

**THE COUNTRY-OF-ORIGIN EFFECT AND SOCIAL IDENTITY:
THE WAYS AN INDIVIDUAL'S NATIONAL IDENTITY AFFECTS PRODUCT
PREFERENCES**

by

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**A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of**

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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PRODUCT PREFERENCES**

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GAROLD LANTZ

**A Thesis/Practicum submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of The University
of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree**

**of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

Garold Lantz

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Acknowledgement

Many people play a role in the successful administration of a doctoral program and there are many people to whom I must offer my gratitude at the University of Manitoba. My advisor, Ed Bruning, has made constant and great contributions to my development as a scholar. Through several years and several papers, I have grown progressively, hopefully in the proper direction. Likewise, Gerrard McIntosh assisted me in building upon my paltry base of technical knowledge to substantially improve my analytical abilities. He particularly helped me understand that there is significance in even the most benign-appearing phenomena. Bill Notz, through his careful reading and excellent advice, took this dissertation from an editorial nightmare to something presentable; no small task.

I would also like to acknowledge the people at the University of Manitoba who made my experience there pleasurable and fulfilling. These people include Walter Good, Jerry Gray, Susan Eide and, a most wonderful administrative assistant, Carole Babiak.

Finally, this dissertation could not have been completed without the enduring friendship and companionship of my wife, Sandra. Her constant encouragement made the task much easier than it could ever have been without her.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW OF THE COUNTRY OF ORIGIN EFFECT

Introduction

As the globalization of the world's economies proceeds apace, an area of interest is the influence the country of origin effect has on prospective purchasers of products. The country of origin (COO) effect refers to the evaluation consumers may make of a product based upon the country where it was made. Since the original academic scrutiny of this topic by Schooler (1965) to the present, the influence of the COO effect has been an issue of continuing interest. The issue has expanded from studies searching for simple demographic explanations and surveys inquiring into the stereotype respondents hold of certain countries to include wider issues such as foreign direct investment and bi-national production (Chao 1993). The specific focus of this dissertation is on the portion of the COO effect relating to the preference consumers often express for domestic products. Chapter One begins with a general introduction of the COO effect and then proceeds to specific issues.

Recent literature has begun to focus on factors making distinctions between countries where products are manufactured and countries where companies' headquarters are located (Samiee 1994). These more finely drawn definitions have become necessary due to the proliferation of companies engaging in multinational sourcing, multinational production of subassemblies and locating assembly plants outside the home country. In

addition, with unique and varying labeling laws the scope of the COO issue is expanding even further. An astute consumer may recognize that Toyota operates assembly plants in the United States and Canada, or that a Sony consumer electronic may have originated in Malaysia. Some research has shown that a high quality brand will overcome the negative effect of having been manufactured in a country with a low quality stereotype with some difficulty (Stewart and Chan 1993). Nevertheless, the dynamics of the evaluation process are likely affected.

Samiee (1994) identifies three variables of interest: "country of origin" which is the country a firm is associated with, "country of manufacture" which is the location of manufacture or assembly, and the "country stereotyping effect" which is the bias or influence resulting from the consumer's perception of either country of origin or the country of manufacture of the product. Samiee's work illustrates the theoretical gap: while Samiee's literature review states that the home country bias has been noted and is unrefuted, it is omitted from his model.

While studies have grown in complexity and in number, there has been little theoretical development to explain the country of origin effect (Obermiller and Spangenberg 1989). Notable recent efforts have added to the sparse theoretical literature. After refining the issue with work on product familiarity (Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka 1985; Han 1989) and information processing (Hong and Wyer 1990), research has coalesced around the process of stereotyping. Maheswaran (1994) has articulated a compelling application of stereotype development to the country of origin effect.

While stereotyping explains a major portion of the COO effect, it does not explain all of it. There are two distinct parts to the COO effect: a part relating to product assessment, which is where stereotyping or country image is concerned; and another part which does not involve assessment of the product, but is concerned with consumers' feelings associated with their home country. This portion of the COO effect can be attributed to what has been called loyalty, consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma 1987), ethno-national affinity (Waheeduzzaman and Marks 1991) or simply a domestic or home country bias (Samiee 1994). This is the bias that makes many consumers show a preference for products from the home country, even when quality is a neutral issue.

The primary objective of this dissertation is to use the social identity approach and specifically self-categorization theory to enrich the theoretical foundation underlying this relatively unexplored part of the COO effect. While the social identity approach is also useful in explaining stereotype development, which represents a large part of the COO effect, the focus of this dissertation is on the preference consumers have for domestic products, which will be referred to as the home country bias. The home country bias has been observed on numerous occasions (Shimp and Sharma 1987; Han and Terpstra 1988) and although exceptions have been cited (Heslop and Papadopolous 1987) its existence remains unrefuted (Samiee 1994). This dissertation seeks to increase this depth by using the social identity approach to explain consumers' acquisition of their national identity and relating this to the home country bias.

The "social identity approach" is an umbrella term encompassing social identity theory and self-categorization theory (Hogg and Abrams 1990). Social identity theory

involves intergroup relations and the propensity for individuals to see themselves, and the groups with which they identify, in a positive light in regard to other groups. The closely related self-categorization theory involves the process by which people define themselves in terms of the groups with which they identify. Essentially, the premise expressed in this dissertation is that a purchase intent to buy a product is influenced by country stereotypes in the evaluation of product quality and by the consumer's degree of identification with the nation. The development of a stereotype also proceeds from the social categories which as individual has defined for himself or herself. An attempt will be made to differentiate the stereotype effect from the home country bias, to achieve a more comprehensive model of the COO effect.

The following section provides a brief literature review of the country of origin effect. This is followed in Chapter Two by a review of the theoretical literature and the research done on the social identity approach and specifically self-categorization theory. Chapters One and Two lay a foundation for Chapter Three which integrates social identity/self-categorization theory with the country of origin effect and offers specific research hypotheses. Chapter Four will introduce the methodology to be used in the empirical study.

Literature Review of the Country of Origin Effect

This review will trace the theoretical development of the COO effect from its rather simplistic beginnings to an in-depth examination into the effects of stereotyping and information processing. This section provides a literature review of research investigating the COO effect. The proposed dissertation focuses on the portion of the COO effect

relating to consumers' preference for domestic products, sometimes called the home country bias (Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka 1985). This literature review will begin with a brief general review comprising parts on early research efforts, the information processing perspective, the effect of product familiarity and the importance of the type of product subject to study. The review will then devote explicit attention to studies of stereotypes and the COO effect, and then address the home country bias found in the COO effect.

Early Research Efforts

Early research is notable for emphasizing confirmation of the existence of the COO effect and a search for elementary explanations. Much of the early research into the COO effect was concerned with the role of demographic variables. Efforts at finding tendencies among demographic factors have found little consistency. Early work (Schooler, 1971; Tongberg, 1972; Bannister and Saunders 1978) found that older people evaluated foreign products less favorably. Others have found the opposite (Wall and Heslop, 1986; Wall, Heslop and Hofstra 1989) or no effect (Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995; Wang 1978). Some studies have found a greater COO effect among males but others have shown the opposite (Liefeld 1993). The specific operationalization of the dependent variable may also be important. While Wall and Heslop (1986) found females to provide generally more positive ratings of foreign countries' products than did males, females were also more likely to favor purchase of domestic products. In regard to income, most studies have found no relationship (Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka 1985; Anderson and Cunningham 1972). The only really consistent demographic variable is that consumers

with more education rated imported products higher than those with less education (Anderson and Cunningham 1972; Schooler 1971; Wall and Heslop 1986; Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995). However, even this finding has not found complete agreement (Tongberg 1972).

While some demographic variables such as education and perhaps age may be somewhat influential, the conclusion which must be drawn is that demographics cannot be said to play a definitive role in explaining the COO effect. In fact, the effect of product familiarity, discussed later in this chapter, can be said to have revealed that studies concentrating on demographics were confounded by the role of product familiarity, as it was not taken into account in early studies. For instance, Hong and Toner (1989) reported that males used country stereotypes to judge female products and females used country stereotypes to judge male products. The authors attributed this effect to the respondents' product knowledge and prior experience. Without taking gender-based product familiarity into account, a conclusion may have been drawn that males or females simply made greater use of the country stereotype when evaluating products.

A heavily criticized characteristic of many early studies was that they used a single cue, the country of origin (Bilkey and Nes 1982). Researchers would ask respondents to respond after being told only where a product was manufactured (Etzel and Walker 1974; Gaedeke 1973; Lillis and Narayana 1974; Nagashima 1970; Reiersen 1967; Schooler 1965). It is argued that this practice likely overstated the COO effect because if more cues are present to affect consumer evaluations, any one cue should have a smaller effect (Bilkey and Nes 1982). Also, with one cue there may be demand effects if respondents

can discern the researcher's interest in the study. Liefeld (1993), in a meta-analysis of eight single cue studies and 14 multi-cue studies, showed that while there is a smaller effect size in multi-cue studies than in single cue studies, the difference was not large enough to be of significance. Nevertheless, multiple cue surveys are not difficult to accomplish and are essentially accepted as standard practice today (Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka 1985; Wall, Liefeld and Heslop 1991; Ettensen, Wagner and Gaeth 1988; Hong and Wyer 1989).

The influence of stereotyping in forming a COO effect and the home country bias was observed in the earliest studies. The COO effect was first documented in the marketing literature by Schooler (1965) in a study of Guatemalan subjects who showed a preference for domestic products over those of neighbouring countries. This was followed shortly by Reiersen (1966) who asked American subjects to rate various products, identified as being from a specific country, in terms of quality. Domestic products were rated highest and Japanese products lowest in all categories. There were also distinctions made according to product category; German mechanical products and French fashions were rated highly. Some of these early studies were not specifically framed as an examination of stereotypes, but they, in fact, were stereotype studies.

In sum, early studies were largely exploratory. They frequently observed the existence of the COO effect, elicited country stereotypes from respondents, and attempted to identify demographic variables which might explain the effect. There was little theoretical development. Significant theoretical advances occurred with the inclusion of information processing; which will be reviewed next.

Information Processing

Prior to making a purchase decision, a person accumulates information about a product, such as price, quality, warranty and the reputation of the store or company (Thorelli, Lim and Ye 1988). These items of information are often referred to as product cues. Product cues have been described as being either intrinsic or extrinsic (Olson and Jacoby 1972; Olson 1977; Zeithaml 1988). Intrinsic cues involve attributes of the product itself such as size, taste, smell, etc. Extrinsic cues are related to the product but are not part of the product itself, such as price, reputation of the manufacturer, etc. Information that a product is manufactured in a certain country is an extrinsic product cue. Taken together with assessments of the other product cues produces some type of behaviour; either a decision to purchase or a decision not to purchase, results. An issue of research involves the role the country cue holds in the overall assessment.

Multi-attribute testing, most notably by Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka (1985) studied country of origin in a setting with intrinsic product cues. When automobiles were evaluated with the country of origin along with other relevant intrinsic product cues, the COO element was not very important (Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka 1985).

Hong and Wyer (1989) investigated the COO effect from an information processing perspective studying personal computers and VCRs with many product attributes. They found that whether subjects were asked to simply comprehend product attributes or to build an impression of products based on the attributes presented had an important impact on information processing. Subjects asked to make an impression of products had better recall of all product attributes presented, including the country of

origin. Hong and Wyer (1989) also concluded that COO information served as an additional item of information people used when evaluating a product, like any other product attribute or cue. COO information served as an independent attribute but not as a summary construct. It may be generally observed that when there are several intrinsic product cues available, COO is less important and when there are fewer intrinsic cues the extrinsic cue, country of origin becomes more important (Gerstner 1985).

Hong and Wyer (1989) and Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka (1985) did not consider the role of product complexity. Later studies such as Maheswaran (1994) showed that product complexity involves two important aspects of consumer behaviour. First, when a product is more complex there are more intrinsic cues available for evaluation. Therefore, the type of product is important in how the COO effect is manifested. Secondly, people with more familiarity with the product will consider the evaluation of complex products to be more involving than other people. The way involved and knowledgeable people evaluate products is acknowledged to be very different from the way others evaluate products (Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann 1983). The role of product familiarity and product complexity will be discussed in the next two sections.

Product Familiarity and the COO Effect

A significant theoretical advance came when it was determined that familiarity with the product had a significant impact on the way it was evaluated. Hong and Toner (1989) found that regardless of gender, subjects who were familiar with the product would make judgments on specific attributes with country of origin being only a minor cue. When

subjects were unfamiliar with the product, they were more likely to use country of origin as a heuristic criteria and base their opinion on a country's reputation. However, others have presented research which indicates that people with more familiarity with the product will tend to use simple cues such as country of origin (Heimbach, Johansson and MacLachlan 1989). The idea is that people with more familiarity have already formed an opinion about the product and do not have to re-examine the issue, so they just have a general "favourable" or "unfavourable" assessment of the product; country of origin has been integrated as one cue, among many.

The role of product familiarity may explain the differing results in the gender studies. It may be that past studies utilized gender oriented products, thereby giving the appearance of gender differences. Gender and product familiarity were confounded. For instance, automobiles have often been studied (Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka 1985; Bilkey and Nes 1982). If it can be said that males have more familiarity with automobiles, it may be that males relied on other product cues, showing less country of origin effect than females who used a country of origin stereotype and gave responses showing greater country of origin effect. At any rate, in view of the current research no generalizations relating to gender can be made.

The distinction based on product familiarity was supported by Han (1989) who found that there was less use of country of origin by knowledgeable consumers. However, when consumers could not evaluate quality and other attributes, the COO effect became more apparent, suggesting a halo effect. Halo effect is the notion that consumers

will judge a product by their image of the country when specific information about product attributes is lacking.

Han's results are consistent with the notion that when consumers are not familiar with a country's products, country image may serve as a halo, influencing their evaluation of product attributes. In contrast, as consumers become familiar with a country's products, country image may become a single construct which summarizes consumers' beliefs about the product attributes.

The level of personal relevance of the product to the consumer has been found to be important, as well (Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka 1985). Briefly, the level of personal relevance, known generally as "involvement," will influence the way products are assessed. If involvement is low, the product assessment will receive peripheral attention. There will be less interest shown by the subject and less information search. If the subject's involvement is high, the product assessment will proceed along a central processing route. In this case, the informational content, as well as the emotional content will be salient (Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann 1983). This suggests that there may be advantages to testing multiple products of varying levels of involvement in a single study.

Applied to country of origin, the view is that when the product being tested is not relevant to the respondent, a simple heuristic cue, such as country of origin, will be used. An uninvolved person is more likely to use the country of origin cue. If the product is highly relevant to the respondent, it will be assessed on other attributes such as price, quality, warranty, etc., while country of origin becomes a much less significant cue.

Product Complexity

The two major categories of products are those for the consumer market and those for the industrial market. Buying processes for these two markets are different so different COO effects might be expected. While most studies have been concerned with consumer products, the industrial market has been studied as well (Nagashima 1977; White 1979; Cattin, Jolibert and Lohnes 1982). Industrial buyers show many of the same responses as consumers although some differences have been noted (Yu and Chen 1993).

The complexity of the product appears to be an important element in explaining the COO effect. A review of literature shows that many studies have been concerned with products which would be categorized as high involvement, expensive, and more risky (Nes and Bilkey 1993); in sum, complex products. This may be the case because such products yield a greater effect. Liefeld (1993) in a meta-analysis reports that complex products, fashion-oriented products and expensive products garner the highest magnitude of the COO effect. In the industrial sector Ahmed and d'Astous (1995) found that there was a greater statistical effect for complex products (computers) than non-complex products (ball point pens).

Heslop, Liefeld and Wall (1987) found greater effects with telephones than with billfolds, suggesting that COO effects may be more powerful as complexity and risk increase and as purchase frequency decreases. Purchase frequency affects purchasing experience making people rely more on extrinsic cues, such as country of origin. Consequently, less complex products should generate less COO effect because the quality of the product can be observed simply by a visual examination. More complex products

are associated with greater risk and should generate more COO effect. The study of mundane products may open the door for more thorough scrutiny of the home country bias portion of the COO effect which is not attributable to the evaluation of product quality.

The Role of Stereotype

Stereotyping begins with how people categorize and process information. The process of categorization and how stereotypes develop will be discussed at length in the next chapter. It will suffice at this point to say that a stereotype is a generalization; in the present context, a generalization about a country. Despite the sometimes pejorative tone applied to it, stereotyping is simply a means of saving cognitive capacity by abbreviating an inquiry. Although, as Han (1989) pointed out, the meaning behind the stereotype may vary widely with the individual.

Many COO studies focusing on perceptions of product quality elicit respondent's stereotype of a country. For instance, Nagashima (1970) used twenty semantic differentials on a seven point scale to record the stereotypes Japanese and American businessmen held of five countries.

From a methodological perspective reliance on stereotypes is fraught with potential pitfalls. The many studies which ask respondents to give their opinion about products in general, from certain countries are, in effect, simply asking respondents to state their general stereotypes which are unrelated to specific product evaluations or purchase intent. As Johansson, Ronkainen and Czinkota (1994) observe, since a country is good at some things and not good at others (e.g., Russian caviar versus Russian

automobiles), the general country image alone is not a useful measure of the COO construct. The general image may well be an underlying causal driver of the perception of a particular product, but this should be ascertained.

Parameswaran and Pisharodi (1994) examined "general country attributes," "general product attributes," and "specific product attributes." The general country and product attributes were essentially scale items eliciting stereotype responses and, under confirmatory factor analysis, were further divided into several facets. General country attributes, for instance, was comprised of items of two types, stereotypes of people in the target country and similarity with the respondent's own country.

Not only are stereotypes product-specific, but from recent studies it is apparent that familiarity with specific products must also be determined in order to make effective use of the stereotype (Han 1989; Maheswaran 1994; Hadjimarcou 1994). This is especially important in light of researchers' propensity to use more complex products in their studies.

In many ways the study of the COO effect is the study of stereotypes. Information processing and the role of product familiarity deal with stereotyping even if the method of analysis is called something else. Recently, those studying stereotypes have applied their knowledge to the COO area, making a valuable contribution.

Maheswaran (1994) combined the effects of consumer expertise (product familiarity) and the strength of product attribute evaluations to effectively articulate the role of stereotyping in the COO effect. A stereotype is more likely to be influential with a novice than with an expert (Alba 1987; Sujan 1985). Additionally, experts and novices

select and process different types of information differently. Experts have been found to focus on complex technical attribute information while novices have been found to prefer simple benefit information (Maheswaran and Sternthal 1990). This represents a clear opportunity to integrate the product familiarity literature and the information processing literature with stereotyping.

Maheswaran (1994) found that experts did not use a COO stereotype when given unambiguous product attribute information. Novices, however, did use a COO stereotype when given unambiguous product attribute information. This product attribute information represents the intrinsic cues discussed in the information processing literature. Maheswaran (1994) also found that when the product attribute information was ambiguous (information that said nothing relevant to quality), experts used a COO stereotype to selectively process and recall.

There has never been a process for mapping out which countries' stereotypes are compatible with which products. Roth and Romeo (1992) suggest a framework which matches the importance of product category dimensions with the perceived image of the country along the same dimensions. They offer an explanation as to why consumer perceptions vary across products. Willingness to buy a product from a particular country will be high when the country image is also an important characteristic for the product category. Thus, perceptions vary depending on how well the country's perceived production and marketing strengths are related to the product category (Roth and Romeo 1992).

Roth and Romeo's method begins with country images (stereotypes) being assessed for each country on four dimensions (innovativeness, design, prestige and workmanship). Then respondents evaluate the importance of each dimension to each product category under study. They then rate their willingness to purchase each product from each country. Product familiarity is also assessed. The result of this approach is to be able to correlate countries with products and determine where the stereotype matches or does not match the product.

Roth and Romeo's analysis showed that the four initial dimensions actually formed a single dimension, so that country image was a single construct. This is in conflict with their expectations as well as the findings of others who found country image to be multidimensional. For instance, Han and Terpstra (1988) identified technical advancements, prestige, workmanship, economy and serviceability while Jaffe and Nebenzahl (1984) identified product-technology, marketing and price as country image dimensions. Roth and Romeo's single dimension result should not be surprising since they only used four survey questions to try to measure all four expected dimensions. Nevertheless, parsimony is a laudable goal and this one dimension of country image appears to be reliable and valid, if not very discriminating. This country image could then be compared to characteristics of the product to assess how well they match. This appears to be a reasonably good method for assessing country image in a COO study.

Roth and Romeo also determined that product familiarity played little role in consumers' use of country image when assessing willingness to buy. However, they did not divide subjects into high and low conditions as Maheswaran did (1994).

Consequently, the significance Maheswaran found relating to expert/novice use of country stereotypes are not in conflict with Roth and Romeo's findings.

Both Maheswaran and Roth and Romeo used unique and innovative means to investigate the effect of stereotype in the COO effect. Roth and Romeo related consumers' country stereotypes to products showing when country image would help or hurt a product's appeal, while Maheswaran illustrated how the consumer's use of stereotype will vary depending on the consumer's relative knowledge about a product. Both of these studies appear to represent the current state of advancement in stereotype study in regard to the COO effect and they combine to show the influence stereotype can have on product quality evaluation. However, the effects they discuss affect only quality assessment and not the home country bias, which is the subject to be discussed next.

Home Country Bias

The home country bias simply means that consumers tend to show a preference for their own country's products. The home country bias has been well documented. Reiersen (1966) found that American students ranked American product categories (mechanical products, food products and fashion merchandise) in first place out of ten countries, while Japanese products ranked last in all these categories. Gaedeke (1973) found U.S. respondents preferring U.S. products in a comparison with several developing countries. Lumpkin, Crawford and Kim (1985) found that respondents felt less risk with domestic products, preferring U.S. clothing over clothes from both developed and developing countries. The home country bias has also been observed in studies in

countries outside the U.S. Nagashima (1970) and Lillis and Narayana (1974) showed a general preference for domestic products in Japan and the U.S., noting exceptions such as French perfume. Bannister and Saunders (1978) showed home country bias in England. Heslop, Liefeld and Wall (1987) found that among Canadians, Canadian-made products were perceived to be of higher quality than products from Italy, Japan, Taiwan and Hong Kong, but not statistically different from American products.

Respondents have indicated a willingness to buy domestic products even at a higher price to help the domestic economy, increase employment and enhance national pride (Wall and Heslop 1986). However, in a study of a "Buy American" (Ettenson, Wagner and Gaeth 1985) showed that consumers may not be significantly influenced.

In a meta-analysis Peterson and Jolibert (1995) found that on a "quality/reliability perception" variable the effect size was larger when the home country was evaluated. However this was not the case when the variable of interest was "purchase intention." Both of these variables are commonly used as the dependent variable in COO studies.

Olsen, Granzin and Biswas (1993) investigated the home country bias in terms of helping behaviour. Their study is based on the idea that consumers will support the home country product when they believe that the domestic industry is distressed due to foreign competition. Consumers could help fellow citizens protect their jobs by buying domestic products. Although Olsen, Granzin and Biswas did not frame their study in terms of social identity, their rationale is similar. Their primary hypothesis, however, depends on the consumer knowing that a certain domestic industry is distressed due to foreign competition (Olsen et al. 1993). This is not required with the social identity approach.

With the social identity approach, it is sufficient that an individual feels a shared identity for there to be a preference for a domestic product.

An important work in the area of home country bias was done by Shimp and Sharma (1987) with their development of a scale to measure what they call consumer ethnocentric tendencies, the Cetscale. Essentially, the Cetscale is a measure of the economic manifestation of national identity. The Cetscale has been validated on numerous occasions (Herche 1992; Netemeyer et al. 1991). Recent work with the Cetscale by Sharma, Shimp and Shin (1995) has found correlations of the Cetscale with: patriotism, collectivism/individualism, conservatism, openness to foreign cultures, income, gender and education. Additionally, the moderating variables, economic threat and whether or not the product was a necessity, were significantly correlated with the Cetscale. The weakness of this research is that it has not been done within an established theoretical framework.

Two additional items regarding the Cetscale are worth noting. The first is that scores have been found to vary according to geographic location within a country, possibly due to economic reasons. Shimp and Sharma (1987) found that people in Detroit scored higher on consumer ethnocentrism than people in other parts of the country. They attributed this to the economic effects on the auto industry from competition with Japan. Shimp and Sharma (1987) found the same in North Carolina, where textiles have suffered due to imports. The other item worth noting is Herche's (1992) finding that the scale's predictive validity appears to be product specific. Herche found less acceptance of foreign automobiles than for foreign personal computers. Several reasons for this could be suggested: the public use of an automobile, the image associated with an automobile

which may not exist with a personal computer, or the greater cost of an automobile.

Regardless of the reason, it may be concluded that there are certain transitory factors at play in the way people respond to such surveys and that a person's score on the Cetscale should not be assumed to reflect an enduring personal characteristic.

The preference for domestic products may be said to be a general rule, but there are some exceptions (Heslop and Wall 1993). The exceptions seem to be of two types: 1) when a high quality reputation of a particular product is associated with a certain country, and 2) when the respondents have a poor national self-image related to product quality.

Regarding the first exception, sometimes consumers will rate certain products higher when they come from certain countries. Nagashima (1970) studied American and Japanese businessmen and found that while the domestic product was often preferred, among Japanese respondents French cosmetics ranked higher than Japanese cosmetics. Cattin, Jolibert and Lohnes (1982) evaluated respondents from France and the U.S. and found again that the domestic product was not necessarily preferred.

Some countries may have stereotypical characteristics which can be associated with products. Leclerc, Schmitt and Dube (1994) tested products which had hedonic versus utilitarian significance to respondents. They found that U.S. respondents associated hedonic products (fragrance and nail polish) with France and that respondents showed a preference for the hedonic products when they had a French brand. While this was a brand name study rather than a country of origin study and the country of origin effect was not specifically tested, Leclerc et al. (1994) illustrated an exception to the home country bias due to the positive stereotype of the foreign country.

The other occasion when there may not be a preference for the domestic product is when the domestic country itself is the recipient of a negative self-stereotype.

Documented instances of this phenomenon generally involve countries of Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union (Ettenson 1993). Similarly, Papadopoulos, Heslop and Bamossy (1991) report the respondents in Hungary and Greece rated domestic products lower in comparison with Western European and North American products. Overall, these studies indicate that some people hold negative stereotypes of their own countries in terms of product quality.

Reviewing these studies, a conclusion may be stated that when a positive reputation for a specific product with a specific country has developed, preference for the domestic product will frequently be overcome and consumers will express a preference for foreign products. With due regard for these two classes of exceptions, it can be asserted that there is a general preference for domestic products.

Finally, to draw the connection between the country of origin and national identity is a study by Harrison-Walker (1995). In a unique study of the effect of telephone book advertisements Harrison-Walker (1995) showed that the nationality of a service provider influenced respondents' choices. Yellow pages advertisements for ophthalmologists were shown giving: 1) names of ophthalmologists which were distinctively Japanese, Spanish, Indian or American, and 2) varying amounts of information i.e. board certified and office hours. Respondents were asked to rank order their preferences as if they had no other information about an ophthalmologist aside from what is provided in the advertisements. The respondents were students at a southeastern United States university whose ethnicity

was described as being 82% American and 9% Spanish and 9% others. The respondents showed a preference for own-nationality service providers.

Dependent Variable

One final point relates the issue of precisely what needs to be measured as the outcome of the COO effect. In a meta-analysis Peterson and Jolibert (1995) found that 63% of the effects used respondents' perception of quality or reliability as the COO outcome. The remainder used an intention to purchase as the COO outcome. These are two related but conceptually distinct outcomes. While a rational assessment of product quality is certainly a leading contributor to the intention to purchase, other variables may also contribute.

The choice of dependent variables can also have a substantial impact on the size of the effect. In the meta-analysis the magnitude of the effects showed that the two variables were quite distinct from each other. The size of the perception of quality/reliability was substantially higher (.30) than the effect size of intention to purchase (.19) (Peterson and Jolibert 1995). These results present a powerful argument for representing both constructs in COO studies with purchase intention being the more important dependent variable. It will be proposed in Chapter Three that the respondent's level of ethnocentrism and social cooperation, in addition to product quality assessment, affect purchase intentions.

Summary of Country of Origin Review

After thirty years of study the theoretical foundations of the country of origin effect remain unresolved. Significant efforts in the area of information processing, the effect of product familiarity, and the study of personality variables have shown much progress. It presently appears that the country of origin effect can be reduced to two main components: the stereotype effect and the home country bias. The stereotype effect has been studied intensively and is presently situated in a relatively well defined theoretical framework (Maheswaran 1994). However, the home country bias has not been studied in depth and it does not have a well defined theoretical framework. The home country bias represents a distinct and differentiable part of the COO effect. The home country bias is distinct because it does not depend on the evaluation of product attributes to be activated. Rather, it is activated by the consumer's sense of shared identity with the country.

In this dissertation, the stereotype effect and the home country bias effects are proposed to be differentiable; each making a significant contribution to the overall COO effect. Further, the home country bias will be decomposed into two parts: ethnocentric tendencies and social cooperation. It will be proposed that these two effects are explainable within the context of the social identity approach, specifically, self-categorization theory.

Statement of the Problem

It is proposed in this dissertation that the COO effect may occur for two reasons. First, it may occur as a surrogate for product quality when other information is not

present. If an objective assessment of the product in question cannot or has not been made, the perceived reputation of the country may be substituted. This is often referred to as "country stereotype" or "country image". This issue has received a substantial amount of attention and, while it cannot be characterized as fully resolved, can be said to have a relatively firm theoretical foundation.

The second reason the COO effect occurs, the home country bias, may reflect aspects of a person's social identities, or the way a person categorizes himself or herself as a member of groups. It will be proposed that an individual shares a certain identity with people who are influential and with whom social norms are shared. If these norms dictate a showing of loyalty to the nation by the purchase of domestically made goods, the COO effect may result. Additionally, a person may feel a close identity with the nation regardless of social norms. This identity may be manifested through a purchase of domestically manufactured products which may be characterized as an act of social co-operation with respect to the nation. There has been less attention paid to this aspect of the COO effect, nevertheless, it holds an important place in the theoretical development of the COO effect.

Contributions of this Dissertation

Just as the studies which focused on the stereotype effect have integrated the product familiarity and information processing literature, the home country bias can integrate personality variable literature such as ethnocentrism, authoritarianism, etc. Shimp and Sharma (1987) introduced the concept of ethnocentric tendencies in consumers. However, they laid little foundation and provided no theory for the formation

of these ethnocentric tendencies. The challenge and the contribution of this dissertation is to extend the theory underlying the home country bias and the stereotype effect with the use the social identity approach.

This COO extension will be done within the context of the social identity approach which is comprised of social identity theory and self categorization theory. While this approach has received a significant amount of attention in the social psychology literature, it has not been applied in a marketing context except in rather rudimentary form (Bhattacharya, Rao and Glynn 1995; Lantz and Loeb 1995). Social identity theory and self-categorization theory is the subject of the next chapter. This dissertation represents the first full articulation of self-categorization theory to explain and extend an existing marketing theory.

CHAPTER TWO

SELF CATEGORIZATION THEORY

Introduction

Heretofore, the social identity approach has not been considered in a marketing context in any great detail. So, before integrating the self-categorization theory with the country of origin effect, an in-depth review of the social identity and self-categorization literature is necessary. The next section will be a review of the foundation and specific elements of self-categorization theory (SCT). In Chapter Three, SCT will be integrated with the COO literature and the overall model will be presented.

Literature Review of the Social Identity Approach

Social identity theorists posit that the self-concept is made up of two distinct aspects: the personal identity and the social identity (Tajfel 1978; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher and Wetherell 1987; Hogg and Abrams 1988). The personal identity includes specific attributes of the individual such as competence, talent and sociability. Social identity is defined as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel 1981, p. 225). Personal identity refers to how people see themselves as individuals while social identity refers to how people view the social groups to which they belong.

Discussion of social identity/self-categorization theory should begin with a few comments on terminology. Use of the term "social identity" as defined above is of British

origin and has been widely adopted due to the voluminous work done by the primary originators, Tajfel and Turner. Social identity theory is involved with intergroup relations, not with interpersonal relations. Self-categorization theory involves how a person acquires the group or social identities. In North America it is more common to distinguish the terms "social identity" and "collective identity" (Luhtanen and Crocker 1992). North American researchers (Cheek 1989; Cheek and Briggs 1982) often use the term "social identity" to refer to the interactions between an individual and others while "collective identity" refers to the part of the self-concept relating to race, ethnic background, religion, feelings of belonging to one's community, etc. This terminology has also been adopted by others doing research regarding individualism and collectivism, referring to the relationship between personal and in-group goals, beliefs, etc (Hui 1988; Triandis, McCusker and Hui 1990).

The social identity process discussed in this paper refers to the social identity and self categorization theories set out by Tajfel and Turner, respectively. Social identity refers to the identity an individual shares with a group. It does not refer to the relationship an individual has with specific others. The term "collective" will be used to describe the large scale groups, as this term is common to all in the social psychology literature.

Social psychology, as a discipline, often tends to ignore collective groups where actual personal interactions do not occur even though collective groups clearly influence people. Social identity theorists specifically define "group" in the self-categorization context to include large or collective groups. A psychological group is defined as a group that is "psychologically significant for the members, to which they relate themselves

subjectively for social comparison and the acquisition of norms and values, that they privately accept membership in, and which influences their attitudes and behavior" (Turner et al. 1987). More succinctly, Turner (1982, p. 36) also says, "a social group can be usefully conceptualized as a number of individuals who have internalized the same social category membership as a component of their self-concept". This is a more inclusive definition than is typically used in the reference group literature as well as much of the social psychology literature. It is worth noting that there is no requirement for interaction with other members. The large, collective groups such as nation, race, religious, etc. are specifically included. Also, a group can be either transitory or enduring.

Another issue to be resolved at the outset is the distinction between social identity theory and the closely related self-categorization theory. It is widely agreed that individuals feel a need to maintain a positive self-image or self-esteem (Festinger 1954). Social identity theorists believe that the need for positive self-esteem includes group identities as well as the personal identity (Tajfel 1978; Luthanen and Crocker 1992). The former of the two, social identity theory, was a theory of intergroup conflict and social change focusing on individuals' need to have a positive distinctiveness in their in-group compared to out-groups, achieving a positive social identity (Tajfel 1982; Tajfel and Turner 1979; Turner 1985). The more recent and closely related self-categorization theory (Turner 1985; Turner et al. 1987) represents a theory of group processes based on the idea that shared social identity depersonalizes the individual identity. As Turner says, "the group process embodies a shift in the level of abstraction at which the individual self operates (Turner et al. 1987, iv). In effect, Tajfel defined social identity theory in terms of

the personal self being different from the social self while Turner, with self-categorization theory, sees the self as being fully integrated whether acting primarily as an individual or as a member of a group.

The fundamental proposition shared by both theories is that individuals define themselves in terms of their social group memberships and that this produces distinctive effects in their social behavior. The theories have been used in a wide variety of contexts, including to study the effects of social categorization on intergroup relations (Tajfel 1981; Stephan, Ageyev, Coates-Shrider, Stephan and Abalakina 1994; Hinkle and Brown 1990), ethnic identity (Ethier and Deaux 1990), social dilemmas (Brewer and Schneider 1990), stereotype development (Haslam, Turner, Oakes, McGarty and Hayes 1992; Linssen and Hagendoorn 1994), as well in management literature (Ashforth and Mael 1989). It has also been mentioned rather superficially in marketing literature (Bhattacharya, Rao and Glynn 1995).

The term "social identity approach" has increasingly been used to refer to the family of ideas shared by social identity researchers, including self-categorization (Hogg and Abrams 1988). In regard to the social identity approach, this dissertation is concerned with how the individual integrates the personal identity with the social identity, specifically the national identity. Consequently, self-categorization theory is specifically applicable, although principles of SIT will occasionally be employed. Having covered basic terminological issues, the remainder of this chapter will introduce the foundations of the social identity approach and self-categorization theory.

The foundation of the social identity approach to be discussed is comprised of three parts: 1) a brief history of group research; 2) the categorization process and 3) social influence. Categorization and social influence are general building blocks of social identity and must be understood in order to make the theory fully comprehensible. Following discussion of categorization and social influence, the theoretical structure of SCT will be fully explicated.

Literature Review of the Country of Origin Effect

Brief History of Group Research

Research into intergroup activities and how individuals relate to groups have a long history (Cooley 1902; Sumner 1906). Overall, however, the field of social psychology has placed much greater emphasis on the personal identity than the social identity. Indeed, leading researchers, such as Allport (1924) maintain that all psychology is the psychology of the individual; the group is merely a nominal collection of individuals. Others (LeBon 1896; McDougall 1921), researching crowd behavior, believed that group behavior is different from what would be found in an individual in isolation from others. LeBon realized that it was a mental unity and not simply physical proximity that defined a psychological crowd. LeBon and McDougall felt that individuals could lose their personal identity in a crowd and that the crowd essentially had an identity of its own. Later, Sherif (1936; 1967), Asch (1952) and Lewin (1939) explored the cognitive processes where the group created norms, stereotypes, and values. While they rejected the idea that a group had its own identity, separate from its members, they also rejected the idea that a group

was merely a collection of individuals, recognizing that the individual in a group was transformed, but still an individual. Similarly, social identity theorists adopt the view that there is a range of cognitive processes and behaviors which differ within an individual between a purely personal and purely social self (Tajfel 1978; Turner et al. 1987).

The Categorization Process

This discussion will begin with a review of categorization in general. Some detail is important here because the process of categorization impacts directly on the formation of stereotypes, which is central to both in-group/out-group dynamics and the country of origin effect. After categorization in general is discussed, the process of categorization will be related to the formation of an individual's social identity.

A category is defined as a number of objects that are considered equivalent (Rosch 1978). A taxonomy of categories is a system by which categories are related to one another by means of class inclusiveness (Rosch 1978, p. 30). Rosch identifies two basic principles as being behind the formation of categories. The first principle is that of cognitive economy. The principle of cognitive economy presumes that individuals possess a finite amount of cognitive capacity; there are limits to the amount of information people can process at a given time. Consequently, steps are taken to preserve cognitive capacity while maximizing the information taken about the environment. There are very many stimuli in the environment which may need to be processed. But many stimuli share properties so people find ways to classify them as one unit so that they will not have to

process redundant information. To accomplish this, category systems are used to provide the maximum amount of information with the least cognitive effort.

To categorize a stimulus means to consider it essentially equal to other stimuli in that category and also to consider it different from stimuli outside the category. When this differentiation can be done, a person will not have to use cognitive capacity unnecessarily in differentiating more finely than is required. The person will only have to differentiate as much as necessary to serve the purpose at hand. Cognitive economy allows a maximum amount of information to be used with a minimal use of cognitive capacity.

The second principle of categorization is that the perceived world comes as structured information rather than as arbitrary or unpredictable attributes (Rosch 1978). This principle is based on the proposition that some things logically occur with other things. For instance, for someone who knows the attributes of wings, feathers and fur, it is expected that wings occur with feathers but that wings do not occur with fur (Rosch 1978).

That the perceived world has structure presumes that stimuli in a large abstraction can be reduced to a smaller abstraction by observing finer distinctions in the stimuli. For instance, chairs have the capacity to be sat upon, along with many other things. However, the other things can be eliminated in an orderly way by refining the criteria for inclusion within the category. Taken together, these principles allow the maximum amount of information to be processed with the least cognitive effort.

In Rosch's interpretation, each greater level of abstraction includes all elements of the lesser levels. Social categories are not all similarly structured. In the natural world,

there would not be artificial categories such as city, province/state or nation, mixing with apparently incompatible categories like race, yet these are all social categories. Humans seem to have no problem accepting identities from many sources (Brown, Hinkle, Ely, Fox-Cardamone, Maras and Taylor 1992). People will mix taxonomies and create their own. A person's personal taxonomy or portfolio of social identities can include whatever natural or artificial categories the person wishes. These principles of categorization are also the basis for the development of stereotypes of other people as well as self-stereotypes.

Just as people categorize objects and other people, they also categorize themselves (Turner 1982; Turner et al. 1987). As a person accepts a social category as an identity the person adopts the defining characteristics of the social category or group. Common category characteristics are inferred from category exemplars, or prototypes as Rosch (1978) would say, and these characteristics are then assigned to all group members, including oneself. A prototype is a model of what is accepted as a typical member of the group. "Typicality" is a term which has been adopted by some to refer to the characteristics of the prototypical group member (Loken and Ward 1990). Once established, all other members of the group will automatically be ascribed the characteristics of the prototype. Of course, there are also intragroup dynamics and a need for individuals to show their uniqueness (Brewer 1991) but intragroup dynamics are beyond the scope of this dissertation.

Social Comparison

When people use categorization for social categories, there has to be a point of reference for comparison and this point of reference is often the person making the comparison (Festinger 1954). At the level of the personal identity, a frame of reference might be with others working in the same field. If the individual is an academician, for instance, distinctions will be sought between that person and other academics on such features as rank, awards, publications, etc. The comparisons may be with other academicians at the same school or other schools. The important point is that the bases for distinction are at the personal level (Brewer 1991).

However, when a social identity is involved the comparisons are between an in-group and an out-group. In this case, the tendency is to recognize and sometimes maximize, intergroup distinctiveness. Staying with the example of the academician, the interests of colleagues are included in the assessment of the in-group. An academician might make comparisons between departments at the school of management, for instance. At the next higher level, a comparison may be made between the school of management and other parts of the university. The point is that people will look for ways to positively distinguish not only themselves but also the groups with which they identify. This is the role of social comparison.

Categorization and social comparison work together to generate group behavior. Categorization leads to stereotypic perceptions of self, the in-group and the out-group (Major, Sciacchitano and Crocker 1993). Social comparison accounts for accentuating

the self-enhancing dimensions of comparison and the magnitude of the exaggeration of intergroup differences and intragroup similarities (Hogg and Abrams 1988).

Self-Categorization Theory

The process of depersonalization, the merging of the individual identity with a social identity, is the focal point of SCT. As such, this overview of the theory will be presented in three parts: 1) antecedents to depersonalization; 2) depersonalization; and then 3) the outcomes of depersonalization. The antecedents to depersonalization, category formation and social influence, have already been discussed in general. Now, their role in SCT will be specifically addressed. Turner et al. (1987) describe numerous possible outcomes of depersonalization. The outcomes which are likely to have some impact on the country of origin effect are social cooperation, group cohesion and ethnocentrism. The role of each of these in SCT will be discussed in this Chapter while the connection of SCT to the COO effect will be discussed in Chapter Three.

Antecedents to Depersonalization

The Formation of Social Categories and the Portfolio of Social Identity.

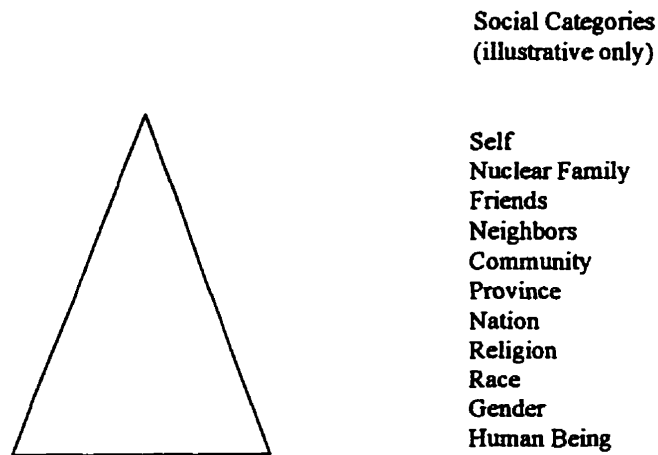
Identities can come from many sources. They may be ascribed such as race or ethnicity, or they may be acquired, such as friendships and club memberships. For instance, regular blood donors have been found to have developed a donor's identity (Charng, Piliavin and Callero 1988). Social categories can also occur spontaneously based

on similarities or differences of individuals perceived in an immediate situation (i.e. ...all in the same boat).

There are primarily two ways in which people internalize group memberships: 1) simply as a result of persuasive communications from credible, prestigious sources, and 2) on the basis of public behavior as group members leading to private attitude change (Turner et al. 1987).

Numerous researchers have discussed the range of a person's identities as a whole, using a variety of terms. Brewer (1991) talks of a series of concentric circles. Turner et al. (1987) talk about a hierarchy of abstractness. Tajfel's social identity theory (1978) in dealing with the interpersonal and intergroup distinction characterizes the personal-social identity aspects of the self-concept as a continuum of pure self at one end and pure group at the other end. All of these conceptualizations share the same essential feature of the individual possessing many social identities at widely ranging levels of aggregation. The pyramid, as illustrated in Figure 1, is an appropriate geometric form to illustrate the structure taken by social identities. Additionally, it is similar to the conceptualization of Levine and Campbell (1972) in their classic study of ethnocentrism.

Figure 1
Pyramid of Social Categories



Whichever means of illustration is used, there are different degrees of inclusiveness and abstraction in the hierarchical continuum ranging from the unique individual to all human beings. The more inclusive the category, the higher the level of abstraction. Adopting Rosch's (1978) categorization nomenclature, Turner et al. (1987) make three formal levels of abstraction: 1) the superordinate level of the self as human being, with other species as the relevant comparison; 2) the intermediate level of in-group/out-group categorizations, based on comparisons among human beings; and 3) the subordinate level of personal identification, based on interpersonal comparisons within the in-group.

At the superordinate level, the self-categorizations are based on common features shared by all members of the human species in contrast to other forms of life. While the human species level is not relevant to this dissertation, it could be an area of future interest.

The subordinate level of self-categorization is based on differentiations between one's self as a unique individual and other in-group members. These are intra-group differentiations. This level of categorization is important for the development of social norms and the compliance required of group members. While the relations of the individual to the group is interesting, it is also not the focus of this dissertation.

The intermediate level represents the social identity while the subordinate level represents the personal identity. The intermediate level can be differentiated into many sub-categories. The intermediate level of self-categorization is based on social similarities and differences between human beings that define one as a member in a "social" group such as nation, gender, race and class. It is at this intermediate level that this dissertation is mainly concerned.

The framework being presented begins with a conceptualization of peoples' social identification with social categories being as shown in Figure 1. It is proposed that people have many social identities and any one may have greater salience in any given situation. At the core is the self and each group identification is an extension of the self identity. To illustrate, at the narrow end of the pyramid is the identification with the individual's personal identity, then the nuclear family moving progressively to larger groups such as religious, racial, community, nation, with the broadest classification being all humans.

Differentiation can be done at many levels. For instance, work groups can include many levels of identities: 1) all employees of the organization; 2) those the person interacts with; 3) those in the person's department; 4) those with whom the person shares responsibility/accountability; 5) those whom the person trusts with confidential matters.

Classification can be made by the quantity and depth of personal interactions (Brewer 1991). With such fine distinctions, an individual's portfolio of social identities is unique, but many categories are common to all.

Different levels of an individual's portfolio of social identity do not necessarily refer to the number of people or the physical or psychic proximity from the individual. Smaller groups (levels nearer to the self) simply signify that the individual has fewer shared identities within that category. Finer distinctions have been made in differentiating the smaller group from the larger group.

Different sized groups refer to their aggregation and abstractness so that at a level close to the individual in the pyramid, the individual is sharing the identity with only a few other people while at a level farther from the individual, the individual is sharing the identity with more people.

It is not proposed that the abstractness of an identity is necessarily related to its importance to the individual. While identities closer to the individual are usually more important the importance of any particular identity is variable under the circumstances. In fact, the importance of individuals' identities have been manipulated experimentally (Hogg and Turner 1987; Oakes, Turner and Haslam 1991). The importance of an identity is relatively stable under normal conditions, but is variable as conditions change (Oakes 1987; Ethier and Deaux 1994). The changeableness of the importance of categories, or the salience of categories, will be discussed next.

Social Comparison (Referent Informational Influence).

Referent informational influence is the term Tajfel and Turner (1986) use to refer to the distinct form of social influence produced by the cognitive processes associated with self-stereotyping. Referent informational influence uses elements of Deutsch and Gerard's (1955) informational influence, Kelman's (1958) process of identification and French and Raven's (1959) referent power.

Referent informational influence takes place in three stages (Tajfel and Turner 1986). First, individuals define themselves as members of a specific social category. Second, they form or learn the stereotypic norms of the category. Certain behaviors are expected or desired to differentiate this category from others. Third, individuals assign these norms to themselves and as the category membership becomes more salient to them, they conform their behavior accordingly.

Referent informational influence is essentially a combination of the informational and normative influence of social influence of Deutsch and Gerard (1955) but with important differences.

Salience of Social Categories and Accessibility by Fit.

Depersonalization begins with a self-category becoming salient. Which self-category becomes salient at which level of abstraction is a function of the interaction between the characteristics of the person and the characteristics of the situation. Turner et al. (1987) refer to the principle of the meta-contrast to describe the category definition process within a given frame of reference. In any situation comprising some definite pool of psychologically significant stimuli, when the ratio of the average difference perceived

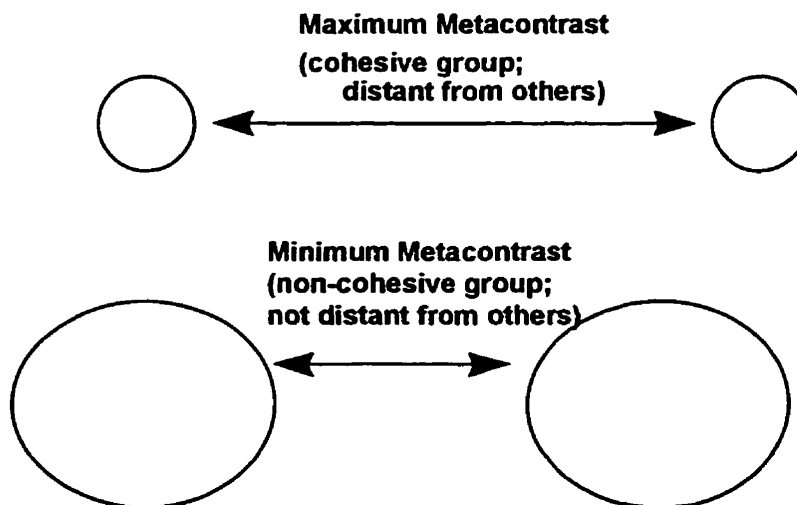
between members of the group is less than the differences perceived between the group compared to another group, the category becomes salient. In other words, when in-group similarity and out-group differences are high, there will be a greater metacontrast and higher in-group identity. Conversely, when few similarities are felt among in-group members and few differences are felt between the in-group and out-group members, then the metacontrast is low and in-group identity will not be so great. Metacontrast is illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Self-Categorization Theory Metacontrast

The metacontrast is the combination of perceived group cohesion and perceived distance from another social category.

**Group identity is greatest under conditions of maximum metacontrast.
Personal identity is greatest under conditions of minimum metacontrast.**



Haslam and Turner (1992) have conducted experiments to quantify the metacontrast by manipulating subjects to make them perceive that they are in a particular social position in relation to others. Specifically, subjects were given a bogus personality test and were told that they were "slightly pragmatic". They were then given information concerning the position of this identity in relation to other groups that the bogus survey purported to identify. The comparative information was manipulated to vary the frame of reference so that a target person would appear nearer to or farther from the subjects. The results illustrated a successful manipulation and measurement of the metacontrast.

The metacontrast can be expressed as a ratio:

$$\text{Metacontrast} = \frac{\text{Mean interclass difference}}{\text{Mean intraclass difference}}$$

A metacontrast less than 1 indicates that the target is perceived as an out-group member while a metacontrast greater than 1 indicates that the target is perceived as an in-group member. Haslam and Turner found in their experiment that in the in-group condition the metacontrast was 1.90, indicating that the target was indeed perceived as an in-group member. In the out-group condition the metacontrast was .50, indicating that the target was perceived as an out-group member.

Salience of group membership involves the importance of a group in terms of the influence it can evoke in its members. In other words, salient group membership refers to the current psychological significance of the group. The early research on group salience revealed that social categories become more salient under conditions of comparison with

others rather than when intergroup comparisons cannot be made (Doise, Deschamps and Meyer 1978). This was built upon later with the general conclusion that the sharper the contrast seen in an intergroup comparison, the more salient in-group identification tends to become (Oakes 1987).

Given that categorization, and specifically social categorization, makes the world more comprehensible, it is important to determine how a category becomes salient. Bruner (1957) argues that there is a relationship between "accessibility" and "fit". Accessibility refers to the relative readiness of a given category to become activated. The more accessible the category is, the less input or stimulus is required to invoke the relevant categorization. The relative importance of a particular group membership to an individual's self-definition will be a major determinant of its relative accessibility. In the country of origin context, this implies that if a person has greater nationalistic tendencies (accessibility) then the national category will be activated sooner than it will in others who are less nationalistic.

Fit, is the match between actual stimulus characteristics and category specifications. The concept of fit ties the categorization process to reality. Fit, for social categories has structural and normative elements (Oakes 1987). Structural fit is the degree to which observed similarities within and differences between categories are maximized. Structural fit follows the principle of the metacontrast: that a categorization is selected in such a way as to minimize the differences between people within the category compared to the differences between categories.

Normative fit refers to the stimulus acting in a way consistent with the normative content of the category. Normative fit specifies that the categorization must match in content the social meaning of the stimulus situation in terms of its own position and the observed behavior of others. Given equal accessibility, that categorization which maximizes the normatively consistent correlation between observed similarities and differences and category memberships will become salient (Oakes 1987).

Accessibility by fit was well illustrated by Boyanowsky and Allen (1973). Subjects were pretested to ascertain their level of racial prejudice. This established the subjects' accessibility to racial categorization. Fit was provided by presenting a situation where the subjects had to conform to an obviously unpopular consensus of the white in-group or agree with a black supporter. Two situations were presented to the subjects, they had to make judgments involving visual acuity or self-referent opinions (items referring to personal characteristics). Subjects aligned themselves with the black supporter on the visual acuity items but conformed to the unpopular consensus of the white in-group with the self-referent opinions (Boyansky and Allen 1973). It may be concluded that the visual acuity task did not activate a racial categorization but the items asking for self-referent opinions did. In other words, while the racial category was always accessible, it only fitted the tasks involving personal opinions, while it did not fit the visual acuity tasks since they are unrelated to racial categorization.

Every person has several social identities being felt contemporaneously and they all vary in intensity depending on the individual as well as the situation. These identities should vary in intensity depending upon how much a person is susceptible to influence,

how much they respond to a perceived threat from outsiders and the relevance of their identification with different groups in various situations (Oakes 1987). The situational aspect is believed to be highly volatile, even changing in response to current events. As Tajfel says, "the psychological existence of a group for its members is a complex sequence of appearances and disappearances, of looming large and vanishing into thin air; it also includes all the intermediate stages between these two extremes" (1982 p. 485).

Levine and Campbell (1972) discuss the interaction between an individual's own group identifications. They argue that when there is a conflict between groups, the individual seeks to find a way to satisfy both groups instead of showing disloyalty to one of them. Stayman and Deshpande (1989) in a marketing context, illustrated how this accommodation might occur. College student subjects of varying racial backgrounds indicated how they would choose items from a menu at a restaurant if accompanied by: 1) their parents or 2) by their student peers posing as co-workers. When with parents, they were more likely to choose items of the same ethnic origin as they and their parents. With student peers, they were more likely to choose items similar to what others chose. While not stated in a self-categorization framework, this study showed that a person's self-concept is variable and the person's identification can vary with the situation.

Similarly, Haslam, Oakes, Turner and McGarty (1995) showed that the magnitude of country stereotypes is variable according to minimal experimental conditions. Australian subjects were asked to list characteristics they believed were possessed by Americans, implicitly in comparison with Australians, British and French (group 1) or implicitly in comparison with Australians, British, Russians and Iraqis (group 2). The two

groups listed significantly different characteristics of Americans. The stereotypes the subjects held of Americans appeared to vary merely according to the other countries the subjects were exposed to when the evaluations were being done. This result was obtained despite the common belief that stereotypes are consistent and relatively enduring.

Depersonalization

The process of depersonalization is what sets SCT apart from other theories of social interaction and it is the basic process underlying group phenomena.

Depersonalization is the process whereby the self-perception becomes integrated with the social-perception. To quote Turner:

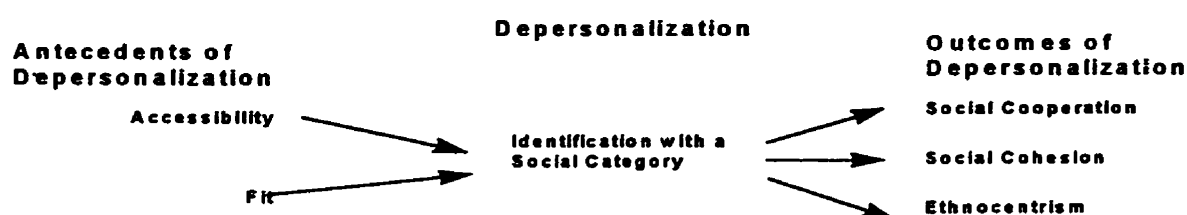
Group behavior is assumed to express a change in the level of abstraction of self-categorization in the direction which represents a depersonalization of the self-perception, a shift towards the perception of the self as an interchangeable exemplar of some social category and away from the self as a unique person defined by individual differences from others" (Turner, 1987 p. 50).

Depersonalization does not involve the loss of the individual identity, but is the change from the personal to a more social level of identity. Depersonalization is a change in the self-concept corresponding to the functioning of self-perception at a more inclusive level of abstraction.

Depersonalization refers to the process of 'self-stereotyping', or social categorization, whereby people come to perceive themselves more as the interchangeable exemplars of a social category than as unique personalities defined by their individual

differences (Turner 1987 p.50). The process of social categorization is illustrated in Figure 3.

Figure 3
Social Categorization Process



Outcomes of Depersonalization

Group Cohesion.

The first outcome of the depersonalization process to be discussed is group cohesion. Group cohesion may be defined as mutual attraction between in-group members (Turner et al. 1987). Attraction is meant to indicate a positive attitude towards others in the sense of an evaluation or appraisal from the perspective of social norms or values. Under conditions of depersonalization the self is likewise evaluated as part of the group.

Social comparison is highly operative in the presence of both group cohesion and ethnocentrism. Self-categories tend to be evaluated through a process of social comparison where the self and others are evaluated positively to the degree that they are

perceived as prototypical of the category. Conformity to the image of the prototype is important.

Group cohesion is important in the COO context to the extent that the more closely a group is drawn together, the greater will be the contrast with out-groups. Countries may vary on this factor, some showing more nationalistic tendencies as evidenced by flag waving and national celebrations, while other countries are more subdued. Events can also occur in daily life which affect group cohesion such as international sports events and other major events such as wars, assassinations, bombings etc. Group cohesion is also relevant in the COO context because of its relation to ethnocentrism, which will be discussed next.

Ethnocentrism.

Another outcome of the depersonalization process is ethnocentrism. Ethnocentrism is defined by Turner et al. (1987) as in-group members' positive evaluation of the group as a whole. This is a less pejorative definition than has sometimes been used in the past. The term ethnocentrism was originally defined by Sumner (1906) while engaged in the study of racism. Sumner felt that individuals banded together for self-protection feeling a need to protect themselves from outsiders. Ethnocentrism was defined by Sumner strictly in terms of intergroup conflict. Sumner felt that in-group members held other groups in contempt primarily to protect or enhance the position of the in-group. Since Sumner's time, this view has been moderated in that ethnocentrism may be the result of one's desire to see the in-group in a positive light or positively distinguished from other (Tajfel 1978; Brewer and Kramer 1985). While disparaging other groups is one means of seeing one's group in a

positive light, it may be sufficient to simply find some positive, distinguishing characteristic of the in-group. SCT theorists posit that ethnocentrism is merely the equivalent of personal self-esteem at the level of the in-group category. This implies that ethnocentrism may be observed by applying personal self-esteem measures at a collective level (Luhthenan and Crocker 1992).

Ethnocentrism is very similar to group cohesion. In fact, it can be described as being the value of the in-group perceived by members in comparison with out-groups while group cohesion refers to in-group members' mutual attraction (positive evaluation) on the basis of shared group membership. Turner describes ethnocentrism and group cohesion as being different sides of the same coin (Turner 1987, p.62).

Social Cooperation.

The third and final outcome of depersonalization to be discussed is social cooperation. Social cooperation is defined as acting in the interest of a social group at the cost of a personal interest. Ordinarily, people are expected to act in their self-interest. But this assumes a highly personalized orientation. Turner et al. (1987) hypothesize that as a person's self-identity becomes increasingly depersonalized in the direction of some social group, that person's sense of self-interest will become more closely associated with the group. Acts in support of the group will be considered to be acts in support of the depersonalized self, even if there is no differentiated reward to the individual.

Factors which enhance group membership will tend to result in an increase in group cooperation (Turner et al. 1987). Such factors as a common fate, reduced social distance and intergroup competition facilitate social cooperation. Likewise, acts which

enhance the personal identity will decrease group cooperation and increase interpersonal competition (Turner et al. 1987). Factors which personalize intragroup relations lead group members to feel private, isolated, distant, etc.

In a marketing context, if the community has become salient, a person may show an increased preference for local stores and locally made products. If the salient identity is race, a person may show a preference for services provided by persons of the same race. And, importantly for this dissertation, if the salient identity is nation, a person may show a preference for products manufactured in the home country.

The marketing discipline has rarely directly addressed social cooperation (Wiener and Doescher 1991), but instead approaches the issue in the vein of social marketing as defined by Kotler and Zaltman (1971) as the use of marketing concepts to market socially beneficial ideas and causes. The marketing concepts used, generally involve promotional strategies specially formulated to be used in what Rothschild (1979) calls "nonbusiness situations". While achieving social cooperation is the goal in many nonbusiness settings, it may also be a goal for business enterprises which wish to appeal to interests shared with their customers or the interests the customers share among themselves.

The difficulty with achieving social cooperation is in persuading individuals that the sacrifice they make is worthwhile (Kotler 1982; Rothschild 1979). Wiener and Doescher (1991) make the point that individuals will often perceive that the benefit-cost ratio is not sufficient to prompt their sacrifice. In other words, the cost to the individual is greater than the benefit returning to the individual for contributing to the betterment of society. The goal, from a marketing standpoint should be to find ways to decrease the

cost to the individual for acting in the public good, and to increase the perceived benefit the individual receives for incurring the cost.

As discussed in Chapter One, the COO effect is believed to operate either as a stereotype of the country acting as a surrogate for information about product quality or as an expression of the home country bias. The home country bias can be characterized as an expression of social cooperation. Evaluating a product for its quality and making a purchase based on this evaluation is an act of self-interest. When the quality of the product has been accounted for, and there is a preference for the domestic product, the home country bias is in evidence. The home country bias, as an act of social cooperation, is even more readily observed when the price of the domestic product is higher than a comparable foreign product, or when the foreign product is evaluated as being of better quality.

Social cooperation has not been the focus of much SCT research, however there is some support found in studies using social dilemmas. A social dilemma occurs when there is a conflict between an individual's self interests and the interests of a larger group, of which the individual is a member (Dawes 1980). Social dilemmas often occur in contexts such as dumping waste into a common water supply or over utilizing a dwindling public resource. In the social identity context, it represents a conflict between an individual and a collective identity of the individual (Brewer and Schneider 1990). Self-categorization theory suggests that the dilemma is resolved by the relative salience of one identity over another. If the individual is sufficiently depersonalized, so too is individual self-interest and the interests of the collective identity will prevail (Turner et al. 1987, p. 65). Wit and

Wilke (1992) used three types of social dilemmas to examine whether subjects under a condition of group categorization would show more cooperation than individuals. They found that those in the group categorization did show more cooperation than those in the personal categorization.

In terms of prior social dilemma research, a COO effect study is the type which may elicit a minimal reaction. 'Nation' is a large group, but Stroebe and Frey (1982) found that large groups do not preserve public goods as well as small groups for two reasons. First, with large groups member identifiability decreases, making violations of social norms and free riding less noticeable. Second, the perceived efficacy of individual action decreases as the group size increases.

Additionally, larger groups may split into smaller groups with a stronger common identity (Brewer and Schneider 1990). Brewer and Kramer (1985) also found that people kept more resources for themselves in a public goods dilemma when in a large group than when in a small group. So, while the nation is a natural unit around which a social identity may form, there are also reasons why the social cooperation may not be as strong as with other social categories. Enhancing the salience of the social category is necessary due to the competing interests of the self and competing social categories. The means of enhancing the national category will be discussed in the next chapter.

Summary

This chapter has introduced self-categorization theory. While the focus of this dissertation is primarily on the national identity, it can be deduced from the above

discussion that an individual's overall identity is comprised of a combination of several social identities along with the personal identity. Any identity can be made salient depending upon the individual's readiness to activate the identity (accessibility) interacting with the environmental stimuli or situation (fit). The process whereby the personal identity merges with a social identity is called depersonalization. The outcomes of depersonalization which are likely to be relevant to the COO effect include group cohesion, ethnocentrism and social cooperation. Group cohesion involves the tendency for in-group members to evaluate group members in a positive light. Ethnocentrism is similar to group cohesion with the addition of an out-group with which the in-group is compared. The in-group will tend to be positively distinguished with regard to the out-group. The third outcome of depersonalization is social cooperation. This is the merging of personal self-interest with the interest of the group and is characterized by the performance of acts which benefit the group even if the person does not individually benefit.

In the next chapter, the depersonalization process and its outcomes will be related to the COO effect. Specific hypotheses will be offered in support of these propositions. Chapter Three will then conclude with the empirical portion of this dissertation being presented.

Chapter Three

Model and Constructs of the COO Effect in a Self-Categorization Context

Introduction

To integrate the existing COO model with SCT, the focal point will be the process and the outcomes of depersonalization. The process of depersonalization includes an examination of individuals' relative accessibility to various social categories, and the fit of the social category to perceived reality. The most immediate outcome of depersonalization relevant to the COO effect is a heightened level of national identity, followed by correspondingly heightened levels of ethnocentrism and social cooperation.

In regard to the COO effect, social cooperation and ethnocentrism are analogous to the home country bias. In COO effect research the social cooperation connection has been suggested by Olsen, Granzin and Biswas (1993) though in terms of helping behaviour, not in the context of SCT. When consumers are aware of the economic distress of a domestic industry due to the import of foreign goods, the consumers will act to support the domestic industry. Olsen, Granzin and Biswas' model of helping behaviour illustrates a situation (economic distress) which would add salience to the national social category and increase the feelings of similarity within the home country and differences between countries. This is a condition SCT researchers call a metacontrast. A sufficiently large metacontrast results in the depersonalization of the self-concept from being more personal to more social.

Ethnocentrism has straightforward linkages between the COO effect and SCT.

Group cohesion is the tendency to have a positive evaluation of in-group members while ethnocentrism represents this positive evaluation in relation to other groups. The more people feel a need to show they are different from others, the greater the likelihood of this being manifested economically in a purchase situation (Shimp and Sharma 1987). In regard to the COO effect, a general positive evaluation of the in-group, particularly in the presence of an out-group, can be related to a specific product selection favouring the in-group.

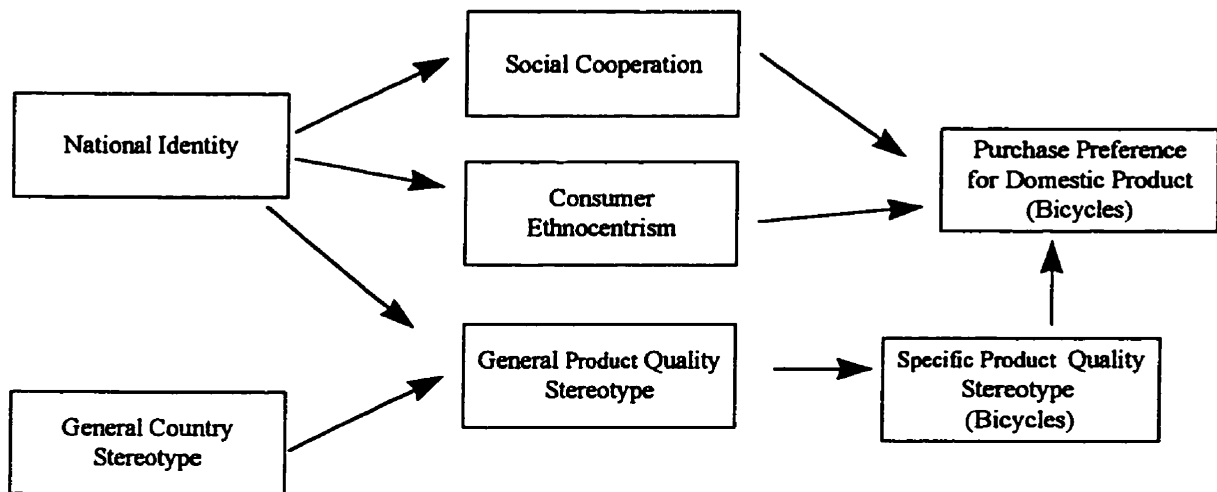
With these connections introduced, a more complete model of the COO effect is explainable within the context of SCT and existing COO literature. People who feel a national identity should have some feeling about what holds them together and how they are distinguished from others. When depersonalization is achieved at the national level, differences in the outcomes of depersonalization: ethnocentrism and social cooperation, should be detectable. These outcomes, in turn, should affect product quality assessments and purchase preference, taking a role in an overall model of the COO effect.

The Model

The model is illustrated in Figure 4. As related in Chapter One, the COO literature has provided substantial foundation for the conclusion that the overall COO effect is made up of both a country stereotype effect and a home country bias effect. This dissertation proposes that the home country bias portion of the COO effect is represented by the outcomes of depersonalization, namely social cooperation and consumer ethnocentrism.

Additionally, this dissertation proposes that ethnocentrism affects perceptions of product quality.

Figure 4
Model of Country of Origin Effect



To best illustrate the applicability of SCT the empirical portion of this dissertation will be comprised of two studies. Study One will experimentally manipulate the level of national identity among randomly assigned subjects. An analysis of variance will compare the groups to observe the differences in level of consumer ethnocentrism, social cooperation, perceived product quality, and purchase preference. Study One is structured in a way typically done by SCT researchers. Study Two will test the model of the expected relationships as presented in Figure 4. In the remainder of this chapter the process of depersonalization and the constructs relating to the model will be presented.

The Process of Depersonalization

The process of depersonalization involves the movement of an individual's self-identity from mainly personal towards a social category. SCT researchers assume that individuals maintain a baseline or chronic level of their identities which changes as environmental stimuli change (Turner et al. 1987; Oakes 1987). A person's own level of accessibility and situational fit combine to make a metacontrast sufficient to make a social category salient.

A person's attitudes, values, beliefs, expectations, recency and frequency of activation affect accessibility or the readiness of a social category to be activated (Oakes, Turner and Haslam 1991). The environmental stimuli, which marketing researchers might call situational variables, serve to activate a social category and fit the social category with an individual's perceived reality. In other words, a social categorization not only becomes salient to the degree that it best fits an individual's behaviour, but such fit implies a meaningful explanation of the individual's actions.

When a particular social category is made salient by fitting a situation to an individual's self-identity for that category, there is a merging of the personal and social category. This is depersonalization, and it occurs to a greater or lesser degree depending upon the relative accessibility of that identity within the individual (Turner et al. 1987). Salience of a social category often occurs in a natural setting, but it can also be stimulated in an experimental setting (Oakes, Turner and Haslam 1991).

National identity is a natural unit to study in the SCT context due to the national values inculcated in nearly all individuals. It is assumed that most people share an identity,

to some degree, at the national level. Social identity researchers have examined the national identity in the context of national stereotyping. Linssen and Hagendoorn (1994) examined stereotypes of European school children and applied principles of SCT to explain how respondents seek differentiation from other nationalities. Ethnic identity has been isolated for study in a consumer context (Stayman and Deshpande 1989; Ethier and Deaux 1990) and it is likely that the same can be done with national identity. Additionally, stereotypes of the national identities of people from other countries have been elicited from respondents and studied in a social identity context (Haslam, Turner, Oakes, McGarty and Hayes 1992). This supplies additional support for the study of national identity.

The process of depersonalization occurs when a social category has become sufficiently salient. Recall from Chapter Two that for a social category to become salient requires the interaction of accessibility and fit. Each of these will be discussed in turn beginning with accessibility. Many personal characteristics may contribute to the accessibility of a social category. Indeed, SCT researchers have rarely sought to identify specific personality characteristics. This dissertation cannot explore all of the possible characteristics contributing to accessibility, but one, country stereotypes, will be examined.

General country stereotypes are characterized as being a relatively enduring personal trait. As such, within the SCT framework they contribute to accessibility. Accessibility is defined as the readiness of a social identity to be activated in an individual.

A person with more extreme country stereotypes may be expected to access the national identity more readily than someone with less extreme country stereotypes.

In the COO effect context stereotypes are recognized to be multi-dimensional and can be examined in regard to general traits of the people of a country and also in regard to specific assessments of product quality (Parameswaran and Pisharodi 1994). Past COO effect research has focused on the impact of country stereotypes on product quality, however, it can be argued that general country stereotypes also have a differentiable impact on the national identity and subsequently on social cooperation and ethnocentrism. In terms of national identity what may be important is the difference between assessments of the home country (more favourable) compared to other countries (less favourable). The distance between own country and other countries contributes to the metacontrast; greater metacontrast leading to a higher national identity. People who are more extreme in seeing their country positively may be expected to show greater national identity, ethnocentrism and social cooperation than those who see themselves as being more equal to people in other countries. In other words, respondents with a more positive own country stereotype, on general traits, are more susceptible to conditions making the national identity salient.

As discussed in Chapter Two, fit is the condition which ties an individual's level of accessibility for a social category to reality. In marketing terminology, fit can be characterized as a situational variable. Fit interacts with accessibility and, if the metacontrast is sufficiently strong, depersonalization of the personal identity in favour of the social identity results.

Due to the transitory nature of the metacontrast, an experimental manipulation can be used to illustrate the activation of the social identity. Under normal conditions an individual may feel more strongly about another identity such as family, race or a work group and much less strongly about the national identity. However, under certain conditions, such as international athletic competition, like the Olympics or with advertising, the prominence of country of origin information on the label or packaging of a product, the importance of nation will increase. Lacking such a natural setting, respondents in Study One of this dissertation will be provided with added salience in an experimental condition to be discussed later in the chapter. The goal will be for respondents to have either their personal identity or their national identity made more salient.

The National Identity

To serve as a manipulation check in Study One a measure of national identity was required. Measuring national identity is not a straightforward task. No generally accepted means of measuring national identity were found, so adaptation from various sources was required. Measurement of social identities have been operationalized in various ways with varying success. Several means of measuring social identities will be briefly reviewed.

In a two question sequence, Hirschman (1981) asked respondents to name their ethnic association and then to rate the strength of the association. Deshpande, Hoyer and Donthu (1986) used the same process to identify Hispanics. Webster (1990) classified Hispanic respondents as "strong" on Hispanic identity if they spoke Spanish all the time or

most of the time and "weak" if they did not. This approach does not seem to have an effective parallel to national identity. Again, with regard to ethnic identification, Mehta and Belk (1991) suggest using "need to assimilate with the dominant population" and "need to maintain a relationship with original culture." This approach would appear to be useful only with regard to a minority group.

In a study which focused on Hispanic identity, Ethier and Deaux (1990) and Deaux (1993) briefly explained the concept of social identity, giving as examples: sex, age, relationship to others, occupation, association with political or religious organizations, social standing and ethnicity. Then, they asked respondents to name the identities that were important to them. If not mentioned, respondents were specifically asked about Hispanic, student, son/daughter, family member and friend. Then, respondents were asked to list attributes or characteristics associated with each group. Respondents were then asked to rate the importance of each identity on a one to seven scale.

McGuire, McGuire, Child and Fujioka (1978) asked children to "tell me about yourself." After several minutes of oral response, respondents were then asked to "tell me what you are not." Responses were then judged for their content. This approach may be particularly well suited to children, but would be burdensome to administer to adults.

The Collective Self-Esteem scale developed by Luhthenan and Crocker (1992) purports to measure self-esteem an individual feels in regard to a group. The construct should approximate the strength of the group identity. The scale is comprised of four subscales: membership, public, private and identity. A pretest was conducted using the Luhthenan and Crocker Collective self-esteem scale and other national identity items. The

Cronbach alphas for the four subscales were in the mid to upper .70's for each and .84 combined. Regarding the collective self-esteem scale's ability to measure the national identity construct, there is some doubt. Many of the items do not really focus on the collective, but on how the individual feels about membership (Crocker and Luhthanen 1990). This may give rise to doubt about its discriminant validity. Taken as a whole, the scale appears to be measuring a construct similar to, but not the same as social identity. Other items were devised to supplement and refine the Luhthanen and Crocker scale.

Seven additional questions which are strictly concerned with the national identity were included in the pretest. Cronbach's alpha for these items was in the upper .70's. Factor analysis of the collective self esteem items and the national identity items analyzed together showed that while the membership, public and private subscales appropriately separated, the identity subscale and the additional national identity items grouped together. When two of the seven national identity items were deleted and the self-esteem identity subscale items were added, the combined alpha was .86. As these eleven items appeared tightly focused around a single construct and showed reliability, they were retained for future use as the measure of the national identity.

Social Co-operation

Social cooperation reflects the proposition that as the perception of identity between oneself and in-group members increases, this leads to a perceived joining of interests in terms of needs and goals of the group (Turner et al. 1987). Social cooperation is an act in support of the group interest when there is an option to act in the personal self-

interest. Social cooperation follows as a natural consequence of group cohesiveness when a situation allowing in-group favouritism is presented.

SCT and social identity theory researchers often substantiate the in-group bias hypothesis with experiments where group members allocate 'points' to in-group and out-group members for completing certain tasks. The typical outcome of such experiments show that when categorization has occurred, there is a resulting favourable in-group bias because more 'points' have been allocated to the in-group (Tajfel 1982; Hogg and Turner 1985a).

Importantly, this in-group bias does not require that members feel that they are actually superior to the out-group (Hogg 1987; Turner et al. 1987). There is a favourable in-group bias even when the group is seen as less attractive than the out-group (Hogg and Turner 1985a; Hogg and Turner 1985b). Relating this to a COO effect context, this would be analogous to a situation where Japanese VCR's were rated as being higher in quality than U.S. VCR's, but some U.S. consumers preferred the U.S. VCR anyway.

In the COO effect literature the home country bias (Samiee 1994) or helping behaviour (Olsen, Granzin and Biswas 1993) is substantially similar to an expression of social cooperation. Furthermore, social cooperation is conceptually distinguishable from both ethnocentrism and the country stereotype response. Ethnocentrism is distinguishable in that it involves the in-group's feelings specifically in regard to an out-group whereas social cooperation is an expression of support for the group at the sacrifice of something of personal value. Social cooperation is distinguishable from country stereotypes in that the impact of a stereotype is applied to product quality assessments. Social cooperation

implies that a positive product quality evaluation is not necessary for a preference to be shown.

Developing a measure of social cooperation is problematic in that it has never been specifically isolated for study in a SCT context. To this extent, a measure of social cooperation in this study is exploratory.

In Olsen, Granzin and Biswas (1993) "willingness to help" (fairly analogous to social cooperation) was operationalized as consumers' support for checking labels to learn where clothing is produced, buying American-made clothes and American brands, and shopping at stores that stock American products.

Green and Blair (1995) used a "willingness to pay" type of question. With this method respondents are asked how much they would pay if a product made in Japan was, instead, made domestically. This question is presented with a series of price increments above and below the price of the comparison product. The drawback with this method is that it makes the situation less realistic than with a multi-cue method such as conjoint analysis and it also presents just a country and price for respondents to use in making their judgment. This comes close to the single cue problem discussed by Bilkey and Nes (1982). The criticism was that this type of question would lead to artificially inflated responses.

In social psychology and political policy issue research social cooperation is classically demonstrated with the use of a social dilemma (Brewer and Kramer 1985; Batson 1994; Tyler and Degoe 1995). Social dilemmas are often operationalized with a situation where a subject can choose to make an allocation of a resource to the group or

to oneself where the allocation to the group provides more benefit to the group than the allocation to oneself, but allocation to oneself provides more self-benefit than does allocation to the group (Dawes 1980). Money, time or personal effort often serve as the scarce resource to be allocated (Batson 1994).

In addition to social and political venues, social dilemmas have recently been promoted in the marketing literature as a means of operationalizing social marketing studies (Wiener and Doescher 1991). While a classic social dilemma may be the best means of demonstrating social cooperation, an abbreviated version will be used in this dissertation so that attention can be given to the entire model. Without being specifically articulated to the respondents, a social dilemma type of situation will allow respondents to act either solely in their self-interest or to act in the interest of the collective national group. The precious resource respondents will be asked to allocate is money, in a hypothetical purchase situation. When price is included as a factor in a product evaluation process, it will serve as a means of demonstrating social cooperation.

The product assessments may be used as an alternate means to test for social cooperation. When doing the conjoint analysis if a person chooses a certain card (option D for defection) over another card (option C for cooperating) then, by definition, option D has greater utility for the individual. Option D and option C are combinations of product attributes and prices where only country and price differ with the price of the domestic product being higher.

Social cooperation is determined to have been achieved under two conditions: 1) when respondents indicate that they will pay more for the domestic product when they

evaluate the domestic and foreign products as being equal in quality; or 2) when respondents indicate that they will pay an equal amount when the foreign product is evaluated as having better quality than the domestic product. If the domestic product is assessed as being superior to the foreign product, then social cooperation cannot be determined, because a rational person would pay more for a better product.

Consumer Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentric tendencies, the tendencies to prefer the in-group to an out-group will be hypothesized to be relevant to the COO effect in two ways: first, the impact of ethnocentrism upon perceptions of product quality, and second, the impact of ethnocentrism directly upon product choice. The impact of ethnocentrism on product choice has been examined by others (Shimp and Sharma 1987) so this is not an original proposition. However, relating ethnocentrism to perceptions of product quality is an original proposition of this dissertation. Following principles of SCT, ethnocentrism should be readily transferable to a tendency for people to believe the quality of domestic products is better than the quality of foreign products.

The description of the construct consumer ethnocentrism requires clarification. Ethnocentrism is a general term which can be used to refer to any of a number of group associations. It can refer to racial, ethnic or other cultural groups as well as nation. Shimp and Sharma (1987) use the term "consumer ethnocentrism" to relate national ethnocentrism to a purchase situation. Shimp and Sharma (1987) used the term "consumer ethnocentrism" to represent the beliefs held by American consumers about the

appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products. Consumer ethnocentrism has an economic component pure ethnocentrism does not have. Consumer ethnocentrism is an economic manifestation of ethnocentrism, with scale items placed strictly in a purchase situation. As such, the Cetscale constitutes an appropriate bridge between the consumer's national identity and the purchase situation. However, the economic component also introduces an 'ability to pay' factor. Respondents may have a strong national identity but not feel obliged or able to express the national identity in their purchases. So the national identity/consumer ethnocentrism relationship may be moderated by economic factors. The relationship of this construct with purchase preference or behavioral intent has received substantial support (Tharp and Marks 1991; Olsen, Granzin and Biswas 1993; Herche 1992). Sharma, Shimp and Shin (1995) also found it supportive of a dependent variable of 'willingness to import'.

Characteristics of general ethnocentrism have been shown to correlate with Shimp and Sharma's construct of consumer ethnocentrism. For instance, ethnocentrism should be higher where there is intergroup competition. Shimp and Sharma (1987) used their construct to find consumer ethnocentrism higher in Detroit than in other parts of the United States, possibly due to the local loss of jobs to Japanese auto makers. It has also been found to be higher in homogeneous societies (Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995; Netemeyer, Durvasala and Lichtenstein 1991). SCT also suggests that it may increase or decrease depending on current economic conditions (Lantz 1997). The intensity of the in-group's feelings may also vary with social distance, whether threats are real or perceived,

by the number of points where the group has to compete with others, intragroup homogeneity, and the relative group strength (Bruning 1991).

Consumer ethnocentrism will be measured using the Cetscale developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987). It has been shown to be reliable and valid on numerous occasions (Herche 1992; Netemeyer, Durvasula and Lichtenstein 1991). It has also been used in a significant number of COO effect studies (Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995; Olsen, Granzin and Biswas 1993; Tharp and Marks 1991).

Stereotypes

Stereotyping holds a fundamental position in COO effect research. When someone makes an assumption about a product based upon where the product was manufactured, that person is using a stereotype. Stereotyping is often acknowledged to involve cognitive factors associated with the categorization process:

Stereotypes are certain generalizations reached by individuals. They derive in large measure from, or are instances of, the general cognitive process of categorizing. The main function of this process is to simplify or systematize, for purposes of cognitive and behavioural adaptation, the abundance and complexity of the information received from its environment by the human organism (Tajfel 1981 p. 146-7).

As stereotypes are tied to the categorization process and stereotypes are tied to the COO effect, categorization and the COO effect are theoretically related. Stereotypes are multi-dimensional and involve several levels of categorization (Ashmore and Del Boca 1981). Recall the discussion in Chapter Two about the various hierarchical levels of

categorization. Levels of categorization which may impact on the COO effect include general country stereotypes (Japanese are industrious), general country product quality stereotypes (Japanese products are reliable), and specific country product quality stereotypes (Mexican bicycles are reliable).

An interesting issue involves the contribution which may be made by each of these levels of stereotype. The halo/summary construct distinction offered by Han (1989) shows how the levels may be interrelated. A more general category's image may function as a halo for objects at a less general level. Germans are often credited with great engineering skills (Maheswaran 1994) and this may create a halo around specific instances such as cars. A summary construct works from specific to general. Japanese cars were seen to be reliable, so Japanese products in general are seen as being of high quality. Han (1989) showed that the summary construct was likely to be found in people who had specific knowledge of products while the halo effect was likely to be found in people who did not have specific product knowledge. Thus, it appears that several levels of categorization may make contributions to the overall COO effect and each deserve attention.

General Country Stereotypes. The reason for including the general country traits was to provide a measure of general country stereotypes for the COO effect and also to explore its use as a measure of accessibility to the national identity.

Han (1989) suggested that people who were unfamiliar with a product would be more likely to use general stereotypes as a halo to make a judgment about specific

products. Therefore, general stereotypes should be ascertained so that their role in forming a purchase preference can be examined.

SCT suggests that the greater the distance people feel there is between countries, the greater the metacontrast (Oakes 1987). When the metacontrast is maximized, there should be greater depersonalization of the self-concept towards the social category. For this reason, the distance perceived between countries can be seen as a personal characteristic which contributes to accessibility. In other words, the greater the distance perceived between the home country and others, the more likely an individual is to activate the national identity. In regard to accessibility issues, this dissertation is making an exploratory examination. Many factors may contribute to the accessibility of the national identity (Turner et al. 1987) and country stereotype is only one possibility.

Numerous methods of assessing stereotypes have been used in the past. In a COO study Roth and Romeo (1992) used four questions to measure what they believed to be four relevant dimensions of country image. Under analysis, these four items formed a single dimension with reliability ranging from .815 with Irish subjects to .898 with Mexican subjects. The factor analysis showed them all to load very highly on one factor. As Roth and Romeo noted, the four items they used all relate to production and marketing practices, so this construct is not measuring a broadly defined country image and does not meet the requirements of this study.

In another COO study, Parameswaran and Pisharodi (1994) developed scales to measure "general country attributes" comprising two dimensions which they call the "people facet" (well-educated, hard working) and the "interaction facet" (similar political

views, culturally similar). While numerous studies have cited similarity of culture and values as contributing to the willingness to purchase foreign products (Han 1990; Tongberg 1972; Wang and Lamb 1983) similarity is not precisely a measure of country stereotype. Consequently, the scale developed by Parmaswaran and Pisharodi (1994) is not the best one for this study.

SCT researchers prefer to use an adjective checklist to ascertain country stereotypes. The checklist methodology devised by Katz and Braly (1933) is comprised of a list of 84 adjectives and was originally designed to measure racist tendencies. Respondents are instructed to read through the list, underlining all applicable adjectives. Then, they choose the five adjectives which they believe to be the most descriptive traits of the people of the subject country. The Katz and Braly method has been used on numerous occasions to measure the stereotypes people apply to countries (Meenes 1943; Seago 1947; Diab 1963). It has also been used in the social identity theory and SCT context (Haslam, Turner, Oakes, McGarty and Hayes 1992). Haslam, Oakes, Turner and McGarty (1995) revised the procedure slightly by also asking respondents to indicate what percentage of the target population had the selected traits. They believe this measure of group homogeneity serves as an accurate index of stereotypicality.

General Country Product Quality Stereotypes. Numerous researchers have defined the COO effect in terms of country image referring to the general product quality perceptions consumers hold of the country. Roth and Romeo (1992 p. 480) defined country image as: "the overall perception consumers form of products from a particular

country, based on their prior perceptions of the country's products and marketing strengths and weaknesses". Roth and Romeo then matched specific products to country image. They found that there were sometimes substantial disparities between overall country image (general quality) and willingness to buy specific products. It has also been found that countries sometimes have reputations for specific product categories; not necessarily all products. For instance, Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983) showed that Japanese electronics received high quality ratings while Japanese food products received low quality ratings.

However, when Maheswaran (1994) asked respondents to list their thoughts about products made in various countries they made general product quality stereotypes such as, "German products have great engineering" and "Thailand workers do not have good technical skills." So there is some reason to believe that a country's general reputation for product quality is influential in forming a purchase preference.

Perceived Specific Product Quality. SCT suggests the possibility that perceptions of specific product quality are not only influenced by higher levels of stereotypes but also by peoples' ethnocentrism. In addition to product preference, individuals high in ethnocentrism are expected to see the quality of products from their country as being better than products from other countries. SCT suggests that the in-group wishes to see itself in a positive light or at least to be positively distinguished in some way. In a product quality evaluation, it is not unlikely that individuals high on consumer ethnocentrism will believe that products from their country are better than others. SCT does not require that

this is necessarily always true. Indeed, there are many occasions when a foreign product is acknowledged as being better, even by highly ethnocentric people. Nevertheless, there is expected to be a tendency for those measuring high on the ethnocentrism scale to view quality as being higher than those lower on measured ethnocentrism.

Product Familiarity

The role of product familiarity in the COO effect was covered in Chapter One and earlier in this chapter as it relates to stereotype. Product familiarity is expected to act as a moderator between product quality and purchase preference. No particular outcome associated with SCT is predicted except as it relates to categorization in general. Low product familiarity means product information seems ambiguous. Ambiguous acts have been shown to be unfavourably interpreted if performed by a negatively stereotyped person (Sagar and Schofield 1980). Similarly, if product information is ambiguous, as it often is to a novice, then the positive or negative country stereotype should play a greater role.

Purchase Preference

Behavioural researchers suggest that consumers use a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic cues when arriving at a product choice (Olson and Jacoby 1972). Additionally, COO effect studies have been criticized for using single cue methods to test for the COO effect (Bilkey and Nes 1982). A multi-attribute method is preferred, serving to discourage the possibility of inflated responses due to drawing undue attention to the country

attribute (Hong and Wyer 1989; Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka 1985; Erickson, Johansson and Chao 1984). Since the unobservable aspects of the decision such as the effect of social cooperation and ethnocentrism are presumably contained within the 'country' cue, a multi-attribute approach with country as one attribute, appears to be a proper means of measuring purchase preference.

The model proposes that purchase preference results from a combination of the influence of product quality evaluations, ethnocentrism and social cooperation. Purchase preference will be measured by using the partworths or utilities generated from a conjoint analysis. A conjoint analysis generates utilities, which are interval type data, for each level for each product attribute or factor which is part of the design. In a product selection, the difference between two utilities for a given factor, represents the difference in the individual's preference in regard to that factor. In other words, the utilities serve as an estimation of the importance respondents apportion to each level of each factor presented. Therefore, when the country of origin of a product is a factor and two or more countries represent the levels of that factor, then the utilities produced by the analysis represent the relative preference of one level over another. The dependent variable will be represented by the utility for the domestic product.

Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the model of the COO effect including the portion of the effect proposed to be attributed to self-categorization. The constructs and the means of measuring them have been defined. Two empirical applications of the COO effect and

self-categorization theory will now follow. In Study One the national category will be examined with an experiment designed to vary the salience of national identity by manipulating the level of national category salience among two groups. This will be the subject of Chapter Four. Study Two will illustrate the COO effect without manipulating the level of national category salience. This will be the subject of Chapter Five.

Chapter Four

Study One: An Empirical Demonstration of Self-Categorization

Theory in a COO Context

Introduction

The purpose of Study One is to demonstrate the process of depersonalization by creating a metacontrast sufficient to alter individuals' assessments of their national identity and to illustrate the effect of depersonalization in attitudes and purchase preference. Study One, additionally, will be used to examine some constructs to be used in Study Two, but which were not part of the hypothesized SCT relationships. Specifically, the general country image, perceived general country product quality stereotypes and the level of product knowledge were included in the survey, but were not part of the analysis.

SCT hypothesizes that the salience of a category is highly situational and can change spontaneously with current stimuli or circumstances (Haslam and Turner 1992; Haslam, Oakes, Turner and McGarty 1995; Hogg and Turner 1987). In order to observe the effect of salience the national identity was manipulated to increase its salience with one group and to decrease it with another. Increasing or decreasing the salience of the national identity should accomplish the dual purposes of increasing (or decreasing) the likelihood of social cooperation and accentuating (or minimizing) ethnocentrism. In other words, respondents in the high national salience condition should experience greater depersonalization and respondents in the low national salience condition should experience less depersonalization and this effect will be apparent in the outcomes.

Since the manipulation was intended to alter the salience of national identity, a measure of national identity served as the manipulation check. The manipulation should result in a higher level of national identity in those in the national fit condition and a lower level of national identity in those in the personal fit condition. In accord with SCT it is hypothesized that the increased salience of the national identity leads to increased levels of social cooperation and ethnocentrism, with a final outcome of influencing purchase choice. Additionally, the increased level of ethnocentrism is expected to affect the perceived product quality between the home country and other countries. In the next sections the hypotheses expressing these relationships will be discussed.

Hypotheses

An elevated level of social cooperation has been proposed as an outcome of depersonalization by Turner et al. (1987). A literature review shows that social cooperation has not been the subject of significant scrutiny in the SCT context. Social cooperation is defined as making a personal sacrifice for the benefit of the group and will be determined as follows: social cooperation is achieved when respondents indicate that they will pay more for the domestic product than for a foreign product when all other product features are equal. Consequently, the effect of depersonalization on social cooperation is illustrated with the following hypothesis:

- H1:** Subjects in the high national salience condition will be higher in social cooperation than subjects in the low national salience condition.

An elevated feeling of ethnocentrism has been proposed as an outcome of depersonalization by Turner et al. (1987). Shimp and Sharma's (1987) construct of consumer ethnocentrism will be adopted as the means of measuring ethnocentrism. It is hypothesized that the expression of economic preference is the result of the national identity having been made salient in a purchase situation. Shimp and Sharma's (1987) construct is important to the model because it represents the economic expression of the national identity in a purchase situation. Therefore, it serves as an important link between the social identity and the country of origin effect.

H2: Subjects in the high national salience condition will be higher in consumer ethnocentrism than subjects in the low national salience condition.

The central proposition of SCT is that people wish to see their social groups in a positive light or at least to be positively distinguished from others. One way this may happen is to perceive the quality of domestic products as being better than the quality of other countries. While it is not expected that people will abandon all rationality in making such product assessments, there may be a tendency to evaluate domestic product quality as being better among those in the group where national identity is more salient.

H3: Subjects in the high national salience condition will be higher in perceived domestic product quality than subjects in the low national salience condition.

A review of SCT literature shows no prior research which carries the inquiry to a purchase situation. Nevertheless, purchase preference would appear to be an expected outcome of depersonalization. Individuals who are more depersonalized towards the national identity should express a greater preference for domestically manufactured goods.

This represents the outcome of greatest importance in the COO effect context, and confirmation of this hypothesis would greatly substantiate the role of SCT in explaining the COO effect.

- H4: Subjects in the high national salience condition will be higher in purchase preference for the domestic product than subjects in the low national salience condition.

Method

Manipulation to Make 'Nation' Salient

The purpose of grouping respondents is to establish conditions which create high and low levels of metacontrast between the home country and target countries. The principle of the metacontrast has two parts, in-group similarity and out-group difference. So the effort was to create a group which has maximum in-group similarity and out-group differences, and to create another group with minimum in-group similarity and out-group differences.

The required manipulation of respondents involves influencing fit, or situational variables. The means for accomplishing the manipulation is not at all straightforward. Prior studies have shown that images of out-groups were variable depending on the

existing conditions (Haslam, Oakes, Turner and McGarty 1995). Furthermore, when group identities are made artificially salient the strength of the identity is highly transitory and it is uncertain if this condition will continue throughout the entire experiment.

A manipulation of salience was done in regard to gender by Hogg and Turner (1987) by varying the number of females and males present in a small group setting. The number of males and females present was constant, providing a visual reminder of the gender difference; so the manipulation was continued throughout the entire experiment. This made it easier for the gender-based depersonalization to continue throughout the experiment as well. Unfortunately, a manipulation which is easily accomplished with a small group where there is personal interaction is not readily transferable to a study of a large collective group such as the nation. Consequently, Hogg and Turner (1987) does not provide a good example to follow.

Haslam and Turner (1992) manipulated salience in regard to social groups based on respondents' degree of pragmatism versus idealism in comparison to an out-group member. Subjects viewed a videotape of a person making a verbal presentation. In Group 1, subjects were told that the speaker was a supporter of road safety. In this case, the speaker was perceived as an in-group member because the subjects also favoured road safety. In Group 2, subjects were told that the speaker wished to outlaw alcohol. This was the out-group condition. The verbal, videotaped presentation was the same for both groups. In it, the speaker spoke of the dangers of drinking and driving. At the outset of the experiment, subjects completed a scale purporting to measure idealism versus pragmatism and they were all told that they were moderately pragmatic. After viewing the

videotape, they assessed the speaker for pragmatism/idealism in the same way as they had been assessed. The result of this pragmatism/idealism rating was that in the in-group condition, the speaker was determined to be more similar to the subjects and in the out-group condition the speaker was more different in relation to the subjects.

To summarize, the manipulation consisted of administering a scale with a bogus result and implanting the social orientation of the speaker with the subjects to establish the in-group and out-group. The manipulation was effective in making in-group members believe that they were more similar while the out-group members believed that they were more different, even though they were all exposed to the same videotape presentation by the target.

In Haslam and Turner's (1992) study of the pragmatic versus idealistic social group, the manipulation was set in place at the beginning and subjects then completed several tasks. Haslam and Turner showed that the manipulation was strong enough to elicit a response consistent with the manipulation for a time after the manipulation was rendered. For this reason, the manipulation in Study One will be patterned after Haslam and Turner (1992) along with the practice of Hogg and Turner (1987) of maintaining a constant reminder of the group condition, but in this case using a visual cue.

An additional step can also be taken to make the group salient. Kramer and Brewer (1984) increased the salience of a shared social identification, raising the level of social cooperation. In one group of randomly assigned subjects the community identity was made salient by telling subjects that researchers were interested in "how the behaviour of residents of a small community like Santa Barbara would compare to residents in other

areas." In the other group condition the student subjects were told that researchers were interested in "how the behaviour of young people compares to the behaviour of elderly persons" (Kramer and Brewer 1984). Each group then interacted with another group of supposedly elderly people also from Santa Barbara. This manipulation succeeded in achieving group identities at the desired levels; in the first case creating community identity and in the second creating an age-based group identity. So, simple statements framing the situation can influence group associations.

The goal of the manipulation in Study One was to make one group of respondents feel their national identity relatively strongly while the other group feels their personal identity relatively strongly. This was accomplished by conducting the experiment in two phases. Phase I consisted of a survey to ascertain: general country stereotypes, product quality country stereotypes, tendency to show compliance, and susceptibility to group influence. Phase I primarily served to set up the pretext for making a believable manipulation. Phase II consisted of making group assignments, followed by product assessments, then a survey measuring consumer ethnocentrism, social cooperation, product quality and a few filler exercises.

In Phase II half the respondents were randomly assigned to Group 1. Group 1 was the national fit group. Recall from Chapter Two that depersonalization occurs when the metacontrast is sufficiently strong. The metacontrast is comprised of cohesion felt within the group and the distance felt towards another group. The manipulation was intended to address both parts of the metacontrast. National fit was manipulated in three ways. First, respondents in Group 1 were told that after Phase I there was a tabulation of results and

these results showed that they were high on national identity. They were assigned to rooms with "high national identity" written on the blackboard. It was explained to the respondents that they were assigned due to their response to the survey in Phase I showing that they were high in traits related to national identity, compared to other respondents. The purpose of telling them that they were high in national identity was to make them feel more cohesive as a group. Second, respondents in the high national identity condition were told that a manufacturing firm is deciding where to locate a factory and that respondents are assisting in this process, introducing an economic threat. Third, respondents in the high national identity condition were told that the survey was also being done by Americans and that the results would be compared (the respondents were Canadian). The purpose of saying that the results would be compared to Americans was to create a distance between the respondents and another group. See Exhibit 1 for the presentation made to respondents in the national identity group.

Respondents randomly assigned to Group 2 were directed to go to a different room, and were subjected to a manipulation intended to make them higher in personal identity. Respondents in Group 2 were reminded that part of Phase I included questions measuring susceptibility to group influence. After a bogus tabulation they were told that they were high on traits of using their personal judgment and that they resist influence from others. After this, they were simply told that their opinions were appreciated. See Exhibit 2 for the presentation made to the personal identity group.

Statements made to the personal identity group served to accentuate the personal identity in a positive way. If respondents were told that they were simply low on national

identity this may be viewed negatively and they may have shown reactance in their responses to the remainder of the survey. To avoid reactance, it was necessary to allow them to see themselves in a positive light while adding salience to the personal identity. From this point on, respondents in both groups were exposed to the same products for assessment and the same attitude questions.

The comments made to influence the salience of the national identity were made in the context of introductory remarks. Respondents knew that they had been divided into two groups and these comments purported to simply explain why. A few respondents were later questioned and they said that they were unaware of any manipulation. If the change in salience has been effective, the response should be evident between the two groups with differences in depersonalization, leading to differences in felt national identity (the manipulation check), in ethnocentrism, in social cooperation and in purchase preference. Among those who are highly ethnocentric there should even be a difference in product quality assessment.

Measures

National identity was measured using an eleven item scale taken from Luhthanen and Crocker's (1992) Collective Self-Esteem scale and other items, as discussed in Chapter Three. The national identity items were in a seven point Likert-type (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree) format.

Social cooperation was measured using a "willingness-to-pay" question. Specifically, subjects were asked to indicate by placing a check mark, if they would be

willing to pay amounts representing a range from 7% above to 7% below the price given for a U.S. (or Mexican) bicycle if they could buy a bicycle with the same features but made in Canada. In other words, they were given the opportunity to say they would pay a premium to buy Canadian. This “willingness-to-pay” question was asked twice, once for a hypothetical U.S. versus Canadian bicycle and once for a hypothetical Mexican versus Canadian bicycle.

Consumer ethnocentrism was measured using the Shimp and Sharma (1987) Consumer Ethnocentric Tendency Scale (Cetscale). The ten item reduced scale was used rather than the full seventeen item scale on a seven point Likert-type (1=strongly disagree, 7= strongly agree) format.

General country trait stereotypes were measured using the Katz and Braly (1933) adjective checklist. Stereotypes were measured of the people of Canada, the United States, and Mexico. Respondents were asked to select seven traits from the checklist of 83 adjectives which they believed were typical of the people of each country. When the general country stereotype measurements were obtained they were assessed by assigning negative 1 to negative traits, 0 to ambiguous traits and positive 1 to positive traits. These results were then summed. So the resulting scores can range from -7 to +7 for each respondent indicating how positively or negatively that respondent feels about the target country. For analysis, these scores are renumbered to range from 1 to 15.

Prior to the study, five independent judges assessed the 83 traits (one was deleted as it was felt to be an archaic term) as being positive, negative or ambiguous. When the decisions were unanimous or there was a 1-4 division among the five judges, the trait was

valanced in favour of the majority. Otherwise, the trait was called ambiguous. This procedure resulted in 29 positive traits, 32 negative traits and 22 ambiguous traits.

General product quality stereotype was measured with a five item battery on a seven point scale adapted from Maheswaran (1994). Maheswaran referred to this as a “country of origin index” and a Cronbach’s alpha of .90 was reported (1994).

Perceived product quality was assessed for one product tested, bicycles, from each country using a scale adapted from Petroshius and Monroe (1987). The six item summed ratings scale was developed to measure the degree of quality a consumer perceives a product to have. The scale was reported to have alpha values of .88 and .84 for two products tested (calculators and typewriters). A factor analysis indicated that the items loaded together and not on related factors. However, the scale has not been cited in the literature since its introduction so its reliability and validity have not been independently confirmed. Additionally, one item was not used as it seemed to be irrelevant to bicycles (“I would consider this product to be very functional”).

Perceived product quality of the other product tested, the prepaid phone card, had to be assessed differently. Being a service, the same quality items were not appropriate. Three items related to service quality were devised for this survey. The items inquire as to perceived likelihood regarding reliability of the phone card, that the phone card will work as advertised and that the vendor will provide good service.

The actual variable used to observe the role of perceived product quality was made by first summing the quality items for each country and then taking the difference between

the home country and the other country. Since SCT is interested in the difference people feel there is between in-group and out-group the difference variable was appropriate.

Respondents' product familiarity was determined with a series of questions testing their knowledge of each product. For the bicycle, a sixteen item questionnaire was used. Questions related to general knowledge of bicycle parts and materials. The questionnaire can be found in the appendix. In a multiple choice format, respondents were asked to answer "(e) don't know" if they would be simply guessing, in order to get a more accurate assessment of actual knowledge.

Regarding the other product, phone cards, respondents were asked on the survey if they had ever had actual experience with prepaid long distance phone cards prior to the survey. Phone cards were a very new product with the general public and it was expected that very few respondents would have had any real experience.

Products Tested. The specific means of measuring purchase preference using a conjoint analysis will be discussed next. Two types of products were tested, those with high complexity and low complexity. A low complexity product, a virtual commodity, will substantially remove the quality aspect from the product evaluation so that quality implications will not elicit stereotyped responses as a substitute for missing quality cues. The rationale is that if quality is observably equal across all countries' products, the remaining product preference will be more attributable to social cooperation (home country bias) or ethnocentrism. A negative aspect of using a low complexity product is

that they have been observed to show a COO effect of small magnitude (Liefeld 1993).

The low complexity product to be tested is prepaid long distance phone cards.

The clearest illustration of the stereotype effect should be found among complex products. This is because there can be expected to be greater variability in quality in complex products. Associated with the complexity dimension is the difficulty in making an assessment by less knowledgeable consumers, which Maheswaran (1994) found increased a stereotype effect. Bicycles will be used as the complex product because they have distinctive quality attributes which experts recognize but novices do not.

The true quality of bicycle attributes was ascertained by interviews with bike shop workers and other experts and by reading bicycle magazine product reviews. The product attributes chosen had distinctive levels of quality. To experts, the quality features selected for inclusion are obvious; to novices the quality features should be a matter of some guesswork. This is a desired trait because novices are expected to invoke COO stereotypes as a surrogate for their lack of expertise in making a judgment while experts are not so expected (Maheswaran 1994). Product familiarity was included solely as a pretest for Study Two.

Countries of Comparison. Countries selected include the United States, Canada, and Mexico for the bicycle and Canada and the United States for the prepaid phone card. The countries being compared have a significant impact on the respondent's perception. Countries chosen for this study include those which are more and less industrialized in order to differentiate product quality issues from national loyalty issues. It is expected

that when the home country is as equally developed as a target country, product quality stereotype will be minimized. Conversely, less developed countries will elicit greater COO effect attributable to product quality stereotype.

Other Product Attributes. Aside from country, product attributes included are determined by the complexity of the product. For the prepaid phone cards, the only features were vendor (with vendor's location), the time it takes to create the customized card, and price. The price had a base price and two other prices which varied from the base by three and a half percent higher and lower for a range of seven percent. A narrow range of prices was chosen because, particularly in the case of noncomplex goods, a wide price range would overwhelm the effects of the other factors. Additionally, it has been observed that retailers often do not offer dramatically lower prices simply due to the country of origin, so it was not done in this study either. Real vendor names were used for the phone cards but the vendors were confirmed, in the survey, to be unknown to respondents. The time to customize the cards feature was included simply to distract respondents from the real purpose of the study. A real advertisement was presented to respondents to demonstrate the authenticity of the situation and also to show that product and service claims were credible.

Regarding bicycles, there were a total of six factors. Greater latitude was shown for the bicycle prices since there were clear quality factors for respondents to value. Three prices with a total range of 30% were chosen. These prices represent high, medium and low choices for respondents. Brand names were not used for bicycles. Other features

were important to the extent that this study was interested in expert versus novice, or how product familiarity affects stereotype activation, so significant features were included for the bicycle. The features were: frame material (aluminum or chromoly), wheel material (steel or aluminum), shifter (thumb or bar-end shifter) and chainring (double or triple). As mentioned, these were factor levels which would be known to experts but not to novices.

For both products, orthogonal, fractional factorial designs were created using the Orthoplan procedure on the SPSS statistical package. In the case of the phone cards two levels of countries/vendors, three prices and two levels of availability resulted in a total of eighteen possible product attribute combinations. Ten cards with an additional two holdout cards were used in the study. In the case of bicycles, three countries, three prices and two levels of frame material, wheel material, shifter and chainring resulted in 144 possible product attribute combinations. Sixteen cards with an additional four holdout cards were used in the study. Holdout cards are additional cards which are used to test the reliability of the design, although they are not used in the calculation of the utilities.

Conjoint analysis is carried out by having subjects either rate or rank the cards in order of preference. In this study they were asked to rate the cards. Subjects evaluated the cards on a 0-10 rating scale of likelihood to buy after they had been presented with a review of all factors and levels and a scenario placing them in a situation calling for a choice. Sample cards can be found in Exhibit 3.

Survey Administration

The experiment was done in two phases. In Phase I, respondents completed the following: 1) the Katz & Braly (1933) country stereotype checklist for each country; 2) a five item scale measuring product quality/country stereotypes for each country; 3) a scale measuring compliance and detachment; and 4) scales measuring susceptibility to group influence and self-concept. The country traits and product quality stereotypes were done as a pretest for Study Two. The other items were either filler activities or were done to furnish a pretext for the manipulation done in Phase II, several weeks later.

At the beginning of Phase II, respondents were randomly assigned to one of two groups. These were the groups relating to fit. After group assignments were made, survey administrators told respondents how they came to be assigned to the group. This explanation (the manipulation) was a deception designed to create the fit condition. Following this, respondents completed product assessments. Next, scales measuring national identity, consumer ethnocentrism, product quality assessments, social cooperation for the products previously assessed, and a few demographics were administered to subjects.

Results

The results section will consider the following issues: 1) an examination of the manipulation to accentuate national and personal identities; 2) an examination of the

sample and the variables, including reliability and validity where appropriate; and then 3) an examination of the results that bear on the hypotheses.

The Manipulation Check

The manipulation in Phase II consisted of randomly assigning respondents into two groups followed by the survey administrator stating the results from Phase I indicating that respondents were either high on national identity or high on personal identity. The manipulation simulated a 'fit' condition which was predicted to depersonalize respondents' self-concept in the high national fit condition and to personalize the respondents' self-concept in the personal fit condition.

A comparison of means of the national identity variable shows that respondents in the high national fit condition were higher in national identity than respondents in the personal fit condition by a significant amount ($F=4.2839$, $p<.042$). It can be reasonably concluded that the manipulation succeeded in creating conditions sufficient to depersonalize the respondents in the national fit condition.

Examination of the Variables

Of the original sample, five respondents were deleted due to the failure to match their questionnaires between the first and second stages of the survey. The remaining seventy-five respondents were approximately equally divided between the two groups.

This discussion will briefly include the constructs measured as a pretest for Study Two as well as constructs measured solely for answering the hypotheses of Study One.

Stereotypes. Stereotypes were taken at three levels: general country traits, general product quality, and specific product quality. General country traits were measured in Phase I in order to determine the relative distance between the home country and others. The countries examined include Canada, Japan, Mexico and the United States. As predicted, people of the home country were ascribed more positive traits while people of other countries were ascribed less positive traits, with the exception of Japan. From the Canadian subjects, on a range of 1 to 15, the mean for Canada was 11.643, for Japan 11.569, for the U.S. 5.33, and for Mexico 8.29. Japan and Canada were statistically indistinguishable ($t=.36$ sig. $<.723$). See Table 1 for a summary of results for general country stereotypes and general product quality stereotypes.

General product quality stereotypes were also measured in Phase I. These stereotypes were ascertained from a five question battery on a seven point scale for Canada, Japan, Mexico and the United States. The scores for each country were summed. The Canadian respondents showed a mean for Canada of 25.24, for Japan 29.06, of Mexico 13.94, and of the U.S. 24.72. A t-test shows that Canadians see Americans as being statistically equal in terms of product quality ($t=1.04$ $p<.3$) while Japanese were seen as superior in quality ($t=6.02$ $p<.001$) and Mexicans as significantly lower in quality ($t=18.59$ $p<.000$). General country stereotypes and general product quality stereotypes were measured in Study One solely to serve as a pretest for Study Two. They will not be considered further.

Table 1
Stereotype reliability, means and significance test

Stereotypes	Mean	t-test	df	Alpha
General country traits				
Canada	11.643			single item
Japan	11.569	$t=.36, p<.723$	1; 75	single item
Mexico	8.11	$t=10, p<.000$	1; 75	single item
United States	5.33	$t=19, p<.000$		single item
General product quality				
Canada	25.24			.835
Japan	29.06	$t=6.02, p<.001$	1; 75	.875
Mexico	13.94	$t=18.6, p<.000$	1; 75	.83
United States	24.72	$t=1.04, p<.3$	1; 75	.856

t-test compares mean score of Canada to others; two tailed test

Specific product quality stereotypes were taken in Phase II of the study. Results are summarized in Table 2. Following the product assessments and attitudinal questions, respondents were asked five questions on a seven point scale about product quality of bicycles from Canada, the United States and Mexico and three questions about product quality of the prepaid long distance phone cards from the U.S. and Canada. The three questions of phone card quality were unidimensional and both countries showed high alphas, .8582 for the Canadian items and .8656 for the U.S. items. On average, phone cards from Canada were assessed as being slightly better in quality, although 41 of 79 said they were precisely equal.

Table 2
Product quality stereotype - - reliability, means and significance test

Product Quality Stereotypes	Mean	t-test	df	Alpha
Specific Product Quality (Bicycles)				
Canada	29.615			.856
United States	29.09	$t=1.64, p<.104$	1; 73	.887
Mexico	21.73	$t=11.18, p<.000$	1; 73	.96
Specific product quality (Prepaid phone cards)				
Canada	17.544			.858
United States	16.633	$t=5.08, p<.000$	1; 73	.866

t-test compares mean score of Canada to others; two tail test.

Likewise, the five questions relating to quality of bicycles were unidimensional and showed high reliability with alpha of .856 for the Canadian items, .887 for the U.S. items and .96 for the Mexican items. The bicycles from the U.S. (mean=29.09) and Canada (29.615) are seen as being equal in quality ($t=1.64, p<.104$), whereas the bicycles from Mexico are lower in quality in comparison to Canadian bicycles ($t=11.18, p<.000$).

Product Familiarity. As with the country stereotype measures, product familiarity was measured as a pretest for Study Two. The results will be briefly summarized. As expected, prepaid long distance phone cards were, at the time of testing, such a new product that no respondents had prior experience with them. Respondents also confirmed that they had no familiarity with the vendors. So, for the phone cards product familiarity can be ruled out as an influence upon the respondents' decision making.

Regarding the bicycle, respondents had taken a sixteen item bicycle knowledge quiz prior to the survey. The results show that a large majority of the respondents were not very knowledgeable. A median split occurred between three and four correct answers out of sixteen. Recall that respondents were asked to answer "don't know" rather than guessing. This served to keep the scores low, since correct answers obtained by chance were minimized. The sample was divided into two groups for an examination of the use of product knowledge in arriving at a purchase preference. On the conjoint analysis novices gave 'country' a relative importance of 33.35% and experts 22.15%. This is the expected result and is consistent with Maheswaran (1994).

National Identity. The national identity was measured using eleven questions on a seven point scale. This is partly adapted from Luhthenan and Crocker (1992) and partly an original scale. In a pretest twenty three items were reduced to eleven. The pretest indicated that three additional items could possibly be dropped, however, since the pretest had a small sample size (43 respondents) these items were retained for further analysis using a larger sample.

Survey results supported the findings of the pretest. Exploratory factor analysis of all eleven items showed two factors. The second factor was due entirely to the three items with lower reliability. When these items were deleted, national identity was unidimensional for eigenvalues over one. The eigenvalue was 4.87 explaining 60.9% of variability. Reliability, tested with Cronbach's alpha, was .83 with all eleven items and .905 with the final eight items. See Table 3 for a summary of all variable results.

Table 3
Variable reliability, means and significance test

Variable	National Fit Mean, n=38	Personal Fit Mean, n=39	F test	df	P less than	Alpha
National Identity	40.263	35.846	5.297	1; 75	.024	.905
Ethnocentrism	38.605	31.538	9.182	1; 75	.003	.8945
Social Co-operation Phone Card	1.9737	.9189	4.646	1; 75	.034	single item
Social Co-operation Bicycle, U.S.-Can.	2.927	1.60	4.215	1; 74	.044	single item
Social Co-operation Bicycle, Mex.-Can.	4.342	3.763	.805	1; 74	.373	single item
Purchase Preference Phone Card	.839	.603	1.577	1; 75	.213	single item
Purchase Preference Bicycle, U.S.-Can.	1.3781	.6988	9.438	1; 75	.003	single item

F test compares National Fit group and Personal Fit group

Consumer Ethnocentrism. Consumer ethnocentrism was measured using the Cetscale originally developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987). Reliability of the Cetscale has consistently been high with the full seventeen item battery (Herche 1992; Netemeyer, Durvasala and Lichtenstein 1991) as well as with the reduced ten item battery (Lantz and Loeb 1995). For parsimony and to reduce the burden on respondents, the ten item scale was used. The Cetscale showed good reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .8945.

An exploratory factor analysis showed two factors with eigenvalues over one. The first factor had an eigenvalue of 5.2, explaining 52.0% of variance while the second factor had an eigenvalue of 1.04, explaining 10.4% of variance. The second factor was due entirely to one item. Due to the longevity and known reliability of the Cetscale, all items were retained.

Social Cooperation. Social cooperation was measured using two methods, a single item willingness-to-pay scale and a conjoint analysis simulation. As with all single item measures, validity is difficult to demonstrate. While the willingness-to-pay method appears to measure what it is supposed to measure, it does not have good properties for use as a continuous variable. The distribution is highly skewed with responses in a very narrow range. The other method of measuring social cooperation involves the use of a conjoint analysis simulation. A simulation was constructed for bicycles, setting all product attributes equal except for country and specifying a higher price for the domestic bicycle. Respondents showing a preference for the domestic product under these conditions are demonstrating social cooperation.

A conjoint analysis simulation simply uses the mathematical relationships established when the utilities were calculated. So the simulation should be accurate even if that particular combination of attributes was not presented to respondents during the survey. Given the reliability of the conjoint utilities, discussed next, the comparison of simulated cards appears to offer a good means of ascertaining social cooperation. The main conjoint analysis results will be reviewed next.

Overall Conjoint Analysis Results and Purchase Preference. Overall conjoint analysis results are reported giving utilities for each level (Canada, United States, etc.) and the average importance of product factors (country, price, etc.) expressed as a percentage of the relative importance of each factor. Two products were tested, a bicycle and a prepaid long distance calling card. For the bicycle, in both the national and personal conditions there was a preference for the domestically manufactured bicycle. However, the relative importance of country varied substantially between the high national fit and the high personal fit conditions. In the high national fit condition country had a 35.14% level of importance with price coming in second with 25.32% with the other factors around 10%. In the high personal fit condition country was much less important at 25.43% with price at 30.68%. The individual utilities for Canada, Mexico and the U.S., respectively, for respondents in the national and personal fit conditions are significantly different. Regarding the overall results Kendall's tau for respondents in the national fit condition had a significance level of .0208 while respondents in the personal fit condition had a significance of .0971. In sum, the national and personal fit conditions for the bicycle separated distinctly and as predicted. The conjoint analysis figures for bicycles are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4
Conjoint Analysis Results; Bicycle National and Personal Fit

Factors Levels	National Fit (Overall Importance) Utility	Personal Fit (Overall Importance) Utility
Country	(35.14%)	(25.43%)
Mexico	-1.4675	-1.1282
Canada	1.4228	.9135
United States	.0447	.2147
Price	(25.32%)	(30.68%)
\$250	-1.0543	-.9918
\$300	-2.1086	-1.9837
\$350	-3.1630	-2.9755
Frame Material	(10.04%)	(12.09%)
Chromoly	-.0640	.2981
Aluminium	.0640	-.2981
Wheels	(10.47%)	(9.75%)
Steel	-.4726	-.2692
Aluminium	.4726	.2692
Shifter	(7.76%)	(10.18%)
Bar-end	.0213	.0673
Thumb	-.0213	-.0673
Chainring	(11.26%)	(11.86)
Triple	.4146	.3558
Double	-.4146	-.3558

The outcome with the prepaid phone cards is less distinct. An examination of the utilities shows that the preference for the domestic product was only slightly higher than

for the foreign product and the overall importance of country was not nearly as important a factor as was price. Price was clearly a dominating factor. The importance of country for the national fit and the personal fit was 20% and 22%, respectively. This result is, however, consistent with prior COO effect research indicating that less complex products elicit a COO effect of lower magnitude (Liefeld 1993). Regardless of the fit manipulation, country was simply much less significant than the price of the products. Regarding reliability, Kendall's tau had a significance of .001 and .000 for the national and personal fit conditions, respectively. The conjoint analysis figures for phone cards is summarized in Table 5.

The purchase preferences are obtained from the results of the conjoint analysis for bicycles and prepaid long distance phone cards. The actual variable used to indicate purchase preference is the Canadian utility. The utilities provide interval level data illustrating the relative importance of each product factor at each level. So, the Canadian utility represents the preference for the Canadian product.

Table 5
Conjoint Analysis Results; Prepaid Phone Card

Factors Levels	National Fit (Overall Importance) Utility	Personal Fit (Overall Importance) Utility
Country (vender)	(22.80%)	(20.43%)
Canada	.8688	.5620
U.S.	-.8688	-.5620
Price	(52.40%)	(49.54%)
\$8.83	-2.009	-1.8462
\$9.19	-4.019	-3.6923
\$9.50	-6.028	-5.5385
Availability	(24.80%)	(30.04%)
2 Weeks	.9479	.9338
3 Weeks	-.9479	-.9338
Pearson's R	.983, sig. .000	.994, sig. .000
Kendall's Tau	.848, sig. .001	.939, sig. .000

Hypotheses

Since individual tests of statistical significance of each dependent variable can lead to an inflated experimentwise error rate, a Manova was conducted including all dependent variables, except social cooperation, to determine whether the dependent variables were significantly different between national and personal fit conditions as hypothesized.

For the bicycle, dependent variables were consumer ethnocentrism, perception of product quality difference between both Canadian-U.S. bicycles and Canadian-Mexican bicycles, and purchase preference. Results from the Manova with the bicycle are shown in

Table 6. The overall F was 3.72890, df 5; 69. Additionally, all of the univariate tests were significant, supporting H2, H3, and H4.

Table 6
Manova results for the bicycle, National Fit and Personal Fit Conditions

Source of Variation	Supports	Multivariate F-Ratio	Univariate F-Ratio	Degrees of Freedom	P Less Than
Overall		3.72898		5; 69	.005
National Identity	Manipulation check		4.28398	1;73	.042
Consumer Ethnocentrism	H2		8.40427	1; 73	.005
Canada-U.S. bicycle quality	H3		4.65095	1; 73	.034
Canada-Mexico bicycle quality	H3		8.09605	1; 73	.006
Canadian product utility	H4		10.4664	1; 73	.002

Regarding H1, social cooperation, the conjoint analysis simulation was run for each of the two groups of the fit condition; high national identity and high personal identity. Of the respondents in the national fit condition 23 favored the \$300 Canadian bicycle, 16 favored the \$250 U.S. bicycle and there were three ties. Results were almost completely reversed in the personal fit condition: 14 preferred the \$300 Canadian bicycle, 24 preferred the \$250 U.S. bicycle and there were 2 ties. The simulation shows that substantially more respondents in the national fit condition were willing to pay more for a Canadian bicycle. A chi-square test was run to assess whether the difference between the

groups was statistically significant. The number of people showing social cooperation did not achieve a level of statistical significance ($p < .13$).

Discussion

The use of student subjects merits some attention. The subjects for this study were eighty undergraduate students at the University of Manitoba. While student subjects have often been criticized as not being representative of the general population, there are good reasons for believing that they are appropriate for this study. In a meta-analysis of COO studies, Liefeld (1993) found that there was no statistically significant difference in the estimates of COO effect size between students and the general population. The main purpose of this dissertation is to illustrate the usefulness of self-categorization theory in explaining the COO effect. For theory testing, homogeneous subjects are preferred (Calder, Phillips and Tybout 1981). Homogeneous subjects, such as students, minimize extraneous variation, reducing error variance.

Indeed, a student sample may actually represent minimal conditions for depersonalization to occur. The national category competes with other categories such as ethnic identity, gender, friends, etc. and there is the possibility that another category may prevail (Brewer and Schneider 1990). Sharma, Shimp and Shin (1995) found age to be positively associated with national ethnocentrism and Lantz (1997) found age to be associated with higher levels of the community identity using the self-categorization approach. In other words, with a student sample the national category may not be as accessible as other categories. This represents a strength in using a student sample. Since

conditions for finding a national effect are minimized with a student sample, when an effect is manifested this contributes to the validity of the theoretical structure and suggests that the effect should be even greater among the general population.

Another criticism of student samples is that they may be more alert to the purpose of the study and this may bias their response. Steps taken to minimize the possibility of this bias include conducting the survey in stages separated by three weeks, the use of multi-cue product assessments to take the emphasis away from country and the inclusion of some product assessments and attitudinal questions unrelated to the COO effect.

Regarding the hypotheses, support was found for all but H1; the effect of the manipulation on social co-operation. The social co-operation construct must be recognized as exploratory and in need of further development. Indeed, Turner (1997) acknowledges that attention to social co-operation is lacking. A better measure of social co-operation may be needed. Nevertheless, given the small sample size, the results were encouraging.

Consumer ethnocentric tendencies can be characterized as an attitudinal measure. As such, it is notable that attitudes are generally believed to be relatively enduring and consistent. The support for H2 shows that attitudes are actually quite fluid and can vary substantially when subject to varying environmental stimuli.

In their original work, Shimp and Sharma (1987) found consumer ethnocentrism to be higher in areas of the United States where employment had been adversely affected by imported products. They surmised that higher ethnocentrism was likely due to these adverse effects; Detroit for automobiles and North Carolina for textiles. In SCT terms it

could be said that they suggested that there was a naturally occurring fit condition which served to create a greater metacontrast in those places than was present in other parts of the country. The present study created experimentally, conditions Shimp and Sharma found in a natural setting. The support for H2 suggests that there is a sound basis for Shimp and Sharma's belief that the economic conditions influenced the level of consumer ethnocentric tendencies.

The result of H3, regarding bicycle quality, suggests important self-categorization implications. The primary proposition of SCT is that people wish to be positively distinguished from others and that people wish for their groups to be positively distinguished from other groups. Perceiving domestic product quality to be higher than others is one means of being positively distinguished. Perceived product quality of a country is a specific level of stereotype. This rather specific stereotype was expressed to a greater degree among those subjects with the high national identity manipulation than among those with the low national identity manipulation. More general stereotypes could have been tested, as well; such as perceived general product quality and general country traits. The effect of those other stereotypes merit further study.

While the differences of both U.S. and Mexican product quality variables were significant, the magnitude of the difference of the Mexican bicycle was greater. With less familiarity with Mexican products, it is possible that respondents in the national fit condition may have found it easier to use product quality as a means of distinguishing the Canadian in-group from others. Offering this explanation does not eliminate other possible explanations. Further investigation of this result will have to be reserved for

future study. It is sufficient at this point to note that respondents in the high national identity condition saw Canadian bicycles as being more superior to both Mexican and U.S. bicycles than respondents in the personal identity condition.

Finally, the support shown for H4, shows that the favourability of the domestic product is directly related to the difference in salience of the national social category. This suggests the direct applicability of SCT to applied marketing settings and strategies.

Conclusion

Study One has demonstrated the importance of situational variables, or 'fit' in self-categorization parlance, in influencing the outcome of country of origin studies. A relatively simple manipulation caused the national identity of one randomly assigned group to become substantially more salient, leading to elevated responses of consumer ethnocentrism, social cooperation, perceived product quality and purchase preference. Although self-categorization theory has never before been applied in a marketing context in an experimental setting, the results are completely consistent with self-categorization theory propositions. Past COO effect research has found such characteristics as product familiarity, stereotyping, product complexity and ethnocentric tendencies to be influential contributors to the COO effect. Now, the role of the salience of the national identity must also be considered.

Having determined that the variability of national identity affects COO outcomes, further insight can be gained by considering the role of national identity in the COO effect without manipulating the level of national identity. This is the subject of Study Two.

Chapter Five

Study Two: COO Effect Modelled with Self-Categorization Theory

Introduction

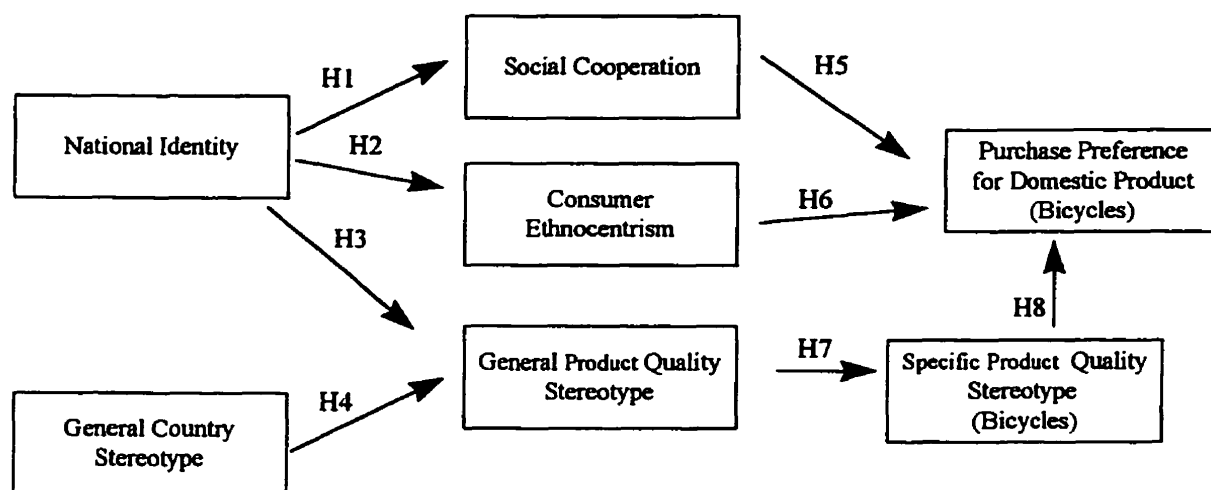
This chapter will examine an overall model of the country of origin effect. Explication of the model will illustrate the integration of self-categorization theory with the country of origin effect. As the model is being outlined the specification of hypotheses for testing the model will also be presented.

While Study One showed that an experimental manipulation can influence the strength of national identity and other variables, it did not examine the interrelationships between the variables such as national identity, social co-operation, consumer ethnocentrism, product quality and purchase preference. Further, Study Two explores the relationships between three levels of specificity of country stereotypes: general country image, perceptions of general product quality, and perceptions of quality of specific products. The relationship of these stereotypes to purchase preference is also explored. Finally, social co-operation is a concept under development, so a different approach to measuring social co-operation was taken in Study Two than in Study One. In Study Two social co-operation is measured as an attitude rather than as a willingness-to-pay as was done in Study One.

Study Two was not an extension of Study One, rather, it explored issues related to the country of origin effect and self-categorization theory. Study Two was administered with

measures nearly identical to Study One and analysed to examine the relationships among variables. The model tested is illustrated in Figure 5. Constructs were defined and their roles in the model discussed in Chapter Three so they will only be briefly restated here.

Figure 5
Model of Country of Origin Effect



The Conceptual Model and Hypotheses

National identity indicates the baseline level of an individual's identification with the national social category, or degree of depersonalization, barring unusual current events. Individuals with a given degree of depersonalization should have outcomes consistent with that degree of depersonalization. Two direct, relevant outcomes suggested by self-categorization researchers are social co-operation and ethnocentrism (Turner et al. 1987). In the present study ethnocentrism is operationalized as the well established and more narrowly defined consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Social co-operation, in the context of self-categorization, has not received academic scrutiny previously and there are no existing

indexes to measure it. Therefore, it must be regarded as a construct under development.

Social co-operation in this study is measured as an attitude and will be discussed more later. In addition to social co-operation and ethnocentrism, self-categorization theory suggests that the strength of the national identity may also have an impact on the perception of product quality, manifested by showing favouritism towards the domestic products in an assessment of quality. The final outcome of interest is the purchase preference for the domestic product. Purchase preference for the domestic product is expected to be influenced by social co-operation, consumer ethnocentrism and perceived product quality, moderated by product familiarity. In accord with established country of origin effect research, stereotypes are also expected to play an important role, directly affecting perceived product quality and also directly affecting purchase preference. In the next section, the model will be proposed beginning with national identity.

Self-Categorization Connections

The first several hypotheses relate to the role of self-categorization theory. The basic proposition of self-categorization theory is that a heightened social identity will tend to lead people to make positive evaluations resulting in increased group cohesion and self esteem and that there are motivational pressures to maintain this state of affairs (Turner et al. 1987). The relevant outcomes of heightened national identity are proposed to be increased social co-operation, ethnocentrism and a higher assessment of domestic product quality. Social co-operation is defined as the willingness of an individual to sacrifice (such as by paying more) solely for the purpose of supporting the group, in the present case, nation. It is problematic to

measure social co-operation as a willingness-to-pay when it involves a comparison of products from another country where quality is felt to be poorer than in the home country. If the perceived quality of the product being examined is not approximately equal, people may express their preference based partly on quality and partly on social co-operation. The portion of preference attributable to social co-operation may be undifferentiable from that attributable to quality. For this reason, social co-operation was constructed in Study Two to be an attitude about the appropriateness of showing social co-operation rather than as a willingness-to-pay.

Self-categorization theory proposes that the more depersonalized an individual is, the more the social category is integrated with that person's identity (Turner et al. 1987). For instance, when a person identifies closely with a social category, such as the nation, paying more to support the social category is little different than acting in self-interest. Therefore, the expected outcome for people who are higher in national identity is that they are more willing to show social co-operation.

H1: There is a positive relationship between national identity and social co-operation.

Increased ethnocentrism is also proposed to be an outcome of depersonalization. Consumer ethnocentrism is the expression of ethnocentrism in a consumer setting. It expresses a normative judgement about the correctness of economically supporting the nation through consumer activity (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Similar to social co-operation, the greater the level of depersonalization, manifested by high national identity, the greater should be the degree of ethnocentrism.

H2: There is a positive relationship between national identity and consumer ethnocentrism.

A principle of self-categorization theory is that people wish to see themselves and their groups in a positive light in comparison with other social groups (Turner et al. 1987). Also, people hold stereotypes of other groups as well as their own group based upon their perception of a prototype or 'typical' member of those groups (Haslam et al. 1995). These stereotypes, combined with the desire to be positively distinguished may then be used to make a biased judgement about product quality. Consequently, there is hypothesized to be a path between national identity and product quality assessment.

H3: There is a positive relationship between national identity and the evaluation of perceived product quality for domestic products in relation to perceived product quality of other countries.

Country Product Quality Stereotype

An interesting issue involves how stereotypes are invoked to make a judgement about the quality of products from countries. Much COO effect research stands for the proposition that the stereotype consumers hold of countries is a factor in assessing the quality of a product (Samiee 1994; Bilkey and Nes 1982). However, general country stereotypes, country stereotypes of general product quality and perceived product quality regarding specific products are quite different and may have different effects (Parameswaran and Pisharodi 1994). Han (1989) discusses how different levels of stereotype may be related. A more general

stereotype may function as a halo for understanding objects at a more specific level. For instance, a high reputation for German engineering will enhance the reputation of all German products where engineering is perceived to be involved (Papadopolous 1993). So a halo effect involves moving from a general reputation, or stereotype, to a specific judgement about a specific product. This is illustrated in the model by a relationship between general country traits (stereotypes) and country stereotypes of general product quality, and country stereotypes of general product quality to perceived product quality of specific products.

Accepting the proposition that stereotypes are used as a substitute for product quality information, it would be expected that a general product quality stereotype would contribute to the perceived quality of a specific product. This general quality stereotype, combined with the level of national identity expressed in H3 are available for use in specific instances when a consumer has to make a decision regarding product quality (although a product quality decision may be moderated by other information prior to making a choice). Recognizing exceptions to the home country bias noted in Chapter One, the association between country stereotype of general product quality and perceived product quality of specific products is not always valenced in favour of the domestic country (Wall, Liefeld and Heslop 1991). While self-categorization theory proposes that people wish to see their own group in a positive light this does not imply that the domestic product is always seen as superior (Turner et al. 1987). Foreign countries may well have better reputations for certain products or classes of products than the home country (Nagashima 1970). Recognizing this, it is hypothesized that country stereotypes of general product quality contribute to the quality evaluation of specific products.

- H4: There is a positive relationship between general country stereotypes and general product quality stereotypes.
- H5: There is a positive relationship between country stereotypes of general product quality and assessments of perceived product quality of specific products.

Purchase Preference

Three constructs related to country of origin which should be influential in forming a purchase preference are social co-operation, consumer ethnocentrism and perceived product quality. While many researchers believe that a self-interested consumer will choose the product with the highest quality at the lowest price, self-categorization theory stands for the proposition that social co-operation and ethnocentrism exert an influence on the purchase choice, as well. In other words, even when there is no reason associated with the product itself to choose a domestic product some people will do so, solely to support the nation.

- H6: Social co-operation is positively related to purchase preference for domestic products.

Consumer ethnocentrism has been shown to be negatively related to "willingness to import" (Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995). Similarly, consumer ethnocentrism is hypothesized to be positively related to purchase preference for the domestic product.

- H7: Consumer ethnocentrism is positively related to purchase preference for domestic products.

The path from perceived product quality assessment to purchase preference remains to be proposed. The standard proposition of many COO effect studies is that a country stereotype affects perceived product quality which affects purchase preference (Bilkey and Nes 1982). This proposition is made in the present study, as well, although, the focus is specifically on the preference for domestic products.

H8: There is a positive relationship between perceived product quality of specific products and purchase preference for domestic products.

The Moderating Role of Product Familiarity

Product familiarity, or knowledge, has been shown to have a significant impact on the use of the country stereotype (Maheswaran 1994; Han 1989). Product knowledge should moderate the effect of the product quality stereotype in regard to purchase preference. Knowledge of the value and importance of specific product attributes (intrinsic product cues) should affect the importance of country stereotypes making stereotypes less important when product knowledge is high and more important when product knowledge is low.

Research has also shown that for complex products, respondents who are high in knowledge may use country as a summary construct to impute quality while respondents who are low in knowledge may use country as a halo (Han 1989). This implies that the least use of country information may be found among moderately knowledgeable people. But Han (1989) included brand information which likely contributed to creating the summary construct for those high on knowledge. In the present study, respondents had a choice of product attributes with specific quality levels, but no brand information. Since there are specific quality-related

features in the product evaluation, experts are not expected to use country as a summary construct, but to state a preference for objective quality attributes and give less importance to country. Maheswaran (1994) demonstrated a similar point using bogus brand names which had no added value.

A pure moderator enters into interaction with predictor variables, while having a negligible correlation with the criterion itself (Sharma, Durand and Gur-Arie 1981). Product knowledge is likely a pure moderator because it is expected to influence the dependent variable (purchase preference, in this case) only in conjunction with the independent variable (product quality). Recall that purchase preference is defined as the portion of preference in a conjoint analysis attributable to the country. The purchase preference variable was formed by respondents allocating the importance of several product attributes and attribute levels by their rating various combinations of these product attributes. Respondents possessing greater product knowledge are expected to allocate more relative importance to product cues other than country because these product cues make quality distinctions only knowledgeable people would recognize.

Product familiarity relates to the impact of prior experience and product knowledge. When an individual has knowledge of specific product attributes and knows the importance of differing levels of quality of these product attributes, that individual is expected to use knowledge and not use country stereotype in arriving at a determination of purchase preference. Conversely, when an individual has no prior experience with the product and does not recognize quality product attributes when they are presented, that individual is more likely to use a perception of purchase preference built upon country stereotypes (Maheswaran 1994).

Product familiarity is predicted to act as a moderator between perceived specific product quality stereotype and domestic purchase preference. An expert not only has more knowledge but also more interest (high involvement), so that person may be more likely to make a judgement based on the product's merits and less for perceived product quality stereotypes.

- H9: Product knowledge moderates the relationship between the specific product quality stereotype, social co-operation and consumer ethnocentrism and the preference for the domestic product.

Method

Sample

One hundred seventy-five Canadian university students taking introduction to psychology served as the survey respondents. They received course credit and three dollars for their participation. Of the original sample, nineteen were removed due to their being non-Canadian. Two others were removed when an examination of the conjoint analysis indicated that these respondents clearly did not understand the task. The final sample was comprised of one hundred fifty-four respondents.

Measures

National identity, consumer ethnocentrism, general country stereotype, general product quality country stereotype, specific product quality stereotype, product familiarity and purchase

preference were the same as in Study One. The only variable which was not the same was social co-operation.

Social Co-operation. Social co-operation was defined as the willingness to sacrifice personally for the benefit of the group. Although social co-operation has been identified as being a likely outcome when a person is high in national identity (Turner 1987) this has not been the subject of academic scrutiny (Turner 1997). Consequently, the means of measuring social co-operation is presently an issue of exploration. Two ways it can be operationalized are as an attitudinal construct or as the willingness to make a specific sacrifice such as paying a higher price. In Study One, social co-operation was operationalized as a willingness-to-pay a higher price for a domestic bicycle rather than a foreign-made bicycle. This characterization of social co-operation may have two drawbacks. First, it may interact with product quality measures. If product quality of another country is perceived as being poor, a subject may wish to pay more for the domestic product, not to support the group (nation), but simply to assure adequate quality. Second, it may be too far removed from national identity for the relationship to be clearly illustrated. For instance, quantifying social co-operation with specific amounts of money for a specific product may also introduce variables such as risk, ability-to-pay or other unidentified value judgements. So, to further explore the means of measuring social co-operation, a five item index was used in Study Two.

Product. As in Study One, the product tested was a bicycle. This was believed to be a good product due to the clear differences in quality of the product features among people with

sufficient knowledge to recognize them. Bicycles are also appropriate because of the likelihood that some student respondents would have enough familiarity with bicycles to qualify as relative experts and others qualify as novices. Product features, countries and prices are the same as in Study One.

The survey was administered in a single session. Respondents were first assessed for bicycle knowledge by answering a fourteen item quiz. Then, the bicycle conjoint analysis was administered. The conjoint analysis was comprised of sixteen combinations of product features plus four holdouts. Holdouts are used to test for the reliability of the utilities. Respondents rated each combination of product features on a 0-10 scale with 0 being “very unlikely to buy” and 10 being “very likely to buy”. Following the conjoint analysis, respondents completed the remainder of the survey.

Measure Validation

Variables will first be examined for general properties using reliability analysis and exploratory factor analysis. The hypotheses will be tested using regression analysis. The initial exploratory factor analysis showed multi-item constructs separating as expected except for some social co-operation items falling within the consumer ethnocentrism factor and two consumer ethnocentrism items forming an additional factor. A varimax rotation resulted in all constructs loading on separate factors. However, the two consumer ethnocentrism items continued to form their own factor. An examination of Cronbach's alpha for consumer ethnocentrism showed that these items could be deleted with the alpha staying above .91. As these two items did not appear to contribute to the construct, they were deleted.

Cronbach's alpha for all multi-item constructs was acceptable. They range from .8559 for social co-operation to .9269 for the perception of Canadian bicycle quality. Alphas for all multi-item constructs are reported in Table 7. Each construct will be briefly profiled next.

Table 7
Summary of multi-item constructs

Variable Name	Mean	Std. Dev.	Alpha	Correl						
"Canadian Made"	1.0863	1.0123	single item	1.0						
National Identity	34.432	8.660	.8984	.1955 (.015)	1.0					
Social Co-operation	23.428	5.466	.8544	.1680 (.039)	.4915 (.000)	1.0				
Consumer Ethnocentrism	34.183	12.516	.9234	.2510 (.002)	.2338 (.004)	.4568 (.000)	1.0			
General Country Traits	3.662	2.267	single item	.1306 (.108)	.2617 (.001)	.0002 (.998)	.1356 (.096)	1.0		
General Product Quality Stereotype	15.8.6	3.054	.8803	.0513 (.527)	.3899 (.000)	.3116 (.000)	.1645 (.042)	.2040 (.011)	1.0	
Specific Product Quality Stereotype (Bicycle)	28.742	3.685	.9266	.2204 (.006)	.2253 (.005)	.2217 (.006)	.1065 (.190)	.1869 (.020)	.4571 (.000)	1.0

Country Traits. 'Country traits' was a single item measure obtained using the Katz and Braly (1933) adjective checklist. From a list of eighty-two traits, seven traits were chosen by respondents which they believed represented citizens of Canada, the United States and Mexico. As in Study One, the selected traits were characterized as positive (+1), negative (-1) or ambiguous (0) and summed for an overall positive or negative impression. Overall averages were 3.662 for Canadians, .75 for Mexicans and -3 for Americans. While all three general country trait variables may be interesting for other purposes, only the traits Canadians hold of themselves had a formally hypothesized role in the model. Only the view Canadians hold of themselves was used because the focus of this study is on self-categorization rather than Canadians' attitudes towards others.

General Product Quality Stereotype. General product quality stereotype was measured using a three item index. Cronbach's alpha for the three items was .8803 and they were unidimensional under exploratory factor analysis. Summing the three items which were taken on a one to seven scale showed an average of 15.806 for Canada, 16.161 for the United States and 8.968 for Mexico. The measures of general product quality showed that respondents made an indistinguishable differentiation in perception of quality between Canadian and U.S. products ($t=1.6$, $\text{sig}=.112$, df , 154). Mexican products were perceived as being significantly lower in quality than Canadian products ($t=17.0$, $\text{sig}=.000$, df 1; 154). As with the general country traits, the general product quality stereotype was measured for Canada, the United States and Mexico, but only the measure of Canadian product quality was hypothesized in the model. The product quality stereotype could have been conceptualized as a difference variable, constructed by subtracting the perceived product quality of Mexico (or the United States) from perceived product quality of Canada. However, the use of difference variables has been criticised (Paul, Churchill and Brown 1993). When the difference is between two countries, the difference variable is inherently tied to those two countries and thus the results would be meaningless in reference to and other country. Therefore, it was decided that a direct measure of perceived Canadian product quality was most appropriate.

Specific Product Quality Stereotype. On the five question, seven point index measuring bicycle product quality for each country, the U.S. and Canadian mean score was 28 and the Mexican mean score was 19. As in Study One, the perceived product quality of bicycles was

statistically equal between the U.S. and Canada. Mexican bicycles were perceived as being significantly lower in quality than Canadian or U.S. bicycles.

Product Knowledge. To ascertain respondents' level of product knowledge a fourteen question quiz was completed at the outset of the survey taking session. An examination of the scores shows that respondents were unknowledgeable about bicycles. It must be remembered that there was always a "don't know" option on the multiple choice quiz and respondents had been instructed to not guess if they did not know an answer. This was intended to reduce higher scores due to guessing. The mean score was between two and three correct. A split-half division into experts and novices resulted in the likelihood of some respondents being classified as experts who were, in fact, near novices. This may have implications in terms of testing product knowledge as a moderator variable.

Purchase Preference. Purchase preference was determined by the use of conjoint analysis. The utility for "Canadian made" served as the measure of domestic purchase preference. Overall results are reported in Table 8.

Table 8
Conjoint Analysis Results for Study Two

Factors Levels	Overall importance (Utility)
Country	39.00%
Mexico	-1.4295
Canada	1.1715
United States	.2580
Price	21.54%
\$250	-.5490
\$300	-.0979
\$350	-1.6469
Frame Material	9.96%
Chromoly	-.0417
Aluminum	.0417
Wheels	9.72%
Steel	-.0809
Aluminum	.0809
Shifter	10.57%
Bar-end	.0152
Thumb	-.0152
Chainring	9.22%
Triple	.2042
Double	-.2043
Pearson's: .996	Sig. = .000

Results

In a model such as the one proposed, each arrow comprises an hypothesis which must be tested. Regressions were run for each hypothesis. Where two or more arrows lead to one dependent variable, the independent variables were entered together. Hypotheses results are summarised in Table 9.

Table 9
Summary of Hypotheses Results

Hypotheses	Path From	To	Beta	T-Value	Sig.	R²
H1	National Identity	Social Co-operation	.4915	6.912	.000	.2416
H2	National Identity	Consumer Ethnocentrism	.2337	2.954	.004	.0546
H3	National Identity	General Product Quality Stereotype	.3587	4.646	.000	.161
H4	General Country Stereotypes		.1101	1.426	.156	
H5	General Product Quality Stereotype	Specific Product Quality Stereotype	.4571	6.357	.000	.2089
H6	Social Co-operation	Purchase Preference	.0226	.251	.802	.1099
H7	Consumer Ethnocentrism		.2201	2.497	.014	
H8	Specific Product Quality Stereotype		.2101	2.616	.010	

The first three hypotheses relate directly to the role of national identity. H1, the relationship between national identity and social co-operation was supported quite strongly. $T=6.912$, $\text{sig.}=.0000$, $\text{beta} .49149$, and R^2 of .2416. H2, the relationship between national identity and consumer ethnocentrism was significant, $T=2.954$, $\text{sig.}=.0036$, $\text{beta} .2337$, and R^2 of .0546. While significant, a stronger relationship was expected. The weak showing of this relationship is likely due to the fact that consumer ethnocentrism is very narrowly described with normative statements involving purchasing behaviour rather than as a general measure of ethnocentrism. It may be that this construct of consumer ethnocentrism is simply too distant from national identity for the relationship to hold more strongly.

H3 and H4 involve the associations between national identity and general country traits to perceived general Canadian product quality. The regression strongly supported H3 but not H4. Significantly more influence comes from national identity than from country traits.

Next, H5 is the relationship between general product quality to bicycle quality. This hypothesis was supported, $T=6.357$, $\text{sig}=.0000$, $\text{beta} .4571$, and $R \text{ square} .2089$.

Finally, H6, H7 and H8, the relationships between social co-operation, consumer ethnocentrism and perceived Canadian bicycle quality to purchase preference for the domestic product were tested. A regression with social co-operation, consumer ethnocentrism and Canadian bicycle product quality stereotype was performed with Canadian purchase preference as the dependent variable. Social co-operation was not related to purchase preference, while consumer ethnocentrism and Canadian bicycle product quality were statistically significant.

While H7 and H8 were supported, the variance accounted for was modest. The characterisation of the purchase preference variable may have caused some difficulty. Purchase preference was operationalized with the use of a conjoint analysis comprised of six product factors including country of origin and price. The multi-attribute product was selected to answer past critics of COO effect studies which used single cues to test for the COO effect (Bilkey and Nes 1982). However, the task may have been too demanding on the survey respondents. Since many respondents had little familiarity with bicycles it appears that while a strong preference for the domestic product dominated the conjoint analysis results, the relationship of other model variables to purchase preference was not as strong as had been anticipated.

The Moderating Effect of Product Knowledge

Respondents were divided into two nearly equally sized high and low groups based upon their level of product knowledge as described above. H9 proposes that product knowledge will moderate the level of product quality on purchase preference. Regressions run with the groups divided into two groups with purchase preference as the dependent variable and the interaction term for product quality and consumer ethnocentrism supported this hypothesis.

Respondents in the low knowledge group showed a strong relationship between purchase preference for the domestic bicycle and the interaction representing Canadian bicycle quality and consumer ethnocentrism, $T=3.301$, sig. $<.0014$, df 1; 81. Respondents in the high knowledge group showed a highly insignificant relationship between purchase preference for the domestic bicycle and the interaction, $T=.0495$, sig. $<.8246$, df 1; 67. Therefore, H9 was supported.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the interrelationship between the variables relevant to the home country bias part of the country of origin effect. Most results were as expected, with a few surprises. National identity was shown to contribute to

Social co-operation is acknowledged to be a concept in need of continued development and this study extends this development. While social co-operation did not directly effect purchase preference it was highly correlated with both national identity and consumer ethnocentrism while the relationship between national identity and consumer ethnocentrism,

while significant, was relatively weaker. A reformulated model might show social co-operation mediating between national identity and consumer ethnocentrism.

The greatest limitation regarding those study concerns the nature of the product examined: bicycles. The product is relevant, not only for respondents to express purchase preference, but also to examine the proposed moderating effect of product familiarity. It turned out the respondents were not very knowledgeable about bicycles. Ideally, there would be a large dispersion of knowledge about bicycles, specifically about the importance of various bicycle components. The great majority of the respondents, however, should properly be regarded as novices, with very few legitimate experts. Consequently, despite the support shown for H9, a greater number of true experts would have been more revealing about the role of product familiarity.

Regarding the use of bicycles to examine purchase preference, familiarity again was somewhat problematic. There were a total of six product attributes for respondents to weigh. While there were good reasons to use six product attributes this may also have complicated the task for respondents.

Future studies should probably use a purchase preference variable which is simpler and easier for the respondents to grasp. Despite problems with the purchase preference variable, the essential structure of the model proposed to explain the COO effect was supported.

Conclusion

The purpose of Study Two was to test the relationships between variables relevant to a model of the country of origin effect specifically including the contribution of self-

categorization, namely national identity social co-operation and ethnocentrism. Each constructs was assessed for reliability and validity and found to have acceptable psychometric properties. Regression analysis supported all of the hypotheses associated with the role of self-categorization, although H2, the path between national identity and consumer ethnocentrism, was weaker than expected.

Additionally, the moderating role of product familiarity was examined. Due to the lack of familiarity with the product by many respondents the results were somewhat equivocal. Nevertheless, support was found for the proposition that product familiarity acts as an important moderator in forming a purchase preference.

Chapter Six

Conclusion

Introduction

The country of origin effect has been the subject of a substantial amount of research over the past thirty years. During much of this time, theoretical development has been lacking. The purpose of this dissertation was two fold: 1) to contribute some depth to the existing body of knowledge in the area and, 2) to illustrate the applicability of a theory of social psychology, self-categorization theory, to substantiate a relatively unexplored part of the country of origin effect, the home country bias. The home country bias is the preference people feel for a product due to its having been produced domestically. People may support domestic products because they believe these products offer superior quality or simply as an expression of support for the nation. Self-categorization theory contributes to both of these reasons for supporting domestic products as it offers insights into stereotype development as well as reasons why people would make personal sacrifices to support the nation.

Self-categorization theory stands for the proposition that people wish to see themselves in a positive light and people also wish to see the social categories they identify with in a positive light. Accordingly, people will consciously or unconsciously pursue strategies to facilitate this desire for a positive distinctiveness. When the social category is the nation the need to be positively distinguished from others may motivate people to believe that products from their country are superior to products from other countries.

Another main proposition of self-categorization theory is that the self-concept is highly variable and that individuals will change their self-concept to accommodate different circumstances. When environmental stimuli occur, whether naturally or in an experimental setting, the salience of a social category can change. If the distance felt between other groups, combined with the cohesion felt within the group, is sufficiently strong, the individual's self-concept will change from being more personal to being more social. This change of self-concept is the process of depersonalization and is typified by the individual moving from defining the self as "I" to "we". This change can be accompanied by substantial changes in attitudes, judgments and preferences within the individual. Whereas under circumstances where a person is feeling as an individual that person may act only to further personal goals, under circumstances where a person feels that the personal identity has merged with a group, group goals are actually redefined as being personal goals. Thereby, self-interest and group-interest are merged and the individual is willing to make personal sacrifices to support the group. In a consumer purchase setting this is typified by a person's willingness to pay more for a domestic product even when product quality was determined to be equal in product features.

The empirical portion of this dissertation was comprised of two studies: Study One substantiated the role of self-categorization theory with the country of origin effect and showing that the self-concept is highly flexible, while Study Two included self-categorization components in a model of the country of origin effect. These studies and their contributions will be briefly reviewed.

Study One

In Study One, self-categorization theory was applied in a marketing context for the first time, using a social psychology approach. An experimental setting was staged to manipulate the salience of the national social category. Respondents were randomly assigned to two groups. One group was manipulated, by the use of a pretext and statements made to lead them to believe that they were above the mean in national identity; the manipulation made them feel their sense of being Canadian more than others. The other group was manipulated to make them believe that they were less susceptible to group influence than average. This was a manipulation to make them feel their personal identity more than others. Under this modest manipulation, subjects had significantly different levels of national identity as well as attitudes about product evaluations hypothesized to be related to national identity.

The main contribution of Study One is in revealing the variability of attitudes, judgments and preferences held by individuals relevant to their sense of identity and also to constructs relevant to the country of origin effect. It is often thought that attitudes are relatively enduring; that they do not change rapidly or by significant degrees. The simple manipulation demonstrated that this is an erroneous assumption. Self-identities and attitudes are quite variable and can be readily manipulated. Judgments in regard to assessment of product quality also changed due to the national identity manipulation. Finally, the ultimate dependent variable in a country of origin study, purchase preference, also changed due to the national identity manipulation. Study One was structured similarly to many studies conducted by self-categorization researchers, but it substantially exceeded them in scope by following the self-categorization effects all the way to purchase preference.

Study One supports the work done by researchers in the field of social psychology. Since the mid 1980's Turner and others (Turner et al. 1987; Haslam et al. 1995) have produced a growing body of work concerned specifically with self-categorization and others (Brewer 1991; Ethier and Deaux 1994; Hogg and Abrams 1988) have developed closely related work in social identity. Study One was constructed in the style of a typical social psychology study to form a bridge across disciplines; to illustrate the applicability of self-categorization theory to marketing contexts.

Study Two

Study Two sought to further bridge the gap between the disciplines of social psychology and marketing by illustrating how self-categorization theory can be integrated into the country of origin effect. A model of the country-of-origin effect was hypothesized which included self-categorization constructs. These constructs were proposed to be associated with constructs typically found in a country of origin study, namely product quality assessment and purchase preference. A regression analysis was used to examine a model which included effects for national identity, leading to consumer ethnocentrism, social cooperation and perceived product quality. This portion of the model was supported.

The relationship between three levels of stereotyping was also included in the model. The three levels of stereotyping were general country traits, general product quality stereotypes, and specific product (bicycle) quality stereotypes. These stereotypes were found to be related most strongly in a general-to-specific manner, supporting the hypotheses. Additionally, national identity was found to be related to these stereotypes.

While national identity itself did not significantly affect purchase preference for the domestic product, the relationship between national identity and purchase preference was found to be moderated by consumer ethnocentrism and perceived product quality, as hypothesized. Social cooperation was also hypothesized to affect purchase preference but this was not supported. This may be due, in part, to the developmental nature of the social co-operation construct. Social co-operation has received little attention and it may well deserve more. While consumer ethnocentrism and perceived product quality were found to affect purchase preference, the relationship was not as strong as expected. The interaction effect of consumer ethnocentrism and perceived product quality achieved statistical significance in its relationship to purchase preference. This result was not expected and it may be due, in part, to the complexity of the purchase preference variable.

When the analysis was repeated with respondents divided into two groups based on familiarity with the product, the results were more revealing.

Study Two was limited by the ongoing development of constructs of social cooperation as well as by difficulties in acquiring an uncomplicated measure of purchase preference. This may have contributed to results which were not as strong as they might have been. Nevertheless, the role of national identity in the respondents' attitudes was adequately illustrated.

Theoretical Implications

Self-Categorization Theory

The main theoretical contribution of this dissertation is in the applicability of self-categorization theory to a marketing setting to add depth to existing models. The proposition of a flexible self-concept has been supported. This is notable. The self-concept was shown to be context dependent. The variability in self-categorization is not arbitrary or random but can be found to be systematically related to the variations in social context. Self-categorization theory attempts to provide the framework whereby an individual undertakes to reconcile the self-concept with perceived changes in social reality. The essential point to be taken from the portion of the dissertation dealing with self-categorization theory is that the social part of the self-concept is inherently variable in order to represent peoples' changing relationships to others. The national identity was examined in this dissertation but there is no reason to believe that these findings are confined to the national identity. A wide range of social categories are very likely to be affected similarly.

The temporal and flexible nature of the self-concept expressed by self-categorization theory can hardly be understated. As Turner et al. have said:

self-categories are reflexive, flexible representations of the social contextual properties of the perceiver. Therefore the notion of self-concepts as stored, invariant structures and the associated model of category use as a process of activating an already existing representation (or some subset of such representations) are both being rejected. Instead of a cognitive-structural model of self-concept activation, we are proposing an analysis of how self-categories are generated from an interaction among psychological principles of categorization, perceiver readiness, background knowledge, and the social context of the perceiver (1994, p.459).

Linkages of the strength of identification with a social category to the formation of a purchase preference has also been supported. While only the national identity was examined, the foundation has been laid for the examination of the effects of many other social categories to which people may subscribe, including race, ethnicity, gender, etc.

The whole area of self-categorization originates with the means by which people categorize themselves and others. As such, self-categorization theory can contribute to the study of the process of categorization. This dissertation has also tied the work of social psychologists to the work of marketing researchers. No prior published research has been found to have employed self-categorization theory to extend the usual outcomes of depersonalization to a purchase intent. This represents an original contribution of this dissertation. Another contribution of this dissertation lies with the conceptualization in a marketing context of social cooperation in a theoretical framework.

Country of Origin Effect

In regard to the contribution of this dissertation to the existing body of knowledge regarding the country of origin effect, a small but important gap has been filled. The concept of consumer ethnocentrism was introduced by Shimp and Sharma in 1987, but since that time, it has not been placed into a satisfactory theoretical framework. Self-categorization theory offers such a framework.

In addition to explicating the role of the national identity in explaining consumer ethnocentrism, the self-categorization framework has also contributed by offering an explanation for the linkage between consumer ethnocentrism and product quality perception.

People who wish to distinguish themselves from others in a positive way, may choose perceptions of product quality to accomplish this goal. Study One demonstrates that when people have a salient national identity they will perceive a greater difference in product quality between the home country and others.

Managerial Implications

There are several practical implications from this dissertation related to the variability of the salience of the national identity. Study One was conducted in an experimental setting, but it illustrated what may easily occur in a natural setting. Events frequently occur which affect the salience of national identities such as international sports events, trade relations, items in news reports and even military actions. Advertisers often change advertising strategies based upon such events. This dissertation offers some guidance, showing that peoples' sense of social identities are flexible and it is appropriate to take this flexibility into account.

Another practical implication involves country image. "Country image" has often been defined as a countries' reputation for product quality (Liefeld 1993). This dissertation has shown that the overall country reputation is also important in contributing to peoples' perceptions in addition to perceived general product quality and perceived specific product quality. This offers strategic implications for countries which may be trying to improve their image. Instead of talking about product quality, they might promote general attributes of the country as well as the quality of specific products.

Finally, to cultivate support for domestic goods, a trade organization might adopt a strategy to strengthen the national identity. This strategy would be most effective during times

or events where comparisons with other countries are occurring. In other words, a strategy should keep in mind the metacontrast: build cohesiveness within the country while showing the differences in regard to other countries. Conversely, those promoting imported products should pursue strategies to decrease the feeling of national identity and increase the feeling of shared identity with people of other countries.

Limitations and Future Studies

Country of origin effect studies are usually only directly applicable to the countries and products actually tested. This is likely true in this case, as well. For instance, a pretest showed that Canadians have a higher opinion of Japanese goods than Canadian goods. However, space and time constraints prevented including a Japanese product in the surveys. It would have been interesting to examine Japanese products within the self-categorization context. This may be reserved for a future study.

Another limitation of this and other country of origin effect studies concerns the complexity of the products examined. Study One showed that the complexity of the product examined affects the magnitude of the country of origin effect. A product with multiple quality features (bicycle) showed greater country effect than a less complex product with few quality features to distinguish one from another (prepaid phone card). This result can be interpreted as illustrating the importance of product complexity or risk; the complex bicycle with many features may magnify the importance of imputing quality from country of origin, particularly in the face of uncertainty about what is good quality. Also, the risk of making a bad decision may be greater with an expensive bicycle than with an inexpensive phone card. Study One is limited

in that, while it shows that there is a difference in the magnitude of the country of origin effect between two products, it was not designed to explain it.

An additional limitation is that the samples used in both studies were students. As theory testing studies, student samples are acceptable (Calder, Philips and Tybout 1981). However, it is acknowledged that the effects are not generalizable to the entire population. It is likely that the effect size would be quite different and possibly much larger among the general population.

The final overall limitation concerns the development of constructs, specifically social cooperation. Prior work has dealt with helping behaviour (Olsen, Granzin and Biswas 1993) and charitable acts (Rothschild 1979) but the conceptualization of social cooperation and the means of measuring it in this dissertation are unique. The conceptualization used in this dissertation is far from definitive, nevertheless, social cooperation and the resolution of social dilemmas is a topic of interest in social marketing areas (Wiener and Doescher 1991) and this dissertation can offer assistance in this area.

While country of origin studies have quite a substantial history, little work has been done in the marketing discipline with self-categorization theory. Nevertheless, self-categorization theory appears to offer the prospect of continued development. The discussion of limitations has highlighted some subjects for future research. Other subjects of future research include working with a variety of other social categories to gain a more thorough understanding of how they are ordered within a person, how a social category becomes salient, how long the effect may last, understanding the characteristics of accessibility and the process of self-stereotyping. The way people place themselves in social categories is integral to their

self-concept and further exploration of self-categorization theory will increase our understanding of the self-concept.

Appendix 1
Exhibits of Study One Manipulations

Exhibit 1

The National fit group was exposed to the following:

- 1) "You completed a set of questions a few weeks ago. Analysis of data from that survey shows that you are considerably above the mean in terms of strength of national identity. You have a greater sense of your Canadian identity than others. So, we wanted to separate people to do some assessments based on that characteristic."
- 2) "We are administering the same survey in the U.S. and we are interested in how the buying behaviour of Canadians would differ from Americans who will be asked to do the same product assessments and attitudinal questions."
- 3) This survey was commissioned by a company which is considering sites for a manufacturing location. One of the products being evaluated is manufactured by this company. This survey is concerned with how consumers might respond to the threatened loss of employment opportunities, based upon the country where a product was manufactured, or where a service company is located.

The Personal Fit group was exposed to the following:

"You completed a set of questions a few weeks ago relating to susceptibility to group influence. Analysis of the results shows that you are above the mean in terms of individual identity. You value personal choice and don't feel a need to enhance your image to others. We wanted to separate people on that characteristic to do some assessments."

"Please make the following product assessments and answer some attitudinal questions."

Appendix 2

Study One Questionnaire

Instructions: Read through the following list of words and underline those which seem to you typical of people from the UNITED STATES.

After you have done this, go back over the words you have underlined and check, on the left space, the **SEVEN** words which seem most typical of people from the UNITED STATES.

Finally, return to these seven words and indicate in the right space, the percentage of the UNITED STATES population to whom you believe these words apply.

—	—	intelligent	—	—	argumentative
—	—	brilliant	—	—	straightforward
—	—	scientifically-minded	—	—	slovenly
—	—	witty	—	—	suspicious
—	—	sophisticated	—	—	reserved
—	—	alert	—	—	quiet
—	—	shrewd	—	—	stolid (unemotional)
—	—	sly	—	—	ponderous
—	—	meditative	—	—	stubborn
—	—	imaginative	—	—	impulsive
—	—	stupid	—	—	quick-tempered
—	—	ignorant	—	—	suggestible
—	—	superstitious	—	—	passionate
—	—	naive	—	—	sensual
—	—	industrious	—	—	pleasure-loving
—	—	lazy	—	—	jovial
—	—	honest	—	—	humourless
—	—	deceitful	—	—	sensitive
—	—	unreliable	—	—	methodical
—	—	evasive	—	—	neat
—	—	faithful	—	—	persistent
—	—	treacherous	—	—	imitative
—	—	cowardly	—	—	frivolous
—	—	cruel	—	—	gregarious
—	—	kind	—	—	practical
—	—	generous	—	—	progressive
—	—	grasping	—	—	conservative
—	—	mercenary	—	—	artistic
—	—	materialistic	—	—	sportsmanlike
—	—	revengful	—	—	tradition-loving
—	—	quarrelsome	—	—	efficient
—	—	gluttonous	—	—	very religious
—	—	pugnacious	—	—	extremely nationalistic
—	—	aggressive	—	—	loyal to family ties
—	—	conceited	—	—	arrogant
—	—	boastful	—	—	radical
—	—	ambitious	—	—	aggressive
—	—	ostentatious (showy)	—	—	friendly
—	—	individualistic			
—	—	talkative			
—	—	loud			
—	—	rude			
—	—	suave			
—	—	courteous			
—	—	conventional			

Instructions: Read through the following list of words and underline those which seem to you typical of people from MEXICO.

After you have done this, go back over the words you have underlined and check, on the left space, the **SEVEN** words which seem most typical of people from MEXICO.

Finally, return to these seven words and indicate in the right space, the percentage of the MEXICAN population to whom you believe these words apply.

—	—	intelligent	—	—	argumentative
—	—	brilliant	—	—	straightforward
—	—	scientifically-minded	—	—	slovenly
—	—	witty	—	—	suspicious
—	—	sophisticated	—	—	reserved
—	—	alert	—	—	quiet
—	—	shrewd	—	—	stolid (unemotional)
—	—	sly	—	—	ponderous
—	—	meditative	—	—	stubborn
—	—	imaginative	—	—	impulsive
—	—	stupid	—	—	quick-tempered
—	—	ignorant	—	—	suggestible
—	—	superstitious	—	—	passionate
—	—	naive	—	—	sensual
—	—	industrious	—	—	pleasure-loving
—	—	lazy	—	—	jovial
—	—	honest	—	—	humourless
—	—	deceitful	—	—	sensitive
—	—	unreliable	—	—	methodical
—	—	evasive	—	—	neat
—	—	faithful	—	—	persistent
—	—	treacherous	—	—	imitative
—	—	cowardly	—	—	frivolous
—	—	cruel	—	—	gregarious
—	—	kind	—	—	practical
—	—	generous	—	—	progressive
—	—	grasping	—	—	conservative
—	—	mercenary	—	—	artistic
—	—	materialistic	—	—	sportsmanlike
—	—	revengful	—	—	tradition-loving
—	—	quarrelsome	—	—	efficient
—	—	gluttonous	—	—	very religious
—	—	pugnacious	—	—	extremely nationalistic
—	—	aggressive	—	—	loyal to family ties
—	—	conceited	—	—	arrogant
—	—	boastful	—	—	radical
—	—	ambitious	—	—	aggressive
—	—	ostentatious (showy)	—	—	friendly
—	—	individualistic			
—	—	talkative			
—	—	loud			
—	—	rude			
—	—	suave			
—	—	courteous			
—	—	conventional			

The following questions are intended to ascertain your knowledge about bicycles. You are not expected to know everything, just answer the questions as best you can. If you simply do not know, circle "don't know".

1. What is a typical mountain bike wheel size?
 - a) 26"
 - b) 27"
 - c) 700cm
 - d) 725cm
 - e) don't know
2. A "head set" refers to:
 - a) the back hub
 - b) the front hub
 - c) the steering mechanism
 - d) the braking mechanism
 - e) there's no such thing.
3. Old touring bikes shifted gears using:
 - a) friction shifting
 - b) click shifting
 - c) straight shifting
 - d) lateral shifting
 - e) don't know
4. Name the Canadian brand:
 - a) Nishiki
 - b) Rawlings
 - c) Norco
 - d) Rider
 - e) don't know
5. What is the preferred lubricant for a bike?
 - a) WD40
 - b) lithium
 - c) 5W 30 motor oil
 - d) Goose Grease.
 - e) don't know
6. The bike part where the chain spins, in front, is called the:
 - a) spindle
 - b) chain ring
 - c) free wheel
 - d) front gear exchange.
 - e) don't know
7. The bike part where the chain spins, in back, is called the:
 - a) spindle
 - b) chain ring
 - c) rear gear exchange
 - d) free wheel
 - e) don't know
8. What is the average width of a racing bike tire:
 - a) 1"
 - b) 1 1/3"
 - c) 1 1/4"
 - d) none of these.
 - e) don't know
9. The brake on the right handle controls the front wheel.
 - a) True
 - b) False
 - c) no idea
10. On a newer mountain bike, how many gears are there in back:
 - a) five
 - b) six
 - c) seven
 - d) more
 - e) don't know
11. A common brand of bike component maker:
 - a) Sun Sport
 - b) Sun Tour
 - c) Sun Racer
 - d) Sun Shifter.
 - e) don't know
12. Which of the following makes bikes:
 - a) Suzuki
 - b) Giant
 - c) Shimano
 - d) Rollins
 - e) don't know
13. Which is the preferred bike frame material?
 - a) steel
 - b) carbon fiber
 - c) chromoly
 - d) aluminum
 - e) don't know
14. What rims work better in the rain?
 - a) steel
 - b) aluminum
 - c) don't know

Instructions: Read through the following list of words and underline those which seem to you typical of people from CANADA.

After you have done this, go back over the words you have underlined and check, on the left space, the **SEVEN** words which seem most typical of people from CANADA.

Finally, return to these seven words and indicate in the right space, the percentage of the CANADIAN population to whom you believe these words apply.

—	—	intelligent	—	—	courteous
—	—	brilliant	—	—	conventional
—	—	scientifically-minded	—	—	argumentative
—	—	witty	—	—	straightforward
—	—	sophisticated	—	—	slovenly
—	—	alert	—	—	suspicious
—	—	shrewd	—	—	reserved
—	—	sly	—	—	quiet
—	—	meditative	—	—	stolid (unemotional)
—	—	imaginative	—	—	ponderous
—	—	stupid	—	—	stubborn
—	—	ignorant	—	—	impulsive
—	—	superstitious	—	—	quick-tempered
—	—	naive	—	—	suggestible
—	—	industrious	—	—	passionate
—	—	lazy	—	—	sensual
—	—	honest	—	—	pleasure-loving
—	—	deceitful	—	—	jovial
—	—	unreliable	—	—	humourless
—	—	evasive	—	—	sensitive
—	—	faithful	—	—	methodical
—	—	treacherous	—	—	neat
—	—	cowardly	—	—	persistent
—	—	cruel	—	—	imitative
—	—	kind	—	—	frivolous
—	—	generous	—	—	gregarious
—	—	grasping	—	—	practical
—	—	mercenary	—	—	progressive
—	—	materialistic	—	—	conservative
—	—	revengful	—	—	artistic
—	—	quarrelsome	—	—	sportsmanlike
—	—	gluttonous	—	—	tradition-loving
—	—	pugnacious	—	—	efficient
—	—	aggressive	—	—	very religious
—	—	conceited	—	—	extremely nationalistic
—	—	boastful	—	—	loyal to family ties
—	—	ambitious	—	—	arrogant
—	—	ostentatious (showy)	—	—	radical
—	—	individualistic	—	—	friendly
—	—	talkative			
—	—	loud			
—	—	rude			
—	—	suave			

Complete the following set of items by reading the statement and circling the number which best represents your degree of agreement or disagreement with the statement.

	Disagreement	Agreement
1) Workers in Japan do not have good technical skills.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
2) Japanese products have great engineering.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
3) Products from Japan are of high quality.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
4) Products from Japan are technologically superior.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
5) Products made in Japan have a good reputation.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
1) Workers in Mexico do not have good technical skills.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
2) Mexican products have great engineering.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
3) Products from Mexico are of high quality.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
4) Products from Mexico are technologically superior.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
5) Products made in Mexico have a good reputation.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
1) Workers in Canada do not have good technical skills.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
2) Canadian products have great engineering.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
3) Products from Canada are of high quality.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
4) Products from Canada are technologically superior.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
5) Products made in Canada have a good reputation.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
1) Workers in the U.S. do not have good technical skills.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
2) American products have great engineering.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
3) Products from the United States are of high quality.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
4) Products from the U.S. are technologically superior.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
5) Products made in the United States have a good reputation.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7

Instructions: Read through the following list of words and underline those which seem to you typical of people from JAPAN.

After you have done this, go back over the words you have underlined and check, on the left space, the SEVEN words which seem most typical of people from JAPAN.

Finally, return to these seven words and indicate in the right space, the percentage of the JAPANESE population to whom you believe these words apply.

—	—	intelligent	—	—	courteous
—	—	brilliant	—	—	conventional
—	—	scientifically-minded	—	—	argumentative
—	—	witty	—	—	straightforward
—	—	sophisticated	—	—	slovenly
—	—	alert	—	—	suspicious
—	—	shrewd	—	—	reserved
—	—	sly	—	—	quiet
—	—	meditative	—	—	stolid (unemotional)
—	—	imaginative	—	—	ponderous
—	—	stupid	—	—	stubborn
—	—	ignorant	—	—	impulsive
—	—	superstitious	—	—	quick-tempered
—	—	naive	—	—	suggestible
—	—	industrious	—	—	passionate
—	—	lazy	—	—	sensual
—	—	honest	—	—	pleasure-loving
—	—	deceitful	—	—	jovial
—	—	unreliable	—	—	humourless
—	—	evasive	—	—	sensitive
—	—	faithful	—	—	methodical
—	—	treacherous	—	—	neat
—	—	cowardly	—	—	persistent
—	—	cruel	—	—	imitative
—	—	kind	—	—	frivolous
—	—	generous	—	—	gregarious
—	—	grasping	—	—	practical
—	—	mercenary	—	—	progressive
—	—	materialistic	—	—	conservative
—	—	revengful	—	—	artistic
—	—	quarrelsome	—	—	sportsmanlike
—	—	gluttonous	—	—	tradition-loving
—	—	pugnacious	—	—	efficient
—	—	aggressive	—	—	very religious
—	—	conceited	—	—	extremely nationalistic
—	—	boastful	—	—	loyal to family ties
—	—	ambitious	—	—	arrogant
—	—	ostentatious (showy)	—	—	radical
—	—	individualistic	—	—	friendly
—	—	talkative			
—	—	loud			
—	—	rude			
—	—	suave			

PRODUCT: Pre Paid Phone CARD

	VERY UNLIKELY TO PURCHASE								VERY LIKELY TO PURCHASE		
CARD 1:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 2:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 3:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 4:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 5:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 6:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 7:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 8:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 9:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 10:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 11:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 12:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

STOP. WAIT FOR FURTHER INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE PROCEEDING.

In regard to the pencils.

Assume that you are prepared to purchase a pack of standard yellow pencils. The standard yellow pencils cost \$3.79 for a pack of twenty-four.

Now, assume that you consider the EnviroStik. Indicate how much, more or less, you would be willing to pay to buy a twenty pencil pack of the EnviroStik by placing a check in the space next to the highest price you would be willing to pay.

- ___ \$4.06
- ___ \$4.02
- ___ \$3.98
- ___ \$3.94
- ___ \$3.90
- ___ \$3.87
- ___ \$3.83
- ___ \$3.79 (price of standard pencil)
- ___ \$3.75
- ___ \$3.71
- ___ \$3.68
- ___ \$3.64
- ___ \$3.60
- ___ \$3.57

PRODUCT: Bicycle

	VERY UNLIKELY TO PURCHASE							VERY LIKELY TO PURCHASE			
CARD 1:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 2:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 3:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 4:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 5:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 6:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 7:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 8:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 9:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 10:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 11:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 12:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 13:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 14:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 15:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 16:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 17:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 18:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 19:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CARD 20:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

The purpose of this study is to help gain greater understanding of the product selection process. You will be asked to perform several tasks. It is important that you **FOLLOW THE INSTRUCTIONS COMPLETELY**. Therefore, **PLEASE READ**, and **LISTEN TO INSTRUCTIONS CAREFULLY**.

When answering the questions below use the following scale. If you respond '1' it indicates you completely disagree with the statement. A response of '7' indicates complete agreement. Responses in between indicate levels of agreement/disagreement which are not extremes.

Complete Disagreement
1 2 3

4

5

6

Complete Agreement
7

	Disagreement			Agreement			
We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
We should purchase products manufactured in Canada instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Canadian.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is not right to purchase foreign products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A real Canadian should always buy Canadian-made products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Canadians should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Canadian business and causes unemployment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Canadian products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Only those products that are unavailable in Canada should be imported.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Canadian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting Canadians out of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Canadian products, first, last and foremost.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following items reflect your feelings about being a citizen of Canada. If you are not a citizen of Canada substitute the name of your country of citizenship. Use the following scale. If you respond '1' it indicates you completely disagree with the statement. A response of '7' indicates complete agreement. Responses in between indicate levels of agreement/disagreement which are not extremes.

	Disagreement			Agreement			
Overall, Canada is considered by others to be good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
People from other countries, on average, consider Canada to be more ineffective than other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In general, people from other countries respect Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In general, people from other countries think Canada is unworthy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Overall, my citizenship has very little to do with how I feel about myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My country is an important reflection of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My country is unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In general, being a citizen of Canada is an important part of my self-image.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel a great identification with Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
National pride is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I had the opportunity to live in the country of my choice, I would leave here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel a commitment to Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would refuse a job if it required moving to another country in the world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would rather live in Canada than in any other country in the world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am proud of the image Canada projects to the rest of the world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

STOP. DO NOT PROCEED UNTIL INSTRUCTED.

Return specifically to the prepaid phone card you evaluated earlier.

Assume that you are prepared to purchase the phone card from the vendor from the United States.

Now, assume that you could purchase an identical card from a Canadian vendor.

Indicate how much, more or less, you would be willing to pay to buy the same phone card from the Canadian vendor by placing a check in the space next to the highest price you would be willing to pay.

☐ \$8.65
☐ \$8.74
☐ \$8.83
☐ \$8.92
☐ \$9.00
☐ \$9.10
☐ \$9.19 (price of U.S. phone card)
☐ \$9.28
☐ \$9.37
☐ \$9.46
☐ \$9.56
☐ \$9.65
☐ \$9.75

Regarding the phone card from the U.S. vendor:

	Very Unlikely			Very Likely			
The likelihood that the phone card is reliable is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The likelihood that the card will work as advertised is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The likelihood that the vendor provides good service is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Regarding the phone card from the Canadian vendor:

	Very Unlikely			Very Likely			
The likelihood that the phone card is reliable is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The likelihood that the card will work as advertised is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The likelihood that the vendor provides good service is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Prior to this survey, have you had actual experience with a prepaid long distance phone card? (circle one) yes no

If you answered yes, are you familiar with any of the vendors named in the survey? (circle one) yes no

STOP. DO NOT PROCEED UNTIL INSTRUCTED.

Returning specifically to the bicycle you evaluated earlier:

Please circle the feature which indicates the greatest quality to you.

- 1) Chain ring: triple double both are equal
- 2) Frame: chromoly aluminum Both are equal
- 3) Wheels: aluminum steel Both are equal
- 4) Shifter: bar-end thumb-shift Both are equal

Now, circle the number which best corresponds to your feelings about the products named below.

Regarding the bicycle made in Canada:

The likelihood that the bike is reliable is:	very low	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very high
The workmanship of the bike is:	very poor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very high
The bike should be of:	very poor quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very high quality
The likelihood that the bike is dependable is:	very low	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very high
The bike would seem to be durable:	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

Regarding the bicycle made in Mexico:

The likelihood that the bike is reliable is:	very low	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very high
The workmanship of the bike is:	very poor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very high
The bike should be of:	very poor quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very high quality
The likelihood that the bike is dependable is:	very low	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very high
The bike would seem to be durable:	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

Regarding the bicycle made in the U.S.:

The likelihood that the bike is reliable is:	very low	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very high
The workmanship of the bike is:	very poor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very high
The bike should be of:	very poor quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very high quality
The likelihood that the bike is dependable is:	very low	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	very high
The bike would seem to be durable:	strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly agree

Assume that you are prepared to purchase a bicycle manufactured in Mexico.

The price is \$300.

Now, assume that you could purchase an identical bike manufactured in Canada.

Indicate how much, more or less, you would be willing to pay to buy the same bike made in Canada by placing a check in the space next to the highest price you would pay.

- ___ \$321
- ___ \$318
- ___ \$315
- ___ \$312
- ___ \$309
- ___ \$306
- ___ \$303
- ___ \$300 (price of Mexican bike)
- ___ \$297
- ___ \$294
- ___ \$291
- ___ \$288
- ___ \$285

Assume that you are prepared to purchase a bicycle manufactured in the United States.

The price is \$300.

Now, assume that you could purchase an identical bike manufactured in Canada.

Indicate how much, more or less, you would be willing to pay to buy the same bike made in Canada by placing a check in the space next to the highest price you would pay.

- ☐ \$321
- ☐ \$318
- ☐ \$315
- ☐ \$312
- ☐ \$309
- ☐ \$306
- ☐ \$303
- ☐ \$300 (price of United States bike)
- ☐ \$297
- ☐ \$294
- ☐ \$291
- ☐ \$288
- ☐ \$285

The following items are intended to reflect your feelings about the environment.

	Disagreement				Agreement		
I am not willing to search for environmentally-friendly products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am willing to purchase products that are of lower quality if they are better for the environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would be willing to protest on behalf of animal welfare.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel compelled to donate money to environmental groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would find it useful if a system was available for rating the environmental impact of products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I'm willing to car pool, walk, bike or take public transportation specifically to protect the environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would be willing to protest for an ecological issue such as clear-cutting forests.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I purchase products that are less harmful to the environment, even if they are more expensive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I shop in bulk food stores to avoid unnecessary packaging.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I attend protests, rallies, and demonstrations organized to protect the environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I avoid products that have excessive amounts of packaging.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I reuse the reverse side of unwanted photocopies, letters and notes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Finally, a few demographic questions:

Citizenship: (circle one) Canadian Other

Gender: (circle one) Female Male

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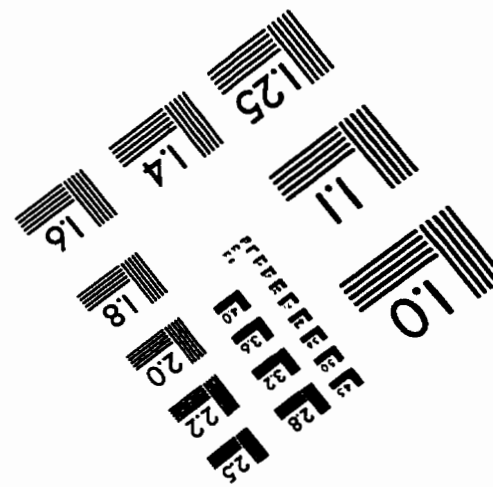
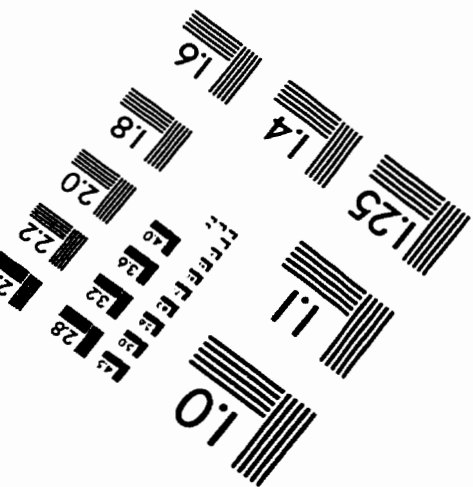
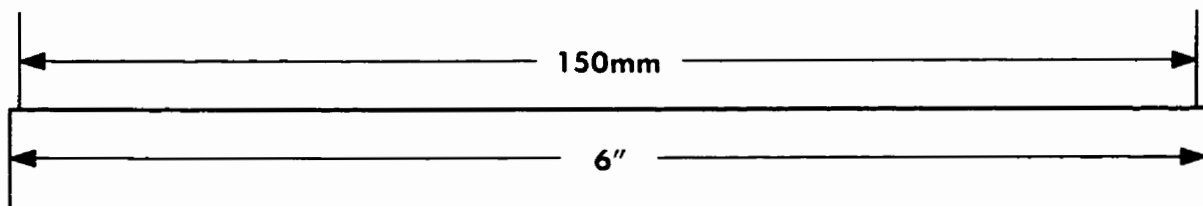
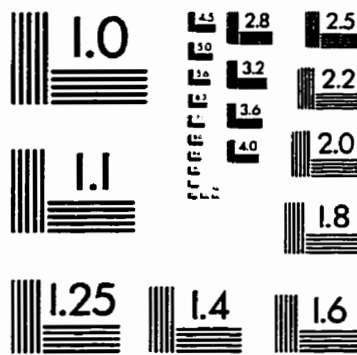
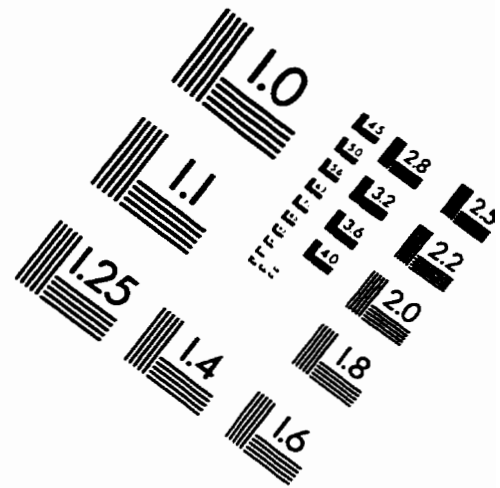
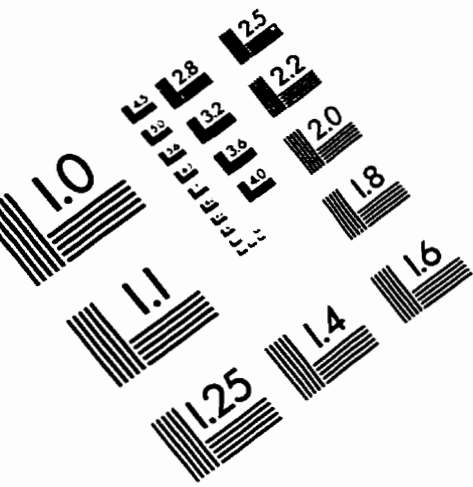
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IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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