

## "The impacts of country-of-origin and ethnocentrism on consumers' product evaluations"

An empirical research study between Sweden and Germany

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#### **Abstract:**

The purpose of this study is to develop communication strategies based on country-of-origin effects evoking different consumer perceptions. To what extent consumer ethnocentrism influences the evaluation of goods produced in one's home country, contrary to internationally manufactured products, illustrates another main purpose of this thesis. In order to investigate how Swedes in comparison to Germans rate products from Scandinavia and goods produced in the Germanic countries, one hundred respondents of each culture participate at a questionnaire study. Data is collected through a standardized questionnaire which is sent out via email. Combining a quantitative research method with qualitative short interviews allows this study to not only apply an empirical research methodology, but to also gain in-depth insights into culturally different consumer perceptions. Results suggest a strong impact of country-of-origin as well as varying degrees of ethnocentrism, ascribable to the socio-demographics of both cultural groups. The influence of cultural similarity on consumers' product evaluations as well as additionally interesting results are found. Based on the study results intercultural communication strategies are developed in relation to the investigated product categories.

**Keywords:** advertising communication strategies, country image, country-of-origin, consumer ethnocentrism, quality perception, price evaluation, product category, product country match, purchase intention

## 1. Introduction

#### 1.1 Problem statement of the thesis

Due to a steady progress, communication technologies nowadays have increased information diffusion and in line with that consumers' exposure to a wider variety of international products (Carter 2009). Since Ernst Dichter (1962, p.116) referred to the tremendous influence of the "little phrase 'Made in'...on the acceptance and success of products over and above specific advertising techniques...", country-of-origin and its effects on product evaluations have received great attention in international marketing and communication research (Bloemer et al. 2009, Bruning 1997, Chattalas, Kramer & Takada 2008, Dagger & Raciti 2011, Evanschitzky et al. 2008, Roth & Romeo 1992, Shimp & Sharma 1987, Verlegh & Steenkamp 1999 etc.). Before 1918 the vast majority of consumers purchased products without knowing where they came from. Only after Germany lost the First World War an obligatory 'Made in Germany' label was introduced on every exported product. This punishment was aimed at warning foreigners of the goods' origin. However, soon it became a symbol for quality (Morello 1984).

Country-of-origin generally refers to the manufacturing country of a product (Ha-Brookshire & Yoon 2012). Samiee (1994) defines the country-of-origin effect as a positive or negative influence of the country-of-manufacture on consumers' selection process and buying behavior. Country-of-origin perceptions are formed on a consumer's experience with the country and its products based on personal visits or one's own ethnocentric tendencies (Hamin & Elliott 2006, Samiee 1994). The term ethnocentrism describes the phenomenon for a preference of nationally produced goods over internationally manufactured products (Shimp & Sharma 1987, Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995). Ethnocentric consumers feel moral appropriateness and strong national pride to purchase domestic goods. In line, imports are viewed as potential threats for the home economy (Papadopoulos, Heslop & Bamossy 1991, Shimp & Sharma 1987).

Country-of-origin does not simply affect consumer perceptions, but rather influences product evaluations through different elements (Usunier & Lee 2009): First, the image a country possesses strongly determines the quality a consumer associates with a certain product (Han 1989). Second, in case a country's image meets the important dimensions which are associated with a product, a product country match occurs. The more favorably a match between country and product category is perceived, the better the overall consumer evaluation, e.g. French perfume or German cars (Roth & Romeo 1992, Usunier & Lee 2009). Third, the type of product category strongly influences the country-of-origin effect (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2004, Evanschitzky et al. 2007, Roth & Romeo 1992). Evanschitzky et al. (2008) find that Japanese electronic products receive a much greater quality evaluation than Japanese textiles, food products or furniture. Fourth, country-of-origin effects vary across consuming countries. Heslop and Papadopolous (1991) prove in their study that consumers from eight different cultural backgrounds rate products differently due to culturally shared country images. Fifth, cultural similarity based on the cultural, political and social system between the home country of the evaluating consumer and the foreign manufacturing country

of the product also influence country-of-origin effects (Okechuku 1994, Wang & Lamb 1983). Sixth, socio-demographic variables like age, gender and income additionally influence country-of-origin effects and therefore product evaluations (Bailey & Gutierrez De Pineres 1997, Wall & Heslop 1971). Wall and Heslop (1986) prove that female Canadian consumers have a more positive attitude towards Canadian goods than male Canadian consumers. Younger educated people with a higher income seem to evaluate foreign products more favorably than older less educated people with a low income (Bailey & Gutierrez De Pineres 1997). Last, the level of ethnocentrism among consumers significantly influences country-of-origin effects and product evaluations (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2004, Bruning 1997, Hamin & Elliott 2006, Han 1989, Evanschitzky et al. 2008, Papadopolous, Heslop & Bamossy 1991, Shimp & Sharma 1987, Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995, Yagci 2001etc.). Papadopoulos, Heslop & Bamossy (1991) reveal that only German consumers rate their home products overall as best and specifically greatest in regards to product integrity.

Country-of-origin obviously illustrates an 'extrinsic communication cue' which is used by consumers to predict price, quality and purchase intention for the product (Bruning 1997, Bloemer et al. 2009, Knight & Calatone 2000, Verlegh & Steenkamp 1999 etc.). Since consumption decisions are not solely based on rationality, emotions and feelings also significantly influence the buying process. Country-of-origin therefore evokes a cognitive, affective and normative processing within a consumer's mind. Cognitively, country-of-origin is used as quality signal. The affective component of the country-of-origin cue determines the symbolic and emotional aspect that country images evoke. Normatively, a consumer decides about his/her willingness to purchase a product based on his/her acceptance of the practices and policies of the products' country-of-origin (Verlegh & Steenkamp 1999).

The aim of the following thesis is an empirical study about the influence of country-of-origin and ethnocentrism on the perception of two consuming cultures, namely Sweden and Germany, across six different manufacturing countries and product categories. The six product categories are airplane tickets, beer, furniture, fashion clothing, chocolate and cheese; the six product country-of-origins are Sweden, Denmark and Norway in comparison to Germany, Switzerland and Austria. On the basis of the following research hypotheses, an empirical analysis will investigate the three variables quality perception, price evaluation and purchase intentions across two respondent groups. The influence of ethnocentric tendencies among Swedes and Germans will be measured using the CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987). On the basis of the empirical thesis results, intercultural communication strategies for product advertisement in regards to country-of-origin, ethnocentrism and cultural similarities/differences will be developed.

#### 1.2 The chosen product categories

The product categories investigated in this study are namely: airline tickets, beer, furniture, fashion clothing, chocolate and cheese. Considering an airline carrier, one could argue that baggage handling, ground service, ticketing etc. mainly represent services to the customer (Bruning 1997). Nonetheless, in this study airline tickets from various international carriers

demonstrate products. This assumption appears reasonable as airline tickets can be judged on price, quality perception and customer buying intention just like other products (e.g. beer or furniture). Furthermore, Bruning (1997) proves that country-of-origin and ethnocentric tendencies influence consumer evaluations of different airline carriers. Among Canadian air travelers, females who earn solely a small income, fly only frequently and carry out a non-professional occupation, tend to be the most loyal airline customers. While the price appears to be the most important, the airline's country-of-origin comes second before number of stops and aircraft type (Bruning 1997).

Furniture and fashion clothing represent goods which can be viewed as hedonic- or utilitarian products. Hedonic products describe goods which are solely consumed for luxury purposes. A consumer derives pleasure, fun and excitement from buying these goods. In contrast, utilitarian products are purchased for practical reasons and always fulfill a need. Consumers generally have a higher willingness to spend more money on hedonic goods and in line with that be less price sensitive, because these products are only frequently bought as luxury rewards (Ratneshwar & Mick 2005). Since furniture and fashion clothing can either be viewed as luxury items that are created by a famous designer or as necessary goods a human uses on a regular basis, no clear distinction will be drawn in this study. In line with that, food products and beverages like chocolate, cheese and beer will be treated the same since they can be part of a fine selection or only of a regular type.

Evanschitzky et al. (2008) study consumer ethnocentrism among other things in relation to furniture, fashion clothing and food products. Their study reveals that German consumers clearly show different levels of ethnocentrism when evaluating various product categories. The products' country-of-origins determine the impact of consumer evaluations and the level of ethnocentrism towards the product. Particularly strong drivers of the German economy (e.g. cars or electronic items) are rated favorably, contrary to a negative evaluation of products that represent a threat to the economy (e.g. Italian fashion wear or French food etc.) (Evanschitzky et al. 2008). Based on Evanschitzky et al.'s (2008) choice of products, the goods of this study are selected as they all fulfill the following criteria:

- Each product is produced within each country
- All products are nonetheless imported in each country
- Consumers spend a large portion of their budget on these products

As a result it is possible to measure consumer ethnocentrism and country-of-origin based on the above mentioned product categories (Evanschitzky et al. 2008). In line with Evanschitzky et al's (2008) finding that German consumers tend to prefer domestically produced goods over foreign products and therefore show strong levels of ethnocentrism, Papadopolous, Heslop and Bamossy (1990) find additional support for strong ethnocentrism within the German population. Their study reveals that even domestic products are rated positively by all eight investigated participant groups, only Germans and French rate their products as 'best'. Furthermore, German respondents illustrate the only sample that clearly rates their home products most positively overall and particularly in regards to 'product integrity' (Papadopoulos, Heslop & Bamossy 1990). In comparison, Hult, Keillor and Lafferty (1999) find proof in their study for low levels of ethnocentrism among Swedish consumers. Further,

Keillor and Hult (1999) detect a rather weak level of national identity among the Swedish population. Their study suggests that the Swedish business environment is relatively open for foreign companies as their level of ethnocentrism can be described as rather low (Keillor & Hult 1999). Based on the above mentioned findings, the first hypothesis is developed:

H1: Germans show greater ethnocentric tendencies when evaluating products than Swedes do

#### 1.3 The chosen countries in contrast - Scandinavia & the Germanic countries

Intercultural marketing communication approaches use geography and national based criteria to identify consumer segments. Besides demographics and socio-psychological aspects, consumer attitudes are influenced by their nationality. Geographical cultural affinity zones illustrate the grouping of national cultures (Usunier & Lee 2009). Within this study Sweden, Norway and Denmark represent the Scandinavian countries whereas Germany, Switzerland and Austria portray the Germanic nations. These groupings include socio-demographic cultural aspects, which show a clear homogeneity within Scandinavia and within the Germanic nations, based on (Usunier & Lee 2009):

- Geography
- Climate
- Language
- Institutional and political systems
- Social/Income
- Ethnicity
- Religion

Located in the Northern part of Europe, Sweden, Norway and Denmark portray Scandinavia which comprises historically, culturally and linguistically connected countries. While Sweden and Norway are located on the Scandinavian Peninsula, the Danish islands and Jutland portray Danish territory. The temperatures in Scandinavia vary between north/south and west/east. The climate within the southern parts of Scandinavia is temperate whereas the northern area of the countries extends to the Arctic Circle where a great part of the Scandinavian mountains have an alpine tundra climate. The Scandinavian languages – Swedish, Danish and Norwegian – form a dialect continuum with a mutual intelligibility (cf. <a href="http://www.britannica.com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/EBchecked/topic/526461/Scandinavia">http://www.britannica.com.ezproxy.ub.gu.se/EBchecked/topic/526461/Scandinavia</a>, 2013, Østergård 2012).

All three Scandinavian countries are officially parliamentarian representative democratic constitutional monarchies. The Swedish welfare state developed through a stable position of the social democratic workers party since its election in 1933. Through the concept of solidarity and welfare, this political system had a major influence on its culture (Trägårdh 1990). Sweden, Denmark and Norway have some of the highest economic development rates worldwide. Norway hereby leads with a GDP per capita of 55.300\$, followed by Sweden with a GDP per capita of 41.700\$ and Denmark with a GDP per capita of 37.700\$. Religiosity only

plays a minority role within the Scandinavian countries compared to the rest of Europe; the majority of Swedes, Norwegians (over 80%) and Danes (over 90%) believe in Christianity (cf. <a href="https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/wfbExt/region\_eur.html">https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/wfbExt/region\_eur.html</a>, 2013).

In comparison, Germany, Austria and Switzerland are located as neighboring countries in the western-central part of Europe. Contrary to Scandinavia, the Germanic countries have a great amount of neighboring states compassing them. Germany is surrounded by eight neighboring countries, Austria is bordered through seven states and Switzerland is surrounded by five other nations. The Alps influence the landscape and climate of all three countries to a different extent. Germany has a seasonal temperate climate due to its proximity to the Nordic and Baltic Sea; the presence of the Alps is only noticeable in the southern part of the country. As the Alps largely dominate the Austrian territory, its landscape is largely mountainous and the climate temperate and alpine. The majority of the Swiss territory is influenced by mountains - Alps, Swiss Plateau and Jura - which results in a varying temperate climate depending on the altitude. While German is the official language in Germany and Austria, Switzerland is influenced through three official languages: German, French and Italian. German nonetheless represents the major linguistic basis as it is spoken by more than 60 of the citizens (cf. https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-worldpercent factbook/wfbExt/region eur.html, 2013).

A major difference between Sweden and Germany are the political parties that have been dominating in the last decades. While Sweden's welfare state developed through social democratic politics, the German welfare state is a result of conservative forces ranging from Bismarck and Adenauer to Kohl (Trägårdh 1990). Germany, Switzerland and Austria are all democratic federal republics and leading national economies in Europe with a GDP per capita for Switzerland of 45.300\$, followed by Austria's GDP per capita of 42.500\$ and Germany's GDP per capita of 39.100\$. Religious beliefs vary across Germany, Switzerland and Austria. While in Germany, approximately the same amount of people believe in the Catholic and Protestant Church (each ar. 35%), the majority of Austrian (ar. 70 %) and Swiss (ar. 45%) citizens are adherents the Catholic Church (cf. https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/wfbExt/region\_eur.html, 2013).

As proposed by Roose (2010), similarities between cultures are measured through the 'index of cultural similarity'. The cultural similarity index examines cultural similarity between European population groups. The index value ranges from zero (no similarity at all) to one (perfect similarity). By applying the cultural similarity index, a clear similarity within Scandinavia and within the Germanic countries becomes visible. Sweden shows a high cultural similarity to Norway (c.s.i. 0,721) and Denmark (c.s.i. 0,695). Germany illustrates a strong cultural similarity to Switzerland (c.s.i. 0,850) and Austria (c.s.i. 0,846) (Roose 2010). In line with the above mentioned political, cultural, geographical and social homogeneity within Scandinavia and the Germanic countries, the second hypothesis is developed:

H2: Swedes and Germans evaluate products more favorably from countries that are similar to their own culture (Sweden-Norway/Denmark, Germany-Switzerland/Austria)

## 1.4 Comparing the cultural aspect - Sweden vs. Germany

In today's world barriers between countries diminish as international trade and exchange increases. Cultural differences demonstrate nonetheless one of the most salient factors between countries which influences marketing communication strategies. Even though culture does not determine the individual behavior of each person within a country, it strongly influences it (Usunier & Lee 2009). Due to its complexity, "it is the most difficult to recognize from within and to understand from without" (Usunier & Lee 2009, p.3). The main elements of culture include patterns of thought, e.g. general ways of thinking that reflect a cultures values, beliefs and emotions. Patterns of behavior illustrate the way in which individuals of a culture behave, speak and act within private and public spaces. Patterns of artificial objects demonstrate a cultures' ability to manufacture goods. Last, imprints in nature describe the imprints a culture leaves in the natural environment, for instance roads, housings or agriculture (Allwood 1985).

Geert Hofstede (cf. <a href="http://geert-hofstede.com/countries.html">http://geert-hofstede.com/countries.html</a>, 2013), by far one of the most important figures within comparative intercultural research, defines five dimensions all societies are confronted with: 1) the degree of social inequality, 2) the relation between the individual and the group, 3) social impacts of gender differences, 4) the way in which societies handle uncertainty within economic and social procedures and 5) cultural perspectives towards the future (Terlutter, Diehl & Mueller 2006). In order to compare the cultural background of both respondent groups, Swedes and Germans, Hofstede's cultural dimensions as well as parts of the GLOBE study, will be examined in relation to their intercultural marketing applicability.

The five dimensions Hofstede refers to are called: power distance, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity vs. femininity, uncertainty avoidance and long term vs. short term orientation. Power distance illustrates the way in which a society deals with inequality among its members. Both countries, Sweden and Germany, score low on this dimension with an evaluation of 31 and 35. Due to Germany's strong middle class, power is not exercised by one main authority, but rather decentralized distributed. Communication takes place directly, control is disliked and leadership is only accepted if it is based on expertise. Sweden's welfare state is based on equal rights, independence, and hierarchy only exists for the sake of convenience. In line with Germany, control is disliked in Sweden and the communication style is also participative and direct, as employees have co-determination rights. A coaching leadership style results in less distance between employee and supervisor as well as informal communication on first name basis.

The second dimension – individualism – refers to the extent of individualism among the members of a society. While individuals of individualistic societies mainly take care of themselves and their immediate family members, collectivistic societies emphasize the 'Wefeeling'. Hofstede views Sweden as well as Germany as highly individualistic societies due to a high score of 71 and 67. Sweden and Germany both favor loose social bonds with a special focus on only one's immediate family members. Individualistic individuals decide through personal preferences with whom they want to spend their free time. Based on duty and responsibility, work contracts are taken seriously as they provide a mutual advantage for both

parties. Literature nonetheless has challenged the proposition of Sweden solely being an individualistic society (Heinö 2008, Trägårdh 1990). The Scandinavian societies – in particular Sweden – are portrayed as welfare states which combine collectivistic tendencies within individualistic societies. Singelis et al. (1995) emphasize the difference between horizontal and vertical individualistic societies. While people within horizontal individualistic societies view themselves at the same level as others, vertical society members picture themselves within a hierarchy. Sweden represents a horizontal individualistic society, contrary to Germany which can be seen as vertical individualistic society. Due to the influence of the social democratic party since its election in the 1930s, collectivistic tendencies like equality, independence and solidarity still prevail within Swedish society (Trägårdh 1990).

The third dimension illustrates the degree to which a society is defined to be rather masculine or feminine. On this dimension, a clear distinction can be drawn between Germany and Sweden. While Sweden portrays a feminine society with a low score of 5, Germany illustrates a masculine society as it scores 66. The members of feminine societies strive for a work/life balance and success is portrayed through great life quality. Swedish society values equality highly; a general way of including everyone is therefore favored. Management needs to be supportive and decision making generally aims for consensus through the involvement of all. In contrast, the German masculine society is characterized by placing a high value on great performance. People do not work in order to live, but rather live in order to work. The achievements of work success are shown in status symbols like expensive cars.

The fourth dimension – uncertainty avoidance – refers to a society's attitude towards unknown ambiguous situations. While German society shows a high degree of uncertainty avoidance with a score of 65, Swedish society scores rather low on this dimension with 29. Germans are known to have a highly bureaucratic state system with a lot of rules and regulations. This is one way in which German society reduces the risk of unknown future situations. All work processes have to be organized systematically and in detail. Punctuality is highly valued. In comparison, Swedes have only a low preference for uncertainty avoidance. Therefore their attitude is more flexible and tolerant. Rules should only be implemented if they are necessary and useful. In line with that, hard work is only conducted in case it appears necessary.

The fifth dimension – long term vs. short term orientation– describes the degree to which a society values future orientation compared to a conventional historical short term perspective. Both cultures can be viewed as short term oriented societies; Germany scores 31 and Sweden only achieves a score of 20. High valuing of traditions, quick results and strong honesty are typically found among short term oriented Western cultures (cf. <a href="http://geert-hofstede.com/germany.html">http://geert-hofstede.com/germany.html</a>, 2013, <a href="http://geert-hofstede.com/germany.html">http://geert-hofstede.com/germany.html</a>, 2013).

Based on the finding that Sweden and Germany not only show differences within their geographical, social, political, but also cultural position und understanding, the third hypothesis predicts:

H3: Swedes and Germans show a difference in evaluating for which product country-oforigin they possess the highest quality perception and purchase intention

## 2. Background

## 2.1 The effects of country image

The image of a country has a major influence on consumers' product evaluations. To communicate a new product successfully on the international market, marketing experts need to understand the impacts of a product's country image (Roth & Romeo 1992). Nagashima (1970) conducts one of the first research studies defining country image. A survey among American and Japanese business people reveals the following definition of country image: "the picture, the reputation, the stereotype that businessmen and consumers attach to products of a specific country. This image is created by such variables as representative products, national characteristics, economic and political background, history, and traditions." (Nagashima 1970, p.68) To apply country image more to a marketing perspective and in line with that to consumers product evaluations, Han (1989) defines country image through the quality of a country's products. The quality of a product appears to be the most significant factor for consumers' country image perceptions (Han 1989).

Roth and Romeo (1992) develop this finding and suggest that consumers generally form their country image perceptions based on a country's manufacturing ability, technical innovation and design skills. The authors propose the following four dimensions to be most important in relation to country image: workmanship, innovation, design and prestige. Workmanship hereby refers to a country's ability to manufacture reliable goods that possess great durability and quality. The term innovation includes the application and usage of new engineering technologies. Design describes a variety of styles and colors for optical appearances. The prestige dimension of a country's products is based on their status, brand reputation and exclusivity on the international market. These four dimensions define a country's marketing and craftsmanship strengths and weaknesses (Roth & Romeo 1992). Roth & Romeo's study (1992) reveals that Irish, Mexican and American consumers have the most favorable country image perception of Germany, Japan and the United States. High scores within the product categories – cars and watches – prove a major importance of country image in the luxury product segment. The willingness to purchase a product is significantly related to a positive country image; this results in high purchase intentions for automobiles and cars from Germany, Japan and United States (Roth & Romeo 1992).

Similar to Roth & Romeo's (1992) original study about the fit between country image dimensions and product features, Dagger and Raciti (2011) document a significant influence of country image on product perceptions. In their study, Japan rates the highest among the dimensions workmanship, innovation, design and prestige. Therefore it clearly has a greater country image in comparison to Korea, Canada, China, New Zealand and the United States. Based on Japan's highly positive country image, consumers not only judge a fitting product category match (e.g. automobiles or stereos), but also a product category mismatch (e.g.

leather shoes or beer) as favorably. In contrast, countries like China trigger unfavorably matches and mismatches based on their country image. Consumers evaluate products, for which China is known to be a poor producer (e.g. automobiles and watches) as well as products that do not fit China's country image (e.g. beer or leather shoes), negatively. Nonetheless, countries not always range at the lowest or highest end of the evaluation scale (Dagger & Raciti 2011). Dagger and Raciti's study (2011) proves that a country like China, which might be evaluated very low on the dimensions workmanship, prestige and design, is still rated moderately high in terms of innovation.

Yagci (2001) relates country image to the country-of-origin effect. Even research uses the terms country-of-origin and country image often interchangeably, there are significant differences. While country-of-origin refers to the manufacturing country of a product or the country a brand is associated with, country image defines the quality of the products manufactured in even this country. The author (Yagci 2001) suggests that in case a consumer is aware of a product's country image, this image will be used to generate a fit between product category and country (Yagci 2001). In contrast, a consumer who is not familiar with a product will use the country image to get a better understanding of the product attributes (Ahmed et al. 2002). Country image works in this context through the so called 'halo-effect' (Han 1989). The halo-effect has a direct and indirect influence on consumers' product evaluations. Country image directly influences consumers' beliefs about product attributes and indirectly impacts consumers' product evaluations through these beliefs (Bloemer, Brijs & Kasper 2009, Han 1989). If a country has a positive country image in terms of great craftsmanship and superior product quality, it will always reflect greatly on its products (Yagci 2001). Yagci (2001) names in this context brands like Porsche, Mercedes, BMW and Audi which all represent strong brands that are associated with Germany. These brands not only represent prestige and status symbols, but also evoke a certain national pride within the German culture (Yagci 2001). Besides the 'halo effect' country image also evokes national stereotyping based on a country's economic, social and political system as well as on its cultural beliefs (Ahmed et al. 2002).

## 2.2 The concept of consumer ethnocentrism

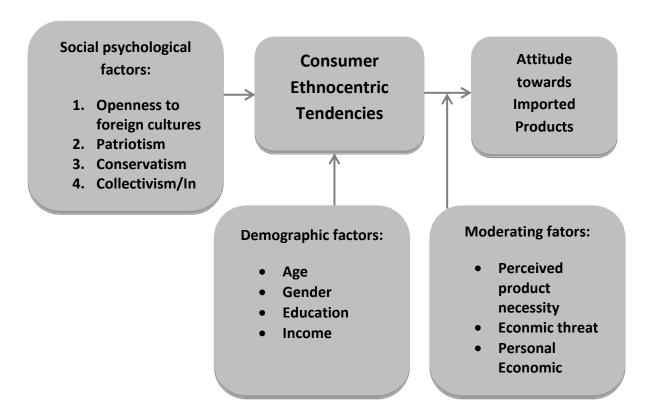
Sociological literature introduces the term 'ethnocentrism' over a century ago based on Sumner's definition (1906, p.13) as "the view of things in which one's own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it". An ethnocentric individual clearly pictures one's own group as favorably in-group and therefore as main reference point, contrary to all other individuals that are viewed as unfavorably outgroup (Shimp & Sharma 1987).

The general preference to buy domestically produced goods and the negative attitude towards products originating from particular foreign countries, adopts the term 'ethnocentrism' to consumer behavior (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2004). Shimp and Sharma (1987, p.280) define consumer ethnocentrism as "the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products". First, consumer ethnocentrism refers

to the perception that imports might harm the national economy as they represent potential competition to local businesses, brands, employment and other interests (Cumberland, Stubbe Solgaard & Nikodemska-Wolowik 2010, Evanschitzky et al. 2008, Sharma, Shimp & Shin 1995). Secondly, negative biases against foreign imported goods lead to a purchase unwillingness of even those products (Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995). The more importance a consumer assigns the fact to buy domestically, the greater one's ethnocentric tendencies are (Cumberland, Stubbe Solgaard & Nikodemska-Wolowik 2010, Sharma, Shimp & Shin 1995). For highly ethnocentric consumers, purchasing foreign products leads not only to an economic issue, but also to a moral dilemma. In extreme cases the consequences are domestic purchases which are of lower quality than the import. Thirdly, consumer ethnocentrism results in peoples' prejudices against foreign goods and a preference for domestic products as one's own country is overestimated in relation to an underestimation of other manufacturing nations (Shimp, Sharma and Shin 1995).

The conceptual model by Shimp, Sharma and Shin (1995) will be used in this context to explain the impacts of diverse factors on consumers' attitudes towards imported products. The model presents consumer ethnocentrism as center point, which is influenced through socio, psychological, demographic and other moderating variables which in return all have an impact on consumers' attitude towards imported goods. The mutual influences of socio-psychological factors on consumers' ethnocentric tendencies include a consumer's openness to foreign cultures, patriotism, conservatism as well as collectivistic or individualistic cultural beliefs. The first socio-psychological factor which has an effect on consumers' ethnocentric tendencies is an individual's openness towards foreign cultures. Cultural openness hereby represents an individual's openness towards new experiences with culturally different groups, traditions and values.

Figure 1: Conceptual model by Shimp, Sharma and Shin (1995)



The possibility to get in contact and spend time with people from other nations can reduce cultural prejudice (Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995). Rawwas, Rajendran & Wehrer (1996) prove that highly world-minded consumers have higher quality perceptions of foreign goods. In comparison to highly ethnocentric individuals, highly world-minded consumers do not distinguish as much between products' countries-of-origins. These findings imply a lower usage of the country-of-origin cue as well as weaker national stereotyping by consumers who are more open towards foreign cultures (Rawwas, Rajendran & Wehrer 1996). Shimp and Sharma (1987) discover that the geographical place of residence also has an influence on an individual's openness towards culturally different groups. Within the United States inhabitants from Los Angeles, a city on the West coast where various cultural groups interact, show much weaker ethnocentric tendencies than inhabitants from Midwest cities like Denver, Detroit or Carolinas (Shimp & Sharma 1987).

The second socio-psychological factor illustrates the mutual influence of patriotism on consumers' ethnocentrism. Patriotism defines a person's love and estimation for one's home country (Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995). Patriotism and ethnocentrism are two related terms (Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995, Sumner 1906). Several studies prove the strong influence of consumers' patriotic emotions when purchasing domestic products (Evanschitzky et al. 2008, Han 1988, Shimp & Sharma 1987, Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995 etc.). Han (1988) detects that patriotic beliefs influence consumers' purchasing behavior to rather buy domestic versus imported products. As it hurts the national economy and causes job losses, shopping foreign

products is viewed as highly unpatriotic by American ethnocentric consumers (Shimp & Sharma 1987).

Conservatism is the third socio-psychological factor which influences consumers' ethnocentrism as well as their attitude towards imported goods. Conservatism generally defines a proudly appreciation for traditions, values, religion and historically proven institutions (Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995). Shimp, Sharma and Shin (1995) document a positive influence between conservatism and consumers' ethnocentrism.

The last socio-psychological factors, which have a mutual impact on consumers' ethnocentrism, are the collectivistic or individualistic cultural tendencies within an individual's home country (Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995). Literature suggests that individuals with a collectivistic cultural background show greater ethnocentric tendencies as they feel a higher responsibility for the well-being of others and society in general (Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995, Triandis, Brislin & Hui 1988). In contrast, individualistic cultures at first take care of their own interests and advantages (Bruning 1997, Sharma, Shimp & Shin 1995). Bruning (1997) proves that American flight travelers, whom belong to a highly individualistic culture, are willing to trade off domestic airlines for lower flight tickets or better services provided by international air carriers.

The demographic factors illustrate the second dimension, influencing consumer's ethnocentrism and as a result an individual's attitude towards imported goods. As a matter of fact demographic factors and socio-psychological factors are correlated. For instance, an individual's level of conservatism is most of the time related to a certain age (Shimp, Sharma and Shin 1995). Due to their life experience and direct confrontation with conflicts rooted in history, older people are more conservative, patriotic and as a result show greater ethnocentric tendencies (Han 1988, Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995). In contrast, younger consumers seem to have a more cosmopolitan view point and therefore show higher positive attitudes towards imports (Bailey & Gutierrez De Pineres 1997).

By taking a look at the second socio-demographic factor, gender represents another factor, influencing consumers' ethnocentrism. Wall and Heslop (1986) prove in their study that Canadian female consumers show a greater attitude towards Canadian products than male Canadian consumers do. Based on literature, women seem to show greater ethnocentric tendencies than males do (Shimp, Sharma and Shin 1995, Wall & Heslop 1986).

An individual's level of education illustrates the third demographic factor in Shimp, Sharma and Shin's (1995) conceptual model. The authors find support in their study that an individual's educational level is negatively related to ethnocentrism. In other words, the more educated a person is, the less ethnocentric he or she will be. In line with that goes the fourth demographic factor – income – as it also has a negative correlation with ethnocentrism. An explanation arises from the fact that a higher education generally leads to a greater income. The more an individual earns, the more often a person can afford to travel abroad. Through the experience with foreign cultures, one's cosmopolitan viewpoint will be strengthened and as a result a greater openness towards foreign cultures develops which results in less ethnocentric beliefs (Shimp, Sharma and Shin 1995).

The third dimension that has an effect on a consumer's attitude towards imported products includes two moderating factors. The first moderating factor is the perceived product necessity. Consumer goods can be classified into products, which have to be used on a daily basis (e.g. milk) or luxury products (e.g. champagne) which an individual only purchases on special occasions. Depending on the level of necessity, ethnocentrism is expected to impact differently on a consumer's attitude towards imports. The more a product is perceived to be absolutely necessary for one's life, the smaller the influence of ethnocentrism on this product category. Particularly, products which are unnecessary on a regular basis will be more strongly influenced by ethnocentric beliefs (Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995).

The perceived economic threat that emanates from certain products is also expected to moderate an individual's attitude towards imports. The fear of losing jobs and a potential competition through foreign companies, brands and institutions increases the impact of ethnocentrism on consumers' purchasing behavior (Cumberland, Stubbe Solgaard & Nikodemska-Wolowik 2010, Evanschitzky et al. 2008, Sharma, Shimp & Shin 1995). Shimp, Sharma and Shin (1995) illustrate that a perceived economic threat from a product, leads to greater impacts of ethnocentric tendencies on imported product evaluations.

# 2.3 Country-of-origin: A cognitive, affective and normative approach

## 2.3.1 The cognitive approach

Due to the complex effects of country-of-origin, literature has extensively discussed this phenomenon for more than three decades (e.g. Ahmed et al. 2002, Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2004, Bloemer, Brijs & Kasper 2009, Bruning 1997, Dagger & Raciti 2011, Evanschitzky et al. 2008, Knight & Calantone 2000, Papadopolous, Heslop & Bamossy 1991, Roth & Romeo 1992, Shimp & Sharma 1987, Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995, Verlegh & Steenkamp 1999, Yagci 2001 etc.). In particular, the cognitive component of the country-of-origin cue has received great attention (Bloemer, Brijs & Kasper 2009). The basic mechanisms, which lie behind the 'cognitive approach' of the country-of-origin cue, simply influence a consumer's beliefs about product attributes (Bloemer, Brijs & Kasper 2009, Verlegh & Steenkamp 1999). Cognitively, a product is approached through the cues a consumer perceives. Hereby, intrinsic and extrinsic cues of a product have to be distinguished. While intrinsic cues refer to the physical material, weight, taste, design or performance of a product, extrinsic product cues are related to price, brand, warranty, store reputation or country-of-origin (Bloemer, Brijs & Kasper 2009, Verlegh & Steenkamp 1999).

Bloemer, Brijs and Kasper (2009) suggest that a cue's usefulness determines its relevance. Thus, if basic cue signals like intensity, clarity and vividness are met, consumers distinguish cues based on their predictive value (Verlegh & Steenkamp 1999). In case intrinsic cues are missing or are difficult to evaluate, a consumer uses extrinsic cues to get a better understanding of the product; as a result intangible extrinsic cues receive a significant importance for consumers' product perceptions (Ahmed et al. 2002). Ahmed et al. (2002)

illustrate a great influence of the extrinsic cue – country image – on consumers' product attitudes. Image variables, like the country image of a product, define "some aspects of the product that is distinct from its physical characteristics but that is nevertheless identified with the product" (Erickson et al. 1984, p.694). Products manufactured in countries with a weaker country image (e.g. China) are perceived to have a greater purchasing risk (Ahmed et al. 2002). Hence, in case intrinsic product cues are missing, extrinsic cues receive major importance in reducing risks that are perceived with the product purchase (Lim & Darley 1997). The cognitive country-of-origin effect makes rational judgments based on informational, descriptive and inferential beliefs that an individual associates with the products of a country and therefore uses for an overall product evaluation (Bloemer, Brijs & Kasper 2009).

## 2.3.2 The affective approach

Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999) suggest that products not only evoke cognitive processing within consumers' minds, but also trigger emotional responses and feelings. Consequently, country-of-origin does not exclusively work as cognitive cue. As mentioned earlier, consumers associate strong emotions with country images (Dagger & Raciti 2011, Han 1989, Roth & Romeo 1992, Yagci 2001). Consumers' attitudes either rest upon direct encounters with people from different cultural backgrounds or might be based on indirect experiences through mass media, art and education. These experiences have a strong impact on consumers' product attitudes and brand expectations (Verlegh & Steenkamp 1999). Maher and Carter (2011) confirm that the affective component, triggered through the country image cue, influences consumers' purchase intention of foreign products. In their study, consumers from Kuwait with a high admiration for the United States show a positive willingness to buy American products. Based on their admiration for America, they ascribe the nation competence and feel certain warmth towards it. In contrast, consumers who feel contempt towards the United States show a purchasing unwillingness for American products and a negative relation towards perceived competence and warmth (Maher & Carter 2011). Obermiller and Spangenberg (1989) give another example, which demonstrates the impact of the affective country-of-origin component on consumers' product evaluations. Even though an Arab-American knows about the great quality of Israeli optical instruments, his attitude towards these products is strongly negative, based on his poor perception of Israel (Verlegh & Steenkamp 1999). Each product therefore elicits emotional and symbolic beliefs; a product's country-of-origin includes a relation to social status, experiences and pride (Verlegh & Steenkamp 1999).

## 2.3.3 The normative approach

Purchasing products from countries which engage in dubious political activities is perceived to be morally questionable as one supports a country's economy through buying its goods (Velegh & Steenkamp 1999). To describe this phenomenon, Smith (1990) conducts a survey

among consumers, who vote pro or contra for their willingness to buy a country's products in relation to the social, political and economic practices of a its government. Diverse studies prove that certain cultures block purchases of specific countries. For instance, the Holocaust illustrates the major reason for the Jewish unwillingness to buy German products. Nuclear tests in the Pacific led to Australian consumer boycotts of French goods (Verlegh & Steenkamp 1999).

In contrast, certain countries also evoke feelings of perceived warmth and competence which in return lead to a positive moral understanding and as a result to a great purchase intention. Chattalas, Kramer & Takada (2008) detect that France holds the position to possess strong manufacturing competence as well as a high perceived warmth dimension. Consequently, brands like L'Oreal include country-of-origin cues within their brand names, e.g. L'Oreal Paris (Chattalas, Kramer & Takada 2008). Countries like the United States consistently remind their highly ethnocentric consumers' to buy domestically in order to support their own country (Shimp & Sharma 1987). As the above examples clearly illustrate, a consumer's moral understanding influences one's attitude towards purchasing domestic or foreign products (Verlegh & Steenkamp 1999).

## 3. Methodology

#### 3.1 Choice of method

This thesis aims to identify differences in consumer behavior within two different cultures; the influences of products' country-of-origin and consumers' level of ethnocentrism are examined in this context. Due to the fact that this thesis tries to give a broad picture of consumer attitudes in Sweden and Germany, quantitative research is mainly chosen as data collection method. Huysamen (1997) states that quantitative research "typically discerns a cycle of successive phases of hypothesis formulation, data collection, analysis and interpretation" (Huysamen 1997, p.1). From a more deductive perspective, quantitative research seeks to collect facts, makes predictions, and tests hypotheses on their validity (Nykiel 2007).

Quantitative research is chosen as research method, due to three distinct reasons: First, if correctly designed and conducted, it provides statistical results in relation to a certain area of interest. For instance, it can reliably prove that a certain brand, package, idea or product is better than another (Nykiel 2007). If the questionnaire results of this study reach a level of significance, proof is given for cultural different perceptions among Germans and Swedes, in regards to products' country-of-origin and national loyalty. The second advantage of quantitative research is the transferability of the given findings to the population (Nykiel 2007). In case the results of this study are significant, they are projectable to the German and Swedish population. Third, while qualitative research often possesses a subjective element, quantitative research involves greater objectivity. In comparison to qualitative researchers, who are greatly involved with their interviewees, quantitative research aims for great detachment and objectivity during research (Nykiel 2007).

Additionally to quantitative research, qualitative research elements are also involved in the study. Combining the two research methods, serves for a "mutual validation of data and findings as well as for the production of a more coherent and complete picture of the investigated domain than monomethod research can yield" (Keller 2006, p.293). To find out if the questionnaire and the stated hypotheses would reveal differences within both cultural groups, the questionnaire is firstly sent to five German- and five Swedish respondents. These ten participants take part in a short interview after filling out the questionnaire. A qualitative research method is additionally involved, due to one main advantage: In-depth conversations allow the interviewer to get a better understanding of the participants' attitudes (Nykiel 2007). Through direct interaction with the respondents, it becomes possible to investigate specific ideas and feelings as well as additional comments.

The previously mentioned arguments lead to a mixed-quantitative research method within this study. For this study, mixed-quantitative research includes the following advantages: the easy distribution of a questionnaire survey via Email, a larger sample group of 100 respondents will reveal results that are transferable to each cultural population. Furthermore, qualitative interviews with the first five German- and five Swedish participants, who filled out the questionnaire, will reveal additional in-depth information.

#### 3.2 Data Collection

This thesis examines the impact of country-of-origin on product perceptions of two cultural groups, namely Swedes and Germans. To what extent socio-demographic factors and different cultural backgrounds influence consumers' quality perceptions, price evaluations and purchase intentions demonstrates the main part of the study. Furthermore, the diverging influence of ethnocentric tendencies among the two respondent groups on the above mentioned variables will be investigated. The questionnaire comprises 123 questions, which can be classified into three sections. First, Part A covers questions in regards to a participant's socio-demographic background. Participants are asked to name their gender, age group, educational background, intercultural experience as well as their income level. Second, part B measures the level of ethnocentrism among the two participant groups. On the basis of the original CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987), a shortened 10-item CETSCALE (Lindquist et al. 2001) measures ethnocentrism along the dimensions- product availability (questions 1, 9), employment impact (q. 4, 7, 10), patriotism (q. 2, 3, 5, 8) and economic impact (q. 6). Third, Part C consists of 108 questions, which measure the impact of six product country-of-origins (Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Germany, Switzerland, Austria), in regards to six product categories (airline tickets, beer, fashion clothing, furniture, chocolate, cheese) and three dependent variables (product quality, price perception, purchase intention). To investigate the impact of country-of-origin and ethnocentrism on the three dependent variables, each product is once merged with one of the six country-of-origins.

All participants receive a questionnaire, on which they have to answer questions of the following three sections. The questionnaires for the Swedish and German respondents differ in two sections: Question 5 in Part A asks about the income level, respectively with a different

currency for both respondent groups (Euros for the German respondents, Swedish Krona for the Swedish respondents). Part B is differently constructed as the questions are adjusted to the cultural background of the participant (e.g. Sweden/Germany). The following example illustrates the research questions of the German questionnaire:

#### PART A

The following questions should be answered on the basis of the given options

- 1. Gender: What is your gender? Female/ Male
- 2. Age: What is your age? 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, >60
- 3. Educational background: What is your education? Vocational education, College, University
- 4. Intercultural experience/competence: *Have you ever lived abroad? Never*, <1-2 y., 2-3 y., >3 y.
- 5. Income: How high is your monthly income (after tax)? Under  $1.000\epsilon$ ,  $<1000\epsilon$ - $2.000\epsilon$ ,  $<2.000\epsilon$ - $3.000\epsilon$ ,  $>3.000\epsilon$

#### PART B

The following questions should be rated on a scale from 1-7, (where 1 indicates = I extremely disagree; 7 indicates = I extremely agree)

- 1. Product availability: Only those products that are unavailable in Germany, should be imported
- 2. Patriotism: German products first, last and foremost
- 3. Patriotism: Purchasing foreign made products is un-German
- 4. Employment impact: It is not right to purchase foreign products, as it puts

  Germany out of jobs
- 5. Patriotism: A real German should always buy German-made products
- 6. Economic impact: We should purchase products manufactured in Germany instead of letting other countries get rich off us
- 7. Employment impact: Germans should not buy foreign made products, because it hurts German business and causes unemployment
- 8. Patriotism: It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support German products
- 9. Product availability: We should buy from foreign countries, only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country

10. Employment impact: German consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Germans out of work

#### PART C

In the following order, six different products, manufactured in different six countries, should be evaluated on a scale from 1-7 (where 1 indicates an extremely low rating, and 7 demonstrate an extremely high rating)

Product categories: Airline tickets, beer, furniture, fashion clothing, chocolate and cheese

Country-of-origins: Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Sweden, Norway and Denmark

Dependent variables: Quality evaluation, price perception, purchase intention

- 1. Quality evaluation: How do you rate the quality of an e.g. German (or Austrian, Swiss, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish) e.g. airline (or beer, fashion clothing, furniture, chocolate, cheese) on the below mentioned scale?
- 2. Price perception: How do you estimate the price for an e.g. German (or Austrian, Swiss, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish) e.g. airline ticket (or beer, furniture, fashion clothing, chocolate cheese) on the below mentioned scale?
- 3. Purchase intention: How do you rate your willingness to buy an e.g. German (or Austrian, Swiss, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish) e.g. airline ticket (or beer, furniture, fashion clothing, chocolate cheese) on the below mentioned scale?

#### 3.3 Pretest

Before distributing the questionnaire survey to both respondent groups, a pretest made sure that differences between the two cultural groups exist. Also the familiarity with product categories and countries was investigated. Therefore five Swedish questionnaires and five German questionnaires were sent out to the participants of each cultural group. In dependence on Roth & Romeo (1992) a moderate degree of familiarity between the product categories and products, appears enough to conduct an empirical study. All German respondents were interviewed face-to-face after filling out the questionnaire; all Swedish respondents were interviewed via Skype. The interviews in each cultural group revealed a high familiarity with each product category and at least a moderate degree of familiarity with the examined countries of the study. Based on the participant answers, culturally different perceptions among the respondents can firstly be proved. Regarding the way how participants revealed favorably and unfavorably product country matches, led to some interesting findings. The most significant answers will be mentioned in the following paragraph.

One female German respondent said that her product evaluations were strongly positive influenced in case she knew the country was a well-known producer for a certain product, e.g.

furniture from IKEA or cheese from Switzerland. Contrary, if she did not know a product from a particular country, e.g. Norwegian chocolate, the participant believed in inferior product quality: "I automatically thought, hmm...if I don't know any product produced in this country, this country can't be a really good producer of it". Further, the female participant named German beer to evoke the strongest, most positive associations within her mind. Additionally, she believed Austrian and Swiss beer would be of great product quality: "Automatically I thought that Austria and Switzerland also produce great beer as their cultures are close to our German beer culture." Contrary the respondent rated fashion clothing highest from Sweden or Denmark as these countries appeared as fashion countries to her.

Another German female respondent stated that "products from countries I knew I definitely found easier to evaluate." While products from France and Italy would have been easy to judge, the participant described that products manufactured in Scandinavia were difficult to rate as she did not know the countries very well. Therefore she relied on the advanced social, political and economic position of Norway and Sweden: "Regarding Norwegian and Swedish products, I gave positive ratings as I have positive country images of both countries in mind. Looking at the international comparison, both countries are leaders based on their educational, health insurance and economic system. This helped me as point of reference when rating products produced in these countries." This participant also made an interesting comment about the choice of developing countries: "As it is a comparison of European countries, I didn't rate any product particularly lower from one country. It wasn't a comparison of Venezuelan furniture in comparison to German furniture."

Another German female respondent made an interesting comment regarding the missing environmental aspect of the questionnaire. "After filling out the questionnaire I realized that the aspect of transport, sustainability and environment isn't really included in the questionnaire. I'm willing to buy foreign products in case I like them, even I'm not supporting a German company by doing so…buying a European product still creates workplace opportunities in Europe; nonetheless in the end I would be against buying a foreign product, just because it's absolutely bad for the environment to drive chocolate and apples through three countries. That changes my answer". The female German participant also stated that the questions regarding beer were difficult to answer for her just because she didn't like beer and therefore wouldn't buy it.

One male German respondent described that only airlines did not evoke any difference from his perception as he always rated the price highly. This perception was shared by another Swedish participant, who claimed that she gave exactly the same points to all airlines. Contrary, another Swedish participant claimed that he gave the most favorably airline ratings for Norway and Switzerland: "I think I rated Norway and Switzerland very high for airlines as I had good experiences with it".

In comparison, another female Swedish respondent stated that she had a positive country image of all investigated countries. As she had been travelling to all the countries, she gave rather positive than negative ratings towards most products: "Because I have been travelling so much in all these countries, it appeared that I basically felt the same towards all the

countries and I didn't particularly like Denmark or Norway better than Austria and Switzerland." A more favorably product country rating for a culturally similar country to the participant's home country became visible in the statement: "From my impression I gave the greatest ratings for Danish products, because I associate Denmark with good product quality and good design quality. They have world known design brands and they promote it well...Whereas I don't feel that I'm so familiar with design from Norway. Norway doesn't have a very vibrant food scene, also a very limited selection and it's expensive. I would also say that there are more Danish products in Swedish supermarkets than Norwegian products...Austria and Demark are more home markets now....through the EU." Regarding beer, the Swedish participant revealed that she gave the highest ratings for Austria and Germany as beer appeared to be of good quality and lower prices. Another Swedish male respondent revealed that he rated Denmark and Sweden as greatest beer producers, "because the best beer I ever drank was from Micro Breweries from Denmark and Sweden"

Contrary, another Swedish male respondent stated that he firstly thought of stereotypical associations when judging products from a country that did not appear familiar. He clearly mentioned that old wooden furniture associations, in case of Switzerland and Austria, did lead to rather low evaluations of furniture from these countries. Another Swedish respondent stated that it was far easier for him to rate the quality of a product if he had experienced the product himself. Regarding fashion, his product ratings were highest for Swedish and Norwegian fashion as he never bought clothing from any other country. Based on the same reason, this participant also rated Swedish furniture highest as he had never bought furniture from any other country. He described his questionnaire rating therefore as follows "I don't have strong opinions on things I don't know or I haven't experienced myself. So I rated stuff rather in the middle when I didn't experience the product myself".

Another male Swedish respondent explained why he viewed Danish products as most favorably apart from products manufactured in his own country: "If I had the choice between Norwegian and Danish products, I would rate stuff higher from Norway, as they are richer and they can afford to produce higher quality products. This particularly seems important in case of airlines and fashion clothing." He further mentioned: "Denmark just has a wider variety of products. Also Sweden views Norway more as a competitor than Denmark. In the last 50 years Norway and Sweden always stood in competition - economically and historically...Norway just has a shorter tradition of being a market economy, that's why they just have 3 cheeses, chocolates...They always have been to Sweden for shopping as the selection was so much bigger." Contrary, another Swedish male respondent stated that in case of his highest ratings, after ratings for his home country, he was always drawn between Denmark and Norway. Regarding beer and cheese he voted Denmark a more favorably producer, in case of chocolate and furniture he saw a tie situation.

Another male Swedish respondent named that he also rated products rather in the middle, in case he did not buy them himself. After high product ratings from his own country, the Swede admitted that he judged products from Norway very favorably. Comparing his ratings for Norwegian and Swedish products revealed: "I would overall rate the quality higher from Norway because it feels closer to Sweden....in their mentality...Danish feel more chilled and relaxed, more southern European...I also understand the language better, I just feel that we

Swedes share some things with the Norwegians...also boarders...We share more values than Danish and Swedes do...every winter its Norway and Sweden in skiing competition. Maybe we compare ourselves more to them". The Swede reported that he had rated Norway highest in case of airlines and fashion clothing. Due to Carlsberg, he described Denmark as favorably beer producer, but also as great chocolate and cheese manufacturer. "Danish are pretty good in cheese and chocolate...you consider them as good food producers. Swedes have always travelled to Denmark for beer."

Another female Swedish respondent explained: "Norway is rich, has a good reputation...I don't think they are famous for a lot of things except for salmon, oil and woolen products...sporty clothes. I might have rated Norway slightly higher than Sweden in case of airlines as I heard of the rumor that the flights are cheaper and of good quality. In general I believe Sweden to be the best producer for all other investigated products. However, I evaluated German beer very high, and for some reason I rated Swiss chocolate very high."

#### 3.4 Stimuli

In order to make the questionnaire survey more descriptive and vivid, every product category and country-of-origin was illustrated through a picture. To rate the three dependent variables in relation to a single product category and a specific country-of-origin, two pictures were positioned at the top right side of the page in Part C. Country-of-origin was visualized through the colored national flag of each country. Furthermore, every product category was demonstrated by a color picture. While it appeared easy to picture neutral airlines, beer, chocolate and cheese, it was difficult to neutrally visualize the left two product categories. In order to visualize a neutral airline carrier, a white airplane without logo was shown in front of a blue sky. Beer was demonstrated through a picture with four beer jugs, held by people who were drinking a toast. Chocolate was simply illustrated through a milk chocolate bar, covered in black wrapping with golden foil. Lastly, the picture demonstrating cheese showed different types of cheese, some crackers, nuts and grapes. To visualize rather neutral furniture, a picture showed an open light room with a modern bed, walk-in-closet and stool. Fashion clothing was the only product category, which was demonstrated through two pictures. In each picture, three models were fashion clothes for young men and women. Due to different tastes in style, the chosen pictures for furniture and fashion clothing might have led to a positive or negative response within a participant. If they did not reflect the taste of the participant, the influence on the product evaluation might be of a negative nature. In contrast, if a participant particularly liked the chosen visualization it might have had a positive impact. As the author is the same age range as most of the participants, the chosen pictures appeared to be a reasonable choice. The questionnaire for each participant group showed exactly the same pictures. On purpose, brands and logos were left out in order to avoid any additional influence. The questions related to a participant's socio-demographic background, as well as the questions concerning each respondent's level of ethnocentrism, were asked without any additional stimuli usage. Each respondent group answered the questionnaire without any given incentive.

## 3.5 Participants

The empirical part of the thesis involved a total of 100 respondents, namely 50 Swedish- and 50 German participants. In the Swedish respondents group, the female quota consisted of 60%. In comparison the German respondents group covered a female ratio of 58%. The participants of this thesis are mostly consumers' who were currently studying or who have been studying. In order to reach 50 German respondents, the author sent out messages via Facebook and Email. The message asked each addressee, if he/she would be willing to participate in a 20 min. questionnaire in English, which dealt with questions concerning consumer behavior. As each participant received a single email and no group acquisition was operated, the return rate in the German sample was over 70% after the first round of send out messages. Some respondents also offered to distribute the questionnaire additionally to friends and family. Therefore the number of 50 German respondents was reached within 10 days. The acquisition of Swedish respondents was more time-consuming. Apart from direct Facebook messages, which were sent out by the thesis author, two Swedish friends of the author posted a text on their Facebook wall in order to gain attention for the thesis project and additional help through their friends. The acquisition appeared to be more difficult and time consuming, as the number of 50 Swedish participants firstly was reached after 18 days. Every participant took part at the questionnaire survey by choice and without a monetary incentive. The final data was analyzed on the basis of standard statistical packages (SPSS).

## 3.6 Data Analysis

To answer hypothesis one and two, the data of the quantitative questionnaire was tested by the means of a t-test. To gain answers for hypothesis three, a simple comparison of the mean values within each study sample in relation to the two variables- quality perception and purchase intention- was exercised. The choice of a t-test with independent samples as analysis method for hypothesis one and two will be explained in the following paragraph:

Generally speaking, the t-test tries to apply the results of a particular study sample (n) to the population. In this survey, a t-test with independent samples was executed. An independent sample t-test does not test if a mean value reaches a specific magnitude, but rather compares the mean values of two independent study samples in relation to the population. The tested mean values (M) have to origin from two independent study samples. A typical case for an independent sample t-test illustrates the following example: In order to investigate if a certain mean character trait varies significantly between men and women, an independent sample t-test needs to be applied. The mean values of the same variable ('character trait') are compared within two independent study samples ('men' and 'women'). To prohibit any additional influence, participants are randomly picked for each sample group. As the example shows, a t-test with independent samples, is also the correct statistical method to investigate if through an observed difference between the mean values of the three variables- quality perception, price evaluation and purchase intention- significant conclusions can be drawn from the two study samples- Swedes and Germans- in relation to their population (Brosius 1998).

In order to reach significant statistical conclusions, certain aspects have to be met: First, the study sample needs to be part of the population. Second, the study sample has to be picked randomly. In general, it is difficult to meet the second requirement as send out questionnaires will always be answered by only certain people. Therefore some parts of the population are always excluded, which can lead to blurred results. Statistically, the level of significance is clarified by the p-value (p). The p-value defines the probability of erroneously refusing a true null hypothesis. In case the p-value is equal or smaller than the significance level, the null hypothesis will be rejected. In order words, a significant difference exists between the two investigated study samples in relation to the population. A test result is highly significant with p  $\leq 0.01$ , with p  $\leq 0.05$  the result is significant and with p  $\leq 0.10$  it is slightly significant (Mooi & Sarstedt 2011).

Further, the standard deviation (SD) is an important value which is always specified in relation to the mean value. The standard deviation is also called the standard mistake of the sample. It defines how much dispersion exists from the mean value. In case the standard deviation is low, a small dispersion from the mean value is found. This indicates that the mean value of the study sample gives a better picture of the basic population. Contrary, if the standard deviation is high, the data results are spread out over a large range of values (Brosius 1998). In order to draw conclusions about the basic population on the basis of the study sample's mean values, t-value (T) and degrees of freedom (df) are also mentioned as statistical factors.

## 3.7 Reliability and Validity

Joppe (2000) in Golafshani (2003) defines reliability as value, which reflects the consistency of results and an exact representation of the entire study population. A research appears reliable, if the same results would be reached in a similar study replication. Therefore, if the findings of a research are replicable and repeatable, the study possesses reliability (Joppe 2000 in Golafshani 2003). Kirk and Miller (1986) in Golafshani (2003) emphasize three different forms of reliability within quantitative research: First, the extent to which study results stay the same, given they are repeatable; second, the stability of findings over time; third, the degree of similarity among research results within a given period of time.

This study possesses reliability due to its clear empirical analysis and its base on theoretical findings. On the basis of reliable, proven and extensive research within the literature field regarding country-of-origin and ethnocentrism, similar terms and concepts have been applied within this study (Joppe 2000 in Golafshani 2003). As previously described, a shortened 10-item CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987) has been used in relation to Hypothesis one. As this scale is composed out of ten connected questions, it is possible to measure its reliability by the means of Cronbach's Alpha. The greater a Cronbach's Alpha, the better is the validity of the overall scale. A Cronbach's Alpha of at least 0,8 indicates that the items of a scale can be added well together (Brosius 2011). As the CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987) in this study reaches a Cronbach's Alpha of  $\alpha$ = 0,891, it appears as great measurement scale. The previous arguments lead to a high degree of consistency within this study. In practice

consistency is developed through relevant survey questions in relation to the theory and a degree of familiarity of the respondents with the product categories as well as the country-of-origins. An open question at the end of the questionnaire gave all participants an additional opportunity for feedback and comments.

Validity describes if the research of a study truly measures what it is supposed to measure or how high the credibility of the research results is (Joppe 2000 in Golafshani 2003). Wainer and Braun (1988) in Golafshani (2003) point out that 'construct validity' defines the general term of validity within quantitative research. Construct refers hereby to the initial concept which defines hypotheses and research questions that determine the gathered data and the way it is gained. The concepts of reliability and validity are directly connected given that an unreliable research can never be considered valid (Mooi & Sarstedt 2011).

In this study, a questionnaire send out via Email was used as research method. Quantitative research on the basis of a questionnaire appears as active tool to collect reliable data using validated research questions in order to prove or disprove the study hypotheses. Ensuring that the items in this survey investigated the named hypotheses, an examination of socio-demographic background information, a measurement of ethnocentrism by the reliable proven CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987) and an investigation of dependent variables which had already been tested in relation to country-of-origin, but in a different context, were applied. As a result, theory was constantly utilized within the questionnaire, which in return increased the validity of the survey.

## 4. The study sample

#### 4.1 Gender distribution

Within both participant groups, the majority of respondents were females. Within the Swedish sample, 30 (60%) participants were female and 20 (40%) respondents were of male gender.

In the German respondents group the age distribution appeared to be a replication of the Swedish sample. 29 (58%) participants were of female gender and 21 (42%) participants constituted the male respondents group.

## 4.2 Age distribution

The second research question enquired about the participants' age. The age distribution of the Swedish respondents differed in comparison to the age of the German respondents group. The majority of the Swedish respondents- 26 (52%) in number- ranged between 20-29 years, followed by 15 (30%) participants being between 30-39 years, 4 Swedes aged 40-49 (8%) and last 5 Swedes were at an age of 50-59 (10%). The average age of a Swedish respondent therefore lay at 32,1 years.

In comparison, the average German respondent appeared to be of a younger age. 41 (82%) of the German participants were at an age range of 20-29 years, followed by a much smaller number of only 7 (14%) Germans being at an age of 30-39 years. Simply 1 (2%) German was in the age range of 50-59 years and 1 (2%) German participant was older than 60 years. The average age of a German participant ranged at an age of 27,21 years.

Fig 2: Gender distribution-Swedes

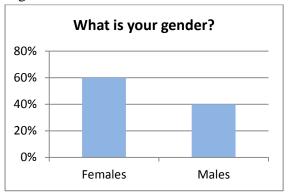


Fig 3: Gender distribution- Germans

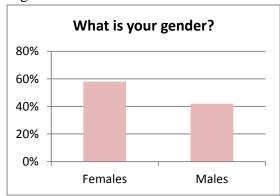


Fig 4: Age distribution-Swedes

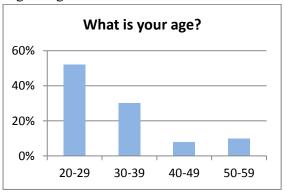
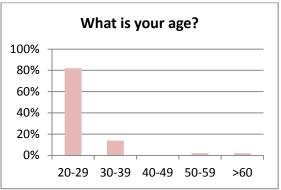


Fig 5: Age distribution-Germans



## 4.3 Educational background

The third research question inquired about educational each participant's background. Both groups showed a great similarity in their level of education. 43 (86%) of the Swedish respondents were currently studying in order to achieve a University degree or had already gained a University degree. 5 (10%) Swedes possessed an educational background with College degree and 2 Swedish participants (4%) had only finished a vocational education. In line with the Swedish respondent group the majority of German participants (42, 84%) were currently studying or had been studying towards a University degree. 3 (6%) Germans were currently studying or had already achieved a College degree. The number of 5 (10%) German respondents, who had done only a vocational education was slightly higher than in the Swedish respondent group.

## 4.4 International experience

Within the Swedish sample the greatest number of participants - 19 (38%) - had never lived abroad. This number was followed by 15 (30%) respondents, who had lived between <0-1 year overseas. Yet another 11 (22%) Swedish participants had lived over 3 years in a foreign, followed by 4 (8%) Swedes who stayed between <1-2 years abroad. Last only 1 (2%) respondent lived between <2-3 years in another foreign country. Overall, 62% of the participating Swedes of this survey gained international had varying experience by living abroad.

In comparison, the greatest group within the German sample - 22 (44%) – had gained international experience

Fig 6: Educational background-Swedes

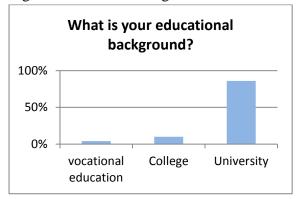


Fig 7: Educational background-Germans

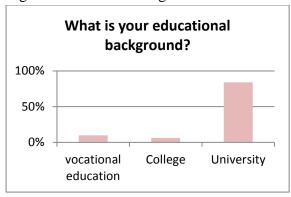


Fig 8: International experience-Swedes



Fig 9: International experience-Germans



by living between <0-1 years in a foreign country. Followed by 12 (24%) participants, who had never lived abroad. 7 (14%) Germans had lived overseas for more than 3 years, followed by 6 (12%) German participants who had lived abroad between <1-2 years. The smallest amount was formed through 3 (6%) Germans who had lived between 2-3 years overseas.

#### 4.5 Income

The majority of Swedish respondents- 17 (34%) reported to have a monthly income between 20.000-30.000 Swedish Krona after tax. This group was followed by 16 (32%) Swedes who have a monthly budget of less than 10.000 Swedish Krona after tax. The third biggest group of 13 (26%) respondents earned more than 30.000 Swedish Krona every month. The smallest group within the Swedish sample- 4 (8%) respondents- earned between 10.000-20.000 Swedish Krona after tax each month.

In comparison, the majority of Germans-20 (40%) - had a budget of less than 1.000 Euros (after tax) each month for their own disposal. The second biggest group of 15 (30%) participants- earned between 1.000-2.000 Euros each month after tax. 9 (18%) German respondents had an income of 2.000-3.000 Euros after tax every month, followed by 6 (12%) participating Germans, who earned more than 3.000 Euros every month after tax.

Fig 10: Monthly income (after tax)-Swedes

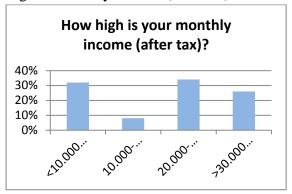
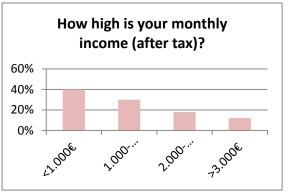


Fig 11: Monthly income (after tax)-Germans



## 5. Results

#### 5.1 The level of ethnocentrism

Hypothesis one predicts that 'Germans show greater ethnocentric tendencies when evaluating products than Swedes do'. In order to measure the first hypothesis of this study, a shortened 10-item CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987) examines the level of ethnocentrism within each respondents group. The answers of each group are tested by means of a t-test with independent samples. By adding up all 10 questions, the results of the shortened CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987) indicate that Swedish participants show a higher level of ethnocentrism (Ms=2,89; SDs=1,00) than German respondents (Mg=2,62; SDg=1,07). As the test results show no significance (T(97,567)= -1,32; p=0,191), no clear distinction can be drawn between the two respondent groups. Due to greater ethnocentric tendencies among Swedish respondents contrary to German participants, but a nonetheless non-significant result, hypothesis 1 has to be rejected.

In order to test if the four measurable categories of the CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987) separately reach significance- product availability, patriotism, employment impact and economic impact are investigated as single- items. A dummy variable is implemented in order to represent both groups. Swedes receive dummy variable 1 and Germans are illustrated through dummy variable 0. As the CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987) suggests, research question one (Only those products that are unavailable in Sweden/ Germany should be imported) and research question nine (We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country) are summarized in order to measure the importance of 'product availability' within each group's home country. The results of the t-test illustrate that product availability plays a greater role for Swedish participants (Ms=3,79; SDs=1,47) in comparison to German respondents (MG=3,32; SDG=1,58). Again, these results yield no significance (T(97, 506)=-1,54; p=0,128).

On the basis of the CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987), the importance of 'employment impact' within each research group is measured through a summing up of research question four (*It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Germany/Sweden out of jobs*), seven (*Swedes/Germans should not buy foreign products, because this hurts German business and causes unemployment*) and ten (*Swedish/German consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Swedes/Germans out of work*). The results indicate that 'employment impact' plays a greater role for Swedes (Ms=2,37; SDs=1,20) compared to Germans (M<sub>G</sub>=2,11; SD<sub>G</sub>=1,13). However, the test results doe not show significance (T(97,690)=-1,09; p=0,279).

The single-item 'patriotism' is examined through an adding up of research question 2 (Swedish/German products first, last and foremost), research question 3 (Purchasing foreign made products is un-Swedish/un-German), research question 5 (A real Swede/German should always buy Swedish/German products), and last research question 8 (It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Swedish/German products). The t-test results prove a greater extent of patriotism among Swedes (M<sub>s</sub>=2,86; SD<sub>s</sub>=0,99) contrary to Germans (M<sub>G</sub>=2,72; SD<sub>G</sub>=1,14). Again the test results are not significant (T(96,124)=-0,71; p=0,482).

As last single-item 'economic impact' is simply measured on the basis of research question 6 (We should purchase products manufactured in Sweden instead of letting other countries get rich off us). The results of the t-test portray that Swedes ( $M_s=2,74$ ;  $SD_s=1,66$ ) evaluate the item 'economic impact' in comparison to German respondents as more important ( $M_s=2,32$ ;  $SD_s=1,33$ ). The test results do not reach significance (T(93,513)=-1,39; p=0,167).

Investigating the descriptive variables within this study shows that the variable 'gender' reaches significance in relation to ethnocentrism. Within this study, females (M<sub>F</sub>=2,91; SD<sub>F</sub>=1,03) show a significantly higher level of ethnocentrism (T(87,517)=-1,88; p=0,063) in comparison to their male counterparts (M<sub>M</sub>=2,52; SD<sub>M</sub>=1,01).

## 5.2 The impact of cultural similarity on product evaluations

Hypothesis 2 predicts that 'Swedes and Germans evaluate products more favorably from countries that are similar to their own culture (Sweden-Denmark/Norway, Germany-Switzerland/Austria)'. The second hypothesis is tested on the basis of a t-test with independent samples which measures the variables- quality perception, price evaluation and purchase intention- in relation to each country. The attitudes of both cultural groups, namely Swedes and Germans, are investigated. Examining the impact of cultural similarity on product evaluations reveals only partially support for hypothesis two:

The test results reveal that Swiss products are significantly more favorably rated by Germans in relation to all three variables. Germans ( $M_G$ =5,40;  $SD_G$ =0,77) evaluate the quality of Swiss products significantly (T(91,614)=3,13; p=0,002) more favorably in comparison to Swedes ( $M_S$ =4,97;  $SD_S$ =0,59). Further, Germans perceive the price of Swiss products ( $M_G$ =5,35;  $SD_G$ =0,79) significantly higher (T(97,769)=2,39; p=0,019) than Swedes ( $M_S$ =4,98;  $SD_S$ =0,76). Last, German respondents show a significantly higher (T(97,285)=1,75; p=0,083) purchase intention for Swiss products ( $M_G$ =4,40;  $SD_G$ =0,87) in comparison to Swedish participants ( $M_S$ =4,08;  $SD_S$ =0,95).

Second, the test results indicate that Germans rate Norwegian products more favorably than Swedes do. Significance is reached in relation to the variable quality perception. Germans evaluate the quality of Norwegian products ( $M_G$ =4,64;  $SD_G$ =0,67) significantly more positive (T(97,775)=2,03; p=0,045) in comparison to Swedes ( $M_S$ =4,36;  $SD_S$ =0,71). Also, German respondents rate the price of Norwegian products ( $M_G$ =5,16;  $SD_G$ =0,87) higher in comparison to Swedish participants ( $M_S$ =5,02;  $SD_S$ =0,97), but the result is not significant (T(96,738)=0,72; p=0,472). In line, German participants show a greater purchase intention for Norwegian products ( $M_G$ =3,79;  $SD_G$ =1,12) in comparison to Swedish respondents ( $M_S$ =3,59;  $SD_S$ =0,98). This result also reaches no significance (T(96,306)=0,95; p=0,346).

Third, the test results show a higher evaluation of Austrian products by German participants in comparison to Swedes. Nonetheless, no significance is reached in relation to any variable. The results of the t-test indicate that Germans evaluate the quality of Austrian products  $(M_G=4,65; SD_G=0,87)$  greater than Swedes  $(M_S=4,54; SD_S=0,67)$ . Nonetheless, the test results do not reach statistical significance (T(92,177)=0,69; p=0,495). Germans evaluate the price of

Austrian products lower ( $M_G=4,39$ ;  $SD_G=0,68$ ) in comparison to Swedes ( $M_S=4,42$ ;  $SD_S=0,67$ ). Again, this result remains non significance (T(97,992)=-0,25; p=0,806). Finally, German respondents indeed show a greater purchase intention ( $M_G=4,02$ ;  $SD_G=1,05$ ) than their Swedish counterparts ( $M_S=3,76$ ;  $SD_S=0,92$ ), but the test result yields no significance (T(96,358)=1,34; p=0,185).

Fourth, the test results confirm that Swedish participants evaluate Danish products higher than German respondents. Significance is reached in regards to the variables quality perception and purchase intention. Swedish participants within this study judge the quality of Danish products ( $M_s$ =5,03;  $SD_s$ =0,74) slightly significantly greater (T(97,887)=-1,643; T=0,104) than German participants (T=0=1,26; T=0=1,26; T=01,26; T=01,26;

In case of German products, Germans have a highly significantly greater evaluation of their home country's products. Germans evaluate the quality of German products ( $M_G$ =5,65;  $SD_G$ =0,69) highly significantly more positive (T(97,324)=6,714; p=0,000) than their Swedish counterparts ( $M_S$ =4,69;  $SD_S$ =0,75). Further, German participants rate the price of German products ( $M_G$ =4,80;  $SD_G$ =0,72) highly significantly higher (T(97,828)=4,153;p=0,000) than Swedish respondents ( $M_S$ =4,19;  $SD_S$ =0,75). Last, Germans show a highly significantly higher purchase intention (T(97,134)=6,47; p=0,000) for German products ( $M_G$ =5,24;  $SD_G$ =0,89) contrary to Swedish participants ( $M_S$ =4,03;  $SD_S$ =0,98).

Regarding Swedish products a similar picture appears. Swedish participants rate the quality of Swedish products ( $M_s$ =5,09;  $SD_s$ =0,91) highly significantly more positive (T(95,693)=-2,908; p=0,005) than German respondents. The price of Swedish products is rated higher by Germans ( $M_s$ =4,87;  $SD_s$ =0,87) in comparison to Swedes ( $M_s$ =4,79;  $SD_s$ =0,72). This result does not yield any significance (T(94,781)=0,54; p=0,588). Last, Swedes show a highly significantly (T(97,739)=-4,811; p=0,000) greater purchase intention for Swedish products ( $M_s$ =5,20;  $SD_s$ =1,05) than German respondents ( $M_s$ =4,17;  $SD_s$ =1,10).

## **5.3** Greatest product category evaluations among Swedes and Germans in relation to each investigated country

Hypothesis three predicts that 'Swedes and Germans show a difference in evaluating for which product country-of-origin they possess the highest quality perception and purchase intention'. The following two tables show the findings in relation to hypothesis three and indicate again only partially support for this hypothesis:

Figure 12: Greatest 'quality evaluation' of German respondents in relation to each product category across all investigated countries:

	N	minimum	maximum	Mean value (M)	Standard deviation (SD)
QuaGerBee	50	4	7	6,50	0,74
QuaSwiChoc	50	5	7	6,44	0,68
QuaSwiChee	50	3	7	6,20	0,86
QuaGerAir	50	4	7	5,96	0,76
QuaGerFurn	50	3	7	5,62	0,99
QuaSweFash	50	2	7	5,56	1,13

The results of the German sample reveals that German participants rate the quality of beer produced in Germany the highest with 6,50 points. German beer yields the highest quality rating among all investigated products. On second position, Germans evaluate the quality of Swiss Chocolate highest with 6,44. Third, German respondents vote Swiss cheese greatest with 6,20 points. On fourth position, Germans judge the quality of German airlines with 5,95 points highest. Fifth, German participants believe that German furniture possesses the highest quality with 5,62 points. Last, Swedish furniture is rated highest with 5,56 points by German respondents.

Figure 13: Greatest 'purchase intention' of German respondents in relation to each product category across all investigated countries

	N	minimum	maximum	Mean value (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
PurGerBee	50	1	7	6,18	1,16
PurSwiChee	50	1	7	5,50	1,39
PurGerChoc	50	1	7	5,40	1,50
PurGerAir	50	2	7	5,36	1,24
PurSweFash	50	1	7	5,24	1,51
PurSweFurn	50	1	7	4,94	1,57

In line with their quality perception, German respondents show highest purchase intentions for German beer with 6,18 points. Germans exhibit the second highest purchase intention with 5,50 points for cheese. Third, while German participants evaluate the quality of Swiss chocolate highest, their purchase intention nonetheless appears to be highest for German chocolate with 5,40 points. In line with their quality perception, German respondents rate

their purchase intention highest for German airline tickets with 5,36 points. In line with their quality perception, Germans rate their purchase intention highest for Swedish furniture with 5,24 points. Contrary to the highest quality perception for German furniture, the purchase intention for Swedish furniture among German participants is rated highest with 4,94 points.

Figure 14: Greatest 'quality evaluation' of Swedish respondents in relation to each product category across all investigated countries:

	N	minimum	maximum	Mean value (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
QuaSwiChoc	50	3	7	5,92	1,03
QuaGerBee	50	4	7	5,70	0,79
QuaDanFurn	50	3	7	5,56	1,05
QuaSweFash	50	1	7	5,46	1,27
QuaSwiChee	50	2	7	5,40	1,05
QuaNorAir	50	2	7	5,24	1,00

Overall, Swedes evaluate the quality of Swiss chocolate highest with 5,92 points. Second, Swedish participants judge the quality of German beer highest with 5,70 points. On third position, Swedes rate the quality of Danish furniture to be highest with 5,56 points. Fourth, Swedish fashion is rated to possess the highest quality with 5,46 points among Swedish respondents. On fifth position appears Switzerland to produce the best cheese quality with 5,40 points. Last, Swedes evaluate the quality of Norwegian airlines highest with 5,24 points.

Figure 15: Greatest 'purchase intention' of Swedish respondents in relation to each product category across all investigated countries

	N	minimum	maximum	Mean value (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
PurSweChee	50	1	7	5,78	1,37
PurSweFurn	50	2	7	5,62	1,12
PurSwiChoc	50	2	7	5,34	1,41
PurSweFash	50	1	7	5,32	1,48
PurGerBee	50	1	7	5,14	1,58
PurNorAir	50	2	7	4,70	1,53

Contrary to their highest quality perception for Swiss cheese, Swedish participants rate their purchase intention highest for Swedish cheese with 5,78 points. Swedish cheese also yields highest purchase intentions among all investigated products from the Swedish participants.

Contrary to their highest quality perception for Danish furniture, Swedes show the greatest purchase intention for Swedish furniture with 5,62. In line with their quality evaluation, Swedish participants evaluate their purchase intention for Swiss chocolate highest with 5,34 points. On fourth position and in line with their quality perception, yields Swedish fashion the greatest amount of points with 5,32. Fifth and in line with their quality evaluation, German beer evokes the greatest purchase intention with 5,14 points. Last and in line with their quality perception, Swedes confirm their purchase intention highest for Norwegian airlines with 4,70 points.

#### 6. Discussion

#### 6.1 Summary of the central results

The present study extensively reveals impacts of products' country-of-origin and ethnocentrism on consumers' product evaluations. On the basis of diverse statistical tests, significant differences are found among both cultural groups: Regarding the level of ethnocentrism, the CETSCALE detects greater ethnocentric tendencies among Swedish participants in comparison to German respondents. Nonetheless, these results do not reach significance. The only finding that discloses a significant difference among Swedes and Germans is the relationship between ethnocentrism and gender. Across both cultural groups, females appear to be significantly more ethnocentric than males.

The result of the t-test with independent samples reveals that Germans significantly evaluate the quality and price of Swiss products higher than Swedes and in line show greater purchase intentions for Swiss products. Further, Germans show significantly higher quality perceptions of Norwegian products in comparison to Swedes. Finally, Germans evaluate Austrian products more favorably regarding all three variables in comparison to Swedes. No significance is found in this context. Contrary, Swedes show significantly higher quality ratings and purchase intentions for Danish products. Comparing the scores for products manufactured in each culture's home country reveals highly significant ratings among both groups. Germans perceive that goods manufactured in Germany possess a significantly higher quality and price. In line, Germans show a significantly higher purchase intention for German products in comparison to Swedes. The results of the Swedish sample confirm that Swedes have significantly higher quality perceptions and purchase intentions for Swedish products in comparison to Germans.

Comparing both cultural groups reveals that Germans rate the quality of German beer highest and therefore show greatest purchase intentions for beer produced in Germany. The same results are found among Swedes, but with slightly lower ratings. Second, Germans rate the quality of Swiss chocolate highest, but show greatest purchase intentions for chocolate manufactured in Germany. In comparison, Swedes judge both – their quality perceptions and purchase intentions – highest for Swiss chocolate. Regarding cheese, German participants evaluate their quality perception and purchase intentions highest for Swiss cheese. In comparison, Swedes judge the quality of Swiss cheese highest, but nonetheless show greatest

purchase intentions for cheese produced in Sweden. In the case of airlines, diverse results are found among both groups. While Germans exhibit the highest quality ratings and purchase intentions for German airlines, Swedish respondents rate their quality perception and purchase intentions highest for Norwegian airlines. Concerning furniture diverse results are found. While Germans rate the quality of German furniture highest, their purchase intentions are greatest for Swedish furniture. Contrary, Swedes evaluate the quality of Danish furniture highest, but show greatest purchase intentions for Swedish furniture. Last, across both groups Swedish fashion yields highest quality ratings and purchase intentions.

#### 6.2 Analysis of the study results

The first hypothesis predicts that Germans show greater ethnocentric tendencies when evaluating products than Swedes do. Based on the scores of the CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987), Swedes appear to be more ethnocentric than Germans. This result leads to a rejection of hypothesis one. Measuring all 10-items of the CETSCALE together as well as separately reveals nonetheless no significance. The finding of Swedes being more ethnocentric has to be evaluated carefully due to no-significance; having said that, literature still finds an explanation for this study result. Even though Germans and Swedes both belong to individualistic societies, which base loyalty rather on preferences than on duty and responsibility, cultural differences are still found among both societies. While Germans belong to a vertical masculine individualistic society which values competition and success highly, Swedes live in a horizontal feminine society that appreciates consensus in order to reach life balance in working and private life (cf. http://geert-hofstede.com/germany.html, http://geert-hofstede.com/sweden.html, 2013). The aspect of vertical individualism hereby portrays a need for hierarchy within German society; the horizontal Swedish individualism indicates esteem for equality (Singelis 1995, Usunier & Lee 2009). Trägårdh (1990) explains that the influence of the social democratic party since its election in the 1930s, still leads to prevailing collectivistic tendencies within Swedish society. Due to the concept of a welfare state Sweden still possesses collectivistic tendencies like equality, independency and solidarity (Heinö 2008, Trägårdh 1990). Sharma, Shimp & Shin (1995) prove a strong correlation between the CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987) and collectivism. Consumers from collectivistic societies are likely to indicate stronger ethnocentric tendencies as they consider the effect of their own actions and behavior on society more strongly, feel greater responsibility for others, and are more sensitive towards the social impact of imports (Triandis, Brislin & Hui 1988). Contrary, consumers from individualistic societies evidence less ethnocentrism as they primarily focus on their own needs (Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995). An overall rather low level of ethnocentrism across both groups can be explained by the findings of Roth and Romeo's (1992) study. The authors predict that lower levels of ethnocentrism can be explained by a high level of education, income and great cultural openness among participants. Based on the study findings, this explanation holds true for the participants of this group as the majority of respondents completed a University degree, gained great intercultural experience and earns a high income.

Looking at the study results portrays that the only variable indicating significance in correlation with ethnocentrism is gender. Across both respondents groups, females appear to be more ethnocentric than men. Literature widely supports this finding (Bruning 1997, Han 1988, Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995, Wall & Heslop 1986). While Han (1988) detects that particularly white females in business positions show great levels of patriotism, Bruning (1997) claims that females with a low income occupation, who only fly on an infrequent basis possess the highest level of national loyalty towards domestic airline carriers. In line Wall and Heslop (1986) detect that female Canadian consumers evaluate the quality of Canadian products more positively in comparison to their male counterparts. Final, Shimp and Sharma (1995) prove the positive correlation between the CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987) and gender. Triandis, Brislin and Hui (1988) view the explanation for this strong correlation not only in females higher level of patriotism and national loyalty, but also in their favor of greater social harmony, their promotion of positive feelings and a general less individualistic behavior.

The second hypothesis states that Swedes and Germans evaluate products more favorably from countries that are similar to their own culture. Based on the study results, this hypothesis can only be partially supported. The most important study results reveal that Germans evaluate Swiss (sign.) and Austrian (non-sign.) products more favorably and in line possess (sign.) greater purchase intentions for Norwegian products. In comparison Swedes rate Danish products significantly more positive than Germans. The influence of cultural similarity on product evaluations becomes visible in all cases, except for Norwegian product ratings. Findings therefore will firstly be analyzed in relation to cultural similarity; later explanations will be found for a different picture in case of Norway.

On the basis of Roose's (2010) 'index of cultural similarity', strong cultural similarities have been proven among the Scandinavian and Germanic countries. In line with the political, cultural, geographical and social homogeneity within both culture zones, literature shows that products which have a culturally similar country-of-origin are more favorably rated by consumers (Johansson, Douglas & Nonaka 1985, Ma, Wang & Hao 2012, Okechuku 1994, Wang & Lamb 1983). Okechuku (1994) finds that consumers, in case no domestic alternative is available, prefer goods which are produced by their country's main trading partner. For instance, while Canadian consumers have a preference for American- or Japanese goods, German- and Dutch consumers prefer each other's products (Okechuku 1994). Further, Watson and Wright (2000) prove in their study that highly ethnocentric consumers in New Zealand have a greater willingness to buy products from countries which are similar to their own. New Zealand consumers' also vote goods, produced in cultural similar countries as their 'first choice alternative' in case no domestic alternative exists (Watson & Wright 2000). Additionally, Wang and Lamb (1983) detect that American consumers' show a greater willingness to buy products which origin from countries that are culturally, politically and economically similar to their home country.

The results of this study further indicate that Germans contrary to Swedes show higher purchase intentions for Norwegian products. Several explanations can be found to understand this result: First, Norway belongs to one of the richest countries in the world, measured by the tenth highest GDP per capita worldwide of 55.300\$ (cf.

https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/no.html, 2013). Being one of the richest countries in the world, Norway itself evokes strong positive reactions regarding their product quality. Recognizing Norway as a product's country-of-origin might have therefore led to positive evaluations among German respondents. Evanschitzky et al. (2008) predict that Germans, due to their high level of uncertainty avoidance, generally choose products which are believed to be superior rather than to experiment. Second, Germans might evaluate Norwegian products more favorably as they do not view Norway as an economic threat. Even though Norway is a member of the European Economic Area, it decided to stay away from a European Union membership; due to this dissociation from the rest of the European members, Germans might show higher purchase intentions as they feels less threatened by Norway as competitor. Shimp & Sharma (1995) detect that consumers tend to evaluate products lower from countries which possess a competitor role for one's personal well-being or for the welfare of one's home economy (Shimp & Sharma 1995). This result might also be a reason for lower purchase intentions among Swedish respondents.

Additionally, Swedes might evaluate Danish products higher in comparison to Norwegian products, particularly grocery products, but also fashion clothing and furniture can be purchased at a lower price in Denmark compared to Norway. In line, Denmark possesses a greater variety of products and brands within the food and fashion segment which might have influenced Swedes to evaluate products more favorably from Denmark. Due to a closer geographical position, easier transportation connections and trade alliances, the availability of Danish grocery products is also higher within Swedish stores in comparison to Norwegian goods. Arla Foods for instance illustrates a Swedish-Danish alliance for dairy products that eases the trade exchange between both countries (cf. <a href="http://www.arla.com/">http://www.arla.com/</a>, 2013). Associations within consumers' minds to Denmark's well-known brewery Carlsberg (cf. <a href="http://carlsberg.com/flash.html">http://carlsberg.com/flash.html</a>, 2013) as well as famous Danish furniture (e.g. BoConcept, Carl Hansen & Søn etc.) and fashion brands (e.g. Bruuns Bazaar, Hendrik Vibskov, Day Birger et Mikkelsen etc.) might have unconsciously influenced a more favorably rating in case of Danish products contrary to Norwegian goods.

The third hypothesis states that Swedes and Germans show differences in the countries-of-origin that both cultures evaluate the most favorably regarding their quality perception and purchase intention. Based on the study results, this hypothesis can only be partially supported. Across both groups, Swedes and Germans view German beer, Swedish fashion clothing, Swiss chocolate and cheese as favorably product country matches. But only Swedish fashion and German beer reach highest quality perceptions and purchase intentions across both groups. Yagci (2011) makes the prediction that consumers use country images to understand product country matches. Further, Roth and Romeo (1992) prove that favorably and unfavorably consumer responses are based on product country matches and mismatches. Dagger and Raciti (2011) develop Roth and Romeo's (1992) finding and suggest that positive country images not only lead to positive evaluations of fitting product country matches, but also create favorably mismatches. Roth and Romeo (1992) state that a favorably product country match exists in case the image of a country is associated with important dimensions of a country. Based on the dimensions – innovativeness, design, prestige and workmanship – different countries are evaluated favorably in regards to the manufacturing of certain goods

(Roth & Romeo 1992). While Germany might evoke feelings of robustness and great workmanship, a country like France might be viewed as luxury design manufacturer (Roth & Romeo 1992, Usunier & Lee 2009). Despite great quality ratings for Swiss chocolate and cheese, Germans still rate their purchase intention higher for German chocolate as well as Swedes value their willingness to buy Swedish cheese greatest. An explanation can be found in simply greater availability of domestic products and lower price perceptions for domestically produced goods. The highest evaluation of Norwegian airlines by Swedes and German airlines by Germans, indicate that country-of-origins are associated with certain brands (e.g. Lufthansa, Air Berlin) (Okechuku 1994).

#### **6.3** Implications for intercultural communication strategies

Technological advancement such as internet and satellite television significantly increases mass media and the reach of consumers all over the world. The appearance of worldwide advertising media opens communication between culturally and geographically distinctive parts of the world, for instance southern Europe and Northern Africa or Western and Eastern Europe. Additionally, it opens markets to communicate products within culturally, politically and economically similar markets, like Scandinavia or Germanic Europe. Thus in this new international marketing communication field, advertising communication strategies need to pay attention to cultural similarities as well as differences in regards to advertising communication strategies (Usunier & Lee 2009).

Advertising has a strong cultural connection as it is largely based on language and communication. Language and images are the strongest signals when communicating a product to a new audience. The example of Polaroid demonstrates that not every company is successful when communicating a new product based on its own cultural values, beliefs and attitudes in another foreign country (Usunier & Lee 2009). In the 1970s Polaroid communicated its new cameras via television and print advertisements in the European market. This strategy had been successful in the United States, but within the European market campaigns failed to raise attention for Instant Photography. After changing its communication strategy, Polaroid gained great success through its European campaigns which were based on the communication strategies of Polaroid Switzerland. Polaroid Switzerland recognized the success of campaigns highlighting the functional uses of Instant Photography as a way to communicate with friends and family (Kashani 1989). Contrary, the example of Toyota illustrates that communication pitfalls might challenge a products' implementation and as a result hinder the success of adaptation processes to foreign cultures. In 2004 Toyota introduced the new SUV Land Cruiser to the Chinese Market through a print image of a Land Cruiser which was towing an unbranded truck. This Land Cruiser evoked a strong linkage to the East-West brand Chinese-military truck. Chinese press therefore depicted Toyota to be arrogant as it portrayed the Chinese government as incompetent (Li, Fengru & Shooshtari 2006).

The above mentioned examples illustrate that in order to communicate a product successfully in a foreign market, advertising communication strategies have to consider a variety of

cultural aspects. Below Figure 16 illustrates advertising communication strategies as vocal construct which is influenced through two main aspects – the decision maker's country and the foreign country where the product will be implemented and communicated. Further, advertising communication strategies have to consider the category of the product, a product's country-of-origin, product country fit as well as socio-demographic aspects of the target group.

First, marketing communication goals need to be defined in regards to cultural values, beliefs and practices of the decision maker's country. For instance if the concept of Disneyland is applied to any European country, marketing communication experts need to pay attention to American culture, their expectations and practices. While Americans might favor a direct way of assertive, performance oriented communication, their product also needs to sell successfully within other foreign countries, e.g. France (Usunier & Lee 2009). Equally important therefore appear successful communication strategies in regards to the cultural values of the foreign country, where the product will be implemented and communicated. In 2003 Diehl, Terlutter and Weinberg conduct one of the first research studies, investigating the influence of culture on international advertising communication strategies. Diehl, Terlutter and Weinberg (2003) investigate the impacts of different communication strategies in relation to collectivistic (e.g. China) and individualistic (e.g. Germany) societies. Their findings reveal that communication strategies which emphasize individualistic cultural values are successful both in China and Germany. Especially consumers with an individualistic cultural background (e.g. Germans) evaluate print advertisement, reflecting individualistic cultural values, more favorably (Diehl, Terlutter & Weinberg 2003).

In this context the GLOBE study represents a contemporary intercultural research study which outlines a possibility to apply different communication strategies to promote products successfully depending on the cultural values, beliefs and practices of diverse societies (cf. http://www.grovewell.com/pub-GLOBE-dimensions.html, 2013). The first application of the GLOBE study in relation to international advertising communication strategies is conducted in 2005 by Terlutter, Mueller and Diehl. The dimension of 'assertiveness' is examined "since assertive messages seem to be an appeal commonly employed in commercial messages" (Terlutter, Diehl & Mueller 2006, p. 435). Assertiveness is visualized in advertisement through strong outstanding characters representing energy, power and success e.g. Serena Williams for Nike (Terlutter, Diehl & Mueller & Diehl 2006). Terlutter, Mueller and Diehl (2005) investigate culturally different perceptions of assertiveness in advertisement among German, American, English and French consumers. The study results indicate that all four countries vary in their perception and evaluation of advertisement that reflects assertive appeals; this clearly reflects different assertiveness levels within each society. Advertisement communication strategies which incorporate a certain level of assertiveness thus need to adapt to different consumer cultures. Results suggest, "in assertive markets, stronger assertive cues may be required if consumers are to perceive the ads as assertive in nature. In less assertive countries more subtle cues may be sufficient to obtain the same level of perceived assertiveness" (Terlutter, Diehl & Mueller 2006, p. 436).

A further study among American, German, French, Spanish and Thai consumers reveals the impacts of the cultural dimension 'performance orientation' on advertisement communication

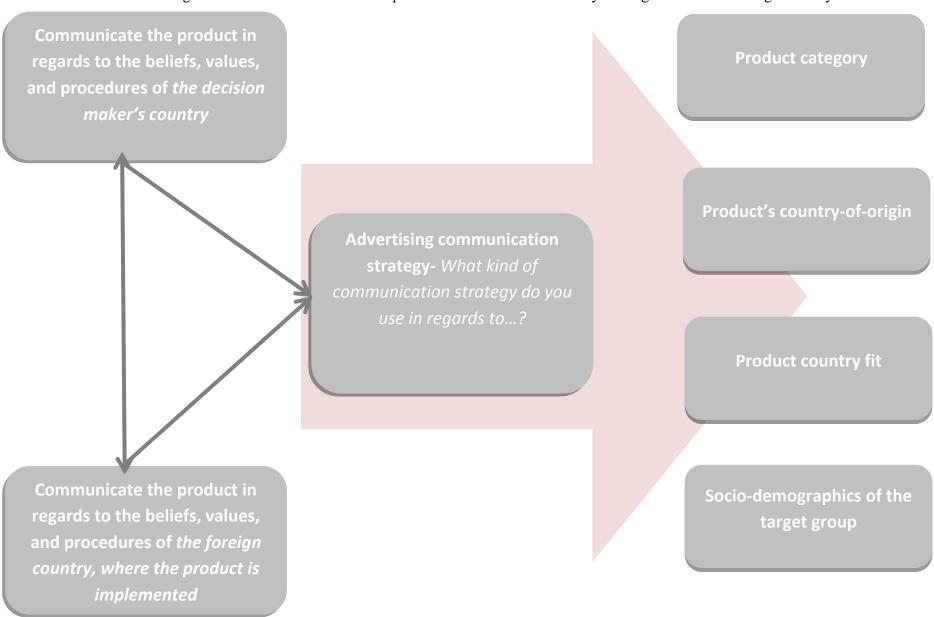
strategies (Diehl, Terlutter & Mueller 2008). As a standardized communication stimulus is likely to be perceived differently among consumers from varies cultural backgrounds the dimension of performance orientation is tested in regards to the individual and societal level of performance orientation within different cultures.

The results suggested that incorporating performance oriented advertisement communication strategies within advertisement does positively influence consumer evaluations. Nonetheless, responses reveal that cultures perceive communication strategies, reflecting performance orientation, differently. Consumers from less performance oriented cultures perceive communication strategies incorporating performance orientation stronger and vice versa. Therefore, communication strategies, integrating different levels of performance orientation, need to adapt to cultural different markets in order to be successful (Diehl, Terlutter & Mueller 2008).

Applying the influence of Swedish and German culture on advertising communication strategies reveals the following results: Communication strategies highlighting individualistic cultural values seem to be a guardant for success within both cultures. Even literature (Heinö 2008, Singelis et al. 1995, Trägårdh 1990) suggests certain collectivistic tendencies among Swedish society, Germany and Sweden both represent individualistic societies which react positively on communication strategies highlighting individualistic cultural values. Based on Hofstede's masculinity and femininity index, Germany appears to be more masculine and in line an assertive culture in comparison to a rather feminine Swedish culture. Communication strategies within the German market therefore need to be more assertive in order to gain attention and success; contrary more subtle assertive cues are needed within Swedish print advertising (Terlutter, Diehl & Mueller 2006). Again Hofstede's masculinity/femininity index proves that performance orientation is higher within German than within Swedish society. As societies which are less performance orientated react stronger towards communication strategies including performance oriented cues (Terlutter, Diehl & Mueller 2006), communication strategies within Swedish advertisement should be less performance oriented contrary to print advertisement within German culture.

Regarding the communication of a particular product within different cultures, Figure 16 illustrates that advertising communication strategists additionally have to deliberate whether the product they would like to communicate is culture-bound or not. Culture-bounds arise due to "the peculiar qualities intrinsic to the encounter between things and people" (Usunier & Lee 2009, p. 107). On the basis of this thesis, the culture-bound aspect of the following products – airline tickets, beer, furniture, fashion, chocolate and cheese – is examined. The level of a product's culture-bound depends on its relation to the physical environment which in return determines the local material culture such as climate, flora, fauna, housing, artifacts and population. Furniture has a greater culture-bound than consumer electronics as it is often created on the basis of local styles and manufacturing traditions. Further, furniture might be stored or inherited and therefore kept over decades.

Figure 16: How to communicate a product in relation to its country-of-origin in another foreign country?



In comparison, an MP3 player belongs along with all electronic consumer items to a culture-free object category. In general, technology has a low culture-contest as it is universally used. Besides furniture, non-durables which are related to taste, habits and customs are also culture-bound. Thus fashion clothing, chocolate, cheese and beer are all culture-bound. The first item on the list – airline tickets – nonetheless appears to be not culture-bound. Even Germans and Swedes evaluate their quality perception and purchase intention highest for tickets from airline carriers that are similar to their own culture, airline tickets are culture-free objects. Airline tickets have to be judged in relation to airline carriers which are manufactured based on highly technological standards without any cultural traditions. Therefore airline tickets are not discussed further in this context.

Due to an existing culture-bound for five out of six investigated products, communication strategies have to be developed in relation to cultural aspects of the product's country-of-origin. Including six industrialized nations aims for a fair comparison of the impacts of six diverse country-of-origins on consumer evaluations. Sweden, Denmark and Norway as well as Germany, Switzerland and Austria all evoke positive country images that can yield great advantages when communicating products on a new market. In this study no developing countries are included as research has continuously shown that least developed countries receive lower ratings than more developed countries (Bailey & Gutierrez De Pineres 1997, Hamin & Elliott 2006, Usunier & Lee 2009). Based on Han's finding (1989) that positive country images evoke high product quality perceptions and in line Roth and Romeo's (1992) suggestion of a strong relation between positive country-of-origins and consumer purchase intentions, the positive country-of-origins of the investigated nations have to be communicated when developing new product campaigns.

In this context nation branding illustrates the most competitive, compelling and realistic way to communicate the vision of a nation between its country and the rest of the world (Anholt 1998 in Ying 2005). Ying (2005, p.6) points out the following definition for nation branding: "Nation branding concerns applying branding and marketing communication techniques to promote a nations' image". In order to increase sales and exports, a company or organization can communicate a product's country-of-origin by using its logo, flag or country name. As this study proves, German beer overall yields great quality perceptions and purchase intentions among Swedish and German consumers. Germany should therefore aim to brand their nation when communicating German beers. By using a German flag as part of the logo, a German sounding brand or a logo visualizing German culture, country-of-origin gets more visual to the consumer and promotes sales through a positive country image (Ying 2005). Nation branding also includes place branding which incorporates the name of a country in relation to a product's brand (Ying 2005). As the study results prove, German and Swedish respondents both evaluate their quality perception and purchase intention highest for Swedish fashion. Therefore, Swedish fashion brands might communicate their products even more successfully by including the name of the country in relation to the brand logo (e.g. Weekday-100% Swedish fashion style). Another version of nation branding promotes its country image within its logo (Ying 2005). As the study results show, Swedes strongly rate their quality perception and purchase intention highest for Norwegian Airlines. In reality one recognizes that Norwegian Airlines already successfully use nation branding. Norwegian Airlines manage to communicate a feeling of cultural and national identity within Scandinavia, e.g. by using images of famous Norwegians and their achievements painted on the aircrafts.

Another usage of nation branding illustrates the example of IKEA's marketing strategy to communicate products all over the world by using names like 'grimo', 'jerker' or 'slugis'. The world's biggest retailer company manages to receive great attention through identifiably product names which reflect the Swedish company image (Usunier & Lee 2009). In line, certain nations manage to evoke country image perceptions of products which in reality do not origin from the country they are claiming. Häagen-Dasz for instance clearly evokes the feeling of a Danish ice-cream brand which in reality belongs to an American ice-cream manufacturer with headquarters in Minneapolis (Usunier & Lee 2009). Applying this finding to the study results indicates that also a brand only creating a certain country image might yield great success. An Austrian chocolate bar evoking country-of-origin perceptions of Swiss origin could gain great success in the German and Swedish consumer market based on strong positive ratings of Swiss chocolate among Swedish and German consumers.

Looking at the study results, Swedes and Germans view German beer, Swiss chocolate, Swedish fashion and Swiss cheese as favorably product country matches. Retail strategies reassuring and reinforcing the positive aspect of the product category and country image should be most effective in these cases. Regarding these product country matches, communication strategies need to reflect a product's country-of-origin within the brand name or include it as information in the packaging. The study's favorably product country matches need to promote their country-of-origins as they increase consumer's willingness to buy a product due to positive attitudes towards the country-of-origin. Further, favorably product country matches possess attractive potential for manufacturing companies (Roth & Romeo 1992).

Last, communication strategies need to consider the socio-demographic background of the product's target group. Literature widely suggests the impact of socio-demographics on product evaluations and in line the strong correlation between gender and ethnocentrism (Bruning 1995, Shimp, Sharma & Shin 1995, Wall & Heslop 1971). Significantly higher results on the CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987) prove that Swedish and German females are more ethnocentric than their male counterparts. This is an important finding for future communication strategies as products should be communicated differently towards a female target group. Particularly domestically-produced products gain a great advantage if promoted towards a female target group. 'Buying domestic' campaigns might be effective in case they communicate a 'right-thing-to-do-feeling'. In addition, companies can use this finding to communicate products towards a female target group by emphasizing the 'locally-produced' aspect within campaigns. Also foreign companies can use this knowledge and emphasize domestic manufacturing (e.g. Honda emphasizing 'American-made' Honda Accords) (Okechuku 1994). Communication strategies stressing national pride or stereotypical images associated with a country (e.g. design for France) should be most successful (Dagger & Raciti 2011).

#### 6.4 Limitations and future research

The results of this study clearly prove the impact of country-of-origin and ethnocentrism on consumers' product evaluations. The favorably influence of cultural similarity on consumers' product evaluations is also confirmed in this context. The results of this study provide some interesting findings for intercultural communication experts and marketing managers. However, due to several limitations the findings of the current study have to be viewed with caution. Conducting a study based on 50 respondents from each cultural group raises the question of how valid the received information is. A greater sample size would increase the generalizability of the findings. Further, the participants in this study do not represent the average consumer within each culture. As the average consumer in the current study ranges at an age of 27 years in the German sample and 32 years in the Swedish sample, the findings have to be interpreted in relation to a rather young respondents group. With more than 90% of the respondents in each cultural group currently studying or already achieving a University degree, the educational background of the study participants appears to be rather high compared to the general society. In 2012 the number of students graduating in Germany lay at ar. compared to 20% of graduating students http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=educ enrl5&lang=en, 2013). Further, having a study sample of mainly students influences the financial situation of the respondents as students are not in a position to purchase every product they wish for. In line, also the international experience of the study sample appears to be rather high with 75% of the German sample and 60% of the Swedish sample living overseas for up to 3 years. In comparison to the average consumer within each culture these socio-demographic results additionally limit the generalizability of the findings.

Regarding the chosen pictures of the questionnaire, the taste of the consumers' might have influenced their ratings. While it appears easy to find neutral pictures representing airlines, beer, chocolate and cheese; the questionnaire pictures for furniture and fashion clothing exhibit a certain design and style which might not have reflected the taste of every study participant. The influences of the chosen pictures on participant responses or opinions have not been considered and therefore represent a limitation. Further, the chosen product categories might have influenced the ratings in relation to each country-of-origin. Results might therefore either be more or less favorably if other product categories would have been chosen in relation to the investigated countries. This also raises the question if products have been rated more or less favorably based on the gender of the participants. As the product beer appears to be rather a masculine product ratings might have been greater from male participants than from female respondents. Further, in case a consumer does not like the taste of a certain product (beer, chocolate, and cheese) the rating might have been influenced through a simple dislike against the product. The same holds true for another choice of countries in relation to the product categories. The results might have greatly varied in case other countries would have been investigated in the current study. A certain product countryfit might have influenced the ratings as well. Due to great product country fits for the (chocolate-Switzerland, German-beer, Swedish-fashion, products/countries furniture) these countries might have been evaluated more favorably compared to the same products manufactured in countries like Norway or Austria.

Providing a questionnaire in English for both cultural groups might have influenced answers as misunderstandings are more likely to occur in languages other than one's mother tongue. Last it has to be mentioned that even if the current study does not involve any kind of brands in relation to the investigated country-of-origins or products, country-brand associations' do exists in consumers' minds. For instance a country like Germany will always evoke brand associations to Porsche, BMW, Audi or Volkswagen in case cars from Germany have to be evaluated (Yagci 2001). The same holds true for Sweden and furniture – IKEA will always symbolize Swedish furniture. Associated country-brand images within consumers' minds might have unconsciously influenced ratings positively or negatively in relation to certain country-product study evaluations.

The findings of the current study present several future research opportunities. Similar studies should consider a different range of products, investigating if the current results are confirmed in case of a diverse range of product-country fits. The question if a great product-country fit in case of the countries Norway and Austria would lead to a diverse evaluation of these countries appears interesting. Additional products in this perspective could be salmon or sports clothing from Norway. Also consumers should range from broader socio-demographic backgrounds; firstly representing broader age categories and in line with that different educational backgrounds, income and international experiences. Monetary funding could help to reach a broader range of participants from diverse socio-demographic backgrounds. Qualitative research could be expanded and additional follow-up interviews could be conducted after the research.

#### **6.5 Conclusion**

The current thesis provides several intercultural communication opportunities based on a product's country-of-origin. The conducted empirical research proves a strong influence of country-of-origin and ethnocentrism on consumers' product evaluations. Comparing the impact of diverse country-of-origins on two culturally different groups reveals a particularly strong correlation between gender and ethnocentrism. Further, Swedes and Germans seem to evaluate products more favorably from countries which are similar to their own culture. Norwegian products however demonstrate an exclusion from this finding, as Germans exhibit significantly greater purchase intentions for products from this country-of-origin. Norway's strong country image as well as a non-existing competitor status in comparison to the German economy might be possible explanations. The thesis results indicate that overall particularly strong product country matches yield great consumer evaluations, e.g. German beer or Swedish fashion clothing. The general availability, lower prices and strong country brand associations (e.g. IKEA for Sweden) might be explanations why Swedish and German consumers still tend to purchase the domestic product even though quality ratings are higher for a foreign alternative, e.g. Germans/Swedes rate German/Danish furniture quality highest, but still both cultures prefer to buy Swedish furniture.

Due to several study limitations all results have to be viewed carefully and always in regards to a rather young participant group with great international experience, a good income and

high levels of education. Keeping these limitations in mind, the current thesis still provides interesting intercultural advertising communication opportunities: Based on the study results, female products should be communicated with the knowledge in mind that particularly this target group shows strong levels of national pride and patriotism. Emphasizing country-of-origin by communicating it directly or indirectly might gain great communication advantages in the female product market. Nation branding illustrates one way to highlight the made-in label and positive country associations. A positive country-of-origin provides a great chance for marketing communication experts to communicate a product successfully within a foreign market. However, a nation cannot be treated like any other product attribute. Instead of offering a tangible advantage, a nation's wide variety of political, geographical, economic and social aspects form a culture and a product's country-of-origin. Depending on its usage country images might evoke positive cognitive, normative and affective responses and therefore gain a great competitor advantage based on emotionality rather than a clear functional aspect.

## **Appendix**

#### **Questionnaire**



#### **Department of Applied Information Technology**

#### Dear Participant,

The following survey is conducted as Master Thesis research project from the University of Gothenburg. The aim of this questionnaire is an evaluation of different product categories depending on their country-of-origin. On the following pages, every participant will kindly be asked to answer questions related to his/her socio-demographic background, related to products manufactured in his/her home country as well as to goods produced in different countries.

#### Please imagine the following situation:

In today's world consumers purchase products which are manufactured all over the world. The products mentioned in this survey are produced in different European countries. Some of these products you might not have tried/bought so far. Therefore please try to evaluate for example the product quality of Austrian chocolate or Norwegian furniture even you might not have tried/bought it so far.

All answers will be treated anonymously and only in relation to this Master Thesis. The answers will have a practical use for consumer market research. Please try to put yourself in the above mentioned situation and answer all questions as good as you can.

Thank you very much for your participation!



PA	RT A												
1.	What is you	r gender?	Female 🗌	Male [									
2.	What is you	rage? 20-29 🗌	30-39	50-59	>60								
3.	3. What is your education? vocational education (Lehre/ yrkesutbildning)   College University												
4.	4. Have you ever lived abroad? Never \( \bigcup < 0-1  y. \( \bigcup \) < 1-2  y. \( \bigcup \) <2-3y. \( \bigcup \) >3 \( \bigcup \)												
5.	5. How high is your monthly income (after tax)? Under 1.000€  <1.000-2.000€  <												
PΑ	RT B												
	ee; 7 indicato	es = I extremely agr	a a scale from 1-7, (who ee) navailable in Germany s										
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1=extrei	mely disagree)				=extremely disagree) (7=extremely agree)								
	2. German products first, last, and foremost												
2.	German pro	oducts first, last, and	l foremost		(7=extremely agree)								
2. <b>1</b> [	·	oducts first, last, and	I foremost  4□ 5□	6 🗆	(7=extremely agree)								
1[	•			<del></del>									
1[	<b>2</b> mely disagree)		4 5	<del></del>	7								

(1=extremely disagree)

(7=extremely agree)

4. 11.15	not right to p	ourchase foreig	gn products, be	ecause it puts c	sermany out of	Jobs
1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7
ctremely di	sagree)				(7=e	xtremely agree)
5. A re	eal German sh	nould always b	uy German-ma	nde products		
1	2 🗆	3	4	5	6 🗆	7
tremely di	sagree)				(7=e	xtremely agree)
	should purcha es get rich of	-	anufactured in	ı Germany inst	ead of letting c	ther
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ctremely di	sagree)				(7=e	xtremely agree)
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 🗆	7
xtremely di	<del>_</del>				<u> </u>	xtremely agree)
8. It m	nay cost me ir	the long-run	but I prefer to	support Germa	an products	
1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7
ctremely di	sagree)				(7=e	xtremely agree)
	should buy fi hin our own c	_	untries only th	ose products t	hat we cannot	obtain
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xtremely di	sagree)				(7=e	xtremely agree)
		-	ase products m	nade in other c	ountries are re	sponsible
1_	2 🗆	3□	4	 5□	6 □	7□

(1=extremely disagree)

(7=extremely agree)

## PART C

**1** 

(1=extremely low)

**1** 

(1=extremely low)

**1** 

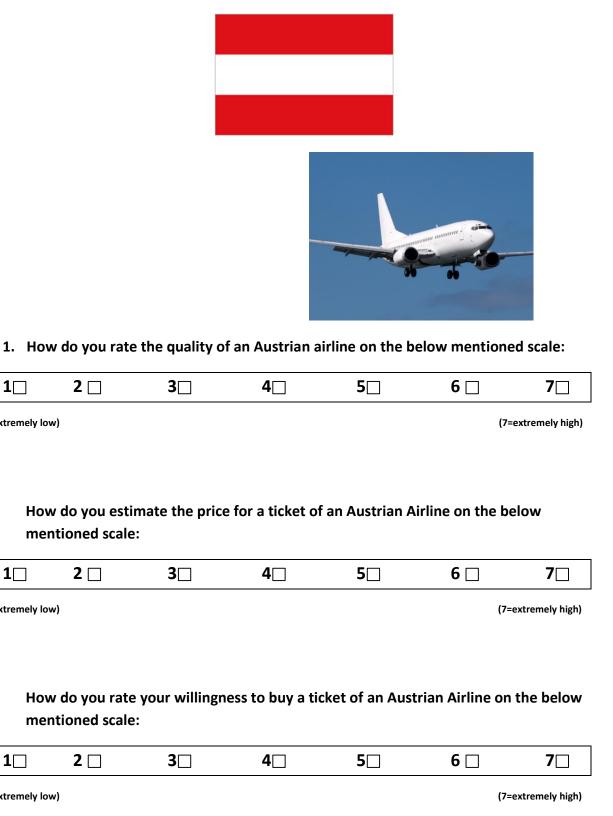
(1=extremely low)

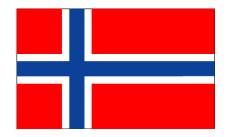
2

2

2

On a scale from 1-7 (where 1 indicates an extremely low rating, and 7 demonstrate an extremely high rating), how would you evaluate the following products manufactured in different countries:







1□ **2**  $\square$ 3□ 4□ 5□ 6 □ **7**\_ (7=extremely high) (1=extremely low) How do you estimate the price for a Norwegian beer on the below mentioned scale: 3□ **1**  $\square$ 2 □ 4□ 5□ 6 □ **7** (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you rate your willingness to buy a Norwegian beer on the below mentioned scale: 3□ **1 4** 2 5□ 6 □ **7** 

(1=extremely low)

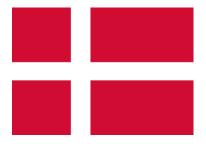
2. How do you rate the quality of a Norwegian beer on the below mentioned scale:

(7=extremely high)





3. Hov	w do you rate	the quality o	f German furni	ture on the be	low mentioned	d scale:
1	2 🗆	3□	4_	5_	6 □	7_
extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high)
Hov	w do you esti	mate the price	e for German f	urniture on the	e below mentic	oned scale:
1	2 🗆	3_	4_	5_	6 🗆	7_
extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high)
Hov scal	<del>-</del>	your willingn	ess to buy Ger	man furniture	on the below I	mentioned
1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7_
=extremely lo	)				(7-	extremely high)







4. How do you rate the quality of Danish fashion clothing on the below mentioned scale:

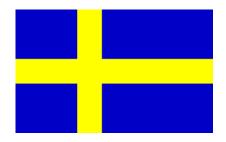
	1	2 🗆	3□	4	5□	6 □	<b>7</b> □				
(1=6	=extremely low) (7=extremely high)										
	How o	lo you estimat	e the price for	Danish fashio	n clothing on t	he below men	tioned				
	1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5_	6 □	7□				
(1=6	extremely low)					(7=extre	mely high)				
	How do you rate your willingness to buy Danish fashion clothing on the below mentioned scale:										
	1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 □	7				

(1=extremely low) (7=extremely high)



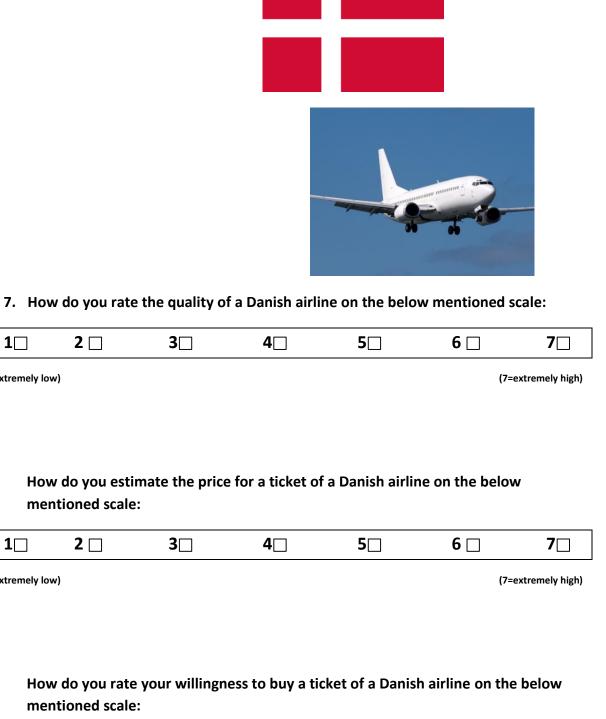


<b>1</b>	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	<b>7</b> □
extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high
Hov	w do you esti	mate the price	e for Swiss cho	colate on the b	pelow mention	ed scale:
1 🗆	<b>2</b> —	<b>3</b> —	4	5□	<b>6</b> $\square$	7
1	2 🗆	3□	4	<b>5</b>	6 □	7
Extremely lo		<b>3</b>	<b>4</b> U	<b>5</b>		_
extremely lo	w) w do you rate		<del>-</del>			extremely high





6. Ho	w do you rate	the quality o	f Swedish chee	ese on the belo	w mentioned	scale:
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 □	7_
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)
Hov	w do you esti	mate the price	e for Swedish c	heese on the b	pelow mention	ed scale:
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 □	7_
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)
sca	-	e your willingn	ess to buy Swe	edish cheese o	n the below m	entioned
1	2 🗆	3	4	5_	6 🗆	7
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)



**1** 

(1=extremely low)

**1** 

(1=extremely low)

**1** 

(1=extremely low)

2 🗆

mentioned scale:

2 🗆

mentioned scale:

2

3□

3□

3□

4□

**5** 

(7=extremely high)

**7**\_

6 □





8. Ho	w do you rate	e the quality o	f an Austrian b	eer on the bel	ow mentioned	scale:
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5□	6 □	7
(1=extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high)
Hov	w do you esti	mate the price	e for an Austria	an beer on the	below mention	ned scale:
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 □	7
(1=extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high)
Hov sca	-	e your willingn	ess to buy an <i>i</i>	Austrian beer o	on the below m	nentioned
1	2 🗆	3	4	5_	6 🗆	7
(1=extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high)





9. Ho	w do you rate	the quality o	f Norwegian fu	ırniture on the	below mentio	ned scale:
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 □	7_
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)
Ho sca	_	mate the price	e for Norwegia	n furniture on	the below mer	ntioned
1	2 🗆	3	4_	5_	6 🗆	7
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)
	w do you rate ntioned scale	-	ess to buy Nor	wegian furnitu	ire on the belo	w
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 □	7
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)







10. How do you rate the quality of German fashion clothing on the below mentioned scale: 2 🗆 3□ 4□ 5□ 6 □ **1**□ **7**\_ (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you estimate the price for German fashion clothing on the below mentioned scale: **1** 3□ 5□ 2 4□ 6 □ 7□ (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you rate your willingness to buy German fashion clothing on the below mentioned scale: **1** 2 3□ 4□ 5□ 6 □ **7**\_

(1=extremely low)

58

(7=extremely high)





#### 11. How do you rate the quality of Swedish chocolate on the below mentioned scale: **1** 2 3□ 4 **5** 6 □ **7** (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you estimate the price for Swedish chocolate on the below mentioned scale: **2** 🗌 3□ 5□ **1** 4 6 □ **7**\_ (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you rate your willingness to buy Swedish chocolate on the below

3□ 4□ (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high)

5□

6 □

mentioned scale:

**2**  $\square$ 

**1** 

**7**\_





12. How do you rate the quality of Swiss cheese on the below mentioned scale: **2**  $\square$ 3□ **1** 4□ 5□ 6 □ **7** (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you estimate the price for Swiss cheese on the below mentioned scale: **1 2**  $\square$ 3□ 4□ **5** 6 □ 7□ (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you rate your willingness to buy Swiss cheese on the below mentioned scale: **1** 3□ 2 🗆 4□ **5** 6 □ **7** 

(1=extremely low)

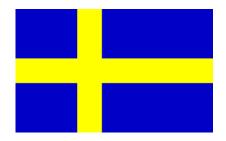
(7=extremely high)





13. How do you rate the quality of a German airline on the below mentioned scale:

1_	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7_
extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high
	w do you esti ntioned scale	_	e for a ticket of	<sup>f</sup> a German Air	line on the belo	ow
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5□	6 □	7_
extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high
	w do you rate ntioned scale	_	ess to buy a tio	cket of a Germ	an Airline on th	ne below
1	2 🗆	3	4	5_	6 🗆	7
extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high)





## 14. How do you rate the quality of a Swedish beer on the below mentioned scale:

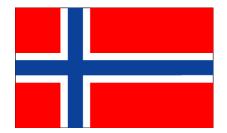
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 □	7
extremely low	)				(7=	extremely high)
How	do you esti	mate the price	e for a Swedish	beer on the b	elow mentione	ed scale:
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 □	7_
extremely low	)				(7=	extremely high)
How scale	-	your willingn	ess to buy a Sv	wedish beer on	the below me	ntioned
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 □	7
-ovtromoly low	1				17-	ovtromoly high)





## 15. How do you rate the quality of Swiss furniture on the below mentioned scale:

1	2 🗌	3	4	5	6 🗆	/
extremely low	)				(7=	extremely high
How	do you esti	mate the price	e for Swiss furr	niture on the b	elow mentione	ed scale:
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 🗆	7
extremely low	)				(7=	extremely high
How scale		your willingn	ess to buy Swi	ss furniture on	the below me	ntioned
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5	6 □	7
extremely low	)				(7=	extremely high







# **16.** How do you rate the quality of Norwegian fashion clothing on the below mentioned scale:

	1	2 🗆	3∐	4	5∐	6 🗆	/			
(1=	extremely low	<i>ı</i> )				(7=	extremely high)			
		do you esti	_	e for Norwegia	n fashion cloth	ing on the belo	ow			
	1	2 🗆	3□	4_	5□	6 □	7			
(1=	extremely low	<i>ı</i> )				(7=	extremely high)			
	How do you rate your willingness to buy Norwegian fashion clothing on the below mentioned scale:									
	1_	2 🗆	3□	4_	5_	6 □	7			
(1=	=extremely low) (7=extremely high)									

64





#### 17. How do you rate the quality of Austrian chocolate on the below mentioned scale: 3□ **1 2** $\square$ **5** 6 □ 4□ **7**\_ (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you estimate the price for Austrian chocolate on the below mentioned scale: **1** 3□ 4□ 5□ **2** $\square$ 6 □ **7** (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you rate your willingness to buy Austrian chocolate on the below mentioned scale:

4□

5□

6 □

**1** 

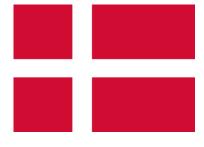
(1=extremely low)

2

3□

**7** 

(7=extremely high)





## 18. How do you rate the quality of Danish cheese on the below mentioned scale:

1	2 🗌	3	4	5∐	6 □	7
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)
Ho	w do you esti	mate the price	e for Danish ch	eese on the be	elow mentione	d scale:
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 □	7□
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)
Hov sca	_	e your willingn	ess to buy Dar	nish cheese on	the below mer	ntioned
1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7□
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)





19. How do you rate the quality of a Swedish airline on the below mentioned scale:

1	2 🗆	3□	4	5□	6 □	7
xtremely lov	w)				(7=	extremely high)
	v do you esti ntioned scale	=	e for a ticket of	a Swedish Air	line on the bel	ow
1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7
xtremely lov	w)				(7=	extremely high)
	v do you rate ntioned scale	-	ess to buy a tio	cket of a Swed	ish Airline on t	he below
1_	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 □	7_





20. How do you rate the quality of a German beer on the below mentioned scale:

	1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7□
1=6	extremely lov	w)				(7=	extremely high)
	Hov	v do you esti	mate the price	for a German	beer on the b	elow mentione	d scale:
	1	2 🗆	3	4	5_	6 □	7_
1=6	extremely lov	w)				(7=	extremely high)
	Hov scal	-	your willingn	ess to buy a G	erman beer on	the below me	ntioned
	1	2 🗆	3□	4_	5_	6 □	7_
1=6	extremely lov	w)				(7=extre	mely high)





# 21. How do you rate the quality of Danish furniture on the below mentioned scale:

1	2 🗆	3	4	5	6 🗆	<i>/</i>
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)
Ho	w do you esti	mate the price	e for Danish fu	rniture on the	below mentior	ned scale:
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 □	7□
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)
Ho sca		e your willingn	ess to buy Dar	nish furniture o	n the below m	entioned
1	2 🗆	3	4	5_	6 □	7_
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)



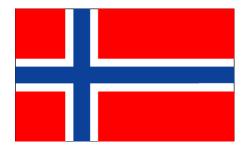




# 22. How do you rate the quality of Swiss fashion clothing on the below mentioned scale:

	1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5_	6 □	7_
(1=6	extremely low	r)				(7=	extremely high)
	How scale	-	mate the price	for Swiss fash	ion clothing or	n the below m	entioned
	1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7□
(1=6	extremely low	r)				(7=	extremely high)
		do you rate tioned scale		ess to buy Swi	ss fashion cloth	ning on the bel	ow
	1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7□

(1=extremely low) (7=extremely high)





23. Ho sca	-	the quality o	f Norwegian ch	nocolate on the	e below mention	oned
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 □	7_
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)
Ho <sup>s</sup> sca	-	mate the price	e for Norwegia	n chocolate on	the below me	ntioned
1_	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7_
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)
	w do you rate intioned scale	-	ess to buy Nor	wegian chocol	ate on the belo	ow .
1	2 🗆	3□	4	5_	6 🗆	7
(1=extremely lo	ow)				(7=	extremely high)





#### **1** 2 3□ 4□ 5□ 6 □ **7**\_ (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you estimate the price for Austrian cheese on the below mentioned scale: **1** 2 🗆 3□ 5□ 6 □ 4 **7** (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you rate your willingness to buy Austrian cheese on the below mentioned scale: **1** 2 □ 3□ **5** 4□ 6 □ **7**\_

(1=extremely low)

24. How do you rate the quality of Austrian cheese on the below mentioned scale:

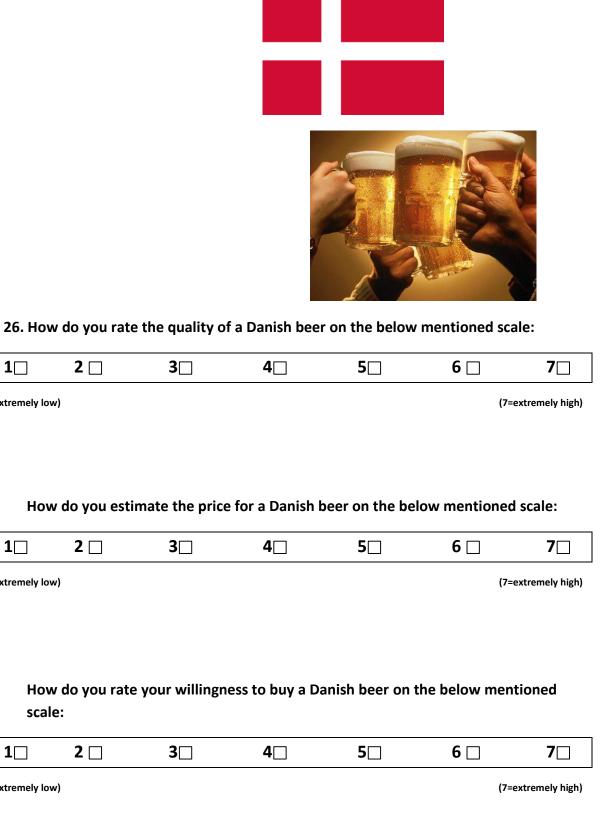
(7=extremely high)





# 25. How do you rate the quality of a Swiss airline on the below mentioned scale:

1	2 🗆	3□	4_	5_	6 □	7
extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high)
	w do you esti ntioned scale	<del>-</del>	e for a ticket o	f a Swiss airline	e on the below	
1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7_
extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high)
	w do you rate ntioned scale	_	ess to buy a ti	cket of a Swiss	airline on the	below
1	2 🗆	3	4	5_	6 🗆	7_
=extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high)



**1** 

(1=extremely low)

**1**□

(1=extremely low)

**1** 

(1=extremely low)

scale:

2

2 🗆

2

3□

3□

3□





#### 6 □ **1** 2 3□ 4□ **5** 7□ (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you estimate the price for Austrian furniture on the below mentioned scale: 2 🗆 **1** 3□ 4□ **5** 6 □ **7** (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you rate your willingness to buy Austrian furniture on the below mentioned scale: **1** 3□ 6 □ 2 4 **5 7**\_

(1=extremely low)

27. How do you rate the quality of Austrian furniture on the below mentioned scale:

(7=extremely high)







# 28. How do you rate the quality of Swedish fashion clothing on the below mentioned scale:

	1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7□		
(1=€	extremely lov	v)				(7=	extremely high)		
		do you esti	•	e for Swedish f	ashion clothing	g on the below			
	1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7□		
(1=€	1=extremely low) (7=extremely high)								
		do you rate	-	ess to buy Swe	edish fashion cl	othing on the	below		
	1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7□		

(1=extremely low) (7=extremely high)





**1** 2 🗆 3□ 6 □ 4 **5 7** (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you estimate the price for German chocolate on the below mentioned scale: **1** 2 3□ 4 5□ 6 □ **7**\_ (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you rate your willingness to buy German chocolate on the below

4□

5□

6 □

mentioned scale:

2

3□

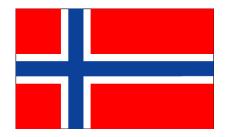
(1=extremely low)

29. How do you rate the quality of German chocolate on the below mentioned scale:

77

**7**\_

(7=extremely high)





30. How do you rate the quality of Norwegian cheese on the below mentioned scale: **2** 🗌 3□ 6 □ **1** 4□ **5 7**\_ (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you estimate the price for Norwegian cheese on the below mentioned scale: 3□ **1** 2 4 **5** 6 □ **7** (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you rate your willingness to buy Norwegian cheese on the below mentioned scale: **4 1** 2 3□ 5□ 6 □ **7** 

(1=extremely low)

(7=extremely high)





#### 31. How do you rate the quality of a Norwegian airline on the below mentioned scale: **1** 2 3□ 4□ **5** 6 □ **7**\_ (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you estimate the price for a ticket of a Norwegian Airline on the below mentioned scale: 5□ **1** 2 3□ 4□ 6 □ **7**\_ (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high)

How do you rate your willingness to buy a ticket of a Norwegian Airline on the below mentioned scale:

|--|

(1=extremely low) (7=extremely high)





3□ **4 5** 6 □ **1** 2 **7** (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you estimate the price for a Swiss beer on the below mentioned scale: **1** 3□ **4 5** 6 □ 2 🗆 **7**\_ (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you rate your willingness to buy a Swiss beer on the below mentioned

4□

**5** 

6 □

scale:

2

**1** 

(1=extremely low)

3□

32. How do you rate the quality of a Swiss beer on the below mentioned scale:

**7** 

(7=extremely high)





#### 33. How do you rate the quality of Swedish furniture on the below mentioned scale: **1** 2 3□ 4 5□ 6 □ **7** (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you estimate the price for Swedish furniture on the below mentioned scale: 3□ **1** 2 □ 4□ 5□ 6 □ **7** (1=extremely low) (7=extremely high) How do you rate your willingness to buy Swedish furniture on the below mentioned scale: 2 🗆 3□ 4□ **5** 6 □ **7**\_ **1** |

(1=extremely low)

(7=extremely high)



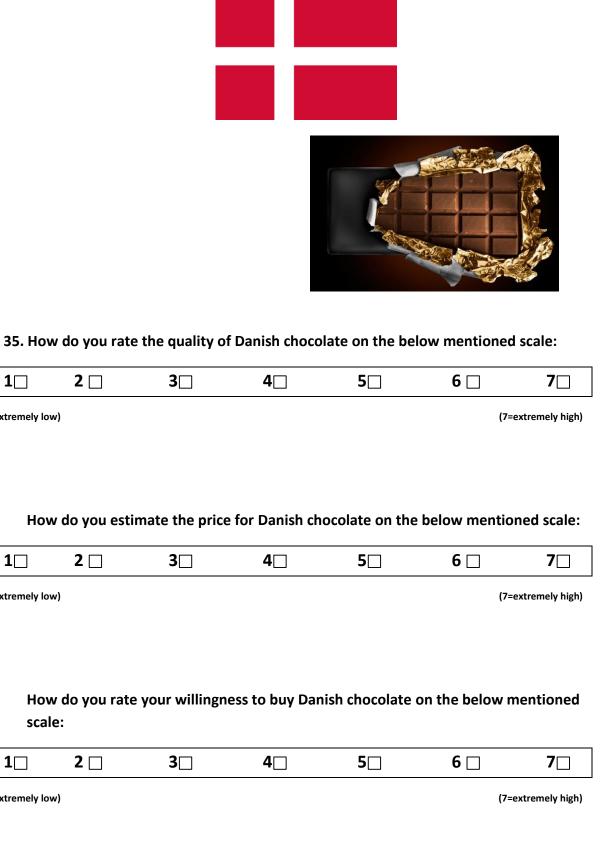




34. How do you rate the quality of Austrian fashion clothing on the below mentioned scale:

	<b>1</b>	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	<b>7</b> □
(1=6	extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high)
		v do you esti ntioned scale	•	e for Austrian f	ashion clothing	g on the below	
	1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7_
(1=6	extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high)
		v do you rate ntioned scale	•	ess to buy Aus	trian fashion c	othing on the	below
	1	2 🗆	3□	4_	5_	6 □	7_
(1=6	extremely lo	w)				(7=	extremely high)

(1=extremely low)



**1** 

(1=extremely low)

**1** 

(1=extremely low)

**1** 

(1=extremely low)

scale:

2

2 □

**2**  $\square$ 





# 36. How do you rate the quality of German cheese on the below mentioned scale:

	1	2 🗆	3□	4	5□	6 🗆	7
(1=	extremely low)					(7=	extremely high)
	How	do you esti	mate the price	for German c	heese on the b	elow mention	ed scale:
	1	2 🗆	3□	4□	5□	6 □	7□
(1=	extremely low)					(7=	extremely high)
	How scale	_	your willingn	ess to buy Ger	man cheese on	the below me	entioned
	1	2 🗆	3	4	5_	6 □	7□
(1=	extremely low)					(7=	extremely high)

If you have any additional comments or questions, please write them down here:						

Thank you very much for your patience & participation!  $\ensuremath{ \odot}$ 

# **THE END**

# **Statistics**

# **Descriptive statististics\_Swedes:**

#### Statistiken

		What is your age?	What is your education?	What is your gender?	Have you ever lived abroad?	How high is your monthly income (after tax)?
N	Gültig	50	50	50	50	50
	Fehlend	0	0	0	0	0

## What is your age?

		Häufigkeit	Prozent	Gültige Prozente	Kumulierte Prozente
Gültig	20-29	26	52,0	52,0	52,0
1	30-39	15	30,0	30,0	82,0
1	40-49	4	8,0	8,0	90,0
1	50-59	5	10,0	10,0	100,0
	Gesamt	50	100,0	100,0	

### What is your education?

		Häufigkeit	Prozent	Gültige Prozente	Kumulierte Prozente
Gültig	College	5	10,0	10,0	10,0
	University	43	86,0	86,0	96,0
	vocational education	2	4,0	4,0	100,0
	Gesamt	50	100,0	100,0	

### What is your gender?

		Häufigkeit	Prozent	Gültige Prozente	Kumulierte Prozente
Gültig	Female	30	60,0	0,08	60,0
	Male	20	40,0	40,0	100,0
	Gesamt	50	100,0	100,0	

## Have you ever lived abroad?

		Häufigkeit	Prozent	Gültige Prozente	Kumulierte Prozente
Gültig	<0-1 y.	15	30,0	30,0	30,0
	<3	11	22,0	22,0	52,0
	1-2 y.	4	8,0	8,0	60,0
	2-3 y.	1	2,0	2,0	62,0
	Never	19	38,0	38,0	100,0
	Gesamt	50	100,0	100,0	

## How high is your monthly income (after tax)?

		Häufigkeit	Prozent	Gültige Prozente	Kumulierte Prozente
Gültig	<1.000-2.000	4	8,0	0,8	0,8
	<2.000-3.000	17	34,0	34,0	42,0
	<3.000	13	26,0	26,0	68,0
	under 1.000	16	32,0	32,0	100,0
	Gesamt	50	100,0	100,0	

# **Descriptive statistics\_Germans:**

#### Statistiken

		What is your age?	What is your education?	What is your gender?	How high is your monthly income (after tax)?	Have you ever lived abroad?
N	Gültig	50	50	50	50	50
	Fehlend	0	0	0	0	0

#### What is your age?

		Häufigkeit	Prozent	Gültige Prozente	Kumulierte Prozente
Gültig	<60	1	2,0	2,0	2,0
	20-29	41	82,0	82,0	84,0
	30-39	7	14,0	14,0	98,0
	50-59	1	2,0	2,0	100,0
	Gesamt	50	100,0	100,0	

#### What is your education?

		Häufigkeit	Prozent	Gültige Prozente	Kumulierte Prozente
Gültig	College	3	6,0	6,0	6,0
	University	42	84,0	84,0	90,0
	vocational education	5	10,0	10,0	100,0
	Gesamt	50	100,0	100,0	

#### What is your gender?

		Häufigkeit	Prozent	Gültige Prozente	Kumulierte Prozente
Gültig	Female	29	58,0	58,0	58,0
1	Male	21	42,0	42,0	100,0
	Gesamt	50	100,0	100,0	

## How high is your monthly income (after tax)?

		Häufigkeit	Prozent	Gültige Prozente	Kumulierte Prozente
Gültig	<1.000-2.000	15	30,0	30,0	30,0
	<2.000-3.000	9	18,0	18,0	48,0
	<3.000	6	12,0	12,0	60,0
	under 1.000	20	40,0	40,0	100,0
	Gesamt	50	100,0	100,0	

#### Have you ever lived abroad?

		Häufigkeit	Prozent	Gültige Prozente	Kumulierte Prozente
Gültig	<0-1 y.	22	44,0	44,0	44,0
	<3	7	14,0	14,0	58,0
	1-2 y.	6	12,0	12,0	70,0
	2-3 y.	3	6,0	6,0	76,0
	Never	12	24,0	24,0	100,0
	Gesamt	50	100,0	100,0	

## Hypothese 1:

## T-Test

### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
ETHNO	,00,	50	2,6160	1,06720	,15093
	1,00	50	2,8880	,99829	,14118

## Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	T	df
ETHNO	Varianzen sind gleich	,280	,598	-1,316	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			-1,316	97,587

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit  Mittlere Standardfehle Sig. (2-seitig) Differenz r der Differenz		
ETHNO	Varianzen sind gleich	.191	-,27200	,20666
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	.191	-,27200	,20666

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit 95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz	
		Untere	Obere
ETHNO	Varianzen sind gleich	-,68212	,13812
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	-,68214	,13814

## T-Test

# Single scale product availability (PA):

### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
PA	.00	50	3,3200	1,58359	,22395
	1,00	50	3,7900	1,47458	,20854

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	т	df
PA	Varianzen sind gleich	.616	.434	-1,536	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			-1,536	97,506

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit				
			Mittlere	Standardfehle	95% Konfidenzinterv.	
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Differenz	r der Differenz	Untere	
PA	Varianzen sind gleich	,128	-,47000	,30601	-1,07727	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,128	-,47000	,30601	-1,07731	

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleich 95% Konfidenzinterv Obere
PA	Varianzen sind gleich	,13727
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,13731

## Single scale patriotism (P):

#### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
Р	,00	50	2,7150	1,13503	,16052
	1,00	50	2,8650	,98614	,13946

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	Т	df
Р	Varianzen sind gleich	1,151	,286	-,705	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			-,705	96,124

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit				
			Mittlere	Standardfehle	95% Konfidenzinterv.	
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Differenz	r der Differenz	Untere	
Р	Varianzen sind gleich	,482	-,15000	,21264	-,57197	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,482	-,15000	,21264	-,57208	

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleich
		95% Konfidenzinterv
		Obere
Р	Varianzen sind gleich	,27197
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,27208

## T-Test

# Single scale employment impact (EI):

### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
EI	.00	50	2,1133	1,13011	,15982
l	1,00	50	2,3667	1,19570	,16910

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	T	df
EI	Varianzen sind gleich	,230	,633	-1,089	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			-1,089	97,690

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit				
			Mittlere	Standardfehle	95% Konfidenzinterv.	
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Differenz	r der Differenz	Untere	
EI	Varianzen sind gleich	,279	-,25333	,23267	-,71507	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,279	-,25333	,23267	-,71508	

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleich
		95% Konfidenzinterv
		Obere
EI	Varianzen sind gleich	,20840
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,20842

## T-Test

# Single scale economic impact (EcI):

### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
Ecl	.00	50	2,3200	1,33156	,18831
	1,00	50	2,7400	1,66366	,23528

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	T	df
Ecl	Varianzen sind gleich	3,052	,084	-1,394	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			-1,394	93,513

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit				
			Mittlere	Standardfehle	95% Konfidenzinterv.	
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Differenz	r der Differenz	Untere	
Ecl	Varianzen sind gleich	,167	-,42000	,30136	-1,01803	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,167	-,42000	,30136	-1,01839	

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleich
		95% Konfidenzinterv
		Obere
Ecl	Varianzen sind gleich	.17803
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	.17839

## T-Test

## Gender (What is your gender?):

## Gruppenstatistiken

	What is your gender?	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
ETHNO	0	41	2,5220	1,00958	,15767
	1	59	2,9119	1,03426	,13465

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	Т	df
ETHNO	Varianzen sind gleich	,554	,458	-1,872	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			-1,881	87,517

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz
ETHNO	Varianzen sind gleich	,064	-,38991	,20825
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,063	-,38991	,20734

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichho 95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz	
		Untere	Obere
ETHNO	Varianzen sind gleich	-,80318	,02336
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	-,80199	,02216

### **Hypothesis 2:**

### T-Test

# Quality perception of Swiss products (QualSwiss):

#### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
QualSwiss	.00	50	5,4000	,77152	,10911
	1,00	50	4,9700	,58872	,08326

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	т .	df
QualSwiss	Varianzen sind gleich	2,175	.144	3,133	98
<b></b>	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	2,	,,,,	3,133	91,614

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test	T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz	
QualSwiss	Varianzen sind gleich	,002	,43000	,13725	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,002	,43000	,13725	

			-	
		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichhe		
		95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz		
		Untere	Obere	
QualSwiss	Varianzen sind gleich	,15764	,70236	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	.15740	,70260	

## **Quality perception of Austrian products:**

#### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
QualAus	.00	50	4,6500	,87043	,12310
	1,00	50	4,5433	,67328	,09522

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	т.	df
QualAus	Varianzen sind gleich Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,792	,376	,685 ,685	98 92,177

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz
QualAus	Varianzen sind gleich Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,495 ,495	,10667 ,10667	,15562 ,15562

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichhei 95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz	
		Untere	Obere
QualAus	Varianzen sind gleich	-,20217	,41550
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	-,20241	,41574

## **Price perception Swiss products:**

## Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
PriceSwiss	,00,	50	5,3500	,79415	,11231
	1,00	50	4,9800	,75641	,10697

## Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		-	Cinniffrance		
		ŀ	Signifikanz	- 1	df
PriceSwiss	Varianzen sind gleich	,154	,696,	2,386	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			2,386	97,769

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz
PriceSwiss	Varianzen sind gleich	,019	,37000	,15510
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,019	,37000	,15510

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichhe	
		95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz	
		Untere	Obere
PriceSwiss	Varianzen sind gleich	,06221	,67779
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,06220	,67780

## Price perception Austrian products (PriceAus):

#### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
PriceAus	,00,	50	4,3867	,67967	.09612
	1,00	50	4,4200	,67364	,09527

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	Т	df
PriceAus	Varianzen sind gleich	,030	,863	-,246	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			-,246	97,992

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz
PriceAus	Varianzen sind gleich	,806	-,03333	,13533
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,806	-,03333	,13533

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz		
		Untere	Obere	
PriceAus	Varianzen sind gleich	-,30190	,23523	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	-,30190	,23523	

#### T-Test

## Purchase intention Swiss products (PurSwiss):

### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
PurSwiss	,00,	50	4,4000	,87352	,12353
	1,00	50	4,0800	,95193	,13462

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	Т	df
PurSwiss	Varianzen sind gleich	,082	,775	1,751	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			1,751	97,285

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz
PurSwiss	Varianzen sind gleich	,083	,32000	,18271
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	.880,	,32000	,18271

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichhei 95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz		
		Untere	Obere	
PurSwiss	Varianzen sind gleich	-,04259	,68259	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	-,04262	,68262	

## T-Test

# Purchase intention Austrian products (PurAus):

#### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
PurAus	,00,	50	4,0200	1,04742	,14813
	1,00	50	3,7567	,91857	,12991

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	Т	df
PurAus	Varianzen sind gleich	,432	,512	1,337	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			1,337	96,358

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Mittlere Standardfel Sig. (2-seitig) Differenz r der Differe		
PurAus	Varianzen sind gleich	,184	,26333	,19702
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,185	,26333	,19702

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichhe 95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz		
		Untere	Obere	
PurAus	Varianzen sind gleich	-,12765	,65432	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	-,12773	,65440	

## T-Test

# **Quality perception Norwegian products (QualNor):**

#### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
QualNor	,00,	50	4,6367	,67317	,09520
	1,00	50	4,3567	,70631	,09989

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	T df	
QualNor	Varianzen sind gleich	,442	,508	2,029	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			2,029	97,775

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz
QualNor	Varianzen sind gleich	,045	,28000	,13799
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,045	,28000	,13799

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz		
		Untere	Obere	
QualNor	Varianzen sind gleich	,00617	,55383	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,00616	,55384	

## T-Test

# Quality perception Danish products (QualDen):

### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
QualDen	,00,	50	4,7833	,76949	,10882
	1,00	50	5,0320	.74380	,10519

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	T	df
QualDen	Varianzen sind gleich	,020	,889,	-1,643	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			-1,643	97,887

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test	T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz	
QualDen	Varianzen sind gleich	,104	-,24867	,15135	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	.104	-,24867	,15135	

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz		
		Untere	Obere	
QualDen	Varianzen sind gleich	-,54902	,05169	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	-,54902	,05169	

## **Price perception Norwegian products (PriceNor):**

#### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
PriceNor	,00	50	5,1567	,86858	,12284
	1,00	50	5,0233	,97416	,13777

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	Т	df
PriceNor	Varianzen sind gleich	,359	,550	,722	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			,722	96,738

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz
PriceNor	Varianzen sind gleich	,472	,13333	,18458
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,472	,13333	,18458

# Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichhe 95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz	
		Untere	Obere
PriceNor	Varianzen sind gleich	-,23295	,49962
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	-,23301	.49968

#### T-Test

Price perception Danish products (PriceDen):

## Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
PriceDan	,00	50	4,9600	,84217	,11910
	1,00	50	4,7633	,71197	,10069

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz
PriceDan	Varianzen sind gleich	,210	,19667	,15596
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,210	,19667	,15596

## Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichhei 95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz		
		Untere	Obere	
PriceDan	Varianzen sind gleich	-,11283	,50616	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	-,11294	,50627	

#### T-Test

## Purchase intention Norwegian products (PurNor):

#### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
PurNor	.00	50	3,7900	1,12325	,15885
	1,00	50	3,5900	,98297	,13901

## Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		-	e: in	_	
		F	Signifikanz	ı	df
PurNor	Varianzen sind gleich	,519	,473	,947	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			,947	96,306

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit			
			Mittlere	Standardfehle	95% Konfidenzinterv
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Differenz	r der Differenz	Untere
PurNor	Varianzen sind gleich	,346	,20000	,21109	-,21890
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,346	,20000	,21109	-,21899

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## Purchase intention Danish products (PurDan):

### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
PurDan	.00	50	4,0967	1,09890	,15541
	1,00	50	4,4667	,89214	.12617

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	T	df
PurDan	Varianzen sind gleich	1,628	,205	-1,848	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			-1,848	94,030

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz
PurDan	Varianzen sind gleich	,068	-,37000	,20018
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,068	-,37000	,20018

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mitt 95% Konfiden Diffe	zintervall der
		Untere	Obere
PurDan	Varianzen sind gleich	-,76724	,02724
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	-,76745	,02745

### T-Test

### **Quality perception German products (QualGer):**

## Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
QualGer	.00,	50	5,6500	,68698	.09715
	1,00	50	4,6867	,74660	.10559

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	Т	df
QualGer	Varianzen sind gleich	,439	,509	6,714	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			6,714	97,329

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz
QualGer	Varianzen sind gleich	.000	,96333	,14348
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	.000	,96333	.14348

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz	
		Untere	Obere
QualGer	Varianzen sind gleich	,67860	1,24807
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,67857	1,24809

## T-Test

## **Quality perception Swedish products (QualSwe):**

### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
QualSwe	,00,	50	4,5933	,77967	,11026
	1,00	50	5,0867	,91178	.12894

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	Т	df
QualSwe	Varianzen sind gleich	,714	.400	-2,908	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			-2,908	95,693

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit			
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Standardfehle Differenz r der Differenz		
QualSwe	Varianzen sind gleich	.005	-,49333	,16966	
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	.005	-,49333	.16966	

## Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit 95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz	
		Untere	Obere
QualSwe	Varianzen sind gleich	-,83002	-,15865
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	-,83012	-,15655

### T-Test

# Price perception German products (PriceGer):

#### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
PriceGer	,00	50	4,8033	,72272	,10221
	1,00	50	4,1900	,75368	,10659

## Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		_		_	
		F	Signifikanz	T	df
PriceGer	Varianzen sind gleich	,001	,977	4,153	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			4,153	97,828

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz
PriceGer	Varianzen sind gleich	,000	,61333	,14767
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,000	,61333	,14767

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichhei 95% Konfidenzintervall der	
		Diffe	
		Untere	Obere
PriceGer	Varianzen sind gleich	,32028	,90639
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,32028	,90639

### T-Test

## Price perception Swedish products (PriceSwe):

### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
PriceSwe	.00	50	4,8733	,86737	,12267
	1,00	50	4,7867	,71985	,10180

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		E	Signifikanz	T df	
PriceSwe	Varianzen sind gleich	3,699	,057	.544	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			,544	94,781

## Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit  Mittlere Standardfehle Sig. (2-seitig) Differenz r der Differenz		
PriceSwe	Varianzen sind gleich	,588	,08667	,15941
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,588	,08667	,15941

## Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichhe 95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz	
		Untere	Obere
PriceSwe	Varianzen sind gleich	-,22967	.40300
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	-,22980	.40314

### T-Test

## Purchase intention German products (PurGer):

### Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
PurGer	.00	50	5,2433	,89037	,12592
	1,00	50	4,0333	,97880	,13842

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	T	df
PurGer	Varianzen sind gleich	,000	,998,	6,466	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			6,466	97,134

#### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit			
			Mittlere	Standardfehle	95% Konfidenzinterv
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Differenz	r der Differenz	Untere
PurGer	Varianzen sind gleich	,000	1,21000	,18713	,83865
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,000	1,21000	,18713	,83861

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleich
		95% Konfidenzinterv
		Obere
PurGer	Varianzen sind gleich	1,58135
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	1,58139

### T-Test

## Purchase intention Swedish products (PurSwe):

## Gruppenstatistiken

	Dummy	N	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung	Standardfehle r des Mittelwertes
PurSwe	.00	50	4,1700	1,10271	,15595
	1,00	50	5,2047	1,04708	,14808

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		Levene-Test der Varianzgleichheit		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit	
		F	Signifikanz	Т	df
PurSwe	Varianzen sind gleich	,016	,899	<del>-4</del> ,811	98
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich			<del>-4</del> ,811	97,739

### Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichheit		
		Sig. (2-seitig)	Mittlere Differenz	Standardfehle r der Differenz
PurSwe	Varianzen sind gleich	,000	-1,03487	,21505
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	,000	-1,03467	,21505

## Test bei unabhängigen Stichproben

		T-Test für die Mittelwertgleichhe			
		95% Konfidenzintervall der Differenz			
		Untere	Obere		
PurSwe	Varianzen sind gleich	-1,46143	-,60790		
	Varianzen sind nicht gleich	-1,46144	-,60789		

## Hypothese 3:

**Descriptive statistics\_Swedes:** 

Quality perception of cheese produced in different countries:

#### Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
QuaSwiChee	50	2	7	5,40	1,050
QuaSweChee	50	2	7	5,38	1,105
QuaDanChee	50	2	7	4,90	1,129
QuaAusChee	50	2	6	4,68	1,019
QuaGerChee	50	2	6	4,42	.906
QuaNorChee	50	1	7	4,36	1,191
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## Quality perception of airline tickets from different airline carriers:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
QuaNorAir	50	2	7	5,24	1,001
QuaSwiAir	50	1	7	5,06	1,096
QuaGerAir	50	1	7	5,00	1,069
QuaSweAir	50	1	7	4,88	1,154
QuaDanAir	50	1	7	4,60	1,195
QuaAusAir	50	1	7	4,54	,973
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## Quality perception of chocolate produced in different countries:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
QuaSwiChoc	50	3	7	5,92	1,027
QuaSweChoc	50	1	7	4,72	1,457
QuaAusChoc	50	3	7	4,66	1,022
QuaDanChoc	50	2	6	4,64	1,005
QuaGerChoc	50	1	6	4,30	1,147
QuaNorChoc	50	2	6	3,72	1,051
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## **Quality perception of furniture produced in different countries:**

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
QuaDanFurn	50	3	7	5,56	1,053
QuaSweFurn	50	1	7	5,46	1,199
QuaNorFurn	50	2	7	4,76	1,098
QuaGerFurn	50	2	7	4,68	1,168
QuaSwiFurn	50	2	6	4,62	,945
QuaAusFurn	50	2	6	4,28	,927
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## Quality perception of fashion produced in different countries:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
QuaSweFash	50	1	7	5,46	1,265
QuaDanFash	50	3	7	5,34	1,042
QuaNorFash	50	2	7	4,66	1,062
QuaSwiFash	50	2	6	4,34	1,022
QuaAusFash	50	2	6	4,24	,960
QuaGerFash	50	1	6	4,02	1,332
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## Quality perception of beer produced in different countries:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
QuaGerBee	50	4	7	5,70	,789
QuaDanBee	49	1	7	5,16	1,375
QuaAusBee	50	1	7	4,86	1,030
QuaSweBee	50	1	7	4,62	1,497
QuaSwiBee	50	3	6	4,48	,909
QuaNorBee	50	1	6	3,40	1,355
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	49				

## Purchase intention for cheese produced in different countries:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
PurSweChee	49	1	7	5,78	1,373
PurSwiChee	50	1	7	4,48	1,764
PurDanChee	50	1	7	4,22	1,595
PurAusChee	50	1	7	3,78	1,529
PurGerChee	50	1	7	3,64	1,336
PurNorChee	50	1	6	3,24	1,318
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	49				

### Purchase intention for airline tickets from different airlines:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
PurNorAir	50	2	7	4,70	1,529
PurGerAir	50	1	7	4,56	1,343
PurSweAir	49	1	7	4,51	1,474
PurDanAir	50	2	7	4,36	1,139
PurSwiAir	50	1	7	4,16	1,330
PurAusAir	50	1	7	4,14	1,246
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	49				

### Purchase intention for chocolate produced in different countries:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
PurSwiChocr	50	2	7	5,34	1,409
PurSweChoc	50	2	7	5,16	1,476
PurDanChoc	50	1	7	4,10	1,249
PurAusChoc	50	2	7	4,02	1,363
PurGerChoc	50	1	7	3,86	1,578
PurNorChoc	50	1	5	3,14	1,143
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

### Purchase intention for furniture produced in different countries:

#### Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
PurSweFum	50	2	7	5,62	1,123
PurDanFurn	50	2	7	4,70	1,282
PurNorFurn	50	1	6	3,76	1,287
PurGerFurn	50	1	6	3,74	1,275
PurSwiFurn	50	1	6	3,38	1,141
PurAusFurn	50	1	5	3,32	1,096
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

### Purchase intention for fashion produced in different countries:

### Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
PurSweFash	50	1	7	5,32	1,477
PurDanFash	50	1	7	4,80	1,309
PurNorFash	50	2	6	3,78	1,075
PurSwiFash	50	1	6	3,36	1,191
PurGerFash	50	1	7	3,26	1,337
PurAusFash	50	1	5	3,20	1,050
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## Purchase intention for beer produced in different countries:

#### Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
PurGerBee	50	1	7	5,14	1,578
PurSweBee	50	1	7	4,84	1,754
PurDanBee	50	1	7	4,62	1,748
PurAusBee	50	1	7	4,08	1,510
PurSwiBee	50	1	6	3,76	1,302
PurNorBee	50	1	7	2,92	1,602
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

### **Descriptive statistics \_Germans:**

## Quality perception of cheese produced in different countries:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
QuaSwiChee	50	3	7	6,20	,857
QuaGerChee	50	2	7	5,30	1,074
QuaAusChee	50	1	7	5,08	1,397
QuaDanChee	50	1	7	4,42	1,341
QuaNorChee	50	1	7	4,40	1,107
QuaSweChee	50	1	6	4,26	1,192
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## Quality perception of airline tickets from different airline carriers:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
QuaGerAir	50	4	7	5,96	,755
QuaSwiAir	50	1	7	5,58	1,279
QuaNorAir	50	2	7	5,04	1,124
QuaSweAir	50	2	7	4,86	1,262
QuaAusAir	50	1	6	4,84	1,184
QuaDanAir	50	1	7	4,78	1,404
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## Quality perception of chocolate produced in different countries:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
QuaSwiChoc	50	5	7	6,44	,675
QuaGerChoc	50	3	7	5,42	,992
QuaSweChoc	50	1	7	4,44	1,163
QuaAusChoc	50	1	6	4,42	1,230
QuaDanChoc	50	2	7	4,34	1,189
QuaNorChoc	50	1	6	4,10	1,093
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## Quality perception of furniture produced in different countries:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
QuaGerFurn	50	3	7	5,62	,987
QuaDanFur	50	2	7	5,42	1,052
QuaSwiFum	50	3	7	5,34	1,081
QuaNorFurn	50	2	7	5,32	1,168
QuaAusFurn	50	1	6	4,78	1,036
QuaSweFurn	50	1	7	4,56	1,527
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## Quality perception of fashion produced in different countries:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
QuaSweFash	50	2	7	5,56	1,128
QuaDanFash	50	3	7	5,22	1,148
QuaNorFash	50	2	7	5,10	1,015
QuaGerFash	50	1	7	5,10	1,359
QuaSwiFash	50	2	7	4,72	1,443
QuaAusFash	50	1	6	4,22	1,093
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## Quality perception of beer produced in different countries:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
QuaGerBee	50	4	7	6,50	,735
QuaAusBee	50	1	7	4,56	1,327
QuaDanBee	50	2	7	4,52	1,216
QuaSwiBee	50	1	7	4,12	1,409
QuaSweeBee	50	1	7	3,88	1,118
QuaNorBee	50	1	7	3,86	1,370
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## Purchase intention for cheese produced in different countries:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
PurSwiChee	50	1	7	5,50	1,389
PurGerChee	50	1	7	5,06	1,504
PurAusChee	50	1	7	4,54	1,581
PurDanChee	50	1	7	3,70	1,488
PurNorChee	50	1	6	3,50	1,389
PurSweChee	50	1	6	3,50	1,555
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

### Purchase intention for airline tickets from different airlines:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
PurGerAir	50	2	7	5,36	1,241
PurAusAir	50	1	7	4,64	1,453
PurSwiAir	50	1	6	4,58	1,326
PurDanAir	50	1	7	4,10	1,529
PurSweAir	50	1	6	4,02	1,421
PurNorAir	50	1	6	3,86	1,429
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

### Purchase intention for chocolate produced in different countries:

Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
PurGerChoc	50	1	7	5,40	1,498
PurSwiChoc	50	1	7	5,30	1,644
PurSweChoc	50	1	7	3,96	1,641
PurAusChoc	50	1	6	3,80	1,512
PurDanChoc	50	1	7	3,68	1,463
PurNorChoc	50	1	6	3,26	1,291
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

# Purchase intention for furniture produced in different countries:

### Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
PurSweFurn	50	1	7	4,94	1,570
PurGerFurn	50	2	7	4,88	1,100
PurDanFurn	50	1	7	4,40	1,429
PurNorFurn	50	1	7	4,36	1,509
PurSwiFurn	50	1	6	3,76	1,393
PurAusFurn	50	1	6	3,64	1,258
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## Purchase intention for fashion produced in different countries:

#### Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
PurSweFash	50	1	7	5,24	1,506
PurDanFash	50	1	7	4,80	1,604
PurGerFash	50	1	7	4,58	1,486
PurNorFash	50	1	6	4,06	1,391
PurSwiFash	50	1	6	3,50	1,129
PurAusFash	50	1	6	3,38	1,354
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

## Purchase intention for beer produced in different countries:

### Deskriptive Statistik

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mittelwert	Standardabwe ichung
PurGerBee	50	1	7	6,18	1,155
PurAusBee	50	1	7	4,12	1,649
PurDanBee	50	1	7	3,90	1,568
PurSwiBee	50	1	6	3,76	1,479
PurNorBee	50	1	7	3,70	1,799
PurSweBee	50	1	7	3,36	1,663
Gültige Werte (Listenweise)	50				

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