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The Image of Countries and their Products at the Subcultural Level: Investigating Differences between English and French Canadian Consumers

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A Thesis

in

The Faculty

of

Commerce and Administration

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the degree of Master of Science in Administration at
Concordia University
Montreal, Quebec, Canada

April 2000

ABSTRACT

The Image of Countries and their Products at the Subcultural Level: Investigating Differences between English and French Canadian Consumers

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Research on the Product and Country Images (PCI) issue (also known as "country-of-origin, or "made-in"), began 30 years ago and has grown rapidly to become one of the most important fields in international marketing and business theory, with over 500 published studies to date. This substantial literature reflects the pervasive presence of origin cues in society and the economy, in public policy and business decision-making. While the body of work on PCI has made significant theoretical and practical contributions, numerous unresolved questions remain. Among them is whether the effects of the product-country image vary across subcultural groups within nations concerning products from various countries. Thus, the objective of this study was to determine if consumer attitudes towards foreign countries and their products vary among ethnic subcultural groups (English versus French-Canadians).

The data analysis, using multivariate analysis of variance and factor analysis confirmed that subcultural differences between English and French Canadians do indeed exist in the evaluation of foreign countries and their products. Manova tests revealed that significant differences between the two subcultures were detected for eleven of the eighteen countries under investigation. Furthermore, a subcultural bias was demonstrated by the fact that English Canadians gave more favorable scores to products from Great Britain than French Canadians did while French Canadians gave better scores to products from France.

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INTRODUCTION

Research on the Product and Country Images (PCI) issue (also known as "country-of-origin, or "made-in"), began over 30 years ago and has grown rapidly to become one of the most important fields in international marketing and business theory, with more than 500 published studies to date. This substantial literature reflects the pervasive presence of origin cues in society and the economy, in public policy and business decision-making.

In 1987, Papadopoulos & Heslop[1], together with collaborators abroad, carried out a cross-cultural PCI study in eight countries involving 2,220 respondents. This was, and remains, the largest and one of the most significant studies in the field.

Papadopoulos & Heslop intended to replicate and extend the findings of their original (1987) research. They also intended to investigate subnational differences in PCI perceptions and attitudes. More specifically, the differences between English and French Canadians with respect to PCI perceptions and attitudes. Dr. Laroche and Rodrigo A. Padilla performed this section of their overall study.

More specific objectives of Papadopoulos & Heslop's research framework included:

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[1]Some published articles resulting from this research include:
Papadopoulos, N. & Graby, F. (1987). Attitudes des consumateurs a l'egard de produits d'origines differentes: Une etude transnationale. Colloque de l'Association Francaise du Marketing (Jouay-en-Josas, France).

1. To test the longitudinal and cross-cultural stability of the original study's findings to assess their generalizability;
2. To improve the original study to take advantage of new knowledge and methodological approaches developed in the interim;
3. To explore cross-cultural similarities and differences in consumer views, and attitudinal and behavioral correlates, in the light of the new international environment;
4. To develop and test a systematic model of PCI structure and effects;
5. To investigate the image of Canada and Canadian products among domestic (subnational) and foreign consumers;
6. To explore subcultural differences in PCI attitudes and perceptions among English and French Canadians residing in Montreal, Canada.

Product-Country Images

Numerous studies have concluded that a "made-in", "country-of-origin", or "product-country image" effect do indeed exist, and have explored in detail its various aspects. In fact, Tan and Farley (1987) have called this "the most researched aspect" of international buyer behavior.

Ernst Dichter (1962) is cited as the first to have stressed the significance of the "made-in" cue in marketing, however Dichter did not publish in an academic journal. The first academic study on the issue is credited to Schooler (1965).

Papadopoulos, N., Heslop, L.A., & Bamossy, G. (1990). A comparative analysis of domestic vs. imported products. International Journal of Research in Marketing, 7 (4) (December): 283-294.

Among other findings, research has demonstrated that consumers tend to regard an assortment of products that are grown/processed/ or manufactured in a given country with a consistently positive or negative attitude. In addition, the literature demonstrates that origin biases exist for both products in general, as well as specific products, and for end-consumers and industrial buyers alike. Furthermore, the product-country image bias has been established for products from both developed countries (Bannister and Saunders 1978) and less developed ones (Chasin and Jaffe 1979). In general, products from less developed nations are perceived to be more risky and of lower quality than products made in developed countries (Bilkey and Nes 1981).

The majority of research on PCI was carried out after the seminal literature review by Bilkey and Nes (1982). Bilkey and Nes (1982, p.42) state that "much of the early research suffered from methodological weaknesses". These included the "extensive use of student and other non-representative samples, inadequate conceptualization, and the relatively scant use of multivariate methods of analysis of findings". More sophisticated analyses have begun to appear recently, but the use of student samples is a continuing characteristic of research in this field (e.g., Cordell 1991; Garland, Barker, & Crawford 1987; Han & Qualls 1986).

PCI and Subcultures

Heslop, Papadopoulos, and Bourke (1996) state that although "the body of work on PCI has made significant theoretical and practical contributions, numerous unresolved questions remain". Among them is whether the "effects of the product-country image vary across subcultural groups within nations concerning

products from various countries" (Heslop, Papadopoulos, and Bourke, 1996). Thus, the objective of this study will be to determine if consumer attitudes towards foreign countries and their products vary among ethnic subcultural groups (English versus French-Canadians).

Heslop, Papadopoulos, and Bourke (1996) state that "as industrialization, urbanization and integration of the world's economy rapidly advance, studies of cross-cultural as well as subcultural diversities are essential. Not only cultural differences but, also, subcultural ones affect business environments and marketing strategies. To date, the product-country image literature has paid little attention to subcultural differences". This study will address this issue in the PCI literature by investigating subcultural differences between English and French Canadian consumers.

Padmanabhan (1988) states that "both single culture and cross-culture studies on the country-of-origin effect have implicitly assumed that homogeneous consumer groups exist within the nations studied". However, Padmanabhan (1988) states that "this is a fallacy". By ignoring cultural heterogeneities within nations, marketers may overlook subculture-based opportunities and threats". As Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983, p.156) have suggested: "future studies should attempt to include regional and subcultural differences as these are major sources of variations". Furthermore, Heslop, Papadopoulos, and Bourke (1996) state that "while this issue has been recognized the research has not followed".

Cross-cultural studies do reveal the presence of product image differences among respondents from various countries (Cattin, Jolibert, and

Lohnes 1982; Lillis and Narayana 1974; Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy 1991). In these studies, "nation and culture have often been used synonymously with the national boundaries that separate one cultural group from another, and little attention has been paid to emic/etic distinctions in research design and data analysis" (Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy 1991, 1994). Thus, Papadopoulos, Heslop and Bamossy (1994) state that as a result, "most studies have in fact been cross-national rather than cross-cultural". Consequently, "differences attributed to national characteristics may be more closely linked with cultural ones". In one of the few studies that stressed the element of culture rather than the nation, Krishnakumar (1974) found that Indian students rated British products higher than did Taiwanese students and posited that these "differences were culturally rooted and most likely the result of former colonial ties".

Papadopoulos, Heslop and Bamossy (1994) state that while "research into true cross-cultural issues within the country-of-origin research context is scant, culture is recognized as having a pervasive influence in marketing". Laroche, Kim, & Tomiuk (1996, p.2) state that "attempts in the area of marketing to incorporate and apply notions from the field of cross-cultural adaptation were preceded by the realization that the presence of ethnic subcultures had significant implications for many aspects of marketing in the North-American context." They elaborate by stating that "many investigations have focused on Hispanics in the US (e.g., Hoyer & Deshpande 1982; Saegert, Hoover, & Hilger 1985; Wallendorf & Reily 1983). Some have looked into consumption behavior of

African-Americans (e.g., Sexton 1972) while others have contrasted it to that of Whites (e.g., Bullock 1961)". In fact, Laroche, Kim, & Tomiuk (1996) state that "a number of ethnicity-oriented studies in marketing have derived their findings from cross-cultural comparisons (see Dalrymple, Robertson, & Yoshino 1971; Douglas 1976; Schaninger, Bourgeois, & Buss 1985; Tigert 1973; Vickers & Benson 1972). The assumption that consumption is a cultural phenomenon underlies most, if not all, of these studies (McCracken 1985; 1986)."

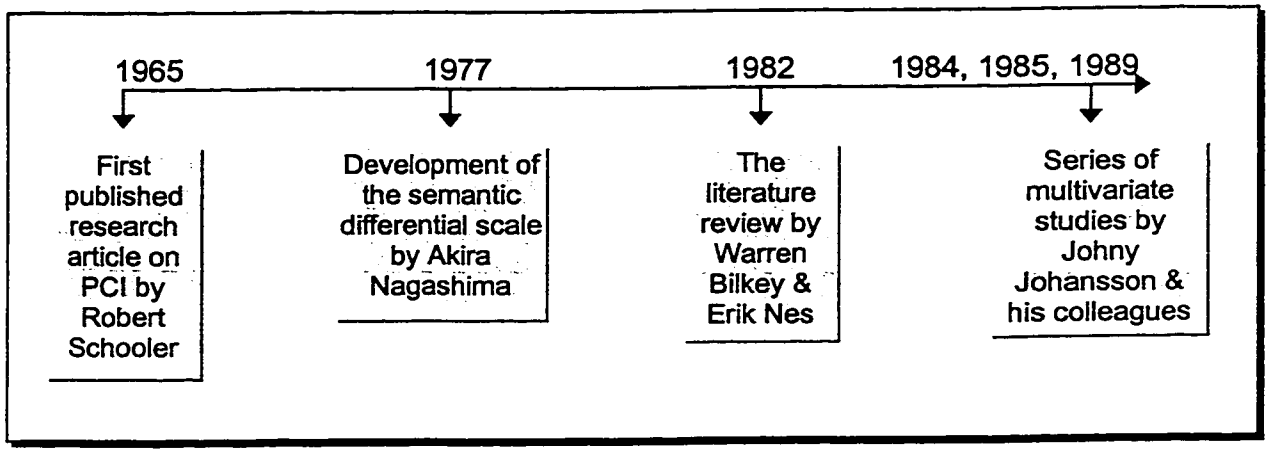
"Although no universally accepted definition of culture exists" (Heslop, Papadopoulous, & Bourque 1996), an acceptable definition for the PCI context is defined as the "complete design of living passed on from generation to generation" (De Blij 1982; Clarke and Crane 1990). Furthermore, culture "provides people with a sense of identity and an understanding of acceptable attitudes and behavior within society" (Engel, Blackwell and Miniard 1989, p.63). Similarly, within a culture, subcultures shape attitudes and behavior. Subcultures are defined as segments that share distinguishing values and behavior patterns that differ from the overall culture (Peter and Olson 1987).

A literature review on product-country images or country-of-origin (these terms will be used interchangeably throughout the following text) will follow.

LITERATURE REVIEW ON COUNTRY-OF-ORIGIN RESEARCH

According to Papadopoulos (1993), the history of academic research on PCI can be traced mainly through four significant milestones. In addition to these seminal works, the above researcher states that other studies need to be mentioned separately as "firsts" in new and notable research directions. A timeline of the four milestones is presented in Figure 1, followed by a brief discussion on each of these milestones and a presentation of some of the "firsts" as mentioned above.

Figure 1: Timeline of Four Significant Articles in PCI Research



1. *The First Study*. According to Papadopoulos (1993), the honor of the first ever published piece of PCI research in the academic environment clearly belongs to Robert Schooler (1965). Papadopoulos states that subsequent researchers frequently cite Ernst Dichter (1962), but he contends that his reference to the significance of the "made-in" information cue was made in passing. In addition, two other studies (Opinion Research 1959; Reader's Digest 1963) predate Schooler but were not carried out or published in the academic

research context. Papadopoulos believes that by examining product stereotyping among consumers through empirical research, Schooler inaugurated a stream of studies that have resulted in more than 500 publications since.

2. *The Semantic Differential Scale.* According to Papadopoulos, Akira Nagashima (1977) popularized the use of semantic differential scales as a means of studying the origin images of products. Papadopoulos states that in one way or another, his approach was adopted and followed by the majority of subsequent researchers.

3. *The Literature Review.* By the early 1980s, there had been enough published research in publication to warrant a literature review. Warren Bilkey and Erik Nes (1982), who, according to Papadopoulos, with their perceptive critique of earlier efforts and directions for future researchers, turned PCI research from a fledgling to a growth industry.

4. *The Multivariate Studies.* Johny Johansson and his colleagues brought about the shift from mostly descriptive to more elaborate studies, involving multivariate analyses of the attitudinal and belief structures that underlie consumers' use of origin information.

This briefly outlines the four significant milestones in product-country image research. An overview of other research endeavors that are considered to be important "firsts" in new and noteworthy directions follows next. (A more comprehensive discussion of the four seminal works and important "firsts" will be presented in the chronological review section).

5. *The Interdisciplinary Perspective.* Charles Lillis and Chem Narayana (1974) were the first researchers to cite Herbert Kelman (1965), and thus to make the much-needed lateral connection between country images as viewed in marketing and other fields such as social psychology and political science. This helped advance the research due to the fact that much was already known in these fields about national stereotypes and the way people develop and act upon them.

6. *The Longitudinal Perspective.* John Darling and his associates have carried out the best known research which tracks the evolution of country images through more than just two points in time. This has enabled these researchers to examine the relationship between images and international trade trends (e.g., Darling and Wood 1990).

7. *Unraveling Country and Product Images.* C. Min Han and his colleagues helped to generate interest in the interface between country and product images. Through a series of advanced studies, Han and his colleagues furthered the understanding of the correlates of product and country images in a number of areas. Among other contributions, Han (1989) posited that the country/product image interface may work in either or both of two directions. As a "halo construct" - when country image is used to evaluate products about which people know little - or as a "summary construct" - when knowledge about a country's products are abstracted into the image of the country itself.

8. *Methodological and Related Issues.* According to Papadopoulos (1993), various studies have also addressed some of the research problems that were

identified in the review by Bilkey and Nes and elsewhere. Papadopoulos notes that one exceptional example is the team of researchers consisting of Heslop, Liefeld and Wall, who carried out several large-scale studies with representative consumer samples. In addition, an eight-country consumer study by Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy (1990) addressed questions related to the cross-national validity of commonly used research instruments and examined correlates of PCIs and consumer response patterns across several cultures. Lastly, the following significant "first" contributions must also be mentioned:

- Role of PCI in promotion (Anderson and Cunningham 1972)
- PCI related to investment rather than product flows (Hampton 1982)
- Country variables affecting PCI perceptions (Wang and Lamb 1983)
- Development of the Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale-CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987).

According to Papadopoulos (1993, p.13), this historical overview demonstrates that PCI research has made significant advances over the past 25 years. Furthermore, Papadopoulos states that "...together with growing interest in origin-related issues on the part of practitioners, growth on the academic side has turned PCI into a field that is rich with practical and theoretical insights, implications, complexity, and challenges". However, the PCI field of research is not without its contentious issues, notes Papadopoulos. The following section will explore some of these issues.

Chronological Review of Significant Articles in COO Research

The First Study (1965)

Robert D. Schooler (1965)[2] has been credited with the first-ever published research paper on the effects of the country-of-origin cue on consumers' evaluations of products. He demonstrated that "regional fears, jealousies, and animosities constitute invisible barriers to increased trade within CACM (the Central American Common Market[3]), and that the attitude toward the people of a given country is a factor in existing preconceptions regarding the products of that country" (Schooler 1965, p.394).

Schooler (1965) was interested in exploring whether consumers within the separate countries of the Common Market would attribute characteristics, favorable or unfavorable, to the products of other member countries. Accordingly, Schooler undertook research to primarily test for preconceived images of products on the basis of national origin and, secondarily, to determine if attitudes toward national sectors or travel experience were key variables in existing preconceptions.

Schooler (1965) discovered significant differences in the evaluations of products who were identical in all respects except the name of the country appearing on the label. He concluded that informal barriers to increased trade within CACM did exist and the attitude toward people of a given country was the

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[2] Schooler, R. D. (1965). Product bias in the Central American Common Market. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 2, 394-397.

[3] The members of the CACM (1965) were: El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Honduras & Costa Rica.

factor in existing preconceptions regarding the products of that country. Thus, the first empirical support for the effect of the country-of-origin cue was established.

Use of the Semantic Differential Scale (1977)

The next significant article in country-of-origin research was by Akira Nagashima (1977)[4], who popularized the use of semantic differential scales as a means of studying the origin images of products.

Nagashima (1970 and 1977) wanted to establish the attitudes of Japanese businessmen toward products, which were made in the United States, Japan, England, Germany, and France. Nagashima applied the semantic differential method developed by Charles Osgood and modified by W. A. Mindak in his surveys. The profile was comprised of five categories. They included (Nagashima 1977, p.95):

1. *Price and Value:* Inexpensive/Reasonably Priced; Reliable/Unreliable; Luxury Items/Necessary Items; Exclusive/Common; Heavy Industrial Product/Light Manufacture Product.
2. *Service and Engineering:* Careful and Meticulous Workmanship; Technically Advanced; Mass Produced/Handmade; WorldWide Distribution; Inventive/Imitative.
3. *Advertising and Reputation:* Pride of Ownership; Much Advertising; Recognizable Brand Names.

4. *Design and Style:* Large Choice of Size and Model; More Concerned with Outward Design/More Concerned with Performance; Clever Use of Color.
5. *Consumers' Profile:* More for Young People/More for Old People; More for Men/More for Women; Upper Class/Lower Class.

With the use of the semantic differential scale, Nagashima (1977) discovered that based on price and value factors alone, the profile of "Made in the USA" had changed very little from eight years ago (Nagashima's first study investigating the attitudes of Japanese businessmen in 1967). However, he also discovered that the profile of Japanese and German products had improved, which meant that the relative status of "Made in the USA" had declined. Nagashima's application of semantic scales was adopted and followed by the majority of subsequent researchers.

The Bilkey and Nes Literature Review (1965-1982)

Warren J. Bilkey and Erik Nes in 1982[5] published the third most significant article in country-of-origin research. In it they reviewed 25 studies which all indicated that country-of-origin does affect product evaluations (see Table 1 below for a list of the articles). However, this early research on PCI can be described as demonstrational in nature; most research was only concerned with documenting

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[4] Nagashima, A. (1977). A comparative 'Made In' product image survey among Japanese businessmen. *Journal of Marketing*, 41, 95-100.

[5] Bilkey, W., & Nes, E. (1982). Country-of-origin effects on product evaluations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 8 (1), 89-99.

the existence of country-of-origin effect under a variety of circumstances. A brief discussion on some of the results of these studies follows.

Country-of-Origin Effects within Developed Countries

Bilkey and Nes indicated that several studies found that products made in different, developed countries were not all evaluated equally (Bannister & Saunders 1978; Dornoff, Tankersley, & White 1974; Hampton 1977). It was also discovered that attitudes may change over time. Some studies indicated an improvement in the Japanese image and a relative deterioration of the US image (Dornoff, Tankersley, & White 1974; Nagashima 1977). In addition, a tendency for consumers to evaluate their own country's products relatively more favorably than foreigners was reported (Nagashima 1970; Lillis & Narayana 1974; Bannister & Saunders 1978).

Developing Countries versus Developed Countries

Bilkey and Nes reported that several studies found a hierarchy of biases. They stated that these included a seemingly positive relationship between product evaluations and degree of economic development (Krishnakumar 1974; Schooler 1971; Tongberg 1972; Wang 1978; Hampton 1977). Other apparent explanatory variables were the source country's culture and political climate (Wang 1978) and perceived similarity with the source country's belief system (Tongberg 1972). Bilkey and Nes indicated that these variables correlated strongly with economic development and that the bias seemed to be stronger against Eastern European nations than their degree of economic development should have indicated (Bannister & Saunders 1978; Schooler 1971; Wang 1978. Specifically, Wang (1978) found that U.S. consumers perceived the USSR's degree of economic

development to be higher than it actually was and still gave very low evaluations to its products. Bilkey and Nes believed that this may have been explained by Wang's "political climate" variable.

Schooler and Wildt (1968) demonstrated that for many consumers the effect of product evaluation bias could be offset by price concessions. As the price of the domestic good was increased relative to the foreign good, more consumers switched to the foreign good against which they had demonstrated bias.

Bias within Less Developed Countries

Bilkey and Nes reported that Schooler (1965) found that Guatemalan students gave lower evaluations to products from El Salvador and Costa Rica than to domestic and Mexican products and that these were related to a general negative attitude toward people from those countries. Krishnakumar (1974) used a sample of students from Taiwan and India studying in the U.S. He found that the students discriminated against their own products in favor of MDC products. This limited evidence indicated to Bilkey and Nes (1982) that the hierarchy of bias was also operational among Less Developed Countries.

Demographic Variables

Bilkey and Nes (1982) reported that Schooler (1971) and Tongberg (1972) found that older persons tended to evaluate products more highly than did younger persons, while Wang (1978) found no such effect. Schooler (1971) and Dornoff et al. (1974) found that females rated foreign products more highly than did males, but Dornoff et al. (1974) could not confirm this for products made in more developed countries. Schooler (1971), Anderson and Cunningham (1972),

Dornoff et al. (1974), and Wang (1978) found that persons with more education tended to rate foreign products more highly than did persons with limited education, but Tongberg (1972) found no such relationship. Wang (1978) found that non-whites tended to rate products from Latin America and Africa higher than did whites; Schooler (1971) found that non-whites evaluated products from Nigeria, Latin America, and India higher than did whites, while whites rated products from the U.S. and North America more highly than did non-whites. Wang (1978) found that higher income persons tended to have a more favorable acceptance of foreign products in general than did lower income persons.

Personality Variables

Anderson and Cunningham (1972) found an inverse relationship between level of dogmatism and preference for foreign products. Tongberg (1972) found no relation between a person's degree of dogmatism and his or her attitudes toward products from 13 specific countries when the type of country was disregarded, but among high dogmatics there was a favorable attitude toward products made in culturally similar countries. Both Anderson and Cunningham (1972) and Wang (1978) found an inverse relation between conservatism and attitude toward foreign products in general. In addition, Anderson and Cunningham (1972) found an inverse relation between status concern and preference for foreign products.

Promotion and Country-of-Origin Effect

Etzel and Walker (1974) studied the degree of congruence between general national product stereotypes and attitudes toward specific products. They found a significant difference between general country attitudes and specific product attitudes by country of source. They concluded that it might be misleading to

base advertising on general national product attitudes, because specific product attitudes are more relevant. Gaedeke (1973), Reierson (1966), Nagashima (1970, 1977) and Krishnakumar (1974) also demonstrated differences between general national product attitudes and more specific product attitudes. Bilkey and Nes stated that this implied that attitudes toward products from a country vary by product.

Reierson (1967) found that exposure to communication and promotion improved attitudes toward Italian products, but not Japanese products. He concluded that advertising might be effective if prejudice is not too strong (Bilkey and Nes note that the attitude toward Japanese products at the time was lower than at the time of their review).

Perceived Risk and Country-of-Origin Bias

Hampton (1977) tested perceived risk for American products made in the U.S. compared with the same products made by U.S. companies abroad. He found a general increase in perceived risk for products made abroad. In addition, Bilkey and Nes (1982) indicated that Hampton's findings also suggests that there may be a hierarchy of perceived risk having an inverse relationship with economic development. No interaction was found between countries and products. Hence, a low-risk product made in the U.S. might be perceived as a high-risk product when made in a high-risk country.

Industrial Purchasing

Significant differences in U.S. purchasing manager's perceptions of various attributes of products from five More Developed Countries were found by White (1979). White and Cundiff (1978) found significant differences in perceived

quality based on country-of-origin. No effect on perceived quality was found by manipulating price within 10 percent. In addition, no interaction between price and country-of-origin was identified. Bilkey and Nes (1982) reported that these two studies support the hierarchy of bias with regard to economic development referred to earlier, although at that point, the sample of countries analyzed was very limited.

Methodological Limitations of Reviewed Articles

In this review, Bilkey and Nes (1982) questioned the validity of the studies, which found that country-of-origin did influence product evaluations. They uncovered the following limitations:

1. The use of country-of-origin as a single cue, that is the only information supplied to the respondents tended to bias results in favor of finding significant country-of-origin effects. Bilkey and Nes stated that a single cue study is bound to yield a significant cue effect that might or might not exist in the real world.
2. In much of the research reviewed, the respondents were given only verbal references of products, rather than a tangible product. Product evaluations are expected to differ according to whether a tangible or intangible product is used. In other words, the format in which information is presented influences to a great extent the way information is acquired and processed (Bettman 1979). Furthermore, Bilkey and Nes stated that one cannot be sure what respondents have in mind when such evaluations are given. For example, if a respondent evaluates the quality of an intangible sweater made in Sweden more

highly than an intangible sweater made in Morocco, it might be that he has different sweaters in mind with regard to raw materials, sweater thickness, price, and other attributes.

3. In most of the studies, internal and external validity issues were not addressed adequately. Bilkey and Nes reported that differing versions of the semantic differential scale were used in several of the studies. Demand effects were also possible in most of the studies (that is, respondents guess the purpose of the study, which affects their responses); usually there was no report of respondent debriefing; and validity and reliability assessments of the measurements used tended to be inadequate or nonexistent.

The above review and criticisms generated widespread response and several studies were subsequently designed to overcome some or most of the above shortcomings. Bilkey and Nes are credited with turning PCI research from a fledgling to a growth industry (Papadopoulous 1993). Furthermore, Peterson and Jolibert (1995) stated that Bilkey and Nes's review subsequently achieved the status of a classic and has been cited in nearly nine out of ten COO research efforts since its publication.

The following table briefly outlines the research reviewed by Bilkey and Nes. It indicates the subjects, products, research design, and measure of evaluation used in the reviewed articles.

Table 1: COO Research Studies Reviewed by Bilkey & Nes (1982)

Reference	Subjects	Products	T or I	E or S	S or M	Measure of Evaluation
General Studies						
Schooler 1965	students	Juice & fabric sample	T	E	M	Attitude
Reierson 1966	students	General + general per product class + specific	I	S	S	Quality assessment
Schooler & Wildt 1968	students	2 pieces of identical glassware	T	E	M	Purchase preference
Schooler & Sunoo 1969	students	Cloth sample & simple goblet	T	E	M	Attitude
Nagashima 1970	businessmen	General + 6 product classes	I	S	S	Attitude
Kincaid 1970	students	5 foreign & 5 U.S. well-known brands of shavers, TV sets, cars, razorblades, & typewriters	I	E	M	Attitude
Schooler 1971	adults	Cloth sample, desk pen, & simple goblet	T &I	E	M	Attitude
Tongberg 1972	adults + students	Radio, dress shirt, cough syrup	I	S	S	Attitude
Anderson & Cunningham 1972	adults	General	I	S	S	Attitude
Gaedeke 1973	students	General + product classes + specific brands	I	S	S	Attitude
Lillis & Narayana 1974	adults	General	I	S	S	Attitude
Krishnakumar 1974	students	General+mechanical & electronic products, food, fashion, cars, TV sets, soft drinks, & dress shirts	I	S	S	Attitude
Domoff et al. 1974	adults	General+food, fashion, electronic & mechanical products	I	S	S	Attitude
Nagashima 1977	businessmen	General+6 classes	I	S	S	Attitude
Hampton 1977	adults + students	27 products in 3 classes of perceived risk	I	S	S	Perceived risk
Bannister & Saunders 1978	adults	Durable goods in general	I	S	S	Attitude
Yaprak 1978	businessmen	Cars, cameras & calculators. 1 brand per country per product	I	S	S	Purchase intention
Wang 1978	adults	General	I	S	S	Willingness to buy
Darling	students + professionals	General	I	S	S	Attitude
Promotion & COO Effects						
Reierson 1967	students	General+specific	I	E	S	Attitude
Schleifer & Watson Dunn 1968	students	4 ads for everyday consumer products	I	E	S	Attitude
Etzel & Walker 1974	adults	General+cars, cameras, & toys	I	S	S	Attitude
Industrial Settings						
Haakanson & Wootz 1975	purchasing managers	Standard & special screw, paint, & pressing tool	I	E	M	Simulated purchase
White & Cundiff 1978	industrial buyers	Lift truck, dictation system & machine tool	I	E	M	Attitude
White 1979	purchasing managers	Industrial products in general	I	S	S	Attitude

Source: Bilkey & Nes (1982, p.97-99)a)
T or I = Tangible (T) or Intangible (I) products being evaluated
S or M = Single cue study (S) or multiple cue study (M)
E or S = Experimental design (E) or attitude survey (S)

The Multivariate Studies (1984, 1985, 1986, 1989)

As indicated earlier, Johansson and his colleagues helped to move PCI research over the next hump-the shift from mostly descriptive to more elaborate studies, involving multivariate analyses of the attitudinal and belief structures that underlie consumers' use of origin information.

Spurred by Bilkey and Nes's criticism of previous studies use of single cues in their research, Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka (1985)[6] incorporated a multiattribute approach to their research. They stated that the single cue approach tends to bias results in favor of finding a country-of-origin effect, and is analogous to research on price-quality relationships where price is consistently found to affect evaluations of quality, but only if it is the sole informational cue provided (Olson 1977). Thus, they stated that like price, country-of-origin might serve as a proxy variable when other information is lacking (Huber & McCann 1982; Olson 1974).

Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka (1985) stated that the use of country-of-origin as a proxy and surrogate for other information suggests that prior experience or familiarity with a particular product class or brand may influence the impact of country-of-origin on evaluations. The researchers predicted that consumers familiar with a specific product class may be less likely to rely on country-of-origin as a cue in product evaluation. And, similarly, favorable or

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[6] Johansson, J., Douglas, S., & Nonaka, I. (1985). Assessing the impact of country of origin on product evaluations: A new methodological perspective. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 12, 388-96.

unfavorable experience with products or brands from a specific country may color evaluations of other products or brands from that country.

Johansson et al. (1985) stated that such considerations suggested the need to adopt a multicue approach in investigating the impact of country-of-origin on product evaluations. They argued that information about relevant product attributes other than the country-of-origin should be available to respondents for making their evaluations.

The new methodology introduced by Johansson et al. (1985) revealed some interesting insights into the effect of country-of-origin on evaluations. In particular, the adoption of a multiattribute approach suggested that the impact of country-of-origin may be considerably more complex than was typically assumed. They suggested that familiarity and other factors affecting information or experience with a product should be taken into consideration in addition to nationality and other demographic characteristics.

Their results also provided little evidence of stereotyping based on country-of-origin. Similarly, there was little evidence to suggest any prejudice in favor of home-country products.

Johansson et al. (1985) stated that after a first glance at the findings one might be tempted to conclude that country-of-origin effects are relatively minor. However, they stated that in view of previous research indicating the existence of country-of-origin effects, such a conclusion, may have been somewhat premature. However, Johansson et al. (1985) stated that country-of-origin effects may be less significant than had been generally believed, and that they may

occur predominantly in relation to evaluation of specific attributes rather than overall evaluations.

Unraveling Country and Product Images (1989)

As noted in a previous section, Han and his colleagues helped to generate interest in the interface between country and product images, and to also further the understanding of their correlates in a number of areas through a series of advanced studies. Among other contributions, Han (1989)[7] posited that the country/product image interface may work in either or both of two directions. As a "halo construct" where country image is used to evaluate products about which people know little or as a "summary construct" where knowledge about a country's products is abstracted into the image of the country itself.

Han (1989) stated that in examining the role of country image in product evaluation, nearly all previous studies had explicitly or implicitly viewed country image as a "halo" that consumers use to infer the quality of an unknown foreign brand (Bilkey & Nes 1982). Han stated that recent studies by Erickson, Johansson, and Chao (1984) and Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka (1985) had found that country image affects consumers' evaluation of product attributes, but not their overall evaluation of products. Han (1989) stated that these findings supported the role of country image as a halo in product evaluation. Such perceptions were typically specific to product categories, as suggested by Etzel and Walker (1974) and Hafhill (1980). For example, Han (1989) stated that the

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[7] Han, C. (1989). Country image: Halo or summary construct? *Journal of Marketing Research,* 16, 222-229.

country image for Afghan rugs would be very different from that for Afghan television sets.

Furthermore, Han (1989) stated that though the halo hypothesis was intuitively appealing, it had serious limitations. It maintained that consumers used country image as a halo in product evaluation when they were not familiar with a country's products-but Han asked what if consumers *were* familiar with the products? Han (1989) wondered whether country image would have no effect on product evaluation? Or, like brand image, would it behave as a summary construct, still affecting evaluations of familiar products?

Han's (1989) findings provided very important theoretical implications on the role of country image in product evaluation. First, when consumers are not familiar with a country's product, Han discovered that country image may serve as a halo from which consumers infer product attributes and it may indirectly affect their brand attitude through their inferential beliefs. In contrast, Han discovered that as consumers become familiar with a country's products, country image may become a construct that summarizes consumers' beliefs about product attributes and directly affects their brand attitude. Han stated that these implications suggest structural interrelationships between country image, beliefs about product attributes, and brand attitude.

The Longitudinal Perspective (1990)

As mentioned previously, Darling and Wood (1990)[8] carried out the best known research which tracks the evolution of country images through more than just two points in time. This enabled these researchers to examine the relationship between images and international trade trends.

In this study, Darling and Wood (1990) were concerned with tracking the images of the U.S. and Japan over time. They stated that in general, most studies dealing with the U.S.-Japanese rivalry had reported an improvement in the image of Japanese products and a relative deterioration in the image of U.S. products (Nagashima 1970, 1977; Dornoff, Tankersley & White 1974).

Darling and Wood (1990) stated that in spite of these findings, knowledge of the U.S.-Japanese rivalry tended to be limited because of two fundamental considerations. First, as noted by Bilkey and Nes (1982), most "made in" comparative studies had asked consumers to evaluate their own country's products relative to foreign products; and in such studies there was a tendency for consumers to evaluate their own products more favorably than foreign counterparts. Darling and Wood (1990) stated that little research investigating competitive foreign rivalries had been undertaken using neutral, third country consumers.

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[8] Darling, J., & Wood, V. (1990). A longitudinal study comparing perceptions of U.S. and Japanese consumer products in a third/neutral country: Finland 1965 to 1985. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 21.

The second consideration focused on the need to systematically monitor world markets for "multiple" time periods (Wall & Heslop 1986). Darling and Wood (1990) quoted Yavas and Alpay (1986, p.116) on the matter: "...stereotypical attitudes, although enduring, can change over time. To determine the impact of marketing and promotion activities on consumer attitudes, longitudinal studies are needed".

Darling and Wood's (1990) results indicated that while Finnish (the third, neutral country) perceptions of U.S. products and marketing practices had improved over the last ten years, the corresponding perceptions of the Japanese alternative had improved substantially more.

The Ozsomer and Cavusgil Literature Review (1982-1991)

In 1991 Ozsomer and Cavusgil[9] stated that the then recent globalization of business had brought about numerous changes in production and marketing of products. With the diffusion of technology, several new nations had emerged as new suppliers of products. Furthermore, they also stated that the pressures to decrease costs while increasing quality had led to the formation of complex global sourcing networks. Hence, at that point, the international marketplace was not only flooded by products from different countries of origin but also by bi-national products or products that involved two or more countries. Baughn and

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[9] Ozsomer, A. & Cavusgil S.T. (1991). Country-of-origin effects on product evaluations: A sequel to Bilkey and Nes review. In *Enhancing Knowledge Development in Marketing* 2: 1991 AMA Educators' Proceedings, Mary C. Gilly et al., eds., Chicago: American Marketing Association, 269-277.

Yaprak (1993) stated that this dramatic transformation of the world economy within the last decade reduced the applicability of pre-Bilkey and Nes research.

The importance attached to the COO effect increased significantly in the period following the Bilkey and Nes review due to: (1) the growing use of "made-in" cues by consumers trying to simplify information processing in an environment of too many and often confusing product alternatives available in the market; (2) marketer's efforts trying to link a product to a favorable image in today's highly competitive markets; and (3) governmental agency and labor union activities trying to promote the use of domestic products.

Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) stated that academicians as well as practitioners had not been unresponsive to the changes taking place in the international marketplace. They stated that the reasoning behind the high level of interest in the COO issue is its utility as a predictor of consumer attitudes and choice behavior. For this review, Ozsomer and Cavusgil identified 20 COO or related studies published since Bilkey and Nes's 1982 review. They believed that this number supported their contention that COO effects had been researched extensively in the post-Bilkey and Nes era.

Thus, due to the above considerations Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) asked how did recent COO studies differ from earlier ones? How did they approach recent issues like global sourcing networks and the emergence of new markets (e.g., Eastern Europe, the Soviet Union)? How did new international players like Japan, South Korea, Taiwan etc., affect the country images of US

products? Ozsomer and Cavusgil, therefore believed, that a review of recent COO studies (since 1982) seemed timely.

Definition of Constructs

Ozsomer and Cavusgil stated that with the recent developments separating location of manufacture of a product from the country, with which a firm is associated, a distinction between COO and country-of-manufacture (COM) was necessary. COO refers to the country with which the firm is associated. Typically, this is the home country for a company or where the headquarters are located. COM, on the other hand, refers to the country of manufacture or assembly of a product. Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) stated that COM can be the same as the COO or it may be different. Ozsomer and Cavusgil stated that up to that point, with the exception of Han and Terpstra (1988), who concentrated on bi-national as well as uni-national products, the literature had made no distinction between COO and COM.

COO Effects in Multiple-Cue Studies

Ozsomer and Cavusgil stated that when the COO cue was presented with other extrinsic cues like store image and warranty, significant interaction effects were found to exist (Thorelli, Lim, & Ye 1989). COO, warranty, and store reputation interacted and affected consumer decision making only marginally. When presented together with price, COO effects on product evaluations were less significant than expected.

Ozsomer and Cavusgil reported that in determining the effects of COO versus brand name cues on consumer product evaluations, Han and Terpstra (1988) found that both source country and brand name affected consumer

perception of product quality. However, the sourcing country (COO), was found to have a greater effect on consumer evaluations of product quality than did the brand name.

Variability across Product Dimensions

Ozsomer and Cavusgil reported that various researchers had discovered that COO effects are product dimension-specific (Erickson, Johansson, & Chao 1984; Han and Terpstra 1988; Johansson, Douglas, & Nonaka 1985; Kaynak and Cavusgil 1983). That is, the degree to which individual dimensions are subject to COO effects varies across product dimensions such as economy, serviceability, workmanship and so on. For example, in the study by Han and Terpstra (1988) German products were found to be high on prestige, but low on economy.

Furthermore, different cues were found to not be uniform in effect size across product dimensions. Dimensions like serviceability and workmanship were found to be more sensitive to COO than brand name cues (Ozsomer and Cavusgil 1991). Han and Terpstra (1988) also found that the distinctive effects of country images were reasonably generalizable across product categories.

COO and General Product Evaluations (Stereotyping)

Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) stated that with regard to overall evaluations most studies showed that some countries enjoyed positive country images. Furthermore, these images were quite generalizable across product categories and across consuming countries. In industrial purchasing, the finding that West German products benefited from a very favorable image (Cattin, Jolibert, and Lohnes 1982) was consistent with previous ones (Nagashima 1970, 1977). In the case of consumer goods, American, Canadian, Finnish, Hungarian, and

Greek consumers were found to possess greater positive attitudes for products originating from Japan (Han and Terpstra 1987; Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Beracs 1990; Darling and Wood 1989; Wall and Heslop 1986).

Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) reported that in a longitudinal study (see above), Darling and Wood (1989), found that while Finnish perceptions of US products had improved within the last ten years, the corresponding perceptions of the Japanese alternatives had improved substantially more. These findings suggested that Japanese products had succeeded in creating a universally positive image for their products.

Ozsomer and Cavusgil also reported in this review that just as some countries enjoyed positive country images, some, particularly developing countries like South Korea, India, and Taiwan, were faced with market resistance based on their country stereotypes (Khanna 1986). Ozsomer and Cavusgil stated that Asian companies entering global markets usually dealt with importers, distributors, and other channel intermediaries. Country images among this segment would directly affect exporter's market success. The fact that country bias affects purchase decisions of importers and distributors has been illustrated in several studies (Chasin and Jaffe 1979; White and Cundiff 1978). Khanna (1986) found that COO affected the business relationships of Indian firms with their foreign clients. The Indian image was considered as a detrimental factor in the relations of these companies with "new" clients while the same was not true for "old" clients.

Nationalistic Biases

Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) stated that contrary to earlier studies, which found the existence of nationalistic biases, recent studies (post Bilkey and Nes) had not found such biases among the sampled consumer groups. As mentioned above, products from some countries enjoyed favorable images and these were not confounded by nationalistic preferences. Only one study found significant nationalistic preferences among Italian respondents (Morello 1984). However, in industrial markets nationalistic biases did not seem to exist among American and French buyers (Cattin, Jolibert, and Lohnes 1982).

COO and Its Cognitive Effects

Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) stated that based on a widely accepted view, beliefs regarding a product's attributes precede and are responsible for the formation of attitude toward the product (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). The cognitive effects of COO result from an inference to some unknown attribute value (Obermiller and Spangenberg 1989). In some studies, COO as an image variable was found to have a direct effect on beliefs but not on attitudes (Erickson, Johansson and Chao 1984; Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985).

Han (1989), on the other hand, found that country image as a halo directly affected consumers' beliefs about product attributes and indirectly affected brand attitudes through beliefs (country image – beliefs – brand attitude). When country image was used as a summary construct, however, consumers made abstractions of product information into country image and country image directly affected consumer attitude toward a brand (beliefs – country image – brand attitude).

Contrary to earlier findings, studies found no evidence that COO was used as a surrogate for other product information like price or quality (Hong and Wyer 1989; Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985). However, a product's COO did stimulate subjects' interest in the product and consequently lead them to think more extensively about product information and its evaluation (Hong and Wyer 1989). Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) stated that this indirect effect on product evaluations occurs spontaneously and should be most evident when the subjects do not have a priori reason to evaluate the product. However, Ozsomer and Cavusgil warned that research on the effects of COO as an interest stimulant was very scarce and the results should be viewed with caution.

COO effects were also found to function as normative influences upon behavioral intentions. Social pressure may dictate that products from some countries be avoided while some other countries be preferred (Johansson and Nebenzhal 1987). Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) stated that the social effects of COO could be more influential among specific market segments like the young, the less traditional and the more educated.

Internal and External Validity of COO Studies

In this update to Bilkey and Nes (1982), Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) also examined the internal and external validity issues of the studies reviewed. Internal validity refers to the validity of any conclusions drawn about whether a demonstrated statistical relationship implies a cause; and external validity refers to the validity with which a causal relationship can be generalized across persons, settings, and times (Cook and Campbell 1979). Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) stated that most COO studies had a very limited domain of products,

subjects, and countries. Hence, to be able to make correct recommendations and predictions on COO issues, Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) suggested that an analysis of internal and external validity was of utmost importance.

Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) developed a matrix table listing all the validity threats to each study. Ozsomer and Cavusgil stated that the development of such a matrix permitted an evaluation of the heterogeneity of the validity threats across the entire set (Salipante, Notz & Bigelow 1982).

The analysis of the matrix for internal validity suggested to these researchers that alternative explanations of the results cited earlier in their review was due to "selection". In other words, the results of COO studies were not generalizable because of the selection threat. According to Cook and Campbell (1979, p.277) selection is a threat to internal validity when an effect may be due to the difference between the kinds of people in the experimental groups rather than to different treatments.

Another source of threat to the internal validity of COO studies uncovered by Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) was "selection interactions". They stated that many of the individual threats to internal validity could interact with selection to produce forces that might spuriously appear as treatment effects (Cook and Cambell 1979).

Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) also noted that most of the COO studies, which they reviewed, had controlled for testing, instrumentation, and statistical regression as sources of threat to the internal validity of results. This was an important improvement in design especially when considering that testing and

instrumentation were important threats to content validity in earlier studies (Ozsomer and Cavusgil 1991, p.273).

With regard to external validity, Ozsomer and Cavusgil stated that a major threat to findings was the "selection treatment". Interaction of selection and treatment determines the generalizability of findings to other categories of persons. The existence of this threat means that results cannot be generalized beyond the groups used in the studies—to various racial, social, geographical, age, sex, or personality groups (Cook and Campbell 1979). Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) stated that the COO studies reviewed in their article suffered from mainly student samples. Students were used as subjects in most studies, despite the fact that they may not have constituted that appropriate market with regard to actual purchase intentions and purchasing power.

By reviewing their matrix, Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) stated that most of the COO studies under review provided them with little generalizable knowledge. Results were product, country, and/or sample specific. Automobiles were used very frequently, with other studies using products like personal computers and VCRs. Most studies were aimed at US consumers, with only one study targeted at an understudied, neutral country (Darling and Wood 1989).

In addition, Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) stated that heavy reliance on surveys made the manipulation country-of-origin effects almost impossible. Most of the few experimental studies had used within-subjects design, which sensitizes subjects to the manipulation of the COO and thus increases the possibility of demand effects.

However, Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) also stated that significant improvements had been made in the use of real products - showing pictures or allowing respondents to examine actual products. Some studies, instead of relying on self-report measures, developed and used multi-item scales (e.g., Eroglu and Machleit 1989).

Recent Developments and Emerging Avenues in COO Research (1993)

In another review of post-Bilkey and Nes COO research, Baughn and Yaprak (1993)[10] stated that the increasing complexity of the COO field may itself limit one's ability to understand and utilize the strategic implications of product and country images. In this review, Baughn and Yaprak (1993) wished to synthesize the post-Bilkey and Nes contributions into a meaningful foundation and to inspire a new wave of studies more relevant to the strategic requirements of the 1990s. To achieve this purpose, Baughn and Yaprak mapped out the current contributions into five areas, which would facilitate the effective formulation of international marketing strategy.

Understanding the National Characteristics of Origin Countries

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) reported that Bannister and Saunders (1978) as well as Wang (1978) noted lower product evaluations for products of Eastern Europe countries than those countries' levels of economic development would indicate. Wang and Lamb (1983) also found that consumers' willingness to purchase

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[10] Baughn, C., & Yaprak, A. (1993). Mapping Country-Of-Origin Research: Recent Developments And Emerging Avenues, in *Product-Country Images: Impact and Role in International Marketing,* Nicolas Papadopoulos and Louise P. Heslop, eds., New York: International Business Press, 89-116.

products was related to the economic, political, and cultural characteristics of the product's origin.

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) reported on a large scale study involving consumers from eight countries by Papadopoulous, Heslop, and Bamossy (1989, 1990) that perceptions of the sourcing country entailed (1) cognitions, including the country's degree of industrial development and technological advancement; (2) affect, regarding the country's people; and (3) a conative component relating to the consumer's desired level of interaction with the source country. Baughn and Yaprak stated that while COO research had frequently presented such country perceptions as leading to the development of specific product images, Papadopoulous, Heslop, and Bamossy (1989, 1990) had noted that a consumer's image of a people with whom they are not familiar may well be formed upon the basis of knowledge about that people's products. For example, their study showed a high level of positive affect toward the Japanese people in the consuming countries, despite limited travel or other exposure to the Japanese other than through Japanese products.

Like Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991), Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that research on country-of-origin effects was just beginning to address the increasing complexity of multinational inputs in the manufacturing process. According to Johansson and Nebenzahl (1986) production location for a single product may vary, potentially leading to shifts in product perception. Auster (1987) stated that the burgeoning rate of international joint ventures and other cross-national cooperative linkages would increase the likelihood that various

combinations of country-of-design, component sourcing, and assembly would serve as potential stimuli in influencing consumer evaluations.

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that the prevalence of such "hybrid" products had led to investigations of the relationship between images of the country of manufacture and those of the country of national origin. Seaton and Vogel (1981), for example, found that the preference utility for a German car such as the VW Rabbit declined significantly when its production location shifted to the U.S. In the same vein, Johansson and Nebenzhal (1986) used joint space mapping to chart the image effects resulting from production shifts to several different countries for different brands of automobiles. Production location had an impact on the perceived attributes of the car, the overall attitude toward it, and the price that the consumer was willing to pay for it.

Integrating Country-of-Origin with other Information Cues

Bilkey and Ness (1982) suggested that origin effects could be approached as an information cue question. In this context, production (or design, etc.) location is viewed as one of an array of information cues available to the consumer in evaluating a product. Consumers' use of both intrinsic cues (taste, design, performance) and extrinsic cues (price, brand name, warranties, country-of-origin) in evaluating products has been studied and reported in the literature extensively (Han 1988a; Zeithaml 1988).

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) reported that a comparison of single-cue treatments (country-of-origin information only) and multi-cue treatments (inclusion of price and brand information with the COO cue) was conducted in an experimental study using a consumer sample (Heslop, Liefeld, and Wall 1987).

Using tangible products (shirt, billfold, and a telephone), the researchers found a stronger origin effect on product quality ratings of their test products when the country-of-origin cue was presented without price and brand information. While not as strong, significant origin effects were, nonetheless, found in the multi-cue treatments for both the billfold and the telephone. Noting the strongest relationships in ratings of the telephone, the researchers suggested that the country-of-origin effect may be more powerful as product complexity and risk increase, and as purchase frequency of that product decreases. With diminished ability to form judgments, consumers appeared to rely more heavily on extrinsic cues such as brand name and country-of-origin.

In this context, Ettenson, Wagner, and Gaeth (1988) assessed the relative impact of such characteristics as price, country-of-origin (China vs. U.S.), brand, style, and fiber content on consumer purchase preference by manipulating levels of product-related stimuli for wearing apparel. Using conjoint analysis, these researchers found that fiber content and price were more important factors than the origin country in the purchase decision. This finding held when the study was rerun following national introduction of a "Made in the USA" campaign.

In assessing the importance of origin country relative to brand name, Nes (1981) found that the negative evaluation of products made in less developed countries was not overcome by a well-known brand name. Brand name was more important, however, in explaining variance in product evaluations than was the country designation. Han and Terpstra (1988) extended this research in investigating source country versus brand name effects for bi-national and uni-

national products (Korean, U.S., German, and Japanese TV sets and automobiles). They concluded that sourcing country stimuli had a more powerful effect than brand name on consumer evaluations of bi-national products.

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) reported that Schooler, Wildt, and Jones (1987) assessed the impact of various combinations of price, warranties, and endorsements in developing marketing strategies to overcome consumer bias against foreign products. These researchers found a particularly strong impact of product warranty in influencing choice between a foreign and domestic product. Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that this fit well with the research by Hampton (1977), who found a general increase in perceived risk for products made abroad. Country images were also found to affect the allowable price differential between domestic and foreign products (Johansson and Nebenzahl 1986; Schooler and Wildt 1968).

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) concluded that recent research (up to 1993) in this avenue had shown that country-of-origin information was, in fact, integrated with other informational cues in forming attitudes towards the product and in expressing purchase intent.

Consumer Characteristics

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that Bilkey and Nes (1982) had traced several studies, which demonstrated that country stereotypes varied as a function of the country in which they were measured. National differences in consumers' evaluation of products from other countries may have been reflected by differential use of criteria in evaluating imports. Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that national differences in attribute importance structures had been

found, for example, in studies of industrial buyers (Green, Cunningham, and Cunningham 1975; Lehman and O'Shaughnessy 1974) and consumers (Garland, Barker, and Crawford 1987). In a study comparing U.S. and Japanese consumers' evaluations of attribute importance, Narayana (1981) reported that while both nations' consumers appeared to emphasize quality, recognition, and prestige as important, Japanese consumers also emphasized popularity and functionality. In contrast, U.S. consumers indicated that mass production and product expansiveness were favorable attributes.

Yaprak and Parameswaran (1986) stated that national differences in response to country-of-origin information may have reflected the level of knowledge that a country's consumers held regarding products of the producing nation, as well as the level of international amity or animosity between the specific producer and consumer countries (Schooler 1965).

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that country-of-origin research had often documented a tendency for consumers to prefer their own country's products. However, they stated that such preference was by no means inevitable for all products. For example, they indicated that current studies of U.S. consumers' perceptions of automobiles indicated a significantly more favorable impression of Japanese as compared to American cars (Erickson, Johansson, and Chao 1984; Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985; Johansson and Nebenzahl 1986). Indeed, the eight country study which was previously mentioned found that consumers from Canada, the U.S., Great Britain, Greece, and Hungary all provided higher overall ratings for Japanese products than for

those produced in their own country (Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy 1989; Heslop et al. 1987; Papadopoulos, Heslop and Beracs 1990). Of those consumers surveyed, only those from France and West Germany rated their own country's products higher than those of Japan; in those two countries, Japanese products were rated as a close second to domestic goods.

Nonetheless, Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that some degree of "home country preference" had been found among French, West German, U.S., Japanese, Dutch, and Finnish consumers (Hooley, Shipley, and Krieger 1988). In their research, Papadopoulos and his colleagues pointed out that domestic products were rated as a strong second in most (though not all) of those cases where Japanese goods received the highest rating. While these findings may have been related to availability, familiarity, and perceived serviceability of domestic products (Han 1988a; Hooley, Shipley, and Krieger 1988), most research attempting to differentiate among consumers on the basis of their foreign product acceptance had focused on definitive consumer characteristics such as socioeconomic variables, consumer nationalism, and product familiarity.

Socioeconomic Correlates

In their review, Baughn and Yaprak (1993) reported that in general, age and educational variables had been found to be associated with foreign product acceptance. They stated that most studies had found younger consumers to demonstrate more positive attitudes toward foreign products (Dornoff, Tankersly, and White 1974; Han 1988a; Schooler 1971; Schooler and Sunoo 1969; Wall and Heslop 1986). In addition, the impact of age on foreign product acceptance

may also have been related to specific product areas and countries (Bannister and Saunders 1978; Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985; Tongberg 1972).

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) reported that higher levels of education have been associated generally with more positive attitudes toward foreign products (Anderson and Cunningham 1972; Dornoff, Tankersley, and White 1974; Schooler 1971; Wall and Heslop 1986; Wall, Hofstra, and Heslop 1990; Wang 1978). However, some studies have not found a significant relationship with educational levels (Han 1988a; Schooler, Wildt, and Jones 1987; Tongberg 1972). As with consumer age, there is some evidence that education may have differential effects as a function of the nature of the product and its source country.

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) reported that studies attempting to relate the sex of the consumer to their responses to origin stimuli have often produced mixed results. These studies have shown that males and females may respond differently to origin cues as a function of the particular source countries, products, and attributes under study (Bannister and Saunders 1978; Hester and Yuen 1986; Johansson, and Nonaka 1985; Wall and Heslop 1986). Wall, Heslop, and Hofstra (1989) showed, for a Canadian sample, that men and women used different sets of criteria to position countries on a quality continuum. Men tended to emphasize a country's technological development while women found geographic proximity to be more salient. Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that the specific operationalization of the dependent variable may also have been important in this regard. While Wall and Heslop (1986) found females to provide

generally more positive ratings of foreign countries' products than did males, females were also more likely to favor purchase of domestic products.

In studies focusing on income, Wang (1978), Wall and Heslop (1986), and Wall, Hofstra, and Heslop (1990) found significant positive relationships between income and favorable attitudes toward foreign products. In contrast to these studies, others have failed to demonstrate a significant effect of income on the impact of country-of-origin (Anderson and Cunningham 1972; Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985; Schooler, Wildt, and Jones 1987; Han 1988a).

Consumer Nationalism

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that one of the more significant advances in the country-of-origin literature in the late 1980s was the development and operationalization of the construct of consumer nationalism. This construct was based on the notion that consumers' patriotic emotions have significant effects on attitudes and purchase intentions. Consumer nationalism reflects a willingness to make a sacrifice in order to purchase a domestic brand and may be associated with acceptance of advertising aimed at arousing consumers' patriotic emotions and obligation to buy domestic brands (Han 1988a). In their study of Canadian consumers, Wall and Heslop (1986) found that close to half of the respondents indicated that they would be willing to purchase Canadian products at a higher price than foreign-made products if the quality was equal to that of imports. The respondents indicated that advantages of purchasing domestic products included helping the economy, increasing domestic employment, and national pride.

Shimp and Sharma (1987) used the term "consumer ethnocentrism" to represent the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness and morality of purchasing foreign-made products. From the perspective of ethnocentric consumers, purchasing imported products is wrong because it hurts the domestic economy, causes loss of jobs, and is unpatriotic. Measuring this construct with a 17-item scale (CETSCALE), Shimp and Sharma found significant negative correlations between consumer ethnocentrism and evaluations of foreign product characteristics as well as attitudes toward, and purchase of, foreign automobiles. Highly ethnocentric consumers were inclined to accentuate the positive aspects of domestic products and to discount the virtues of foreign-made items.

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that consumer nationalism appears to affect consumer choice both through product attribute evaluation and through direct affective factors regarding the purchase itself. Through modeling based on LISREL analysis, Han (1988a) found that consumer patriotism did effect cognitive evaluations of products, but affected purchase intent to a greater degree.

Shimp and Sharma (1987) emphasized the role of threat in eliciting consumer ethnocentric tendencies. They provided evidence that consumers in socioeconomic strata vulnerable to job displacement (upper-lower and lower-middle classes), as well as residents of geographic areas where foreign competition was acute, demonstrated higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism.

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that the construct of consumer nationalism may be readily integrated in the network of country-of-origin relationships. They mentioned that scores on the Shimp and Sharma (1987) CETSCALE were strongly correlated with measures of conservatism and dogmatism, both of which have been found to be related to preference for domestic products in previous studies (Anderson and Cunningham 1972; Tongberg 1972). Tongberg, for example, found that consumer dogmatism interacted with the value dissimilarity between the source and the consumer country in predicting evaluation of product attributes.

Regional differences in acceptance of foreign products also give rise to the notion that consumer nationalism may be influenced by local social norms. If so, Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that this construct may be linked to Fishbein's behavioral intention model, which incorporates a normative or social component as well as a product-based attitudinal component (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980). That is, pressure from one's reference group to purchase a domestic product may override specific product attribute beliefs in influencing the purchase decision.

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) argued that differential acceptance of foreign products on a national level may also reflect levels of a country's consumer nationalism. Darling and Kraft (1977, p.529) have suggested that Finnish consumers' higher rating of domestic products relative to foreign goods reflected the "intense national loyalty and pride of the Finnish people". Similarly, Baumgartner and Jolibert (1977) attributed the strong preference for domestic

products by French consumers to values of nationalism and individualism. Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy (1990) found that French, German, and Dutch consumers were found to have the most positive views about their home products, while consumers in the U.S., Canada, and Great Britain viewed their domestic products as better than foreign ones on some dimensions but as worse on others.

Familiarity

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) also stated that current research had suggested that familiarity and other factors affecting information or experience with a product should be taken into consideration in addition to nationality and other demographic characteristics (Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985). In their eight-country study, Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy 1989) found that variables related to familiarity emerged as a distinct construct through factor and reliability analyses.

Yaprak and Parameswaran (1986) noted a greater utilization of country/product image variables as determinants of purchase behavior in those product categories where specific product information had not achieved a sufficient level of diffusion in the markets studied. Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that this supported arguments that consumers use origin stimuli as surrogates for evaluating specific product attributes when information about a product is not readily available to them (Bilkey and Nes 1982).

Another aspect of familiarity in the formation of cognitive and affective constructs regarding a country's products is the consumer's familiarity with the sourcing countries themselves. Papadopoulos and Heslop (1986) studied the

effect that travel to a foreign country may have on consumer evaluations of that country's products. Comparing the evaluations of Canadian consumers who had visited the country whose products they were evaluating with those who had not, they found that visiting a country "reduces the gap" between the more global, prevailing public image of the country and specific national product capabilities. For example, consumers who had not visited Japan tended to have a particularly high regard for Japan's electronic and automotive products, consistent with the public image of Japan emphasizing its strengths in technology and manufacturing quality. While visitors to Japan also held positive views about Japan's technological strength, they were less favorably disposed to Japanese cars, but more impressed (than non-visitors) with Japan's accomplishments in other products (fashion apparel, for example) for which Japan had not yet gained wide recognition. Travel to Great-Britain tended to offset the negative publicity concerning that country's economic and labor problems, while visitors to Sweden and the U.S. tended to come away with somewhat more negative images than those held by non-visitors.

In sum, Baughn and Yaprak (1993) concluded that recent research in this area had built upon the findings reported by Bilkey and Nes (1982). That country images may vary, from one country to another and that there may be a tendency for consumers to prefer their own countries' products (as noted, this tendency does not apply to all consumer groups or countries). Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that with the continued development of research linking consumer characteristics to the use of origin cues, greater attention will undoubtedly be

given to underlying processes by which such characteristics are linked to consumer response to country-of-origin information. Such characteristics as age, sex, and income may covary with differences in attribute importance structures, product/country familiarity, or the perceived economic threat of foreign products.

Information Processing and Attitude Formation

Han's (1989) finding that the origin cue may, like brand name, serve as a summary of specific product information as well as a basis for inferential beliefs about product quality, has been accompanied by other research attempting to delineate the process by which country-of-origin is processed and incorporated in attitude formation (Baughn and Yaprak 1993). For example, Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka (1985) presented a conceptual model linking country-of-origin both to consumer evaluations of specific beliefs about product attributes as well as to overall attitude (affect) regarding the product. Their model also incorporated a reciprocal link from affect back to beliefs about product attributes (halo effect), suggesting that beliefs are also influenced by overall evaluations.

Using a system of simultaneous equations with automobiles as the target product, Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka (1985) noted the presence of a halo effect, in that the overall evaluation of the car appeared to influence ratings on specific attributes. Origin effects occurred predominantly in relation to evaluation of specific attributes rather than overall evaluations, a finding consistent with those of Yaprak (1978).

In a study of cognitive processes associated with the effects of country-of-origin and other product attributes Hong and Wyer (1989) suggested that in addition to a direct effect, the origin cue stimulated extensive thoughts about

other product attribute information. Eroglu and Machleit (1989) also presented a conceptual framework in which country-of-origin was one of many cues used by the consumer in attempting to evaluate product quality. Their research suggested that the predictive value of any cue, including country-of-origin, is affected by such non-cue related variables as product involvement, technical complexity of the product, consumer experience, and consumer ability to detect inter-brand differences.

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that the research cited above suggests that there are several avenues by which the country-of-origin cue may have an impact on consumer attitudes and behavior. They stated that this cue may be related to specific beliefs about product attributes, to overall attitude toward the product or purchase, and to halo effects, in which general attitude affects specific attribute beliefs.

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that among the factors influencing the impact of the avenues of COO influence, consumer involvement with the product itself may be particularly critical. They stated that recent (circa 1993) conceptualizations of country-of-origin effects had been founded on information processing and attitude formation, often using automobiles and other high-involvement products as objects (Erickson, Johansson, and Chao 1984; Han 1988a; Johansoon, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985). However, many products do not elicit a high level of consumer involvement (whether based on value-expressive attributes of the products, status or price, or risk of purchase). Also, numerous studies outside of the country-of-origin field have demonstrated the

differential use of informational message cues as a function of involvement with the message and the centrality of the product area to the individual's concerns (Batra 1984; Laurent and Kapferer 1985; Petty and Cacioppo 1980; Petty, Cacioppo and Schuman 1983). Various alternative models have also been proposed (Ray 1976; Park and Mittal 1985) linking affect, product trial, and cognitive processes under low-involvement conditions.

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) concluded this review of information processing and attitude formation by recommending that future studies attempting to model decision-making processes regarding the country-of-origin influence may need to incorporate a wider sampling of target products than had been found in recent research.

Methodological Issues

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) reported that among the methodological issues, which had received research attention at that time, were concerns regarding sampling and measurement. Along with concerns regarding the adequacy in sampling of target products, there had been concern about the sampling of subjects (see also the Ozsomer and Cavusgil Literature Review 1982-1991 above). Wall and Heslop (1986) and Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy (1990), among others, have complained of the "almost universal use of atypical populations", such as students or small consumer samples selected in non-random, non-representative basis. While consumer samples had been used far more extensively in country-of-origin studies over the five years (1987-1993) as compared to the pre-Bilkey and Nes period, an additional concern was the possibility that within-country regional differences might have affected the

research outcomes (Chao 1989). Although neither Reierson (1966) in the U.S. nor Bannister and Saunders (1978) in the U.K. found regional differences in the perception of country images, regional differences have been noted among Canadian as well as U.S. consumers (Wall and Heslop 1989; Shimp and Sharma 1987). Further, differential levels of acceptance of certain foreign products (such as imported autos in different regions of the U.S.) are well known. Shimp and Sharma (1987) stated that such differences could restrict the variance of foreign product ownership in certain regions, thereby attenuating correlations relating country-of-origin predictors to ownership. Baughn and Yaprak (1993) thus stated that as the adequacy of the sampling procedures affects the generalizability of research findings, it must be carefully considered in designing origin-related research.

Using a U.S. consumer sample, Han and Qualls (1985) found significant differences in country-of-origin effects as a function of the data collection mode used in the research (personal interview, telephone, & self-administered survey). It appeared that the data collection mode affected social desirability bias, demand characteristics, or involvement to yield differing responses. Subjects rated attributes of foreign products less favorably than U.S. products in telephone interviews. They also demonstrated stronger intentions to buy U.S. products in this mode than in the other two.

The issue of response bias (see also the Ozsomer and Cavusgil Literature Review 1982-1991 above) in origin studies has been raised by a number of researchers attempting to assess the tendency of consumers to report a

preference for domestic over imported products (Daser and Meric 1986; Hester and Yuen 1986; Wall and Heslop 1986). In Hester and Yuen's (1986) study, for example, 39 percent of the subjects in their New York sample indicated a concern with whether the garment they had just purchased was imported or made domestically. Only 20 percent, however, indicated that they actually knew the country-of-origin of the garment. In total, only about 11 percent of the sample indicated both a concern with *and* knowledge of the country-of-origin of the apparel product they had just bought.

Country-of-origin studies have contributed to the substantial growth of international marketing research (Baughn and Yaprak 1993). This growth has led to increasing concerns about methodological issues such as the need for evaluation of the psychometric properties of cross-national research measures. Construct and functional equivalence of the phenomena being studied across nations, reliability differences, and the comparability of the samples in each nation have received increasing attention (Seaton 1988). Parameswaran and Yaprak (1987), for example, demonstrated that the reliability of scale ratings of product attributes not only differed among consuming countries, but also within a consumer country when rating different products of other nations.

The increasing use of data analytic techniques capable of capturing the interrelationships among origin country and other extrinsic cues, affect, attribute evaluations, and outcomes has added to the richness of this research area (e.g., Han 1989b; Hooley, Shipley, and Krieger 1988; Johansson and Nebenzahl 1986; Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985). Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that

such techniques comprised current "state-of-the-art" approaches in market research. Baughn and Yaprak (1993) stated that a valuable addition to the COO stream of research was provided by the inclusion of "true" levels of product attributes (such as gas mileage and repair record) based on published sources (Erickson, Johansson, and Chao 1984; Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985). This allowed examination of the impact of "true scores" on attribute beliefs and country image effects, and a comparison of beliefs regarding product attributes with independent measures based on product trial. Erickson, Johansson, and Chao (1984), for example, found that certain product attributes for automobiles (such as economy ratings for Japanese cars) could be biased by the country-of-origin image. Similarly, using a sample of U.S. and Japanese students, Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka (1985) found that U.S. cars were overrated on horsepower.

Baughn and Yaprak (1993) concluded their review by stating that the preceding discussion of recent research streams in country-of-origin demonstrated the richness as well as the complexity surrounding the country-of-origin cue in cross-national purchase behavior. This literature review on COO will end with a review of experiments on COO effects and discussion of a meta-analysis of COO effects.

A Review of Experiments on Country-of-Origin Effects (1993)

In 1993 Liefeld[11] performed a review of experimental COO studies. Campbell and Stanley (1963, p.1) define experiments as "that portion of research in which variables are manipulated and their effects upon other variables observed". Rosenthal and Rosnow (1984, p.62) suggested that in many areas of behavioral science the experiment is characterized by "controlled manipulation of independent variables".

For Liefeld's 1993 review, any country-of-origin investigation employing "manipulation of independent variables" and using "between subject" designs was unconditionally accepted in the review. Investigations employing "manipulation of independent variables" but using "within-subject" designs were only conditionally accepted. They were accepted if the data collection procedures were explicitly designed to (1) prevent a "reactive" or "interactive" effect of testing, in which the experimental procedure would sensitize subjects to the experimental variable. And (2) prevent multiple treatment interference, which can occur when multiple treatments are applied to the same respondents, and order and sequence are not randomized.

Twenty-two experimental investigations of country-of-origin cue effects on consumer judgments and choice were chosen from the literature. The characteristics of the experiments accepted for review varied considerably. Five

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[11] Liefeld, J.P. (1993). Experiments on country-of-origin effects: Review and Meta-Analysis of Effect Size. In *Product-Country Images: Impact and Role in International Marketing,* Nicolas Papadopoulos and Louise P. Heslop, eds., New York: International Business Press, 89-116.

of the studies employed single-cue designs. Thirteen used intangible product stimuli rather than tangible products. Twelve studies employed university students as subjects, no doubt reducing the cost of the research but possibly limiting the generalizability to young, well-educated consumers. ANOVA was the most common form of analysis approach for the reviewed articles. Results of the review are presented below.

General Observations

These observations are presented in descending order of confidence in their robustness (Liefeld 1993).

1. *Country-of-Origin Effects Were Real*

In all but two of the experiments, COO was found to be statistically related to consumer product evaluations or choices. Although COO was reported to be related to product evaluations, the strength of the association varied considerably between products and for different experiment characteristics.

2. *Country-of-Origin Effects Occurred over a Wide Range of Consumer and Industrial Products*

These consistent findings of COO effects were found over a wide variety of products: cars; personal computers; VCRs, CD players, pocket pagers, telephones, wrist watches; wearing apparel; desk pens, leather wallets; glassware; fruit juice and coffee beans.

3. *Domestic Products Were Almost Always Seen as Highest in Quality*

Schooler (1965), with a sample of Guatemalan students, found that the Guatemalan juice or fabric was perceived to be of better quality than the same juice or fabric from Mexico, Costa Rica, or El Salvador. Wall, Liefeld, and Heslop

(1989) and Heslop, Liefeld, and Wall (1987) found that Canadian-made products were perceived by Canadian consumers to be higher in quality than Italian, Japanese, Taiwanese, or Hong Kong products, but not statistically different from American ones. Hakansson and Wootz (1975) reported that Swedish purchasing agents rated Swedish products higher in quality than German, French, or Italian ones. Similarly, American studies reported that products made in the U.S. were rated higher than, or as high as, those from any other country.

4. *Country Hierarchy*

Liefeld (1993) reported that several researchers noted a hierarchy of countries. Based on the views of respondents in the studies, products made in the U.S. were perceived to be highest in quality; and products from West Germany or Japan (depending on the product class) were perceived next highest in quality. Products from other North European countries were next in line, followed by Southern Europe, other Pacific Rim countries, Eastern Europe, South American, other Asian, and finally African countries (Schooler and Wildt 1968; Schooler 1971; Wall, Liefeld, and Heslop 1989, 1990; Hakansson and Wootz 1975; Schellinck 1986, 1989a, 1989b; Dickerson 1987).

5. *The Magnitude Effect Appears to be Related to the Nature of the Product*

The products used in these experiments varied on many dimensions including price (economic risk), technical complexity, fashion (social risk), male-female dominance, etc. There was an indication that the magnitude of COO effects is related to product type. Specifically, stated Liefeld (1993, p.127) the eta values for technically complex products, and expensive products appeared to be

larger than those for products low in technical complexity, inexpensive, or not fashion-oriented (Wall, Liefeld, and Heslop 1989; Ettenson, Wagner, and Gaeth 1988; Hong and Wyer 1989; White and Cundiff 1978).

6. *The Country Effect was Related to the Nature of the Stimulus Employed in the Experiment*

Schooler (1971) reported that the magnitude of the COO effect was affected by the nature of the product stimulus employed in the experiment. Specifically, the effects were greater when intangible product descriptions were used compared to tangible product stimuli.

Since many of the next findings have been covered in this review, some of the findings will only be listed without further detail.

7. *COO Effects were Related to Some Consumer Demographic Characteristics*
8. *Prior Product Knowledge, Beliefs, Familiarity, and Prior Purchasing Experience Affected COO.*
9. *Effects Decreased Even More When "Behavioral" Variables were Employed to Measure Them*

Schellinck (1986) employed an experimental design in which information cues were provided only when subjects decided to examine the cue by turning over a card, or pulling a tab in a brochure. Liefeld (1983) stated that this was similar to the IDB (Information Display Board) approach to consumer decision process studies, in which the researcher was interested more in which information was accessed, and the sequence of accessing them, than in their effects. In Schellinck's 1986 experiments, the COO cue was accessed

infrequently compared to other information cues. Schellinck also asked subjects which cues they used in making their decisions. The number of subjects reporting using COO cues was always much less than the number who had accessed it. But warns Liefeld (1993), this was a survey measure, not an experimental measure.

11. *Role of Information Processing Modes and Prior Beliefs*

Hong and Wyer (1989) employed four information processing hypotheses (encoding, heuristic, primacy-recency, and cognitive elaboration), under both impression formation and comprehension conditions, to hypothesize the magnitude of effects of product attribute and country-of-origin information on overall product evaluations, recall of information, and ratings of individual attributes. Their results supported the cognitive elaboration hypothesis, which predicts that product attribute information will have a pronounced effect on product quality evaluations, except under comprehension conditions, when the COO information is presented last. Liefeld (1993) stated that this study opened up a new area of research by revealing that the COO effects can be related to information processing modes used by consumers, and thus suggests a future blending of decision making and cue usage.

12. *COO Effects for Industrial Products*

Two experiments examined the effects of COO on industrial purchasing agent product evaluations and choices (Hakansson and Wootz 1975; White and Cundiff 1978). The findings of both experiments were similar to those reported

for consumer products and consumer evaluations of quality in which intangible product stimuli were employed. The COO effects appeared to be large.

Liefeld (1993) concluded the COO did appear to affect consumer judgments of product quality, value, risk, likelihood of purchase, and other mediating variables. These effects were found over a wide range of consumer and industrial products.

A Meta-Analysis of Country-of-Origin Effects (1995)

The meta-analysis reviews the literature on a hypothesis (i.e., COO influences product evaluations) by computing mean effect sizes for an independent variable, both overall and within conditions of moderator variables. One can also compute the statistical significance of a mean effect size and of the difference between the mean effect sizes in different conditions of a moderator variable. Meta-analyses therefore take a more statistical or quantitative approach to literature reviewing, whereas the narrative literature review takes a more qualitative approach (Whitley 1996).

Peterson and Jolibert (1995)[12] performed such a review of COO effects. They were prompted to do so by the generalizability question of COO effects, which has plagued this research stream since its inception. They stated (p. 884) that despite the extensive amount of research that had been conducted on the COO effect, a fundamental question remained: "How generalizable is the COO effect?" This question specifically motivated the review article of Bilkey and Nes

(1982), which in turn stimulated research including that of Johansson (1989), Papadopoulos, Heslop, Graby, and Avlonitis (1987), and Wall, Liefeld and Heslop (1991). After their review of the literature, Obermiller and Spangenberg (1989, p. 484) wrote, "no firm conclusions can be drawn on the pervasiveness or the strength of country-of-origin global effects". Likewise, Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991, p.274), concluded "most of the recent country-of-origin studies provide us with little generalizable knowledge".

Peterson and Jolibert (1995) stated that the apparent inability to draw broad generalizations regarding the influence of country-of-origin on perceptions and evaluations is somewhat to be expected. The construct itself is relatively ambiguous and has been interpreted and operationalized in widely divergent ways in the literature. Furthermore, they stated that there are substantial differences in the methodologies and research designs that have been employed, including different respondent bases, products studied, countries investigated, data collection modes, and the like. Peterson and Jolibert (1995) also stated that there may be another reason: COO effects may be context-dependent in that they exist only under certain conditions. If so, investigators should not be seeking COO generalizations, universalities, or principles but rather should be focusing on the identification of moderators - variables, methodologies and designs that produce (or explain) differential COO effects.

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[12] Peterson, R.A., & Jolibert, A.J. (1995). A meta-analysis of country-of-origin effects. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 13, 883-896.

Peterson and Jolibert (1995) stated that there seems to be an emerging consensus that COO effects are not generalizable. Even a cursory inspection of the conclusions supporting this "consensus" suggests that they are based less on objective evidence than on the subjective interpretation of a relatively small "core" set of articles. They reported that only one published study had attempted a systematic, quantitative investigation of COO effects (Liefeld 1993), but it was limited to an analysis of a small number of COO effects and study characteristics in less than two dozen experiments.

Peterson and Jolibert (1995) stated that although numerous dependent variables had been investigated in COO studies, their meta-analysis was limited to two broad categories - quality/reliability perceptions and purchase intentions. They stated that these two categories captured the majority of response or dependent variables investigated in COO studies and were deemed representative of dependent variables commonly investigated in COO studies. While perceptions and intentions are intuitively related, they are conceptually distinct (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975) and according to Peterson and Jolibert (1995) deserved separate analysis. They noted that perceptions are more "primitive" than intentions. As such, perceptions are antecedent to, and determinants of, intentions (Belk 1985), although the relationship is mediated by constructs such as satisfaction (e.g., Cronin and Taylor 1992). Furthermore, they stated that the choice of these particular categories of variables in the context of COO studies had been previously justified by Johansson (1989), and their investigation's

separate analyses of them was analogous to the approach followed by Roth and Romeo (1992).

In this meta-analysis, Peterson and Jolibert (1995) demonstrated that effect sizes for quality/reliability perceptions were consistently larger than effect sizes for purchase intentions. They stated that this finding corroborated other recent empirical research (e.g., Lim, Darley, and Summers 1994). And was not surprising since prior research (e.g., Fishbein 1963) suggested that the impact of an informational cue will be less when the required response implies a greater degree of personal commitment or is somewhat removed from a direct evaluation of the underlying stimulus. In the context of their meta-analysis, Peterson and Jolibert (1995) stated that a purchase intention would imply a greater degree of personal commitment than a perceptual response. Moreover, they stated that a purchase intention is not as direct an evaluation as a quality/reliability perception and is likely to have more (and a greater variety of) influencing antecedents.

Simultaneously, though, stated Peterson and Jolibert (1995), COO effect sizes involving purchase intentions were more sensitive to the influence of study characteristics than were quality/reliability perceptions. Taken together, these two findings indicated that quality/reliability perceptions and purchase intentions need to be studied separately in future research on COO cues. They also concluded that the findings suggested that, as a cue, country-of-origin differentially influences perceptions and intentions and the influence is context-dependent.

In addition, the inconsistent patterns of effect size differences found for the perception and intention variables across the study characteristics investigated suggested that the COO phenomenon is still not well understood. They stated that only four conclusions from the meta-analysis emerged that possessed any interpretational generality across both quality/reliability perceptions and purchase intentions.

1. The type of research design employed, whether a within- or between-subjects design did not appreciably influence COO effect sizes.
2. Single-cue studies produced larger COO effect sizes than did multiple-cue studies.
3. The use of verbal product description appeared to result in larger COO effect sizes than the use of an actual product.
4. The nationality of respondents (U.S. versus non-U.S.) in COO studies had no marked influence on effect sizes.

Peterson and Jolibert (1995) remarked that with the exception of these rather general conclusions, study characteristics and the nature of the dependent variable being investigated jointly determined the impact of COO cues. Hence, these researchers recommended that in the future, researchers must systematically take into account potential moderating variables so as to more comprehensively circumscribe the influence of a COO cue on quality/reliability perceptions and purchase intentions. Unfortunately, study conditions that tended to produce large effect sizes were those that departed the most from reality (e.g., single-cue designs and the use of verbal product

descriptions). Peterson and Jolibert (1995), given the findings of their investigation, thus stated, that the answer to the question first broached by Bilkey and Nes in 1982, "*How generalizable is the country-of-origin effect*?" must be a cautious, *It is somewhat generalizable*. Furthermore, they stated that although the COO cue accounted for a substantial proportion of the variance in product quality/reliability perceptions and purchase intentions, the conditions under which it is operative have not yet been fully delineated. Hence, they suggested that there is a need for additional empirical research that builds on their present investigation to comprehensively address both the antecedents and consequences of the COO effect under a variety of circumstances. They recommended that this research needs to be conducted under naturalistic conditions to avoid what appear to be methodological influences on the relationships uncovered to date.

Since this study will investigate potential differences in PCI attitudes and perceptions between English and French Canadians, a brief literature review on the differences between these two subcultures is appropriate.

Differences between French- and English-Canadians

There have been many studies that have compared consumption and lifestyle patterns between English and French Canadians (Mallen 1973; Tigert 1973; Schaninger, Bourgeois, & Buss 1985; Hui et al.1993). Most of these studies have shown that differences exist between these two subcultures (Laroche, Toffoli et al. 1996). Many of these studies have simply looked at consumption

differences between anglophones and francophones (Kindra, Laroche, & Muller 1994).

Published research has revealed that francophones are more introspective, more humanistic, more emotional, less materialistic, and less pragmatic than anglophones. Kindra, Laroche, and Muller (1994) have stated that francophones will tend to associate price with value, but will buy less on credit, and are more willing to pay higher prices for convenience and premium brands. They demonstrate more brand loyalty, but will respond to specials. They also tend to patronize more convenience stores and health food outlets and fewer food warehouses.

Some researchers have proposed theories about the characteristic traits of French Canadians vis-à-vis those of English Canadians. Hénault (1971) was one of the first authors to develop a French Canadian cultural profile for marketing. Hénault identified eight cultural characteristics in which French and English Canadians differ markedly (see Table 2 below for some of the characteristics).

Table 2: Cultural Differences Between English and French Speaking Canadians

Tendencies or Cultural Characteristics	English	French
Ethnic origin	Anglo-Saxon	Latin
Religion	Protestant	Catholic
Language	English	French
Intellectual attitude	Pragmatic	Theoretical
Family	Matriarchy	Patriarchy
Consumption attitudes	Propensity to save; conformist; financier more than financed	Propensity to spend; innovator; financed more than financier

Source: Hénault (1971, p. 78-80)

According to Mallen (1977), three major traits underlie francophones' consumption behavior: the sensate, the conservative, and the non-price cognitive traits.

The sensate trait appeals to the senses and includes touch, taste, sight, smell, and hearing, as well as social hedonism (Kindra, Laroche, & Muller 1994). French Canadians exhibit a more hedonistic consumption attitude and behavior than their English Canadian counterparts. The expression joie-de-vivre is often used to characterize the French-Canadian attitude of looking for the good things in life - e.g., good food, entertainment, appliances, and fancy cars – to be consumed with friends, guests, and relatives (this also often attributed as a Latin trait).

The conservative trait relates to French Canadians' low risk taking behavior and strong family orientation. As noted above, most studies showed a high level of brand loyalty among French Canadians. For example, in many instances, the leading brand among French Canadians has a much higher share that the leading brand among English Canadians.

The nonprice cognitive trait is an outcome of the two previous traits. That is, if a product is liked by francophones (sensate trait), it will be bought regularly by name (conservative trait), and price will, generally, not be an obstacle to purchase. Kindra, Laroche, & Muller (1994) stated that this trait explains the failure of generic or no-name brands among francophones in 1978, while they were a success among anglophones.

Bouchard (1980) characterized French Canadians as having six common historical and cultural roots: rural, minority, North American, Catholic, Latin, and French (see Table 3 for the Thirty-Six Responsive Chords of the Québécois). Each root produces six responsive chords for a total of thirty-six chords, which may help explain many consumption behaviors among French Canadians. For example, one of the roots, North American, is attributed to reflect the influence of the American culture as internalized over the years, particularly materialistic pursuits of super-consumption and comfort. These in turn lead to purchasing the newest and latest models of automobiles, and appliances (Kindra, Laroche, & Muller 1994; LeFrancois & Chatel 1966; Mallen 1973; Vickers & Benson 1972). Furthermore, Kindra, Laroche, & Muller (1994) stated that the list of responsive chords in Table 3 is useful for managers trying to develop a marketing or advertising strategy for the francophone market. For example, French-Canadian consumers tend to select products that bring instant gratification, satisfy an aesthetic sense, and reduce their sense of inferiority. These researchers stated that if a product is liked in pretests, price sensitivity tends to be low, so pricing strategy may rely on a higher quality-price relationship.

Thus, the literature proposes that many differences do exist between English and French Canadians on various variables. This subcultural difference will be the basis for predicting that differences do in fact exist between English and French Canadians in their evaluations of foreign countries, their peoples, and their products.

Table 3: The Thirty-Six Responsive Chords of the Quebecois

Cultural & Historical Root	⇨ Producing 36 Responsive Chords	
Rural	1. Common sense 2. Love of nature 3. Simplicity	4. Loyalty to heritage 5. Shrewdness 6. Manual skill
Minority	7. Inferiority complex 8. Nostalgia 9. Envy	10. Narrow-mindedness 11. Maturity 12. Love of gossip
North American	13. Superconsumerism 14. Comfort 15. Eccentric tastes	16. Solidarity 17. Sense of advertising 18. Nationalism
Catholic	19. Anti-mercantilism 20. Mysticism 21. Hermeneutics	22. Fatalism 23. Conservatism 24. Xenophobia
Latin	25. Joie-de-vivre 26. Love of children 27. Need to be seen	28. Artistic talent 29. Sentimentality 30. Instinctiveness
French	31. Chauvinism 32. Cartesianism 33. Individualism	34. Sensuality 35. Boastfulness 36. Lack of practical sense

Source: Bouchard, J. (1980). *Differences*. Montreal: Editions Héritage, p.19.

Heslop, Papadopoulos and Bourke (1996) state that "three theoretical frameworks for understanding behavior can be used as bases for predicting important ethnically based cultural and subcultural differences in product-country images and their effects on consumer attitudes and perceptions". These are:

1) Consumer Attitudes. Foxall (1983) stated that in consumer research, attitude is considered to be the most significant intrapersonal predictor of behavior. Of its three components, cognition (beliefs), affect (feelings) and conation (action tendencies), two are especially relevant to the study of product-country images: cognition and affect. In the case of PCIs, cognition depicts perceived beliefs about the characteristics of the country and its products while the affective element is likely to be based on likings and similarities. "Social psychologists have shown that people are attracted to and tend to evaluate similar and familiar

others more positively than they do dissimilar others and strangers" (Hill & Stull 1981). "If one likes another based on familiarity, one also assumes that the other is similar (Moreland & Zajonic 1982). This bi-directional effect of the belief and affective components of attitudes becomes especially relevant in discussing ethnocentrism".

2) Ethnocentrism. "Perceived similarities with others, and the liking they engender, undoubtedly have a cultural/ethnic link. This helps to relate attitude theory to ethnocentrism, which is defined as "the universal proclivity for people to view their own group as the center of the universe, to interpret other social units from the perspective of their own group, and to reject persons who are culturally dissimilar while blindly accepting those who are culturally like themselves" (Shimp & Sharma 1987, p.280)". Among other effects, "ethnocentrism may influence behavior in that it provides consumers with a feeling of what purchase behavior is acceptable or unacceptable to other group members" (Levine & Campbell 1972). Heslop, Papadopoulos and Bourke (1996) thus state that "one manifestation of ethnocentrism is the logic that cultural similarity-based biases in preferences might be expected to lead consumers to prefer products from ethnically close nations and regions, especially if there are intra-national regional variations in culture". Four studies by Shimp and Sharma (1987) revealed diverse ethnocentric tendencies in different areas of the United States, further supporting the notion of subcultural differences within nations.

3) Nationalism. Another concept closely associated with ethnocentrism is nationalism. According to Waheeduzzaman (1989, p.252), "nationalism can be

defined as a broader ethnocentric thinking in the sphere of international relations". Heslop, Papadopoulos and Bourke (1996) state that "a combined examination of the findings in the ethnocentrism and nationalism literature would seem to suggest, at least, that attitudes and the object to which they relate may differ between subcultural and national consumer groups" (Johannson, Douglas, & Nonaka 1985; Sternquist & Tolbert 1986; Papadopoulos, Heslop, & Bamossy 1991).

The next section will present the specific objectives and hypotheses of this study. In addition, the formulation of the hypotheses as they relate to the literature review will be discussed.

HYPOTHESES

This study will aim to explore the potential effects of subcultural differences on attitudes towards products from different ethnic origins, through a survey of English and French Canadians. It is expected that differences will exist between these two subcultures. The Canadian context is considered especially appropriate for this research since ethnic subcultures are of a particular importance and influence in Canada. Canadian society encourages multiculturalism and is commonly described as a "mosaic" of cultural groups. In particular, the two European founding cultures constitute the largest groups in the Canadian market. The distribution pattern across the country varies greatly, as French Canadians' proportion of provincial population ranges from 3% in Newfoundland to over 80% in Quebec. According to various researchers, "this regional diversity and multiculturalism presents an enormous challenge for marketers, including the need to understand the influences of subcultural differences on country-of-origin perceptions" (Heslop, Papadopoulos and Bourke 1996; Laroche, Toffoli et al. 1996). Researchers have reported differences in consumer behavior and nationalistic tendencies of French versus English Canadians (Plummer 1977; McDougall and Rawlings 1979; Laroche, Kim, Hui and Joy 1993). In addition, Heslop, Papadopoulos and Bourke (1996) have stated that "the high concentration of French Canadians in Quebec helps focus their identity and thus, is an appropriate context for this study".

Specifically, this research will examine potential differences between French- and English-Canadians' consumer attitudes towards countries and their

products. The following hypotheses were designed to determine differences in the ratings of English and French Canadians' attitudes and/or perceptions.

The overarching hypothesis of this study is the following:

H1: *Subcultural differences between English and French Canadians exist in the perception and evaluation of foreign countries and their products.*

All following hypotheses will derive from this principal hypothesis. Hypotheses developed from the theoretical frameworks of consumer attitudes, ethnocentrism, and nationalism follow.

H1(i): *English Canadians will demonstrate more positive attitudes and perceptions towards Great Britain and its products than French Canadians.*

H1(ii): *French Canadians will demonstrate more positive attitudes and perceptions towards France and its products than English Canadians.*

H1(iii): *English Canadians will exhibit more positive attitudes and perceptions towards Australia, India, and Hong-Kong than French Canadians.*

H1(iv): *French Canadians will demonstrate more negative attitudes and perceptions towards Canada and its products than English Canadians.*

H1(v): *English Canadians will exhibit more positive attitudes and perceptions towards the United States and its products than French Canadians.*

It is predicted that English Canadians will demonstrate more favorable attitudes and perceptions towards Britain and British goods. This directional hypothesis is based on the ethnic affiliation that is shared between English Canadians and Britons. Specifically, English Canadians share with Britons

common cultural traits, such as language, and many customs and traditions rooted in Anglo-Protestantism. This is based on previous product-country image studies, research on the affective component of attitudes, and ethnocentrism theory that were reviewed above. For instance, Krishnakumar (1974) and Wall and Heslop (1986) have suggested that former colonial ties influenced respondents' more favorable ratings toward Great Britain. In his research, Barker (1985) also suggested that historical ties and likeness in culture and political climate affected the favorable ratings of New Zealand respondents towards British goods. Similarly, the prediction for French Canadian respondents towards France and its products are based on the same argument.

The argument of former colonial ties influencing respondents' ratings is also at the root of the prediction that English Canadians will favor Australia, Hong Kong, and India; these countries were all once under the dominion of the British Empire.

In addition, it is predicted that English Canadians will have more favorable evaluations of Canada and its products than French Canadians. The opposite is predicted for French Canadians' evaluations of Canada and its products. This prediction is based on nationalistic disparities between these ethnic groups. McDougall and Rawlings (1979) have reported that nationalistic tendencies of respondents affect their attitudes towards Canadian products and Canadian theme advertising.

Americans and English Canadians also share many cultural traits, such as language, and many customs and traditions rooted in Anglo-Protestantism. This

cultural affinity between both groups, combined with French Canadians' sense of isolation in the North American context (Bouchard 1980) will support the hypothesis of English Canadians preferring Americans and their products.

Hypotheses based on known characteristics of English and French Canadians and how they relate to the affective component of consumer attitudes:

H1(vi): *French Canadians will demonstrate more negative attitudes and perceptions towards the lesser-developed countries (Israel, Hungary, Indonesia, Greece, and Spain) and their products than English Canadians.*

It is expected that both English and French Canadians will have negative attitudes towards the lesser-developed countries (those countries included in the survey) and their products. The product-country image of less developed countries has been shown to be consistently less favorable than those of developed countries (Bannister and Saunders 1978; Chasin and Jaffe 1979; Bilkey and Nes 1981). However, it is expected that French Canadians will demonstrate more *overall* negative attitudes and perceptions towards less developed countries and their products than English Canadians will. This prediction is derived from French Canadians' conservatism (Mallen 1977; Laroche, Toffoli et al. 1996). This conservatism also predisposes French Canadians with an aversion to risk (as compared to the English Canadians). As products from developing countries are known to be of lesser quality, than those from developed countries, there is a natural tendency to view developing

countries as more risky. Thus, French Canadians will have more negative attitudes towards these countries and their products.

H1(vii): *Although both subcultures will have negative overall attitudes and perceptions towards Mexico (a developing country) and its products, French Canadians will exhibit less of these negative attitudes and perceptions than English Canadians.*

As the previous hypothesis stated, English and French Canadians will both exhibit negative *overall* attitudes and perceptions towards developing countries in general. However, it is expected that for a country such as Mexico, French Canadians will exhibit less of these negative attitudes and perceptions than their English Canadian counterparts. This hypothesis predicts that an ethnic group, which shares cultural affinities with a developing country, will evaluate that country and their products more favorably than an another ethnic group, which does not share these affinities. Mexicans and French Canadians share some cultural ties. They are both Roman Catholics, and Latin. These two common cultural roots (Bouchard 1980) result in them sharing similar characteristics, for example, they are conservative, fatalistic, chauvinistic, matriarchal, and both demonstrate a joie-de-vivre. They are both minorities in the North American context and, in addition, French Canadians are known to frequently visit Mexico. Based on these similarities, it is expected that French Canadians will view Mexico and its products more favorably than English Canadians.

Hypotheses developed from theories of acculturation and ethnic identification:

H1(viii): *As English Canadians become more acculturated towards the French Canadian subculture they will exhibit product-country image attitudes and perceptions which are more congruent with those of French Canadians. Likewise,*

H1(ix): *As French Canadians become more acculturated towards the English Canadian subculture they will exhibit product-country image attitudes and perceptions which are more congruent with those of English Canadians.*

These two hypotheses reflect findings from the literature that culture is a fluid concept. The notion of changing culture and changing ethnic identity has been represented by the inclusion of such explanatory variables as level of assimilation (Lefebvre 1975; Wallendorf & Reily 1983), level of biculturalism/bilinguism (Chang 1972; Mallen 1973), and level of ethnic identity (Valencia 1985). Also, level of acculturation (Faber, O'Guinn, & MacAdams 1984; Hair 1971; Faber, O'Guinn, & McCarty 1987; Hair & Anderson 1973), and, more recently, ethnic change (Laroche, Kim, Hui, & Joy 1996).

In this study, acculturation is "broadly taken to indicate the acquisition of attitudes, values, and behaviors of a host society by members of a minority" (Laroche, Kim, & Tomiuk 1996, p.8). Furthermore, acculturation represents but one aspect of a broader multicultural process intimated by such terms as 'culture change' (Keefe & Padilla 1987). The second facet of this process is ethnic identification. It reflects the retention or loss of traits of the culture-of-origin.

The acculturation literature generally suggests that as one becomes more acculturated there may be a tendency to move away from traditional attitudes

and patterns of behavior and to adopt those of the dominant culture (Laroche, Kim, & Tomiuk 1996). Therefore, it is hypothesized that as English Canadians become acculturated towards the French Canadian culture, they will exhibit product-country image attitudes and perceptions which are more congruent with those of the French Canadians and vice-versa.

A discussion on the methodological parameters for this research project will follow next. This will include the sample specification, the research instrument, and the data collection method.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Sample Specification

The populations targeted for this study consisted of adult English and French Canadians residing in the Montreal metropolitan area. In order to ensure a representative sample of both ethnic groups, given the multicultural character of the population of Montreal, the data collection was confined to a select number of census tracts in and around the greater Montreal area. These census tracts, according to the 1991 Census of Canada, demonstrated a large percentage of residents whose mother tongue was either English or French. Thus, forty-one census tracts in 23 municipalities were chosen at random for this study.

The geographic areas chosen were residential districts with detached or semi-detached dwellings that are easily accessible to interviewers. Residents in apartment buildings were not canvassed due to difficulties in obtaining access to these dwellings.

To achieve adequate statistical power, it was determined *a priori* that the sample size required for the statistical analysis was approximately 500 respondents, 250 in each language group.

Research Instrument

A structured, self-administered questionnaire consisting of six main sections was used to gather data for this research project. Dr. Papadopoulos and Dr. Heslop provided an English version of the survey instrument. It was translated into French and back-translated (Brisles 1970) into English to ensure equivalence. It was designed carefully to account for cross-cultural variations in response

patterns (Papadopoulos and Heslop 1997, personal communication). The main parts assessed consumer views of five origins fully and of an additional 13 origins partly. An English and French sample of the questionnaires appear in Appendix 1.

The first section consisted of product-country associations. Top-of-mind country-product associations were obtained by asking respondents to name up to four brand names, company names, or product categories that came to mind at the mention of each of the five origin countries: Canada, Sweden, the United States, Japan, and Great Britain. These origins were selected to allow for comparison across a representative range of levels of industrialization and presence in foreign markets among major exporting nations. Newly industrialized nations were not included in this study since research has consistently shown that products from these countries are given lower ratings than products from the home and other industrialized countries.

The second section involved assessments of products from the same countries. Products of the five origins were evaluated on a set of seven-point (1=negative, 7=positive), bipolar semantic differential scales. Through testing in the original 1987 study and other research, Papadopoulos and Heslop have been able to refine this scale which includes 20 items that load significantly on the cognitive product constructs which they have identified. The product scales have been used extensively in PCI research and were derived mainly from the Darling and Kraft (1977) and Nagashima (1970) studies.

The third section of the questionnaire measured respondents' views on countries and their people. Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993) stated that prior to their inclusion of country/people scales in COO research, attitudes towards countries and their people had rarely been used. The notable exception was the study by Wang and Lamb (1983), that found that willingness to buy foreign products was related to the economic, political, and cultural environment of the country. To measure respondents' views on countries and their people, a similar (as described above) scale with 16 items that focused on country images was used. The country scales were developed for the first time by Papadopoulos, and Heslop for their 1987 research. They stated that since there was no relevant guide in the international marketing literature, insights for developing these scales were culled from various related fields, such as the international behavior literature (e.g., Kelman 1965) and studies by Eurobarometer (the EC's central statistical bureau) of the attitudes of European peoples toward each other.

Several researchers have grouped the scale items used in their studies in various ways over the years. Nagashima (1977) grouped his 20 scale items intuitively into 5 categories and several other researchers (Lillis & Narayana 1974; Niffenegger, White, & Marmet 1981) have used the same groupings, with little or no variation. Others have developed their own subgroupings based also on intuition. Factor analysis has been used in a few cases (Cattin, Jolibert, & Lohnes 1982; Erickson, Johannson, & Chao 1984; Johansson & Nebenzahl 1986, 1987; Narayan 1981; White 1979). In order to improve upon past research, Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy (1990) analyzed the underlying

structure of their data using both emic and etic approaches. After examining several combinations of scale items, four product and three country summary variables were identified. According to these researchers, these reflect underlying intercorrelations that were fairly consistent across the sample and origin countries of the study. Table 4 shows the summary variables for the product and country scales.

Table 4: Summary Variables for Product & Country Scales[a]

Summary Variables	Total number of scales in summary variable	Incidence of scales in measure loading in same factor (total = 40)		Average Cronbach's alpha
		Number of scales	Number of times	
1. Product Scales				
Product Integrity	7	3-4	17	0.80
		5-7	23	
Price-Value	2	2	28	0.50
Market Presence	4	2	22	0.50
		3-4	16	
Response	4	2	17	0.60
		3-4	23	
2. Country/People Scales				
Belief	3	2	11	0.50
		3	19	
Affect	4	2	17	0.50
		3-4	13	
Link	2	2	23	0.60

[a]
Source: Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy (1990)
Composition of summary variables:
Product Integrity: Reliability, workmanship, technical advancement, innovativeness, quality, appearance / performance oriented, service & warranties
Price-Value: Reasonable priced, inexpensive
Market Presence: Choice, advertising level, recognizable brands, easy to find
Response: Know a lot, buy a lot, proud to own, satisfied
Belief: Managing economy well, technologically advanced, industriousness
Affect: Role in world politics, refined taste, likeability, trustworthiness
Link: Want more investment from, want closer ties with

It is interesting to note that in this study, Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy (1990) discovered that four product items (necessity/luxury, believable

promotion, older/younger people, lower/upper class) and two country items (agriculture/manufacturing, industrial/consumer goods) did not fit well with any other items nor consistently well across their 40 sample-origin country combinations. Furthermore, given that all of these six items except "agriculture/manufacturing" were originally used by Nagashima (1970, 1977) and have since been part of several studies, Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy (1990) stated that this lack of fit suggested that this field of research would benefit from a more detailed analysis of the scale items that were commonly used.

Images may vary across product classes (e.g., Dornoff, Tankersley, & White 1974). However, those studies that have examined product images at the global (i.e., all products of a country), product class, and product item levels simultaneously have shown consistently that country stereotypes exist at all levels and tend to be congruent among themselves (e.g., Gaedeke 1973; Garland & Crawford 1987; Kaynak & Cavusgil 1983; Reierson 1966). For this reason and because of the study's interest in advancing the general understanding of country images rather than obtaining product-specific evaluations, this study sought to obtain global rather than product-class assessments. Most researchers in this field have also used this approach. However, it is recognized that product-class and product specific images may vary from a county's global product image and may be useful for very specific marketing applications.

The fourth section involved the evaluation of thirteen additional countries. This was measured using a subset of the product and country scales, containing a total of four items (two for product and two for the countries themselves).

The fifth section consisted of standard demographic questions. In addition, questions related to the respondent's international travel in general, travel to origin countries, and family or other ties there, were included in this section.

Finally, the last section measured English-French Canadian ethnicity. The multi-item identifiers, which were used, were adopted from the work of Kim, Laroche, and Lee (1989), who have shown that it is appropriate to use communication patterns to identify English-French Canadian ethnicity. The technique involves asking respondents to indicate the percentage of time French, English, or other languages are used in interpersonal and mass communication contexts and respondents are asked questions on self-identification.

Data Collection

The drop-off/pick-up technique was chosen for the fieldwork because, since it combines many of the benefits of mail and in-person surveying while reducing the disadvantages of each, it enables data collection quickly and at a lower cost while assuring relatively high response rates. Using this technique, the interviewer approaches the randomly chosen households, explains the nature of the study, and, when a potential respondent agrees to participate, leaves the questionnaire and continues sampling within the census tract. The completed

questionnaires are collected shortly thereafter (usually within 2-3 hours) by repeating the same walking pattern or they are picked-up during the following days. The respondents were also given the opportunity to mail in the questionnaires in prepaid envelopes addressed to Professor Michel Laroche at Concordia University.

Based on previous surveys, a usable return rate of 30% was expected. Within each of the census tracts in the selected municipalities, a quota of questionnaires to be distributed was assigned proportioned to the relative population of the particular census tract. A number of streets were picked at random in each census tract and efforts were made to survey every other household on these streets until a quota of at least 250 usable sets of questionnaires were obtained for each target group.

The data distribution took place between December 4th 1997 and April 6th 1998. The distribution was interrupted for some weeks due to an unprecedented ice storm, which affected most of the Montreal area. The distribution was done mostly on weekends and evenings when respondents were more likely to be at home.

Table 5 presents a breakdown of the distribution and usable returns by municipality. A total of 1747 questionnaires were distributed, 931 in English and 816 in French. The usable questionnaires for English and French Canadians totaled 291 and 311 respectively.

Table 5: Questionnaire Distribution & Collection

Municipality	Number of Census Tracts	Number of Questionnaires Distributed		Number of Usable Questionnaires Received	
		English	French	English	French
Verdun	1	4	34	0	0
N.D.G	1	44	17	18	6
Nun's Island	1	2	22	1	2
Montreal West	1	67	4	19	10
Montreal	3	1	98	5	37
Westmount	3	143	7	47	14
T.M.R	1	43	22	10	10
Dorval	1	29	8	11	6
Pointe Claire	2	73	9	34	10
Beaconsfield	3	167	25	58	29
Kirkland	1	54	6	10	3
Pierrefonds	2	96	18	20	8
D-D-O	3	118	7	35	12
Montreal East	2	0	36	0	22
Anjou	1	2	60	0	5
Montreal Nord	3	1	50	1	31
Laval	1	2	80	0	12
St-Hubert	2	2	64	0	5
Brossard	1	25	66	6	11
Greenfield Park	1	36	8	8	8
Longueuil	3	2	142	0	52
Ville St-Laurent	1	8	7	3	3
Lasalle	2	12	26	5	15
Total	**40**	**931**	**816**	**291**	**311**

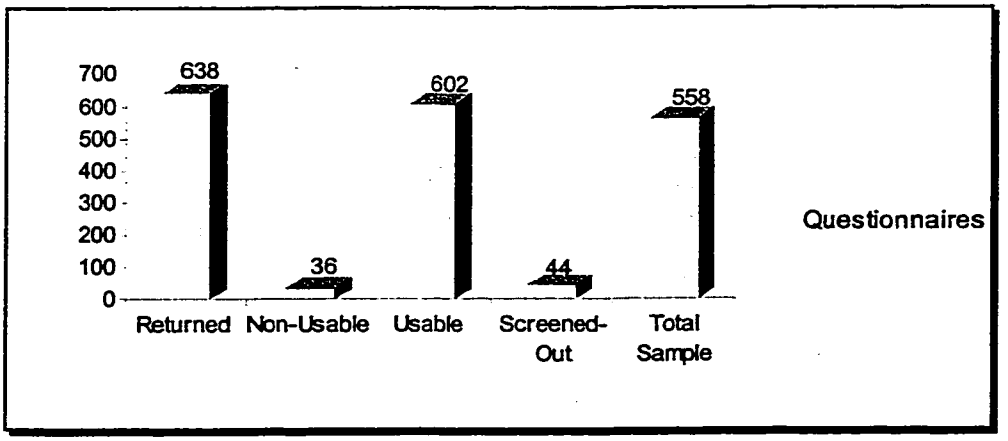
Table 6 presents the rate of return. The total rate of return for this study was 34.5%, which was slightly better than what was expected. French Canadians exhibited a higher return rate than English Canadians, 38.1% and 31.3% respectively.

Table 6: Rate of Return

	Total	English	French
Number of questionnaires distributed	1747	931	816
Number of questionnaires received (gross)	638	--	--
Number of usable questionnaires	602	291	311
Rate of return (usable)	**34.5%**	**31.3%**	**38.1%**
Percent of total sample	100%	48.3%	51.7%

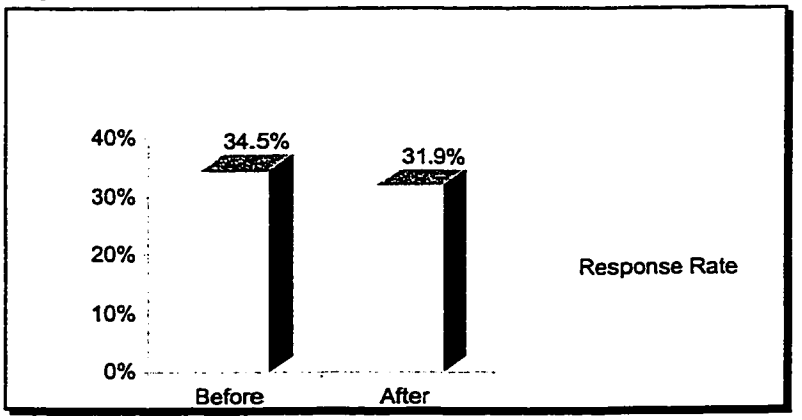
Following the data collection, responses were coded and entered directly into a data file to be analyzed with the SPPS statistical software. A total of 36 questionnaires, containing a substantial amount of missing information, were not entered into the data file.

Figure 2: Sample Size



In line with the sample purification criterion used by researchers who developed the English-French Canadian ethnicity scale (Hui, Kim, Laroche, & Joy 1997), a further 44 questionnaires were screened out from the sample because respondents reported the use of languages other than English or French. Thus, the study used 558 questionnaires - a 31.9% response rate after data editing and purification (see Figure 3).

Figure 3: Response Rates Before & After Data Editing & Purification

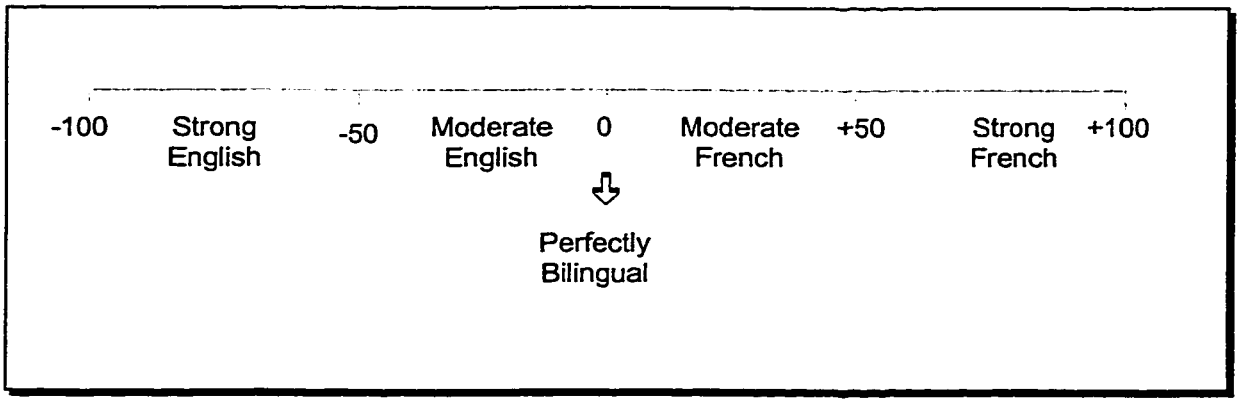


Ethnic Group Identification

Ethnic groups were determined following the procedures used by Kim, Laroche, and Lee (1989). First, the relative use of one language over the other was calculated for each of the 11 language usage measures by deducting the percentage of times English was indicated from that of French. Next, the points allotted to each measure was calculated to create an index measure of language usage. The resulting figures for each respondent ranged from –100 to +100 percent (exclusive usage of English or French, respectively; therefore, a zero score indicates equal use of both languages). Finally, the index scores of the respondents were divided into groups.

Several options were considered for use in grouping the respondents based on the index and deciding which groups to use in the analysis. For instance, respondents may be classified into "mostly English" (score –100 to 0) and "mostly French" (0 to +100), or they may also be classified into four groups in 50 point increments (e.g., -100 to –50 "strong English", -49 to 0 "moderate English", and so on). This selection depends on the degree of refinement desired. In this instance, for both theoretical and practical reasons as well as based on past practice (Kim, Laroche, and Lee (1989), the respondents were classified into four groups. For some of the analyses only the two extreme groups were used (see Figure 4). The rationale included, first, the objective to identify subjects who clearly fall in either group for testing purposes. Second, as a result of the *a priori careful* selection of Census tracts, large concentrations of respondents were found at both ends of the English-French ethnicity continuum.

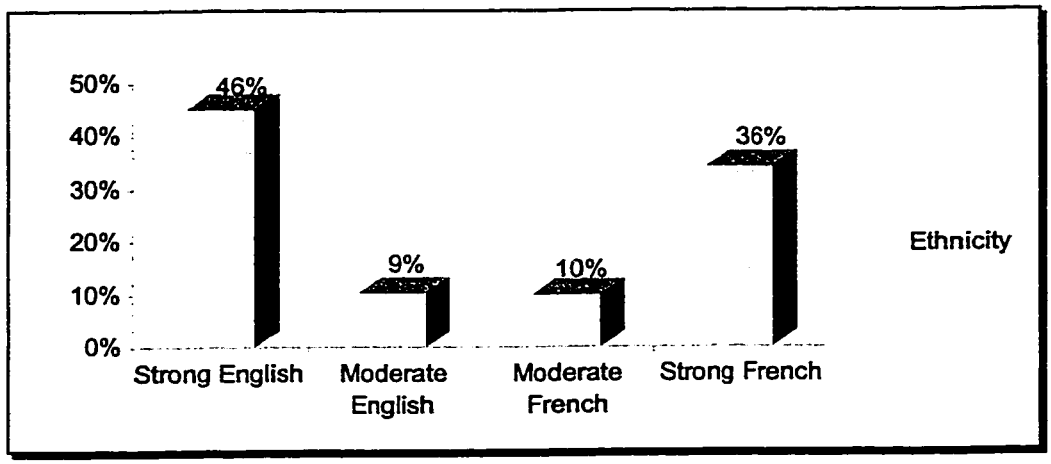
Figure 4: English-French Ethnicity Continuum



The two extreme groups were used for the comparative English-versus-French-Canadian section of the hypotheses (H1i-vii); for the acculturation hypotheses H1 (viii & ix) both moderate groups were included in the data analyses. That is, only "strong English" (-100 to –50) and "strong French" (+50 to +100) were used for the comparative and all four for the acculturation hypotheses.

Of the total sample, the English-French ethnicity continuum breakdown for the study was 45.8% for "Strong English", 9.0% for "Moderate English", 9.5% for "Moderate French", and 35.6% "Strong French" (see Figure 5). Thus, from this point the English or French groups used are the 254 and 197 respondents who were classified as "strong English" and "strong French".

Figure 5: English-French Ethnicity Breakdown



Sample Characteristics

Table 7 contains the demographic characteristics of respondents. As can be ascertained from the figures for the complete sample, the sample is not entirely representative of the Montreal population as indicated by Statistics Canada's 1996 Census.

In terms of gender, the overall sample was fairly representative of the Montreal population, however, men did outnumber women in the sample. For education, household income, and age variables respondents were not fully representative of Montreal's population.

Differences between Strong English versus Montreal and Strong French versus Montreal were tested. These tests revealed significant differences. For example, statistically significant results were obtained for the gender variable for the Strong French sample. The Strong French sample contains more men and women than the Montreal population. In addition, both samples (Strong English and French) are more educated, have higher incomes, and tend to be older than

the Montreal population. Significant differences were uncovered for all of the above-mentioned variables.

Table 7: Sample Characteristics

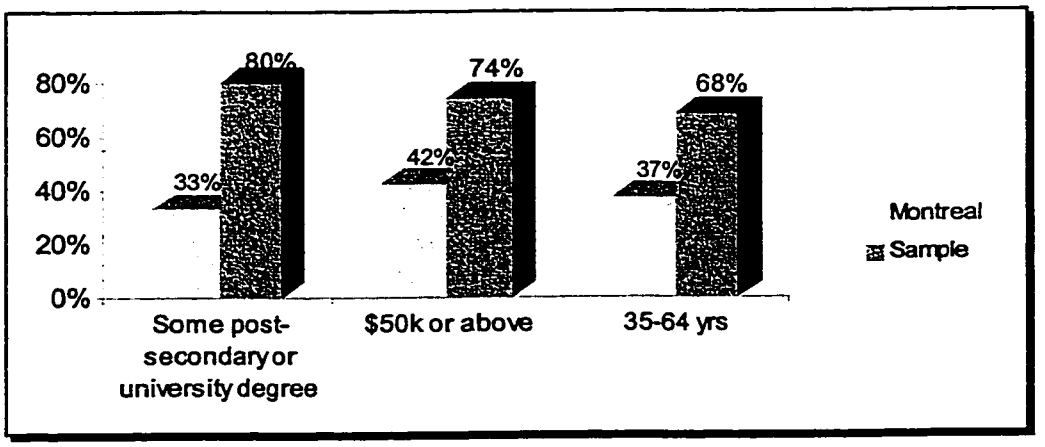
Demographic Characteristic	Montreal Population	Strong English n=254	Strong French n=197
Gender			
Male	48.4%	53.6%	57.4%
Female	51.6%	46.4%	42.6%
Education			
High school or less	51.7%	11.1%	20.9%
Some post-secondary studies	19.9%	26.2%	24.5%
College or University garduate	13.3%	58.3%	49.5%
Other	25.0%	4.4%	5.1%
Household Income			
Under $30,000	29.5%	5.5%	8.1%
$30,000 - $49,000	28.2%	16.2%	24.2%
$50,000 - $69,000	21.6%	25.1%	25.8%
$70,000 - $69,000	20.7%	53.2%	41.9%
Age			
Less than 20 years old	24.8%	0.8%	1.5%
20 to 34	26.2%	15.5%	16.2%
35 to 49	23.0%	36.5%	48.2%
50 to 64	14.8%	27.8%	26.9%
65 or more	11.3%	19.4%	7.1%

*According to 1996 Census by Statistics Canada
Box demonstrates statistically significant differences between both subgroups and the Montreal Population

Eighty percent of respondents indicated that they had some post-secondary education or a university degree. In addition, more that 74% of respondents reported making household incomes of between $50,000 and $69,000 or over $70,000. Finally, over 68% of respondents fell between the 35 to

64 age bracket. For the Montreal population the figures for the education, household income and age variables are 33%, 42%, and 37% respectively (see Figure 6 for an illustration).

Figure 6: Sample Characteristics



Viewed as a whole, the four demographic variables provide the following picture of the sample: men and women between the ages of 35-64, with university degrees (or with at least some post-secondary studies), and with above average household incomes. Overall, this research effort seems to have sampled a niche market of affluent, educated, men and women.

Table 7 also outlines the demographic differences between the "Strong English" and "Strong French" respondents who were retained for the study. Tests of proportions were conducted on the demographic variables in order to determine if these differences were statistically significant. Using the Pearson chi-square test statistic, differences were found for the age and education variables; none were found for gender and income. For the age variable,

differences were found at the 0.05 level of significance, meanwhile, for education, differences were found at the 0.10 level. As can be ascertained from Figure 7 below, in the 35-49-age category, the French outnumbered the English, while in the 65 and over category, the reverse was true.

Figure 7: Age of Respondents - English Vs French

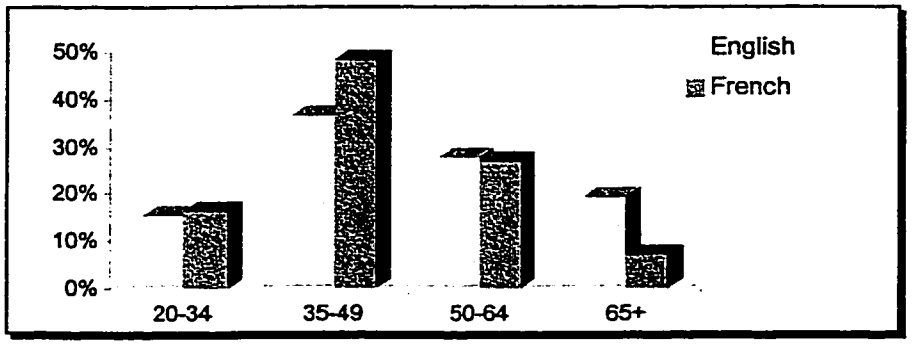
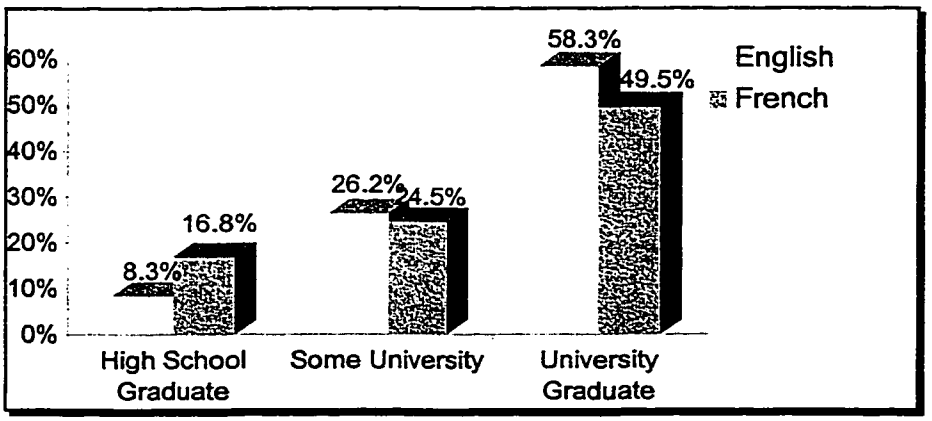


Figure 8 demonstrates the significant differences between both subcultures for the education variable. The English Canadians in the sample were more educated than the French Canadians; there were more English Canadian university graduates.

Figure 8: Education Level of Respondents - English Vs French



These significant differences between both subcultures will have an impact on the comparative analyses of the data. In order to be confident that

differences, which are expected between our sub-samples, are attributable to cultural differences only, then other confounding variables, such as demographics, should be taken into account in the data analysis.

DATA ANALYSIS

To gain general insights of respondents' ratings, a descriptive overview of the findings will be presented first, before continuing with hypothesis testing, and factor analysis.

Descriptive Analysis

The descriptive analysis section will first begin with a discussion on the results of the top-of-mind section followed by the evaluation of products and countries and their peoples among both ethnic groups.

Top-of-Mind Awareness

The first part of the measuring instrument asked respondents to list the first four products that came to mind upon seeing the names of each of the five countries. Respondents were informed that they could either write down brand names, product categories, or company names, whichever came to their mind first.

Responses were categorized in two fashions, first, they were categorized into their appropriate economic sector of activity and, next, they were categorized as either being a brand name or a general product category. For example, if a respondent would have written "Earl Grey" tea for Great Britain then the economic sector would be indicated as "Food/Beverages/Tobacco" and it would then be categorized as "Brand". However, if they had simply written "Tea" then it would have been categorized as "Category". Tables 8-11 below presents the results for the whole sample combined. The first mentions are indicated, for example, for Great Britain, 29% (total) of the first responses were for the Food, Beverages, and Tobacco sector.

In addition, chi-s*quare* tests of proportion were conducted for the top-mind responses between English and French Canadians. When significant differences exist, a box in the table highlights them.

Table 8: Top-of-Mind Awareness

Country	Economic Sector of Activity	Total	SE	SF	Category (C) or Brand Name (B) SE	SF
		n = 558	n = 254	n = 197	n = 254	n = 197
Great-Britain	Food/Beverages/Tobacco	29%	27%	31%	67% C 33% B	62% C 38% B
Japan	Transportation	48%	46%	50%	65% C 35% B	59% C 41% B
Sweden	Transportation	41%	45%	35%	49% C	42% C
	Household & Related	36%	28%	46%	51% B	58% B
United-States	Transportation	46%	48%	44%	66% C 34% B	56% C 44% B
Canada	Agriculture, Fishing	23%	27%	18%	78% C	66% C
	Transportation	15%	9%	23%	22% B	34% B

SE = Strong English
SF = Strong French
All significant differences at the 95% confidence level

Great Britain

As can be seen by the table, the top-of-mind response for Great Britain by English and French Canadians alike was for the Food, Beverages, & Tobacco sector. Significant differences between the Strong English and Strong French groups were detected for the first top-of-mind response. A higher proportion of Strong French English-Canadians listed a product under the Food/Beverages/Tobacco product category as the first mention (31% versus 27% for Strong English Canadians). In addition, British products were mostly identified by their product category. This indicates that Great Britain's brands do not generally have a very strong top-of-mind awareness among English and French Canadian consumers.

Japan

It is no surprise to see that the number one top-of-mind response, for Japan, fell under the Transportation sector of economic activity (no significant differences between English and French respondents). The large majority of respondents indicated a product category versus a brand name. Therefore, most respondents identified Japanese products by categories and not by brand names (no significant differences were uncovered between English and French Canadians).

Sweden

The foremost top-of-mind response was for the Transportation sector (45%) among English Canadians and Household and Related (46%) for French Canadians. Thus, English Canadians appear to be significantly more familiar, on a top-of-mind basis, with Sweden's Transportation economic sector of activity and French Canadians appear to be more significantly aware of Sweden's Household and Related sector. It is interesting to note that for the first response, the majority of responses were a brand name versus a product category (51% for Strong English and 58% for Strong French Canadians). This indicates that Sweden has relatively strong brand awareness among English and French Canadian consumers residing in Montreal.

The United States

The top-of-mind mention for the United States was for the Transportation sector (46% total). In addition, most respondents identified American products by product categories (66% for Strong English and 56% for Strong French - statistically significant difference between the two sub-cultures). Moreover, a

higher proportion of French Canadians (44%) indicated Brand Names than their French counterparts (34% of French Canadians mentioned brand names). This seems to indicate that French Canadians are more brand conscious of American products than English Canadians are.

Canada

The number one top-of-mind response by English Canadians was for Canada's Agriculture and Fishing sector (27%). On the other hand, French Canadians' first top-of-mind response was for the Transportation sector (23%). As the table indicates, significant differences were found between English and French Canadians. Thus, these responses seem to indicate that the image of Canada and Canadians as "hewers of wood, drawers of water" is more present among English than French Canadian consumers. Overall, Canadian products seemed to have the lowest brand awareness among English. As for American products, French-Canadians were also found to be more brand conscious for the first top-of-mind response than the English were (34% versus 22% for Strong English Canadians).

The Evaluation of Products among Subcultures

This section will begin with a discussion of preferences among origins. Respondents' evaluations of products originating from the five principal countries (Canada, United States, Japan, Sweden, and Great Britain) will be presented first followed by the results of the additional 13 countries under investigation. It should be noted that respondents' evaluations of the 5 main countries were based on the use of 20 variables, while for the other 13 countries, 2 variables

were used. Table 9 presents English and French Canadians' overall attitude scores and rankings for products from the 5 main origins under investigation.

Table 9: Overall Means for Product Evaluations (20 Variables)

Country-of-Origin	English n=254	Rank		French n=197	Country-of-Origin
Canada	5.5	1	1	5.4	Canada
Japan	5.5	1	1	5.4	Japan
United States	5.4	3	3	4.8	United States
Great-Britain	4.6	4	4	4.3	Great-Britain
Sweden	4.5	5	4	4.3	Sweden

Correlation coefficient between English & French: 0.93
*Scale from 1(low) to 7(high)

As can be seen from Table 9 above, English-and-French- Canadians' rankings were virtually identical. Indeed, the correlation coefficient (0.93) reveals that responses are highly correlated between English and French Canadians. The English and the French gave the same ranking to Japanese and Canadian products; both these countries tied for first place. Products from the United States were ranked third by both sub-samples. While the English ranked British and Swedish products fourth and fifth respectively; the French gave these countries the same ranking, effectively tying for fourth place. In addition, the table indicates that the French gave consistently lower ratings across the countries sampled with the biggest discrepancy being the evaluation of American products (further analysis will reveal whether or not these differences are statistically significant).

Product Preferences among English Canadians

Table 10 presents English Canadians' average scores for each of the 20 variables and the overall mean score. English Canadians gave Japanese,

American and Canadian products the highest scores. Japanese products scored highest on 9 of the 20 scale items, Canadian products on 5 out of 20 and American products on 6 out of the 20.

Table 10: English Canadian Product Scores on All 20 Variables

Scale Items	Canada	Japan	US	GB	Sweden
Workmanship of products	5.6	6.0	4.7	5.4	5.7
Reliability of products	5.6	5.9	4.7	5.3	5.4
Innovativeness of products	4.4	5.2	5.1	4.5	5.0
Quality of products	5.5	5.9	4.9	5.5	5.6
After sales service	5.2	5.0	5.0	4.4	4.5
Ease of finding products	5.5	6.3	6.6	3.2	2.9
Appearance of products	5.3	5.5	5.4	4.9	5.2
Knowledge of products	5.4	4.7	5.7	3.4	2.9
Value for money	5.2	5.4	5.1	4.4	4.5
Have what I like to buy	5.4	5.4	5.7	4.2	4.2
Technical advancement of	5.0	6.3	5.7	4.2	4.8
Recognizability of brands	5.4	5.9	6.3	4.5	4.0
Variety of products	5.0	5.7	6.5	3.6	3.3
Normally buy a lot	5.5	4.4	5.7	2.7	2.3
Price level: In / Expensive	4.6	4.6	4.2	5.4	5.1
Willingness to buy	6.5	5.6	6.1	5.7	5.4
Pride in ownership of	6.4	4.9	5.1	5.2	5.1
For people like me	6.1	5.3	5.6	5.0	4.8
Overall rating of products	5.6	5.8	5.4	5.2	5.3
Satisfaction with products	5.6	5.6	5.3	5.1	4.9
Overall Mean	5.5	5.5	*5.4*	*4.6*	*4.5*

Scores could range from 1 (low) to 7 (high)
Legend: US=United States, GB=Great Britain
box Indicates highest ranking across sampled origins

In particular, English Canadians rated Japanese products highest on the following variables: technical advancement, workmanship, reliability, innovativeness, quality, appearance, value for money, and overall rating of products. Interestingly enough, even though English Canadians ranked Japanese products first in terms of "product integrity" (see Methodology section in discussion of the product variables) they ranked Japanese products last on pride of ownership. The variables that were ranked first for Canadian products

were after sales service, willingness to buy, pride in ownership, for people like me, and satisfaction with products. The lowest English Canadian ratings were given to products from Sweden (9 variables) and Great Britain. However, the one highest ranking which British products did receive was for the price level variable: British products ranked as the most expensive.

Product Preferences among French Canadians

Table 11 presents the product scores of French Canadians. Again, French Canadians' ratings of products were quite similar to English Canadians'. The most notable difference was in the rating of a country's recognizability of their brands: the French indicated that they recognized more Japanese brands, while the English recognized more American brands. Similarly to English Canadians, they also rated British products as being most expensive.

Table 11: French Canadian Product Scores on All 20 Variables

Scale Items	Canada	Japan	US	GB	Sweden
Workmanship of products	5.5	5.7	4.1	5.3	5.3
Reliability of products	5.6	5.9	4.4	5.3	5.2
Innovativeness of products	4.7	4.9	4.6	4.8	5.1
Quality of products	5.6	5.7	4.3	5.5	5.3
After sales service	5.6	5.1	4.7	4.6	4.4
Ease of finding products	5.4	6.3	6.4	3.1	2.9
Appearance of products	5.1	5.5	5.0	4.9	5.0
Knowledge of products	5.5	5.1	5.5	3.0	3.0
Value for money	5.2	5.3	4.6	4.3	4.3
Have what I like to buy	5.5	5.2	4.6	3.8	4.0
Technical advancement of	5.2	6.3	5.4	4.4	4.7
Recognizability of brands	5.2	6.0	5.5	5.0	4.2
Variety of products	4.9	6.1	6.1	3.5	3.4
Normally buy a lot	5.5	4.7	4.9	2.2	2.3
Price level: In / Expensive	4.6	4.7	4.2	5.1	4.7
Willingness to buy	6.3	5.2	4.8	4.8	4.7
Pride in ownership of	6.0	4.6	4.0	4.3	4.2
For people like me	5.9	5.0	4.6	4.3	4.3
Overall rating of products	5.7	5.7	4.7	5.2	5.0
Satisfaction with products	5.5	5.6	4.4	4.8	4.6
Overall Mean	*5.4*	*5.4*	*4.8*	*4.3*	*4.3*

Table 12 (below) presents the scores and rankings for the other thirteen countries, which were evaluated by respondents. Once again, the coefficient of correlation (0.98) between both sub-cultures reveal that English and French Canadians evaluate the countries in a similar fashion. The English ranked Germany, Holland, Australia, Norway, and France in first, second, third, fourth, and fifth place respectively, while the French ranked the same countries in first, third, fifth, fourth, and second place respectively. Both groups gave India, Mexico, and Indonesia the lowest scores.

Table 12: Overall Means for Product Evaluations (2 Variables)

Country-of-Origin	English n=251	Rank		French n=192	Country-of-Origin
Germany	5.8	1	1	5.8	Germany
Holland	5.6	2	2	5.7	France
Australia	5.3	3	3	5.1	Holland
Norway	5.2	4	4	5.0	Norway
France	5.0	5	5	4.8	Australia
Hong Kong	4.8	6	6	4.5	Spain
Spain	4.7	7	7	4.2	Greece
Israel	4.6	8	7	4.2	Hong Kong
Greece	4.3	9	9	3.9	Hungary
Hungary	4.1	10	10	3.8	Israel
India	3.6	11	11	3.4	Indonesia
Mexico	3.6	11	11	3.4	Mexico
Indonesia	3.5	13	13	3.2	India

Scores could range from 1 (low) to 7 (high)
Coefficient of correlation between English and French scores = 0.98

Table 13 presents English Canadians' ratings on the two product variables (willingness to buy and overall rating of products) for the 13 countries. In terms of willingness to buy, English Canadians rated products from Holland and Australia the highest, while for the overall rating of products, German products the second highest. English Canadians were least willing to buy products from Indonesia and gave the lowest overall rating of products to those from Israel.

Table 13: English Canadian Product Scores on 2 Variables

Scale Items	Ge	Ho	Au	No	Fr	Hk	Sp	Is	Gr	Hu	In	Mx	Id
Willingness to buy	5.6	5.7	5.7	5.3	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.7	4.8	4.4	4.0	4.0	3.7
Overall rating of products	6.0	5.4	4.9	5.2	4.9	4.7	4.4	4.5	3.9	3.8	3.1	3.2	3.4
Overall Mean	*5.8*	*5.6*	*5.3*	*5.2*	*5.0*	*4.8*	*4.7*	*4.6*	*4.3*	*4.1*	*3.6*	*3.6*	*3.5*

Legend: Ge=Germany, Ho=Holland, Au=Australia, Fr=France, Hk=Hong-Kong, Sp=Spain, Is=Israel, Gr=Greece, Hu=Hungary, Mx=Mexico, Id=Indonesia box Indicates highest ranking across sampled origins

Table 14 presents French Canadians' scores on the additional 13 countries. The rating of French products is of particular interest. French Canadians' ratings of French products ranked in first place in terms of willingness to buy, while the English' ratings of French products ranked in fifth place for the same variable. Germany received the first rank for the overall rating of its products. Like the English, the French were the least willing to buy products from Indonesia. Products from Indonesia also received the lowest overall rating.

Table 14: French Canadian Product Scores on 2 Variables

Scale Items	Ge	Fr	Ho	No	Au	Sp	Gr	Hk	Hu	Is	Id	Mx	In
Willingness to buy	5.6	5.7	5.1	5.0	4.9	4.6	4.3	4.2	4.0	3.7	3.4	3.7	3.3
Overall rating of products	6.0	5.7	5.1	5.0	4.7	4.5	4.2	4.2	3.8	3.9	3.4	3.2	3.1
Overall Mean	5.8	*5.7*	*5.1*	*5.0*	*4.8*	*4.5*	*4.2*	*4.2*	*3.9*	*3.8*	*3.4*	*3.4*	*3.2*

Legend: Ge=Germany, Ho=Holland, Au=Australia, Fr=France, Hk=Hong-Kong, Sp=Spain, Is=Israel, Gr=Greece, Hu=Hungary, Mx=Mexico, Id=Indonesia
box Indicates highest ranking across sampled origins

In order to appreciate the global evaluation of all the countries, the overall means for the first 5 countries (Great Britain, Japan, Sweden, United States, and Canada) were recalculated by only using the "Overall rating of products" and "Willingness to buy" variables. These means were then reincorporated into the overall list of countries. Table 15 below presents the results.

As can be seen, both English and French Canadians' ratings of Canadian and German products were ranked in first and second place respectively. Japanese and American products received the same score by the English, thus tying for third place.

Next, Holland and Great Britain received the fifth and sixth ranks respectively. Meanwhile, the French ranked France, Japan, and Holland in third, fourth, and fifth respectively.

Table 15: Ranking of All Countries Using 2 Product Variables

Country-of-Origin	Rank	English	French	Rank	Country-of-Origin
Canada	1	6.1	6.0	1	Canada
Germany	2	5.8	5.8	2	Germany
Japan	3	5.7	5.5	4	Japan
United States	3	5.7	4.8	8	United States
Holland	5	5.6	5.1	5	Holland
Great Britain	6	5.4	5.0	6	Great Britain
Sweden	7	5.3	4.8	8	Sweden
Australia	7	5.3	4.8	8	Australia
Norway	9	5.2	5.0	6	Norway
France	10	5.0	5.7	3	France
Hong-Kong	11	4.8	4.2	12	Hong-Kong
Spain	12	4.7	4.5	11	Spain
Israel	13	4.6	3.8	15	Israel
Greece	14	4.3	4.2	12	Greece
Hungary	15	4.1	3.9	14	Hungary
India	16	3.6	3.2	16	India
Mexico	17	3.6	3.4	16	Mexico
Indonesia	18	3.5	3.4	18	Indonesia

Coefficient of correlation: 0.92

The Evaluation of Countries and their Peoples among Subcultures

As in the previous part, this section will begin with a discussion of the various rankings of countries and their peoples. As a note, the evaluation of the five main countries (Great Britain, Sweden, the United States, Canada, and Japan) were obtained using 16 country/people variables, while 2 variables were used for the remaining 13 additional countries.

Table 16 presents the average scores and rankings of English and French Canadians' perceptions and attitudes towards the five principal countries under

investigation. As can be ascertained from the table, Canada and Canadians' ratings were ranked first by both subcultures. As might have been expected, the English gave the second highest score to Great Britain and the British, the country of their forefathers. They gave the US and Americans, and Swedes the fourth and fifth highest scores respectively.

On the other hand, the French gave the second highest score to the Swedes. Scores for the Japanese, Americans, and British ranked in third place. The coefficient of correlation (0.78) between country/people scores for the two sub-cultures reveal that they are not as highly correlated as for the product scores.

Table 16: Overall Means for Country/People Evaluations (13 Variables)

Country / People	English	Rank		French	Country / People
Canada	5.6	1	1	5.5	Canada
Great-Britain	5.4	2	2	4.9	Sweden
United States	5.2	3	3	4.8	Japan
Sweden	5.2	3	3	4.8	United States
Japan	5.0	5	3	4.8	Great-Britain
Coefficient of correlation: 0.78					

Country/People Preferences among English Canadians

Table 17 presents English Canadians' ratings and ranks of the countries and their peoples on all 16 variables. Box scores indicate the highest ranking for each particular variable across the sampled origins. English speaking respondents living in Montreal, gave the highest rating to Canada and Canadians in terms of knowledge of the country/people, its role in world politics, the "idealness" of the country, the trustworthiness, and the likeability of its

people. The only variable in which Americans received the highest score was for the perception of wealth of the country or people.

Meanwhile, the Japanese received the highest ratings for the "technological level", "possession of refined taste", "education level", and work ethic variables. The Swedes received the highest score for the "should have closer ties with" variable and the British for the political stability, alignment with Canada, welcome more investments and imports, and like to visit variables.

Table 17: English Canadian Country Scores on All 16 Variables

Scale Items	Canada	US	Japan	Sweden	GB
Knowledge of country & people	6.6	6.4	3.3	2.6	5.1
Political stability	5.4	6.0	5.2	6.0	6.1
Role in world politics	6.0	5.1	4.0	5.2	5.5
Trustworthiness of people	6.1	5.0	4.8	5.7	6.0
Wealth of the country/people	5.0	5.5	5.2	5.2	4.6
Technological level of country/people	5.4	6.2	6.5	5.2	5.0
Possession of refined taste	4.9	3.9	5.3	5.0	5.2
Should have closer ties with	NA.	4.7	4.8	5.3	5.0
Education level of people	5.2	4.7	5.8	5.4	5.2
Work ethic of people	5.0	4.7	6.0	5.1	4.7
Alignment of country with Canada	NA	5.8	4.6	4.9	5.9
Likeability of people	6.2	4.8	4.8	5.4	5.5
Ideal country	6.1	4.4	3.8	5.0	4.7
Would welcome more investment from	NA	5.1	5.2	5.7	5.9
Would welcome more imports from	NA	4.8	4.6	5.5	5.7
Would like to visit	NA	6.0	5.5	6.0	6.3
Overall Mean	*5.6*	*5.2*	*5.0*	*5.2*	*5.4*

Legend: US = United States, GB = Great Britain
box Indicates highest ranking across sampled origins
NA = These variables did not apply to Canadian respondents

Country/People Preferences among French Canadians

French Canadians gave the highest scores to Canada/Canadians on the same variables as the English. They also gave the highest average rating to Americans in terms of the wealth of its country/people and its alignment with Canada. The

Japanese received the highest average scores by the French Canadians on the following variables: technological level of its country/people, possession of refined taste, closer ties with, education level of people, and work ethic of people.

Table 18: French Canadian Country Scores on All 16 Variables

Scale Items	Canada	US	Japan	Sweden	GB
Knowledge of country & people	6.3	5.6	2.5	1.9	3.1
Political stability	5.6	5.7	5.3	5.9	5.6
Role in world politics	5.5	4.5	3.8	4.4	4.6
Trustworthiness of people	6.0	4.7	5.1	5.4	5.6
Wealth of the country/people	5.1	5.8	5.7	5.5	5.2
Technological level of country/people	5.4	6.1	6.5	5.1	4.9
Possession of refined taste	5.2	3.4	5.5	5.1	5.3
Should have closer ties with	NA	4.3	5.1	5.1	4.3
Education level of people	5.2	4.7	5.8	5.5	5.5
Work ethic of people	5.2	4.7	6.2	5.1	5.1
Alignment of country with Canada	NA	5.3	2.8	4.7	4.8
Likeability of people	5.7	4.3	4.9	5.1	4.7
Ideal country	5.6	4.1	3.7	4.8	4.0
Would welcome more investment from	NA	4.8	5.0	5.2	4.8
Would welcome more imports from	NA	3.8	3.8	4.7	4.1
Would like to visit	NA	5.6	5.8	6.0	6.0
Overall Mean	5.5	*4.8*	*4.8*	*4.9*	*4.8*

Legend: US = United States, GB = Great Britain
box Indicates highest ranking across sampled origins
NA = These variables did not apply to Canadian respondents

Table 19 below presents respondents' overall means and ranks for the remaining 13 countries. As can be ascertained from the table, both subcultures did not give each country the same ratings. English Canadians rated Australia and Australians first, while the French Canadians rated France and the French first. However, English and French Canadians' did rate four of the same countries in the top five positions, albeit in different rankings. The top countries were Australia, Holland, Norway, and Germany. Meanwhile, Mexico, Indonesia,

and India received the lowest scores by both subcultures although in different orders.

The coefficient of correlation (0.94) reveals that English and French Canadians' scores on these 13 countries are quite correlated - more so than for the previous five other countries.

Table 19: Overall Means for Country/People Evaluations (2 Variables)

Country-of-Origin	English n=251	Rank		French n=192	Country-of-Origin
Australia	5.4	1	1	5.1	France
Holland	5.2	2	2	4.8	Germany
Norway	5.0	3	3	4.7	Holland
Germany	4.5	4	3	4.7	Australia
Spain	4.2	5	3	4.7	Norway
Greece	4.1	6	6	4.3	Spain
Hong-Kong	3.9	7	7	4.1	Greece
France	3.8	8	8	3.7	Hong-Kong
Hungary	3.8	8	9	3.5	Hungary
Israel	3.6	10	10	3.4	Mexico
Mexico	3.3	11	11	3.1	Indonesia
India	3.2	12	12	2.9	Israel
Indonesia	3.0	13	12	2.9	India

Coefficient of correlation: 0.94

Table 20 presents English Canadians' scores and rankings on the "should have closer ties with, and ideal country variables". The English gave Australia/Australians the highest average score on both variables, while Indonesia received the lowest score on the latter variable and Israel on the former.

Table 20: English Country/People Scores on 2 Variables

Scale Items	Au	Ho	No	Ge	Sp	Gr	Hk	Fr	Hu	Is	Mx	In	Id
Should have closer ties with	5.6	5.4	5.0	4.8	4.5	4.4	4.4	3.9	4.2	4.1	4.0	3.8	3.5
Ideal country	5.2	5.0	4.9	4.2	4.0	3.8	3.4	3.8	3.1	2.4	2.8	2.5	2.5
Overall Mean	5.4	*5.2*	*5.0*	*4.5*	*4.2*	*4.1*	*3.9*	*3.8*	*3.8*	*3.6*	*3.3*	*3.2*	*3.0*

Legend: Ge=Germany, Ho=Holland, Au=Australia, Fr=France, Hk=Hong-Kong, Sp=Spain, Is=Israel, Gr=Greece, Hu=Hungary, Mx=Mexico, Id=Indonesia
box Indicates highest ranking across sampled origins

Table 21 presents French Canadians' scores on the same variables as above for the additional 13 countries. As could have been expected, the French gave the highest score to France on the "having closer ties with" and "ideal country" variables. The lowest score for the having closer ties with variable is shared with Indonesia, Israel, and India, while Israel received the lowest score for the ideal country variable.

Table 21: French Country/People Scores on 2 Variables

Scale Items	Fr	Ge	Ho	Au	No	Sp	Gr	Hk	Hu	Mx	Id	Is	In
Should have closer ties with	5.6	5.3	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.6	4.3	4.1	3.9	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.5
Ideal country	4.6	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.0	3.8	3.2	3.1	2.8	2.7	2.4	3.5
Overall Mean	*5.1*	*4.8*	*4.7*	*4.7*	*4.7*	*4.3*	*4.1*	*3.7*	*3.5*	*3.4*	*3.1*	*2.9*	*2.9*

Legend: Ge=Germany, Ho=Holland, Au=Australia, Fr=France, Hk=Hong-Kong, Sp=Spain, Is=Israel, Gr=Greece, Hu=Hungary, Mx=Mexico, Id=Indonesia
box Indicates highest ranking across sampled origins

As for the product evaluations, the global evaluation of all the countries and their peoples was obtained by recalculating the overall means for the first 4 countries (Great Britain, Japan, Sweden, and the United States) by only using the "should have closer ties with" and "ideal country" variables. Canada was not incorporated into the list since the variable "should have closer ties" did not

apply. These means were then reincorporated into the overall list of countries. Table 22 below presents the results.

Based on the 2-country/people variables, English Canadians rated Australia, Holland, Sweden, Norway, and Great Britain in the first five positions, while Indonesia, Israel, and India found themselves in the last three positions. On the other hand, French Canadians rated France, Sweden, Germany, Holland, and Australia in the five top positions, while also rating Indonesia, Israel, and India in the last positions.

Table 22: Ranking of All Countries Using 2 Country/People Variables

Country / People	Rank	English	French	Rank	Country / People
Canada	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Canada
Australia	1	5.4	5.1	1	France
Holland	2	5.2	5.0	2	Sweden
Sweden	3	5.1	4.8	3	Germany
Norway	4	5.0	4.7	4	Australia
Great Britain	5	4.9	4.7	4	Holland
United States	6	4.6	4.7	4	Norway
Germany	7	4.5	4.4	7	Japan
Japan	8	4.3	4.3	8	Spain
Spain	9	4.2	4.2	9	Great Britain
Greece	10	4.1	4.2	9	United States
Hong-Kong	11	3.9	4.1	11	Greece
France	12	3.8	3.7	12	Hong-Kong
Hungary	12	3.8	3.5	13	Hungary
Israel	14	3.6	3.4	14	Mexico
Mexico	15	3.3	3.1	15	Indonesia
Indonesia	16	3.0	2.9	16	Israel
India	16	3.2	2.9	16	India

Coefficient of correlation between English and French Canadians' ratings: 0.78

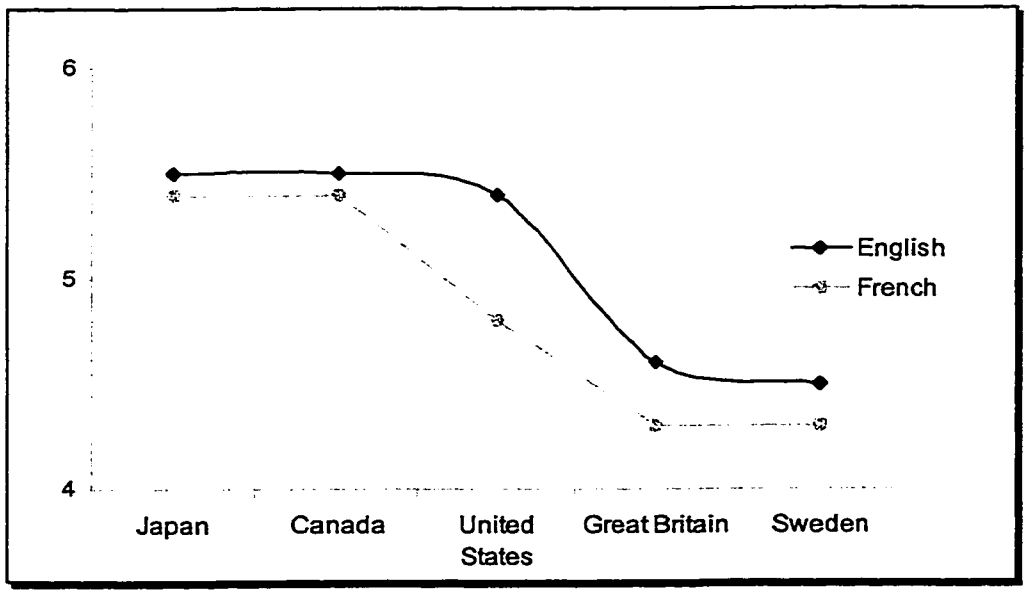
Comparing Product and Country Evaluations between Subcultures

The following section will present the comparative evaluations of foreign products and peoples between English and French Canadians. The results are for the 5 main countries (20 product and 16 country/people variables) and the additional 13 countries under investigation (2 product and 2 country/people variables). This section will be followed by a discussion of the results as they pertain to the formulated hypotheses.

Comparing English Versus French Product Evaluations

A descriptive, first glance look at the data reveals that subcultural differences exist in the evaluation of foreign products. This precursory investigation revealed that, in general, English Canadians gave higher ratings to foreign products (see Figure 9). However, are these differences statistically significant? The following section will answer this question.

Figure 9: Product Ratings – 5 Countries



Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) tests were conducted to address English and French Canadian group differences in product evaluations. In order to mitigate the effects of the age and education variables between subgroups' evaluations, these variables were included as covariates in the MANOVA analysis. The decision rule was to reject the null hypothesis if the F approximation of Wilk's lambda was significant at the 95% confidence level. Next, post hoc univariate tests were conducted to determine which variables were contributing to the overall difference, using the Bonferroni multiple comparison technique. The alpha level for each test was set at 0.008 (0.15/20, where 20 is the number of dependent variables), yielding a Bonferroni of 15%. This assures that the overall type 1 error rate for the set of t-tests will be less than 15%. A more lenient alpha level of 15% was used to enhance power. Stevens (1986) suggests maintaining an overall alpha of 15% when conducting multiple univariate tests. However, differences at the individual scale level should be treated with more caution.

Table 23 below presents the results. Significant multivariate differences were detected for products from all origins. Boxed scores indicate significant univariate differences between sub-samples.

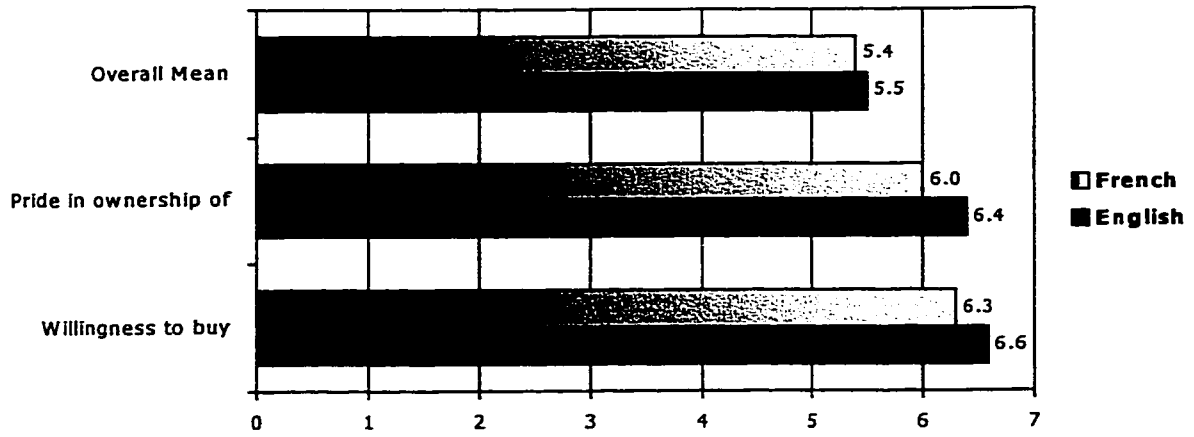
Table 23: Comparing English & French Canadians' Product Scores - 5 Countries

	Canada		Japan		US		GB		Sweden	
MANOVA F(*) ⇨	2.78*		2.89*		9.06*		6.14*		2.76*	
Scale Items	E	F	E	F	E	F	E	F	E	F
Workmanship of products	5.6	5.5	6.0	5.7	4.7	4.0	5.4	5.3	5.7	5.4
Reliability of products	5.6	5.6	5.9	5.9	4.7	4.5	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.3
Innovativeness of products	4.4	4.6	5.2	4.8	5.1	4.7	4.5	4.7	5.0	5.1
Quality of products	5.5	5.6	5.9	5.7	4.9	4.2	5.4	5.5	5.5	5.3
After sales service	5.2	5.6	5.0	5.1	5.0	4.7	4.3	4.6	4.5	4.5
Ease of finding products	5.5	5.4	6.4	6.4	6.7	6.4	3.2	3.2	2.9	2.9
Appearance of products	5.3	5.1	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.0	4.8	4.9	5.2	5.0
Knowledge of products	5.4	5.5	4.7	5.2	5.7	5.5	3.4	3.1	3.0	3.1
Value for money	5.2	5.2	5.4	5.3	5.1	4.6	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.3
Have what I like to buy	5.4	5.5	5.4	5.2	5.7	4.6	4.2	3.8	4.2	4.1
Technical advancement of	5.0	5.1	6.3	6.3	5.6	5.5	4.2	4.4	4.8	4.8
Recognizability of brands	5.3	5.3	6.0	6.0	6.3	5.5	4.5	5.0	4.0	4.3
Variety of products	5.0	5.0	5.8	6.0	6.5	6.0	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.4
Normally buy a lot	5.5	5.5	4.4	4.8	5.7	4.9	2.7	2.2	2.3	2.3
Price level: In / Expensive	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.7	4.2	4.2	5.4	5.1	5.1	4.7
Willingness to buy	6.6	6.3	5.6	5.2	6.1	4.8	5.6	4.7	5.4	4.7
Pride in ownership of	6.4	6.0	4.9	4.6	5.1	4.0	5.1	4.4	5.1	4.3
For people like me	6.1	5.9	5.3	5.0	5.6	4.7	5.0	4.4	4.8	4.4
Overall rating of products	5.6	5.7	5.8	5.7	5.4	4.7	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.0
Satisfaction with products	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.2	4.5	5.0	4.9	4.9	4.7
Overall Mean	*5.5*	*5.4*	*5.5*	*5.4*	*5.4*	*4.9*	*4.6*	*4.3*	*4.6*	*4.4*

Scores could range from 1 (low) to 7 (high)
*All MANOVA tests significant at p<0.000
Legend: US=United States, GB=Great Britain, E=English, F=French
box Indicates significant univariate differences at the 0.008 level

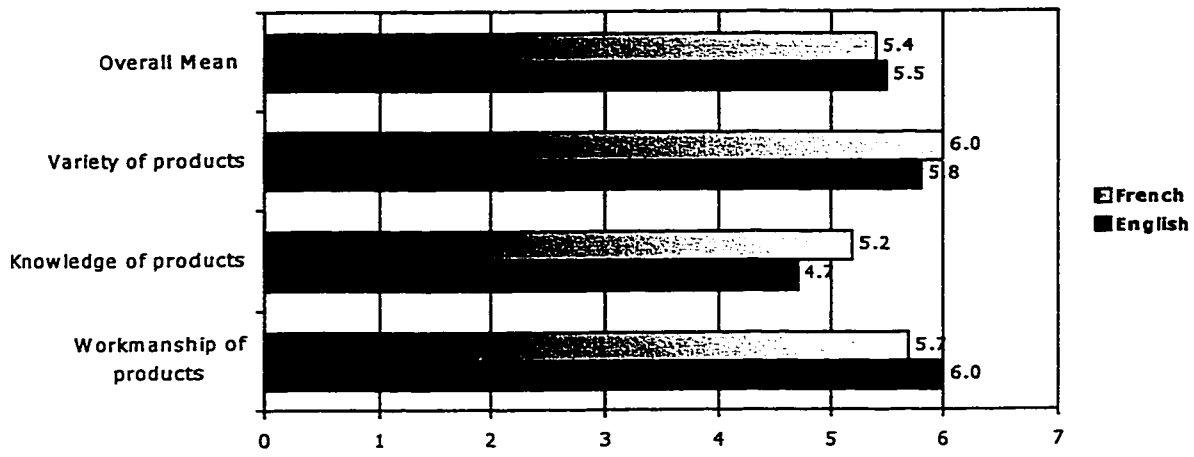
The following figures present which variables were found to contribute to the multivariate difference between English and French Canadians' for each country.

Figure 10: Significant Differences for Canadian Products



For products from Canada, English Canadians tend to be more willing to buy Canadian products and demonstrate more pride in owning Canadian products than French Canadians do.

Figure 11: Significant Differences for Japanese Products

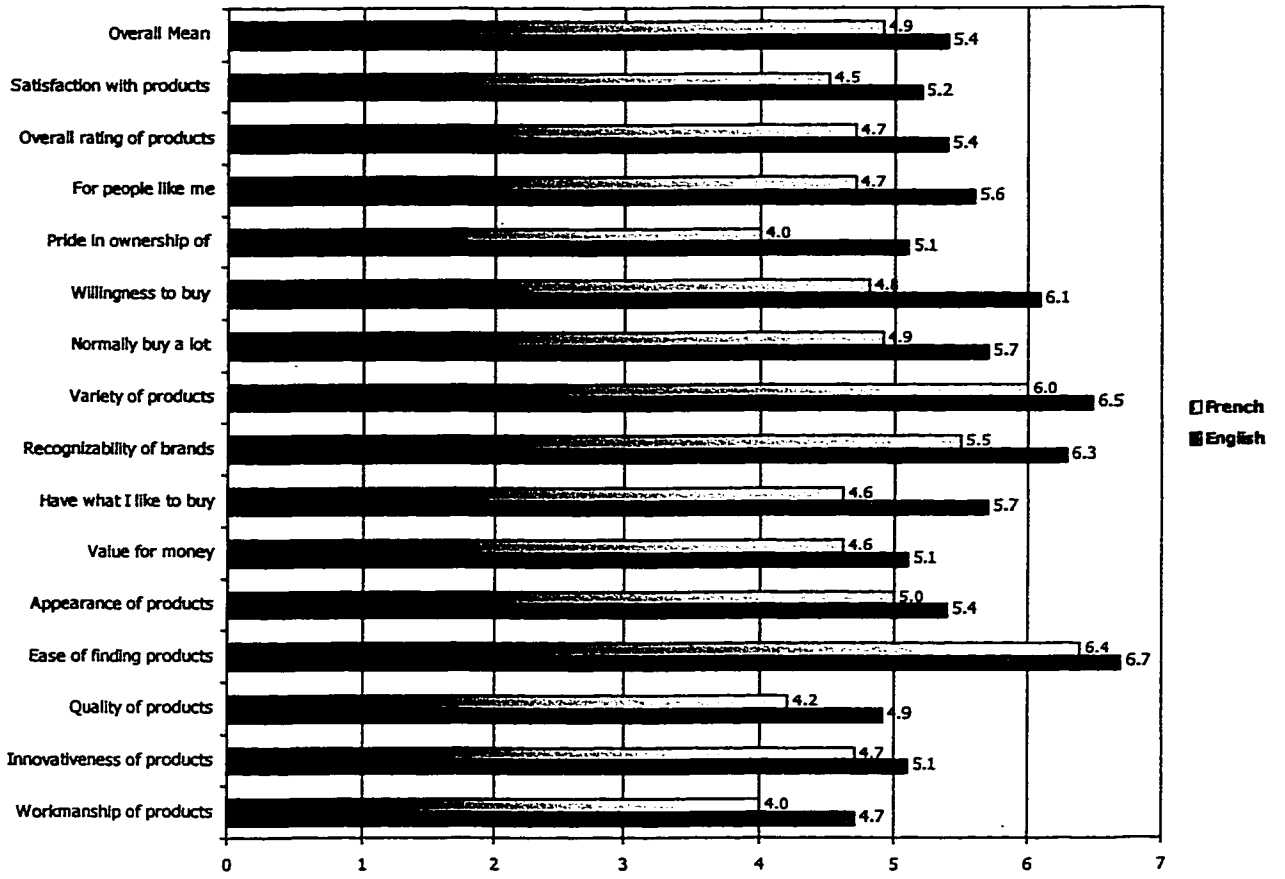


For Japanese products, English Canadians tend to believe that these products have better workmanship than their French counterparts. Meanwhile, French Canadians believe that they posses more knowledge about Japanese

products and tend to think that there is more of a good variety of Japanese products in the market than English Canadians do.

Table 23 reveals that the product-country with the most variance among sub-cultures was the United States (F=9.06) - statistically significant results are presented graphically below.

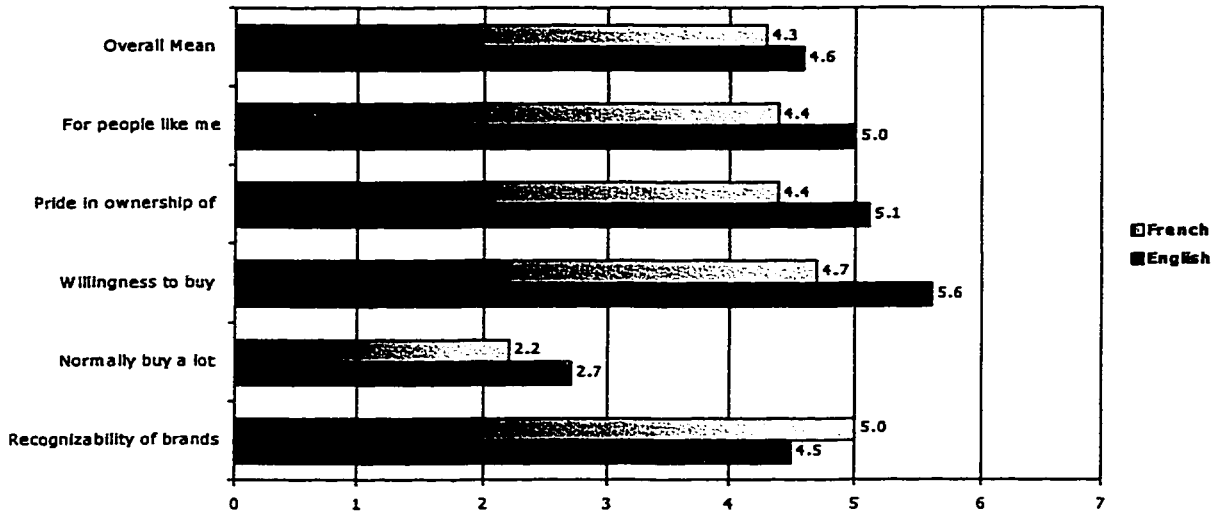
Figure 12: Significant Differences for American Products



English Canadians, when compared to French Canadians, tend to believe that American products posses better workmanship, are more innovative, are of better quality, are easier to find, have a better value for the money, and have a nicer appearance. In addition, English Canadians, when compared to their

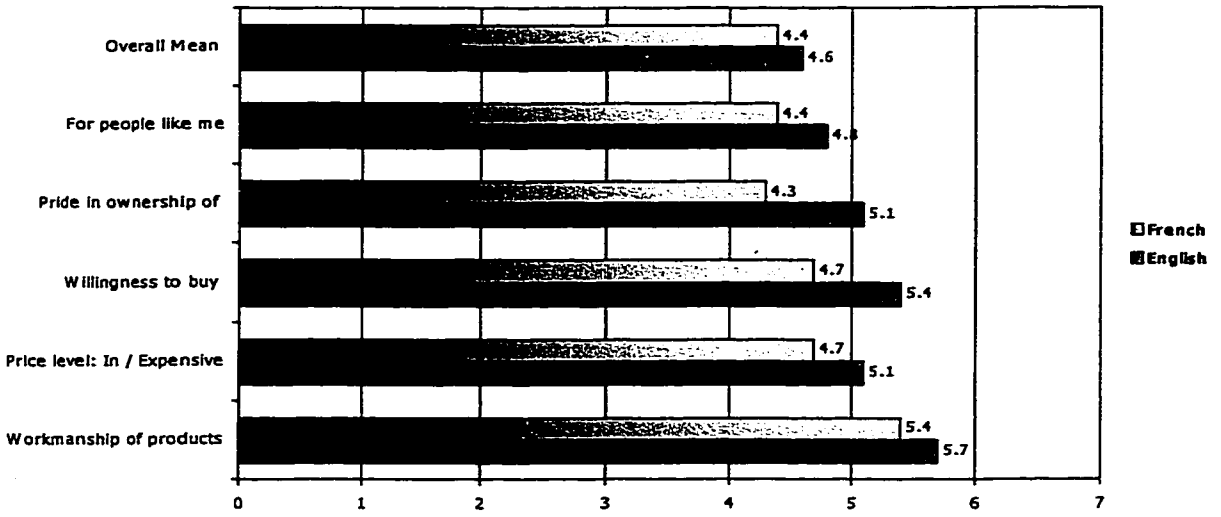
French counterparts, state that American products have more of what they like to buy; are of the opinion that American brands are more recognizable, believe that American products have a better variety, and state that they more often normally buy a lot of these products. Moreover, English Canadians appear to be more willing to buy, are more proud, feel that American products are for people like them, give a higher overall rating, and are more satisfied with American products than French Canadians are.

Figure 13: Significant Differences for British Products



Interestingly, for products from Great Britain, French Canadians feel that they can more easily recognize British products than their English Canadian counterparts can. However, English Canadians are more willing to buy, are prouder in owning, feel that British products are more for people like them, and give a higher overall rating to British products.

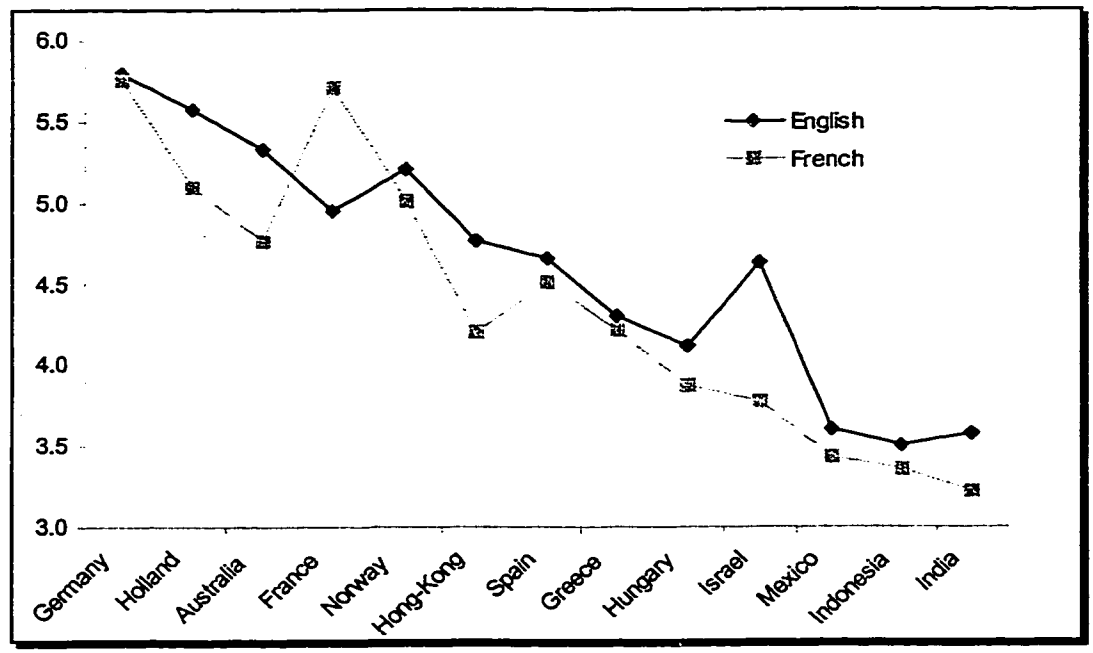
Figure 14: Significant Differences for Swedish Product



For products from Sweden, English Canadians tend to indicate that Swedish products are less expensive, more willing to buy, show more pride in owning, and are more for people like them than French Canadians indicate.

Figure 15 illustrates the overall product ratings for the additional 13 countries using the two product variables: "overall rating of products" and "willingness to buy".

Figure 15: Product Ratings - 13 Countries



MANOVA tests were also conducted on the additional 13 countries to determine whether the differences between subcultures were significant. Using the Bonferroni multiple comparison technique, post hoc univariate tests were conducted to determine which variables were contributing to the overall multivariate difference. For these countries, the alpha level for each test was set at 0.08 (0.15/2).

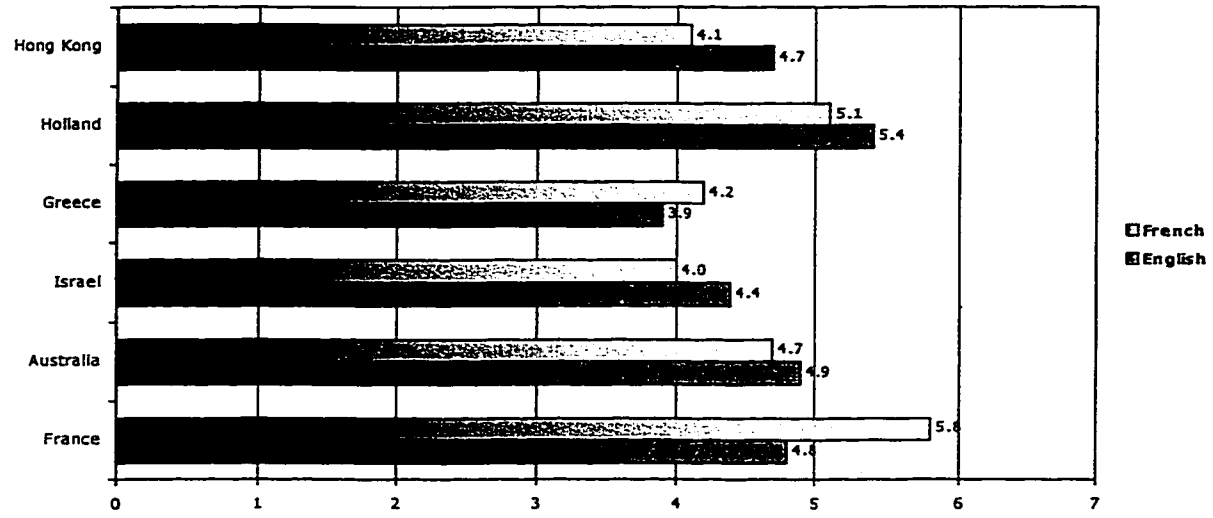
Table 24 presents the multivariate differences. With the exception of Germany and Mexico, significant differences were detected for all countries. Boxed scores indicate the variable(s), which contributed to the multivariate difference.

Table 24: Comparing English & French Canadian Product Scores – 13 Countries

Country-of-Origin	MANOVA F(*)	*Overall Mean*		Overall Rating of Products		Willingness to Buy	
		English	*French*	English	French	English	French
France	28.6*	*5.0*	*5.8*	4.8	5.8	5.1	5.7
Australia	22.6*	*5.3*	*4.8*	4.9	4.7	5.7	4.9
Israel	18.7*	*4.6*	*3.9*	4.4	4.0	4.7	3.7
Greece	15.8*	*4.4*	*4.3*	3.9	4.2	4.8	4.3
India	12.2*	*3.6*	*3.3*	3.1	3.1	4.0	3.4
Holland	11.5*	*5.6*	*5.2*	5.4	5.1	5.7	5.2
Hong Kong	10.2*	*4.8*	*4.2*	4.7	4.1	4.9	4.2
Hungary	10.0*	*4.1*	*3.9*	3.8	3.8	4.4	4.0
Spain	9.0*	*4.7*	*4.6*	4.4	4.5	4.9	4.6
Indonesia	4.8*	*3.5*	*3.4*	3.3	3.4	3.7	3.4
Norway	3.2*	*5.2*	*5.1*	5.1	5.1	5.3	5.0
Mexico	2.5	*3.6*	*3.5*	3.2	3.2	4.0	3.7
Germany	0.56	*5.8*	*5.8*	6.0	6.0	5.6	5.6

* Indicates significant multivariate differences at the 0.05 level
box Indicates significant univariate differences at the 0.08 level

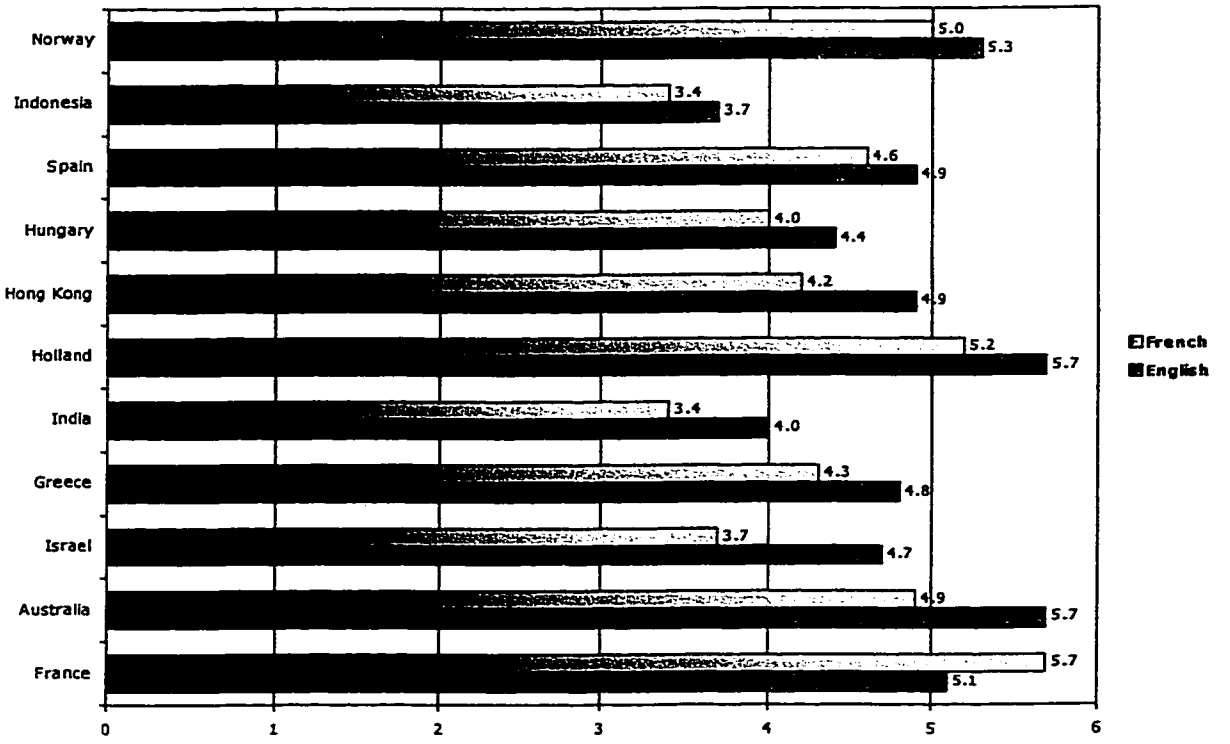
Figure 16: Significant Differences Across Countries for the "Overall Rating of Products" Variable



For products from France, it comes as no surprise to see that French Canadians give a higher mean score to the "Overall rating of products" variable than English Canadians do. In addition, French Canadians give a higher mean

score to Greece on the same "Overall rating" variable" than English Canadians do. However, English Canadians, when compared to their French counterparts, give a higher mean score on the "Overall rating of products" variable to the following countries: Hong Kong, Holland, Israel and Australia.

Figure 17: Significant Differences Across Countries for the "Willing to Buy" Variable



For products from France, it also comes as no surprise to see that French Canadians are more willing to buy French products than English Canadians are. However, English Canadians are more willing to buy products from Australia, Israel, Greece, India, Holland, Hong Kong, Hungary, Spain, Indonesia and Norway.

Comparing English Vs French Country/People Evaluations

As Figure 18 reveals, differences between both subcultures also exist for the evaluation of countries and their peoples.

Figure 18: English Vs French Country Ratings - 5 Countries

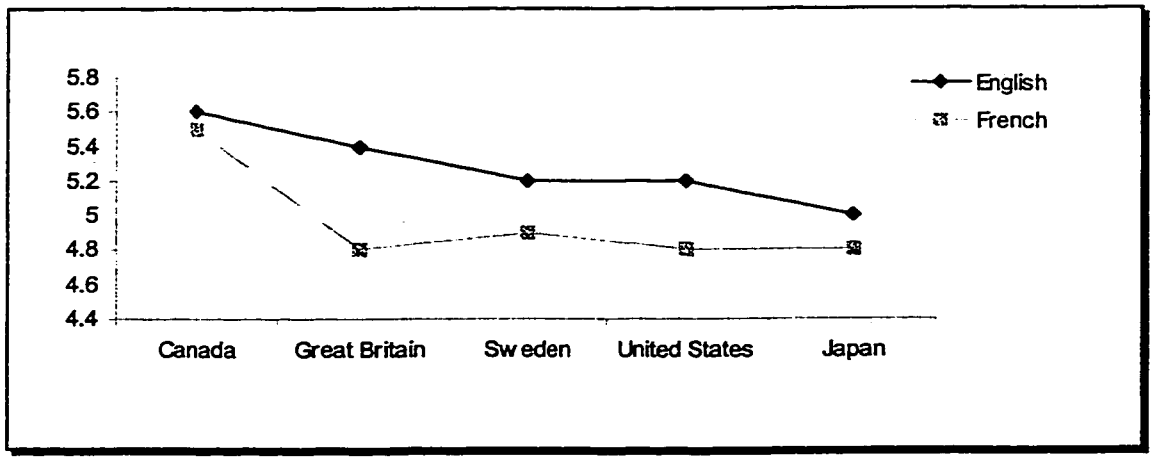


Table 25 reveals whether these differences in attitudes and perceptions are statistically significant at the 0.05 level, using multivariate analysis of variance. Boxed scores demonstrate the variables that contributed to the overall multivariate differences. Again, this was determined by using the Bonferroni multiple comparison technique. The alpha level for each test was set at 0.009 (0.15/16).

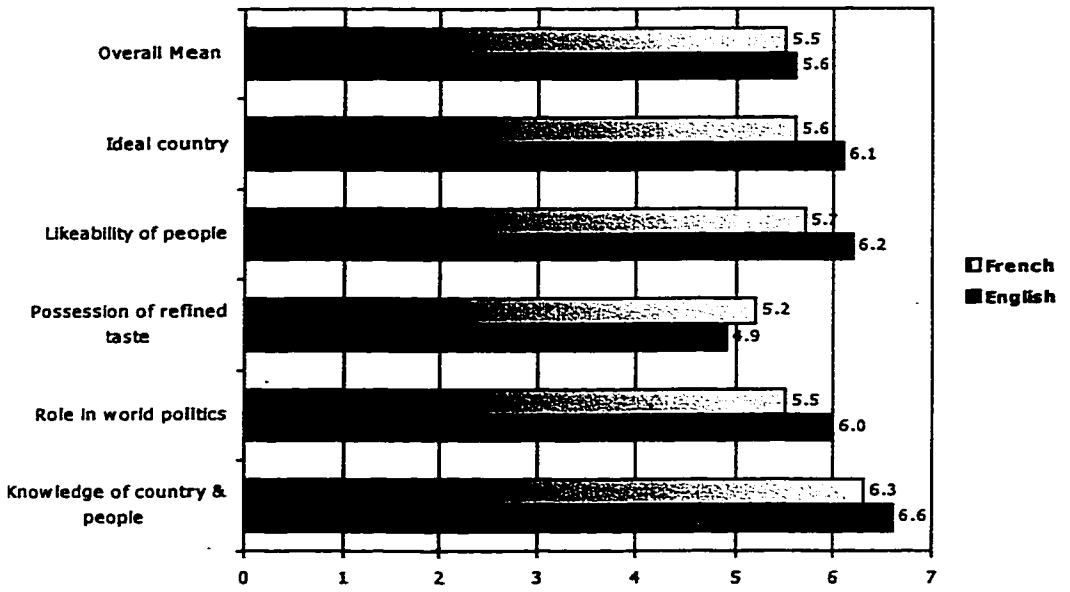
Table 25: English & French Canadian Ratings' of Countries/Peoples

MANOVA F (*) ⇨	Canada 7.8*		Japan 17.0*		US 8.4*		GB 22.6*		Sweden 7.6*	
Scale Items	E	F	E	F	E	F	E	F	E	F
Knowledge of country & people	6.6	6.3	3.3	2.5	6.4	5.6	5.1	3.2	2.6	1.9
Political stability	5.4	5.6	5.2	5.3	6.0	5.7	6.1	5.6	6.0	5.9
Role in world politics	6.0	5.5	4.0	3.8	5.1	4.5	5.5	4.6	5.2	4.4
Trustworthiness of people	6.1	6.0	4.8	5.1	5.0	4.7	6.0	5.7	5.7	5.4
Wealth of the country/people	5.0	5.1	5.2	5.7	5.5	5.8	4.7	5.1	5.2	5.5
Technological level of country	5.4	5.4	6.5	6.5	6.2	6.1	5.0	4.9	5.2	5.1
Possession of refined taste	4.9	5.2	5.3	5.5	3.9	3.4	5.2	5.3	5.0	5.1
Should have closer ties with	NA	NA	4.8	5.1	4.7	4.3	5.0	4.3	5.3	5.1
Education level of people	5.2	5.2	5.8	5.8	4.7	4.7	5.2	5.5	5.4	5.5
Work ethic of people	5.0	5.2	6.0	6.2	4.7	4.7	4.7	5.1	5.1	5.1
Alignment of country with Canada	NA	NA	4.6	2.8	5.8	5.3	5.9	4.8	4.9	4.7
Likeability of people	6.2	5.7	4.8	4.9	4.8	4.3	5.5	4.8	5.4	5.1
Ideal country	6.1	5.6	3.8	3.7	4.4	4.1	4.7	4.1	5.0	4.8
Welcome more investment from	NA	NA	5.2	5.0	5.1	4.8	5.9	4.8	5.7	5.2
Welcome more imports from	NA	NA	4.6	3.8	4.8	3.8	5.7	4.1	5.5	4.7
Would like to visit	NA	NA	5.5	5.8	6.0	5.6	6.4	6.0	6.0	6.0
Overall Mean	*5.6*	*5.5*	*5.0*	*4.8*	*5.2*	*4.8*	*5.4*	*4.9*	*5.2*	*4.9*

Scores could range from 1 (low) to 7 (high)
*All MANOVA tests significant at p<0.000
Legend: US=United States, GB=Great Britain, E=English, F=French
box Indicates significant univariate differences at the 0.009 level

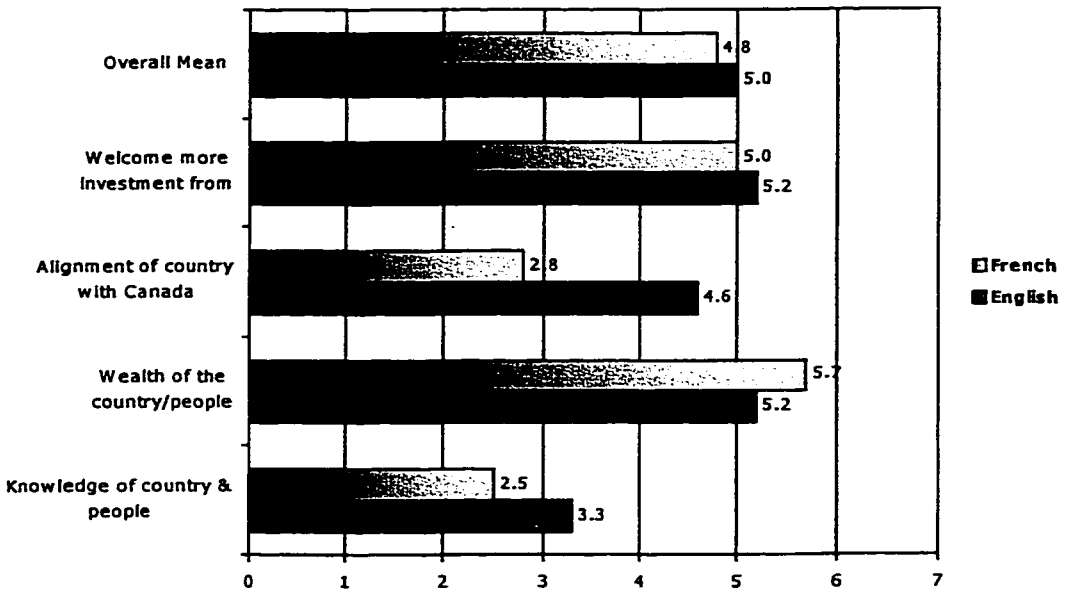
The following figures present the univariate variables, which were found to contribute to the multivariate difference between both subcultures for each sampled origin.

Figure 19: Significant Differences for Canada & Canadians



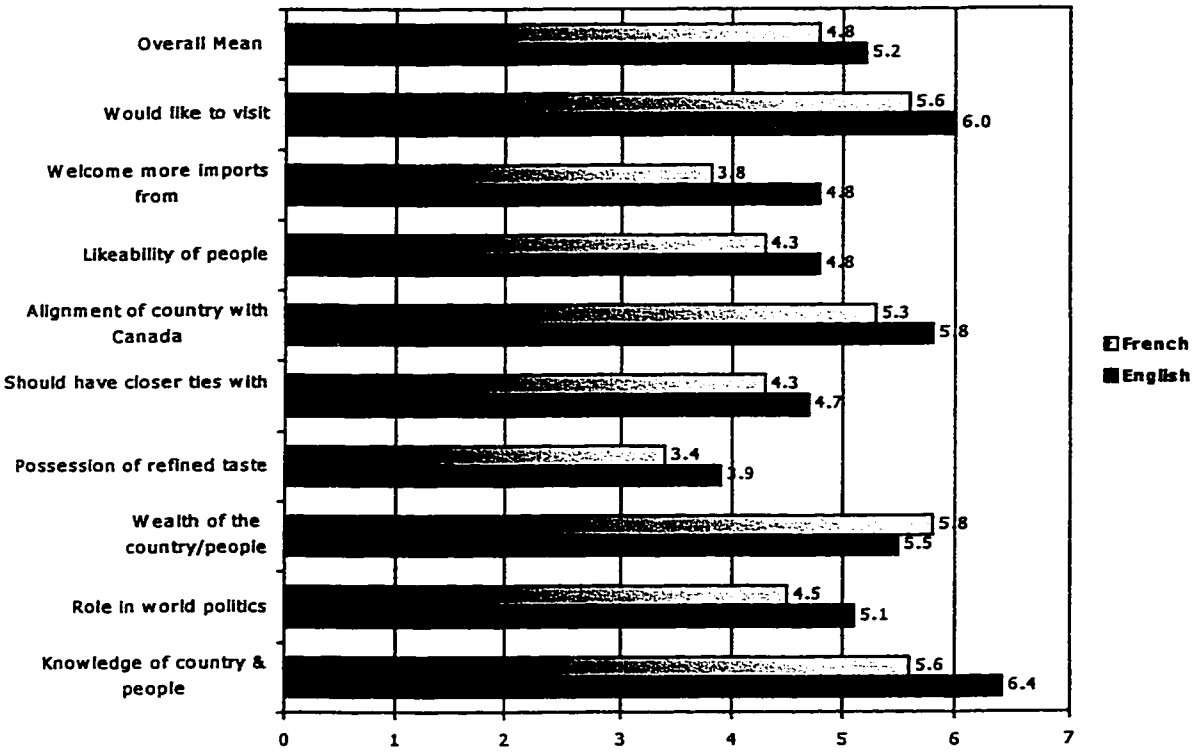
As figure 19 indicates, English Canadians, when compared to French Canadians, tend to indicate that they know more about Canada and Canadians, that Canada plays a more admirable role in world politics, that Canadians are a more likeable people, and that Canada is more of an ideal country. However, French Canadians believe that Canadians posses more of a refined taste than English Canadians do.

Figure 20: Significant Differences for Japan & the Japanese



Results reveal that English Canadians believe that they posses more knowledge about Japan and the Japanese, although scores on this variable were quite low for both sub-cultures. In addition, English Canadians believe that Japan is more aligned with Canada and English Canadians would welcome more imports from Japan than their French counterparts would.

Figure 21: Significant Differences for the United States & the Americans



For the evaluation of the United States and Americans, English Canadians, when compared to French Canadians, believe that they have a greater level of knowledge of the country and its people, believe that the US plays a more admirable role in world politics and that Americans possess more refined taste. Furthermore, English Canadians also believe that Canada should have closer ties with the US, that Canada is more closely aligned with the US, that Americans are a more likeable people, would welcome more imports from the US, and would like to visit the US more than their French Canadian counterparts would. However, French Canadians do believe that Americans and the US are richer than English Canadians do.

Figure 22: Significant Differences for Great Britain & the British

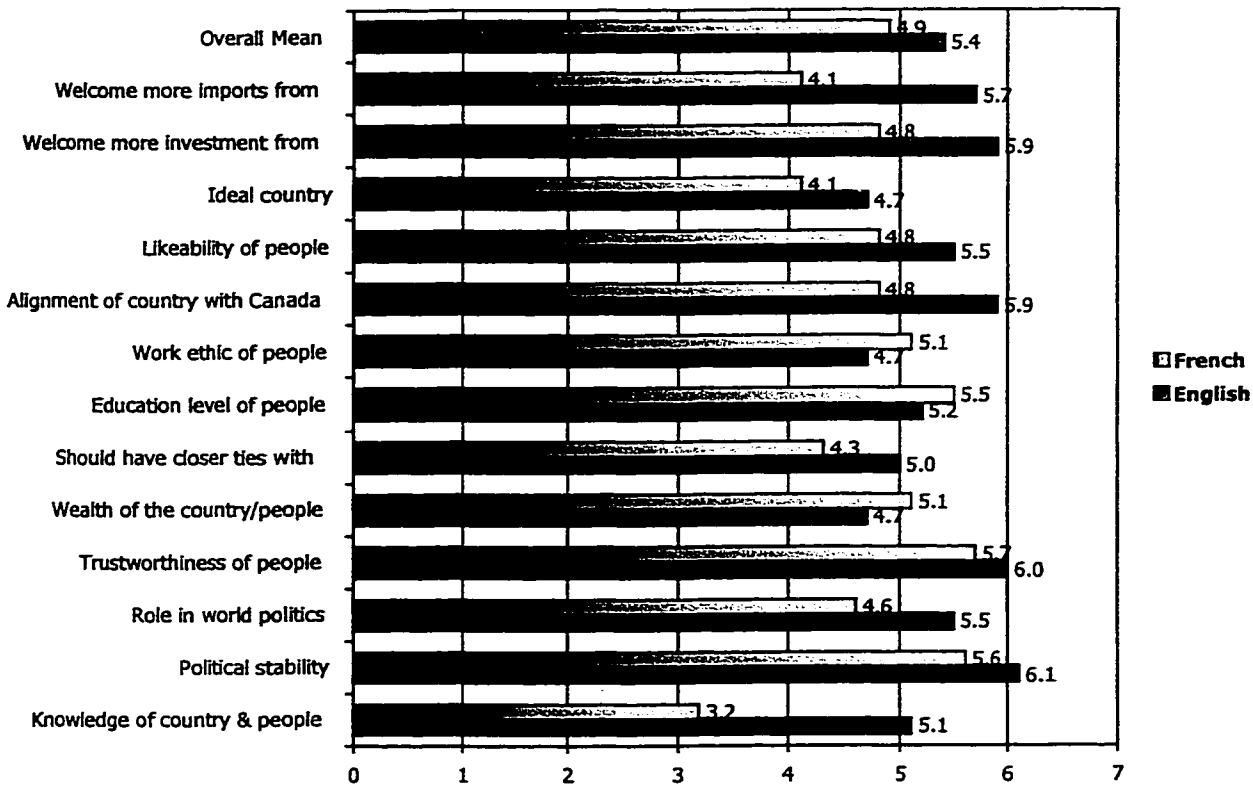
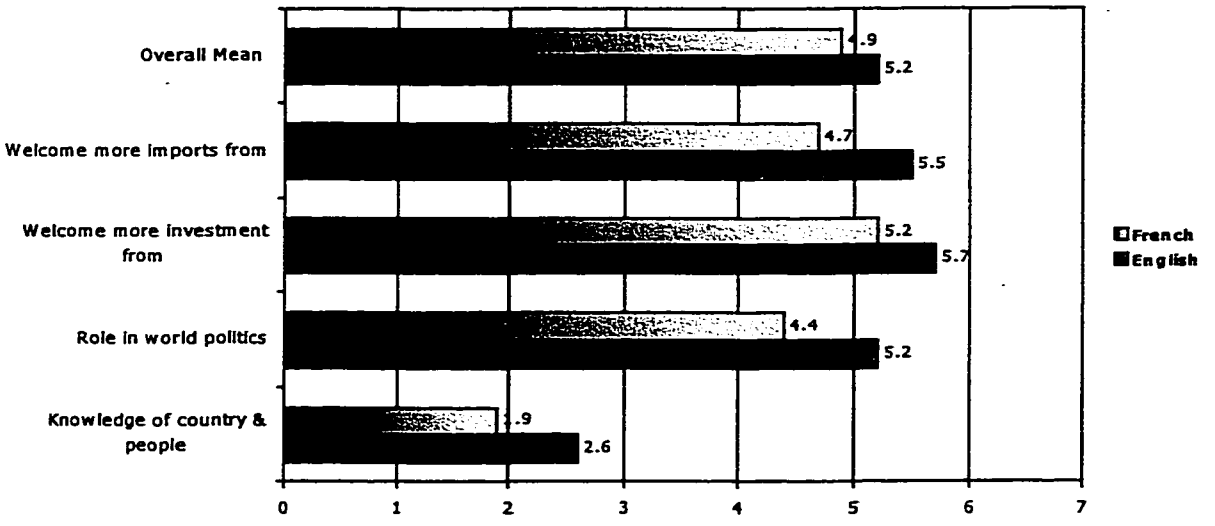


Figure 22 above reveals all the variables, which were found to contribute to the overall multivariate difference between both sub-cultures for the evaluation of Britain and the British. English Canadians indicate that they know more about Britain and the British, believe that Britain is more politically stable, that Britain has a more admirable role in world politics, and that Britons are a more trustworthy people than French Canadians do. In addition English Canadians believe that there should be closer ties with Britain and its people, that Canada is more closely aligned with Britain, and that Britons are a more likeable people. Moreover, English Canadians believe that Britain is more of an ideal country, and that they wold welcome more investments and imports from Britain. Meanwhile,

French Canadians give a higher work ethic score to Britons and hold the perception that Britons are a more educated people.

Figure 23: Significant Differences for Sweden & the Swedes



As for Sweden and the Swedes, Figure 23 above reveals that significant differences were found for four variables. English Canadians would welcome more imports and investments from Sweden, believe that Sweden plays a more admirable role in world politics, and that they claim that they know more about the country and its people than French Canadians do.

As Figure 24 below reveals, differences in the evaluation of the additional 13 countries and their peoples also exist between both subcultures.

Figure 24: English Vs French Country/People Scores – 13 Countries

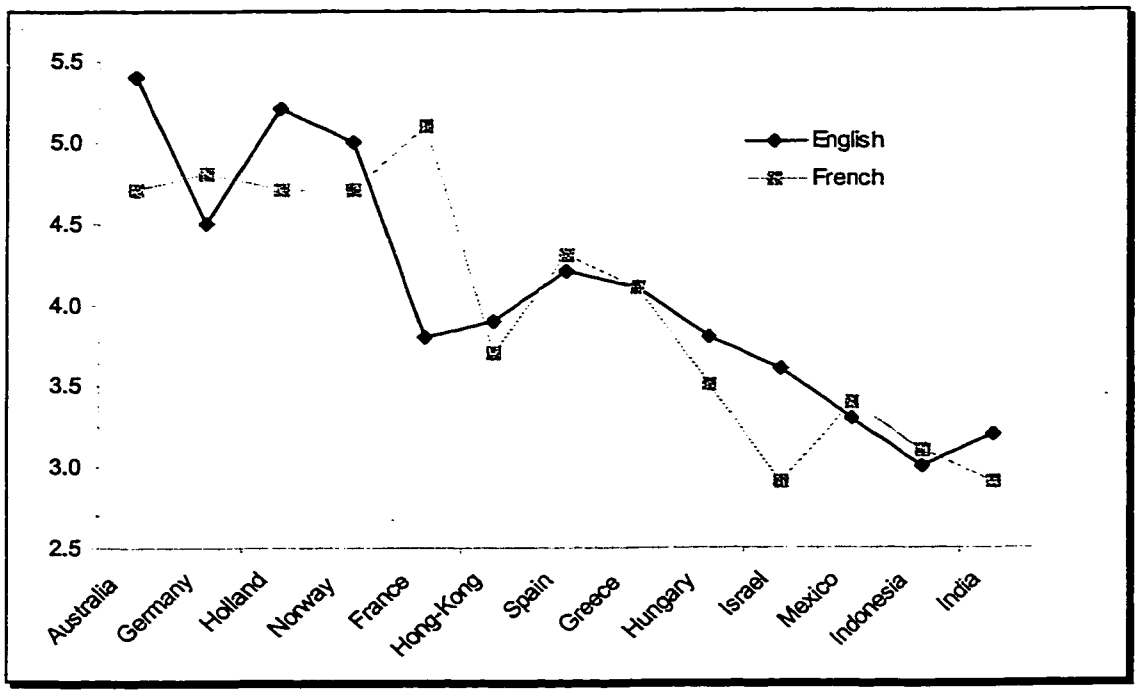


Table 26 presents the results of the MANOVA and Bonferroni tests of significance for the 13 countries. The alpha level for the univariate tests was set at 0.08 (0.15/2).

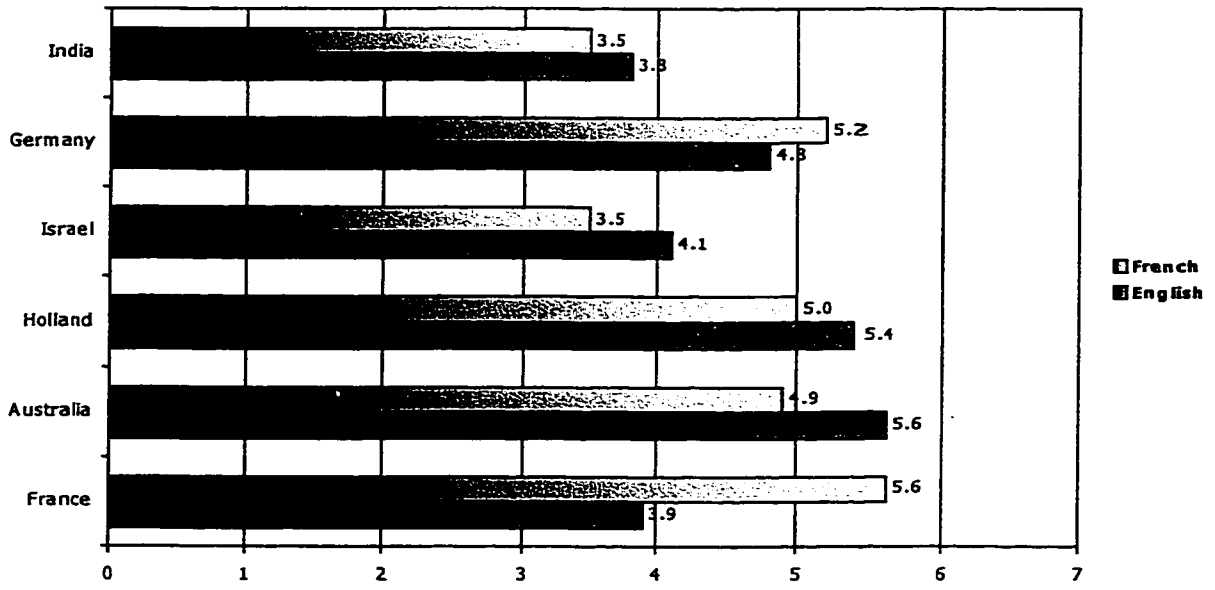
Table 26: English Vs French Country/People Ratings – 13 Countries

Country / People	MANOVA F(*)	*Overall Mean*		Should have closer ties with		Ideal country	
		English	*French*	English	French	English	French
France	68.1*	*3.9*	*5.1*	3.9	5.6	3.8	4.6
Australia	24.1*	*5.4*	*4.8*	5.6	4.9	5.2	4.6
Holland	12.0*	*5.2*	*4.8*	5.4	5.0	5.0	4.5
Israel	9.1*	*3.6*	*3.0*	4.1	3.5	3.0	2.4
Germany	6.1*	*4.6*	*4.8*	4.8	5.2	4.3	4.3
Norway	6.0*	*5.0*	*4.8*	5.0	5.0	4.9	4.5
India	2.4	*3.2*	*3.0*	3.8	3.5	2.5	2.4
Hong Kong	2.3	*3.9*	*3.7*	4.4	4.1	3.4	3.2
Mexico	2.3	*3.3*	*3.4*	4.0	4.0	2.5	2.8
Hungary	2.0	*3.8*	*3.6*	4.2	4.0	3.3	3.1
Indonesia	1.1	*3.0*	*3.1*	3.5	3.5	2.5	2.7
Greece	0.75	*4.1*	*4.1*	4.4	4.3	3.8	3.8
Spain	0.31	*4.3*	*4.3*	4.5	4.6	4.0	4.0

* Indicates significant multivariate differences at the 0.05 level
box Indicates significant univariate differences at the 0.08 level

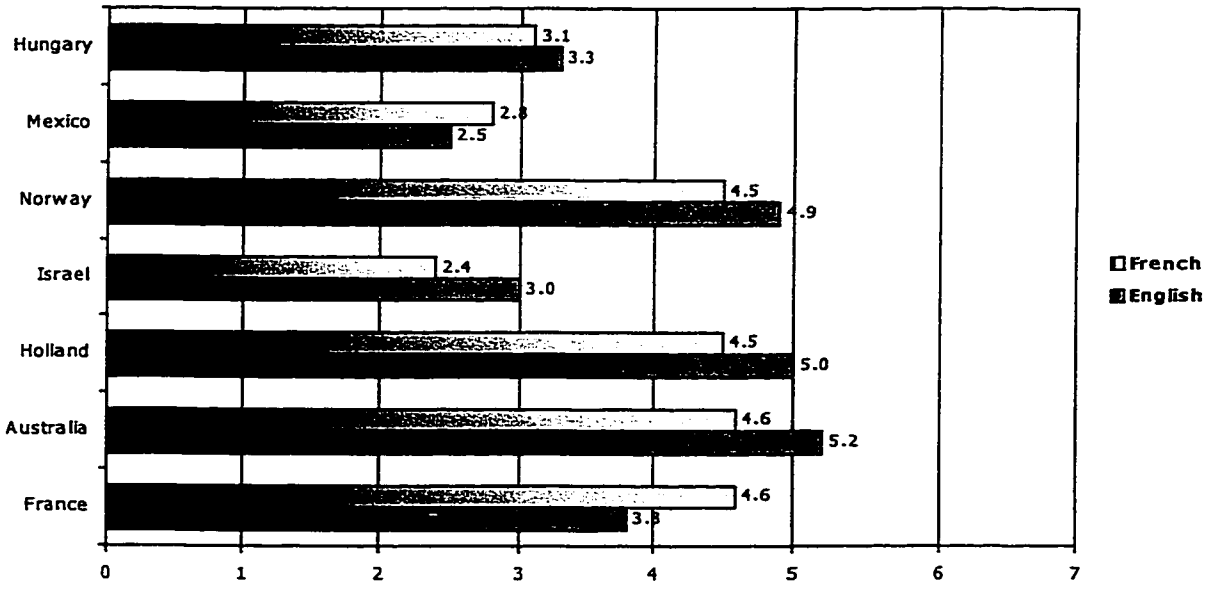
Significant multivariate differences were detected for 6 of the 13 countries: France, Australia, Holland, Israel, Germany, and Norway. The following figures present the univariate variables, which contributed to the multivariate difference between both subcultures.

Figure 25: Significant Differences for the "Should Have Closer Ties With" Variable



English Canadians tend to believe that Canada should have closer ties with Australia, Holland, Israel, and India. However, French Canadians indicate that Canada should have closer ties with Germany and France.

Figure 26: Significant Differences for the "Ideal Country" Variable



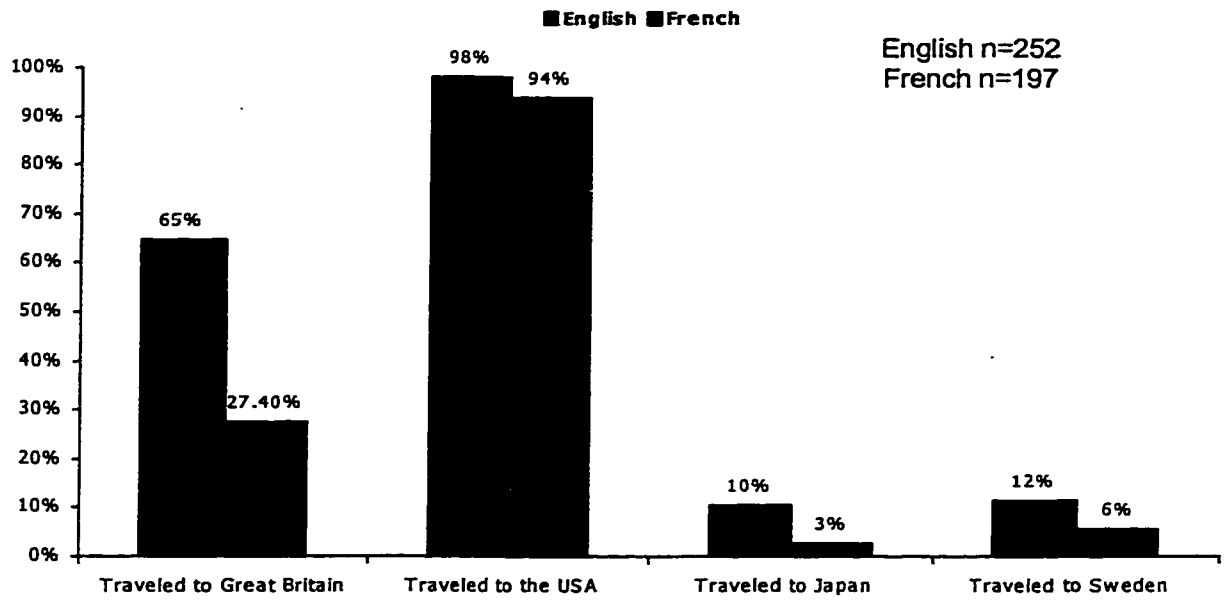
Of the remaining 13 countries under investigation, English Canadians think that Australia is the most ideal country while French Canadians give France the highest score on this variable. Moreover, English Canadians give higher scores to Holland, Israel, Norway, and Hungary on this same attribute and French Canadians give a higher to score to Mexico on the "ideal country" variable, albeit both sub-cultures give low scores.

The Role of Travel on Product & Country Evaluations

The literature has revealed that travel to a foreign country has an impact on consumers' product evaluations of the countries under investigation. Papadopoulos and Heslop (1986) studied the effect that travel to a foreign country may have on consumer evaluations of that country's products. Comparing the evaluations of Canadian consumers who had visited the country whose products they were evaluating with those who had not, they found that visiting a country "reduces the gap between the more global, prevailing public image of the country and specific national product capabilities".

Participants in this study were asked whether they had traveled to Great Britain, the United States, Japan, and Sweden. Figure 27 below reveals that a significantly higher proportion of English Canadians than French Canadians have visited Great Britain, approximately the same proportion of English and French Canadians alike have traveled to the US, and slightly more English than French Canadians have traveled to Japan and Sweden.

Figure 27: Comparing English & French Canadians' Travel Experiences



Results from this study confirm previous research that travel experience does effect consumers' evaluations of products from those countries, which have been visited. As the table below reveals, significant differences were uncovered for products from Great Britain, Japan, and the United States. Those participants who traveled to these countries gave significantly more favorable product scores than those who had not visited the three above-mentioned countries.

Product Evaluations for Those Having Visited a Particular Country

Products Score	*Traveled To*	
	No	*Yes*
Great Britain	[5.0]	[5.3]
Japan	[5.6]	[5.9]
Sweden	5.1	5.5
USA	[5.1]	[5.3]

Boxed scores represent statistically significant differences at the 95% confidence level

Furthermore, differences were also uncovered for consumers' country/people evaluations based on their travel experience. Those English and French Canadian respondents who had visited Great Britain, Japan and Sweden were more likely to give higher country/people evaluations than those who had not.

Country/People Evaluations for Those Having Visited a Particular Country

Country/People Score	*Traveled To*	
	No	*Yes*
Great Britain	*4.9*	*5.3*
Japan	*4.9*	*5.2*
Sweden	*5.0*	*5.4*
USA	*4.8*	*5.0*

The following section discusses the hypothesis testing and analysis.

Hypothesis Testing and Analysis

Hypothesis 1: Subcultural Differences

To recall this principal hypothesis, it states that subcultural differences between English & French Canadians exist in the evaluation of foreign countries and their products. The multivariate analyses of all countries (including product and country/people scales) revealed that significant differences exist at the $\alpha \leq 0.05$ level, although not for all countries. For the evaluation of products, differences were detected between subcultures for 16 of the 18 countries sampled (see Table 23 and Table 24). For the evaluation of countries and their peoples, differences were detected for 11 of the 18 (see Table 25 and Table 26). Thus, the null hypothesis of no difference in the evaluation of countries *and* their

products between the subcultural groups was rejected. Thus, the overall objective of this study has been confirmed; English and French Canadians' attitudes and perceptions towards foreign countries and their products do differ.

Most previous research on COO have implicitly assumed that homogenous consumer groups exist with the nations under investigation. Padmanabhan (1988) has stated that this is a fallacy; this research supports the statement.

Having confirmed that subcultural differences do exist in the evaluation of foreign people and products, the results of the directional hypotheses will be explored next. Hypothesis1(i) to hypothesis1(v) are based on the ethnic, and cultural affiliations that English and French Canadians share with the countries in question.

Hypothesis 1(i): Great Britain, the British and British Products

This hypothesis predicted that English Canadians' evaluation of Great Britain, the British and their products would be more favorable than French Canadians' evaluations. The multivariate analysis of variance of French and English Canadians' ratings of Great Britain, the British and British products was significant at the $\alpha \leq 0.05$ level. Thus, the null hypothesis of no difference between subcultural groups was rejected.

For the evaluation of British products, the MANOVA test indicated a significant multivariate difference between both subcultures [F(20, 372)=6.1, p=0.000]. English Canadians gave a higher overall mean rating of 4.6, compared with a rating of 4.3 for French Canadians. The univariate tests indicated that 5 of

the 20 variables were contributing to the overall multivariate significance (Table 25). English Canadians indicated significantly higher ratings on the following variables: normally buy a lot, willingness to buy, pride in ownership, and for people like me. These results can most likely be attributed to English Canadians former colonial ties with Great Britain. Interestingly enough, French Canadians gave higher ratings for the recognizability of brands variable. One would have expected that English Canadians would have been more likely to recognize British brands. Perhaps this is due to the fact that French Canadians are more brand sensitive (Kindra, Laroche, & Muller 1994) or they might be overconfident in their ability to recognize British brands.

These results are in line with the literature review where Heslop, Papadopoulos, and Bourk (1998) also discovered that English Canadians gave significantly more positive ratings to British products (their sample consisted of English and French Canadians residing in the Ottawa-Hull region). However, they did not measure subcultural differences in the evaluation of Great Britain and the British. The results for these subcultural differences follow.

For the evaluation of Great Britain and the British, the MANOVA test also revealed a significant multivariate difference between subcultures [$F(16, 413)=22.6$, $p=0.000$]. The overall mean for English Canadians for the country/people scales was 5.4, considerably higher than the overall mean of 4.9 for the French. The univariate tests indicated that 13 of the 16 variables were contributing to the overall multivariate significance (Table 25). English Canadians gave higher ratings to the following variables: knowledge of country & people,

political stability, role in world politics, trustworthiness of people, should have closer ties with, alignment of country with Canada, likeability of people, ideal country, would welcome more investments from, and would welcome more imports from.

Surprisingly, French Canadians gave higher ratings to 3 of the 13 significant variables; these included wealth of country/people, education level of people, and the work ethic of people. The literature may provide an explanatory reasons for French Canadians' higher rating of these three variables. Differences in travel to Great Britain among both subcultures might be the explanatory variable. A significantly higher proportion of English than French Canadians visited Great Britain. The literature has demonstrated that travel to a country influences peoples' evaluation of that particular country. Papadopoulos and Heslop (1986) have stated that visiting a country "reduces the gap between the more global, prevailing public image of the country and specific national product capabilities. For example, consumers who had not visited Japan tended to have a particularly high regard for Japan's electronic and automotive products, consistent with the public image of Japan emphasizing its strengths in technology and manufacturing quality". Thus, since English Canadians are more likely to have visited Great Britain, they might exhibit a more "realistic" perception of Great Britain on the three variables in question and French Canadians might be more "impressed" by the Britons' education, wealth, and work ethic.

Having discovered that English Canadians were more favorable towards Great Britain, the British and British products, this discussion will now turn to the results of the second hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1(ii): France, the French, and French Products

This hypothesis predicted that French Canadians would be more favorable towards France, the French, and French products. The multivariate analysis of variance of French and English Canadians' ratings of France, the French people, and French products was significant at the $\alpha \leq 0.05$ level. Thus, the null hypothesis of no difference between subcultural groups was rejected.

For the evaluation of French products, the MANOVA test revealed a significant multivariate difference between English and French Canadians [F(2, 435)=28.6, p=0.000 (Table 24)]. French Canadians ratings were significantly more favorable; the overall means for English and French Canadians were 5.0 and 5.8 respectively. The univariate tests indicated that both variables (willingness to buy and overall rating of products) were contributing to the overall multivariate significance. French Canadians gave significantly higher ratings to the overall rating of French products and were significantly more willing to purchase French products.

These results are in line with a previous study by Wall and Heslop (1986) where they found that Quebec residents and other French speaking respondents in Canada gave higher ratings to French products than did English Canadian speakers and nonresidents of Quebec. However, the results from this thesis contradict findings from a more recent study by Heslop, Papadopoulos, and

Bourk (1998). In this study, French Canadians gave significantly lower ratings to products from France. Their assumption of ethnic affiliation affecting the evaluation of French products was not supported. These researchers attributed their results to the fact that French Canadians' affiliation with their founding nation may have faded over time, making them more independent of France than English Canadians are of Great Britain. The divergent results from this thesis and the latter study may be due to two methodological reasons. Firstly, the study by Heslop, Papadopoulos, and Bourk used 14 variables to assess respondents' evaluations of French products while this thesis only used two product variables. Secondly, the sample itself might have played a moderating role in the results. Heslop, Papadopoulos, and Bourk used a French Canadian sample from the Ottawa-Hull region while the sample in this thesis consisted of French Canadians living in the Montreal area.

For the evaluation of France and the French people, the MANOVA test indicated a significant multivariate difference between both subcultures [$F(1,436)=68.1$, $p=0.000$]. The overall means were 3.9 and 5.1 for English and French Canadians respectively, thus, French Canadians' ratings were significantly more positive. The univariate tests indicated that both country/people variables were contributing to the multivariate difference. French Canadians gave significantly higher ratings to the should have closer ties with and ideal country variables. Having discussed subcultural differences towards France and their products, the discussion now turns to the evaluation of former members of the British Empire (or commonwealth).

Hypothesis H1(iii): Former Members of the British Empire: Australia, India, and Hong-Kong

This hypothesis predicted that English Canadians would give higher ratings than French Canadians to the above countries due to their past colonial ties with Great Britain. This discussion on the former colonies of Great Britain will begin with Australia before moving on to India and Hong Kong.

For Australian products, the MANOVA test indicated a significant multivariate difference between English and French Canadians [$F(2,422)=22.6$, $p=0.000$ (Table 24)]. English Canadians gave an overall mean of 4.9, while French Canadians gave an overall mean of 4.7. Univariate tests indicated that both product variables contributed to the overall multivariate difference. English Canadians gave significantly higher ratings to the overall rating of products and willingness to buy variables.

For the evaluation of Australia and Australians the MANOVA tests also indicated a significant multivariate difference between both subcultures [$F(2, 424)=24.1$, $p=0.000$ (Table 30)]. The overall means were 5.4 and 4.8 for English and French Canadians respectively. Univariate tests indicated that both country/people variables contributed to the overall multivariate difference. English Canadians gave significantly higher ratings to the should have closer ties with and ideal country variables. Thus, for Australia, Australians, and Australian products, the null hypothesis of no difference in evaluation between English and French Canadians was rejected.

Turning to the evaluation of Indian products, the MANOVA test indicated a significant multivariate difference between both subcultures [$F(2,425)=12.2$,

p=0.000 (Table 24)]. English Canadians gave significantly higher ratings for the evaluation of Indian products; the overall means were 3.6 and 3.3 for English and French Canadians respectively. Univariate tests revealed that only one of the two product variables contributed to the overall multivariate difference. English Canadians indicated that they were significantly more willing to purchase Indian products.

For the evaluation of India and Indians, the MANOVA test revealed no significant multivariate difference between both subcultures at the 0.05 level of significance [F(2,426)=2.4, p=0.093 (Table 30)]. The overall mean for English Canadians was 3.2 while the French gave an overall mean of 3.0. However, the post hoc univariate tests did indicate one variable, should have closer ties with, to be significantly different between subcultures; English Canadians gave higher ratings for this variable. Thus, for this country, the hypothesis is partially supported; significant differences were uncovered for the evaluation of Indian products but not for the evaluation of India and Indians.

Finally, turning to the evaluation of products from Hong Kong, the multivariate analysis of variance revealed significant differences between English and French Canadians [F(2,435)=10.2, p=0.000 (Table 24)]. English Canadians gave significantly higher ratings to the products of Hong Kong; English Canadians' overall mean was 4.8, while French Canadians' overall mean was 4.2. Univariate tests revealed that both product variables contributed to the multivariate significance. Compared to French Canadians, English Canadians

gave significantly higher ratings to the overall rating of products and to the willingness to buy variables.

For the evaluation of Hong Kong and its people, the MANOVA tests revealed no significant multivariate difference between both subcultures [$F(2,434)=2.3$, $p=0.103$ (Table 30)]. The overall means for English and French Canadians were 3.9 and 3.7 respectively. No univariate differences were found for the 2-country/people variables. Again, for Hong Kong, the hypothesis is partly supported; significant differences were uncovered for the evaluation of products from Hong Kong but not for the evaluation of the area itself and its people.

Overall, this hypothesis was partially supported. Significant differences, between subcultures, were uncovered for the evaluation of Australians and their products and for the evaluation of products from India and Hong Kong, however, no differences were discovered for the evaluation of Hong Kong, India, and their peoples.

The results for the evaluation of products from Hong Kong and India-that English Canadians gave higher ratings to these countries-do not agree with findings from Heslop, Papadopoulos, and Bourk (1998). In their study, English Canadians gave lower ratings to products from Zimbabwe (culturally linked to Great Britain) than did the French Canadians. Thus, Heslop, Papadopoulos, and Bourk stated that their findings did not support the notion that ethnic groups that share cultural affinities with developing countries would evaluate products from these countries more favorably than they would those from other developing

countries. Again, the same previously mentioned methodological limitations (sample and amount of variables used) may explain this variance.

Accordingly, for hypotheses H(i) to H(iii), it may be concluded that the statistical differences that were observed between both subcultures are due to ethno-cultural affiliation. The review of previous COO studies, coupled with research on the affective component of attitudes, and ethnocentrism theory, support this conclusion.

For example, Krishnakumar (1974) and Wall and Heslop (1986) suggested that former colonial ties influenced respondents' ratings of countries. In addition, Barker (1985) suggested that historical ties and likeness in culture and political climate affected the favorable ratings of New Zealand respondents towards British products. The hypotheses dealing with English Canadians' and French Canadians' evaluations of Great Britain, France, Australia, Hong Kong, and India seem to confirm the findings from Krishnakumar and Wall and Heslop.

However, the results for Australia, India and Hong Kong prove to be of particular interest in this context. It seems that for a Western country, such as Australia, colonial ties influenced subcultural ratings of their products and their country/people. However, for non-Western countries, such as India and Hong Kong, past former colonial ties only influenced subcultural ratings of their products but not of their country/people. In other words, past colonial ties with Great Britain favorably influenced English Canadians' product ratings of these countries, however, they did not seem to influence their ratings of the countries/peoples; no statistical difference was found between both subcultures.

Next, the hypothesis dealing with differences between English and French Canadians' evaluations of Canada, Canadians, and Canadian products will be explored.

Hypothesis H1(iv): Canadian Products and Canada/Canadians

This hypothesis predicted that due to nationalistic, cultural, and historical disparities between English and French Canadians, English Canadians would give higher ratings to Canada, Canadians and Canadian products.

For the evaluation of Canadian products, the MANOVA test indicated a statistically significant multivariate difference between both subcultures [F(20, 410)=2.8, p=0.000, Table 23]. The overall means were 5.5 and 5.4 for English and French Canadians respectively. Univariate tests revealed that out of the 20 product variables, only 2 variables contributed to the overall multivariate difference. These variables were the willingness to buy and pride in ownership.

For the evaluation of Canada and Canadians, the MANOVA test revealed a statistically significant multivariate difference between English and French Canadians [F(11, 430)=7.8, p=0.000, Table 25]. The overall means were 5.6 and 5.5 for English and French Canadians respectively. Univariate tests indicated that out of the 11-country/people variables, 5 were found to be contributing to the overall multivariate difference. English Canadians gave significantly higher ratings on four items (knowledge of country and people, role in world politics, likeability of people, and ideal country), while French Canadians gave a higher rating on the possession of refined taste variable.

Thus, the hypothesis of no difference between subcultures for the evaluation of Canada and its products was rejected. Consequently, it may be surmised that English Canadians' higher ratings of Canada, Canadians and Canadian products were due to nationalistic disparities between these subcultures. This is in line with previous research, which has shown that nationalistic tendencies of respondents affect their attitudes towards Canadian products (McDougall and Rawlings 1979).

Hypothesis H1(v): The United States, Americans and American Products

This hypothesis predicted that, due to shared cultural traits, English Canadians would give higher ratings to the United States, Americans and their products than French Canadians.

For American products, the MANOVA test indicated a significant multivariate difference between English and French Canadians [F(20, 411)=9.06, p=0.000 (Table 23)]. As predicted, English Canadians gave significantly more favorable ratings to American products; the overall mean for English Canadians was 5.4, while the overall mean for French Canadians was 4.9. Of the 5 countries, the evaluation of American products revealed the highest number of univariate differences between English and French Canadians; 15 of the 20 product variables were found to be contributing to the overall multivariate difference. These variables included workmanship, innovativeness, quality, ease of finding, appearance, value for money, have what I like to buy, recognizability of brands, variety of products, normally buy a lot, willingness to buy, pride in ownership, for people like me, overall rating of products, and finally, satisfaction

with products. For a country's products demonstrating such a high number of statistically significant differences, it would be of interest to point out the variables, which were not significantly different. English and French Canadians seemed to find agreement on the following five variables: reliability, after sales service, knowledge of products, technical advancement of products, and price level.

For the evaluation of the United States and Americans, the MANOVA test indicated a significant multivariate difference between both subcultures [F(16, 423)= 8.4, p=0.000 (Table 25)]. The overall means were 5.2 and 4.8 for English Canadians and French Canadians respectively, thus, as predicted, English Canadians demonstrated significantly more favorable ratings towards the US and Americans. Univariate tests revealed that nine of the 16-country/people variables were contributing to the overall multivariate significance. These included: knowledge of country & people, role in world politics, wealth of country/people, possession of refined taste, should have closer ties with, alignment of country with Canada, likeability of people, welcome more imports from, and would like to visit. English Canadians gave higher ratings to all these variables, except for the wealth of the country/people variable where French Canadians gave a higher rating.

Thus, for this hypothesis, the null hypothesis of no difference between subcultures in the evaluation of American products and the United States and Americans was rejected. The observed differences between both subcultures for the evaluation of the United States and American products may be explained by

the shared cultural affinities between English Canadians and Americans and with French Canadians' sense of isolation in the North American context (Bouchard 1980).

Hypothesis H1(vi): Less-Developed Countries

This hypothesis predicted that French Canadians, compared to English Canadians, would give lower ratings to the less-developed countries which were measured in this study. This discussion will begin by analyzing the results for Israel and will be followed by Hungary, Indonesia, Greece and Spain.

The multivariate test of analysis revealed significant differences between subcultures in the evaluation of Israeli products [$F(2,422)=18.7$, $p=0.000$]. French Canadians were significantly more negative about the evaluation of Israeli products; the overall means were 4.6 and 3.9 for English Canadians and French Canadians respectively. Univariate tests indicated that both product variables, overall rating of products and willingness to buy, contributed to the multivariate difference.

For the evaluation of Israel and Israelis, the MANOVA test also indicated a significant multivariate difference [$F(2,426)=9.1$, $p=0.000$]. Again, French Canadians were significantly more negative about Israel and Israelis; the overall means were 3.6 and 3.0 for English Canadians and French Canadians respectively. Univariate tests revealed that both country/people variables, should have closer ties with and ideal country, contributed to the overall multivariate significance. Thus, the null hypothesis, of no difference between subcultures for the evaluation of Israel and Israeli products, was rejected.

For the evaluation of Hungarian products, the MANOVA test revealed a significant multivariate difference between subcultures [F(2,425)=2.0, p=0.000]. French Canadians gave a lower overall mean than did English Canadians; the means were 3.9 and 4.1 respectively. Univariate tests revealed that one of the two product variables, willingness to buy Hungarian products, was contributing to the overall significance.

For the evaluation of Hungary and Hungarians, no significant differences were uncovered [F(2,427)=2.0, p=0.136]. However, univariate tests did reveal that the ideal country variable was significantly different-English Canadians gave a higher overall rating. Thus, the hypothesis of no difference between subcultures for the evaluation of Hungary and Hungarian products was not rejected. This hypothesis was partially supported; significant differences were only found for the evaluation of Hungarian products.

For the evaluation of Indonesian products, the MANOVA revealed a significant multivariate difference between both subgroups [F(2,425)=4.9, p=0.008]. French Canadians gave a lower overall rating than did English Canadians. Univariate tests revealed that the willingness to buy variable contributed to the overall significance.

Turning to the evaluation of Indonesia and Indonesians, the MANOVA revealed no significant difference between subcultures [F(2,427)=1.1, p=0.347]. In addition, univariate tests revealed no significant differences among the country/people variables. Thus, the hypothesis of no difference between

subcultures in the evaluation of Indonesia and Indonesian products was not rejected.

The MANOVA results for the evaluation of Greek products revealed a significant multivariate difference between both subcultures [F(2,427)=15.8, p=0.000]. French Canadians gave a lower overall mean rating compared to English Canadians. Univariate tests revealed that both product variables contributed to the overall significance. French Canadians were significantly more positive in the overall rating of Greek products, while English Canadians were significantly more willing to purchase Greek products.

No significant multivariate difference was observed for the evaluation of Greece and Greeks by both subcultures [F(2,428)=0.75, p=0.473]. In addition, univariate tests revealed no significant differences among both country/people variables. Thus, the hypothesis of no difference between subcultures in the evaluation of Greece and Greek products was not rejected.

For the evaluation of Spanish products, the MANOVA revealed a significant multivariate difference between subcultures [F(2, 426)=9.0, p=0.000]. French Canadians gave a lower overall mean compared to English Canadians. The univariate tests revealed that French Canadians were significantly less willing to purchase Spanish products.

No significant multivariate difference was observed for the evaluation of Spain and Spaniards [F(2,427)=0.31, p=0.734). In addition, univariate tests revealed no significant differences among both country/people variables.

To summarize, significant differences were uncovered in the evaluation of products from all origins, however, for the evaluation of countries and their peoples, significant differences were found for only one origin: Israel. Thus, French Canadians did give lower product ratings to all of these developing countries, but the same was not found for the evaluation of Hungary, Indonesia, Greece, or Spain.

This hypothesis was derived from the literature's finding that French Canadians are known for their conservatism (Mallen 1977; Laroche, Toffoli et al. 1996). The literature states that this conservatism predisposes French Canadians with an aversion to risk (as compared to the English Canadians). As products from developing countries are known to be of lesser quality, than those from developed countries, then there will be a natural tendency for French Canadians to view developing countries as more risky. Thus, it was predicted that French Canadians would have more negative attitudes towards these countries and their products than English Canadians. As the results demonstrate, this contention was partially supported. French Canadians did seem to demonstrate more negative attitudes towards products from these developing countries, but English and French Canadians alike demonstrated the same attitudes towards these countries and their peoples.

Looking at the overall ratings for all countries, neither French nor English Canadians evaluated products from less-developed countries favorably. These low ratings are in accordance with previous research (Nes and Bilkey 1993).

The following hypothesis will explore English and French Canadians' evaluations of Mexico, and Mexican products.

Hypothesis H1(vii): Mexico, Mexicans, and Mexican Products

This hypothesis predicted that, due to shared cultural affinities between French Canadians and Mexicans, French Canadians would giver higher ratings to the evaluation of Mexico/Mexicans and Mexican products. The MANOVA revealed no significant multivariate differences between subcultures for the evaluation of Mexican products [$F(2,431)=2.54$, $p=0.080$]. In addition, univariate tests revealed no significant differences among both product variables.

For the evaluation of Mexico/Mexicans, the MANOVA demonstrated no significant multivariate difference between subgroups' responses [$F(2,431)=2.3$, $p=0.104$]. However, the univariate tests did reveal one significant difference: French Canadians gave significantly higher ratings to the "Mexico is an ideal country" variable. Thus, the findings do not support the hypothesis that French Canadians would prefer Mexico/Mexicans and Mexican products.

To recall, Mexicans and French Canadians share some cultural ties. They are both Roman Catholics, and Latin. These two common cultural roots (Bouchard 1980) result in them sharing similar characteristics, for example, they are conservative, fatalistic, chauvinistic, matriarchal, and both demonstrate a joie-de-vivre. In addition, they are both minorities in the North American context. Perhaps French Canadians do not identify with these cultural affinities. Alternatively, perhaps it may be that the higher risk and lower quality associated with products from developing countries-such as Mexico-overshadow cultural

affinity. Again, the low ratings given to Mexico by both subcultures are in accordance with previous research (Nes and Bilkey 1993).

Lastly, to end this discussion on hypothesis testing, the results of the acculturation hypotheses will follow.

Hypothesis H1(viii) and Hypothesis H1(ix): Acculturation

Hypothesis H1(viii) predicted that as English Canadians become more acculturated towards the French Canadian subculture, they will exhibit product-country attitudes which are more congruent with those of French Canadians. Likewise, Hypothesis H1(ix) predicted the reverse. In other words, as French Canadians become more acculturated towards the English Canadian subculture, they will exhibit product-country attitudes and perceptions which are more congruent with those of English Canadians.

To analyze the effect of acculturation on product-country attitudes, multivariate analysis of variance tests were performed with the variable scores for all countries (product and country/people) as dependent variables and the subcultural groups as independent variables. Contrary to the previous hypotheses, which only used the Strong English versus the Strong French groups for analysis, hypotheses H(viii) and H(ix) made use of all four groups, including the Moderate English and Moderate French groups.

Before running the MANOVA tests, cross-tabulations were performed using the demographic and subcultural variables. The chi-square test revealed a significant difference between all four subgroups for the age and income variables ($\chi_2 = 37.1, p = 0.000$ for respondents' age and $\chi_2 = 18.5, p = 0.10$ for

respondents' income). Consequently, age and income were included as covariates in the MANOVA analyses to control for their effects. As for the previous hypotheses, post hoc univariate tests were conducted to determine which variables were contributing to the overall significance. Significant results, at the $p \leq 0.008$ level of significance, for the product variables of the United States, Great Britain, Japan, Sweden, and Canada are presented next. This will be followed by the significant results, at the $p \leq 0.08$ level of significance, for the product variables of the 13 additional countries.

Table 27: Acculturation and the Country-of-Origin Effect (Product Scales)

Country Scale Items	Strong English	Moderate English	H(viii)	Moderate French	Strong French	H(ix)
Expected direction *	→				←	
United States (F=3.7, p=0.000)						
Workmanship of products	4.7	4.6	✓	4.2	4.0	✓
Quality of products	4.9	4.9	✗	4.6	4.2	✓
Value for money	5.1	4.8	✓	4.9	4.6	✓
Have what I like to buy	5.7	5.4	✓	4.6	4.6	✗
Technical advancement of	5.6	5.8	✗	5.0	5.5	✗
Recognizability of brands	6.3	5.9	✓	5.6	5.5	✓
Variety of products	6.5	6.4	✓	6.0	6.0	✗
Normally buy a lot	5.7	5.4	✓	5.0	4.9	✓
Willingness to buy	6.1	5.7	✓	5.1	4.8	✓
Pride in ownership of	5.1	5.0	✓	4.4	4.0	✓
For people like me	5.6	5.5	✓	4.9	4.7	✓
Overall rating of products	5.4	5.2	✓	4.9	4.7	✓
Satisfaction with products	5.2	5.5	✗	4.7	4.5	✓
Great Britain (F=2.4, p=0.000)						
Willingness to buy	5.6	4.9	✓	4.8	4.7	✓
Pride in ownership of	5.1	4.6	✓	4.5	4.4	✓
For people like me	5.0	4.4	✓	4.5	4.4	✓
Japan (F=2.1, p=0.000)						
Normally buy a lot	4.4	4.4	✗	5.2	4.8	✗
Willingness to buy	5.6	5.4	✓	5.6	5.2	✓
Sweden (F=1.5, p=0.000)						
Willingness to buy	5.4	5.3	✓	4.9	4.7	✓
Pride in ownership of	5.1	5.0	✓	4.9	4.3	✓
Canada (F=1.4, p=0.02)						
Pride in ownership of	6.4	6.3	✓	5.8	6.0	✗
Australia (F=7.9, p=0.000)						
Willingness to buy	5.7	5.1	✓	5.1	4.9	✓
France (F=9.3, p=0.000)						
Overall rating of products	4.8	5.3	✓	5.7	5.7	✗
Willingness to buy	5.1	5.4	✓	5.6	5.7	✓
Greece (F=6.2, p=0.000)						
Willingness to buy	4.8	4.5	✓	4.6	4.2	✓
Netherlands (F=4.6, p=0.000)						
Willingness to buy	5.7	5.4	✓	5.5	5.1	✓
Hong Kong (F=4.3, p=0.000)						
Overall rating of products	4.7	4.4	✓	4.5	4.1	✓
Willingness to buy	4.9	4.7	✓	4.4	4.1	✓
Hungary (F=4.7, p=0.000)						
Willingness to buy	4.4	4.0	✓	4.1	3.9	✓
India (F=4.8, p=0.000)						
Willingness to buy	4.0	3.6	✓	3.5	3.3	✓
Israel (F=7.2, p=0.000)						

Overall rating of products	4.4	4.1	✓	4.6	4.0	✓
Willingness to buy	4.7	4.1	✓	4.3	3.7	✓
Norway (F=2.9, p=0.009)						
Overall rating of products	5.1	4.9	✓	5.5	5.1	✓
Willingness to buy	5.3	5.2	✓	5.5	5.0	✓
Spain (F=4.2, p=0.000)						
Willingness to buy	4.9	4.7	✓	5.0	4.6	✓

* Expected direction of means due to acculturation effect: Moderate English scores should be in the direction of the Strong French and Moderate French scores should be in the direction of the Strong English

✓ = Hypothesis of acculturation confirmed

✗ = Hypothesis of acculturation rejected

Table 27 shows that, among the 18 countries, a significant difference was found for 15 countries. Thus, differences in product evaluations among the Strong English, Moderate English, Moderate French, and Strong French were found to be pervasive, even after removing the effects of age and income. For these significant results, comparing the magnitudes of the mean values of the four groups checked a monotonic trend.

A decreasing (from Strong English to Strong French) trend in group means was found for a majority of the significant variables, largely confirming the hypothesis of monotonic progression regarding the effect of acculturation on product evaluations. This result is in accord with previous research on the effect of acculturation on various other factors, such as lifestyle, attitudes towards the environment, etc. (Laroche, Kim, Hui, & Joy 1993).

MANOVA tests were also conducted for the country/people variables. Only significant results are discussed next. The results for the 5 main countries (Great Britain, Japan, Sweden, the United States, and Canada) were all significant at the p=0.000 level. For the univariate tests, a significance level of 0.008 was used.

Table 28: Acculturation and the Country-of-Origin Effect (Country/People Scales)

Country Scale Items	Strong English	Moderate English	H(vii)	Moderate French	Strong French	H(ix)
Expected direction *	→				←	
Great Britain (F=7.6, p=0.000)						
Knowledge of country	5.1	4.6	✓	4.2	3.2	✓
Political stability	6.1	5.5	✓	5.2	5.6	✗
Role in world politics	5.4	5.1	✓	4.7	4.6	✓
Trustworthiness of people	6.0	5.4	✓	5.5	5.7	✗
Wealth of country/people	4.7	4.6	✗	5.1	5.2	✓
Should have closer ties	5.0	4.6	✓	4.7	4.3	✓
Education level of people	5.2	5.2	✗	5.4	5.6	✓
Alignment with Canada	5.9	5.5	✓	4.9	4.8	✓
Likeability of people	5.5	5.0	✓	5.0	4.8	✓
Ideal country	4.7	4.2	✓	4.2	4.1	✓
Welcome more investment	5.9	5.6	✓	5.3	4.9	✓
Welcome more imports	5.7	5.3	✓	4.7	4.1	✓
Japan (F=5.1, p=0.000)						
Knowledge of country	3.3	3.8	✗	3.2	2.5	✓
Wealth of country/people	5.2	5.5	✓	5.3	5.8	✓
Alignment with Canada	4.6	4.3	✓	3.0	2.8	✓
Welcome more imports	4.7	4.1	✓	4.0	3.7	✓
Sweden (F=3.4, p=0.000)						
Knowledge of country	2.6	2.9	✗	2.1	1.9	✓
Role in world politics	5.2	4.8	✓	4.5	4.5	✗
Wealth of country/people	5.2	5.1	✗	5.4	5.6	✓
Welcome more investment	5.7	5.8	✗	5.6	5.2	✓
Welcome more imports	5.5	5.4	✓	5.4	4.6	✓
United States (F=3.3, p=0.000)						
Knowledge of country	6.4	5.9	✓	6.1	5.7	✓
Wealth of country/people	5.5	5.2	✗	5.9	5.9	✗
Possession of refined taste	3.9	3.9	✗	3.7	3.3	✓
Welcome more imports	4.9	4.7	✓	4.5	3.8	✓
Would like to visit	6.0	5.5	✓	6.0	5.6	✓
Canada (F=3.1, p=0.000)						
Knowledge of country	6.6	6.2	✓	6.5	6.3	✓
Role in world politics	5.9	5.4	✓	5.2	5.6	✗
Likeability of people	6.2	6.1	✓	5.5	5.8	✗
Ideal country	6.1	5.8	✓	5.5	5.6	✗
Australia (F=7.9, p=0.000)						
Should have closer ties	5.6	5.3	✓	5.4	4.9	✓
Ideal country	5.2	5.0	✓	5.0	4.6	✓
France (F=22.5, p=0.000)						
Should have closer ties	3.9	4.3	✓	5.2	5.6	✓
Ideal country	3.9	4.0	✓	4.5	4.6	✓
Germany (F=2.9, p=0.008)						
Should have closer ties	4.8	5.1	✓	5.4	5.3	✗

Netherlands (F=3.6, p=0.002)						
Should have closer ties	5.4	5.2	✓	5.2	4.9	✓
Ideal country	5.0	4.8	✓	4.6	4.5	✓
Israel (F=3.2, p=0.004)						
Should have closer ties	4.1	3.8	✓	3.9	3.4	✓
Ideal country	3.0	2.7	✓	2.7	2.4	✓
Norway (F=2.9, p=0.009)						
Ideal country	4.9	4.8	✓	4.7	4.5	✓

* Expected direction of means due to acculturation effect: Moderate English scores should be in the direction of the Strong French and Moderate French scores should be in the direction of the Strong English

✓ Hypothesis of acculturation confirmed

✗ Hypothesis of acculturation rejected

As the table indicates, out of the 18 countries, significant differences were uncovered for 11 countries. Thus, as for the product evaluations, differences in country/people evaluations among the four groups were also found to be pervasive, even after removing the effects of age and income. In addition, a decreasing (from Strong English to Strong French) trend in group means was found for a majority of the significant variables, largely confirming the hypothesis of monotonic progression regarding the effect of acculturation on country/people evaluations.

Thus, for the large part, hypothesis (viii) and (ix) are confirmed. As English Canadians become more acculturated towards the French Canadian subculture, they exhibit product-country attitudes which are congruent with those of French Canadians. Likewise, as French Canadians become acculturated towards the English Canadian subculture, they demonstrate product-country images which are congruent with those of English Canadians.

To sum up the findings from the hypotheses, the results indicated significant subcultural differences between English and French Canadians in the

evaluation of foreign countries and their products. On the whole, the directions of the hypotheses were confirmed.

The next step in the data analysis involves factor analysis. Factor analysis was conducted to analyze the underlying structure of the data in this study. Furthermore, factor analysis procedures are ideally suited to the task of data reduction and emphasize the respondent's perspective. However, the approach of the analysis will vary from the preceding sections. Until now, the data analysis has been comparative, i.e., Strong English versus Strong French Canadians. The factor analysis will make no distinction between subcultures. In other words, the factor analysis will look at all the data from all respondents. The factor analysis results are presented next.

Factor Analysis

To test the extent to which the set of scale items work together as a scale and / or form consistent subgroups, which reveal different dimensions of consumer evaluations, a factor analysis of the data was performed. The extent to which items load together would suggest the extent to which consumers see a commonality in the scales.

Principal components factor analysis (VARIMAX rotation) was used to reduce the data through the identification of the underlying pattern of interrelationships of items in consumer evaluations. Screeplot analysis and the criterion of eigenvalue greater than one were used to identify the factors that provide insight into the pattern of interrelationships. Internal consistency of the factors was tested with reliability analysis (Cronbach's alpha). This is an

important step since, if a group of items do not load together consistently, this would suggest that there is no basis for a subscale. This would, in turn, only serve to hide the varying scores consumers give the country on each item in the subscale. Discussion of the product scales is presented next, followed by a discussion on the country/people scales.

1) Product Scales

The total number of interpretable factors that emerged from this analysis was four for the product scales (although this varied from country to country). The total amount of variance explained for the data by the factors was quite similar across the five countries. Table 29 presents the variance for each country.

Table 29: Number of Product Factors & Total Variance

Country	Number of Factors	Variance Explained by Factors
Great Britain	5	60.0%
Japan	4	54.5%
Sweden	3	52.0%
United States	4	58.7%
Canada	4	60.0%

Although several differences among samples in their views of the 5 countries and their products did emerge, results of the 10 factor analyses (5 countries X two sets of scales) show a certain consistency across countries. The following table shows the product factors for all five countries with factor loading greater than 0.40.

Table 30: Factor Structure of Product Scales

Product Dimensions / Variables	Factor Structure of 5 Countries																			
	Great Britain					Japan				Sweden			USA				Canada			
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
1) Product Integrity																				
Quality of products	0.791					0.811				0.802			0.822				0.784			
Workmanship of products	0.756					0.814				0.802			0.828				0.790			
After sales service of products	0.698					0.695				0.476			0.731				0.643			
Overall rating of products	0.610					0.623				0.627			0.600				0.675			
Reliability of products	0.577					0.724				0.775			0.777				0.780			
Value for the money of products	0.535					0.415					0.462		0.520				0.527			
Appearance of products	0.410									0.425			0.499				0.584			
Innovativeness of products				0.423			0.422			0.640			0.541				0.467			
Technical advancement of products				0.711						0.501							0.554			
[illegible]																				
[illegible]		0.805					0.784				0.806			0.807				0.823		
[illegible]		0.732					0.809				0.747			0.781				0.868		
[illegible]		0.723					0.781				0.751			0.789				0.855		
[illegible]				0.574			0.562				0.550			0.646				0.545		
[illegible]				0.499			0.544				0.530			0.550				0.673		
3) Market Presence																				
Normally buy products			0.718				0.540					0.730		0.623				0.672		
Knowledge of products			0.691					0.636				0.695			0.536			0.708		
Variety of products			0.651						0.737			0.695			0.815			0.787		
Brand names of products			0.617						0.819			0.545			0.780			0.728		
Ease of finding products				0.625				0.683				0.683			0.416			0.670		
[illegible]																				
[illegible]					0.852	0.507				0.550						0.990				0.850

Table 30 shows the product factors for all five countries. As can be seen, the first 14 items tend to load together on one or two factors. The items in the first factor include quality, workmanship, after sales service, overall rating, reliability, value for the money, appearance of products, technical advancement, and degree of innovativeness of products. This factor (Cronbach's alpha = 0.89) is clearly related with product attributes and performance related characteristics. Papadopoulos (1993) identifies this factor as Product Integrity, which is a broader form of engineering/design or product quality dimension. The summary variables and the reliability analysis are both quite consistent with what Papadopoulos et al (1993) obtained in their study of eight countries.

However, some variables did not load well together for all countries. For example, innovativeness of products loaded in separate factors for Great Britain and Japan. In addition, for Great Britain, technical advancement of products loaded on another factor, in fact, it loaded together with innovativeness of products.

The second factor (Cronbach's alpha = 0.85), which emerged from the data reduction, is most likely to contain the scales on willingness to buy, pride in ownership, satisfaction, products have what I like to buy, and products are for people like me. As labeled by Papadopoulos et al (1993), this dimension appears to be a Response dimension that combines affective (proud and for me), and conative (buy) items. The results from this analysis are quite congruent with those obtained from Papadopoulos et al (1993). Furthermore, for products from Great Britain, the "products have what I like to buy" and "Satisfaction with products" variables tended to load with innovativeness of products and technical advancement of products. In addition, these two variables, for products from Canada, tended to load with the Product Integrity dimension. For both these countries, they did not load well with the "Response" product dimension.

The third factor (Cronbach's alpha = 0.75) tends to include scales on frequency of purchase, knowledge of products, variety of products, brand names of products and ease of finding products. This appears to be a Market Presence dimension, which is consistent with the literature. It is interesting to note that buying frequency loads most frequently in this item-apparently, consumers are more likely to buy on the basis of product familiarity and product availability.

The fourth factor is a Price Dimension. The price variable was found to be in its own factor 3 out 5 times (Great Britain, USA, and Canada). For products from Japan and Sweden, price loaded in the Product Integrity dimension. This product dimension is also in agreement with findings from Papadopoulos et al (1993). The following section discusses the factor analysis for the country scales.

2) Country Scales

The same procedures and statistical techniques that were used in the factor analysis of the product scales were also applied to the factor analysis of the country scales.

Table 31 below presents the variance explained by the interpretable factors that emerged for each country. For the most part, the country factors explained around 60% of the variance.

Table 31: Number of Country Factors & Total Variance

Country	Number of Factors	Variance Explained by Factors
Great Britain	4	56.7%
Japan	5	60.0%
Sweden	3	52.0%
United States	4	56.4%
Canada	3	56.8%

The total number of interpretable factors, which emerged from the data reduction, was four for the country scales. Table 32 outlines the country dimensions.

Table 32: Factor Structure of Country Scales

Country Dimensions / Variables	Factor Structure of 5 Countries																		
	Great Britain				Japan					Sweden			USA				Canada		
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	1	2	3	4	1	2	3
1) Link																			
Welcome more imports	0.835						0.819				0.837		0.797						
Welcome more investment	0.784						0.795				0.848		0.842						
Ties with country	0.637						0.669				0.635		0.785						
2) Belief																			
Wealth of the people		0.720				0.756				0.780					0.798			0.759	
Education level of people		0.696				0.769				0.766					0.696			0.662	
Technology level of people/country		0.641				0.728				0.799					0.749			0.763	
3) Politics																			
Political stability			0.844		0.492					0.508						0.493			0.717
Alignment with my country			0.532					-0.558											
Role in world politics			0.653		0.772								0.521						0.671
Ideal country	0.454				0.646						0.461		0.542				0.513		
Knowledge of country and its people			0.425						0.903							0.693			0.633
4) Affect																			
Taste for the beautiful things in life		0.625				0.482				0.634				0.478				0.544	
Hardworking people				0.667				0.693				0.639		0.737				0.699	
Trustworthiness of people				0.639	0.602							0.706		0.669				0.686	
Like to visit				0.635				0.406				0.578		0.432					
Likeability of the people				0.491	0.642							0.791		0.744				0.726	

Note: The Link variables were not included in the questionnaire for products from Canada.

The items in the first factor (Cronbach's alpha = 0.83) include the welcome more imports, welcome more investments, and should have close ties with country variables. Papadopoulos et al (1993) labeled this country dimension as Link. In their analysis, two of the same variables loaded well together: welcome more investment and closer ties. This current analysis adds one new variable: welcome more imports. They described this country dimension as "action towards" conative variables.

The second factor (Cronbach's alpha = 0.85), which emerges can be labeled as Belief (Papadopoulos et al, 1993, label it as such). It is "beliefs" concerning the country's degree of industrial development (wealth of the people, education level, and technology level).

The third country dimension (Cronbach's alpha = 0.82) is a new country dimension not uncovered by Papadopoulos et al's analysis. It measures the "political" variable of a country (political stability, alignment with my country, role in world politics, ideal country, and knowledge of country and people). In 1993's research, Papadopoulos et al had included "Role in world politics" in their country scale. The additional variables, which are included in this study, are new to the country scale development.

The fourth factor (Cronbach's alpha = 0.80) is labeled by Papadopoulos et al (1993) as "Affect" or "feelings" about the country and its people (refined taste, hardworking people, trustworthiness of people, like to visit, and likeability of people).

Generally, the results from the factor analysis are quite similar with those obtained by Papadopoulos et al (1993) in their 8-country study. This demonstrates that consumers tend to answer these scales in some form of consistent manner. Thus, these respondents demonstrate concordant PCI dimensions of consumer evaluations. This thesis will end with a discussion on implications and conclusions.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

In summary, this study found several differences in the evaluations of foreign (and domestic) products and their peoples between the two subcultures that were tested (see Table 33 below for a brief summary). Ethno-cultural links were found to influence product views on several countries: ethnic affiliation appears to influence English Canadians' ratings of Great Britain, the United States, Australia, India, and Hong Kong, and French Canadians' ratings of products from France. Ethno-cultural ties also influenced country/people evaluations: differences were found for the above mentioned countries with the exception of India and Hong Kong.

In addition, this research found that English and French Canadians' ratings differed for Canadian products and Canada and Canadians. English Canadians were more favorable towards Canadian-made goods and Canada and Canadians than French Canadians were. The differences are attributed to differing degrees of nationalistic tendencies of the two subcultures. It also appears that ethnic affiliation may be overshadowing some of the high risk traditionally associated with developing nations. This was established with English Canadians' more favorable ratings of products from India and Hong Kong. However, when it comes to the evaluations of the people from India and Hong Kong, no differences were observed: English and French Canadians gave equally low ratings.

Table 33: Summary of Significant Differences

Country	Product Evaluations	Country Evaluations
Canada	✓	✓
Japan	✓	✓
United States	✓	✓
Great Britain	✓	✓
Sweden	✓	✓
Holland	✓	✓
Germany	✗	✓
Australia	✓	✓
Norway	✓	✓
France	✓	✓
Hong-Kong	✓	✗
Spain	✓	✗
Israel	✓	✓
Greece	✓	✗
Hungary	✓	✗
India	✓	✗
Mexico	✗	✗
Indonesia	✓	✗

✓Significant difference detected
✗ No significant difference detected

The findings for product evaluations have several implications for domestic producers, exporters, public policy makers, and academic researchers. Compared with all other origins evaluated by respondents in this study, the biggest statistical difference between subcultures was for the evaluation of American products. This suggests a strong subcultural affinity between English Canadians and Americans, and contrarily, an equally strong "dis-affinity" between French Canadians and Americans. This finding is worthy of note for American producers. If American producers want to effectively penetrate the French Canadian market then, as Heslop, Papadopoulos, and Bourk (1998) argued, these findings clearly strengthen the argument for greater effort and care in localizing all or most elements of marketing efforts, especially advertising and

packaging. Many American producers still rely on advertising for Quebec that is simply translated from English to French, with little or no consideration for the cultural nuances of the content. One company whose culturally sensitive advertising has paid dividends is Pepsi Cola. They used a popular French Canadian comedian, Serge Grenier (PepsiMan) as their endorser and were thus able to increase sales.

Concerning the two developed parent nations, the hypothesis of ethnic affiliation to Great Britain and France was supported by both subcultures. This suggests that international marketers may well be advised to research subcultural differences before expanding into different regions. For example, based on these results, and ceteris paribus, one would expect a British producer that highlights its origins to find a more receptive consumer base among English Canadians in Montreal than among French Canadians.

For the evaluation of countries and peoples, the greatest difference lay in the evaluation of Great Britain and the British. English Canadians' affinity with their former country-of-origin is still quite strong and vice-versa for French Canadians. It is interesting to note that, culturally, English Canadians are connected to Great Britain and the British but they are at the same time more commercially linked with Americans.

Regarding products from less developed nations, it also appears that cultural affinity affected the evaluation of products from these countries. The negative perceptions which are usually associated with less developed countries did affect the evaluation of these countries; however, English Canadians tended

to be significantly more favorable. As for the evaluation of the countries and peoples, no significant differences were uncovered. This suggests that other considerations within the cultural context itself (e.g., race, religion, third versus first world status, etc.) also affected consumers' judgements.

English Canadians rated Canada and Canadian products more favorably than did French Canadians, and this bias is attributed to different degrees of nationalistic tendencies of the two ethnic groups. Although both English and French Canadians' attitudes towards Canada and Canadian products are generally positive, the findings from this study suggest that English Canadians (in Montreal) would be more responsive towards Canadian-based or nationalistic advertising than their French Canadian counterparts. More generally, as has been suggested in the literature, the findings of this study suggest that both producers and researchers would benefit by paying closer attention to subcultural differences.

Finally, this study revealed that an acculturation effect exists on how subcultures view different countries, their peoples, and their products. As one becomes more acculturated towards one specific culture or subculture one tends to have views and opinions, which are aligned with this particular subculture.

The findings from this study must be interpreted with some caution, given its limitations. Three important limitations of this study may effect the validity of the results: two elements of the sample and one element of the research instrument.

Firstly, the sample was drawn from a single location. To have a more complete picture of the effect of culture on English and French Canadians' PCI evaluations would require sampling from other parts of the province and country.

Secondly, the sample was not representative of the Montreal population. The sample for this study tended to be overeducated, older and earned above average incomes. Thus, generalizations extrapolated to the entire English and French Canadian populations of Montreal would be difficult.

The third limitation involves the research instrument. Specifically, measurements obtained for the 13 additional countries must be viewed with prudence. Due to time limitations and response rate considerations, only four variables (2 product and 2 country/people) were included to obtain respondents' evaluations of these countries. Consequently, a fuller picture of respondents' evaluations of these countries was not possible, contrary to the other countries, where a more complete evaluation was obtained. Surely, this would have also affected the observed statistical differences between the two subcultures.

Future studies can revisit the 13 additional countries but with the inclusion of all 20 product and all 16 country/people variables; this would counter the above limitation. Future studies might research consumer perceptions of other sets of ethnically linked countries. Future research may further advance the theory of the country-of-origin effect by focusing on such issues as the longitudinal stability (or instability) of country images. According to Papadopoulos, Heslop, & Bamossy (1994) a promising area for future studies is causal modeling of the influence of cognition, affect, and perhaps various

exogenous variables on consumers' behavioral intentions to purchase goods from various origins. In addition, studies involving subcultural groups in other countries might help researchers better understand the nature and effects of ethno-cultural links on product-country images.

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