minutos. Por favor, marque las respuestas que representan mejor su opinión. **No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas**. El cuestionario es **anónimo** y no se almacenará ningún dato personal.

Muchas gracias por su participación.

A continuación le vamos a pedir algunos datos personales

Por favor, indique dónde vive actualmente.

Para el cuestionario en España:

- o Barcelona
- o Valencia
- o Alicante
- o Madrid
- o Sevilla
- o Otra ciudad

Por favor, indique su edad.

.....

Por favor, indique su sexo

- o hombre
- o mujer

Por favor, indique el nivel de sus ingresos netos mensuales.

- o 0-500 €
- o 1.000 – 1.500 €
- o 2.000 – 2.500 €
- o 500-1.000€
- o € 1.500 – 2.000 €
- o Más de 2.500 €

Por favor, indique a qué se dedica actualmente.

- o Estudiante
- o Desempleado
- o Otra ocupación (por favor, especifique)
- o Trabajador autónomo
- o De baja por maternidad/paternidad
- o Empleado

¿Cuál es el nivel de educación más alto que ha completado?

- o Educación primaria/secundaria (obligatoria)
- o Universidad (< 2 años)
- o Licenciatura o diplomatura universitaria
- o Universidad (2 años)
- o Educación secundaria (bachillerato)
- o Postgrado

1

2. Parte A - Industria bancaria

En primer lugar, necesitaríamos tener alguna información sobre sus percepciones generales respecto a la industria de servicios financieros

¿Cómo clasificaría lo familiarizado que está con la industria bancaria?

Nada familiarizado	Poco familiarizado	Bastante familiarizado	Muy familiarizado

¿Cómo evaluaría el grado de innovación de las empresas y servicios de la industria bancaria, si por innovación entendemos suministrar productos adecuados a las necesidades futuras de los consumidores?

Nada innovadores						Muy innovadores
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

¿Cómo evaluaría el diseño de los servicios de la industria bancaria, si por diseño entendemos aspecto y estilo?

Nada atractivos						Muy atractivos
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

¿Cómo evaluaría el prestigio de las empresas y servicios de la industria bancaria, si por prestigio entendemos exclusividad, estatus, reputación de la marca y variedad de servicios?

Nada prestigiosos						Muy prestigiosos
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

¿Cómo evaluaría la fiabilidad y la calidad de los servicios de la industria bancaria?

Nada fiables						Muy fiables
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

¿Con qué frecuencia se pone en contacto con su banco?

Cada 6 meses o con menos frecuencia	Cada 2-3 meses	Todos los meses	Todas las semanas o con más frecuencia

3. Parte B - Marcas

Ahora nos gustaría hacerle algunas preguntas para conocer su opinión personal acerca de dos bancos, Deutsche Bank y Commerzbank.

¿Conoce el país de origen de cada una de estas marcas?

	Si lo conoce, por favor, indique el país a continuación	No lo conozco (por favor, marque)
Deutsche Bank		
Commerzbank		

¿Alguna vez ha tenido contacto con estas marcas, ya sea de forma privada o por motivos laborales?

	No, nunca	Sí, una vez	Sí, 2-3 veces	Sí, más de 3 veces
Deutsche Bank				
Commerzbank				

¿Cómo clasificaría lo familiarizado que está con estas marcas?

	Nada familiarizado	Poco familiarizado	Bastante familiarizado	Muy familiarizado
Deutsche Bank				
Commerzbank				

¿Cómo evaluaría el grado de innovación de los dos bancos, si por innovación entendemos suministrar productos adecuados a las necesidades futuras de los consumidores?

	Nada innovador						Muy innovador
Deutsche Bank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Commerzbank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

¿Cómo evaluaría el diseño de las dos marcas, si por diseño entendemos aspecto y estilo?

	Nada atractivo						Muy atractivo
Deutsche Bank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Commerzbank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

¿Cómo evaluaría el prestigio de las dos marcas, si por prestigio entendemos exclusividad, estatus, reputación de la marca y variedad de servicios?

	Nada prestigioso						Muy prestigioso
Deutsche Bank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Commerzbank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

¿Cómo evaluaría la fiabilidad y la calidad de las dos marcas?

	Nada fiable						Muy fiable
Deutsche Bank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Commerzbank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Si estuviese buscando un banco para sus fines personales, ¿qué probabilidades habría de que escogiese cada una de estas empresas (0 = nunca, 100 = Sin duda me pondría en contacto con el banco)?

	Número de puntos
Deutsche Bank	...

	Número de puntos
Commerzbank	...

4. Parte C - Alemania

Ahora nos gustaría hacerle algunas preguntas para conocer su percepción personal sobre Alemania

¿Ha estado en Alemania alguna vez?

No, nunca	Sí, una vez	Sí, 2-3 veces	Sí, más de 3 veces

¿Tiene alguna relación personal o profesional con Alemania?

Ninguna relación	Relaciones ocasionales	Relaciones intensas

¿Cómo clasificaría lo familiarizado que está con Alemania?

Nada familiarizado	Poco familiarizado	Bastante familiarizado	Muy familiarizado

¿Cómo evaluaría el grado de innovación de los productos y servicios alemanes, si por innovación entendemos suministrar productos adecuados a las necesidades futuras de los consumidores?

Nada innovadores						Muy innovadores
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

¿Cómo evaluaría el diseño de los productos y servicios alemanes, si por diseño entendemos aspecto y estilo?

Nada atractivo						Muy atractivo
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

¿Cómo evaluaría el prestigio de los productos y servicios alemanes, si por prestigio entendemos exclusividad, estatus, reputación de la marca y variedad de servicios?

Nada prestigiosos						Muy prestigiosos
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

¿Cómo evaluaría la fiabilidad y la calidad de los productos y servicios alemanes?

Nada fiables						Muy fiables
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

5. Parte D – Opiniones personales

Ahora nos gustaría hacerle algunas preguntas para conocer su opinión personal respecto de las importaciones

Los españoles/italianos no deberían comprar productos extranjeros, porque ello lesiona los negocios españoles/italianos y genera desempleo

Totalmente en desacuerdo	Bastante en desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo	Más bien de acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo

No es correcto comprar productos extranjeros, porque esto hace que los españoles/italianos pierdan sus empleos

Totalmente en desacuerdo	Bastante en desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo	Más bien de acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo

Un verdadero español/italiano siempre debería comprar productos españoles/italianos.

Totalmente en desacuerdo	Bastante en desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo	Más bien de acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo

Siempre prefiero los productos españoles/italianos en lugar de los productos extranjeros.

Totalmente en desacuerdo	Bastante en desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo	Más bien de acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo

Deberíamos comprar productos fabricados en España/Italia, en lugar de dejar que otros países se enriquezcan a nuestras expensas.

Totalmente en desacuerdo	Bastante en desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo	Más bien de acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo

Appendix C: Questionnaire (Italian)

1. Introduzione

La ringraziamo di aver consentito di far parte a questo sondaggio sulla **globalizzazione**, il quale utilizza l'esempio dell'industria dei servizi finanziari. Il presente studio fa parte di una tesi di laurea stesa presso l'**Università di Vienna,** Dipartimento di Marketing Internazionale. La compilazione del questionario non dovrebbe richiedere più di 10 minuti. Spunti le risposte che meglio rappresentano la Sua opinione. **Non vi sono risposte giuste o sbagliate**. Il questionario è **anonimo** e non verrà memorizzato alcun dato personale.

Grazie per la Sua partecipazione!

La preghiamo ora di fornirci alcuni dati personali

Al momento vive a...?

- o Roma
- o Napoli
- o Firenze
- o Milano
- o Torino
- o Altro

Indichi la Sua età.

.....

Lei è:

- o Uomo
- o Donna

A quanto ammonta il Suo reddito netto mensile?

- o € 0-500
- o € 1.000 – 1.500
- o € 2.000 – 2.500
- o € 500-1.000
- o € 1.500 – 2.000
- o Più di € 2.500

Qual è la Sua professione attuale?

- o Studente
- o Lavoratore dipendente
- o In congedo per maternità
- o Lavoratore autonomo
- o Disoccupato
- o Altro (si prega di specificare):

Qual è il livello di istruzione più elevato da Lei conseguito?

- o Scuole elementari / medie inferiori
- o Università (< 2 anni)
- o Laurea
- o Scuole medie superiori
- o Università (2 anni)
- o Master

2. Parte A – Industria bancaria

Per iniziare, desidereremmo ricevere alcune informazioni in merito alla Sua opinione generale sull'industria dei servizi finanziari.

1

Come valuterebbe la Sua familiarità con l'industria bancaria?

Non mi è affatto familiare	Non mi è molto familiare	Mi è abbastanza familiare	Mi è molto familiare

Come valuterebbe la capacità di innovazione delle aziende e dei servizi nell'industria bancaria, laddove "innovazione" significa offrire prodotti adeguati alle necessità future dei consumatori?

Per niente innovativi						Molto innovativi
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Come valuterebbe il design dei servizi nell'industria bancaria, laddove "design" significa aspetto e stile?

Per niente interessante						Molto interessante
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Come valuterebbe il prestigio delle aziende e dei servizi nell'industria bancaria, laddove "prestigio" significa esclusività, status, reputazione del marchio e varietà di servizi?

Per niente prestigioso						Molto prestigioso
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Come valuterebbe l'affidabilità e la qualità dei servizi nell'industria bancaria?

Per niente affidabili						Molto affidabili
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Con che frequenza è in contatto con la Sua banca?

Ogni 6 mesi o meno spesso	Ogni 2-3 mesi	Ogni mese	Ogni settimana o più spesso

2

3. Parte B – Marchi

Ora Le porremo alcune domande in merito alla Sua opinione personale su due banche: Deutsche Bank e Commerzbank.

Conosce il Paese d'origine dei due marchi?

	Se sì, indichi il Paese qui sotto	Non so (apponga un segno di spunta)
Deutsche Bank		
Commerzbank		

Ha mai avuto contatti privati o professionali con questi marchi?

	No, mai	Sì, una volta	Sì, 2-3 volte	Sì, più di 3 volte
Deutsche Bank				
Commerzbank				

Come valuterebbe la Sua familiarità con questi marchi?

	Non mi sono affatto familiari	Non mi sono molto familiari	Mi sono abbastanza familiari	Mi sono molto familiari
Deutsche Bank				
Commerzbank				

Come valuterebbe la capacità di innovazione dei due marchi, laddove "innovazione" significa offrire prodotti adeguati alle necessità future dei consumatori?

	Per niente innovativo						Molto innovativo
Deutsche Bank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Commerzbank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

3

Come valuterebbe il design dei servizi dei due marchi, laddove "design" significa aspetto e stile?

	Per niente interessante						Molto interessante
Deutsche Bank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Commerzbank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Come valuterebbe il prestigio dei due marchi, laddove "prestigio" significa esclusività, status, reputazione del marchio e varietà di servizi?

	Per niente prestigioso						Molto prestigioso
Deutsche Bank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Commerzbank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Come valuterebbe l'affidabilità e la qualità dei due marchi?

	Per niente affidabile						Molto affidabile
Deutsche Bank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Commerzbank	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Se stesse cercando una banca a scopo personale, con quale probabilità sceglierebbe una di queste aziende (0 = sicuramente no, 100 = sicuramente sì)?

	Numero di punti
Deutsche Bank	...

	Numero di punti
Commerzbank	...

4. Parte C – Germania

Ora Le porremo alcune domande in merito alle Sue opinioni personali sulla Germania.

È mai stato in Germania?

No, mai	Sì, una volta	Sì, 2-3 volte	Sì, più di 3 volte

Intrattiene rapporti privati o professionali con la Germania?

Nessun rapporto	Rapporti saltuari	Intensi rapporti

Come valuterebbe la Sua familiarità con la Germania?

Non mi è affatto familiare	Non mi è molto familiare	Mi è abbastanza familiare	Mi è molto familiare

Come valuterebbe la capacità di innovazione dei prodotti e dei servizi tedeschi, laddove "innovazione" significa offrire prodotti adeguati alle necessità future dei consumatori?

Per niente innovativi						Molto innovativi
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Come valuterebbe il design dei prodotti e dei servizi tedeschi, laddove "design" significa aspetto e stile?

Per niente interessante						Molto interessante
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Come valuterebbe il prestigio dei prodotti e dei servizi tedeschi, laddove "prestigio" significa esclusività, status, reputazione del marchio e varietà di servizi?

Per niente prestigiosi						Molto prestigiosi
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Come valuterebbe l'affidabilità e la qualità dei prodotti e dei servizi tedeschi?

Per niente affidabili						Molto affidabili
O	O	O	O	O	O	O

5. Parte D – Opinioni personali

Ora desideriamo porLe alcune domande in merito alle Sue opinioni personali sulle importazioni.

Gli italiani non dovrebbero acquistare prodotti stranieri, perché ciò nuoce al commercio italiano e porta disoccupazione.

Totalmente in disaccordo	Abbastanza in disaccordo	Né d'accordo né in disaccordo	Abbastanza d'accordo	Pienamente d'accordo

Non è bene acquistare prodotti stranieri, in quanto ciò lascia gli italiani senza lavoro.

Totalmente in disaccordo	Abbastanza in disaccordo	Né d'accordo né in disaccordo	Abbastanza d'accordo	Pienamente d'accordo

Un vero italiano dovrebbe sempre acquistare prodotti italiani.

Totalmente in disaccordo	Abbastanza in disaccordo	Né d'accordo né in disaccordo	Abbastanza d'accordo	Pienamente d'accordo

Preferisco sempre i prodotti italiani ai prodotti stranieri.

Totalmente in disaccordo	Abbastanza in disaccordo	Né d'accordo né in disaccordo	Abbastanza d'accordo	Pienamente d'accordo

Dovremmo acquistare prodotti fabbricati in Italia, anziché lasciare che altri Paesi si arricchiscano alle nostre spalle.

Totalmente in disaccordo	Abbastanza in disaccordo	Né d'accordo né in disaccordo	Abbastanza d'accordo	Pienamente d'accordo

Appendix D: Descriptive Statistics of Familiarities

	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
SPAIN						
Industry						
Familiarity	2.57	3.00	0.71	0.50	0.11	-0.27
Contact	2.85	3.00	1.02	1.04	-0.37	-1.03
Deutsche Bank						
Familiarity	1.78	2.00	0.73	0.54	0.81	0.69
Contact	1.65	1.00	0.96	0.93	1.38	0.75
Commerzbank						
Familiarity	1.11	1.00	0.39	0.16	4.45	23.89
Contact	1.07	1.00	0.37	0.14	5.99	38,47
Germany						
Familiarity	2.03	2.00	0.68	0.47	0.36	0.29
Contact	1.73	1.00	0.97	0.94	1.08	-0,03
Relations*	1.42	1.00	0.57	0.33	1.01	0.04
ITALY						
Industry						
Familiarity	2.56	3.00	0.73	0.53	-0.22	-0.18
Contact	2.85	3.00	0.86	0.74	-0.37	-0.48
Deutsche Bank						
Familiarity	2.15	2.00	0.87	0.76	0.22	-0.76
Contact	1.54	1.00	0.93	0.86	1.69	1.73
Commerzbank						
Familiarity	1.35	1.00	0.62	0.39	1.75	2.66
Contact	1.04	1.00	0.19	0.03	5.10	24.33
Germany						
Familiarity	2.16	2.00	0.68	0.46	0.20	0.01
Contact	2.16	2.00	1.05	1.10	0.42	-1.04
Relations*	1.33	1.00	0.54	0.30	1.39	1.00

*: measured on a 3-point scale

Appendix E: Descriptive Statistics of Behavioural Intention

	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
Spain						
Deutsche Bank	42.49	50.00	28.96	838.63	0.00	-1.07
Commerzbank	20.46	10.00	23.67	560.31	1.14	0.77
Italy						
Deutsche Bank	48.92	50.00	30.02	901.41	-0.19	-0.97
Commerzbank	29.18	20.00	26.01	680.93	0.64	-0.32

Appendix F: Independent Samples t-test for Intercountry Comparison of Stimuli

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
II	Equal variances assumed	10,657	,001	-,540	284	,590	-,07235	,13410	-,33631	,19161
	Equal variances not assumed			-,539	265,390	,591	-,07235	,13434	-,33686	,19215
BI_{DB}	Equal variances assumed	,013	,911	-,758	284	,449	-,11387	,15013	-,40939	,18164
	Equal variances not assumed			-,759	283,900	,449	-,11387	,15010	-,40932	,18158
BI_{CB}	Equal variances assumed	,168	,683	-3,278	284	,001	-,46445	,14167	-,74330	-,18559
	Equal variances not assumed			-3,277	282,975	,001	-,46445	,14172	-,74340	-,18549
CoI	Equal variances assumed	1,169	,280	,903	284	,367	,12507	,13847	-,14748	,39762
	Equal variances not assumed			,904	281,652	,367	,12507	,13836	-,14728	,39743
CE	Equal variances assumed	,500	,480	-2,430	284	,016	-,25554	,10514	-,46249	-,04858
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,431	283,817	,016	-,25554	,10511	-,46244	-,04863

Appendix G: Paired Samples t-test for Intracountry Comparison of BI

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Spain	BI_{DB} - BI_{CB}	,98438	1,20104	,10009	,78653	1,18222	9,835	143	,000
Italy	BI_{DB} - BI_{CB}	,63380	,98196	,08240	,47090	,79671	7,691	141	,000

Appendix H: Paired Samples t-test for Intracountry Comparison of Familiarities

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Spain									
Industry	Familiarity – Contact	-,278	1,047	,087	-,450	-,105	-3,182	143	,002
Deutsche Bank	Contact – Familiarity	-,132	,813	,068	-,266	,002	-1,948	143	,053
Commerzbank	Contact – Familiarity	-,042	,261	,022	-,085	,001	-1,915	143	,058
Germany	Contact – Relations	,313	,897	,075	,165	,460	4,183	143	,000
	Contact – Familiarity	-,306	,787	,066	-,435	-,176	-4,659	143	,000
	Relations – Familiarity	-,618	,637	,053	-,723	-,513	-11,646	143	,000
Italy									
Industry	Familiarity – Contact	-,282	,956	,080	-,440	-,123	-3,513	141	,001
Deutsche Bank	Contact – Familiarity	-,613	,882	,074	-,759	-,466	-8,277	141	,000
Commerzbank	Contact – Familiarity	-,317	,588	,049	-,414	-,219	-6,423	141	,000
Germany	Contact – Relations	,831	1,010	,085	,663	,999	9,801	141	,000
	Contact – Familiarity	,000	,938	,079	-,156	,156	,000	141	1,000
	Relations – Familiarity	-,831	,714	,060	-,949	-,712	-13,863	141	,000

Appendix I: Independent Samples t-test for Intercountry Comparison of BeI

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
BeI_{DB}	Equal variances assumed	,022	,881	-1,843	284	,066	-6,42948	3,48792	-13,29493	,43597
	Equal variances not assumed			-,1843	283,289	,066	-6,42948	3,48880	-13,29674	,43779
BeI_{CB}	Equal variances assumed	3,418	,066	-2,962	284	,003	-8,72477	2,94524	-14,52204	-2,92749
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,960	280,534	,003	-8,72477	2,94725	-15,52630	-2,92323

Appendix J: Paired Samples t-test for Intracountry Comparison of BeI

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Spain	BI_{DB} - BI_{CB}	,98438	1,20104	,10009	,78653	1,18222	9,835	143	,000
Italy	BI_{DB} - BI_{CB}	,63380	,98196	,08240	,47090	,79671	7,691	141	,000

Appendix K: Correlation of Stimuli and Familiarities (Spain)

* significant at $p < 0.5$
** significant at $p < 0.01$

		Ind_contact	Ind_ familiarity	II	DB_contact	DB_ familiarity	BI_{DB}	BeI_{DB}
Ind_contact	Pearson Correlation	1	,306**	,147	,229**	,076	,187*	,208*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,079	,006	,366	,025	,012
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
Ind_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,306**	1	,313**	,370**	,354**	,267**	,140
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000	,000	,000	,001	,095
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
II	Pearson Correlation	,147	,313**	1	,114	,191*	,454**	,296**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,079	,000		,176	,022	,000	,000
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
DB_contact	Pearson Correlation	,229**	,370**	,114	1	,570**	,365**	,274**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,006	,000	,176		,000	,000	,001
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
DB_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,076	,354**	,191*	,570**	1	,480**	,470**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,366	,000	,022	,000		,000	,000
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
BI_{DB}	Pearson Correlation	,187*	,267**	,454**	,365**	,480**	1	,605**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,025	,001	,000	,000	,000		,000
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144

		Ind_contact	Ind_ familiarity	II	DB_contact	DB_ familiarity	BI_{DB}	BeI_{DB}
BeI_{DB}	Pearson Correlation	,208*	,140	,296**	,274**	,470**	,605**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,012	,095	,000	,001	,000	,000	
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
CB_contact	Pearson Correlation	,197*	,224**	,264**	,149	,110	,032	-,132
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,018	,007	,001	,075	,191	,706	,115
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
CB_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,147	,248**	,331**	,196*	,231**	,153	-,014
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,079	,003	,000	,018	,005	,067	,868
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
BI_{CB}	Pearson Correlation	,072	,017	,262**	,076	,108	,527**	,123
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,394	,841	,002	,365	,199	,000	,141
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
BeI_{CB}	Pearson Correlation	,114	,097	,244**	,192*	,254**	,335**	,558**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,172	,246	,003	,021	,002	,000	,000
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
CoO_contact	Pearson Correlation	,064	,268**	,141	,458**	,357**	,290**	,208*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,446	,001	,091	,000	,000	,000	,012
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
CoO_relations	Pearson Correlation	,146	,222**	,044	,408**	,338**	,207*	,276**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,082	,008	,603	,000	,000	,013	,001
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144

		Ind_contact	Ind_ familiarity	II	DB_contact	DB_ familiarity	BI_{DB}	BeI_{DB}
CoO_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,088	,162	,054	,284**	,364**	,297**	,250**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,295	,053	,520	,001	,000	,000	,002
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
CoI	Pearson Correlation	,048	,166*	,268**	,307**	,328**	,652**	,359**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,567	,046	,001	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
CE	Pearson Correlation	-,072	,018	,071	-,096	-,082	-,002	-,055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,394	,828	,396	,252	,327	,983	,510
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144

		CB_contact	CB_ familiarity	BI_{CB}	BeI_{CB}	CoO_ contact	CoO_ relations	CoO_ familiarity	CoI	CE
Ind_contact	Pearson Correlation	,197*	,147	,072	,114	,064	,146	,088	,048	-,072
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,018	,079	,394	,172	,446	,082	,295	,567	,394
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
Ind_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,224**	,248**	,017	,097	,268**	,222**	,162	,166*	,018
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,007	,003	,841	,246	,001	,008	,053	,046	,828
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
II	Pearson Correlation	,264**	,331**	,262**	,244**	,141	,044	,054	,268**	,071
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,001	,000	,002	,003	,091	,603	,520	,001	,396
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
DB_contact	Pearson Correlation	,149	,196*	,076	,192*	,458**	,408**	,284**	,307**	-,096
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,075	,018	,365	,021	,000	,000	,001	,000	,252
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
DB_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,110	,231**	,108	,254**	,357**	,338**	,364**	,328**	-,082
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,191	,005	,199	,002	,000	,000	,000	,000	,327
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
BI_{DB}	Pearson Correlation	,032	,153	,527**	,335**	,290**	,207*	,297**	,652**	-,002
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,706	,067	,000	,000	,000	,013	,000	,000	,983
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144

		CB_contact	CB_ familiarity	BI_{CB}	BeI_{CB}	CoO_ contact	CoO_ relations	CoO_ familiarity	CoI	CE
BeI_{DB}	Pearson Correlation	-,132	-,014	,123	,558**	,208*	,276**	,250**	,359**	-,055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,115	,868	,141	,000	,012	,001	,002	,000	,510
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
CB_contact	Pearson Correlation	1	,767**	,211*	,032	,014	-,006	,018	,036	,050
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,011	,699	,869	,948	,829	,672	,554
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
CB_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,767**	1	,317**	,131	,189*	,072	,167*	,109	,057
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,000	,118	,023	,390	,045	,192	,498
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
BI_{CB}	Pearson Correlation	,211*	,317**	1	,329**	,059	,033	,104	,294**	,073
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,011	,000		,000	,483	,691	,216	,000	,385
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
BeI_{CB}	Pearson Correlation	,032	,131	,329**	1	,168*	,299**	,184*	,169*	-,018
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,699	,118	,000		,044	,000	,027	,043	,826
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
CoO_contact	Pearson Correlation	,014	,189*	,059	,168*	1	,418**	,595**	,278**	-,257**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,869	,023	,483	,044		,000	,000	,001	,002
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144

		CB_contact	CB_ familiarity	BI_{CB}	BeI_{CB}	CoO_ contact	CoO_relations	CoO_ familiarity	CoI	CE
CoO_relations	Pearson Correlation	-,006	,072	,033	,299**	,418**	1	,498**	,256**	-,097
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,948	,390	,691	,000	,000		,000	,002	,249
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
CoO_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,018	,167*	,104	,184*	,595**	,498**	1	,286**	-,072
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,829	,045	,216	,027	,000	,000		,001	,388
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
CoI	Pearson Correlation	,036	,109	,294**	,169*	,278**	,256**	,286**	1	-,235**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,672	,192	,000	,043	,001	,002	,001		,005
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144
CE	Pearson Correlation	,050	,057	,073	-,018	-,257**	-,097	-,072	-,235**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,554	,498	,385	,826	,002	,249	,388	,005	
	N	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144	144

Appendix L: Correlation of Stimuli and Familiarities (Italy)

* significant at $p < 0.5$
** significant at $p < 0.01$

		Ind_contact	Ind_ familiarity	II	DB_contact	DB_ familiarity	BI_{DB}	BeI_{DB}
Ind_contact	Pearson Correlation	1	,287**	-,009	,159	,241**	,064	,012
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,001	,915	,058	,004	,453	,883
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
Ind_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,287**	1	,138	,216**	,342**	,104	,055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,001		,102	,010	,000	,218	,512
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
II	Pearson Correlation	-,009	,138	1	,230**	,179*	,579**	,281**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,915	,102		,006	,033	,000	,001
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
DB_contact	Pearson Correlation	,159	,216**	,230**	1	,520**	,207*	,217**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,058	,010	,006		,000	,013	,009
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
DB_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,241**	,342**	,179*	,520**	1	,332**	,384**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,004	,000	,033	,000		,000	,000
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
BI_{DB}	Pearson Correlation	,064	,104	,579**	,207*	,332**	1	,557**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,453	,218	,000	,013	,000		,000
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142

		Ind_contact	Ind_ familiarity	II	DB_contact	DB_ familiarity	BI_{DB}	BeI_{DB}
BeI_{DB}	Pearson Correlation	,012	,055	,281**	,217**	,384**	,557**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,883	,512	,001	,009	,000	,000	
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
CB_contact	Pearson Correlation	,034	,167*	-,020	,260**	,142	,127	-,079
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,684	,046	,810	,002	,091	,132	,352
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
CB_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,129	,279**	,005	,036	,292**	,101	,140
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,125	,001	,956	,674	,000	,231	,097
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
BI_{CB}	Pearson Correlation	-,029	,032	,515**	-,057	,029	,685**	,258**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,732	,705	,000	,500	,734	,000	,002
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
BeI_{CB}	Pearson Correlation	-,059	-,052	,029	-,075	,050	,161	,501**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,483	,541	,730	,373	,555	,055	,000
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
CoO_contact	Pearson Correlation	,122	,204*	-,048	,120	,011	,025	,017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,148	,015	,574	,153	,895	,771	,842
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
CoO_relations	Pearson Correlation	,171*	,117	-,013	,219**	,071	,053	,094
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,041	,165	,882	,009	,401	,534	,264
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142

		Ind_contact	Ind_ familiarity	II	DB_contact	DB_ familiarity	BI_{DB}	BeI_{DB}
CoO_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,140	,144	,042	-,005	,125	,067	,103
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,097	,088	,624	,950	,138	,427	,221
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
CoI	Pearson Correlation	,036	,078	,410**	,036	,073	,486**	,289**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,668	,354	,000	,674	,390	,000	,000
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
CE	Pearson Correlation	-,029	-,041	,183*	,139	,129	,041	,069
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,735	,627	,030	,100	,125	,632	,412
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142

		CB_contact	CB_ familiarity	BI_{CB}	BeI_{CB}	CoO_contact	CoO_ relations	CoO_ familiarity	CoI	CE
Ind_contact	Pearson Correlation	,034	,129	-,029	-,059	,122	,171*	,140	,036	-,029
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,684	,125	,732	,483	,148	,041	,097	,668	,735
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
Ind_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,167*	,279**	,032	-,052	,204*	,117	,144	,078	-,041
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,046	,001	,705	,541	,015	,165	,088	,354	,627
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
II	Pearson Correlation	-,020	,005	,515**	,029	-,048	-,013	,042	,410**	,183*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,810	,956	,000	,730	,574	,882	,624	,000	,030
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
DB_contact	Pearson Correlation	,260**	,036	-,057	-,075	,120	,219**	-,005	,036	,139
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,002	,674	,500	,373	,153	,009	,950	,674	,100
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
DB_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,142	,292**	,029	,050	,011	,071	,125	,073	,129
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,091	,000	,734	,555	,895	,401	,138	,390	,125
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
BI_{DB}	Pearson Correlation	,127	,101	,685**	,161	,025	,053	,067	,486**	,041
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,132	,231	,000	,055	,771	,534	,427	,000	,632
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142

		CB_contact	CB_ familiarity	BI_{CB}	BeI_{CB}	CoO_contact	CoO_ relations	CoO_ familiarity	CoI	CE
BeI_{DB}	Pearson Correlation	-,079	,140	,258**	,501**	,017	,094	,103	,289**	,069
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,352	,097	,002	,000	,842	,264	,221	,000	,412
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
CB_contact	Pearson Correlation	1	,323**	,181*	,087	,117	,166*	,123	,001	,049
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,031	,304	,167	,049	,143	,991	,565
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
CB_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,323**	1	,205*	,211*	,282**	,115	,401**	,070	-,172*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000		,014	,012	,001	,174	,000	,409	,041
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
BI_{CB}	Pearson Correlation	,181*	,205*	1	,347**	-,013	-,010	,061	,359**	,082
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,031	,014		,000	,877	,906	,474	,000	,334
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
BeI_{CB}	Pearson Correlation	,087	,211*	,347**	1	-,027	,004	,127	,042	,075
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,304	,012	,000		,752	,960	,131	,617	,373
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
CoO_contact	Pearson Correlation	,117	,282**	-,013	-,027	1	,329**	,480**	,086	-,053
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,167	,001	,877	,752		,000	,000	,308	,529
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
CoO_relations	Pearson Correlation	,166*	,115	-,010	,004	,329**	1	,334**	-,006	,048
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,049	,174	,906	,960	,000		,000	,944	,574
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142

		CB_contact	CB_ familiarity	BI_{CB}	BeI_{CB}	CoO_contact	CoO_ relations	CoO_ familiarity	CoI	CE
CoO_familiarity	Pearson Correlation	,123	,401**	,061	,127	,480**	,334**	1	,229**	,009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,143	,000	,474	,131	,000	,000		,006	,918
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
CoI	Pearson Correlation	,001	,070	,359**	,042	,086	-,006	,229**	1	-,002
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,991	,409	,000	,617	,308	,944	,006		,981
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142
CE	Pearson Correlation	,049	-,172*	,082	,075	-,053	,048	,009	-,002	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,565	,041	,334	,373	,529	,574	,918	,981	
	N	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142	142

Appendix M: Multiple Regression on BI (DB, Spain)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,809	,654	,631	,78379	,654	28,150	9	134	,000	1,913

Dependent variable: BI_{DB}

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-2,308	,560		-4,119	,000	-3,417	-1,200					
	CE	,218	,076	,153	2,863	,005	,067	,368	-,002	,240	,145	,905	1,105
	CoI	,584	,061	,557	9,606	,000	,464	,705	,652	,639	,488	,767	1,304
	II	,313	,072	,238	4,347	,000	,170	,455	,454	,352	,221	,861	1,162
	Ind_contact	,149	,069	,118	2,161	,032	,013	,286	,187	,184	,110	,865	1,156
	DB_familiarity	,469	,097	,267	4,852	,000	,278	,661	,480	,387	,247	,854	1,171
	SD_age	,028	,010	,162	2,762	,007	,008	,048	,077	,232	,140	,748	1,336
	SD_income	-,141	,055	-,153	-2,571	,011	-,250	-,033	,095	-,217	-,131	,726	1,377
	SD_profession_student	,547	,263	,122	2,081	,039	,027	1,067	,090	,177	,106	,752	1,329
	SD_profession_unemployed	-,554	,247	-,119	-2,238	,027	-1,043	-,064	-,201	-,190	-,114	,913	1,095

Appendix N: Multiple Regression on BI (CB, Spain)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,451	,203	,186	1,05552	,203	11,911	3	140	,000	1,995

Dependent variable: BI_{CB}

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,398	,450		,885	,378	-,491	1,287					
	CoI	,275	,073	,290	3,779	,000	,131	,420	,294	,304	,285	,968	1,033
	CB_familiarity	,875	,225	,295	3,882	,000	,429	1,321	,317	,312	,293	,987	1,013
	SD_gender	,447	,181	,189	2,472	,015	,089	,805	,131	,204	,186	,977	1,023

Appendix O: Multiple Regression on BI (DB, Italy)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,681	,464	,452	,92396	,464	39,792	3	138	,000	1,858

Dependent variable: BI_{DB}

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,182	,390		,467	,641	-,589	,954					
	II	,408	,068	,415	5,987	,000	,273	,543	,579	,454	,373	,809	1,235
	CoI	,336	,077	,298	4,365	,000	,184	,489	,486	,348	,272	,832	1,202
	DB_familiarity	,339	,091	,236	3,731	,000	,160	,519	,332	,303	,233	,968	1,033

Appendix P: Multiple Regression on BI (CB, Italy)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,661	,437	,398	,95050	,437	11,375	9	132	,000	2,072

Dependent variable: BI_{CB}

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-,325	,646		-,503	,616	-1,603	,953					
	II	,422	,071	,437	5,927	,000	,281	,563	,515	,458	,387	,784	1,275
	CoI	,223	,080	,202	2,782	,006	,064	,382	,359	,235	,182	,813	1,231
	SD_gender	,470	,177	,191	2,657	,009	,120	,820	,120	,225	,174	,826	1,211
	SD_profession_student	-,676	,319	-,142	-2,120	,036	-1,307	-,045	-,105	-,181	-,138	,956	1,046
	SD_profession_other	-,915	,361	-,173	-2,534	,012	-1,629	-,201	-,107	-,215	-,166	,918	1,089
	SD_profession_unemployed	-,873	,330	-,183	-2,643	,009	-1,526	-,220	-,094	-,224	-,173	,891	1,122
	BS_familiarity	-,277	,121	-,164	-2,286	,024	-,516	-,037	,032	-,195	-,149	,824	1,214
	CB_contact	1,131	,464	,171	2,435	,016	,212	2,049	,181	,207	,159	,869	1,151
	CB_familiarity	,387	,144	,196	2,692	,008	,102	,671	,205	,228	,176	,806	1,241

Appendix Q: Multiple Regression on BeI (DB, Spain)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,638[a]	,407	,399	22,44896	,407	48,483	2	141	,000	1,991

Dependent variable: BeI_{DB}

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-17,679	6,391		-2,766	,006	-30,314	-5,045					
	BI_{DB}	11,050	1,659	,492	6,660	,000	7,770	14,331	,605	,489	,432	,769	1,300
	DB_familiarity	9,232	2,919	,234	3,163	,002	3,461	15,002	,470	,257	,205	,769	1,300

Appendix R: Multiple Regression on BeI (CB, Spain)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,437[a]	,191	,180	21,43965	,191	16,656	2	141	,000	1,983

Dependent variable: BeI_{CB}

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-15,613	6,504		-2,401	,018	-28,471	-2,755					
	BI_{CB}	6,462	1,533	,319	4,215	,000	3,431	9,493	,329	,335	,319	,999	1,001
	CoO_relations	11,889	3,129	,288	3,799	,000	5,703	18,075	,299	,305	,288	,999	1,001

Appendix S: Multiple Regression on BeI (DB, Italy)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,611[a]	,374	,360	24,01576	,374	27,456	3	138	,000	1,994

Dependent variable: BeI_{DB}

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-5,683	8,801		-,646	,519	-23,085	11,718					
	BI_{DB}	11,171	1,731	,464	6,452	,000	7,748	14,595	,557	,481	,435	,876	1,142
	DB_familiarity	8,471	2,494	,245	3,397	,001	3,540	13,401	,384	,278	,229	,870	1,149
	SD_education	-2,785	1,363	-,140	-2,042	,043	-5,481	-,089	-,149	-,171	-,138	,972	1,029

Appendix T: Multiple Regression on BeI (CB, Italy)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,398[a]	,158	,146	24,11327	,158	13,062	2	139	,000	1,850

Dependent variable: BeI_{CB}

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	17,689	8,205		2,156	,033	1,467	33,911					
	BI_{CB}	6,629	1,684	,311	3,936	,000	3,299	9,958	,347	,317	,306	,968	1,033
	SD_education	-3,439	1,372	-,198	-2,507	,013	-6,151	-,727	-,254	-,208	-,195	,968	1,033

Appendix U: Multiple Regression on CoI (Spain)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,451[a]	,203	,186	1,10990	,203	11,915	3	140	,000	1,887

Dependent variable: CoI

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3,589	,488		7,355	,000	2,624	4,553					
	CE	-,283	,104	-,208	-2,710	,008	-,489	-,076	-,235	-,223	-,204	,963	1,039
	II	,313	,096	,250	3,267	,001	,123	,502	,268	,266	,246	,976	1,025
	SD_education	,210	,061	,265	3,424	,001	,089	,331	,331	,278	,258	,953	1,050

Appendix V: Multiple Regression on CoI (Italy)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,462[a]	,213	,202	,98894	,213	18,847	2	139	,000	1,689

Dependent variable: CoI

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2,655	,367		7,228	,000	1,928	3,381					
	II	,350	,066	,401	5,328	,000	,220	,480	,410	,412	,401	,998	1,002
	CoO_famili-arity	,346	,123	,213	2,826	,005	,104	,588	,229	,233	,213	,998	1,002

Appendix W: Abstract (German)

In der jüngeren Vergangenheit haben Forscher vermehrt die Existenz des so genannten Herkunftslandeffektes bezweifelt. Dieser besagt, dass das Ursprungsland (UL) eines Produktes, einer Marke oder Dienstleistung Einfluss auf deren Evaluation beziehungsweise die Intention diese zu konsumieren hat. Die vorliegende Arbeit hat mit Hilfe einer internationalen Studie untersucht, inwiefern das Image des UL einer Marke die Evaluation derselben bzw. die Intention, mit dieser in Kontakt zu treten, beeinflusst. Dabei wird eindeutig gezeigt: Je stärker einem Konsumenten bewusst ist (gemacht wird), aus welchem Land eine Marke (angeblich) stammt, desto stärker projiziert er das Image dieses Landes auf jenes der Marke. Diese Studie ist somit ein Beleg dafür, dass das UL eines Produktes, einer Marke oder Dienstleistungen von hoher Bedeutung ist. Darüber hinaus wurde der Einfluss diverser Variablen auf die Evaluation eines Landes sowie einer ausländischen Marke, sowie die Intention, letztere zu *konsumieren*, überprüft. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass ein höherer sogenannter Ethnozentrismus weder zwangsläufig dazu führt, dass eine der beiden schlechter beurteilt wird, noch dadurch die Intention, mit letzterer in Kontakt zu treten, sinkt. Darüber hinaus wird keiner dieser drei in einem messbaren Rahmen von soziodemografischen Charakteristika von Konsumenten beeinflusst. Ein weiteres interessantes Resultat ist die Tatsache, dass eine höhere Vertrautheit mit dem Herkunftsland einer Marke, oder ihrer Branche, nicht zwangsläufig zu einer besseren Evaluation derselben führt. Insgesamt bietet diese Arbeit wichtige Einblicke in die Funktionsweise des Images eines UL und assoziierten Konstrukten. Diese Ergebnisse sind sowohl für Akademiker, als auch für Praktiker von hoher Relevanz. Erstere erhalten einen tiefgehenderen Einblick in die Funktionsweise des Herkunftslandeffektes und gleichzeitig einen Beweis für seine wirtschaftliche Relevanz. Zweitere wiederum können die Ergebnisse dieser Studie in der Er- und Überarbeitung der Kommunikationsstrategie ihrer Marke(n) nutzen.

Appendix X: Curriculum Vitae

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL DATA

Name	Paul René Frigo
Date of birth	Nov 12th 1983
Citizenship	Austrian

FORMATION

Sept 06 – Jun 07	**Exchange Student** at Université Dauphine de Paris (ERASMUS)
Since 2004	**International Business Administration** at University of Vienna
1997-2002	Commercial High School with main focus on languages (Vienna)

FURTHER EDUCATION

2002 – 2009	Diverse Seminars (e.g.: elocution, negotiation, event management)
2003	Certified ambulance officer
2005	Diverse journalism seminars
2008	**Instructor** for Journalists (Friedrich Funder Institute)

WORK EXPERIENCE

Since Sept 10	**Deutsche Bank** – Brand Management (Frankfurt); project manager (freelancer)
Since Apr 10	**urban communications** – communications agency; CEO
Since Sept 08	**Friedrich Funder Institute** – seminar-instructor („the power of the media“)
Jan 09 – Apr 10	**pr frigo** – PR agency; CEO
Jul 07 – Jan 09	**Deutsche Bank** –Brand Management (Frankfurt); project manager (freelancer)
Jul 06 – Sept 06	**Deutsche Bank** – pr-division (Frankfurt); project assistant (intern)
Jun 06	**Austrian community Alliance** – lobbying; Online-journalist (intern)
Oct 05 – May 08	**Hörsaal 10** (University newspaper); founder, editor in chief, layout, marketing
Jul 05	**KURIER** (Austrian newspaper); Journalist, (intern)
Feb 03 – Jan 04	**Austrian Red Cross**; rescue service; ambulance officer (civilian servant)
Nov 02 – Jun 06	**Securitas**; Event security (sport and music events)
Jul 02 – Jul 05	**property management** FRIGO; computer technician, field service, (employee)

OUTSIDE ACTIVITIES:

02/06 – 06/08	**OeH** (students lobby); counsellor, layout, project manager
Since 02/04	**Austrian Red Cross**; rescue service; ambulance officer (volunteer)

LANGUAGES

German	Mother Tongue
English	Very high knowledge
French	advanced knowledge (CFS (Certificat de français du secrétariat (2002)))
Spanish	basic knowledge

the rest is silence

(Hamlet)