BI Norwegian Business School - campus Oslo

GRA 19502

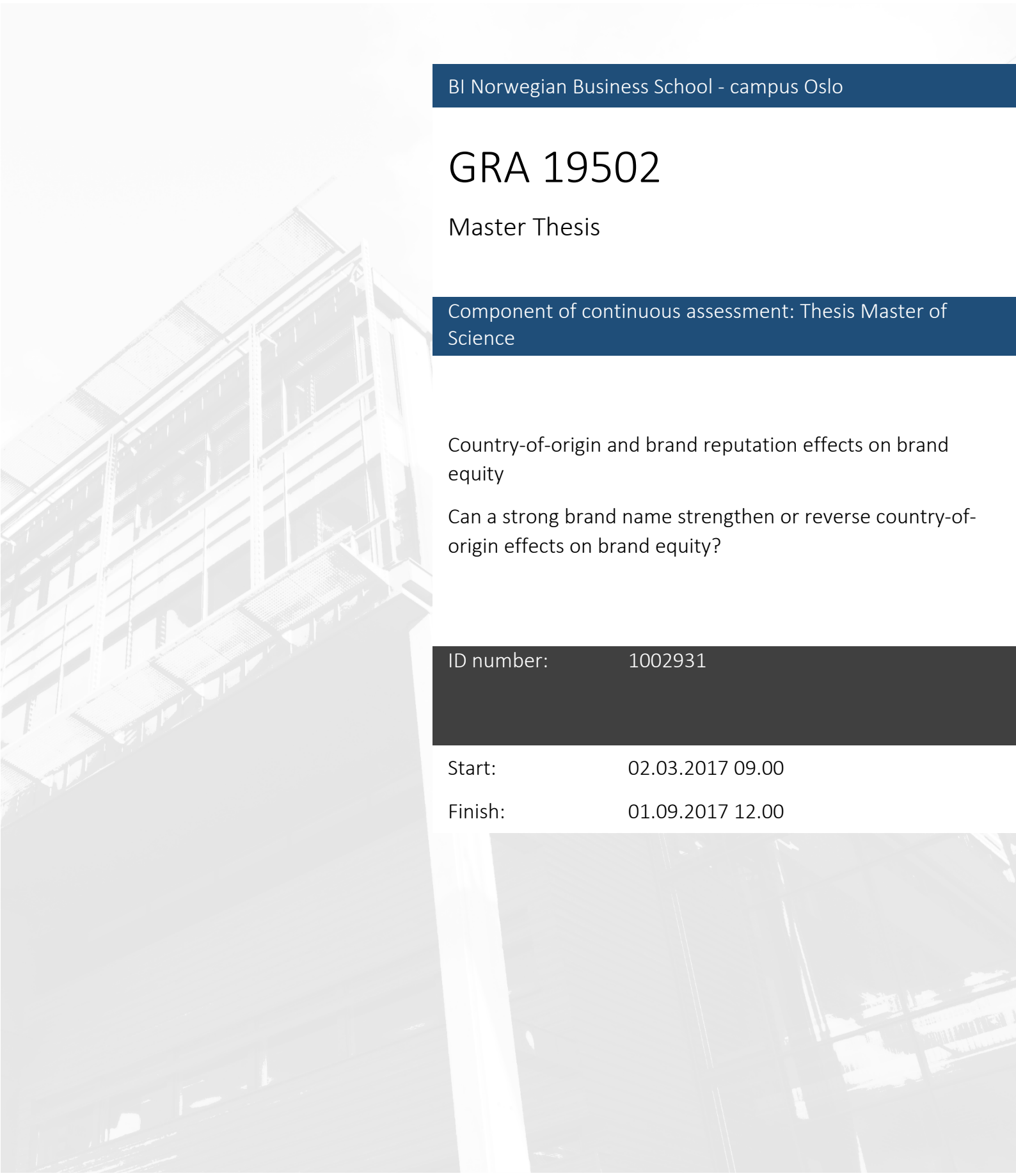
Master Thesis

Component of continuous assessment: Thesis Master of Science

Country-of-origin and brand reputation effects on brand equity

Can a strong brand name strengthen or reverse country-of-origin effects on brand equity?

ID number:	1002931
Start:	02.03.2017 09.00
Finish:	01.09.2017 12.00



BI Norwegian Business School

Final Master Thesis

Country-of-origin and brand reputation effects on brand equity

Can a strong brand name strengthen or reverse country-of-origin effects on brand equity?

Marie Sanfilippo
ID number: 1002931

Supervisor:
Carl Arthur Solberg

Hand-in date:
01.09.2017

Campus:
BI Oslo

Examination code and name:
GRA 19502 Master Thesis

Programme:
Master of Science in Business – Major Marketing

Acknowledgments

This master thesis is a part of my double degree program between BI Norwegian Business School and EDHEC Business School (Lille, France). The study has been conducted throughout the fall and spring semester of 2016/2017.

Being an international student at BI, I became really interested in the topic of international strategies and brand management in an international context and in particular how a company can leverage its brand equity using a brand's country-of-origin. I wanted to further explore this topic by investigating whether country-of-origin was a fixed concept or whether it was possible to counteract or strengthen this effect by using brand name cue. This growing interest came from the interesting courses I took at BI which introduced me to both strategic marketing concepts and research methodology. I present all my acknowledgments to the qualified university lecturers and researchers that contributed to increase my curiosity on this area of research by their meaningful inputs, in particular Peter Jarnebrant and his teaching assistant Daniela Carmen Christian, Line Lervik-Olsen, Matilda Dorotic, and Birgitte Grøgaard.

To conduct my analysis, I contacted Carl Arthur Solberg whose help was precious and meaningful during all the process of my thesis. I greatly appreciate his constructive feedbacks as a supervisor and I would like to thank him for his valued expertise on this area of research.

I also would like to thank all of the respondents that answered my survey, both from BI Norwegian Business School and EDHEC Business School, for the time they took to help me with my research analysis.

Marie SANFILIPPO

Abstract

The concept of country-of-origin has been extensively studied with the apparition of multinational companies separating and outsourcing their operations worldwide. It has been established that country-of-origin has an impact on brand equity mediated by four dimensions, namely brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty. The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of brand name over the relationship between country-of-origin and brand equity dimensions. In particular, this paper intends to determine if it is possible to counteract for a negative country-of-origin effect or strengthen a positive country-of-origin effect by using another cue which is the brand name.

A conceptual framework is considered in which brand's country-of-origin is postulated to influence the four dimensions of consumer-based brand equity, which is composed of brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality, and brand loyalty. Brand name acts as a moderator over this relationship.

Three versions of a survey were distributed among students from two business school, EDHEC in France and BI in Oslo, using respectively Russia, Italy and Switzerland as country-of-origin. Each survey evaluates the country-of-origin effect on customer-based brand equity of premium chocolate before and after brand name Lindt was revealed. The respondents first evaluate their brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty when the only cue available is country-of-origin, before evaluating again these three dimensions when brand name has been revealed.

Findings indicate that evaluation of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty significantly increase after brand name was revealed when the originally country-of-origin effect was negative. Therefore results show that it is possible to counteract for a negative country-of-origin effect by using brand name cue. However, evaluation of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty don't significantly increase after brand name was revealed when the originally country-of-origin effect was positive. Therefore brand name cue don't significantly strengthen a positive country-of-origin effect.

Contents

1. Introduction to the research topic

L'Oréal Paris carries the French image of fashion elegance, Twinings of London recalls the British tea culture, Volkswagen openly uses "Das Auto" in its international advertising and IKEA uses Swedish flag's colors in its logo and typical Swedish names on its product series worldwide. On our everyday lives, we are surrounded by brands using their country-of-origin to drive customers' evaluation and attitudes towards their products. Why do brands use their country-of-origin as a strategic marketing tool?

With the ever-increasing globalization and international business activities, the establishment of multinationals operating in several countries has become an increasing phenomenon. It is now common to observe brands from one country selling products to consumers in other countries (Hsieh, 2001). Multinationals seek different strategic objectives in expanding their operations across borders, among them the availability of cheap labor and/or reduced transportation costs (Haübl, 1996), the economies of scale' advantages (Schocker et al., 1994) and the opportunity for a global branding. Outsourcing has become a common strategic process in order to seek cheap labor costs prevailing in many developing countries to manufacture components parts, but also some design and engineering tasks by collaborating with foreign partner firms or establishing design centers overseas. Such phenomenon has conducted to a blurred definition of the country-of-origin and a multiplication of hybrid variety products manufactured by several countries. What is the product's "country of origin" of a brand from country X, manufactured in country Y and sold in country Z?

In spite of this blurred definition, country-of-origin remains an important marketing concept for brands because it is a way of differentiation and a way to strengthen the brand equity. Indeed, the increasing competition has encouraged companies to build a strong brand name. Such accomplishment can be realized by managing both the marketing-mix factors (such as advertising, distribution, price, and product quality) and the non-marketing mix factors (such as country-of-origin). Most of the brand equity research focuses on the marketing mix variables, but not so much attention is given to the non-marketing mix factors such as country-of-origin. Building a

strong brand name permits companies to establish an identity in the market place (Aaker, 1996), but also to be less vulnerable to competitive actions, to benefit from larger margins, greater intermediary cooperation and support, and brand extension opportunities (Delgado-Ballester & Manuera, Aleman, 2005). A brand's country-of-origin may be one factor that influences the effects of the brand on consumers, and can thus influence the choice of a firm's marketing strategy.

Country-of-origin is known to have an effect on consumer's evaluation and attitude towards a product. Indeed, consumers may perceive more risk in buying products and services from countries with an inferior image, or they can on the contrary seek to enhance their social status by buying products or services from countries with a superior image.

A large number of studies have demonstrated the influence of country-of-origin over the four dimensions of consumer-based brand equity, respectively brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty. It has been shown that a country-of-origin perceived as inferior can stain a brand name. Over time, the change of a brand's country-of-origin from a country with favorable associations like the United States to a country with less favorable associations like Mexico has been demonstrated to have a negative impact on brand name and consumer-based brand equity (Thakor & Katsanis, 1997).

One arising question is therefore to assess if some cues, like brand name, can compensate for a negative country-of-origin effect or strengthen a positive country-of-origin effect. Previous studies have demonstrated that the presence of other cues, such as product warranty, or a prestigious retailer can compensate for a negative country image. Cordell (1993) argues that when a product carries a famous brand name, it can counteract consumers' negative country-of-origin perceptions of less developed countries. To my knowledge, no one has analyzing in both way the moderating impact of brand name on the country-of-origin effects on brand equity, in other words can a strong brand name reverse or reinforce country-of-origin effects on brand equity? To fill in the gap in the previous literature, this master thesis will focus on evaluating the relative power of brand name over the

relationship between country-of-origin and consumer-based brand equity dimensions.

To accomplish this, the brand equity of high quality chocolates produced in Russia, Italy or Switzerland is examined. Premium chocolate product category was chosen because it is a high involvement product, and country-of-origin effects are larger in this context (Batra & Ahtola, 2000). I chose three countries to assess country-of-origin effects, namely Russia, Italy and Switzerland, which have respectively a negative, neutral and positive product category-country association. The effect of the premium brand name Lindt is analysed over this relationship in order to determine if the strong brand name can strengthen or reverse country-of-origin effects on brand equity. Data will be collected from students in two business schools located in Norway and France.

This topic appears to be relevant and important for the field of international marketing management. First, marketing managers operating in the international context must identify the sources of consumer-based brand equity, and understand the importance of incorporating country-of-origin into their brand equity measurement. They should carefully weight cost considerations with the risk of possible erosion of brand equity, and assess the product category associations in target countries before using country-of-origin as a way to enhance brand equity. Moreover, assessing the moderator effect of a brand name on country-of-origin effects on brand equity permits marketers to know if they can compensate for a negative country-of-origin perception or if they can use a brand reputation to reinforce positive country-of-origin effects.

2. Literature Review

In this part I will present what we know from previous studies about country-of-origin, brand name and brand equity concepts analyzed separately. Alongside and to introduce my research question, I will also present the previous research that demonstrated an impact of country-of-origin on brand equity, and the effect on brand name over this relationship. In order to simplify my intention, I will thereafter use the abbreviation COO for country-of-origin.

2.1 Country-of-origin

2.1.1 Country-of-origin effects

The concept of country-of-origin appeared with the appearance of binational products, whose country-of-production was different than their brand's home country (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Chao, 1993; Ulgado & Lee, 1993). In the literature, COO has been divided into four cues respectively "country of brand", "country of manufacture", "country of assembly" and "country of design". COO is a multi-dimensional construct that can be separated in two components. The first one is the informational component. COO provides cues to consumers regarding the quality, dependability and value for money of the products, when more specific information is not readily available (Han & Terpstra, 1988; Hong & Wyer, 1989). The other component is the group affiliation, defending that COO reinforces one's sense of national identity (Bruning, 1997).

COO is known to have an effect on consumer evaluation of a product. COO effect is defined as "the impact of COO on consumer perceptions or evaluations of products" (Samiee, 1994). The relative importance on each COO component on consumer evaluation is contradictory in the literature. Ulhgado and Lee (1993) argue that country of brand is more important for consumers, whereas Ahmed and d'Astous (1995) give a preponderant importance to the country of manufacture. According to Chao (1993), both cues are equally important and may interact to produce differential impacts on design quality and product quality perception.

According to the information-processing theory, consumers use product cues to form beliefs and evaluation about a product and thus to make purchase decision. Since COO can be manipulated without changing the physical aspect of the product,

it is perceived in the literature as an extrinsic cue, along with price, guarantees, warranties, brand reputation, seller reputation and promotional messages (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Cordell, 1992, Erickson et al., 1984, Han & Terpstra, 1988, Hong & Wyer, 1989, Thorelli et al., 1989, Yong, 1996). Such cues act as "signals" for product quality (Steenkamp, 1990; Dawar & Parket, 1994). As brand name does, COO can influence consumers' perceptions and lead consumers to cognitive elaboration (Hong & Wyer, 1989). Consumers use extrinsic cues when intrinsic cues are missing or hard to evaluate (Lim & Darley, 1997; Thorelli et al., 1988). Thus COO may also be perceived as a risk property (Cordell, 1993). COO as an extrinsic cues reduces the risk when consumers are unsure of the intrinsic cues of the product. Indeed, consumers may perceive more risk in buying products or services from countries with an inferior image, or they can on the contrary seek to enhance their social status by buying products or services from countries with a superior image.

Different competing models explain the mechanism behind COO effects. In the halo model (Johansson, Nonaka & Douglas, 1985), country image affects beliefs about tangible product attributes, which in turn affects overall evaluation. On the other hand, Han (1989) demonstrated that when consumers are not familiar with a country's product, a summary construct model operates in which consumers infer product information into country image, which then influences brand attitude. Whatever the underlying psychological mechanism, there is a consensus in the existing literature that COO cue has an impact on product evaluation. The consensus is that a negative country image will negatively affect consumer evaluation of a product.

An important framework in considering COO effects on product evaluation is the one from Obermiller and Spangenberg (1989). Indeed, they divide COO effects on three categories, respectively cognitive, affective and normative.

The cognitive dimension argues that COO is used as a signal for overall product quality and quality attributes, such as reliability and durability (Li & Wyer, 1994; Steenkamp, 1989). Consumers would share some cultural stereotypes concerning product-country images. The cognitive component is also relevant in the evaluation

of high quality technical products. Indeed, consumers recognize that the production of high quality technical products requires some technical skills and training, and in consequence they perceive that such products are more qualified when produced in developed countries.

The affective component views COO as an image attribute that links the product to symbolic and emotional benefits, including social status and national pride (Askegaards & Ger, 1998; Batra et al., 1998). Consumers built some emotional and affective connotations regarding a country based both on direct experiences (during holidays or encounters with foreigners) and indirect experiences with the country and its citizens (through art, education and mass media). These connotations have a direct impact on consumers' product evaluation and brand attitude. In this way, an animosity towards a certain country can be a source of negative evaluation towards its products. Smith (1990) used the terminology "customer voting" to illustrate how consumers "vote" in favor or against the policies and practices of a government by purchasing or avoiding its country's products. For example, Klein et al (1998) demonstrated that Chinese consumers' willingness to buy Japanese products is affected by the geopolitical rivalry between the two countries. Similarly, Obermiller and Spangenberg (1989) found that an Arab-American recognizes the superiority of Israeli optical instruments, but keeps having a negative attitude towards these products caused by an animosity toward Israel. On this point, it is important to emphasize that such phenomenon is limited to specific case in which the animosity is very strong. On the contrary, there are some situations named "buycotts" where consumers purchase products from a certain country as a reward of their "sympathy" (Friedman, 1996).

The affective component is also related to consumers' self-esteem. Indeed, consumers make associations toward COO such as autobiographical memories, national or ethnic identities, and they relate COO to feelings of "status" and "pride" associated with the product ownership (Hirschmann, 1985; Batra et al, 1999; Botschen & Hemettsberger, 1998; Fournier, 1998). COO acts as a signal of an "expressive" or "image" attributes and helps consumers to "embrace esteem, social and self-actualization needs" (Mittal, Ratchford & Prabhakar, 1990). Image

attributes can also reveal consumers affiliation to a group (Lefkoff-Hagius & Mason, 1993).

Finally, the normative dimension supports that purchasing domestic products may be regarded as a "right way of conduct" because it supports domestic economy (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). In this case, consumer ethnocentrism serves as an important motivation for the decision to purchase domestic products. Conversely, consumers may avoid buying goods from countries with objectionable activities or regimes (Smith, 1990; Klein, Ettenson & Morris, 1998).

In Obermiller and Spangenberg's framework, cognitive, affective and normative processes are not separated but constantly interacting.

After demonstrating COO effects on product evaluation, it is also possible to demonstrate COO effects on consumer decision making. Most of the studies suggest that COO information which is indicated by the "made in…" label serves several purposes in consumer decision-making. Johansson (1989) argues that COO acts as a salient attribute in consumer product evaluation. Hong and Wyer (1989) view COO as a stimulator on consumer's interest in the product. But COO is also perceived as a determinant of consumers' behavior. For example, Fishbein and Aizen (1975) argue that COO affects behavioral intentions through social norms. COO is also known to influence buyer behavior through affective processes as in the case of consumer's patriotic feelings about their own country (Han & Terpstra, 1988).

Are there some moderators of COO effects? Studies of consumer ethnocentrism and national loyalty indicate that attitudes and intentions are affected by one's sense of loyalty to a nation and to other macro-oriented groupings (Bruning, 1997). Consumers tend to prefer domestic products when their sense of national loyalty is strong. Thus COO effects vary according to the nationality of respondents. According to Okechuku and Onyemah (1996), consumers from developing countries prefer products from developed countries and their perceptions tend to be more stereotyped. An illustration of this phenomenon is visible with Mexicans that tend to prefer US and Japanese goods (Bos, 1994). Koreans have also been found

to be more intransigent than Americans against products from less favorable countries (Nebenzahl & Jaffe, 1996). Some other demographic determinants of brand-COO knowledge are the level of education, the socio-economic class and the habit of traveling (Paswan et al., 2004). Concerning the level of education, as consumers are more knowledgeable of other countries and cultures, they are likely to be more tolerant of things that are different and thus more accurate about brand-COO knowledge. Similarly, people from upper class are likely to have more access to information, to travel more often and to be more exposed to other cultures. Thus they are likely to be more aware of existing multinationals and their respective COO. Another psychographic variable on which COO effects depend is the consumer's motivation. Under low motivation, consumers want to use the minimum cognitive effort to form their judgment about a product, and COO offers a basis for doing so. On the other hand, under high motivation, COO information may be used as one of the product attributes instead of an overall basis for judgment (Maheswaran, 1994). Finally, according to Hampton (1977), COO image is linked to the risk perceived by customers. He found that the risk perceived for products manufactured in a foreign country is higher than for those manufactured in the same country. He argued that in a low-risk situation, consumers tend to base their products evaluation on price, whereas in a high-risk situation they tend to relate on quality and location.

An important fact to consider when evaluating COO effects is that competitive context changes over time. The global diffusion of production technology, as described by Vernon's (1966) international product life cycle theory, enables developing countries to establish their own competitive position in the global market. Kim and Chung (1997) demonstrated this argument with the example of Japan which has strengthened and improved its country image over time. Thus COO image is a dynamic construct that can evolve over time in both directions.

Then COO effects have been extensively studied in the existing literature. To fully explain COO concept, let's have a look at the COO construct. How are COO effects occurring through country image and product category-country associations?

2.1.2 Country image

In the literature, country image is viewed as a combination of macro and micro country image.

Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002) consider macro country image, which is "the defined beliefs about a country's industrialization and national quality standards". Thus macro image focuses on the economic, political and technological situation of a country.

Some other researchers view country image as consumers' general perceptions about the quality of a product made in a particular country, and thus focus on micro country image (Han & Terpstra, 1988; Parameswaran & Yaprak, 1987). Roth and Romeo (1992) defined country image as "the overall perception consumers form of products from a particular country, based on their prior perceptions of the country's production and marketing strengths and weaknesses". They argued that what consumers know (or think they know) about a country's manufacturing ability, flair for style and design, and technological innovativeness, seems much more congruent with product perception formation than other definitions of country image.

More recent researches argue that images of countries should not be defined as just macro and micro levels. Images of countries also represent everything else the country may be known for, such as nature, climate, politics, music, arts, architecture, religion, and people, their mentality and their way of living. (Nes & Gripsrud, 2014).

2.1.3 Product category – country associations

The micro country image mentioned above permits to introduce another important terminology in the COO literature which is the product category-country association, defined as the consumers' ability to evoke a country when the product category is mentioned (Pappu et al., 2006). Further to a survey conducted by Time magazine, Jaffe (2001) related that respondents were found to associate beer with Germany, Holland and Denmark; vodka with Russia, Sweden and Poland; consumer electronic goods with Japan, Holland and Germany; and mobile phones with Sweden, Finland and the USA. Tersptra and Sarathy (2002) go further by

arguing that consumers can both associate countries with certain product categories and product categories with certain countries. They make the case for a bi-directional “product category-country associations”.

COO has been demonstrated to be product specific (Nes & Gripsrud, 2014). A country may have an excellent reputation as the origin of one category of products and a poor reputation in another category of products. Thus COO image can match attractive product characteristics in one product category, but have no value, or even a negative value in another category. For example, Leclerc, Schmitt and Dubé (1994) found that a French-sounding brand name was a competitive advantage on evaluation of “hedonic” products such as perfume and wine, but was not on the evaluation of “utilitarian” products like cars and computers. Sometimes, COO is even model specific as in the automobile industry (Chao & Gupta, 1995).

This findings also demonstrate that the strength of the association between COO image and purchase decision depends on whether the COO image matches important product attributes. Roth and Romeo (1992) named this phenomenon “product-country matches” while Usunier and Cestre (2007) named it “product ethnicity”. Indeed, Roth and Romeo explained that “consumers’ evaluation of a specific product from country X are based on the match between product and country. Consumers prefer country X as an origin for a specific product when they believe that there is a match between the perceived “strengths” of country X and the skills that are needed for manufacturing the product under consideration”. For example, France may be associated with good design and prestige, while Hungary is perceived as very weak regarding design and prestige. Design and prestige may be important features when consumers consider shoe purchase, but relatively unimportant for the purchase of beer.

Moreover, a consumer’s country image beliefs in relation to a familiar product category can be transfer to new products of the same country (Agarwal & Sikri, 1996) through a phenomenon commonly named “transference of beliefs”.

Zafar et al (2001) put the analysis further in investigating COO effects in a service industry. They found than consumers rely more on COO cues in evaluating

services, when purchase and consumption are usually simultaneous and which constitute a higher risk for the consumer than the purchase of manufactured products, which is usually protected by warranties, guarantees and local consumer protection regulations.

Finally, COO seems to have an important impact on consumer evaluation and behavior. Giving this literature review an important question is raised: is it possible to compensate for a negative COO?

2.2 Brand name

Apart from COO, other extrinsic cues have been shown to influence consumer evaluation about a product. According to Thorelli et al (1988), the presence of brand name, product warranty, or a prestigious retailer can compensate for a negative COO image. Rao and Monroe (1989) also demonstrated the influence of brand name and price on consumer evaluation of product quality. Schooler, Wildt and Jones (1987) argue that product warranty moderates COO effects by compensating for a poorly perceived country stereotyping in consumer product evaluations. Similarly, Chao (1989) claims that store reputation can be used to effectively overcome negative COO image.

Brand name is the root of brand image, which may be defined as the subjective, emotional cluster of meaning and symbols that the consumer attributes to a particular brand. Brand image (as mediated by brand name) does affect perception of quality, especially for brands with strong positive images. To reduce uncertainty regarding a product and its attributes, consumers seek and process information regarding the product and form accurate impressions of it. Hence products may be viewed as “an array of cues” and “consumer’s task in evaluating a product is to use cues from the array as the basis for making judgments about the product” (Cox, 1964). As COO, brand name acts as an extrinsic quality cue, and is especially used when intrinsic cues are not available. The consumer uses this extrinsic cue to form beliefs about the product performance on par with other extrinsic cues (Tse & Lee, 1993).

Brands provide benefits and value to the brand owner and to the customers (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). To the customers, a brand name permits to identify the source of the product, to assign responsibility to product maker, and to reduce risk perception. A brand name can also represent a signal of quality or symbolic devices for the customer. From the firm's point of view, a brand name influences consumer behavior and purchase intention by acting as a signal of quality level. Moreover, a brand name permits firms to endow products with unique associations. Such associations become source of competitive advantage and create barriers to entry.

Jacoby, Olson & Haddock (1971) have established the importance of brand names in product evaluation. They found that brand name was even more important determiner of perceived quality than was price. Indeed, when given a specific brand name, a consumer would activate the brand's concept, which would color his or her perception of other product information.

The firm-specific advantage possessed by a firm through its brand name is often closely linked to COO. Numerous brands are relevant and popular examples of this strong link. There is for example ample proof that Coca-Cola is associated to America, such as IBM and Ford names. In the same way, Toyota and Nikon are strongly associated to Japan (Johansson & Nebenzahl, 1986). What are the consequences of a congruity between COO and brand name?

2.3 Congruity between brand name and country-of-origin

The relationship between COO and brand image has been extensively studied in the literature.

COO is known to have an effect on brand image. Indeed, researchers mainly agree on the fact that consumers' brand image change according to country-of-production. For example, Han and Terpstra (1988) found that brand image of Japanese cars suffered erosion if produced in North Korea. Similarly, Nebenzahl and Jaffe (1996) observed that Sony suffered brand image erosion when made in the USA, whereas General Electric's brand image improved when made in Japan. Such examples reveal that brand image erosion not just appeared when the production of a product shift to a less developed country. An explanation for this

phenomenon is given by Haübl and Erold (1999): when forming product quality judgments, consumers integrate brand and country-of-production information in a two-step process. First, consumers independently take into account the quality image of the brand and the quality image of the country-of-production. Then, they make an upward adjustment if they perceive a congruity between brand and country-of-production. This brand-country-of-production congruity has a positive effect on product quality judgment above and beyond brand and country-of-production main effects. An important consequence of this finding is that when manufacturing a brand in a lower-cost or higher-cost country, the resulting loss of brand-country-of-production congruity can always be expected to have a negative effect on consumers' quality judgments in addition to any negative COO effect.

But the brand-COO relationship is a two-way phenomenon and brand image also has an impact on COO image. Indeed, a country image can be impacted by the performance of major brands originating from that particular country (Kim & Chung, 1997).

Therefore, another common area of research is to evaluate whether a strong brand name can strengthen, soften or even reverse COO effects. Relative to COO, brand seems to deliver more information and meaning that COO cue. This hypothesis is supported in the real life where we can see a dominance of brand over country in packaging and promotions. Indeed, when evaluating products in a store, consumers will usually be exposed to the brand before they know which country the product is from. A strong brand name has higher source of credibility because of the famous maker's implied warranty (Cordell, 1992). Therefore, we can expect COO effect to be diminished when correlated to a strong brand name. This proposition is supported by Cordell (1992) who demonstrated that COO is less important when the brand name of a product is known. He argued that when the product carries a famous brand name, it can counteract consumers' negative COO perceptions of less developed countries. Some researchers also found that consumers' quality judgments are less affected by the COO when a product carries a strong brand name than when it carries a weak one (Johanson & Nebenzahl, 1986; Cordell, 1992; Tse & Lee, 1993). However, studies have shown that even a strong favorable brand name cannot totally remove the effects of a negative COO (Han & Terpstra, 1988).

A strong positive brand was found to override negative assembly origin effect (Tse & Lee, 1993).

2.4 Brand equity

Several studies have demonstrated COO effects on consumer-based brand equity – abbreviated from now on to CBBE. For the purpose if this study, I will define consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) using a marketing perspective as opposed to a financial one, that is to say "the value consumers associate with a brand, as reflected in the dimensions of brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty" (Aaker, 1991). The definition by Keller (1993) is also relevant for the study, namely "the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to marketing of a brand". According to Keller (1993), the power of a brand lies in the minds of the customers and what they have experienced and learned about the brand over time.

With the increasing competition, brand equity has become a strategic concept for marketers. A high degree of brand equity has been shown to influence consumer preference and purchase intention (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995), profits and share returns (Srivatastava & Shocker, 1991), marker power (Farquhar, 1989) and sustainable competitive advantages (Bharadwaj et al., 1993), brand extension (Keller & Aaker, 1992) and consumer's willingness to pay a premium price (Keller, 1993).

For the purpose of my study, I will chose to define CBBE as conceptualized by Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993). The four dimensions of consumer-based brand equity (brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty) indirectly affect brand equity (Mohd et al., 2007), and consequently are a source of competitive advantage and future earning streams (Aaker, 1991). I will describe and analyze these four dimensions in the following section.

2.4.1 Brand awareness

According to Aaker, (1996), brand awareness precedes brand associations. Consumers need first to be aware of the brand to develop a set of associations related to the brand. The consumers can remember the brand when a need is evoked through brand recall, or remember the need when the brand is evoked through brand

recognition. Precisely, brand awareness is “the ability of a potential buyer to recognize or recall that a brand is a member of a certain product category” (Aaker, 1991). Brand awareness is composed with two dimensions, namely its depth and its breadth (Keller, 1993). Depth of brand awareness refers to the ease of recognition and recall, and the strength and clarity of category membership, as described in the Figure 1 below. Breadth of brand awareness refers to purchase and consumption consideration, and represents the main challenge for many brands.

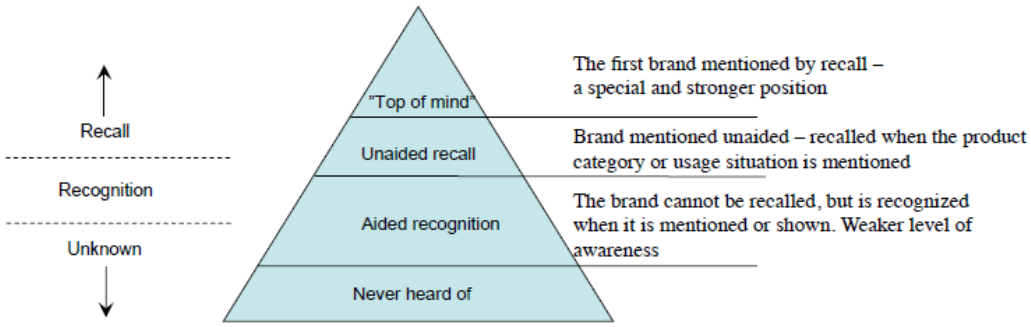


Figure 1. Source: Aaker (1991).

Fostering brand awareness increases the chance that the brand will be in the consideration set (Nedungadi, 1990) which will influence consumer decision making. Hoyer (1990) and Macdonald and Sharp (2000) both found that consumers who recognize a brand name are more likely to buy that brand because familiar products are normally preferred compared to less familiar ones.

2.4.2 Brand associations

Based on their knowledge about the brand, consumers can evaluate the brand’s attributes and benefits. Defined as “anything linked to the memory of a brand” (Aaker, 1991), brand associations embrace the meaning of the brand for consumers (Keller, 1993).

Brand associations are characterized by their direction and strength (Pappu, 2004). Concerning direction, the link between two nodes can be uni-directional or bi-directional. If the link between the nodes “brand” and “product category” is bi-directional, then the “brand” node will be activated when the “product category” node is activated and reciprocally the “product category” node will be activated when the “brand” node is activated. Then the strength of association defines the

ease with which the activation of a node leads to the activation of other linked nodes. For instance, activating the node “brand” may lead to the activation of the node “performance”, depending on how strongly the attributes “brand” and “performance” are associated with each other. Strong associations are accessible, which means that they comes to mind easily when processing an input (Bohner & Wänke, 2002).

COO leads to associations in the minds of consumers (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993). The associative network memory model (Collins & Loftus, 1975; Anderson, 1993) explains this relationship between COO and brand associations: brand associations are complicated links connected to one another, and consist of multiple ideas, episodes, instances, and facts that establish a solid network of brand knowledge (Yoo et al., 2000). Such associations can be formed by the consumer himself through direct experiences with the product, or through inferences based on existing associations (Aaker, 1991).

Let’s consider the Figure 2 below which summarize brand knowledge concept through brand awareness and brand image.

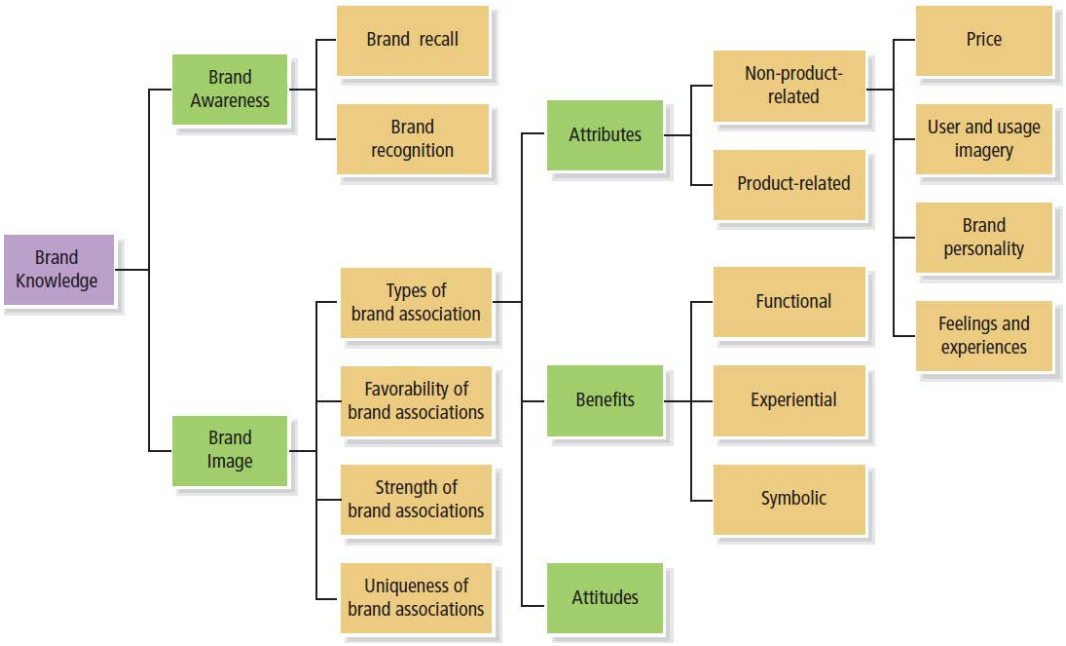


Figure 2. Source: Keller (1993).

Both brand awareness and brand associations are influenced by COO. Indeed, source of brand associations are multiple through attributes, benefits and attitudes.

Country-of-origin acts as one source of brand association because it can be considered as a product-related attribute. In the purchase of electronic goods for example, consumers associate the quality of a brand with COO image. Since consumers today are mostly well educated, it can be expected that they are well informed about the original country of their selected brands (Mohd et al., 2007).

2.4.3 Perceived quality

Perceived quality is "the customer's perception of the overall quality or superiority of a product or service with respect to its intended purpose relative to alternatives" (Aaker, 1991). It is difficult for consumers to objectively evaluate the quality of a product. That's why it is common for consumers to use quality attributes like color, flavor, form and appearance of the product and the availability of product information to "infer" quality (Bernués et al., 2003).

From a financial point of view, high perceived quality can be an explanation for a premium price, which can create greater profit margin for the firm and thus stimulate brand equity (Yoo et al., 2000).

Consumers' quality judgments are affected by COO. For example, Haübl and Elrod (1999) observed that consumers' quality perceptions of the Slovenian brand Elan were higher when the production was made in Slovenia than when the production was made in Germany.

2.4.4 Brand loyalty

Finally, the last component of CBBE is brand loyalty. Aaker (1991) defines brand loyalty as "the attachment that a customer has to a brand". Brand loyalty can be divided between behavioral loyalty and cognitive loyalty (Keller, 1993). Behavioral loyalty is characterized by the number of repeat purchases or the commitment to rebuy the brand as a primary choice (Keller, 1993). On the other hand, cognitive loyalty refers to the consumer's intention to buy the brand as a primary choice (Keller, 1993). Brand loyalty is also influenced by the customer's willingness to pay a higher price for a brand in comparison with another brand offering similar benefits (Aaker, 1996).

Attitudinal brand loyalty directly thrives brand equity: if customers are loyal to a brand even in the face of competitors' brands with superior features, it means that the brand has substantial value to the customers (Mohd et al., 2007). Mohd et al (2007) demonstrated that a good image of COO leads to a high degree of customer loyalty in a case based on electronic goods in Malaysia. They explained this relationship arguing that Malaysian consumers perceive countries with good image as technologically advances countries and brands that originate from these countries as reliable and of premium quality.

3. Framework

In this chapter each of the concept used for the study will be presented, as well as the proposed model resulting from the interaction of these concepts.

COO is considered here as a multi-dimensional construct and an extrinsic cue providing information to consumers and impacting their product evaluation (Samiee, 1994). Given the existing literature, I assume that COO provides cues to consumers regarding quality, dependability and value for money of the products, when more specific information is not readily available (Han & Terpstra, 1988; Hong & Wyer, 1989). As supported by Obermiller and Spangenberg (1989) and presented in the above section, I assume that COO has cognitive, affective and normative effects on product evaluation. Based on their micro and macro country image, consumers make cognitive elaboration of products (Roth & Romeo, 1992) and create product-category-country associations (Pappu et al., 2006).

On this study, consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) is based on the four marketing dimensions described by Keller (1993), namely brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty. Assuming that these four dimensions indirectly affect brand equity (Mohd et al., 2007), they are also source of competitive advantage and future earning streams (Aaker, 1991). Since brand awareness is not easy manipulated, this dimension is not going to be tested in this paper. Indeed, brand awareness would not have been influenced by brand name, since brand awareness can only be measured if brand name is revealed.

I consider brand name as the root of brand image, defining the subjective and emotional cluster of meaning and symbols that consumers attribute to a particular brand. As COO, brand name is here considered as an extrinsic cue, providing "signals" for product quality (Steenkamp, 1990) and influencing consumers' perceptions and cognitive elaboration (Hong & Wyer, 1989). When giving a specific brand name, a consumer would activate the brand's concept, which would colours his or her perception of other product information.

The figure 3 below presents my proposed model for the study.

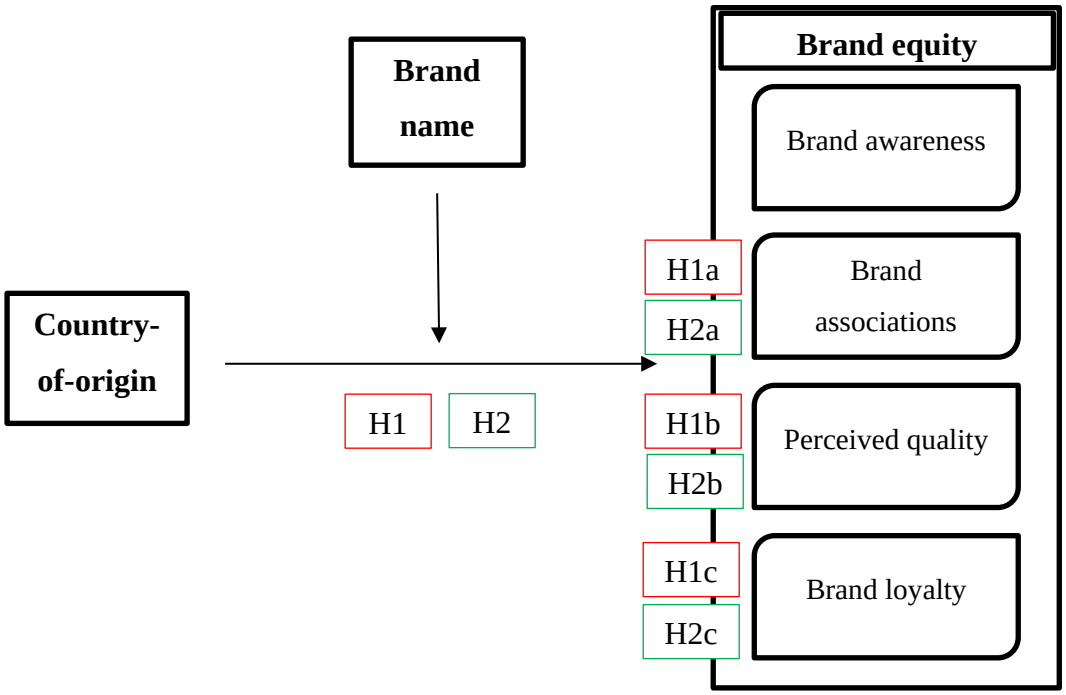


Figure 3.

COO is the independent variable and has a direct impact on the four dimensions of consumer-based brand equity (brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty). The four dimensions of CBBE are the dependent variables of the model.

But this impact is influenced by a moderator which is the brand name. Brand name moderates the impact of COO on the four components of CBBE by affecting the strength of the relationship.

4. Research hypothesis and objectives

In this section, the research hypothesis are defined based on previous theories and researches that support them.

COO and brand name have been shown to both affect consumer evaluation of a product and brand equity through their role of extrinsic cues. Products may be viewed as "an array of cues" and consumer's task in evaluating a product is to use cues from the array as the basis for making judgments about the product" (Cox, 1964). Therefore an important research question is raised: what happened when COO and brand name are delivering different messages as the basis for product judgment?

This thesis will consider the proposed framework (Figure 3) and evaluate the relative power of the moderator which is the brand name over the relationship between COO and CBBE dimensions. Assuming that COO has effects on CBBE dimensions, the objective of the thesis is to evaluate whether a strong brand name can strengthen or even reverse these COO effects. For this purpose, the study will assess the influence of a strong brand name on COO effects in two different scenarios:

1. When COO has a positive effect on the four dimensions of CBBE
2. When COO has a negative effect on the four dimensions of CBBE

Therefore the hypothesis are the following.

H1: Consumer-based brand equity is less affected by a negative COO effect when a product carries a strong brand name.

H1a: Brand associations are less affected by a negative COO effect when a product carries a strong brand name.

H1b: Perceived quality is less affected by a negative COO effect when a product carries a strong brand name.

H1c: Brand loyalty is less affected by a negative COO effect when a product carries a strong brand name.

H2: Consumer-based brand equity is more affected by a positive COO effect when a product carries a strong brand name.

H2a: Brand associations are more affected by a positive COO effect when a product carries a strong brand name.

H2b: Perceived quality is more affected by a positive COO effect when a product carries a strong brand name.

H2c: Brand loyalty is more affected by a positive COO effect when a product carries a strong brand name.

As seen in the literature review, a multi-cue approach is crucial in evaluating the impact of COO on consumers' product evaluation and behavior. In this way this master thesis will evaluate the perceived importance of COO cue regarding another cue which is the brand name. Some researchers found that the effects of COO on CBBE may be moderated by variables such as the brand name but to my knowledge no one has analyzed this moderating role in the two described scenarios, namely when the COO effect is originally positive and when the COO effect is originally negative.

To sum up, this master thesis will permit to assess if a strong brand name can emphasize a positive COO effect and if a strong brand name can reverse a negative COO effect.

5. Research methods

This section presents the research methodology of the study, in other words how the research will be conducted: research design, empirical work and data collection. The chapter also presents an evaluation of the study, in terms of reliability and validity.

5.1 Research Design

To conduct the research, a quantitative approach was selected, defined by Aliaga and Gunderson (2002) as "explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analyzed using mathematically based methods in particular statistics". A quantitative approach was more appropriate because the main objective of the study is to count, hierarchize, balance and resume a moderator effect – the brand name impact over country-of-origin effect on brand equity –. To do this, I design research instruments aimed specifically at converting the studied phenomena that don't naturally exist in quantitative form into quantitative data, which I can analyze statistically. In this study the studied phenomena are attitudes and beliefs forming consumer-based brand equity regarding two variables, namely COO and brand name. As these attitudes do not naturally exist in quantitative form, I develop a questionnaire that asks respondents a number of statements, described in the following sections.

The quantitative research will be an experimental design, characterized by the control of the environment as much as possible and the concentration on those variables I want to study. Indeed, the basis of the experimental method is the experiment, which can be defined as "a test under controlled conditions that is made to demonstrate a known truth or examine the validity of a hypothesis" (Muijs, 2010). An experimental design was the more accurate measure regarding this research because it permits to generate results from a population and then generalize these results.

In order to test the hypothesis, three different questionnaires will be distributed randomly to my sample. Indeed, once the population selected to take part in the study, they are randomly assigned to one of the questionnaire. This randomisation is executed by the choice of a number between 1 and 3 on the first question of the

survey. Each number refers to a different questionnaire, characterized by a different country-of-origin. The random selection is most likely to ensure that there is no bias as everyone will have an exactly equal chance to be in each group.

Finally, the study is characterized by a multi-cue design. Actually, a single cue might provoke a false significant cue effect (Bilkey & Nes, 1982). Thus a multi-cue approach is crucial in investigating the impact of COO on consumer evaluation and behavior towards a product (Erickson et al., 1984). Indeed, it is the perceived importance of COO cue *regarding* the others that determine COO effects (Eroglu & Machleit, 1988). In this case the perceived importance of COO cue regarding brand name is analyzed.

5.2 Choice of country, brand and product-category

As COO is known to be product specific, the master thesis will focus on only one product category which is high quality chocolates. High quality chocolates are quite expensive products relative to their generic counterparts. Therefore, they are high involvement products with a certain amount of risk associated with them. Consumers often buy them for special occasion or even as a gift. Therefore, consumers must have acquired some brand knowledge and develop choice criteria before making a purchase decision. Moreover, to my knowledge this product category hasn't been studied before and could therefore fill in a gap in the area of topic.

The premium chocolate brand Lindt was chosen to test my hypothesis. Lindt is a Swiss chocolatier and confectionery company founded in 1845 whose headquarters is located in Zürich. The brand is famous for its chocolate truffles and chocolate bars, among other sweets. Lindt benefits from a strong brand name and is therefore of interest for the purpose of the study.

Another important variable which impacts COO effects is the geographic area where COO effects are evaluated. Indeed, according to Verlegh (1999), COO effects are larger in studies that compare products from More Developed Countries (MDC) to products from Less Developed Countries (LDC), than in studies that compare products from either MDCs or LDCs. For the purpose of this study, the

chosen countries of origin are Russia, Italy, and Switzerland. The three different COO will be associated with different COO effect, respectively negative, neutral, and positive, in order to have a complete view of the model and the interactions. The first questionnaire will specify Russia as the COO of Lindt brand. In this case, I expect an incongruity between brand and country image, and therefore a negative COO effect. The second questionnaire will specify Italy as the COO of Lindt brand. In this case, I expect a neutral congruence between brand and country image, and therefore a relatively neutral COO effect. Finaly, the third questionnaire will specify Switzerland as the COO of Lindt brand. In this case, I expect a high congruity between brand and country image, as Switzerland is globally recognize as chocolate's country of origin. Therefore COO effect is expected to be important in the latter case.

The research design is summarized in the figure 4 below.

COO	**Expected COO effect**	**Brand name**
Russia	Negative product-country match ➔ Negative COO effect	Lindt - Famous
Italy	Neutral product-country match ➔ Neutral COO effect	Lindt - Famous
Switzerland	Positive product-country match ➔ Positive COO effect	Lindt - Famous

Figure 4.

Russian and Swiss scenarios will be used to test my hypothesis by directly evaluating brand name effect over the relationship between COO and CBBE dimensions. Indeed, the Russian scenario will be the basis for H1 testing – and consequently H1a, H1b and H1c- when COO has a negative effect on the four dimensions of CBBE. On the other hand, the Swiss scenario will be the basis for H2 testing – and consequently H2a, H2b and H2c – when COO has a positive effect on the four dimensions of CBBE.

The Italian scenario will be used to control brand name effect in the context of a neutral product-country match and a neutral COO effect. It will not be directly used

to test my hypothesis, but to confirm the existence of brand name effect independently from COO effect.

5.3 Questionnaire

Three versions of the questionnaire were computed, each questionnaire differentiated by the COO revealed for the Lindt brand, as described in the above section. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of the three experimental groups. For each questionnaire, the independent variable «country-of-origin» is manipulated in order to test the different outcomes on the dependent variable which is brand equity (as mediated by the four dimensions of consumer-based brand equity). The independent variable brand name is not manipulated and remains equal for each questionnaire. The figure 5 below presents a summary of the variables used in the studied construct and their name used on SPSS software.

N.B: When I created all the variables on SPSS software, I chose a fast and easy to memorize rule: all the variables begin with the first letter of the studied country. Example: RCIMAGE1 refers to the first variable studying country image for Russia while SCIMAGE1 refers to the first variable studying country image for Switzerland.

Definition of variables			*SPSS name*
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	***Country image***	*Inovativeness*	*RCIMAGE1 ; ICIMAGE1 ; SCIMAGE1*
		Design	*RCIMAGE2 ; ICIMAGE2 ; SCIMAGE2*
		Prestige	*RCIMAGE3 ; ICIMAGE3 ; SCIMAGE3*
		Workmanship	*RCIMAGE4 ; ICIMAGE4 ; SCIMAGE4*
DEPENDANT VARIABLES	***Brand associations***	*Strenght*	*RASSO1 ; IASSO1 ; SASSO1*
		Favorability	*RASSO2 ; IASSO2 ; SASSO2*
		Uniqueness	*RASSO3 ; IASSO3 ; SASSO3*
	Perceived quality	*Reliability*	*RQUAL1 ; IQUAL1 ; SQUAL1*
		Gustative quality	*RQUAL2 ; IQUAL2 ; SQUAL2*
		Appearance	*RQUAL3 ; IQUAL3 ; SQUAL3*
	Brand loyalty	*Intention to buy*	*RLOY1 ; ILOY1 ; SLOY1*
		Intention to buy as a primary choice	*RLOY2 ; ILOY2 ; SLOY2*
		Willingness to pay a premium price	*RLOY3 ; ILOY3 ; SLOY3*

Figure 5.

For each question of the survey, I use a 7-point scale. The psychometric literature suggests that having more than 5-point scale is better but there is a diminishing return after around 11 points (Nunnally, 1978). Having seven points tends to be a good balance between having enough points of discrimination without having to maintain too many response options, and permits to reduce measurement errors.

Subjects were asked to evaluate a product among three countries. See Appendix 1 for the three complete questionnaires. Once again, the Italian scenario is more a control assay used to check brand name effect.

Each survey will be based on three parts. For each survey, a brief presentation sentence intents to reassure the respondent and encourage him to answer questions as genuinely as possible.

The aim of the first part will be to capture respondents' COO image of Russia, Italy or Switzerland, their product category-country associations with high quality chocolates, and the effect of COO over the four dimensions of consumer-based brand equity (brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty) without revealing the brand name. The first part will permit to confirm the expected COO effect for each country: Russia (negative), Italy (neutral) and Switzerland (positive). Country image of Russia, Italy and Switzerland was captured through four dimensions, namely innovativeness (use of new technology and engineering advances), design (appearance, style, colors and variety), prestige (exclusivity, status, and brand name reputation) and workmanship (reliability, durability, craftsmanship and manufacturing). These four dimensions were chosen because they were consistently found in previous research, related to perceptions of a country's production and marketing strengths and weaknesses, and are applicable to a broad range of product categories (Roth & Romeo, 1992). Moreover, the associative strength of respondents' product category-country associations was measured using the "naming method" suggested by Fazio (1987). In detail, the questionnaire presents subjects with the name of the product category label (premium chocolates) and asks them to list the names of three countries that came to their mind when they thought of this product category. The order in which respondents listed the countries was used as the basis for preparing a rating for each

of the countries. This rating was then computed for all the countries mentioned by the respondents. Results can be seen in Appendix 5.

Finally, the items measuring the dimensions of consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) –brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty – were developed with reference to the empirical studies of Yoo and Donthu (2001) and Lassar et al., (1995). I chose to refer to their scale development studies because they are the most commonly accepted measure of CBBE (Washburn & Plank, 2002). As mentioned before, brand awareness was not measuring before and after the brand name revealed, because it is hardly subject to manipulation. However, after Lindt brand name revealed, I evaluate respondent's brand awareness of Lindt to assess the validity of the answer: it is impossible to test the effect of brand name if respondents are not aware of the brand in question.

The second part will focus on evaluating COO effect over the four dimensions but after revealing the brand name (Lindt) of the chocolates.

Finally, the last part will pay attention to respondents' demographics questioning them about their gender, age and nationality. This part will permit us to observe whether some moderating factors –such as culture and consumer demographics- may have significant influence on consumers' perception and therefore be the root of some COO bias.

5.3 Data collection

For the accommodation of the study, the target population of my questionnaire are students whose age ranges between 20 and 30 and from two business schools: BI in Oslo (Norway) and EDHEC in Lille (France). The paper will consider that the magnitude of the COO effects does not differ between studies using student samples and studies using "representative" consumer samples (Verlegh, 1999). Therefore no COO effects bias should be created with this choice and results will be generalizable. Moreover, France and Norway were chosen as sample's location of the study because Lindt is a brand from Switzerland, and therefore no COO effects bias should be created by using French and Norwegian consumers. Finally, France and Norway are both developed countries and business school students from these two countries can be assumed to share relatively common background concerning

education, socio-economic class and habit of traveling. Assuming that COO effect varies by culture, the survey will pay attention to the demographics of the respondents but as Norwegian and French culture can be considered as quite similar, no bias should be observed.

To facilitate the distribution toward both BI and EDHEC students, I chose an Internet survey through Qualtrics, a platform specialized in insights collection. Then the analysis of the results will be conducted using the software IBM SPSS Statistics.

The three questionnaires were randomly assigned to all Master students of EDHEC and BI. Two versions of each questionnaire were developed, both in English and French in order to facilitate respondents' comprehension. Being French, I couldn't create a Norwegian speaking survey and I chose to send the English version to Norwegian students as most of them are bilingual. Concerning French respondents, I chose to conduct a complete translation from English to French, in order to ensure a complete comprehension as the level of English can be quite disparate among French students.

5.4 Evaluation of the study

The three keys concepts in quantitative methods are validity, reliability and generalizability. All three have got to do with measurement.

5.4.1 Validity

Validity asks the question: are we measuring what we want to measure? To answer this question, let's analyze the content validity, criterion validity and construct validity of the study.

Content validity refers to whether or not the content of the items of the questionnaire is right to measure the latent concept, namely brand name effect on the relationship between COO and CBBE. To ensure a complete content validity, an extensive search of the literature on the COO, brand name and brand equity concepts was conducted and related in the literature review section. I accorded all the measurement instruments to a theory from previous empirical research.

Criterion validity is also closely related to theory. What is needed to establish criterion validity is first a good knowledge of theory relating to the concept so that it is possible to decide what variables are expected to be predicted by and related to it. As for content validity, I conducted an extensive literature review in order to decide about these variables. Moreover, establishing criterion validity requires also a measure of the relationship between the measure and those factors. To do so, I conducted a bivariate correlation analysis to statistically measure whether there is a relationship. A correlation is considered significant if the significance level (Sig) is lower than 0,05. See Appendix 2 for detailed results of the inter-item correlations. According to the results for Russia, all the correlation coefficients for the different variables were significant at the level Sig < 0,05 except strength and uniqueness of brand associations (Sig=0,466), favorability and uniqueness of brand associations (Sig=0,572), intention to buy and willingness to pay a higher price (Sig=0,372). Concerning Italy, all the correlation coefficients for the different variables were significant at the level Sig < 0,05 except innovativeness and design (Sig=0,141), innovativeness and prestige (Sig=0,322), innovativeness and quality of workmanship (Sig=0,097).

For Switzerland, all the correlation coefficient for the different variables were significant at the level Sig < 0,05 except strength and favorability of brand associations (Sig=0,917), favorability and uniqueness of brand associations (Sig=0,388), innovativeness and prestige (Sig=0,132), prestige and quality of workmanship (Sig=0,05), reliability and appearance (Sig=0,347). I considered that in spite of these insignificant correlation, there is a satisfying agreement among the measures in the same construct. All things considered, the evaluation of convergent validity is considered as successful.

Finally, construct validity relates to the internal structure of an instrument and the concept it is measuring. Once again, it is closely related to the theoretical knowledge of the concept. From the literature review, I found out that CBBE is a multidimensional constructs based on brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty and I developed questions based on each dimension.

5.4.2 Reliability

A second element that determines the quality of the measurement is reliability. Reliability refers to the extent to which test scores are free of measurement errors. Repeated measurement and internal consistency are the two forms of reliability. Repeated measurement has to do with the ability to measure the same thing at different times. The same instrument should come up with the same answer when used with the same respondent. Internal consistency refers to how homogeneous the items of a test are or how well they measure a single construct.

A commonly used measure of the reliability is the Cronbach's Alfa. The measure is expected to be over 0,7 for the test to be internally consistent. Results of Cronbach's Alpha technique can be seen in Appendix 3. I analyzed the variables for the four dimensions observed, namely country image, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty.

As far as Russian scenario is concerned, brand associations has a Cronbach's alpha lower than 0,7, with a score of 0,468. By looking at Cronbach's alpha is item is deleted, I can see that the alpha will increase to 0,654 by deleting the uniqueness of brand associations variable. One explanation for this result can be that the uniqueness of brand associations has scored low compared to the two other variables in this construct, because respondents usually struggle to perfectly understand and visualize what "uniqueness of a brand association" means. Brand loyalty also has a Cronbach's alpha slightly lower than 0,7, with a score of 0,689. By looking at Cronbach's alpha is item is deleted, I can see that the alpha will increase to 0,698 and 0,706 by deleting intention to buy and willingness to pay a premium price respectively.

As far as Italian scenario is concerned, country image has a Cronbach's alpha lower than 0,7, with a score of 0,649. By looking at Cronbach's alpha is item is deleted, I can see that the alpha will increase to 0,717 by deleting the innovativeness variable. One explanation for this result can be that perceived innovativeness of Italy has scored low compared to the three other variables in this construct, because respondents considered Italy with an image of design, prestige and quality of workmanship but not an innovative country.

As far as Swiss scenario is concerned, brand associations has a Cronbach's alpha lower than 0,7, with a score of 0,423. By looking at Cronbach's alpha is item is deleted, I can see that the alpha will increase to 0,717 by deleting the favorability of brand associations variable. As for Russia, one possible explanation for this result is the difficulty for respondents to conceptualize what "favorability of brand associations" means.

All the rest of Cronbach's alpha for the different constructs and in all of the three scenarios – Russian, Italian and Swiss – are above the rule of thumb level of 0,7 and indicates internal consistency of my scale. Deleting some of the variables would slightly increase the Cronbach's alpha but not significantly increase the consistency of the data. Therefore I chose to retain all items.

5.4.3. Normality

To assess normality, I measured skewness and kurtosis values. For both measures, a perfectly normal distribution should return a score of 0. Otherwise, a positive skewness value indicates positive (right) skew and a negative value indicates negative (left) skew. The higher the absolute value, the greater the skew. Similarly, a positive kurtosis value indicates positive kurtosis and a negative one indicates negative kurtosis. The higher the absolute value, the greater the kurtosis. It is commonly accepted that skewness or kurtosis value between +- 2.0 are acceptable and value between +-1.0 are considered excellent (George & Mallery, 2009). See Appendix 4 for detailed results of Skewness and Kurtosis analysis. The results show excellent and very good values of skewness and kurtosis for all three scenarios, with all values between +-2.0 and most of them between +-1.0. The only out of range values concern prestige image of Switzerland (skewness=-2,200; kurtosis=6,103) and favorability of brand associations in the Swiss scenario (skewness=-2,003; kurtosis=5,996). These results can be explained by the fact that, for these particular variables, the mean value scores well above the median value because respondents tend to grade prestige image of Switzerland and favorability of brand associations in the Swiss scenario relatively high. Intention to buy in the Italian scenario also has a high kurtosis value equals to 2,108 but largely acceptable. The assumption of normality is then validated.

5.4.4. Generalizability

As the empirical study takes a sample rather than studies the whole population, it is important to check the generalization from the sample to the whole population.

The paper will consider that the magnitude of the COO effects does not differ between studies using student samples and studies using “representative” consumer samples (Verlegh, 1999). Therefore no COO effects bias should be created with this choice and results will be generalizable.

6 Data analysis and results

In this section, an analysis of the data material and missing data will be conducted. Then the empirical results of the study and the test of the formulated hypotheses will be presented.

6.1 Data material

For the questionnaire whose COO was described as Russia, I obtained 41 respondents for the French version and 24 respondents for the English version. 43% female and 57% male answered the questionnaire, with an age range between 20 and 30, and a mean age of 24. Among respondents, 70% were French, 17% Norwegian and 13% were from other countries (Austrian, Thai, German, Mexican, Dutch and Spanish).

For the questionnaire whose COO was described as Italy, I obtained 63 respondents for the French version and 17 respondents for the English version. 26% female and 74% male answered the questionnaire, with an age range between 20 and 27, and a mean age of 23 years. Among respondents, 85% were French, 8% Norwegian and 7% were from other countries (Singaporean, Swedish, Finnish and Canadian).

For the questionnaire whose COO was described as Switzerland, I obtained 28 respondents for the French version and 24 respondents for the English version. 62,5% female and 37,5% male answered the questionnaire, with an age range between 20 and 27 years, and a mean age of 25 years. Among respondents, 58% were French, 21% Norwegian, 5% Italian, 7% Vietnamese, and 9% were from other countries (American, Principality of Lichtenstein, Polish and Austrian).

In total, I obtained 191 respondents regardless of the type of questionnaire. As respondents should be aware of the Lindt brand to answer the survey, I assess their brand knowledge by asking them to qualify their knowledge of the Lindt brand on a scale of one to four. The scale permitted to assess the depth of respondents' brand awareness between "top of mind" (special and stronger position of the brand), unaided recall (recall the brand when the product category or usage situation is mentioned), aided recognition (recognize the brand when it is mentioned or shown) and "never heard of". To ensure consistency of the study, I chose to delete from the

data set respondents who answered “never heard of” to reduce bias in the results. Fortunately, no respondents were in this case and thus all the questionnaires were considered valid.

6.2 Missing data

Before analysing the empirical results, I checked for the uncomplete questionnaires and extracted them from the data set. It appeared that 154 out of 205 surveys were entirely completed while 53 were partially completed. Therefore 74,4% of the data set was actually reliable. I chose to extract the 25,6% that was useless for my analysis. Such an extraction would permit to reduce bias in the results. Even after extracting these invalid surveys, I had still around 50 answers for each scenarios, which remained largely acceptable.

To ensure that no bias would be present in the data collection, I also check if any respondents were from Russia, Italy or Switzerland in order to extract their answers from the data set. As detailed in the literature review, respondents from a certain country can be biased in their answer towards their country-of-origin image. Fortunately, no respondents were from these three particular countries.

6.3 Data analysis

This part will present the data analysis of my experimental research. The presentation of the results is divided in three parts. First, product category-country associations between premium chocolates and the three studied countries will be checked using the naming method. Second, I will analyse country-of-origin effects for Russia, Italy and Switzerland. Finally, I will analyse the impact of brand name on this relationship for each scenario studied separately.

6.3.1 Product category-country associations

In the construct of the study, premium chocolates were chosen and I implicitly assumed that Switzerland had a high product category-country association while Italy had a neutral product category-country association and Russia had a low product category-country association. In order to test this assumption, I used the naming method (Fazio, 1987, 1990). Indeed, in the survey, the name of the product category label (premium chocolates) was presented to respondents. Then respondents were asked to list the names of three countries that came to their mind

when they thought of a given product category (premium chocolates). The order in which the respondents listed the countries was used as the basis for preparing a rating for each of the countries. This rating was then computed for all the countries mentioned by the respondents and countries were ranked based on the ratings. If Switzerland was the first country, in the list of the three countries mentioned by the respondents, Switzerland was given a score of three. If Switzerland was the third country mentioned, Switzerland was given a score of one, and so on. Results are presented in Appendix 5. Respondents associated a total of 24 countries with premium chocolate category. The top three countries were Switzerland, Belgium and France with a distinctive individual score. The results confirms the high product category-country association between Switzerland and premium chocolates with a top position score of 399. Additionally, it is confirmed that Italy has a neutral product category-country association with premium chocolates with a score of 34. Finally, Russia has a low product category-country associations with premium chocolates since its score is 2. These results confirm the validity of the chosen countries, respectively Russia for a low product category-country association leading to a negative country image, Italy for a neutral product category-country association leading to a neutral country image and Switzerland for a high product category-country association, leading to a positive country image.

6.3.2 Country-of-origin effects

Let's now compare the country image for Russia, Italy and Switzerland. The figure 6 below tries to summarize the three COO effects by analyzing the mean value of each variables, namely country image, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty.

		Countries		
		Russia	**Italy**	**Switzerland**
Variables	**Measures**	**Mean**	**Mean**	**Mean**
Country image	**Innovativeness**	2,97	3,22	4,27
	Design	2,97	5,64	4,50
	Prestige	3,03	5,65	6,23
	Workmanship	3,06	5,29	6,00
Brand associations	**Strong**	3,95	4,26	5,08
	Favorable	3,84	4,88	5,50
	Unique	4,00	3,40	3,96
Perceived quality	**Reliability**	4,28	4,73	5,75
	Gustative quality	3,36	3,51	4,62
	Appearance	4,00	3,86	4,42
Brand loyalty	**Intention**	2,93	2,78	3,67
	Primary choice	2,65	2,87	3,80
	Premium price	2,53	2,46	3,36

Figure 6.

When analyzing the mean, it is visible that Russia has a negative country image in all the four items (M=2,97; M=2,97; M=3,03; M=3,06) whereas Switzerland has a positive country image in all the four items (M=4,27; M=4,50; M=6,23; M=6,00). Italy is also confirmed to be the origin of a neutral COO effect (M=3,22; M=5,64; M=5,65; M=5,29). All items combined, Russia has a mean of M=3,00 while Switzerland has a mean of M=5,25, and Italy has a mean of M=4,95. An evaluation of the means also reveals that brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty –namely the three dimensions of CBBE along with brand awareness- obtain the highest score when linked to Switzerland as a COO and the lowest score when linked to Russia as the COO.

6.3.2 Impact of brand name

After evaluating COO effects on brand equity for Russia, Italy and Switzerland, I am now going to analyse the impact of brand name on this relationship. Then my analysis is based on paired t-tests to compare two population means, before and after the disclosure of Lindt brand name. A paired t-test consists on the following step:

1. Calculate the difference between the two observation on each pair, distinguishing between positive and negative differences
2. Calculate the mean difference
3. Calculate the standard deviation of the differences and use this to calculate the standard error of the mean difference
4. Calculate the t-statistic
5. Use tables of the t-distribution to compare the value for the t-statistic to the t_{n-1} distribution. This will give the p-value (Sig) for the paired t-test. The p-value (Sig) is considered significant if its value is lower than 0,05.
6. Calculate the confidence interval for the mean difference to tell within what limits the true difference is likely to lie.

For this test to be valid the differences only need to be approximately normally distributed. I previously conducted a normality analysis that confirmed this requirement.

See Appendix 6 for complete results.

Analysis of the impact of brand name for Russia

Test sur échantillon unique

Valeur de test = 0

	t	ddl	Sig. (bilatéral)	Différence moyenne	Intervalle de confiance de la différence à 95 % Inférieur	Supérieur
DRBIMAGE1	6,028	33	,000	1,64706	1,0912	2,2030
DRBIMAGE2	5,965	32	,000	1,72727	1,1374	2,3171
DRBIMAGE3	1,055	31	,300	,46875	-,4377	1,3752
DRQUAL1	3,037	32	,005	,72727	,2395	1,2150
DRQUAL2	4,378	31	,000	1,12500	,6009	1,6491
DRQUAL3	1,955	32	,059	,54545	-,0228	1,1137
DRLOY1	4,686	27	,000	1,32143	,7429	1,9000
DRLOY2	2,881	25	,008	1,23077	,3510	2,1106
DRLOY3	2,158	25	,041	,76923	,0350	1,5035

The hypotheses for brand name impact are:

H0: The impact of brand name on the relationship between COO and brand equity is not significant

HA: The impact of brand name on the relationship between COO and brand equity is significant

By conducting a t-test on the 9 items of brand equity (3 items for each dimensions), I observe that 7 out of 9 items are significantly different before and after brand name was disclosed. See Appendix 7a for the complete output. The uniqueness of brand associations and the appearance are the only variable whose significance level are above 0,05 (Sig=0,300 and Sig=0,059 respectively).

Hence I reject the null hypothesis. The results show that the mean variables measuring consumer-based brand equity - as mediated by brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty – differ significantly before and after Lindt brand name was revealed. Respondents significantly leverage their brand equity after the brand name was revealed. Two of the items did not significantly differ (i.e uniqueness of brand associations and appearance) but I consider this sufficient to reject the null hypothesis.

Analysis of the impact of brand name for Italy

Test sur échantillon unique

Valeur de test = 0

	t	ddl	Sig. (bilatéral)	Différence moyenne	Intervalle de confiance de la différence à 95 % Inférieur	Supérieur
DIBIMAGE1	4,626	50	,000	1,25490	,7100	1,7998
DIBIMAGE2	1,308	49	,197	,36000	-,1930	,9130
DIBIMAGE3	1,744	43	,088	,56818	-,0888	1,2252
DIQUAL1	2,664	50	,010	,58824	,1447	1,0318
DIQUAL2	3,155	49	,003	,86000	,3123	1,4077
DIQUAL3	2,114	50	,040	,56863	,0283	1,1089
DILOY1	5,175	45	,000	1,34783	,8232	1,8724
DILOY2	3,349	44	,002	1,06667	,4249	1,7085
DILOY3	4,032	42	,000	1,11628	,5576	1,6750

The hypotheses for brand name impact are:

H0: The impact of brand name on the relationship between COO and brand equity is not significant

HA: The impact of brand name on the relationship between COO and brand equity is significant

By conducting a t-test on the 9 items of brand equity (3 items for each dimensions), I observe that only 2 out of 9 items are not significantly different before and after brand name was disclosed. See Appendix 7b for the complete output. The favourability and the uniqueness of brand associations are the only variable whose significance level is above 0,05 (Sig=0,197 and Sig=0,088 respectively).

Hence I reject the null hypothesis. The results show that the mean variables measuring consumer-based brand equity - as mediated by brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty – differ significantly before and after Lindt brand name was revealed. Respondents significantly leverage their brand equity after the brand name was revealed. Two of the items did not significantly differ (i.e favourability and uniqueness of brand associations) but I consider this sufficient to reject the null hypothesis.

This result is not used to test our hypothesis but confirms that brand name effect effectively exists. Indeed, in this case, COO effect was been shown to be neutral but still there is a difference before and after Lindt brand name was revealed. This scenario thus confirm the existence of brand name effect independently.

Analysis of the mpact of brand name for Switzerland

Test sur échantillon unique

Valeur de test = 0

	t	ddl	Sig. (bilatéral)	Différence moyenne	Intervalle de confiance de la différence à 95 % Inférieur	Supérieur
DSBIMAGE1	3,214	22	,004	,56522	,2005	,9300
DSBIMAGE2	,249	23	,806	,08333	-,6090	,7757
DSBIMAGE3	1,896	20	,072	,76190	-,0763	1,6001
DSQUAL1	,464	23	,647	,08333	-,2885	,4552
DSQUAL2	-,140	23	,890	-,04167	-,6577	,5744
DSQUAL3	,811	23	,426	,33333	-,5173	1,1840
DSLOY1	2,441	23	,023	,91667	,1399	1,6935
DSLOY2	,659	23	,517	,16667	-,3567	,6900
DSLOY3	,336	20	,741	,09524	-,4966	,6871

The hypotheses for brand name impact are:

H0: The impact of brand name on the relationship between COO and brand equity is not significant

HA: The impact of brand name on the relationship between COO and brand equity is significant

By conducting a t-test on the 9 items of brand equity (3 items for each dimensions), I observe that only 2 out of 9 items are significantly different before and after brand name was disclosed. See Appendix 7c for the complete output. The strength of brand associations and the intention to buy are the only variables whose significance level is below 0,05 (Sig=0,04 and Sig=0,023 respectively).

Hence the null hypothesis is not rejected. The results show that the mean variables measuring consumer-based brand equity - as mediated by brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty – don't differ significantly before and after Lindt brand name was revealed. Respondents don't significantly leverage their brand equity after the brand name was revealed. Just two of the items significantly differ (i.e strength of brand associations and intention to buy) but I consider this result insufficient to reject the null hypothesis.

7 Discussion and implications

COO and brand name are both extrinsic cues used by consumers to evaluate and make judgments about a product. As many researchers have focused on COO effects on brand equity, I wanted to explore whether a negative COO effect could be faded in favor of a strong brand name and whether a positive COO effect could be strengthen when coupled to a strong brand name. Therefore, the main purpose of this study was to assess the impact of a strong brand name on the relationship between COO and CBBE. This research would fill in a gap in the literature review by assessing if it is possible to counteract for a negative COO effect and strengthen a positive COO effect.

To do so, I formulated two main hypothesis. The first main hypothesis stipulates that CBBE is less affected by a negative COO effect when a product carries a strong brand name. This hypothesis was subdivided into three hypothesis accounting for each dimensions of CBBE, respectively brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty. The second main hypothesis stipulates that CBBE is more affected by a positive COO effect when a product carries a strong brand name. Accordingly, this hypothesis was also subdivided into three hypothesis accounting for each dimensions of CBBE. Thus I conducted an analysis on the influence of a strong brand name in two different scenarios, namely when COO has a positive effect on the four dimensions of CBBE and when COO has a negative effect on the four dimensions of CBBE. I used a neutral scenario with a neutral COO effect to assess the existence of a brand name effect independently from any COO effect.

The results are summarized in the following figure 7. A positive sign (+) accounts for a significant difference in the value of the variable before and after Lindt brand name was revealed. On the opposite, a negative sign (-) implies that the difference was not significant before and after Lindt brand name was disclosed.

		Russia	Italy	Switzerland
Country image	***Product category-country associations***	Low	Neutral	High
Brand associations	***Strong***	+	+	+
	Favorable	+	-	-
	Unique	-	-	-
Perceived quality	***Reliability***	+	+	-
	Gustative quality	+	+	-
	Appearance	-	+	-
Brand loyalty	***Intention to buy***	+	+	+
	Primary choice	+	+	-
	Premium price	+	+	-

Figure 7.

Concerning Russia, all the variables measuring brand associations have a significant value difference before and after brand name revealed, except for the uniqueness. Thus I conclude a partial support for H1a. Accordingly, all the variables measuring perceived quality have a significant value difference before and after brand name revealed, except for the appearance. H1b is then partially supported. Finally, concerning brand loyalty, all the variables have a significant value difference, which leads to a complete support for H1b. All things considered, H1 is supported.

Concerning Switzerland, none of the variables measuring brand associations have a significant value difference before and after brand name revealed, except for the strength of brand associations. Therefore H2a is not supported. None of the variables measuring perceived quality has a significant value difference, rejecting H2b. Finally, only one variable measuring brand loyalty – intention to buy - has a

significant value difference, rejecting H2c. I conclude that H2 is not supported. Even though all the measured variables increase their value before and after brand name revealed, this increase is not significant.

The study findings are in agreement with findings from Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999). They found evidence for country-of-origin information to be less important when presented with other cues. My results confirm this assumption. When presented with another cue – the brand name – a negative COO effect can be counteract because consumers focus more on the brand name cue than on the COO cue. Accordingly, a positive COO effect is not significantly leveraged in the presence of brand name cue because its importance is reduced.

As far a data material is concerned, it is important to mention that I obtained a lot of survey responses from French respondents since 67% of the survey respondents were French. This result is not a factor of bias since I chose not to include France into the studied countries. However, COO effects are known to vary by consumer nationality and culture (Bilkey & Nes, 1982). Therefore French respondents might report different COO perceptions compared with respondents from other regions of the world. Switzerland is a neighbor of France and both countries share a lot of cultural and economic links. Thus French respondents can be expected to be more positive towards Switzerland and the Lindt brand than any other respondent.

This research will be of practical value for managers for many reasons. First, the study confirms the importance of product category-country associations in product evaluation. Without the presence of other cues, managers operating in the international context should assess the quality of these associations before using COO to raise consumer awareness of their products. They need to manage and track the impact of consumers' COO image for each on the dimensions of brand equity. Hence, if a strong product category-country association is developed for a product category, managers should focus on developing a favorable image for the COO. By enhancing and promoting a good image of the brand's COO, the overall image of the brand can be enhanced. On the other hand, if such association is low or inexistent, managers should concentrate on other cues of the brands to contribute to increase CBBE. Nowadays, consumers tend to be unaware of the national origin of

even well-known brands (Samee, Shimp & Sharma, 2005). Marketers may prefer this situation if negative effects of a COO prevail. Hence if positive effects of a COO prevail, managers need to emphasize COO.

Second, it would help managers to choose whether to concentrate on leveraging the brand name reputation or the COO reputation and permit them to think in a long-term perspective.

Moreover, it would help managers of products from a negative COO to decide if they can overcome this negative perception by leveraging the brand name of their products. This study proves that marketers may choose to play down the negative COO image of a product and instead emphasize another brand cue which is the brand name that can be as strong and offer convincing arguments to the segment that is less sensitive to COO cue.

The study highlights an important findings in the case of a positive COO effect. It shows that, although most of the variables don’t significantly increase their value before and after brand name revealed, it is the case for the intention to buy. Thus, if a brand benefits from a positive COO effect, highlighting its brand name would reinforce this COO effect as far as intention to buy is concerned. Therefore, emphasize a positive brand name would have no effect on the positive COO-brand equity relationship concerning brand associations and perceived quality but it has an effect concerning brand loyalty, and in particular intention to buy.

8 Limitations and further research

An important limitation of my study concerns brand equity measurement. I considered consumer-based brand equity to be divided into four main dimensions, namely brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty. However, given the difficulty to measure brand awareness before and after brand name revealed, I chose to dismiss this dimension from my analysis.

Another limitation of this study is the product category it focused on. I chose to focus on only one product category which is premium chocolate because it represents a high risk situation where consumers tend to rely on extrinsic cues. Further research should study the impact of brand name on other product categories characterized by a low risk situation where consumers tend to rely more on intrinsic cues (the product characteristics) than extrinsic cues (country-of-origin), for example convenience goods.

It is possible to expand the present model by incorporating other moderating factors such as culture and consumer demographics, which may have significant influence on consumer perception.

Concerning geographic limitations, I focused on only three country-of-origin – Russia, Italy and Switzerland – to check for three different scenarios: a positive, neutral and negative country image for the selected product. However, each country is characterized by a unique country image regarding a product category and it is difficult to generalize my results extracting for only three different countries. Moreover, COO effects were found to be larger in studies that compare More Developed Countries (MDC) to Low Developed Countries (LDC) (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). Hence further studies should include only developed countries or only less developed countries to assess COO effect.

Even though I checked for the generalization on my results, an additional research on a national sample instead of just student sample would permit to confirm with more precision my results.

Finally, another limitation of my studied model is that I chose the brand Lindt which is a well-known mass brand that is favorably associated with premium chocolate. This brand was also chosen because a lot of Norwegian and French respondents would be aware of this and thus capable to answer my survey. The model should be tested using another brand, for example a niche brand benefiting from an exceptional association with premium chocolate.

This study demonstrates to what extent a well-known brand name can compensate for a negative COO cue or strengthen a positive COO. It would be interesting to study the impact of other cues such as a product guarantee or a prestigious retailer.

An interesting research would also be to assess the evolution of the brand name-COO relationship over time and the durability of brand name impact over COO-brand equity relationship. A brand of superior quality can highlights its COO while a positive COO can emphasizes the quality of a certain brand. Over time, is a virtuous cycle be created?

References

Aaker, D., & Keller, K. (1990). Consumer evaluation of brand extension. *Journal of Marketing*, 54(1), 27-41.

Aaker, D.A. (1996). Building Strong Brands. *The Free Press*.

Agarwal, S., & Sikri, S. (1996). Country image: consumer evaluation of product category extensions. *International Marketing Review*, 13(4), 23-37.

Aliaga, M., & Gunderson, B. (2002). Interactive statistics. Virginia. *America: Pearson Education*.

Ahmed, S. A., & d'Astous, A. (1995). Comparison of country-of-origin effects on household and organizational buyers product perceptions. *European Journal of Marketing*, 29(3), 35-51.

Ahmed, Z.U., Johnson, J.P., Ling, C.P., Fang, T.W., & Hui, A.K. (2002). Country-of-origin and brand effects on consumers' evaluations of cruise lines. *International Marketing Review*, 19(3), 279-302.

Audesh, K. Paswan, & Dheeraj, S. Brand-country of origin (COO) knowledge and COO image: investigation in an emerging franchise market. *Journal of Product & Brand Management.*

Batra, R., Ramaswamy, V., Alden, D.L., Steenkamp, B.E.M., & Ramachander, S. (1999). Effects of brand local/non-local origin on consumer attitudes in developing countries. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*.

Bernués, A., Olaizola, A., & Corcoran, K. (2003). Extrinsic attributes of red meat as indicators of quality in Europe: an application for market segmentation. *Food quality and preference*, 14(4), 265-276.

Beverland, M., & Lindgreen, A. (2002). Using country-of-origin in strategy: The importance of context and strategic action. *Journal of Brand Management.*

Bharadwaj, S. G., Varadarajan, P. R., & Fahy, J. (1993). Sustainable competitive advantage in service industries: a conceptual model and research propositions. *The Journal of Marketing*, 83-99.

Bilkey, W. J., & Nes, E. (1982). Country-of-origin effects on product evaluations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 13(1), 89-99.

Bohner, G., & Wänke, M. (2002). Attitudes and Attitude Change; Social Psychology. *Hove, UK.*

Bos, C.A. (1994). The road to Mexico. *Target Marketing*, 17(4), 48-9.

Bruning, E.R. (1997). Country of origin, national loyalty and product choice: the case of international air travel. *International Marketing Review*, 14(1), 59-74.

Chao, P. (1993). Partitioning country-of-origin effects: Consumer evaluations of a hybrid product. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 24, 291-306.

Chao, P., & Gupta, P. (1995). Information Search and Efficiency of Consumer Choices of New Cars: Country-of-Origin Effects. *International Marketing Review*, 12(6), 47–59.

Chao, P. (1998). Impact of country-of-origin dimensions on product quality and design quality perceptions. *Journal of Business Research*, 42, 1-6.

Cobb-Walgren, C. J., Ruble, C. A., & Donthu, N. (1995). Brand equity, brand preference, and purchase intent. *Journal of advertising*, 24(3), 25-40.

Collins, A.M., & Loftus, E.F. (1975). A spreading-activation theory of semantic processing. *Psychological Review*, 82(6), 407-428.

Cordell, V. (1991). Competitive context and price as moderators of country-of-origin preferences. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 19(2), 123-128.

Cordell, V. (1992). Effects of consumer preferences for foreign sources products. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23(2).

Cox, D. F., & Rich, S. U. (1964). Perceived risk and consumer decision-making: The case of telephone shopping. *Journal of marketing research*, 32-39.

Delgado-Ballester, E., & Munuera-Aleman, J. (2005). Does brand trust matter to brand equity? *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 14(3), 187-96.

Erickson, G.M., Johansson, J.K. & Chao, P. (1984). Image variables in multi-attribute product evaluations: country of origin effects. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 11, 694-9.

Eroglu, S.A. & Machleit, K.A. (1988). Effects of individual and product-specific variables on utilizing country of origin as a product quality cue. *International Marketing Review*, 6(6), 27-41.

Farquhar, P. H. (1989). Managing brand equity. *Marketing research, 1*(3).

Fishbein, M. & Ajzen, I. (1975). In Addison-Wesley Publishing, In *Belief, Attitude, Intention, and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research.*

Fournier, S. (1998). Consumers and their brands: Developing relationship theory in consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24, 343-373.

Friedman, M. (1996). A positive approach to organized consumer action: The "buycott" as an alternative to the boycott. *Journal of Consumer Policy*, 19, 439-451.

Hampton, G.M. (1977). Perceived Risk in Buying Products Made Abroad by American Firms. *Bay/or Business Studies*, 53-64.

Han, C. M. (1989). Country image: halo or summary construct?. *Journal of marketing research*, 26(2), 222.

Han, C. M., & Terpstra, V. (1988). Country-of-origin effects for uni-national and bi-national products. *Journal of international business studies*, 19(2), 235-255.

Haübl, G. (1996). A cross-national investigation of the effects of country-of-origin and brand name on the evaluation of a new car. *International Marketing Review*, 13(5), 76-97.

Haübl, G., & Elrod, T. (1999). The impact of congruity between brand name and country of production on consumers' product quality judgements. *International Journal of Research in Marketing.*

Hirschman, E. C. (1985). Primitive aspects of consumption in modern American society. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12, 142-154.

Hoyer, W.D. (1990). The effects of brand awareness on choice for a common, repeat-purchase product. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17(2), 141-8.

Jacoby, J., Olson, J. C., & Haddock, R. A. (1971). Price, brand name, and product composition characteristics as determinants of perceived quality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 55(6), 570.

Johansson, J. K., & Nebenzahl, I.D. (1986). Country of origin, social norms and behavior intentions. *Advances in International Marketing*, 2, 65-79.

Johansson, J. K., & Nebenzahl, I. D. (1986). Multinational production: effect on brand value. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 17(3), 101-126.

Johansson, J. K., Douglas, S. P., & Nonaka, I. (1985). Assessing the impact of country of origin on product evaluations: a new methodological perspective. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 388-396.

Keller, K.L. (1993). Conceptualizing, Measuring, and Managing Customer-Based Brand Equity. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(1), 1-22.

Keller, K. L., & Lehmann, D. R. (2006). Brands and branding: Research findings and future priorities. *Marketing science*, 25(6), 740-759.

Kimp, C.K., & Chung, J.Y. (1997). Brand popularity, country image and market share: an empirical study. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 28(2), 361-87.

Klein, J.G., Ettenson, R., & Morris, M.D. (1998). The animosity of model of foreign product purchase: an empirical test in the People's Republic of China. *Journal of Marketing*, 62, 89-100.

Kleppe, I.A., Iversen, N.M. & Stensaker, I.G. (2002). Country images in marketing strategies: conceptual issues and an empirical Asian illustration. *Journal of Brand* Management, 10(1), 61–74.

Lassar, W., Mittal, B., & Sharma, A. (1995). Measuring customer-based brand equity. *Journal of consumer marketing*, *12*(4), 11-19.

Leclerc, F., Schmitt, B.H. & Dubé, L. (1994). Foreign branding and its effects on product perceptions and attitudes. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31(2), 263-70.

Lee, G. C., & Leh, F. C. Y. (2011). Dimensions of customer-based brand equity: A study on Malaysian brands. *Journal of Marketing Research and Case Studies*, 1-10.

Li, W.-K., & Wyer, R. S. (1994). The role of country of origin in product evaluations: Informational and standard-of-comparison effects. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 3, 187-212.

Lim, J.S. & Darley, W.K. (1997). An assessment of demand artefacts in country-of-origin studies, using three alternative approaches. *International Marketing Review*, 14(4), 201-16.

Macdonald, E.K. & Sharp, B.M. (2000). Brand awareness effects on consumer decision making for a common, repeat purchase product: a replication. *Journal of Business Research*, 48(1), 5-15.

Mittal, B., Ratchford, B., & Prabhakar, P. (1990). Functional and expressive attributes as determinants of brand-attitude. *Research in Marketing*, 10, 135-155.

Muijs, D. (2010). *Doing quantitative research in education with SPSS*. Sage.

Nebenzahl, I. D. (2001). *National image and competitive advantage*. Copenhagen: Copenhagen Business School Press.

Nebenzahl, I.D. & Jaffe, E.D. (1996). Measuring the joint effect of brand and country image on consumer evaluation of global products. *International Marketing Review*, 13(4), 5-22.

Nedungadi, P. (1990). Recall and consumer consideration sets: influencing choice without altering brand evaluations. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17(3), 263-76.

Nes, E.B., & Gripsrud, G. (2013). When does it pay off to link a brand name to a country? *BI Norwegian Business School.*

Nunally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1978). Psychometric theory.

Obermiller, C., & Spangenberg, E. (1989). Exploring the effects of country-of-origin labels: An information processing framework. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 16, 454-459.

Okechuku, C. & Onyemah, V. (1996). Nigerian consumer attitudes towards foreign and domestic products. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 30 (3), 611-22.

Pappu, R. (2004) Which Countries Enjoy Category Dominance for the Product Categories of Cars and Televisions in the Australian Market? An Examination of Consumers' "Product Category-Country" Associations. *For the IIMK-NASMEI International Conference on Marketing Strategies for Firms in Emerging Markets, Calicut, India*.

Pappu, R., Quester, P.G. & Cooksey, R.W. (2005). Consumer-based brand equity: improving the measurement – empirical evidence. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 14(3), 143–154.

Pappu, R., Quester, P.G. & Cooksey, R.W. (2007). Country image and consumer-based brand equity: relationships and implications for international marketing. *Journal of International Business Studies.*

Parameswaran, R. & Yaprak, A. (1987). A cross-national comparison of consumer research measures. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 18, 35-49.

Paswan, A.K., Kulkarni, S. & Ganesh, G. (2003). Loyalty towards the country, the state and the service brands. *Journal of Brand Management*, 10(3), 233–251.

Rao, A. R., & Monroe, K. B. (1989). The effect of price, brand name, and store name on buyers' perceptions of product quality: An integrative review. *Journal of marketing Research*, 351-357.

Roth, M. S., & Romeo, J. B. (1992). Matching product category and country image perceptions: A framework for managing country-of-origin effects. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23, 477-497.

Samiee, S. (1994). Customer evaluation of products in a global market. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 25(3), 579-604.

Samiee, S., Shimp, T. A., & Sharma, S. (2005). Brand origin recognition accuracy: its antecedents and consumers' cognitive limitations. *Journal of international Business studies*, *36*(4), 379-397.

Schooler, R. D. (1965). Product bias in the Central American common market. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 2, 394-397.

Shimp, T. A., & Sharma, S. (1987). Consumer ethnocentrism: Construction and validation of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24, 280-289.

Shocker, A.D., Srivastava, R.K. & Ruekert, R.W. (1994). Challenges and opportunities facing brand management: an introduction to the special issue. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31(2), 149-58.

Smith, N. (1990). Morality and the market. London: Routledge.

Srikatanyoo, N. & Gnoth, J. (2002). Country image and international tertiary education. *Journal of Brand Management*, 10(2), 139-48.

Srivastava, R. K., & Shocker, A. D. (1991). *Brand equity: a perspective on its meaning and measurement*. Marketing Science Institute.

Terpstra, V. & Sarathy, R. (2000). *International Marketing*, 8th ed., Dryden Press, Orlando, FL.

Thakor, M.V. & Katsanis, L.P. (1997). A model of brand and country effects on quality dimensions: issues and implications. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 9(3), 79-100.

Tse, D. K., & Lee, W. N. (1993). Removing negative country images: Effects of decomposition, branding, and product experience. *Journal of International Marketing*, 25-48.

Ulgado, F.M. & Lee, M. (1993). Consumer evaluations of bi-national products in the global market. *Journal of International Marketing*, 1(3), 5-22.

Verlegh, P.W.J. & Steenkamp, J.E.M. (1999). A review and meta-analysis of country of origin research. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 20(5), 521-46.

Vernon, R. (1966). International investment and international trade in the product cycle. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 80, 190-207.

Washburn, J. H., & Plank, R. E. (2002). Measuring brand equity: An evaluation of a consumer-based brand equity scale. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *10*(1), 46-62.

Yasin, N.M., Noor, M.N., & Mohamad, O. (2007). Does image of country-of-origin matter to brand equity? *Journal of Product & Brand Management.*

Yong Z. (1996). Country-of-origin effects: the moderating function of individual difference in information processing. *International Marketing Review*, 4(4), 267-87.

Yoo, B., Donthu, N. & Lee, S. (2000). An examination of selected marketing mix elements and brand equity. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28(2), 195-211.

Yoo, B. & Donthu, N. (2001). Developing and validating a multidimensional consumer-based brand equity scale. *Journal of Business Research*, 52(1), 1-14.

Zaynep, G.C., & Maheswaran, D. 2000. Determinants of Country-of-Origin Evaluations. *Journal of Consumer Research.*

Appendix

Appendix 1a: Questionnaire I - Russia

Please select your preferred language to answer this survey :

French

English

Dear respondents,

In this survey you will be told some attributes about a certain product, and you will be asked about your evaluations and attitudes towards this product.
It is important to mention that there is no "right" or "wrong" answer, please just share your first impression.
The survey will take just a few minutes.
Thank you in advance for your help.

To enter the survey, please select a number :

1

2

3

*Imagine a brand of premium handmade chocolate prepared **in Russia**.*

How would you qualify the image that you have about the described brand ?
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

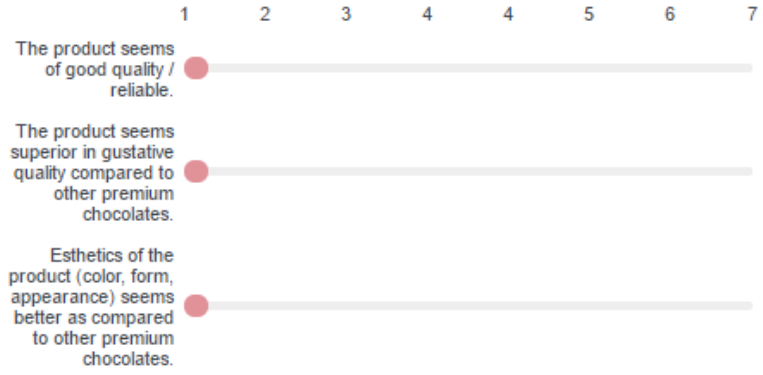
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strong							
Favorable							
Unique							

What is your opinion about Russia ?
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

Please indicate in the right order the first 3 countries that pop up in your mind when you are thinking about premium chocolate :

Country 1
Country 2
Country 3

About the product :
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)



Brand loyalty :
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

X

Lindt
MASTER SWISS CHOCOLATIER
SINCE 1845

Let's now consider another piece of information: ***it is the Swiss brand Lindt that prepares these premium chocolates in Russia.***

How would you qualify the image that you have about the described brand ?
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strong							
Favorable							
Unique							

How would you qualify your knowledge about Lindt brand ?

This brand comes up first in my mind when I need to make a purchase decision on premium chocolates.

I remember the brand when I need to make a purchase decision on premium chocolates.

I can recognize this brand among competing brands.

I have difficulty in imagining this brand in my mind.

About the product :
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	4	5	6	7
The product seems of good quality / reliable.								
The product seems superior in gustative quality compared to other premium chocolates.								
Esthetics of the product (color, form, appearance) seems better as compared to other premium chocolates.								

Brand loyalty :

From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

What is your gender ?

Male

Female

How old are you ?

What is your nationality ?

French

Norwegian

Other

If other, please precise your nationality ?

Appendix 1b: Questionnaire II - Italy

Please select your preferred language to answer this survey :

French

English

Dear respondents,

In this survey you will be told some attributes about a certain product, and you will be asked about your evaluations and attitudes towards this product.
It is important to mention that there is no "right" or "wrong" answer, please just share your first impression.
The survey will take just a few minutes.
Thank you in advance for your help.

To enter the survey, please select a number :

1

2

3

Imagine a brand of premium handmade chocolate prepared ***in Italy****.*

How would you qualify the image that you have about the described brand ?
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strong							
Favorable							
Unique							

What is your opinion about Italy ?
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Italy is a high-tech country.							
Italy excels in design, style and elegance.							
Italian brands have an image of prestige.							
Italy is known for high quality and good workmanship products.							

Please indicate in the right order the first 3 countries that pop up in your mind when you are thinking about premium chocolate :

Country 1	
Country 2	
Country 3	

About the product :

From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	4	5	6	7
The product seems of good quality / reliable.								
The product seems superior in gustative quality compared to other premium chocolates.								
Esthetics of the product (color, form, appearance) seems better as compared to other premium chocolates.								

Brand loyalty :

From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would consider buying this brand several times.							
I would consider buying this brand as the first choice if I were going to buy premium chocolates.							
I would be willing to pay a higher price for this brand over other premium chocolate brands.							

Lindt

MASTER SWISS CHOCOLATIER
SINCE 1845

Let's now consider another piece of information: ***it is the Swiss brand Lindt that prepares these premium chocolates in Italy.***

How would you qualify the image that you have about the described brand ?

From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strong							
Favorable							
Unique							

How would you qualify your knowledge about Lindt brand ?

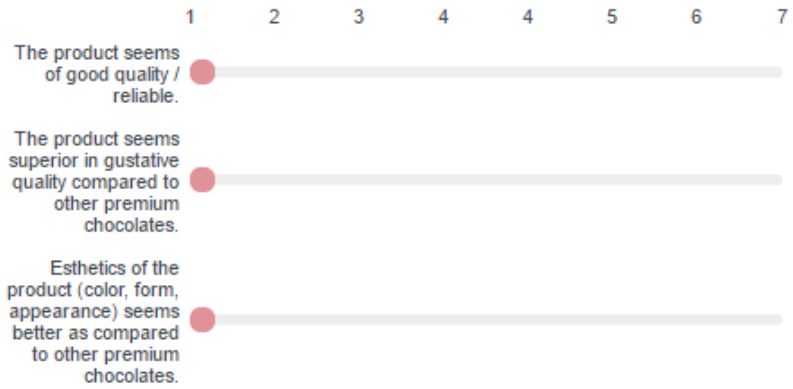
This brand comes up first in my mind when I need to make a purchase decision on premium chocolates.

I remember the brand when I need to make a purchase decision on premium chocolates.

I can recognize this brand among competing brands.

I have difficulty in imagining this brand in my mind.

About the product :
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)



Brand loyalty :

From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

What is your gender ?

Male

Female

How old are you ?

What is your nationality ?

French

Norwegian

Other

If other, please precise your nationality ?

Appendix 1c : Questionnaire III – Switzerland

Please select your preferred language to answer this survey :

French

English

Dear respondents,

In this survey you will be told some attributes about a certain product, and you will be asked about your evaluations and attitudes towards this product.
It is important to mention that there is no "right" or "wrong" answer, please just share your first impression.
The survey will take just a few minutes.
Thank you in advance for your help.

To enter the survey, please select a number :

1

2

3

*Imagine a brand of premium handmade chocolate prepared **in Switzerland**.*

How would you qualify the image that you have about the described brand ?
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

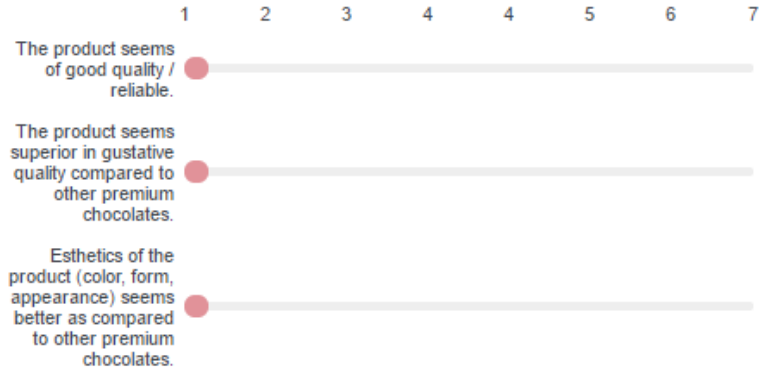
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strong							
Favorable							
Unique							

What is your opinion about Switzerland ?
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

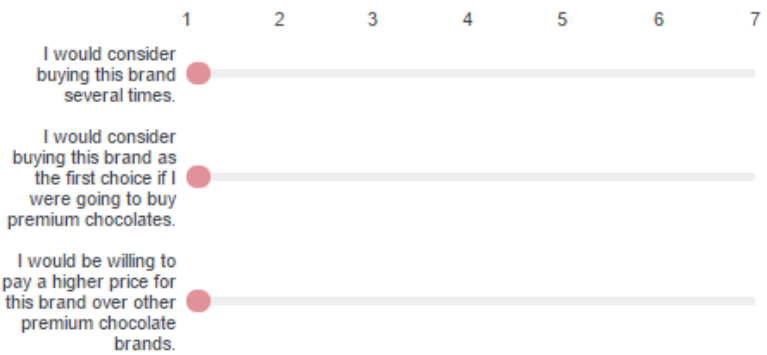
Please indicate in the right order the first 3 countries that pop up in your mind when you are thinking about premium chocolate :

Country 1
Country 2
Country 3

About the product :
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)



Brand loyalty :
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)



Lindt

MASTER SWISS CHOCOLATIER
SINCE 1845

Let's now consider another piece of information: ***it is the Swiss brand Lindt that prepares these premium chocolates in Switzerland.***

How would you qualify the image that you have about the described brand ?
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strong							
Favorable							
Unique							

How would you qualify your knowledge about Lindt brand ?

- This brand comes up first in my mind when I need to make a purchase decision on premium chocolates.
- I remember the brand when I need to make a purchase decision on premium chocolates.
- I can recognize this brand among competing brands.
- I have difficulty in imagining this brand in my mind.

About the product :
From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	4	5	6	7
The product seems of good quality / reliable.								
The product seems superior in gustative quality compared to other premium chocolates.								
Esthetics of the product (color, form, appearance) seems better as compared to other premium chocolates.								

Brand loyalty :

From 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

What is your gender ?

Male

Female

How old are you ?

What is your nationality ?

French

Norwegian

Other

If other, please precise your nationality ?

Appendix 2a: Validity output - Russia

Bivariate correlation analysis

Country image

Corrélations

		RCIMAGE1	RCIMAGE2	RCIMAGE3	RCIMAGE4
RCIMAGE1	Corrélation de Pearson	1	,480**	,357*	,480**
	Sig. (bilatérale)		,005	,041	,006
	N	35	32	33	31
RCIMAGE2	Corrélation de Pearson	,480**	1	,745**	,596**
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,005		,000	,000
	N	32	33	33	32
RCIMAGE3	Corrélation de Pearson	,357*	,745**	1	,788**
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,041	,000		,000
	N	33	33	35	32
RCIMAGE4	Corrélation de Pearson	,480**	,596**	,788**	1
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,006	,000	,000	
	N	31	32	32	34

**. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.01 (bilatéral).

*. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.05 (bilatéral).

Brand associations

Corrélations

		RASSO1	RASSO2	RASSO3
RASSO1	Corrélation de Pearson	1	,445**	,125
	Sig. (bilatérale)		,007	,466
	N	38	36	36
RASSO2	Corrélation de Pearson	,445**	1	,099
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,007		,572
	N	36	37	35
RASSO3	Corrélation de Pearson	,125	,099	1
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,466	,572	
	N	36	35	36

**. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.01 (bilatéral).

Perceived quality

Corrélations

		RQUAL1	RQUAL2	RQUAL3
RQUAL1	Corrélation de Pearson	1	,566**	,731**
	Sig. (bilatérale)		,001	,000
	N	35	33	34
RQUAL2	Corrélation de Pearson	,566**	1	,613**
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,001		,000
	N	33	33	33
RQUAL3	Corrélation de Pearson	,731**	,613**	1
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,000	,000	
	N	34	33	34

**. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.01 (bilatéral).

Brand loyalty

Corrélations

		RLOY1	RLOY2	RLOY3
RLOY1	Corrélation de Pearson	1	,504**	,175
	Sig. (bilatérale)		,005	,372
	N	31	29	28
RLOY2	Corrélation de Pearson	,504**	1	,537**
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,005		,003
	N	29	29	28
RLOY3	Corrélation de Pearson	,175	,537**	1
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,372	,003	
	N	28	28	28

**. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.01 (bilatéral).

Appendix 2b: Validity output - Italy

Bivariate correlation analysis

Country image

Corrélations

		ICIMAGE1	ICIMAGE2	ICIMAGE3	ICIMAGE4
ICIMAGE1	Corrélation de Pearson	1	,211	,143	,237
	Sig. (bilatérale)		,141	,322	,097
	N	50	50	50	50
ICIMAGE2	Corrélation de Pearson	,211	1	,539**	,494**
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,141		,000	,000
	N	50	58	58	58
ICIMAGE3	Corrélation de Pearson	,143	,539**	1	,648**
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,322	,000		,000
	N	50	58	58	58
ICIMAGE4	Corrélation de Pearson	,237	,494**	,648**	1
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,097	,000	,000	
	N	50	58	58	58

**. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.01 (bilatéral).

Brand associations

Corrélations

		IBIMAGE1	IBIMAGE2	IBIMAGE3
IBIMAGE1	Corrélation de Pearson	1	,609**	,455**
	Sig. (bilatérale)		,000	,001
	N	58	57	52
IBIMAGE2	Corrélation de Pearson	,609**	1	,320*
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,000		,021
	N	57	59	52
IBIMAGE3	Corrélation de Pearson	,455**	,320*	1
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,001	,021	
	N	52	52	52

**. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.01 (bilatéral).

*. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.05 (bilatéral).

Perceived quality

Corrélations

		IQUAL1	IQUAL2	IQUAL3
IQUAL1	Corrélation de Pearson	1	,547**	,564**
	Sig. (bilatérale)		,000	,000
	N	52	51	52
IQUAL2	Corrélation de Pearson	,547**	1	,826**
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,000		,000
	N	51	51	51
IQUAL3	Corrélation de Pearson	,564**	,826**	1
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,000	,000	
	N	52	51	52

**. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.01 (bilatéral).

Brand loyalty

Corrélations

		ILOY1	ILOY2	ILOY3
ILOY1	Corrélation de Pearson	1	,743**	,558**
	Sig. (bilatérale)		,000	,000
	N	46	44	42
ILOY2	Corrélation de Pearson	,743**	1	,469**
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,000		,002
	N	44	45	43
ILOY3	Corrélation de Pearson	,558**	,469**	1
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,000	,002	
	N	42	43	43

**. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.01 (bilatéral).

Appendix 2c: Validity output - Switzerland

Bivariate correlation analysis

Country image

Corrélations

		SCIMAGE1	SCIMAGE2	SCIMAGE3	SCIMAGE4
SCIMAGE1	Corrélation de Pearson	1	,593**	,303	,497**
	Sig. (bilatérale)		,001	,132	,010
	N	26	26	26	26
SCIMAGE2	Corrélation de Pearson	,593**	1	,475*	,474*
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,001		,014	,015
	N	26	26	26	26
SCIMAGE3	Corrélation de Pearson	,303	,475*	1	,388
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,132	,014		,050
	N	26	26	26	26
SCIMAGE4	Corrélation de Pearson	,497**	,474*	,388	1
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,010	,015	,050	
	N	26	26	26	26

**. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.01 (bilatéral).

*. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.05 (bilatéral).

Brand associations

Corrélations

		SASSO1	SASSO2	ASSO3
SASSO1	Corrélation de Pearson	1	,022	,584**
	Sig. (bilatérale)		,917	,003
	N	25	25	23
SASSO2	Corrélation de Pearson	,022	1	-,189
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,917		,388
	N	25	26	23
ASSO3	Corrélation de Pearson	,584**	-,189	1
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,003	,388	
	N	23	23	23

**. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.01 (bilatéral).

Perceived quality

Corrélations

		SQUAL1	SQUAL2	SQUAL3
SQUAL1	Corrélation de Pearson	1	,454*	,201
	Sig. (bilatérale)		,026	,347
	N	24	24	24
SQUAL2	Corrélation de Pearson	,454*	1	,787**
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,026		,000
	N	24	24	24
SQUAL3	Corrélation de Pearson	,201	,787**	1
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,347	,000	
	N	24	24	24

*. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.05 (bilatéral).

**. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.01 (bilatéral).

Brand loyalty

Corrélations

		SLOY1	SLOY2	SLOY3
SLOY1	Corrélation de Pearson	1	,839**	,868**
	Sig. (bilatérale)		,000	,000
	N	24	24	22
SLOY2	Corrélation de Pearson	,839**	1	,865**
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,000		,000
	N	24	24	22
SLOY3	Corrélation de Pearson	,868**	,865**	1
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,000	,000	
	N	22	22	22

**. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.01 (bilatéral).

Appendix 3a: Reliability output - Russia

Country image

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,846	4

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
RCIMAGE1	8,9677	19,032	,481	,878
RCIMAGE2	9,0323	14,566	,728	,784
RCIMAGE3	8,9355	13,062	,782	,758
RCIMAGE4	9,0645	14,062	,761	,768

Brand associations

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,468	3

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
RASSO1	7,8286	6,617	,403	,174
RASSO2	8,0286	7,440	,358	,272
RASSO3	7,6857	7,104	,152	,654

Perceived quality

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,836	3

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
RQUAL1	7,4242	5,002	,723	,757
RQUAL2	8,4545	6,756	,634	,837
RQUAL3	7,7576	5,502	,761	,710

Brand loyalty

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,689	3

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
RLOY1	5,2500	6,639	,418	,698
RLOY2	5,5714	4,698	,707	,298
RLOY3	5,7500	6,565	,413	,706

Appendix 3b: Reliability output - Italy

Country image

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,649	4

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
ICIMAGE1	17,1000	6,582	,248	,717
ICIMAGE2	14,4600	6,539	,455	,569
ICIMAGE3	14,5200	5,928	,529	,514
ICIMAGE4	14,8800	5,414	,532	,501

Brand associations

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,735	3

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
IBIMAGE1	8,2885	5,896	,695	,485
IBIMAGE2	7,7115	6,092	,578	,625
IBIMAGE3	9,1923	7,217	,421	,803

Perceived quality

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,844	3

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
IQUAL1	7,4118	8,447	,572	,905
IQUAL2	8,6863	6,580	,788	,704
IQUAL3	8,2941	6,532	,787	,706

Brand loyalty

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,806	3

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
ILOY1	5,4524	5,766	,762	,634
ILOY2	5,3095	5,097	,677	,715
ILOY3	5,8095	6,353	,544	,842

Appendix 3c: Reliability output - Switzerland

Country image

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,741	4

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
SCIMAGE1	16,7308	8,685	,602	,649
SCIMAGE2	16,5000	7,700	,679	,598
SCIMAGE3	14,7692	13,145	,464	,726
SCIMAGE4	15,0000	13,680	,568	,710

Brand associations

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,423	3

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
SASSO1	9,6522	3,601	,635	-,419[a]
SASSO2	9,0000	7,364	-,044	,717
ASSO3	10,7391	3,474	,290	,278

a. La valeur est négative en raison d'une covariance moyenne négative parmi les éléments. Par conséquent, les hypothèses du modèle de fiabilité ne sont pas respectées. Vous pouvez vérifier les codages des éléments.

Perceived quality

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,730	3

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
SQUAL1	9,0417	10,563	,331	,868
SQUAL2	10,1667	4,754	,842	,238
SQUAL3	10,3750	3,897	,684	,524

Brand loyalty

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,946	3

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
SLOY1	7,2727	14,113	,880	,928
SLOY2	7,1364	14,314	,878	,929
SLOY3	7,6818	13,751	,905	,908

Appendix 4a: Normality output - Russia

Skewness and Kurtosis

Variables		N	Mean	Std Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
Country image	**Innovativeness**	24	2,8333	0,24574	0,510	0,472	-0,721	0,918
	Design	24	2,8750	0,32028	0,740	0,472	0,346	0,918
	Prestige	24	3,1250	0,37258	0,548	0,472	-0,817	0,918
	Workmanship	24	2,7917	0,30680	0,890	0,472	-0,022	0,918
Brand associations	**Strong**	24	4,0417	0,35345	0,095	0,472	-0,982	0,918
	Favorable	24	3,7500	3,0840	0,547	0,472	-0,683	0,918
	Unique	24	4,1250	0,40069	-0,228	0,472	-1,097	0,918
Perceived quality	**Reliability**	24	4,6250	0,31744	-0,519	0,472	-0,212	0,918
	Gustative quality	24	3,3750	0,26108	-0,104	0,472	-0,319	0,918
	Appearance	24	4,1667	0,31083	-0,387	0,472	-0,870	0,918
Brand loyalty	**Intention to buy**	24	3,0417	0,29167	1,287	0,472	1,568	0,918
	Primary choice	24	2,6250	0,32310	0,970	0,472	-0,075	0,918
	Premium price	24	2,4583	0,28220	1,117	0,472	0,807	0,918

Appendix 4b: Normality output - Italy

Skewness and Kurtosis

Variables		N	Mean	Std Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
Country image	**Innovativeness**	35	3,1714	0,20286	0,084	0,398	-0,203	0,778
	Design	35	5,7714	0,16946	-0,252	0,398	-1,000	0,778
	Prestige	35	5,8571	0,15953	-0,368	0,398	-0,736	0,778
	Workmanship	35	5,3714	0,19698	-0,557	0,398	0,485	0,778
Brand associations	**Strong**	35	4,6000	0,18425	0,306	0,398	-0,235	0,778
	Favorable	35	5,2857	0,20731	-0,282	0,398	-0,868	0,778
	Unique	35	3,7429	0,25052	0,069	0,398	-0,181	0,778
Perceived quality	**Reliability**	35	4,9143	0,20650	0,172	0,398	0,949	0,778
	Gustative quality	35	3,6857	0,25196	0,408	0,398	-0,012	0,778
	Appearance	35	4,1429	0,24646	0,2221	0,398	-0,088	0,778
Brand loyalty	**Intention to buy**	35	2,8857	0,21212	1,080	0,398	2,108	0,778
	Primary choice	35	3,0286	0,25761	0,848	0,398	0,200	0,778
	Premium price	35	2,3714	0,22110	1,009	0,398	0,632	0,778

Appendix 4c: Normality output - Switzerland

Skewness and Kurtosis

Variables		N	Mean	Std Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
Country image	**Innovativeness**	19	4,3684	0,39891	-0,214	0,524	-0,797	1,1014
	Design	19	4,6316	0,42032	-0,538	0,524	-0,633	1,1014
	Prestige	19	6,3158	0,23009	-2,200	0,524	6,103	1,1014
	Workmanship	19	6,0526	0,20906	-1,096	0,524	1,105	1,1014
Brand associations	**Strong**	19	5,2105	0,30184	-0,269	0,524	-1,191	1,1014
	Favorable	19	5,8421	0,26780	-2,003	0,524	5,996	1,1014
	Unique	19	3,9474	0,42215	0,026	0,524	-1,458	1,1014
Perceived quality	**Reliability**	19	5,7895	0,18063	-0,353	0,524	0,195	1,1014
	Gustative quality	19	4,5263	0,36168	-0,339	0,524	0,136	1,1014
	Appearance	19	4,3684	0,44728	-0,080	0,524	-1,355	1,1014
Brand loyalty	**Intention to buy**	19	3,6842	0,42614	0,634	0,524	-0,827	1,1014
	Primary choice	19	3,8947	0,43188	0,281	0,524	-1,198	1,1014
	Premium price	19	3,2632	0,42469	0,685	0,524	-0,562	1,1014

Appendix 5: Product category-country associations' results

Countries	Ratings
Switzerland	399
Belgium	288
France	212
Italy	34
Norway	15
Germany	14
United Kingdom	5
Austria	5
The Netherlands	4
The United States	4
Guatemala	4
Brazil	4
Venezuela	3
Mexico	2
Sweden	2
Russia	2
Finland	2
Ecuador	2
Japan	2
Kenya	1
Estonia	1
Ireland	1
Ukraine	1
Colombia	1

Appendix 6a: paired t-tests - Russia

Statistiques sur échantillon uniques

	N	Moyenne	Ecart type	Moyenne erreur standard
DRBIMAGE1	34	1,6471	1,59321	,27323
DRBIMAGE2	33	1,7273	1,66344	,28957
DRBIMAGE3	32	,4688	2,51427	,44447
DRQUAL1	33	,7273	1,37552	,23945
DRQUAL2	32	1,1250	1,45358	,25696
DRQUAL3	33	,5455	1,60255	,27897
DRLOY1	28	1,3214	1,49204	,28197
DRLOY2	26	1,2308	2,17821	,42718
DRLOY3	26	,7692	1,81786	,35651

Test sur échantillon unique

	Valeur de test = 0					
	t	ddl	Sig. (bilatéral)	Différence moyenne	Intervalle de confiance de la différence à 95 % Inférieur	Supérieur
DRBIMAGE1	6,028	33	,000	1,64706	1,0912	2,2030
DRBIMAGE2	5,965	32	,000	1,72727	1,1374	2,3171
DRBIMAGE3	1,055	31	,300	,46875	-,4377	1,3752
DRQUAL1	3,037	32	,005	,72727	,2395	1,2150
DRQUAL2	4,378	31	,000	1,12500	,6009	1,6491
DRQUAL3	1,955	32	,059	,54545	-,0228	1,1137
DRLOY1	4,686	27	,000	1,32143	,7429	1,9000
DRLOY2	2,881	25	,008	1,23077	,3510	2,1106
DRLOY3	2,158	25	,041	,76923	,0350	1,5035

Appendix 6b: paired t-tests - Italy

Statistiques sur échantillon uniques

	N	Moyenne	Ecart type	Moyenne erreur standard
DIBIMAGE1	51	1,2549	1,93745	,27130
DIBIMAGE2	50	,3600	1,94580	,27518
DIBIMAGE3	44	,5682	2,16094	,32577
DIQUAL1	51	,5882	1,57704	,22083
DIQUAL2	50	,8600	1,92735	,27257
DIQUAL3	51	,5686	1,92099	,26899
DILOY1	46	1,3478	1,76657	,26047
DILOY2	45	1,0667	2,13627	,31846
DILOY3	43	1,1163	1,81540	,27685

Test sur échantillon unique

	Valeur de test = 0					
	t	ddl	Sig. (bilatéral)	Différence moyenne	Intervalle de confiance de la différence à 95 % Inférieur	Supérieur
DIBIMAGE1	4,626	50	,000	1,25490	,7100	1,7998
DIBIMAGE2	1,308	49	,197	,36000	-,1930	,9130
DIBIMAGE3	1,744	43	,088	,56818	-,0888	1,2252
DIQUAL1	2,664	50	,010	,58824	,1447	1,0318
DIQUAL2	3,155	49	,003	,86000	,3123	1,4077
DIQUAL3	2,114	50	,040	,56863	,0283	1,1089
DILOY1	5,175	45	,000	1,34783	,8232	1,8724
DILOY2	3,349	44	,002	1,06667	,4249	1,7085
DILOY3	4,032	42	,000	1,11628	,5576	1,6750

Appendix 6c: paired t-tests - Switzerland

Statistiques sur échantillon uniques

	N	Moyenne	Ecart type	Moyenne erreur standard
DSBIMAGE1	23	,5652	,84348	,17588
DSBIMAGE2	24	,0833	1,63964	,33469
DSBIMAGE3	21	,7619	1,84132	,40181
DSQUAL1	24	,0833	,88055	,17974
DSQUAL2	24	-,0417	1,45898	,29781
DSQUAL3	24	,3333	2,01444	,41120
DSLOY1	24	,9167	1,83958	,37550
DSLOY2	24	,1667	1,23945	,25300
DSLOY3	21	,0952	1,30018	,28372

Test sur échantillon unique

	Valeur de test = 0					
	t	ddl	Sig. (bilatéral)	Différence moyenne	Intervalle de confiance de la différence à 95 % Inférieur	Supérieur
DSBIMAGE1	3,214	22	,004	,56522	,2005	,9300
DSBIMAGE2	,249	23	,806	,08333	-,6090	,7757
DSBIMAGE3	1,896	20	,072	,76190	-,0763	1,6001
DSQUAL1	,464	23	,647	,08333	-,2885	,4552
DSQUAL2	-,140	23	,890	-,04167	-,6577	,5744
DSQUAL3	,811	23	,426	,33333	-,5173	1,1840
DSLOY1	2,441	23	,023	,91667	,1399	1,6935
DSLOY2	,659	23	,517	,16667	-,3567	,6900
DSLOY3	,336	20	,741	,09524	-,4966	,6871