Exploring the interaction effects between country of manufacture and country of design within the context of the sportswear industry in Thailand

A Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

By

Natinee Thanajaro

Brunel Business School
Brunel University
June 2016

ABSTRACT

In recent decades, the growth of international trade and delocalisation been increasing with the advent of globalisation and nationalisation. Consequently, a proliferation of hybrid or bi-national products has emerged in the research of international marketing. A large body of studies agree that country of origin (COO) plays an important role on product evaluation, since a product consists of an array of information cues, and intrinsic (physical appearance) and extrinsic (price, brand or COO) compositions. There is a strong evidence that consumers usually use COO as one of the most important cues when making a judgement about a product.

However, bi-national products raise a particular issue because they are associated to both country of manufacture (COM) and country of design (COD) constructs. The interaction effects between both cues are found to have a more powerlful effect than when only cue is presented (Bertoli and Resciniti, 2012). This study intends to decompose the COO construct into COM and COD constructs. Moreover, the roles of COM and COD on customers' purchase intentions are investigated in order to provides practical implications for the sportswear industry, as well as consumption insights relating to the emerging market, Thailand.

This research provides an in-depth examination of COM, COD and product involvement on consumers' purchase intentions and customer perceived value (CPV). Thus, the research measures the effects of product familiarity in order to infer how consumers use country-related information in purchase decision-making. In addition, the research clarifies the role of CPV, which remains unclear regarding how consumers develop a product's value through informational cues (COM and COD). Moreover, the previous research have only examined the outcomes of perceived quality as influenced by COO. Hence, this research intends to bring all dimensions of CPV to investigate whether the combined effects of COM and COD can have either a positive or a negative impact on customer's value. A model of CPV is developed by Sweeney and Soutat (2001), which consists of quality, social, price and emotional values.

A quantitative approach using experimental research design was conducted in Bangkok, Thailand for the purposes of this study, with a pilot test to ascertain the variables used in

the main experiment: product involvement, favourable/least favourable COM and COD images. The experiment was designed to measure the relationship between constructs, of a high involvement product, namely sports trainers, and a low involvement product, namely sports t-shirt. The US and China were selected as the most and the least favourite COD, resepectively. Meanwhile, Japan and China were selected as the most and least favourite COM, respectively. Data analysis techniques such as analysis of varaince (ANOVA), multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and t-test were employed for hypothesis testing.

The results of this research demonstrate a comprehensive understanding of the interaction effects of country image and product involvement. The study confirms that COD is the salient cue for the evaluation of sportswear products in emerging countries. However, the level of product involvement does not influence the consumer's decisions when COD and COM are both presented. Thus, the roles of COM, COD and product invovlement play an important role in evaluating overall CPV.

The key contribution of this research is in its practical, theoretical and methodological implications to international marketing communications toward the sportswear industry. It offers the insights of two informational cues (COM and COD) to explain the phenomenon of bi-national products for unknown or new products.

DEDICATION

To my family for their endless love and support and encouragement

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First of all, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my first supervisor, Dr. Geraldine Cohen for her motivation and continuous support throughout my PhD. Her guidance helped me in all the time of research. Working under her supervision has been a great experience that has contributed greatly to the completion of this thesis.

I am particularly grateful for the assistance given by my second supervisor Dr. Dorothy Yen for her insightful comments and encouragement, but also for the challenging questions which encouraged me look at my research from various perspectives.

I thank my friends at the university for their mental supports during difficult times. I also would like to thanks K. Krit Prasittichok for his valuable academic advice.

Finally, none of this would be impossible without my family from their constant love and support all these years.

AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I, Natinee Thanajaro, declare that the ideas, research work, analyses and conclusions reported in my PhD thesis - *Exploring country of manufacture and country of design within the context of the sportswear industry in Thailand* are entirely my effort, except where otherwise acknowledged. Also, I certify that this thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF APPENDICES

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW OF COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE AND COUNTRY OF DESIGN

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The introduction chapter (Chapter 1) introduces research problems and general background of this thesis, followed by the research objectives and justifications of context and methodology. In addition, the contributions and different implications of this study and the structure of this thesis are outlined in the previous chapter.

The chapter will:

- Provide a general overview and definitions of country of origin (COO) and the explanations of intrinsic and extrinsic product cues in marketing research.
- Investigate COO's influence and significance in a business aspect.
- Discuss COO as a product cue and explain the multidimensional concepts of COO, country of manufacture (COM) and country of design (COD).
- Describe the research evolution of COO and state some important studies and relevant variables.
- Define country image, product-country image and product image constructs.
- Portray the theories of the halo effect and summary construct.

2.2 BACKGROUND AND DEFINTIONS OF COUNTRY OF ORIGIN (COO)

With market globalisation and competition, delocalisation of manufacturing has been in recent decades (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). Consequently, the emergence of bi-national products has raised questions related to consumers' perceptions of value. Normally, manufacturing migration provides a comparative advantage in materials, labour and technological advancement to companies and organisations. However, this

phenomenon has prompted uncertainty regarding products manufactured in less developed countries from a consumer's perspective. In response to this uncertainty, a large body of research has focussed specifically on the role of COO and how it can influence product evaluation.

The COO effect refers to a product from a particular country that effects on consumer's attitudes and behaviour (Dinner, 2008). The conceptualization of COO is widely used as tool to identify a product's quality for consumers from different countries. It is an intangible product attributes habitually used by consumers (Cervino *et al*., 2005; Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998). Moreover, it plays an important role as a 'differentiator' in consumer's perspective (Dinnie, 2008). Bilkey and Nes (1982) suggested that COO is considered as an array of information cue available to consumers when evaluating a product. The first author who documents the concept of COO is Ernest Dichter (1962), he mentions the importance of 'made in' as the significant information cue of a product (Bloemer *et al*., 2009).

According to Papadopoulos *et al*. (1990b), there are three main explanations of the interest in COO research. First, consumers attempt to simplify information processing through "chunking" using COO as a surrogate indicator for evaluates quality perception and social acceptability. Second, consumers are more aware and familiar with foreign products because of the exposure to media reports and other external stimuli. Finally, marketers aim to protect domestic products against foreign products by highlighting the differences among product origins. These explanations help to generate substantial research on COO and country image (Papadopoulos *et al*., 1990b). Researchers also believe that globalisation has made it possible for consumers to use information of country origins to assess a product (Tabassi *et al*., 2013). Global trade have pushed firms and organisations to redefine marketing strategies and reposition their products (Baker and Ballington, 2002).

In recent year years, the relevance of COO studies has been challenged. Due to the use of COO as an informational cue, some research argue that there is a lack in consumer's intention to use COO as a decision-maker (Herz and Diamantopoulos, 2013; Liefeld, 2004). This argument has been countered by the work of Liu and Johnson (2005) who conduct an experiment on automatic COO effect. They explain that country stereotypes

are actively activated by the presence of COO; thus, they influence product evaluation even when consumers are not aware that they use country information to judge (Herz and Diamantopoulos, 2013). Their findings show that the exposure of negative COO cue leads to negative associations. However, consumers might not be aware the associations they make, because of the reluctance to admit that the existing impact of COO. From this, it can be confirmed the importance of COO and the influences which allow this research to investigate the impacts of COO.

This section intends to introduce the definitions of COO, which is the focus of this thesis. Various studies have provided multiple definitions of COO, such as Ditcher (1982) and Roth and Romeo (1992). The earliest research and the first argument of COO belongs to Dichter (1962), followed by Schooler's 1965 empirical research regarding this notion (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). Table 2.1 presents the definitions of COO from these and other previous important studies.

Table 2.1: COO definitions from previous researchers

Author	Year	Definitions and conceptualisation of COO construct
Dichter	1962 p. 116	A product's country of origin has a "tremendous influence on the acceptance and success of products".
Johansson *et al*.	1985 p. 389	Country of origin is defined as the country where the corporate headquarters of the company marketing the product or brand is located.
Papadopoulos and Heslop	1993 p. 4	"made-in can mean manufactured-in but also assembled…, designed… or invented in.., made by a producer whose domicile is in, and, often wanting to look like it was made in…"
Zhang	1996 p. 51	"Information pertaining to where a product is made."
Knight and Calatone	2000 p. 127	"Country-of-origin image (COI) reflects a consumer's perceptions about the quality of products made in a particular country and the nature of people from that country."

2.2.1 COUNTRY OF ORIGIN (COO) AS A PRODUCT CUE

An attribute of a product is a 'cue' that is shaped by consumers' opinions of that product (Bertoli and Resciniti, 2012). Consumers evaluate a product they usually consider both intrinsic cues and extrinsic cues (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2014). Intrinsic cues include, for example, design, physical quality, taste and performance (Forsythe *et al*., 1999). Intrinsic cues refer to product characteristics which includes the nature of a product. It is involved with the physical product and cannot be changed, while extrinsic cues are not related to the inherent of the product (Rezvani *et al*., 2012) for instance brand name, price, warranty and country-of-origin (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2014). However, when the consumers find it difficult to interpret intrinsic cue, they will resort to using extrinsic cue to make inferences regarding to the product (Elliott and Cameron, 1994).

In recent years, COO research has shifted from the study of simple country information to more complex country-related information, while remaining unclear as to how companies should use COO to exploit a wide array of informational cues to improve product images (Beverland and Lindgreen, 2002; Josiassen, 2009). COO can be a powerful information cue of a product from a specific country. According to Veale *et al*., (2006) consumer might rely on intrinsic and extrinsic cues but many studies have shown an interest in COO cue and its relative strength compared to other informational cues (Ahmed *et al*., 2004) such as product brand and price (Dinnie, 2016). The study of product cue is conducted in such research as Chang and Wildt (1994). They found that price acts as an influence cue (Forsythe *et al*., 1999), moreover, the important research of Bilkey and Nes (1982) revealed that in the early research of single-cue products, price is one of the important impacts of perceived quality. Cordell (1992) conducted an experiment on a single cue of different products from various countries to determine consumers' choices. The results show that their choices are influenced by the development status of the country being studied. According to Dinnie (2008), when the COO effect is valued by consumers, such as Swiss watches, Scottish whisky or Italian fashion, the COO is presented in some well-known product categories.

Single-cue studies have failed to provide information on how COO can be offset by other cues (Bertoli and Resciniti, 2012). This research therefore aims to provide

adequate information in this regard by exploring bi-national or hybrid products. The later research of Heslop *et al*. (1987) found that in the research of multi-cue attributes, using an experimental method, COO serves as a stronger effect on product evaluation (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2014). Furthermore, Johansson *et al*. (1985) conducted research on the impact of COO and found that COO presents as a complex cue. When studying multi-cue products like cars on American and Japanese respondents, they found that the COO effect is the prevalent part of an overall evaluation. Likewise, Chao (1993, 1995) revealed that COO and price cues have an effect on product evaluation. Consumers usually have confidence in a COO such as Japan. In contrast, price is used less than COO to infer about product. When a lower developed COO is presented, price is used to infer about the quality of a product (Kotabe and Helsen, 2009).

To date, the diverse information of the COO cue has become muddled, with various places of manufacture and the issue of brand name marketing, which is used to influence different views on products. Much research has been conducted to investigate the multi-cue effects of COO and brand name, such as that of Koubaa's research on the impact of COO on the brand image of digital cameras and TVs (2008). Koubaa's results suggest that the perception of brand image is higher when the products are made in a highly perceived country. Krupka *et al*. (2014) also investigated COO effect on fictional and real brand names, their finding showing that COO has an effect on fictional brand names and a much stronger effect on real brand names. The study of COO and brand name has been a popular topic because of marketing strategy in the modern world; however there is limited of research on the origin of the brand name location. This research attempts to close the gap of this issue by focusing on developing economies. As mentioned in the introduction chapter, numerous studies are conducted in developed countries where the significance preference for domestic products is preferred, 'ethnocentrism' (Balabanis *et al*., 2001; Hamzaoui-Essoussi and Merunka, 2007; Netemeyer *et al*., 1991). However, it is suggested that in developing country show some reverse ethnocentrism. Hence, the results of this research provide a broader understanding of consumer behaviour in a developing country.

2.3 DECONSTRUCTING COUNTRY OF ORIGIN (COO) CONSTRUCTS

Since there are arguments about studying a single-cue favouring the significance of COO effect, it is essential to shift to a multi-cue approach to support the next phase of COO research, hybrid or bi-national products (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). The proliferation of hybrid products in international market separates the COO construct into country of assembly (COA), country of brand (COB), country of parts (COP) country of design (COD), country of manufacture (COM), and country of brand (COB) (Chao, 2005; Chowdhury, 2009; Hamzaoui, 2006; Insch, 2004; Quester, 2000). According to Iyer and Kalita (1997) bi-national products represent a "made in" image and "country of brand origin" image, therefore COO has a distinct impact on product evaluation and value.

The increase of bi-national products could result in potential dissonance for customers when they attempt to reconcile the conflicting views of COO information (Phau and Prendergast, 2000). However, bi-national products might carry a brand associated with one country but be assembled in another country (Fetscherin and Toncar, 2010). The study of COO phenomenon is derived from empirical studies on consumers in Western countries (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). An investigation into the COO effect in emerging countries can offer significant implications for international companies. However, the existing knowledge about these consumers is not applicable to consumers from other parts of the world.

With the emergence of bi-national products, companies could suffer the effect of consumer perception, consequently it is important to understand how to position and market products in this globalisation era. Since there is inadequate research on the deconstruction of COM and COD, these aspects required investigation (Prendergast *et al.*, 2010). Table 2.2 demonstrates some of decompositions of COO and descriptions as follow:

Table 2.2: Decomposition of COO

Components of COO		Descriptions	Authors
COM	Country of manufacture	"Made in", "manufactured in"	Insch and McBride, 2004; Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006; Chao 1993
COD	Country of design	"Designed in", "Engineered in"	Tse and Lee 1993; Chao 1993; Ahmed and d'Astous, Pharr, 2005
COA	Country of assembly	"Assembled in"	Chao, 1993; Insch and McBride, 2004
	Country of associates	A country where a brand or product is associated	Li *et al.*, 2000; Usunier, 2006
COP	Country of parts	"Parts supplied by"	Chao,1993; Pharr, 2005
COBO	Country of brand origin,	Country where brand is perceived as originating from	Lim and O'Cass, 2001
	Culture of brand origin	Culture where brand is perceived as originating from	Lim and O'Cass, 2001
COB	Country of brand	The country where the brand originates	Phau and Prendergast, 2000

2.3.1 DEFINITIONS OF COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE (COM)

COM refers to the location of manufacture or the place where products are assembled (Kahle and Kim, 2006). COM is an extrinsic cue or an intangible product attribute, as are brand name or COD (Jiang, 2010). The study of COM effect is important because the knowledge of country information enables the adoption of effective strategies such as that products labelled "Made in France" are more likely to be referred to in terms of elegance and style (Jiang, 2010). Regarding to previous studies, researchers have consistently found that products from developed countries are more appealing than developing countries.

Previous research conducted by Johansson and Nebenzahl (1986), investigated the effect of manufacturing location on passenger cars by exploring consumers' perceptions of quality (Kahle and Kim, 2006). They concluded that in terms of reliability, durability, performance, price, workmanship, style and service, the label of "Made in West Germany" is considered as the most preferred country (Kahle and Kim, 2006).

It is acknowledged that COM has an impact on product evaluation and perception of
quality (Chen and Su, 2012). Brands that are associated with a country can benefit from
country's positive stereotypes and can also suffer from negative stereotypes. However,
consumers in some countries may not prefer products from foreign countries such as
Finnish customers who significantly rate domestic products higher than other nations
(Papadopoulos *et al*., 1990b). The product labels have a serious impact on consumers'
perceptions, attitudes and behaviours (Jiang, 2010). A company such as Nike has US
appeal, in contrast to manufacturers within Asian countries like China and Vietnam.
Therefore, the perceptions of the COM cue can vary (Hamzaoui-Essoussi *et al*., 2011).

2.3.2 DEFINITIONS OF COUNTRY OF DESIGN (COD)

There have been a wide range of research relating to COO that have adopted a single-
cue research, consequently the results bias in in favour of a COO effect (Johansson *et
al*., 1985; Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006; Ozsomer and Cavusgil, 1991). COD or in
other words, brand origin/ country of brand, is described by Thakor and Kohli (1996,
p. 27) as "*the place, region or country to which a brand is perceived to belong by its
target consumers*". COD strongly supports the overall image of the brand, such as
Japanese car brands like Toyota or Mitsubishi have an impression of being designed in
a 'reliable' country of design, these Japanese-designed cars are assembled elsewhere in
the world (Chen and Su, 2012). Many of US retails exploit label of "Made in the
U.S.A" campaign which produce ambiguous results. Because of increasing in bi-
national products, COO information is not the only salient selling point (Chao, 2001).
The attention has shifted to COD as a strategy to gain an advantage.

According to Hassan and Kaynak (2013), the COD is the country where the corporate
headquarters are based. Due to the increasing complexity of company structures and
logistics, products can be bi-national or multinational products, the origin of the product
refers to the place that the product is designed; the product components and
manufacturing may include other countries (Hassan and Kaynak, 2013). The
multinational product may raise misconceptions about a product's quality.

Building the image of COD is a long-term strategy for a company, and can be a positive
attribute about a brand or a product (Phau and Prendergast, 2000). If consumers hold a

positive image of a country, they are likely to have confidence in a product, as well as
the COD of a product.

Thakor and Kohli (1996) stated that brand origin/COD communicates in different ways,
for instance it can appear in the brand name itself or in advertisement. The brand
origin/COD cue can be used to strengthen brand attributes or convey relevant concept-
based meanings. As an example, the brand 'Marlboro', usually Marlboro's advertising
shows American western cowboy characters in a ranch environment. Marlboro attempts
to communicate the brand as masculine and having American characteristics (Thakor
and Kohli, 1996). According to Phau and Prendergast (2000), there are many brands
that signal the origin of the brand, such as Louis Vuitton (French), Sony (Japanese) and
Gucci (Italian), or similarly 'Donna Karen New York' and 'Pierre Cardin Paris', which
examples intentionally carry the name of a country or a city.

In order to build a strong brand, it takes plenty of factors such as advertising, price,
promotion or brand itself. In the world of global sourcing and manufacturing,
relocation has caused the emergence of hybrid/bi-national products. The issue has led to
questions from consumers' perspectives about these products (Hamzaoui and Merunka,
2006) that causes the issue of brand confusion (Zhuang *et al*., 2007). Their study in
China among 67 brands has found that consumers could not identify whether the brand
is an international or domestic brand. In any case, the study has shown that Chinese
people perceive international brands as being higher quality and more fashionable than
domestic brand (Zhuang *et al*., 2007).

2.3.3 THE IMPORTANCE OF COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE (COM) AND
COUNTRY OF DESIGN (COD) AS THE EXTRINSIC CUE

Recently, the need to investigate the importance of COM and COD has been identified.
The reviews and studies of this issue confirm that it is still an inconclusive issue for
many companies and marketers. Traditionally, COO is used only in reference to a
manufacturing country (Prendergast *et al*., 2010). As the increasing of global sourcing,
products are taking place across national boundaries (Iyer and Kalita, 1997). The issue
has risen with significant attention in COO studies attempt to specify which extrinsic
cue is the most influential to consumers.

The existence of bi-national products encourage this research to consider both COM and COD in different levels of country's development. The combining effects of COM and COD challenge firms to decide whether country-related information influence consumers in positive or negative perspectives. The decomposition of COO has shown to be important to understand how consumers utilise information of COM and COD jointly to evaluate a product (Hamzaoui-Essoussi and Merunka, 2007).

The studies of country image support the importance of COO; however, it is not always clear in which direction the positive or negative flow (Dinnie, 2008). Coca-Cola and McDonald represent American products, while Sony and Honda represents Japanese products. Despite the obvious knowledge, contradictions in a product such as a Japanese camera made in China may cause a real issue in perception (Dikcius and Stankeviciene, 2010). Existing research suggests that in this case the country of brand origin tends to dominate COM (O'Cass *et al.*, 2000). It is also interesting to learn whether Sony, a prestigious brand, enhances the image of Japan or Japan is the source country of technological credibility enhances the Sony brand (Dinnie, 2008). This issue encourages research on the issue of COM and COD (Chen and Su, 2011).

The roles of COM and COD in the global market have been a major concern for many multinational firms (Ettenson and Gaeth, 1991; Lee and Ganesh, 1999). Knowledge of COM, COD and country image can direct companies to either target or downplay product image (Chen and Su, 2012; Ferguson *et al.*, 2008).

There are differences between COM and COD/brand origin (Thakor and Kohli, 1996); COM is concerned with the countries that consumers perceive as either high or low quality in the manufacturing process; in contrast, COD focuses on brand image, which is directly communicated to consumers (Chen and Su, 2012). Moreover, it possesses a symbolic, functional and usage-situation based images concept effect on consumers for instance Rolls Royce cars are symbolic of luxury and high status (Thakor and Kohli, 1996). Additionally, a functional image, like that of Coleman lanterns, focuses on the product's features and attributes. The effect of country is a construct from a person's subjective perceptions (Jeffe and Nebenzahl, 2002). A positive or negative image

effects the evaluation of a product and is based on personal experience, beliefs or ethnocentrism (Gurhan-Canli and Mahesrawan, 2000).

Marketing researchers have attempted to understand whether COD or COM is the indicator to consumers' decisions. The separation of COM and COD may not accurately measure product evaluation but the effect of both COM and COD produce significant effect for marketers and international companies (Jian and Guoqun, 2007). Sohail (2005) mentioned that there are considerably widespread researches about this subject. However, there are very few studies that have been conducted outside the United States. Some previous studies examined the impact of COO and concluded that it has an effect on the attitude of consumers (Zbib *et al.*, 2010). Some studies conclude that the relevance of COD is more precise than COM and there is a need in researching the effect and how it influences consumer's evaluation (Prendergast *et al.*, 2010).

2.4 COUNTRY OF ORIGIN: EVOLUTIONS AND CONSTRUCTS

For the past 40 years, economic growth and market expansion have led to the export and import of goods to and from various countries. Consumers are exposed to products from overseas; consequently international products have become both more familiar and more available in the marketplace. The call for marketing research in this country of origin issue necessitates investigation.

The concept of COO has been extensively introduced and documented in consumer and marketing research. The work of Dichter (1962) (Figure 2.1) is one of the earliest researches about country of origin and has had a heavy impact in the international marketing field (Fetscherin and Toncar, 2009). His work introduces an investigation of informational cue as a mean to evaluate a product. From this, numerous studies on country of origin have been presented after Ditcher. (Fetscherin and Toncar, 2009; Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2001; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). Additionally, a research of Schooler (1965) investigates products that are from less developed countries that are perceived as lesser in quality to those products from highly developed countries (Phau and Prendergast, 2000).

Figure 2.1: Evolution of COO research

Phase 1: Single cue	• Ditcher (1962) • Scholer (1965) • Reierson (1966, 1967)
Phase 2: Progression to multi-cue studies	• Bilkey and Nes (1982) • Hong and Wyer (1989) • Papadopoulos *et al.* (1990)
Phase 3: Hybrid/binational product	• Han (1989) • D' Astous and Ahmed (1992) • Chao (1993) • Ettenson and Mathur (1995)
Globalization	• Relevance and significant of the country name
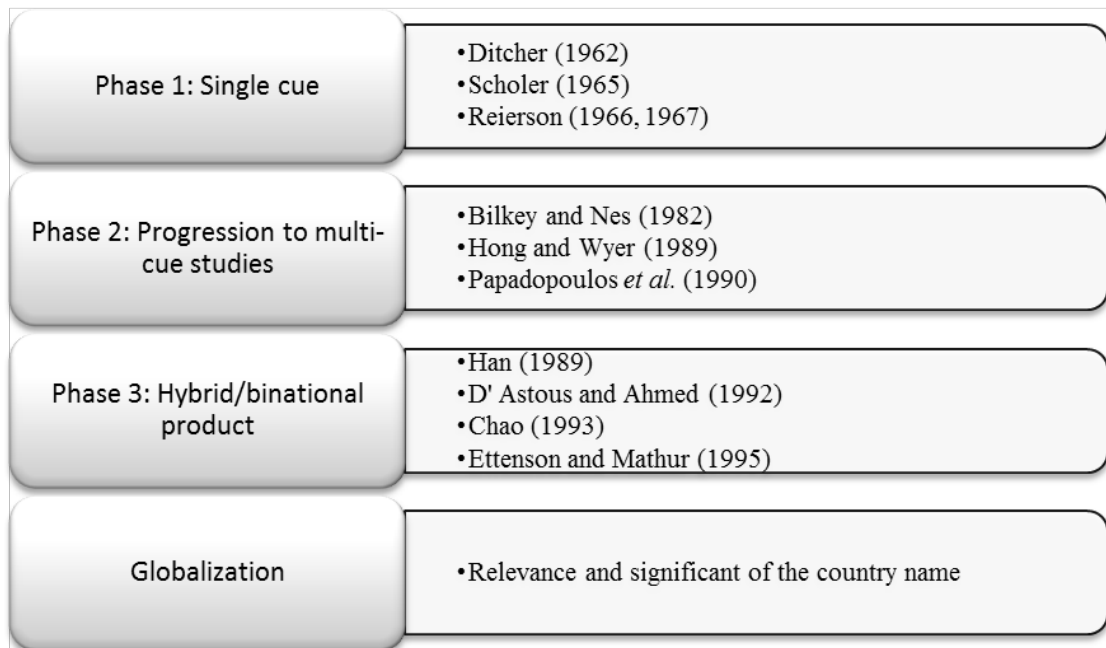
Source: Developed from Phau and Prendergast (2000)

Reierson's (1966, 1967) research focuses on the effects of country of origin and perception of product quality (Phau and Prendergast, 2000). According to Sohail (2005), another important work on COO research is that by Nagashima (1970), whose studies focus on country image. His work is associated with comparing customers' attitudes between different types of products from five countries i.e. Japan, USA, England, Germany and Italy. His aim was to investigate customer attitude with regard to the products of a country (Nagashima, 1970). Supporting the research of Nagashima (1970; 1977), Papadopoulos *et al*. (1987) explore consumers' perceptions of foreign food and confirm that country image can change over time (Dinnie, 2003).

In early COO research, single-cue studies conclude that COO has an effect on customer opinion (Phau and Prendergast, 2000). However, the study of COO needs to be progressed by looking at multi-cue products, and necessitated multi-cue studies such as Bilkey and Nes (1982), a significant research that is widely cited for the understanding of product-country image (Bertoli and Resciniti, 2012), and involves the issue of evaluating products from less developing countries (LDCs) and more developed countries (MDCs). The single-cue studies have proven to be a good evidence for investigating the existence of COO and have become the foundation of later studies.

Around the early 1990s, much of the production and manufacture have shifted from a single country to multiple countries, therefore creating the beginning of multiple-cue products (Phau and Prendergast, 2000). The research of d'Astous and Ahmed (1992) began to explore the combinations of country, price and country stereotypes. The study of ethnocentrism has shown that it has an impact on consumer choice and evaluation (Lee *et al.*, 1992; Papadopoulos *et al.*, 1990a). Although, COO studies are related to tangible products, the work of Al-Sulaiti and Baker (1997) and Bruning (1997) discovered that the airline service of foreign and domestic airlines related to ethnocentrism, the results point to most consumers expressing a preference for their national airline (Phau and Prendergast, 2000).

A recent study by Ahmed (2004) focuses on COO, brand name and price and their impact on consumers' attitudes to food products. The study of COO during globalisation has begun to broaden across several themes, such as the investigation of COO and luxury handbags (Han, 2010) and Fetscherin and Toncar's study (2009) of brand personalities of Chinese and Indian car manufacturers. d'Astous *et al.* (2008), study on tangible service such as arts and the results show that country has an effect on product-country images in the arts as well as the bias in foreign cultures. In recent years, there are multiple studies that combine multi-cue products such as Ar and Kara (2014), whose work focuses on country of production (COP), consumer trust and quality perception. Thus, the study of Kreppel and Holtbrugge (2012) explore a negative image using sociopsychological approach to investigate Chinese products. These late studies have shown a progress in COO studies which inspire further research to continue this issue.

There is a considerably large literature concerning COO and its effects. Much research was conducted in many different countries, however there has been mixed interpretation and bias towards products (Gillespie and Hennessey, 2011). This issue still has an impact on consumers. COO can be an intangible barrier for newly imported products (Phau and Suntornnond, 2006; Wang and Lamb, 1983). The concept of COO influences consumers in the international market where there are different traditions, languages and religions (Nagashima, 1970).

Figure 2.2 describes the geographical settings of COO research. It shows that the US
ranks the highest in terms of number of researches at 36.31%, with France at 10.12%.
The UK and Canada are both at 6.5%, while Japan is at 5.36% and Germany is at
4.76%.

Figure 2.2: Countries of survey
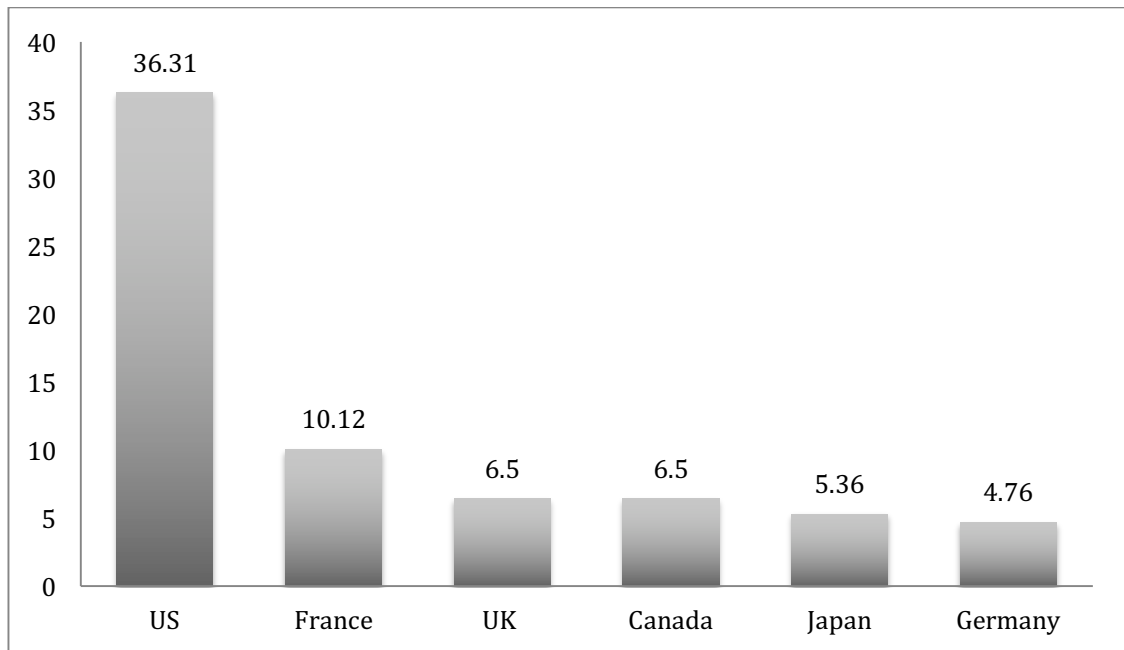
Source: Usunier (2006)

2.5 DEFINING COUNTRY IMAGE

The construct of image is under consideration since conventional COO studies only
emphasize in measuring consumers' preferences (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009).
Previous studies have argued that consumers base their perceptions and assessment of
products in their mind based on the origination of a product (Laroche *et al.*, 2003).
Certain countries might remind consumers of particular characteristics, habits and
behaviours (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006); country image may also apply to a new
product from a particular country because the consumer may hold a strong association
or strong memory when they think of that country. When there is a brand extension, a
brand is likely to benefit from a 'strong country' image (Hanzaoui and Merunka, 2006).

Country image is a phenomenon that is studied in a marketing context; products are 'labelled' in representation of their country of origin (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2014). It is widely acknowledged the significance of country image, therefore, past literature uncover different conceptualisation of country image construct (Gotsi, *et al.*, 2011). Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) propose that in the review of country image there are three dimensions to consider:

1. Country image (CI)
2. Product-county image (PCI)
3. Product image (PI)

County image is a generic construct focused on generalized images created from a country by the degree of economic, cultural, political, historical, technological and industrialised status (Allred *et al.*, 1999; Bannister and Saunders, 1978; Desborde, 1990; Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009). Product–country image is concerned with the effect of country image on a product from a certain country (Bertoli and Resciniti, 2012). Finally, product image focuses on the country image at the product level (Lopez *et al.*, 2011). Nagashima (1970) mentions that product image refers to a *product* image rather than *country* image that captures the construct's domain. Tables 2.3 to 2.5 illustrate the definitions of country image, product-country image and product image;

Table 2.3: Definitions of country image

Authors	Year	Definitions
Bannister and Saunders	1978 p. 562	"Generalized images, created by variables such as representative products, economic and political maturity, historical events and relationships, traditions, industrialization and the degree of technological virtuosity."
Martin and Eroglu	1993 p. 193	"The total of all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs one has about a particular country."
Kotler *et al.*	1993 p. 141	"The sum of beliefs and impressions people hold about places. Images represent a simplification of a large number of associations and pieces of information connected with a place. They are a product of the mind trying to process and pick out essential information from huge amounts of data about a place."
Verlegh and Steenkamp	1999 p. 525	"Mental representations of a country's people, products, culture and national symbols. Product-country images contain widely shared cultural stereotypes."
Verlegh	2001 p. 25	"A mental network of affective and cognitive associations connected to the country."

Source: Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009)

Table 2.4: Definitions of product-country image

Authors	Year	Definitions
Li *et al.*	1997 p. 116	"Consumers' images of different countries and of products made in these countries."
Knight and Calantone	2000 P. 127	"Country-of-origin image (COI) reflects a consumer's perceptions about the quality of products made in a particular country and the nature of people from that country."
Nebenzahl *et al.*	1991 p. 388	"Consumers' perceptions about the attributes of products made in a certain country; emotions toward the country and resulted perceptions about the social desirability of owning products made in the country."
Papadoulos and Heslop	2003 p. 404	"Product-country images (PCIs), or the place-related images with which buyers and/or sellers may associate a product."

Source: Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009)

Table 2.5: Definitions of product image

Authors	Year	Definitions
Li *et al.*	1997 p. 116	"Consumers' images of different countries and of products made in these countries."
Knight and Calantone	2000 P. 127	"Country-of-origin image (COI) reflects a consumer's perceptions about the quality of products made in a particular country and the nature of people from that country."
Nebenzahl *et al.*	1991 p. 388	"Consumers' perceptions about the attributes of products made in a certain country; emotions toward the country and resulted perceptions about the social desirability of owning products made in the country."
Papadoulos and Heslop	2003 p. 404	"Product-country images (PCIs), or the place-related images with which buyers and/or sellers may associate a product."

Source: Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009)

The investigation of COM and COD images has extensively grown in international marketing (Hamzaoui-Essoussi *et al*., 2011). Numerous different terms are applied to identify country image such as 'made-in' image (Nebenzahl *et al*., 1997) or product-country image (Laroche *et al*., 2003). Many researchers agree that country image is perceptions, impressions or associations (Bertoli *et al*., 2012). The image of a country is defined as "a perpetual unit" (Hamzaoui-Essoussi *et al*., 2011). In other words, consumers may think or feel a certain way about a country and the product associated with it. When one develops a country image toward products from specific country, it is possible that it might be the result of direct experience, or from outside sources such as word of mouth, advertising experience, or prior experience of consuming products from certain countries (Martin and Eroglu, 1993). To measure country image, many researchers have attempted to develop measurement scale of country image, Martin and Eroglu (1993) present the development of country image into multidimensional construct. The research will adopt Martin and Eroglu (1993) and Nagashima (1970, 1977) to measure both country's development and image of a product.

The importance of image is well recognized regarding products and brands in marketing communication because images are able to influence decision-making in selling and purchasing, for example, the consumer who is wearing a designer's clothes with the visible label of a brand, use this as a way to create 'an image' of self (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2014). The concept of image represents a collection of the intrinsic and extrinsic attributes of a product (Forsythe *et al*., 1999). In academic research, the image of country is used extensively in terms of product-country image.

Product-country image is used broadly, in an overall strategy; the use of certain places or nations suggests the image can be traced back many years, such as Chinese silk, Greek mythology or German engineering (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2014). The origin of the product is used to identify and classify the product (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2014). The transformation of product origin dates back to the late 1800s, when trading goods from other regions was advantageous in terms of selling specialty goods like Canadian furs to wealthy consumers (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2014). Since this phenomenon, the development of country image has advanced internationally because of the trade explosion after World War II. The use of product origin has become more

specific, such as Californian wine and Florida oranges (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2014).

2.6 THE CONSUMER'S PERCEPTIONS OF COUNTRY IMAGE COMPONENTS

Some researchers define the effects of country image as 'impressions' or 'associations' (Ittersum *et al.*, 2003), others state that it is a 'perception' (Allred *et al.* 1999) or 'belief' (Kotler *et al.*, 1993). Information processing models in Table 2.6 present how consumers make decisions based on the judgement of the quality (Steenkamp, 1989; Dawar and Parker, 1994; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). These are basic criteria for cue selection which is comprised of three dimensions;

Table 2.6: Description of cognitive, affective and normative mechanisms

Mechanism	Description
Cognitive	Country of origin is a cue for product quality
Affective	Country of origin has symbolic and emotional value to consumers
Normative	Consumers hold social and personal norms related to country of origin

Source: Adapted from Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999)

Past research have found that consumers tend to regard products originate in a given country with either positive or negative attitudes (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Laroche *et al.*, 2005). Country image appears to influence product quality, product risk, likelihood to purchase and other variables (Liefeld, 1993; Laroche *et al.*, 2005). Therefore Papadopoulos *et al.*, (1990b) suggested that the information of country images affects consumer's minds which is based on three dimensional concept (Table 2.6).

COO is not merely quality signalling information, it also has a symbolic and emotional meaning, moreover, it can associate product with a status, authenticity and exoticness (Li and Monroe, 1992; Batra *et al.*, 1999; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). Most COO research found that COO information is a *cognitive* cue, which is an informational

stimulus of a product that customers use to infer beliefs regarding product attributes (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Steenkamp, 1990; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). In this respect, COO like other extrinsic cues such as price, brand reputation and brand name, acts a signal for product quality (Dawar and Parker, 1994). COO is likely to be shaped by product-country image which are the representations of culture, country's people and national symbols (Askegaard and Ger, 1996, 1998; Ger, 1991; Verlegh and Steenkemp, 1999). Therefore, product evaluation is formed by characteristics of country image and the general impressions of a particular country (Bilkey and Nes, 1982).

A popular approach is that of Bilkey and Nes (1982), who consider the use of country of origin cue in a cognitive approach (Bloemer *et al*., 2009). This approach explained that a product is *an array of information cues*. Bloemer *et al*. (2009) described that a product consists of both intrinsic cues and extrinsic cues. Intrinsic cues can be, for example, taste, design, material and performance, whereas extrinsic cues are price, brand name, country of origin and reputation. As a result, extrinsic cues are considered as image variable or "some aspect of the product that is distinct from its physical characteristics but that is nevertheless identified with the product" (Erickson *et al*., 1984, p. 694; Bloemer, 2009).

When the information of COO has strong emotional and *affective* connotations, it can formed by direct experience, i.e. direct interaction with a certain country, or indirect experience through art, mass media or education (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). In this case, COO acts as an expressive or image attribute (Mittal *et al*., 1990). An example provided by Batra *et al*. (2000) is that in India a Western product has a positive influence on brand attitudes: it affects consumers with Western lifestyles and gives symbolic and social status to Indian consumers. Such a viewpoint, it reflects affective associations of COO to memories, ethnic identities and feeling of 'pride' with the possessions of product from a particular country (Batra *et al*., 1999; Botschen and Hemettsberger, 1998; Fournier, 1998; Hirschman, 1985; Verlegh and Steenkemp, 1999).

Normative association occurs when purchasing a country's product is a way to support its economy; however, purchasing from countries that engage in objectionable activities is considered immoral, for an example some Jewish people boycott German products

because of the memory of the holocaust (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). Another example is that of Chinese consumers who consider it as treason to purchase Japanese products because of military rivalry during World War II (Klein *et al.*, 1998). An important norm is to buy domestic products, this phenomenon is called "ethnocentrism", which is related to positive preference for domestic products (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Countries such as the USA, UK and Canada ran campaigns to support buying domestic products, ethnocentrism is one of the factors that motivates consumers in purchasing decisions (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999).

Cognitive, affective and normative processes are not dependent, but casually related determinants of preferences behaviours (Mackie and Hamilton 1993; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999, Bertoli and Raciniti, 2012). Affective responses to COO can influence the consideration of choice alternatives and cognitive beliefs related to COO (Isen, 1984; Ger, 1991; Askegaard and Ger, 1998; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). The normative process in purchasing a country's product can involve both cognitive and affective responses because the act of boycott associates to the cognitive process and also evokes emotions like fear and anger (Osterhus, 1997: Klein *et al.*, 1998).

Jaffe and Nebenzhal (2206) propose lists of images that affect consumer perceptions, they define this as the country image effect (CIE). They explain that in the decision process, consumers usually form an overall image of the country's capability to produce products. As can be seen from Figure 2.3, country image acts as a source of the overall image of a product.

Figure 2.3: Dimensions of country image effect (CIE)
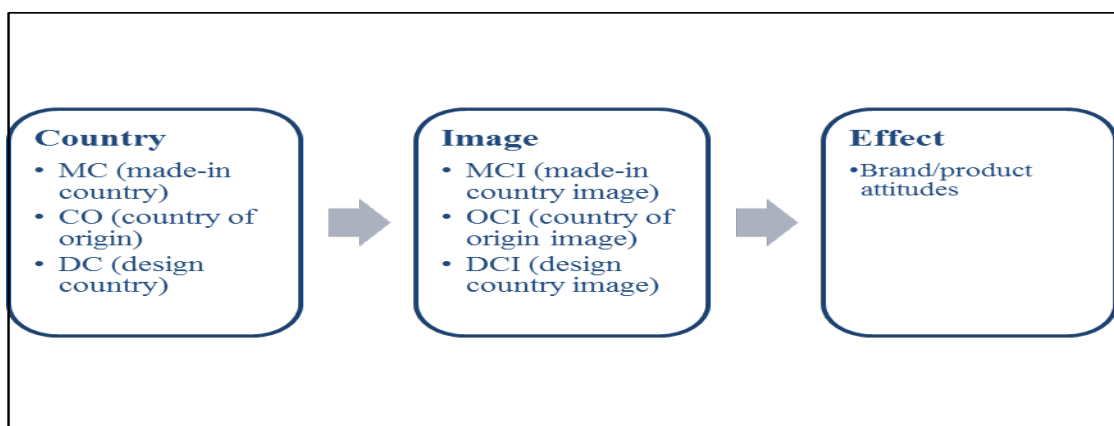
Source: Adapted from Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2006)

2.7 PRODUCT-SPECIFICTY OF COUTNRY IMAGE EFFECTS

2.7.1 CATEGORISATION THEORY AND COO

The categorisation theory which is an important aspect of consumer information processing (Lee and Ganesh, 1999). It is a fundamental framework of cognitive mechanism (Agarwal and Sikrit, 1999; Hamzaoui and Merunka 2006). Categorisation refers to the concept of things 'belong together' (Barsalou, 1991, 1992; Lee and Ganesh, 1999; Zentall *et al*., 2002), in addition, it is used to explain consumer's attitudes. If the COO is associated with a positive image, consumers are likely to infer the positive perceptions toward the product (Lee and Ganesh, 1999).

Categorisation theory refers to the COO cue as a category-based heuristic (Hadjimarcou and Hu, 1999; Tseng and Balabanis, 2011). The consumer's decision is based on a memory stored schema-triggered effect, which is activated through a stimulus feature such as brand name or COO (Pavelchak, 1989; Tseng and Balabanis, 2011). According to Hamzaoui and Merunka (2006), COO acts a cognitive category that consists of various elements, for example different products may be designed or manufactured in different countries. Thus, it describes that consumers organize information related to product categories with regard to certain countries' associated characteristics (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006).

Although COO has been identified as an extrinsic cue of a product, later research considers that COO should be treated as more than just another 'label' or 'feature' (Tseng and Balabanis, 2011; Yamauchi and Markman, 2000). The COO label is connected with each of its category members for example 'a Japanese camera, such a description reveals a class-inclusive relation and indicates a country where it is made. From this, consumers recall a certain quality, service, or price from the product that is made in that country (Tseng and Balabanis, 2011).

2.7.2 PRODUCT TYPICALITY, PRODUCT CHARACTERISTICS AND COO

The effect of product type develops in many ways and the evidence from previous research shows that the influences of COO vary across product category. The variation effect size of COO might occur in certain product categories, such as Germany is well-

known for its cars but not for its beauty or perfume products (Tseng and Balabanis, 2011). It is acknowledged to be difficult to generate product maps based on different COO images; in addition, some countries may possess more than one product. Therefore, the product–country image is usually measured to generalise the overall views. Product 'typicality' is proposed to define the fit between product categories and countries (Roth and Romeo, 1992), and to describe the degree to which a product is perceived to represent a category (Tseng and Balabanis, 2011). Some brands implicitly refer to COD to strengthen their brand identity (Hamzaoui-Essoussi *et al.*, 2011; Thakor and Kohli, 1996). Country image is associated with the characteristics of a country; for instance, Germany is perceived in connection to high technological advancement for appliances and cars, while Japan is perceived in connection to televisions and cameras (Lee *et al.*, 2013), similarly Toyota and Nikon are perceived in connection to Japan (Johansson and Nebenzahl, 1986).

From category-based view of COO, There are two distinctions of product characteristics that generate variation of COO effects (Tseng and Balabanis, 2011), namely; *Utilitarian* products represent products that are consumed primarily to satisfy needs, whereas *hedonic* products satisfy a consumer's desire for pleasure or symbolic needs (Ryu *et al.*, 2006). These two distinctions lead to different psychological effects when evaluating a product (Holbrook and Moore, 1981; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982; Ryu *et al.*, 2006). Consumers tend to evaluate utilitarian products on tangible attributes; in contrast, consumers evaluate hedonic products based on sensory experiences such as taste, sound and aesthetics (Grubb and Grathwohl, 1967; Holbrook and Moore, 1981; Ryu *et al.*, 2006).

Leclerc *et al.*, (1994) mentioned that utilitarianism-hedonism is crucial for product perception, especially for hedonic products, and give an example of French-sounding or French-made products for which the influence of French culture has a positive effect on products associated with beauty and elegance. Relating country images to product category characteristics, it is essential to understand what underlies consumer's attitudes toward product manufactured or designed in particular countries (Roth and Romeo, 1992).

2.8 COUNTRY IMAGE CONGRUENCY

Providing country information is a strategy by which marketers attempt to associate a product to a particular country (Hui and Zhou, 2001). Product origin congruency relates to the level of congruency of the product origins provided (Josiassen, 2009). The theoretical underpinning of congruency is introduced by Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955), who mention that congruency occurs when information points in the same direction, such as high quality brands being sold in a high quality outlet (Josiassen, 2009). The use of congruency, such as congruency between a celebrity endorser and type of product, is well researched in the marketing field.

With regard to congruency in COM and COD information, it is possible that congruency positively enhances brand image (Hui and Zhou, 2001; Leclerc *et al.*, 1994). However, hybrid products that carry different country-associated images from their manufacturing country, such as Sony televisions made in Indonesia, the incongruence between COM and COD might affect product evaluation. As mentioned earlier, globalisation and business competition cause the emergence of cost reductions and relocation. Hence, congruency in COM and COD information produces a significant effect on the product evaluation (Carvalho *et al.*, 2011). The existing literature suggests that when consumers realise that the manufacturing country conveys a less reputable country image than the COD, it is likely to decrease the consumer's beliefs and worsen the effects of incongruence of country information (Hui and Zhou, 2001). The effect of positive COM and COD congruity is much stronger than the main effect of COM or COD (Haubl and Elrod, 1999). However, the lack of congruence among informational cues creates a 'diffuse' brand image and leads to products being perceived less favourably. Hui and Zhui's (2011) study mentions that a branded product, such as Sony (Japanese brand and made in Japan), has a positive impacted when there is a congruency of the country information. Moreover, when a less favourable manufacturing country is presented, the results show that the effect is highly negative.

2.9 COUNTRY IMAGE AND THE SPORTSWEAR INDUSTRY

The effect of country image has shown that each country has its own unique
geographical, social and cultural background, it exerts a distinctive effect on consumer
perceptions (Jung *et al*., 2013 Country image has been an effective tool for branding
especially the influence of country reputation (Chen *et al*., 2011). In the study of apparel
and sportswear businesses have shown that consumers have faced the extensive product
choices in the market. Sportswear market is essentially changing because the
globalisation and it is considered as a part of mainstream fashion (Hayes and
Venkatraman, 2016). Fashion industry is driven for reduction of cost, innovative
products and globally sourcing (Barnes and Greenwood, 2010). The change of
sportswear industry causes sportswear products to combine sport performance and
functionality with fashion (Hayes and Venkatraman, 2016). Previous studies have
shown that fashion consumption is driven by the need to display status (O'Cass and
Frost, 2002; Phau and Leng, 2008). Moreover, it indicates that purchasing apparel is
also expressing identity and impressing others (Phau and Leng, 2008; Piacentini and
Mailer, 2004; Taylor and Cosenza, 2002). Therefore brand image has an impact on
consumer's beliefs and perceptions. Achieving the favourable country image is the key
element for a successful marketing strategy (Clarke *et al*., 2000). It is agreed that
consumers use country image as a factor for evaluate products, therefore, brands from
favourable images usually gain consumer's acceptance more than unfavourable country
image (Azadi *et al*., 2015).

Manufacturing country is important to the retailers because fashion is a fast changing
sector in terms of demand and trends. The use of label 'made in' has displayed
consumer's willingness to buy and gain an advantage (Clarke *et al*., 2000). Sportswear
consumers differ in terms of perceptions particularly in Asian market which is fast
growing. Sportswear represents the signal of better quality of life and the image of self-
esteem (Hayes and Venkatraman, 2016). The competitiveness of the sportswear
market has shown that branding strategies plays a significant role for representing
symbols and emotional value (Bouchet *et al*., 2012). Branding creates individual
identity that leads to the recognition and economic success for businesses (O'Cass and
Frost, 2002). Chen *et al.* (2011) mentioned that country image has been key in respect

to branding because the use of country associated to the image, reputation and stereotype that consumers attach to a product from a particular country. Country image leads to intangible assets in consumer's minds for instance country of design where the brands originate or to where consumers associate a brand with (Thakor and Kohli, 1996). It plays the role in communicating an image and characteristic of the brand (Hamzaoui-Essoussi and Merunka, 2007).

2.10 COUNTRY IMAGE IN A MARKETING PERSPECTIVE

The research of COO, including COM and COD, is studied from both an academic and a practical perspective (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). Marketers can benefit from product-country-image information if a particular product is seen as a positive stereotype (Bertoli and Resciniti, 2012). However, regarding hybrid products with multiple country perceptions, the country image that resonates with the target group should be promoted (Roth and Romeo, 1992). In a case of a product with a strong country image, the previous literature suggested that consumers usually hold a strong country association and country stereotypes in their minds, such as a Swiss watch, French perfume or Italian leather (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006); these examples are product-specific and help to create a strong image when promoting a product's COO (Roth and Romeo, 1992).

Figure 2.4: Product-country matches and mismatches with examples

Source: Bertoli and Resciniti (2012)

In Cell I, a product-county match occurs when a product is associated with a country image, like the example of Japanese cars and French shoes. The unfavourable match (Cell II) occurs when the product's important features are not perceived as the strength of the country (Roth and Rome, 1992). However, when the country image is positive but it is not important for a particular product category (Cell III) a mismatch occurs. In Cell IV, the country image is not strong and also the product feature is not important, for instance Hungarian beer (Bertoli and Resciniti, 2012). The benefit of understanding favourite and least favourite matches/mismatches can be applied in practice. When a strong and favourable country image occurs, it is likely that it positively affects product evaluation. The presence of an unfavourable match suggests that information of COO should not be a part of the marketing communication (Roth and Romeo, 1992).

Regarding country association, Insch and Florek's (2009) investigation of the use of product labels and packages in New Zealand and Australia serves as an important source of quality perceptions. The use of COO indicates that 84 per cent (788 brands) of the brands researched are associated with a New Zealand or Australian origin. They found out that "made in" New Zealand is the most popular COO across all categories (Insch and Florek, 2009). Therefore, the information of the positive image of New Zealand can be adopted to gain an advantage with retailers and in positioning the products. Agarwal and Kamarura (1999) also discuss that COO information can be beneficial in the real world, especially using experimental design to a controlled environment. Recently, countries such as Japan are realising the importance of country branding. As a result, Japan's country image scores more highly than the US and Germany. Moreover, Finland has begun to promote itself as an innovative country to challenge the US market (Gillespie and Hennessey, 2011)

2.11 COUNTRY IMAGE IN EMERGING MARKETS

The growth of consumers in developing countries has shown the evidence that there is a limited research investigating their evaluation and purchase intentions (Sharma, 2011). This research attempts to understand consumers in developing countries how country image influence them in purchasing behaviour. Researchers agree that products that are chosen by consumers are served as symbolic acquisition and communication of social status (Batra *et al.*, 2000; Douglas and Isherwood, 1979). Consumers in developing

countries are likely to perceived imported products to be superior to domestic products (Hu *et al*., 2008; Kindra, 2006; Sharma, 2011; Wang and Yang, 2008). The imported products denote the higher levels of achievement and a positive impression on others (Cleveland *et al*., 2009; Sharma, 2011) because of the higher price and scarce of imported products.

In developing economies, consumers are living in the 'imagined world' though possessing western goods as a source of high status (Batra *et al*., 2000). The perspectives of consumers from developing countries have shown that psychological, demographic and socio-economic factors lead to different attitudes such as fashion product from the Western countries are perceived as high quality and also signify social status (Sharma, 2011). Increasing of media exposure is also the source of Western lifestyle in emerging countries (Belk, 1999; Sharma, 2011). The desire for high quality products and services have shown that the shift from utilitarian to hedonic consumption and the importance of social status (Sharma, 2011; Tse *et al*., 1989). In fact, 80% of world's consumers are living in emerging countries (Hamzaoui-Essoussi and Merunka, 2007; Steenkamp and Burges, 2002). The study of COO in developed country cannot be implemented on these consumers, thus this phenomenon allows companies to understand the attitudinal and behavioural characteristics and help them to establish appropriate marketing strategies.

2.12 THEORIES TO EXPLAIN COUNTRY OF ORIGIN EFFECTS

The information of COO is available to consumers in several ways, such as media, education, marketing communications and travel (Laroche *et al*., 2005). The development of country image and COO effect indicates that consumers acquire a stereotyped country image of the products that affect purchase intention (Martin and Eroglu, 1993). Han (1989) proposes two functions of country image effects: the halo function and summary function.

2.12.1 COUNTRY IMAGE AS THE HALO EFFECT

According to Nisbett and Wilson (1977), the halo effect is one of the most familiar terms in psychology; it also is known as a global evaluation of any individual person's

attributes. An evaluation from characters or traits such as a likable personality might influence one to presume that a person is a good man/woman (Nisbett and Wilson, 1977). This phenomenon explains that nice people are more likely to have nice attributes. The halo effect is a powerful concept of perception because it can alter our judgment, for instance if we like someone, we tend to perceive that person to be more attractive. Wu and Petroshius (1987) mentioned that Thorndike (1920) defined the halo effect as *"the tendency of a judge to rate individual traits according to the rater's general impression of the object that is being rated. Subsequently, the ratings of individual traits may be either systematically inflated or deflated, depending on whether the rater's overall impression or attitude toward the object is positive or negative"* (p. 44).

According to Jain and Griffith (2011) the halo effect is also called the direct affect transfer process because it holds feelings about a country that transfer directly to the overall product evaluation. Since the introduction of the halo phenomenon, there are significant studies that strongly support the theory, for instance an experimental study by Miller (1970) was to give photographs of attractive and unattractive persons. Targeted respondents were asked to rate these two persons' personalities. The result concluded that an attractive person was rated with more favourable traits than the unattractive person (Nisbett and Wilson, 1970). Although this study was based on insufficient information about the persons in photographs, there was another study conducted by Landy and Sigall (1974), in which male college students were asked to give their evaluations on an essay by an attractive female writer and by an unattractive one, the results point to the case that college students gave a higher evaluation to the attractive writer even though the essay was a low quality one. This study supported that the halo effect still exists even when there is evidence of information about the writer (Nisbett and Wilson, 1977).

Since the 1960s, researchers have been aware that consumers hold different perceptions about products that are made in different countries (Han, 1989). Han (1990) explained the hypothesis of the "halo effect" to describe about COO, in which the effect is based on a status of the economic, political and cultural characteristics of the exporting country (Zbib, 2010). He described that country image is viewed as a halo because consumers evaluate products using country image without detecting the true quality of

that country's product (Han, 1989). He also cited Shapiro (1982, p. 20) that, "*Uncertainty about quality is a widespread and important feature of market for most firms' goods and services. Virtually all (goods and) services are impossible to evaluate until they are used...Many products that we buy quite frequently have unobservable attributes: restaurant meals (taste) and clothing (will it fade or shrink?) are two examples*".

During the process of making a decision, consumers usually depend on a *"systemic process of acquisition, evaluation and integration of product information or cues"* (Hanzaee and Khosrozadeh, 2011, p. 627). When consumers acknowledge a COO cue with other cues (such as price and brand), the outcome can be observed in two ways: the *halo effect* and *the summary construct* (Hanzaee and Khosrozadeh, 2011). The role of the halo effect appears when consumers are not familiar with a country's products. As a result of unfamiliarity, the halo hypothesis leads to direct and indirect implications (Hong and Wyer, 1989; Lin and Chen, 2006). Firstly, consumers usually judge product quality from country image. Secondly, country image has an influence on consumers through beliefs about product attributes and an indirect effect of those beliefs influences the overall evaluation of a product (Han, 1989). The structure of the halo hypothesis is described in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5: Halo Process

Country Image → Beliefs → Brand Attitude

Source: Han (1989)

When people have little information regarding a particular product or a situation where it is difficult to evaluate, the halo produces the effect on the salient product belief. As a result, it effects on the overall perceived quality of a product (Hui and Zhou, 2003).

2.12.2 COUNTRY IMAGE AS A SUMMARY CONSTRUCT

Conversely, a summary construct occurs when consumers have experienced or are familiar with the country's product; country image becomes a summary construct

because consumers assume product information or their beliefs about a product's attributes from the country image (Dwyer and Wickens, 2013). Han (1990, p. 34) defines the summary construct as *" a file of information about various brands from a country that consumers develop over time, store in their memory in the form of overall evaluations of products from countries, and retrieve readily when evaluating brands"*. In the case of countries with a negative image, consumers might have negative thoughts about that country's products (Hanzaee and Khosrozadeh, 2011). Han (1989) explained that country image can be viewed as a summary construct, as can brand image. Consumers have an idea of product information from country image and it directly affects consumer attitudes to a brand from that country (Han, 1989). As a result, the summary construct can be observed as described in Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6: Summary Construct

Beliefs   >   Country Image   >   Brand Attitude

Source: Han (1989)

Han (1989) classifies the summary construct view in terms of consumers considering information as "chunks" because it is easier to store in long-term memory (Han, 1989; Miller, 1956; Simon 1974). When a consumer considers a product, they usually recall from memory a previously formed overall evaluation (Han, 1989). Therefore, COO information directly affects consumer attitudes towards a brand.

2.13 NATIONAL STEREOTYPES LINKED TO COUNTRY OF ORIGIN (COO)

Studies in psychology determine that stereotypes are influenced from social judgment and result in biased thoughts (Martin *et al*., 2011). Culture can be an important determinant for perceived national stereotypes. Dinnie (2016), citing Higson (1998), stated that it is a concept that builds up in planned or unplanned way. National stereotype's standard definition is "*beliefs about the characteristics, attributes, and behaviors of certain groups*" (Hilton and von Hippel, 1996, p. 24). Martin *et al*. (2011) cited Greenwald and Banaji (1995, p. 14) in that stereotypes are "*a socially shared set of beliefs about traits that are characteristic of members of a social category*".

Stereotypes are stored beliefs about a particular country's characteristics which are socially shared (Herz and Diamantopoulos, 2013). As a cognitive process, COO is used as a signal to infer about quality (Chattalas *et al*., 2008). The affective process acts as an emotional association to a product in a positive or negative aspect and normative process; consumers socially hold desirable behaviour norms linked to COO (Chattalas *et al*., 2008).

The role of national stereotype acts an antecedent of COO effects, Martin and Eroglu (1993) mentioned that political, economic and technological factors have effects on product evaluations. The previous research suggests that *developed countries* are perceived as high quality producers in comparison to *developing counties* in producing similar products (Almonte *et al*., 1995). Martin *et al*., (2011) study how consumers adopt country stereotypes in their minds. In fact, stereotype activation is an unconscious, automatic process, it results in stereotypical thoughts (Devin, 1989; Martin *et al*., 2011). Country stereotypes are formed through experience, education or media exposure and it can evoke both cognitive and affective processes (Askgaard and Ger, 1998; Herz and Diamantopoulos, 2013; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). As consumers are exposed to negative stereotypical information, it can result in biased judgments (Devin, 1989; Greenwald and Banaji, 1995; Matin *et al*., 1995). As consumers usually project their thoughts on products that are associated with a certain country, it is agreed that COO effects may vary across product categories (Chattalas *et al*., 2008). As the classification of a product can be hedonic or utilitarian, the effects of COO also influence on these product differently for instance France can strongly communicates hedonism by reflecting emotional stereotype (Leclerc *et al*., 1994), while Germany communicates utilitarianism by its functional stereotype.

2.14 MULTI-DIMENSIONAL CONSTRUCTS OF COUNTRY IMAGE

Martin and Eroglu (1993) stated that the area of measuring country image effects is very sensitive; because of the shortage of valid and reliable measuring instruments (Davis *et al*., 1981), the scale does not clearly distinguish between measuring country image or the image of a product (Martin and Eroglu, 1993). The intention is to design a scale to enable to measure both image of the products and to capture the image of country. Martin and Eroglu (1993) have constructed a scale that purposely measures product-

specific attributes and country-relevant attributes. The most important step to redefine a
country image scale is to review the comprehensive studies on COO such as those of
Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Han, 1989; Hong and Wyer, 1989; Johansson *et al*., 1985; and
Nagashima, 1970. The construct of country image is designed and developed from a
multiple-item scale, initially recommended by Churchill (1979). The scale of country
image was developed with regard to West Germany and India to obtain three factors:
political, economic and technological (Table 2.7).

Table 2.7 Country image's component scale items by Martin and Eroglu (1993)

Factors	Item descriptions
Political dimension	Democratic versus dictatorial system
	Capitalist versus communist system
	Civilian versus military system
	Pro-western versus pro-communist
	Free market versus centrally planned system
Economic dimension	Level of standard living
	Stability of economic environment
	Quality of products
	Existence of a welfare system
	Level of labour costs
Technological dimension	Level of industrialisation
	Level of technological research
	Level of literacy
	Mass produced versus handcrafted products

Source: Martin and Eroglu (1993)

Nagashima's scale (1970) in Table 2.8, which consists of 20 items, is frequently used in
marketing research to measure product image. Testing for discriminant validity was
taken for the same two countries (West Germany and India) on a different sample group
in order to make sure that both scale items are unique and do not correlate to each other
(Martin and Eroglu, 1992: Peter and Churchill, 1981).

Table 2.8 Nagashima's product image scale

Expensive	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Inexpensive
Reasonably priced	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Unreasonably priced
Reliable	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Unreliable
Luxury items	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Necessity item
Heavy industry products	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Light manufacturing products
Careful and meticulous workmanship	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Not so careful and meticulous workmanship
Technically advanced	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Technically backward
Mass produced	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Hand made
Worldwide distribution	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Mostly domestic distribution
Inventive	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Imitative
Pride of ownership	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Not much pride of ownership
Much advertising	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Little advertising
Recognisable brand names	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Unrecognisable brand names
Large choice of size/model	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	Limited choice of size/model
More concerned with outward appearance	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	More concerned with performance
Clever use of colour	(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7)	No clever use of colour

Source: Nagashima (1977)

Tables 2.7 and 2.8 show country image and product-country image scales, in relation to this Pappu *et al*. (2007) suggested that the combination of both scales gives a comprehensive understanding of the effects of COO.

Country of origin image can be associated with the economic stage of a country, additionally the term used is macro image, while micro image represents the product-level image (Pappu *et al*., 2007). The macro image (Table 2.7) is addressed as a national symbol or at a national level, it connects to the economic and political situation and cultural value (Hamzaoui-Essoussi *et al*., 2011; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2003; Lawrence *et al*., 1992; Hooley *et al*., 1988). In contrast, the micro image (Table 2.8) is related to product category and means that certain products are associated with certain countries such as Italian shoes (Hamzaoui-Essoussi *et al*., 2011).

According to Pappu *et al*. (2007), the macro (country level) image represents consumers' attitudes to products from certain countries. Martin and Eroglu (1993,

p.193) define the macro image as *"the total of all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs one has about a particular country"*. The macro image is perceived as consumers' attitude towards a country in its economic, political and technological perspectives. Conversely, the micro image is the overall or general attitude regarding a product's image; Nagashima (1970) argues that the micro image is conceptualized at a product level.

Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993) adopt two-dimensional (micro and macro) country images in their research, with Amonini *et al*. (1998) finding that the macro and micro images are considered as two interrelated concepts. The measure for macro and micro image is applied and validated from previous studies such as Nagashima (1970, 1977), Jaffe and Nebensahl (1984), Albaum and Golden (1991) and Martin and Eroglu (1993).

2.15 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In summary, COO has been investigated in numerous research for decades. In the past, studies have shown that COO has an important impact on products and consumer evaluation. Understanding the images of COM and COD suggests that both images underline the importance of impact on a product. This chapter explains in detail about COO, which can be deconstructed to the components of COD and COM. It describes about country images and the role of COO. Later, the halo effect and summary construct are portrayed as the theoretical models for evaluating a product. The end of the chapter explains the connection of COO and brand; since a country can also be taken as a feature of a brand, building country equity is important when a product is associated with the image of a particular country.

The next chapter (Chapter 3) presents a literature review and explanations of the roles of COM and COM on purchase intention, product familiarity and product involvement.

Chapter 3

PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT, PURCHASE INTENTION AND PRODUCT FAMILIARITY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter explored the constructs of COO and the compositions of COM and COD. In addition, it investigated the definitions of country image, product-country image and product image and the relationship between COM/COD and the sportswear industry.

The chapter will:

- Describe previous research and review the literature on involvement before its application in marketing research
- Clarify the concepts of involvement and degree of involvement, including factors that determine levels of involvement
- Explore the involvement scale used in this thesis and the development of other scales
- Discuss the role and relationship of involvement in regard to purchase behaviour and processes
- Explain the buyer behaviour process and purchase intention concept and its implications in marketing research
- Explain the concept of product knowledge and its constructs: product familiarity and expertise

3.2 INVOLVEMENT IN PREVIOUS RESEARCH

There have been calls for further study in regard to the role of involvement, especially the role of involvement relating to COO effects (Johansson *et al.*, 1985; Lee *et al.*, 2005; Samiee, 1994; Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000). Previous studies have considered the effects of involvement and COO; however, this thesis intends to

determine the relationship between involvement levels and the effects of COM and COD, for which information is still limited in the existing COO research.

The involvement construct originates from social psychology in the persuasive communication literature, which emphasises a social-judgement-involvement approach, attitude and attitude change (Michaelidou and Dibb, 2008; Sherif and Sargent, 1947, 1965, 1967). The concept of involvement in psychology is a foundation for applying involvement in marketing, especially in consumer behaviours (Michaelidou and Dibb, 2008) such as product involvement (Bloch, 1981; Brisoux and Cheron, 1990; Michaelidou and Dibb, 2006), purchase involvement (Mittal, 1989), brand involvement (Kirmani *et al.*, 1999), advertising and personal involvement (Zaichkowsky, 1985).

Involvement is linked with marketing concepts such as perceived risk, advertising, information search, brand switching, brand loyalty, brand similarity, opinion leadership, diffusion processes and segmentation (Chaudhuri, 2000). Around the 1980s, researchers focused on involvement as a conceptual construct and measured it in several contexts, such as product class (Kapferer and Laurent, 1985, 1993; Michaelidou and Dibb, 2006, 2008; Rahtz and Moore, 1989; Zachkowsky, 1985, 1994), advertising (Andrews *et al.*, 1990; Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984; Laczniak and Muehling, 1989; Michaelidou and Dibb, 2008; Mitchell, 1981; Petty and Cacioppo, 1981; Vaughn, 1986; Zaichkowski, 1994) and purchase decision (Mittal, 1989; Michaelidou and Dibb, 2008; Slama and Tashcian, 1985; Smith and Bristor, 1994).

3.3 THE CONCEPT OF INVOLVEMENT

As described above, the involvement construct originates from the discipline of psychology but has been developed in terms of its marketing implications and extensively used as an explanatory variable in consumer behaviour research (Dholakia, 1997, 1998). To predict and understand consumers, researchers of consumer behaviour attempt to pinpoint the factors that prompt consumers to spend time and effort on decision making (Aurifeille *et al.*, 2007)). Krugman (1965), who has become one of the most important researchers in this area, introduced the concept of involvement in the area of marketing and television advertising in 1965 (Zaichkowsky, 2012). In their early work about involvement theory, Schiffman *et al.* (2014) stated that the focus is on

making personal connections between people's lives and the stimulus object. Some early theories discussed advertising and consumer behaviour in the research on hemispherical lateralisation or split-brain theory (Schiffman *et al.,* 2005). Furthermore, Batra and Kazmi (2008) explain that consumer involvement plays an important role in information processing in influencing consumers' behaviours.

Involvement has evolved from a split-brain theory that depends on the consumer's level of involvement (Batra and Kazmi, 2008). Since being introduced in consumer behaviour research, involvement has been identified as a concept that proceeds throughout the decision-making process (Browne and Kaldenberg, 1997). Especially in clothing purchases, involvement is driven by feelings of pleasure and interest. Under high involvement, consumers typically put greater efforts into information searching and become more aware of the brand.

Table 3.1 exemplifies the definitions of involvement, which is a key concept in consumer research. It has an impact, positive or negative, on quality evaluation, which is a factor that is usually associated with the investigation of COO images.

Table 3.1: Definitions of involvement

Author	Definition
Day, 1970, p. 10	"The general level of interest in the object or the centrality of the object to the person's ego structure."
Mitchell, 1981, p. 25	"An individual level, internal state variable whose motivational properties are evoked by a particular stimulus or situation."
Zaichkowsky, 1985, p. 342	"A person's perceived relevance of the (consumption) object based on inherent needs, values and interest."
Brennan and Movondo, 2000, p. 132	"A motivational and goal directed emotional state that determines the personal relevance of a purchase decision to a buyer."
De Wulf *et al.*, 2001, p. 37	"The consumer's enduring perceptions of the importance of the product category based on the consumer's inherent needs, values and interests."

Product involvement is considered a motivational construct (Anton *et al*., 2007; Celsi and Olsen, 1988; Ferreira and Coelho, 2015; Olsen, 2007). Involvement has been previously conceptualised, such as advertising involvement (Lin and Chen, 2006),

product involvement or purchase involvement (Aurifeille *et al.*, 2007). These two concepts are interrelated; for example, high purchase involvement is used to describe consumers who are willing to spend their effort and time into finding the best value for a specific product. Schiffman *et al.* (2014) state that a high-involvement purchase is important to consumers in terms of perceived risk and requires extensive information processing, such as a dandruff shampoo, which involves a high perceived social risk, and a car, which involves a high perceived financial risk. Moreover, product involvement is associated with personal relevance or interest relating to a product (Mittal and Lee, 1989).

When consumers are exposed to certain advertising or marketing campaigns, they can choose if they want to receive the message or not. For example, a person looking for a fishing product is likely to be exposed to fishing-related products. Timothy (2005) suggests that involvement can be seen from two perspectives. The first describes consumers who are able to handle and interact with products, such as trying on new clothes or testing computers. All this first-hand exposure can lead consumers to purchase a product. However, the second perspective describes consumers who have a personal interest in the merchandise. In other words, people who love fishing and camping find shopping for fishing rods and camping equipment more enjoyable (Timothy, 2005). The level of product involvement tends to increase when consumers select or become involved with the product, and the likelihood of searching for more information about the product before purchasing it increases (Josiassen *et al.,* 2008).

Product involvement is the consumer's inherent degree of interest in a certain product or brand, for instance a favourite sporting team's jersey or a consumer's first car. Hence, it is different from purchase-decision involvement because it is a situational and short-term involvement that involves the consumer's extent of concern for and interest in the purchase of a specific product (Lantos, 2011). Message–response / advertising involvement relates to the interest in learning the message from the marketing communication. In the case of high product involvement or purchase involvement, it is expected that there is an advertising involvement. Nevertheless, high advertising involvement can also indicate product and purchase involvement (Lantos, 2011).

3.4 CONCEPTUALISING INVOLVEMENT

Zaichkowsky (1986) discusses the factors that are proposed to be the antecedents of involvement. The first factor relates to the characteristics of an individual who possesses their own values and experiences. The second factor relates to physical characteristics, while the last factor relates to varying situations. These three factors influence the levels of involvement. The conceptualisation of involvement is shown in Figure 3.1. The antecedent factors serve as a drive for involvement towards a product. Zaichkowsky (1986) mentions that three different antecedents of involvement are person, object/stimulus and situational factors, as involvement is a motivational construct and different antecedents can trigger consumers to process product-related information at a given time (Solomon *et al*., 2013).

Figure 3.1: Conceptualisation of involvement
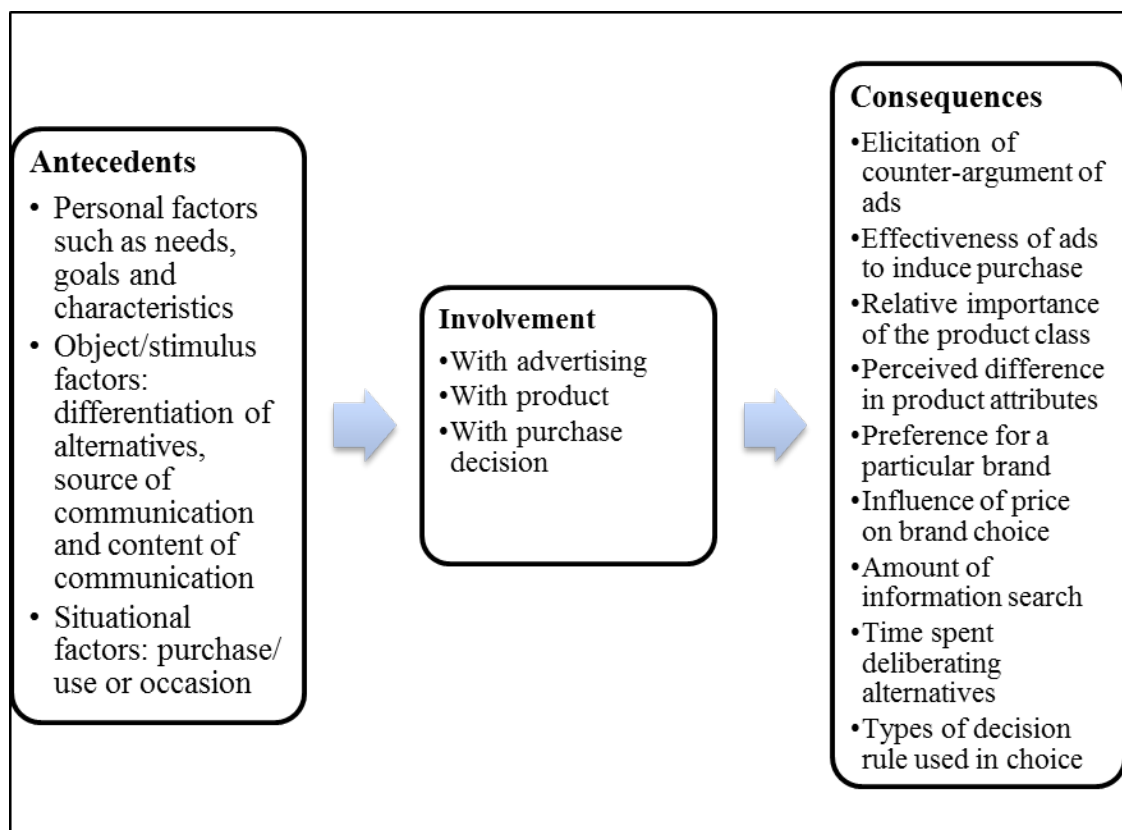
Source: Adapted from Solomon *et al*. (2013)

3.4.1 DEGREE OF INVOLVEMENT

Krugman (1965) studied the distinction between high and low levels of involvement; his research highlights that both levels of involvement contribute to the study of marketing research (Cited in Lee *et al.,* 2005). The first distinctions of involvement were proposed by Houston and Rothchild (1978), which are situational involvement and enduring involvement. Situational involvement is "the ability of a situation to elicit from individuals concerns for their behaviour in that situation" – it is determined by stimuli such as a promotion or sale (Houston and Rothchild, 1978, p. 184). Enduring involvement comes from the personal values and experiences of an individual. Kardes *et al.* (2011) mention that the level of a consumer's interest depends on how much he or she is fundamentally involved; for example, those who ski become more involved with ski products and events. However, situational involvement is rather shorter termed and can change over time. Moreover, this type of involvement is associated with the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) (Lee *et al.,* 2005), which is explained later in this chapter. Situational involvement is based on a special circumstance. When the situation is over, the consumer's interest is likely to decrease correspondingly (Kardes *et al.,* 2011).

The degree of involvement influences the amount or quality of a consumer's cognitive response (Buchholz and Smith, 1991; Edell and Keller, 1989; Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984; MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989; Wright 1973, 1974, 1975). For instance, searching for product-related information or advertising is considered high involvement. High-involvement purchases refer to complex, expensive, risky and ego-intensive products (Batra and Kazmi, 2008). In high-involvement buying, consumers have to go through a certain decision-making process every time they purchase a product because of the risk factor associated with the product price or use (Majumdar, 2010). High-involvement products are more likely to be products that require time and effort when deciding, while low-involvement products are automatically purchased, such as milk, snacks and soft drinks (Majumdar, 2010).

When purchase decisions are important to consumers, situational involvement is usually high and they consider their decisions more carefully. For example, purchasing a car is an important decision for most people (Kardes *et al.,* 2011). However, low situational

involvement indicates that consumers do not think carefully about the decisions, for instance chocolate bars. When the information is complex and difficult to evaluate, a high level of involvement is needed to determine the implications.

3.5 FACTORS DETERMINING THE LEVEL OF CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT

According to Lamb *et al.* (2012), the level of purchase involvement consists of five factors.

(1) *Previous experience* relates to consumers' familiarity with products or services. The level of involvement usually decreases when consumers frequently purchase a product, for example buying grocery items. If a consumer intentionally buys the same brand because of previous satisfaction, it implies a low involvement decision.

(2) *Interest* refers to involvement that is directly related to consumers' personal interests, and interest usually encourages people to spend more time on related activities and products.

(3) *The perceived risk of negative consequences* includes financial, social and psychological risks that determine the level of involvement (Lamb *et al.,* 2012). When financial risk is involved, purchasing high-priced products increases the level of risk; it also increases the level of involvement in time and effort spent in making decisions. In addition, social risk is involved because people want to purchase products that affect others' opinions of them, while psychological risk is associated with the concern that they will make a wrong decision (Lamb *et al*., 2012).

(4) *Situation* refers to how, in some circumstances, there may be a temporary increase in involvement. For example, an employee may routinely purchase low-priced wine but when customers visit, he or she may have to increase the involvement of purchasing more-expensive wine as a gift.

(5) *Social visibility* relates to products such as designer clothes, jewellery or cars, which tend to be higher involvement because they allow the display of the high social status of the purchaser.

3.5.1 THE ELABORATION LIKELIHOOD MODEL

Josiassen *et al.* (2008) argued that the role of product involvement usually weakens the effects of COO, which later became the dominant view. This perspective is grounded in the literature of the ELM, which is used in the research on persuasion (Josiassen, 2009). It is another theoretical approach to studying consumers' information processing, as proposed by Petty and Cacioppo (1986), who state that the information goes through either a *peripheral* or *central* route (Hansen and Christensen, 2007). When the information utilises a central route, the processing is a cognitive hierarchical treatment of information, whereas when the information utilises a peripheral route, it is an informational process based on less-complex analysis and evaluation (Josiassen, 2009). Under a high-involvement situation, consumers usually use a central route, using a peripheral route for low involvement (Petty *et al.*, 1983; Josiassen, 2009).

The central route is described by Petty and Cacioppo (1986, p. 3) as "a result of a person's careful and thoughtful considerations of the true merits of the information present". The central route utilises high effort and reasoning systems for processing information (Larson, 2010). When the central route is in use, consumers are consciously involved with thinking and making the best judgement they can with the information available. While an individual may not have a problem with processing information, a motivational state is also required to exert mental effort (Larson, 2010). The component of cognitive motivation is a trait of someone who enjoys thinking: this trait is called the 'need for cognition' (Petty and Caioppo, 1986; Larson, 2010). On the other hand, the peripheral route is used for low-involvement purchases. Consumers who are less motivated to purchase make passive processing of visual cues and learning through repetition (Majumdar, 2010). Figure 3.2 explains that when the evaluation likelihood is high, the attitude occurs via the central route and consumers carefully evaluate information or messages (Nevid, 2012). By contrast, the peripheral route requires less information; it is simpler to persuade consumers who use a peripheral route (Josiassen, 2009).

Figure 3.2: Elaboration likelihood model
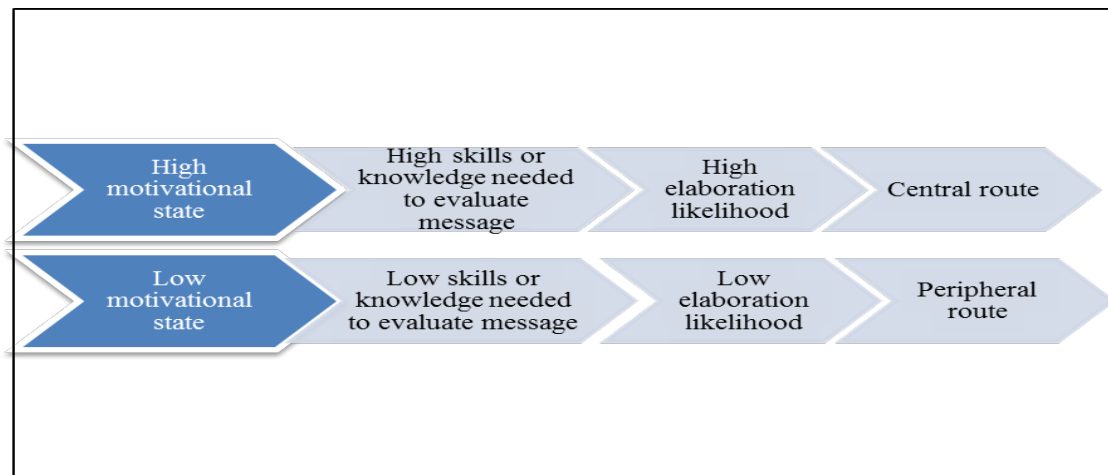
Source: Nevid (2012)

Nowadays, consumers are bombarded with messages and persuasive information on products. The information of brand names along with information that consumers might not consciously acknowledge, such as repeated pictures and signs on the street that are seen every day (Larson, 2010), is called the *sneaky route*, which is a process of messages being stored in memory without conscious awareness. Generally, the ELM is a model involved with evaluating persuasive messages when the motivational state is high (Nevid, 2012).

3.6 MARKETING PERSPECTIVE ON INVOLVEMENT

Involvement is considered as part of a consumer's feelings, thoughts and behaviour responses to a product category (Gordon *et al.,* 1998; Miller and Marks, 1996; Venugopal, 2010). The marketing strategy varies according to the level of involvement with a product. Understanding involvement can benefit marketers in formulating and coordinating a marketing strategy. For high-involvement purchasing, marketers ought to research extensive information to identify the uniqueness of the products (Lamb *et al.,* 2012). By contrast, for low-involvement products, consumers may not realise their wants until they are in the store. Therefore, in-store marketing is an important tool, especially for products with attractive and easily recognised package designs, such as Campbell soup and Heinz ketchup (Lamb *et al.,* 2012).

Kotler *et al*. (2009) suggests that brand loyalty has no effect on low-involvement products. Consumer decisions might rely on the routine purchase and low-cost items that require little effort decision. Marketers usually convert low-involvement products into higher-involvement products by involving issues and personal situations and building strong emotions related to personal values through advertising. In 2015, McDonald's launched a long-running campaign: "I'm Lovin' It", which focused on various menu items to encourage customers to "Choose Lovin'". The chain attempted to offer love as an emotional and high-involvement message (Lamb *et al.,* 2012). Researchers suggest that offering products on a 'limited availability' basis is another way to increase involvement, such as providing promotions for a limited time or daily specials (Lamb *et al.,* 2012).

3.6.1 THE EFFECTS OF PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT ON COUNTRY OF ORIGIN

The lack of existing research decomposing COO into COM and COD with levels of product involvement inspires this research to investigate this inconclusive problem. Lin and Chen's study (2006) shows that with an increasing level of product involvement, country image also has a significant effect on purchase intention. In addition, Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran (2000) call for more research on the effects of product involvement. They conclude that consumers are likely to use COO information when considering low-involvement products. Despite low involvement, COO becomes salient and more-accessible information to aid in decision making.

Understanding the role of involvement allows companies and marketers to consider involvement and related information processing (such as an increase in sensory or visual appeal) to create personal involvement with the product. Goldsmith and Emmert (1991) provide evidence that product involvement has an impact on purchasing behaviour. Previous studies of COO have suggested that the results show a varied outcome depending on product categories (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001). However, purchase intention is influenced by the image of COO; a multi-cue study revealed that COM plays a limited role in consumers' quality perceptions (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998). A study of consumer attitudes towards imported and domestic products, like fashion clothing and sportswear apparel, found that behaviour is strongly influenced by the degree of involvement (Summers *et al*., 2006).

Previous research has suggested that when consumers are less involved with the product, they are more likely to rely on COO images because of the salience and accessibility of COO information (Han, 1989; Maheswaran, 1994; Josiassen *et al.*, 2008). Another perspective of involvement assumes that a highly involved consumer attempts to seek and give regard to information about a product before evaluating it (Celsi and Olsen, 1988). Ahmed and d'Astous (2004) also support the notion that consumers not only consider COO image but also price and design to choose a certain product.

When there is a high level of involvement, such as in the case of purchasing electronics (Li and Wyer, 1994; Ahmed *et al.*, 2004) and cars (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998), it carries high monetary and performance risks. Consumers are likely to search for information before deciding on their purchase. In the case of more-complex products, the results show that COO has an important role in quality perception (Piron, 2000). However, there are incongruent outcomes regarding the effects of COM and COD images on consumers' evaluations (Phau and Prendergast, 2000). Josiassen *et al.* (2008) suggest that country image may affect high levels of involvement, depending on the product category (Liefied, 1993; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001; Ahmed *et al.,* 2004). Low involvement is considered as having lower risk-taking and lesser search efforts in terms of information; during the purchasing process, consumers make less effort in making a decision (Schiffman *et al.,* 2014). Studying low-involvement products and COO images, Ahmed *et al.* (2004) report that COO has an influence but the effect is weak. If there are other cues available, COO also plays a limited role (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998; Thakor and Katsanis, 1997). Some researchers, such as Phau and Suntornnond (2006) and Ahmed *et al.* (2004), agree that low involvement may shape the purchase intention but the result is still obscure.

Past research indicates the importance of product involvement since it is a variable that directly or indirectly affects the use of COO information when consumers make a decision. Several issues are considered, including product involvement and product familiarity in examining the presence of a COO cue (Ahmed and d'Astous, 1995). Thus, the COD cue is under-researched in connection with different levels of product involvement. Therefore, this research provides insights of what forms the basis of consumer's decisions when they have informational cues to consider.

3.7 MEASUREMENT IN PURCHASE INVOLVEMENT

Zaichkowsky (1985) proposes the PII instrument, which is a 20-item inventory of four
constructs of measuring involvement: importance, relevance, attitude and hedonism.
However, later research (Mittal, 1995) uses a CIP involvement scale, which has
received greater acceptance among researchers (Havitz and Dimanche, 1997).

Table 3.2: Mittal's Modified Purchase-Decision Involvement (PDI) Scale

Item	Statement
1	I choose ___ very carefully
2	Which ___ I buy matters to me a lot
3	Choosing ___ is an important decision to me

Source: Mittal (1995)

With regard to the PDI scale (Table 3.2), Mittal (1995, p. 664) says it is "the perceived
importance of the stimulus; be that stimulus the product itself or the purchase decision
task". The modified three-item version of the PDI scale proves that it is an effective
scale of unidimensional and internal consistency (Bearden *et al.,* 2011). This research
follows Mittal's involvement scale due to its concise nature and that its use clarifies the
involvement of the consumer. There are many criticisms on Zaichkowsky's PII,
including that that it is too long and incapable of measuring involvement because of
potential attitudinal contamination (Foxall and Pallister, 1998).

The dimensions of Mittal's conceptual model of purchase involvement concern the
motivation of consumers towards making the 'right' choice. Purchase involvement
depends on what kind of situation consumers encounter; these may be a routine
purchase or a purchase with a distinct purpose, for instance a birthday gift (Michaelidou
and Dibb, 2008). Some types of purchases, such as buying chocolate for oneself, have
lower purchase involvement than others, such as buying chocolate as a gift; this implies
that the motivation behind the purchase can determine the degree of involvement
(Michaelidou and Dibb, 2008). Purchase involvement is a level of interest in the
purchase process stimulated by the need consider to the purchase.

3.8 CONSUMERS' PURCHASE INTENTION

As international trade has become more competitive, attracting new customers and maintaining existing customers are the main goals for many firms. There are various elements that form the intention to purchase certain products. Researchers refer to purchase intention as a personal action tendency to purchase a product or brand, which may be confused with attitude (Rezvani *et al.,* 2012). Attitude usually involves the evaluation of a product, whereas intention involves the consumer's motivation to form his/her behaviour. Businesses and consumer demand have progressively changed. The factors that influence purchasing behaviour do not only relate to price. In the era of mass media, consumers have numerous ways of accessing information about products, and their ways of thinking in regard to emotions, wants, needs and demands have changed; therefore, researchers have attempted to identify what factors that influence purchase decisions (Mirabi *et al.*, 2015).

Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) define the concept of purchase intention that it is an individual's willingness to purchase a certain product or service (Al-Ekam *et al.*, 2012). Spears and Singhe (2004, p.56) define it as "an individual's conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand". Mirabi *et al.* (2015), citing Morinez *et al.* (2007), say that purchase intention is a situation where the consumer tends to buy products. Purchase intention can change under the influence of perceived value, quality or price; moreover, in the process of buying, the consumer is motivated by both internal and external factors (Gogoi, 2013).

In recent decades, COO studies have attracted researchers' attentions because this subject continuously contributes to the increasing global competition among international firms (Kaynak and Kara, 2002). Researchers have begun to study COO in cross-cultural settings because of the growth in the number of developing country consumers. Although many multinational companies have expanded their production and market in developing countries, the investigation on COO conducted in these countries is scare (Kaynak and Kara, 2002). Hence, it is essential to conduct a study in a developing country to develop knowledge in terms of purchasing behaviour.

The rapidly growing middle class are gaining brand-consciousness and adopting casual wear/sportswear in their lifestyles (Kumar *et al.*, 2009; Shashidhar, 2004), which has the effect of increasing the purchasing power of middle class consumers on foreign products, for example in India where international apparel brands were only for the rich. A loosening of trade restrictions has allowed some US brands to enter India (Kumar *et al.*, 2009). The study of country image in Asian society, especially for fashion items, has found that COO is the potential factor that causes bias on product evaluation (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2004; Miranda and Parkvithee, 2013).

The following section will explain the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and the Theory of Planned behaviour (TPB), which are theories that explain how purchase intention is formed.

The theory of reasoned action (TRA) is widely used for clarifying consumer intentions towards products/brands (Davis, 1989; Karahanna *et al.*, 1999; Wang and Yang, 2008). According to Belleau *et al.* (2007), it is a theory that is based on the fact that an individual is rational and makes systematic use of information in making choices. It explains the relationship between attitude and behaviour by focusing on attitudes, beliefs, behaviour intentions and behaviour. In other words, an individual's purchase intention is determined by one's attitude and belief of the perceived ease of use and usefulness (Carr and Sequeira, 2007; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Wang and Yang, 2008). Although the ultimate goal is to understand and predict an individual's behaviour, the theory emphasises the factors influencing behavioural intentions to perform or not perform actions (Summers *et al.*, 2006). Purchase intentions comprise the decision to act and explain psychological states that represent an individual's perception to engage in a behaviour (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993; Wang and Yang, 2008).

In accordance with TRA, in the case of a positive country image on a specific product category, consumers are likely to perceive these products more favourably. A positive attitude toward a country results in a higher purchase intention (Roth and Romeo, 1992).

Ajzen (2005) argues that the TRA focuses on forms of behaviour under one's control; therefore, he adapted the theory by adding perceived behaviour control as a factor influencing behavioural intention.

The TPB is an extension model of the TRA (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Edberg, 2010; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). In the TRA, the central factor is an individual's intention to perform. Intentions are considered as the motivational factors that can influence the individual's behaviour. Moreover, they also indicate how much effort the individual is planning to exert in order to perform the behaviour (Edberg, 2010). The TRA assumes that people who have neither the resources nor the opportunities to perform a behaviour are unlikely to have strong intentions, even if they hold positive attitudes towards the behaviour (Ajzen, 2005). Another interesting point of the TRA is the direct connection between behaviour and perceived behavioural control. Perceived behavioural control helps to predict and influence behaviour directly and to indirectly predict intentions because it acts as a proxy for a measure of actual control (Ajzen, 2005).

Essentially, the TPB is a theory that is successful in prediction and better equipped than the TRA. Eysenck (2004) gives the example of a smoker who wants to quit. Usually, the subjective norm supports the intention to stop smoking and, according to the TRA, the smoker would stop smoking. In a real-life scenario, there are other factors that prevent a smoker from stopping; he or she would have low perceived behavioural control, which predicts an unsuccessful attempt. The TPB is based on three determinants: attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control. First, attitude depends on positive or negative evaluation to perform an action of interest. Second, intention is an individual's perception of social pressure whether to perform the behaviour or not. Finally, perceived behavioural control is a determinant of intention that leads the individual to perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 2005).

3.9 THE EFFECTS OF COUNTRY OF ORIGIN ON PURCHASE INTENTION

COO research is generally connected to the perceptual and evaluative judgement of a product (Hui and Zhou, 2002). Prior research has found that consumers might hold different appraisals about country-related products from different countries, and such views will influence their purchase intention (Wang and Yang, 2008). The managerial

implications of this are that the effect of COO is directly related to the consumer's purchase intention and will shape the consumer's evaluation of product quality (Hui and Zhou, 2002). The effects of COO have been described widely in the research regarding the influence on perceptual or evaluative judgement (Hui and Zhou, 2002; Liefeld, 1993; Schooler, 1965; Papadopoulos, 1993), but these researches are insufficient to directly answer as to the effect of COO on purchase intention. Despite some attempts to fill the gap between COO effect and purchase intention, d'Astous and Ahmed (1999) mention inconsistencies due to problems when conducting research. Johansson (1993) states that COO helps consumers to make a decision and exemplifies some characteristics of COO associated with certain countries, such as high quality as being exemplified by Germany and Japan, attractive design as being exemplified by Italy and special appeal as being exemplified by France and Switzerland. However, problems occur when consumers show bias *against* products for which they do not like the design or colour. Moreover, COO may depend on moderating variables such as the degree of involvement and brand (d'Astous and Ahmed, 1999). Therefore, this research aims to minimise all possible bias and validity as occurs in the previous research. Assessing the effect of COO on purchase intention is a significant issue that competitive corporations seek to answer. The use of COO information by consumers helps these competitive corporations to form a strategic plan for their products.

Previous research indicates that consumers employ COO stereotypes in their perceptions and use country informational cues to evaluate the supposed 'superiority' or 'inferiority' of a product (Lin and Chen, 2006; Miranda and Parkvithee, 2013). According to Agrawal and Kamakura (1999), most studies of COO manipulate only one cue and the results indicate that the COO information is likely to have an important impact on product evaluation. Nevertheless, in real-world situations, there are other cues, such as price, brand name and physical product attributes, that are involved. Peterson and Jolibert (1995) reveal in their study that the influence of COO decreases with multi-cue products. COO information has an influence on the perception of a product and plays a major part in assessing perceived risk, which represents the anxiety of the buyer in the case of being unable to anticipate the results of a purchase (Michman *et al.*, 2003). Hong and Wyer (1989) agree that COO information influences consumers' evaluations; similarly, Papadopoulos and Heslop (1993) and Han (1990) mention that the COO image affects purchase intention. In the case of a negative COM, consumers

usually evaluate the product in a negative way. Alongside the COD information available, it plays an important role in consumers' preferences (Lin and Chen, 2006).

3.10 CONSUMER DECISION PROCESS

The decision process encompasses psychological and cultural factors; therefore the levels of decisions can vary from routine to complex, depending on the product category, past experience and product cues (Michman *et al.*, 2003). The model of five stages depicts the buying decision process. It is possible that some consumers will pass sequentially through all stages; conversely, some may skip or reverse stages (Tyagi and Kumar, 2004).

Figure 3.3: Model of the consumer decision process
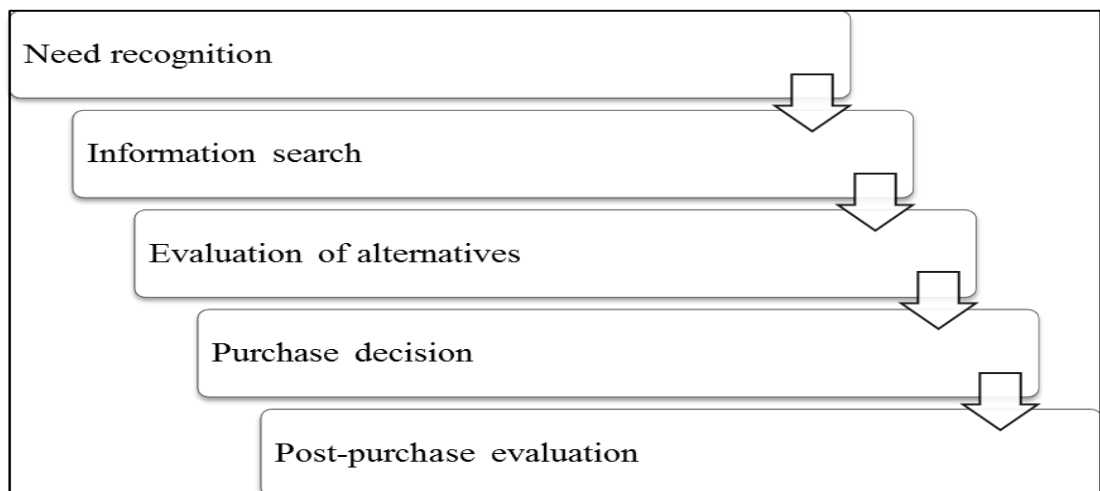
Source: Klopper *et al.* 2006

Problem recognition is a critical stage in the decision process. Buyers must recognise their problem or need. For instance, a consumer may have a problem with their existing car or the inconvenience of travelling by public transportation. At this stage, problem recognition can sometimes progress to the next stage from the stimulus of advertising and sales promotions (Michman *et al.*, 2003). At the information stage, consumers perform both an internal search (memory and past experience) and an external search (web, friends, salespeople and others), and the evaluation of alternatives occurs simultaneously with the external search because consumers evaluate which criteria to use in making a decision (Lantos, 2011). If a consumer has a belief in a certain brand

via a positive perspective, he/she develops a positive brand attitude, which indicates a
preferred brand (Lantos, 2011). In a purchasing decision, consumers make a choice
among alternatives; however, there may be an unanticipated situational factor that can
heavily influence their decision (Michman *et al.*, 2003). Post-purchase behaviour
determines whether consumers are satisfied with the purchase; if there is a large gap
between expectations and product performance, it is likely that consumers will be
dissatisfied (Armstrong *et al.*, 2009).

3.11 TYPES OF BUYING BEHAVIOUR

Consumers make various types of buying decisions according to the importance and
complexity (Iman, 2006). The classification of buying decisions gives a better
understanding of their characteristics and thus the marketing implications for each type
of behaviour. Buying behaviour differs depending on the degree of involvement,
product category and degree of differences among brands (Kotler and Armstrong,
2014). Figure 3.4 portrays four types of buying behaviour: complex decisions, variety-
seeking decisions, dissonance-reducing decisions and habitual decisions.

Figure 3.4: Four types of buying behaviour
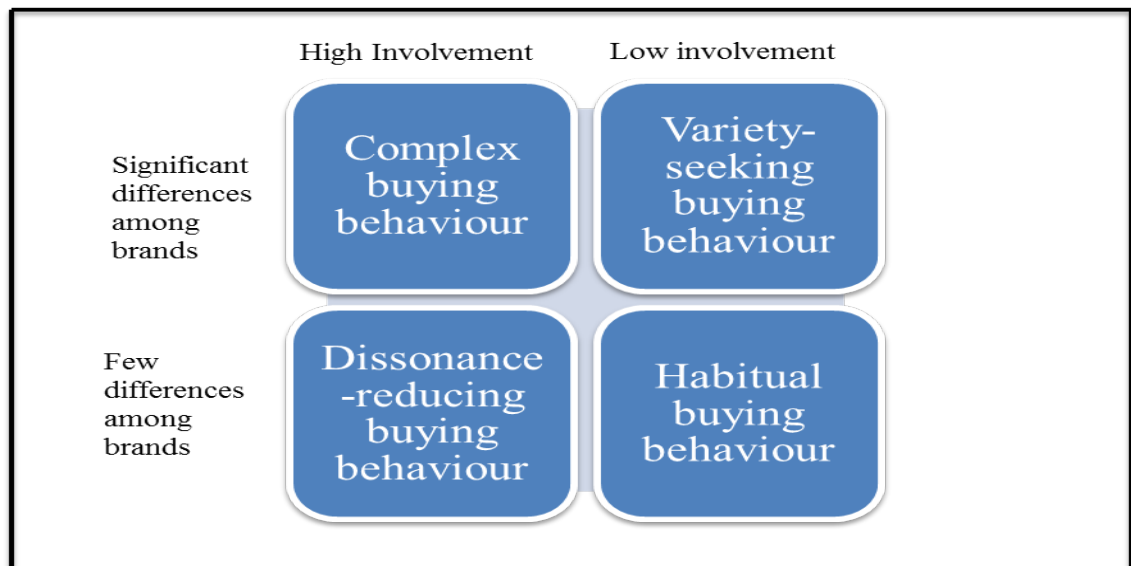
Source: Kotler and Armstrong (2014)

Complex buying behaviour occurs when consumers are highly involved in a purchase
and there are brand differences (Kotler and Armstrong, 2014). It also happens when the

products are expensive and risky and consumers need information to learn about the products, such as cars and computers (Dogra and Ghuman, 2008). The buyer has to go through a cognitive learning process, which develops product beliefs and then attitudes to make a purchase decision (Kotler and Armstrong, 2014). Dissonance-reducing behaviour refers to consumers who are highly involved but the differences in brands are low, such as purchasing a carpet or furniture (Krishnamacharyulu and Ramakrishnan, 2009). A customer may experience post-purchase dissonance, which can be either good or bad. Habitual buying behaviour has low involvement and an absence of brand differences. Consumers are most likely to buy out of habit, such as salt, milk and bread (Cant *et al.,* 2007). Variety-seeking buying behaviour is characterised by consumers who are low-involvement buyers who perceive a brand to be distinctive, for example shampoo, sandwiches and cookies (Masterson and Pickton, 2014). These types of products are less expensive and frequently purchased; moreover, consumers prefer to purchase different brands or different items of the same brand in order to experience new products (Dogra and Ghuman, 2008).

3.12 PRODUCT KNOWLEDGE

Several research often associate COO studies with product evaluation (Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000; Li and Wyer, 1994; Maheswaran, 1994) and product quality (Elliott and Cameron, 1994). Yet, the studies of COO's determinants are not clear. This research extends COO research by focusing factors such product familiarity to examine the effects of product information on purchase intention and CPV.

Nowadays, consumers are able to access an abundance of information from a variety sources. The value that consumers obtain from such information about a product derives from motivation and knowledge (Troilo, 2015). Knowledge consists of a set of information and beliefs that are applied in forming consumption choices. What consumers expect from a product depends on what they want and what they know (Troilo, 2015). It plays a significant role in COO studies and consumer behaviour research (Brucks, 1985). According to Gursoy (2003), consumers gain product knowledge from their experience with the product by means of verbal, visual and sensory stimuli. Prior knowledge assists consumers in evaluating a product's applications, attributes and utilities. Additionally, it enhances a consumer's internal

memory and helps in the process of decision making (Brucks, 1985; Gursoy, 2003). Prior knowledge has been argued to facilitate the acquisition of new information (Rao and Monroe, 1988). Consumers with low product knowledge (novice) might base their product evaluation on extrinsic information, such as COO and brand name (Lee and Lee, 2009). However, there is a different explanation of how consumers with high knowledge (expert) make use of COO information. Some research mentions that experts make a decision based on the attribute functions of a product, and some suggest that they use COO as an indicator (Han, 1989; Lee and Lee, 2009).

The concept of knowledge is measured in many fields of social science. Product knowledge can be defined as the overall knowledge about functional attributes of products and brands (Lee and Lee, 2009). Traditionally, knowledge has been measured as a unidimensional construct, sometimes seen as prior knowledge or product familiarity (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). The topic of familiarity is a focus in consumer research that examines consumers' choices in decisions (Park, 1976; Johnson and Russo, 1984) and their reactions to advertising (Anderson and Jolson, 1980; Edell and Mitchell, 1978; Johnson and Russo, 1984; Marks and Olson, 1981). In the process of making a purchase decision, product knowledge can be a factor that affects a consumer's decision, due to their memories or knowledge (Lin and Chen, 2006). Alba and Hutchinson (1987) divide consumer knowledge into two components: *expertise* and *familiarity* with products.

3.12.1 PRODUCT FAMILIARITY

There are two approaches that measure product familiarity: first, how much consumers know about a product (Nugroho *et al.*, 2014). The second approach is how much consumers think they know about a product (Park and Lessig, 1981). Familiarity is the collection of exposures to or experiences of a product. Jacoby et al. (1986) explain that familiarity indicates the number of product-related experiences that have been accumulated by consumers, while expertise refers to the ability to successfully perform a product-related task. Advertising exposure, informational searches, information from salespeople and product usage are product-related experiences (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987).

Product familiarity can increase consumer expertise (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). Each consumer varies in their ability to process information, depending on their prior knowledge (Hoyer and Maclnnis, 2010). Experts are those who are experienced and familiar with a product. The knowledge of experts differs from that of novices. Experts have more categories and associations related to which brand is appropriate to use in a certain situation. They also have more sub-level categories about certain products, for instance cars. Experts would know more about a sub-category of car, such as vintage cars or roadsters (Hoyer and MacInnis, 2010).

Familiarity enables consumers to remember product and brand information. A product's familiarity benefits in developing a cognitive structure from product-related experiences (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Fiske *et al*., 1983; Mitchell and Dacin, 1996; Soderlund, 2002). A higher level of product familiarity results in a positive response, such as satisfaction, repurchase intention and word of mouth (Soderlund, 2002). Expertise is characterised by a consumer's knowledge regarding a given product (Troilo, 2015). When a consumer becomes familiar with a product, it does not necessarily lead to them becoming an expert. For instance, an individual who often goes to a cinema (familiar) may have no knowledge of film genres, actors or writers (Troilo, 2015). Expertise includes both the structure of cognitive processes and knowledge. The cognitive process is related to how knowledge is processed and stored (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). Novices are those who have no experience or knowledge about a particular product.

Between the two constructs mentioned above, familiarity is more frequently used because it encompasses two dimensions: subjective and objective knowledge (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). Objective knowledge is specific attribute information, while subjective knowledge relates to how much the consumer considers they know about a product. The two concepts are correlated, but the sources of knowledge retrieval and mechanisms are different (Cordell, 1997; Lee and Lee, 2009). Objective knowledge is heavily stored memory. Rudell (1979) found that objective knowledge is best used for newly acquired information (Lee and Lee, 2009). However, subjective knowledge is related to the knowledge accumulated through product-related experiences (Lee and Lee, 2009; Park *et al.,* 1994; Rudell, 1979).

3.13 THE MODERATING ROLE OF PRODUCT FAMILIARITY

Product familiarity can play many roles in COO research. Familiarity can interact with other factors, such as attitudes and preferences. In most cases, when familiarity is high, attitude or evaluation is still in question. Therefore, research in familiarity requires investigation.

Product familiarity refers to the consumer's familiarity with a given product category (Josiassen *et al.,* 2008). Han (1989) suggests that product familiarity is likely to influence the overall product evaluation. He classifies the effect of familiarity into two models: halo and summary perspectives. When consumers use a COO image from a *halo* perspective, they infer an evaluation of a certain product that is unfamiliar. It suggests that consumers use a COO image as indirect evidence of a product's performance (Bilkey and Nes, 1982). This situation occurs when they have little knowledge about a product. For example, consider a lawnmower that a consumer is not familiar with; nonetheless, if it is 'made in Germany', which is generally perceived as a high-quality COO and the consumer believes in outstanding products from Germany, they will evaluate the unfamiliar German lawnmower favourably (Josiassen *et al.*, 2008).

When familiarity with a country or product occurs, or serves as a *summary construct*, it can interfere with the effect of COO information (Chattalas and Takada, 2008; Johansson *et al.*, 1985; Lee and Lockshin, 2011). When consumers are more familiar with either a product or country, they usually rely less on the COO image. Liu and Johnson (2005) declare that when forming beliefs from memory, consumers rely on cognitive information to judge products. When the familiarity is high, COO information is not relevant because the consumer depends on cognition to make a judgement (Lee and Lockshin, 2011). According to the same example of a German lawnmower, when a consumer is familiar with this product and has a positive experience with one or more German lawnmowers, then in the case of an untried German lawnmower, the consumer assumes that this product is also a high-quality one (Josiassen *et al.*, 2008).

Familiarity can be obtained through experience, such as travel to a certain country. Papadopoulos and Heslop (1986) discover that a person who has never travelled to a

country may hold a different perspective to a person who has been there. Product familiarity can influence product evaluations and purchase decisions. COO serves as a surrogate for other product information when a consumer is not familiar with the product; increasing COO familiarity may lead to summarising and storing information based on the origin cues (Bertoli and Resciniti, 2012). Prior studies have shown that consumers who are not familiar with a product are likely to use COO as an indicator to evaluate that product (Lee and Lee, 2009; Mahesrawan, 199; Rose and Moroe, 1988). In the absence of intrinsic cues, COO has a significant impact, especially for those who are less motivated to process information (Verlegh *et al.*, 2005).

International marketing studies indicate that the influence of product familiarity is still unclear and further investigation is needed (d'Astous and Ahmed, 1999; Josiassen *et al.*, 2008; Laroche *et al.*, 2005; Pharr, 2005; Phau and Prentergast, 2000; Phau and Suntornnond, 2006). Familiarity can serve as a halo or summary construct, as mentioned in the previous example of a lawnmower from Germany. However, country image can also serve as a halo, as Insch and Mcbride (2004) mention, when product familiarity is closely linked to product knowledge. When consumers have knowledge about products, they tend to incorporate COO in their quality perception. Tse and Gorn (1993) found that product familiarity can reduce the COO effect. They studied 'before and after' product experiences. The results reveal that COO has a significant effect on product evaluation; however, its effect declines when respondents become experienced users. Johansson (1989) mentions that the effect of COO on product and brand image becomes strong for consumers who are not familiar with the product/brand. However, the results point out that the effect of product familiarity shows a positive interaction between COO and product familiarity. In other words, the more familiar consumers are, the stronger the effect of COO is (Johansson *et al.*, 1985; Johansson and Nebenzahl, 1986; Lee and Garnesh, 1999).

3.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In summary, this chapter explained the concept of involvement and its definitions. In COO research, involvement is one of the variables that influence COO information. This chapter described degree of involvement and the ELM, which relates to approaches of how consumers utilise messages and the process of evaluating information. It

portrayed the distinction between central and peripheral routes, which represent how high and low involvement is formed. In this thesis, involvement is one of the independent variables, which are an essential part of conducting an experiment.

Purchase intention was also examined in this chapter. It identified the TRA, which is a foundation of the TPB. Both theories portray factors that influence purchase intention and later trigger purchase behaviour. When consumers are making a buying decision, it involves buying behaviour: the need for recognition, the search for information, the evaluation of alternatives, the purchase and the post-purchase evaluation (Klopper *et al.*, 2006). These steps can be skipped or repeated, depending on the situation or individual.

Following this, the relationship between COO and purchase intention was described from previous research. The literature and findings that are relevant to this thesis were mentioned. The last section of this chapter focused on product familiarity and its role in COO research as a moderator.

CHAPTER 4

LITERATURE REVIEW OF CONSUMER PERCEIVED VALUE (CPV)

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In previous chapter investigates the definition of COO and the decomposition of COM and COD constructs. Later, it explores the influence of COM and COD on purchase intention, product familiarity and purchase involvement.

This chapter will:

- Introduce the background of value and characteristics in a marketing context. Followed by an introduction to the previous research and definitions of perceived value by some important researchers.
- Compare the concepts of satisfaction and perceived value and the reason for choosing a perceived value approach.
- Describe the definitions and differences between 'value' and 'values', then provide the importance of perceived value in this research.
- Describe the main theories of CPV: means-end theory, hierarchy of value and consumption value. Discuss value within marketing strategy and in the sportswear industry as well as provide the development of the CPV scale using Sweeney and Soutar's PERVAL. The scale is purified and adjusted variables to measure perceived value which are quality value, social value, price value and emotional value.
- Explain the relationship between CPV and the study of COO image in this research.

Customer perceived value or CPV is a theoretical concept that becomes a main key in marketing and customer behaviour research (Holbrook, 1994; 1996: 1999; Grewal *et al*., 2003; Parasuraman and Zinkhan, 2002; Woodruff and Gardial, 1996; Woodruff,

1997; Wang 2011; Zeithaml, 1988). The study of consumer value perceptions has received growing attention from both academics and practitioners, but as yet few provide a seriously measure of the concept of value (Dodds *et al.*, 1991; Lapierre, 2000; Cooper *et al.*, 2015). With the intention of clarifying the conceptual theory of CPV with other marketing variables, this study seeks to understand the relationship of COD and COM on CPV.

4.2 THE CONCEPT OF CUSTOMER VALUE

Assessing customer value is at the core of conducting marketing research. Understanding value is an important process to achieving a better understanding of consumers' minds. Chi and Kilduff (2011) cited the work of Monroe (1990) on the definitions of value have evolved over time; the early definitions highlights the trade-off decisions between quality and price.

Although there are some definitions of customer value, there are other terms that are related such as quality and satisfaction (Day and Crask, 2000). Value allows consumers to consider that a certain product is perceived as superior to that of its competitors (Lindgreen, 2008). Value analysis is taken prior to or during purchase decisions (Day and Crask, 2000). It derives from the consumer's assessment, whereas satisfaction is the assessment of the perceived value of the purchased or consumed goods at a given point in time (Day and Crask, 2000).

Value creation is identified by Walters and Lancaster (1999), firstly, value is determined by the combination of benefits delivered to the customer compared to the entire cost of acquiring the delivered benefits. Secondly, relative value is perceived as the satisfaction acquired from an alternative value from other sources and finally, a value proposition is how value is delivered to customers (McIvor, 2005). Value is related to a monetary amount that needs to be paid, while other costs such as efforts time and cognitive activity should be considered as things that consumers have to give up (Wang, 2011).

The perception of value cannot be entirely defined in the same way for every consumer, it depends on the personal nature of that consumer. To consumers, monetary sacrifice

relates to price as one of the drivers when making a purchase decision (Verma, 2009). Some consumers are very sensitive to price because of this monetary sacrifice. Therefore price is the key driver when making a decision. However, to some consumers who are benefit-sensitive, price may not be as important as the product's expected benefits (Zeithaml, 1988). Moreover, some consumers may consider both sides of the value equation: consumers may make a trade-off between the two factors of price and benefits. The last value perception happens when a consumer considers all kinds of value – time, money and efforts – to consider what is received in exchange (Verma, 2009).

Some research efforts address the concept of quality and value, both terms are related in a similar construct and are not well differentiated (Zeithaml, 1988). These concepts are difficult to define and measure, however, definitions of both are linked and shared among consumers (Zeithaml, 1988). The concept of value depends on the criteria and judgment held by each consumer (Holbrook, 1994). Holbrook also cited Hilliard (1950, p. 42) about the definition of value:

'Value is affectivity (a preference) occurring in the relational contexture (relativistic) determined by the reaction (experience) of an organism to a stimulus object (interactive).'

(Holbrook, 1994)

This raises four perspectives; *preference* refers to a positive affect and favourable judgment, moreover, *relativistic* contains three types of senses: (a) comparative is related to ranking or rating of an object, (b) personal is about individuality, and (c) situational depends on the context when the evaluation occurs (Holbrook, 1994). *Interactive* indicates that values can be obtained through an interaction between the product and a consumer (Holbrook, 1999) furthermore value is a result of *experience* of consumption rather than the act of purchase.

Holbrook (1994, 1996) proposed a typology of perceived value (Table 4.1) that consists of eight types of value. Sanchez-Fernandez and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007) stated that Holbrook's typology explains perceived value with greater detailed than explanations from other authors.

Table 4.1 Holbrook's typology of value

		Extrinsic	Intrinsic
Self-Oriented	**Active**	**Efficiency**	**Play**
		(Output/Input,	**(Fun)**
		Convenience)	
	Reactive	**Excellence**	**Aesthetics**
		(Quality)	**(Beauty)**
Other-Oriented	**Active**	**Status**	**Ethics**
		(Success,	**(Justice,**
		Impression	**Virtue,**
		Management)	**Morality)**
	Reactive	**Esteem**	**Spirituality**
		(Reputation,	**(Faith,**
		Materialism	**Ecstasy,**
		Possessions)	**Sacredness)**

Source: Holbrook (1994, 1999)

From the table above (Table 4.1) there are three dimensions of value. (1*) intrinsic and
extrinsic*: extrinsic relates to consumption from a means to an end relationship, whereas
intrinsic occurs when the consumption experience is appropriated (Schroder, 2003). (2)
Self-oriented and other-oriented: value is self-oriented for one's own sake while other-
oriented is beyond self, such as family, friends, colleagues or neighbours (Holbrook,
1996). Finally (3) value can be *active or reactive*/passive control of consumer on the
product (Gallarza and Saura, 2006). In Table 4.2 I provide explanations of consumer
value.

Table 4.2 Holbrook's eight types of value (from Table 4.1)

Value	Description
Efficiency	A value from an active transformations of means in pursuit of a self-oriented end
Excellence	A value associated with distanced apprehension or receptive admiration
Politics	A value that reflects one's own consumption experience
Esteem	A value from the reactive contemplation
Play	An experience of enjoyment, entertainment, relaxation and recreation
Aesthetics	An essentially reactive appreciation
Morality	A value from ethical action favouring others
Spirituality	A value of a devotional experience

4.2.2 CUSTOMER VALUE APPROACH

While there are numerous studies on value on marketing research, creating value is a long-termed success for achieving a competitive advantage. In a company perspective, the customer is central when delivering value. The study of Graf and Mass (2008) relates value to relationship marketing in order to develop and maintain relationship with consumers. In a customer perspective, value is generated by the company and is perceived by the customer. Customer value can be perceived through product-oriented value and/or relationship-oriented value.

Product-oriented value is a trade-off between perceived quality and price. The fundamental view of product-oriented value is based on intrinsic and extrinsic cues (Zeithaml, 1988). Quality is an indicator for an intrinsic cue and is a part of a product, while price is an indicator of an extrinsic cue (Graf and Maas, 2008). This approach believes that customers choose the best quality products. Many new companies are product-oriented, such as Apple, whose company creates demand without customers realizing that they want them (Buttle and Maklan, 2015).

Relationship-oriented value is a belief that the relationship between companies and customers is the first priority (Graf and Maas, 2008). Usually, companies share the view of putting customer first, this way they can collect information to develop better-value for their customers (Buttle and Maklan, 2015).

4.3   BACKGROUND ON PERCEIVED VALUE

Perceived value is a term that has developed from consumer behaviour in two dimensions: economics or transactional value, and psychological value (Gallarza and Saura, 2006). The construct of value often contributes to other areas of marketing such as purchase intention (Dodds and Monroe, 1985), benefit (Monroe, 2003), product choice (Zeithaml, 1985) and relationship marketing (Gallarza and Saura, 2006).

The concept of perceived value has emerged during the 1990s; the development has been studied in academic and marketing research (Sanchez-Fernadez and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). According to Kotler (1991), marketing view is as a process of exchange of interest. As one agrees to give up something of value in return for something of great value, this is recognized as consumer value (Holbrook, 1999). The concept of consumer value constitutes the foundation of marketing. The value concept in marketing is going through a shift from transaction marketing to relationship marketing (Ulaga and Chacour, 2001). In relationship marketing, the core concept of value consists of three domains: a value creation relationship with (1) suppliers, (2) alliance partnering and (3) customers. This thesis discusses relationships with customers. Consumer value analysis is not an easy task because it involves more than just pricing technique. Price itself has a construct, which has meaning as monetary value and consideration of time, effort, and search involved in a cost or sacrifice made by customers in a consumption experience (Sanchez-Fernadez and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007).

4.4   CUSTOMER PERCEIVED VALUE (CPV)

4.4.1 DEFINITIONS OF PERCEIVED VALUE

In traditional research of value, perceived value only focuses on intangible products and aims at a quality dimension; later studies such as Sanchez-Fernadez and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007) explore a cognitive-affective assessment, characterised by both tangible and intangible elements. CPV research has become a major focus recently because it

provides a strategic imperative for businesses and marketing research (Chi and Kilduff, 2011). It is derived from an experience and interaction with products or services (Cooper *et al*.,, 2015). Sinha and DeSarbo (1998) focus on value marketing, which considers value as more important than only quality. It contains with the observation of how consumer perceives certain products or service. However, the most common thought for consumers in seeing value is the trade-off between monetary expenditure and products (Hansen and Solgaard, 2004). Price is one of the most common methods for consumers to evaluate a product. Gupta (2011) cited Zeithaml (1988, p.142) that CPV is

'The consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on what is received and what is given.' And another quote:

'Value can be explained as utility based on what is given and what is received.'

According to Earl and Kemp (1999) perceived value is a function of perceived quality and perceived price. Perceived quality is function of what the consumer wants, while perceived price is a function of the actual price and reference price. (Earl and Kemp, 1999).

'A customer's perceived perception of what they want to happen in a specific use situation, with the help of a product and service ordering, in order to accomplish a desired purpose or goal'

(Woodruff and Gardial, 1996, p. 20)

'An interactive relativistic consumption preference experience'

(Holbrook, 1994, p. 27)

'Perceived value is a multidimensional construct which is related to the perceptions of price, quality, benefits, quantity and sacrifice.'

(Sinha and DeSarbo, 1998 p. 237)

'A customer's perceived preference for and evaluation of those product attributes, attribute performances, and consequences arising from use that facilitate (or block) achieving the customer's goals and purposes in use situation.'

(Woodruff, 1997 p. 142)

*'A tradeoff between the quality or benefits they perceive in the product relative to the
sacrifice they perceive by paying the price'*

(Monroe, 1990, p. 46)

Perceived benefit is what a customer feels what they received from a product (Zeithaml,
1988). Monroe (1991) mentioned that perceived benefits include something more in the
product for consumers to perceive as important and unique. Perceived sacrifice includes
not only monetary cost but also cost of time, physical and mental efforts (Bajs, 2015;
Snoj *et al.*, 2004; Vranešević, 2000).

4.4.2 THE LINK BETWEEN PERCEIVED VALUE AND SATISFACTION

Perceived value is a crucial aspect in marketing management, it not only enhances a
product's value, it is also argued to be an indicator of repurchase intentions
(Parasuraman and Grewal, 2000). Perceptions of value vary by consumer, since each
consumers has distinctive preferences in terms of benefits and their satisfaction as to
meeting their needs (Stewart and Gugel, 2016). Perceived value is a tool for customers
to compare alternative choices instead of relying on only quality and satisfaction, which
two concepts become less important (Gale, 1994). There are arguments about value and
satisfaction; Eggert and Ulaga (2002) cited Gross (1997) that the value construct should
replace satisfaction because it is a better predictor of outcome variables. Researchers
argue that the satisfaction model's purpose aims to measure only existing consumers
and is limited in factors (Gale, 1994), while the perceived value model includes
potential customers, non-customers and competition.

Customer satisfaction is *'the customer's fulfilment response, the degree to which the
level of fulfilment is pleasant or unpleasant'* (Oliver, 1997, p. 6). The satisfaction model
is generally associated with pre-purchase, post-consumption evaluation and
experiences. In contrast, a perception of value can be generated with or without
consuming products or services (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). The feeling of satisfaction
is the comparison process between perceived performance and expectations (Eggert and
Ulaga, 2002). Many studies agree that customer satisfaction depends on congruity of

expectations and the performance of a product or service, additionally it is a direct outcome of an emotional response from pre-purchase expectation and post-subjective assessment (Rai, 2013).

Satisfaction derives from a positive disconfirmation, i.e. when perceived value is superior to expected value it triggers positive emotions such as pleasure, joy and surprise (Troilo, 2015). Dissatisfaction occurs when perceived value is lower than expected value, which brings about negative emotions such as disappointment, sadness and anger. Satisfaction is an emotional state determined by a cognitive process of comparing what consumers receive against what they give up to acquire products or services (Woodruff *et al.*, 1991; Rust and Oliver, 1994; Tam, 2014).

Table 4.3 provides the comparisons between satisfaction and CPV, shows that both constructs go in different directions. Perceived value occurs at any stage of the purchasing process, while satisfaction can only happen at the post-purchase and post-use stage (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). Satisfaction is conceptualised as a unidimensional construct and a comparison of pre and post purchase (Sanchez *et al.*, 2006). On the contrary, perceived value is multidimensional and can generate with or without consuming the product (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). Kotler and Keller (2009) mentioned that customer satisfaction describes consumers' feelings, whether positive or negative.

Table 4.3: Comparison between CPV and satisfaction

Items	CPV	Satisfaction
Construct	Cognitive	Affective
Perspective	Post-purchase	Pre and post purchase
Orientation	Tactical	Strategic
Customer type	Current	Current and potential customer

(Eggert and Ulaga, 2002)

4.5   THE IMPORTANCE OF PERCEIVED VALUE

Kotler (1991) defined the exchange transaction of two parties: as one gives up
something of value to exchange for something of greater value. This is recognised as
consumer value's role in marketing strategy. This standpoint helps marketers to better
understand how to position a product in a market space (Holbrook, 2002). Since
consumers in the information age have developed higher expectations in terms of higher
quality, lower prices and better service, there are handful products to choose from with
the same function. Value is the important thing that helps consumers to decide which of
these to buy. Creating a superior consumer value is to create experiences that exceed
consumer expectations (Weistein, 2012). Value gives the customer the concept of what
is right, worthwhile and desirable, it is best to understand that building customer value
is a long-term bond that increases loyalty and positive word-of-mouth (Weistein, 2012).

Perceived value is involved with creating value and delivering strategies that concern
consumer value. The use of a hierarchy value model focuses on attribute-based buying
criteria and consequences in a use situation (Woodruff, 1997). It is concerned with
situations that consumers want or want to avoid.

4.6 PERCEIVED VALUE THEORIES

The simplest explanation of value is that value equates to price (Ziethaml, 1988).
Moreover, it is the first approach that explains perceived value as one dimensional
construct. He identifies four diverse meanings of value or means-end theory to identify
values:

- Value as low price
- Value as whatever consumers want in a product (Benefits)
- Value as the quality that consumers receive for the price paid (Quality)
- Value as what consumers get for what they give

4.6.1 MEANS-END THEORY

Means-end theory explains how to position products by 'means' or products/objects by advertising to achieve the desired 'ends' or value state (Gutman, 1982). Means-end theory is a linkage between product attributes and consumer personal values in the decision-making process (Gutman, 1982). This theory aims to describe customers' perceptions of the value of a product on how well it performs in relation to their desires and later assessment of the consequences (Petrick and Backman, 2002). It seeks to understand the individual's choice of a product to enable the fulfilment of his/her desired ends (Huber *et al.*, 2001). The basis foundation of means-end theory depends on two assumptions: (1) values/desirable end-states play a dominant role, and (2) consumers who are coping with the diversity of product' choices tend to group them into classes or sets to reduce the complexity of choosing (Gutman, 1982). The two assumptions of means-ends theory explain that an individual obtains consequences that might be desirable or undesirable. The important aspect is the attempt to achieve the desired consequence and minimise the undesirable results (Huber et al., 2001).

Zeithaml (1988) proposes that value is about 'give' and 'get' components, therefore it is a cognitive model of decision making. However, some researchers argue that referring to a give and get concept is too simplistic (Bolton and Drew, 1991; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). There are some theoretical underpinnings of CPV that are still under development (Chi and Kilduff, 2011). Means-end theory provides a theoretical structure that describes perceived value with consumer's behaviour. Means-end theory is useful for distinguishing three related concepts of value, the perceived consequences and product/service attributes (Sanchez-Fernandez and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). The central tenant of this theory emphasises that an individual is goal-oriented, thus he/she uses product attributes to meet the desired end states.

From Figure 4.1, the means-end chain model provides a simple explanation of the relationship between the features or attributes and personal value of consumers (Klenosky *et al.*, 2009). In other words, consumers choose a product with attributes that produce the desired consequences, which determines the personal value to the user (Gutman, 1982; Klenosky *et al.*, 2009).

Figure 4.1: the means-end theory

Attribute	→	Consequence	→	Personal value
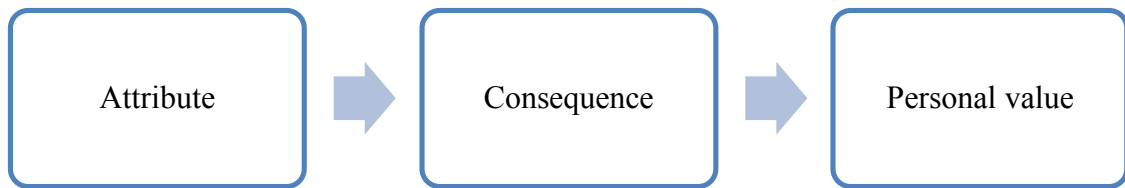
Source: Klenosky *et al*., (2009)

Another uni-dimensional view of perceived value is proposed by Monroe (1979, 1990) who introduces the research stream of 'price'. It is the first stream of research that focuses on the relationship of quality and price (Dodds and Monroe, 1985; Monroe and Chapman, 1987; Monroe and Krishman, 1985; Sanchez-Fernandez and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). Monroe mentions that the common principle of product value is a ratio between quality and price – or value for money (Monroe, 1990). The model describes value as an antecedent more than a component of value and this model is initially introduced from an economic theory of consumer and utility concept.

According to Becker (2008), means-end theory uses a hierarchy model of value to explain consumers' goal-oriented behaviours. Woodruff and Gardial (1996) propose the adaptation as a 'customer value hierarchy'. The value hierarchy is introduced for managers to consider about consumer value which takes a broader perspective of value than the original means-end theory (Sanchez-Fernandez and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). The study of value in relation to customer perspective enables researchers to link products with use situations and their consequences (Woodruff, 1997). This model (Figure 4.2) attempts to explain how consumers categorise products in their memory and is adapted to explain consumer value (Woodruff, 1997; Woodruff and Gardial, 1996).

Figure 4.2: Gutman's customer value hierarchy model
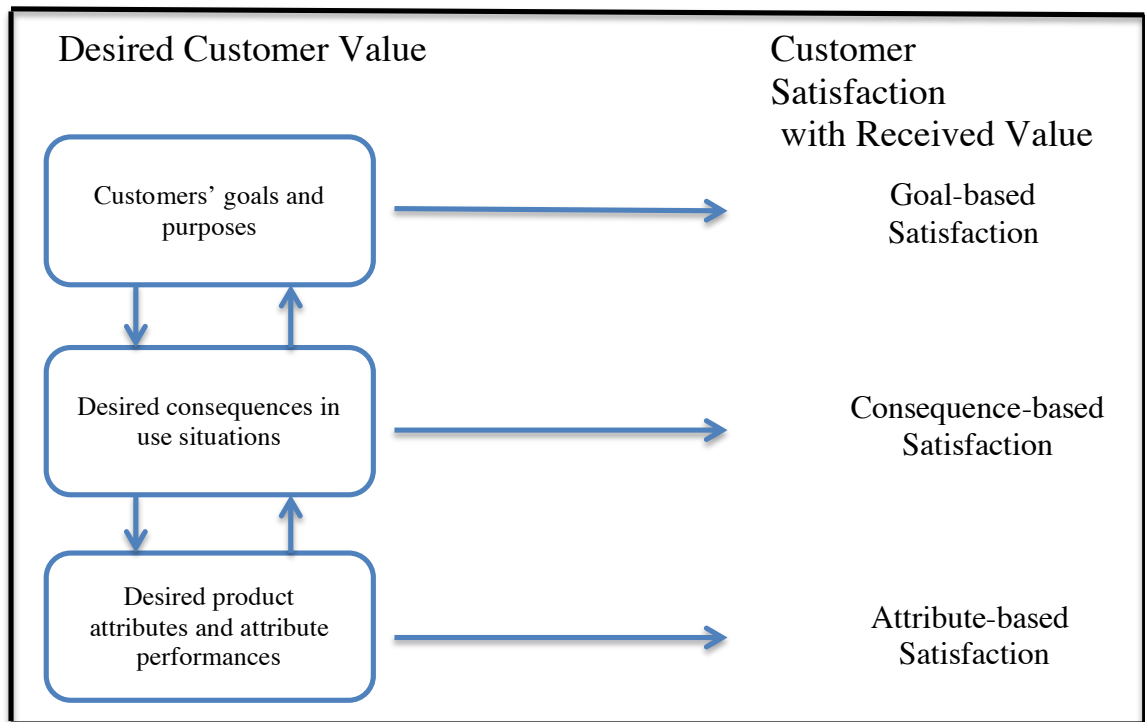
Source: Gutman (1982)

According to Figure 4.2, at the bottom of the hierarchy, customers consider products as bundles of specific attributes. Later, in a process of purchasing and consuming products, they begin to form desires and preferences for certain attributes from their experiences, and in the highest level of hierarchy the customers consider the product in terms of helping them to achieve their goals (Woodruff, 1997). Understanding the hierarchy of value is useful in capturing the essence of customer value.

4.6.2 UTILITARAIN AND HEDONIC VALUE

One of the major perspectives that emphasises on shopping's utilitarian perspective (Ryu *et al.*, 2010). Babin *et al.* (1994) suggests value arising from the experiential perspective which implies the utilitarian behaviour is a task-related and rational consumption. It reflects shopping as a duty/ work or 'get everything done' chore; in contrast. Moreover, utilitarian motivation is critical, goal-oriented, decision effective task (Hirshman and Holbrook, 1982; Batra and Ahtola, 1991; Engel *et al.*, 1993; To *et al.*, 2007). In contrast, hedonic value is more personal and joyful. It refers shopping as an entertainment and of emotional worth (Babin *et al.*, 1994; Bellenger *et al.*, 1976).

Previous research mentions that consumption can be driven by either utilitarian or hedonic reasons (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Lim and Ang, 2008; Ryu *et al.*, 2010).

4.6.3 CONSUMPTION VALUE THEORY

Consumption value theory proposed by Sheth *et al.* (1991), is a related framework of value that incorporates evidences from other fields of research. It focuses on a theory of consumption value which is associated with a utilitarian and hedonic view of consumption (Sheth *et al.*, 1991: Pura, 2005). The consumption value model is introduced by Sheth *et al.* (1991), it comprises five value dimensions: functional, social, epistemic, emotional, and conditional value (Pura, 2005). Functional value is a value that is perceived through functional, utilitarian and physical attributes, while social value is associated with positive or negative stereotyped demographic, socioeconomic and cultural-ethnic grouping (Boksberger and Melsen, 2011). Emotional value is the creation of feeling and affective states, moreover, epistemic value is the provision of fulfilling desired knowledge, and conditional value is associated with the interaction between customers, applications and environment (Pura, 2005).

In marketing research, CPV can be measured as a single value construct (Bolton and Drew, 1991: Pura, 2005); however, it can also be measured as a multi-construct scale (Anderson and Srinivasan, 2003: Chiou, 2004; Dodds and Monroe, 1991: Grewal *et al.* 1998: Pura, 2005: Thaler, 1985). Sheth *et al.* (1991) proposed a foundation of CPV scale. In the theory of consumption value, as mentioned above, there are five values that influence consumer choice. Figure 4.3 illustrates these values that affect consumer choice. The fundamental components of consumer choice explain why consumers choose one product or brand over another (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001).

Figure 4.3: Values influencing consumer choice
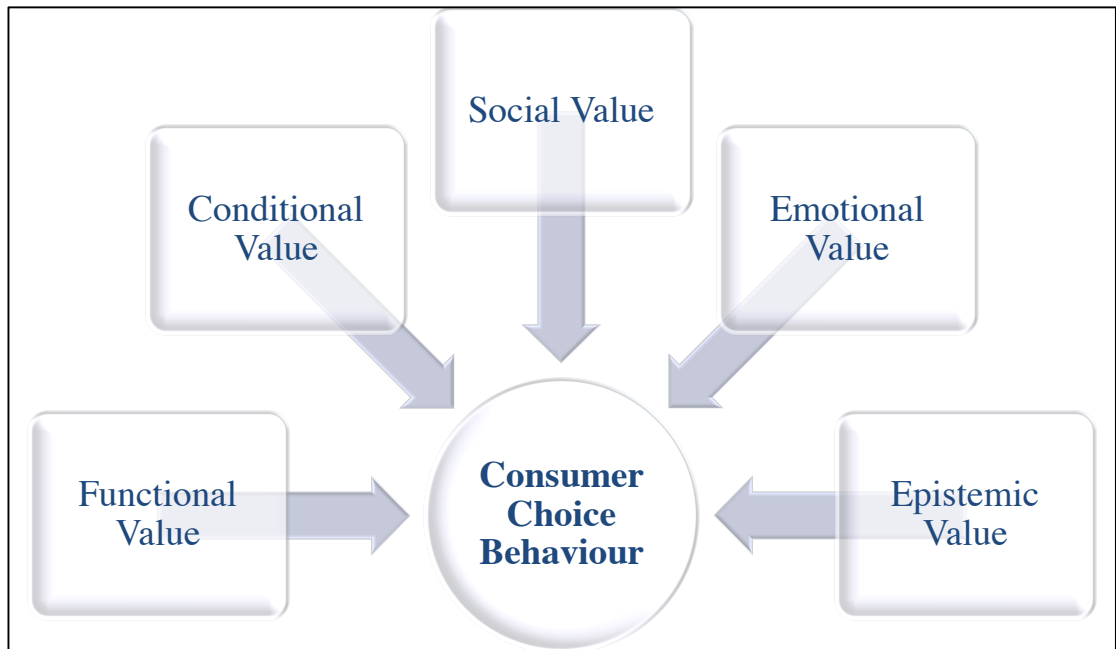
Source: Sheth *et al*. (1991)

The influence of perceived value is a construct that can be used to predict purchasing behaviour and increase willingness to buy (Anderson and Srinivasan, 2003; Chen and Dubinsky, 2003; Cronin *et al*., 2000; Dodds and Monroe, 1991; Hellier *et al*., 2003 Parasuraman and Grewal, 2000; Sweeney *et al*., 1999; Pura, 2005). Two of the components of perceived value are benefits as 'get' characteristics and sacrifice as 'give' characteristics (Boksberger and Melsen, 2011).

Traditionally, functional value is presumed as the main driver for consumer choice because it delivers characteristics and attributes (Ferber, 1973; Sheth *et al*., 1991). However, social value is involved with visible products such as purchasing a car that one requires for a particular functional performance but also selects for gaining social value (Sheth *et al*., 1991). Emotional value refers to feelings, for example food that has associations with the experience of comfort and childhood memory, whereas epistemological value confers a sense of uniqueness (Lalli, 1992; Lee *et al*., 2015; Twigger-Ross and Uzzel, 1996), and involves the desire to distinguish oneself from other people (Lee *et al*., 2015). Finally, conditional value involves the alternate utility in a specific situation or in choice-making circumstance (Sheth *et al*., 1991). Some

situations may involve seasonal or situational value, consumers might need to buy a Christmas card, or wedding clothes, or buy popcorn in the movies. These are situations of an experience in a given situation (Sheth *et al.*, 1991).

4.7 VALUE IN MARKETING STRATEGY

Companies such as 3M, Volvo and Nike are consistently involved with competing for superior value, investing in improving functional value with product innovation. While Disney, Nordstorm and Club Med aim to create experiential value in customer service and support (Treacy and Wiersema, 1993). Some companies, like Starbucks, aim to create four types of value: functional value aims to create the appropriate beverage such as hot, cold and customization drinks. For experiential value, the company creates value through sensory appeal such as the smell of coffee and builds social-related value by providing a place for gathering (Treacy and Wiesema, 1993). Moreover, Starbucks is a symbol of social and self-expression. Finally, it is also known for cost value, for affordable luxury that is convenient to find (Treacy and Wiesema, 1993). Starbucks is an excellent example of an inclusive value-creation company.

In marketing strategy, most consumers purchase products by the guide of bundles of benefits and utility that they receive (Ramaswamy and Namakumari, 2013). Therefore, benefits may be referred to as 'value'. The stages of initially perceived value and post-purchase perceived value allow consumers to consider if the product is valued or not (Ramaswamy and Namakumari, 2013). To understand whether consumers consider their purchases of worth or not, price is not the only issue that implies value. The next section discusses types of values that consumers consider in the sportswear market.

4.7.1 VALUE CREATION IN THE SPORTSWEAR INDUSTRY

Value creation is a study that focuses on customers. There are increasing volumes of research related to value creation. It is an essential goal for a firm to identify what point of value its customers pursue (Shanker, 2012). Smith and Colgate (2007) stated that value creation is the main key success in differentiation positioning. The customer value framework identifies four type of value offered by the firms: functional, experiential, symbolic and cost values.

Functional/instrumental value describes the attributes of a product in terms of its desired and useful characteristics (Smith and Colgate, 2007). Woodruff (1997) mentioned that functional value must have facets such as functionality, appropriate features, reliability, performance, quality and appropriate outcomes. The diversification of sportswear has contributed to fibrous material and technological development that has relentlessly attempted to meet consumers' demands (Shishoo, 2005).

In the sportswear market, functional and technical performance are the keys to achieving success in creating a product (Bouchet *et al.* 2013). Kotler and Dubois (1997) state that in a marketing perspective, some brands evoke sets of its attributes and characteristics, for instance Lacoste polo shirts represent quality products. The consumers recognise their colourful polo shirts as characteristic of Lacoste (Bouchet *et al.*, 2013). COO is also one of the influences that effects on perceived quality value. As the degree of economic development of manufacturing and designing countries occur in consumer's minds it has an impact on shaping the product's characteristics from country of origin (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999).

Experiential/hedonic value is the extent to which a product creates feelings, emotions and experiences, such as businesses like restaurants and retailers who rely on sensory value by creating emotions, aromas, ambience and aesthetics (Smith and Colgate, 2007). Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) state that the sportswear market not only focuses on products, but must also influence consumers with experiences such as the salty taste of the sea in swimming, feeling the grip of tennis racquet or the comfort of running shoes. Experiential elements have impacts on consumers' values, some brands manipulate the store's atmosphere features or attract consumers by a busy bustling environment (Bouchet *et al.*, 2013). Pereira (1988) estimates that 80 per cent of consumers who purchase sports shoes, intend to use them for fashionable purposes

Symbolic/expressive value relates to the value to which consumers attach psychologically to a product, for instance luxury goods have appeal in self-worth and self-concepts (Smith and Colgate, 2007). Symbolic value promotes self-achievement, strength and vitality; a successful sportswear brand has to possess a distinctive sign and symbol that represents itself to customers (Bouchet *et al.*, 2013). Recently, marketers have adapted to the cultural shift of consumers, especially Asian consumers, who appeal

to the trend of 'cool' and engage themselves as self-expressive and trendsetter individuals (Dayal-Gulati and Lee, 2004). Sportswear apparel should carry values that connect a relationship with consumers, such as Patagonia communicating with its consumers in terms of getting closer with nature (Bouchet *et al.*, 2013). Most sportswear promotes ideologies and social beliefs, for instance Nike's slogan 'Just do it'. Nike consumers tend to act and overcome barriers without excuses. As well as vintage fashion of Le Coq Sportif's Eclat vintage model, which reminds the consumer of the feeling of good times and nostalgia (Bouchet *et al.*, 2013).

Cost/sacrifice value refers to what consumers receive in return for what they give (Ziethaml, 1988). Price value is usually established as consistent with the company's overall value (Weistein, 2004). Price value can have a great impact. In the last few years, the sports market has entered the competitive segments of premium or ultra-premium position. It is interesting that some brands expect consumers to be willing to pay for their premium lines, such as Nike's skating line 'Braat LR Low Premium ID' and 'Gel-Kinsei 4' of Asics running shoes (Bouchet, *et al.*, 2013). However, non-athletic individuals are not looking for extra performance in sporting goods, therefore the premium price value added is rather irrelevant.

4.8   THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CUSTOMER PERCEIVED SCALE

Since the 1990s, there have been many studies and reviews on conceptualising multi-dimensional CPV scales; the investigation of only the trade-off between quality and price cannot fully understand the concept of perceived value (Woodruff, 1997). Sheth *et al.* (1991) offer a consumer choice in the previous section (Figure 3.1) as a springboard for the development of another CPV scale (Chi and Kilduff, 2011).

Grewal et al. (1998) develop the conceptual distinction of perceived acquisition value and transactional value. Later, in a consumer behaviour research aspect, researchers studied the approaches of perceived value based on comparing benefits and sacrifices (Sanchez et al., 2006). Table 4.4 exhibits some of these approaches and their dimensions.

Table 4.4: Development of other CPV dimensions

Author	Year	CPV Dimensions
Sheth et al.	1991	• Social value • Emotional value • Functional value • Epistemic value • Condition value
Groth	1995	• Perceived utility • Psychological • Internal • External
Gronroos	1997	• Cognitive value • Emotional value
Grewal et al.	1998	• Perceived acquisition value • Perceived transactional value
Ruyter et al.	1998	• Intrinsic value • Extrinsic value • Logical dimension
Sweeney et al.	1999	• Social value • Emotional value • Price value/ functional value • Quality value/ performance value • Versatility
Sweeney and Soutar	2001	• Quality value • Emotional value • Price value • Social value

Developed from Sanchez *et al*. (2006)

From consumption value theory, Sweeney and Soutar (2001) develop PERVAL scale
has been assessed the validity and the relationship between variables; moreover, it
measures the consumers' perceptions of durable goods. (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001).
The scale is comprised of four dimensions (Table 4.5): emotional value, social value,
functional value (price) and performance value (quality) (Lee *et al*., 2007). PERVAL

uses a linear process for measuring the multidimensional nature of perceived value, which is based on the conceptual framework of Sheth et al. (1991). Sweeney and Soutar adapted this scale (PERVAL), and later Petrick (2003, 2004) developed a CPV scale called SERV-PERVAL, which consists of five dimensions, i.e. behaviour price, emotional response, monetary price, quality and reputation (Mayr and Zins, 2012). This thesis uses the PERVAL scale because SERV-PERVAL can only capture post-purchase evaluations (Mayr and Zins, 2012). In contrast, PERVAL can be used in variety of purchase situations (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001) and is accepted as one of the best tools to investigate perceived value from the customer's perspective (Chi and Kilduff, 2011).

Table 4.5: The four dimensions of CPV

Values	Value descriptions
Performance value/ quality value	The utility due to expected performance and perceived quality of the product
Social value	The utility due to the product's ability to heighten social self-concept
Price value	The utility due to the product's value for money
Emotional value	The utility due to the feeling or affective of the product

Source: Sweeney and Soutar (2001)

While a number of CPV scales have been developed, Sweeney and Soutar's customer perceived value scale (PERVAL) allows measurement in pre-test, during and post-test, and is discovered to be reliable and valid (Bokberger and Melsen, 2009). Sweeney and Soutar developed their framework regarding consumer perceived value following the approach of Churchill (1979) and then conducting some purification. The scale was tested and re-tested in the first stage, some irrelevant items were deleted (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). Sweeney and Soutar (2001) conducted stage two through telephone interview to evaluate the scale items that intend to measure CPV. In the third stage, the four dimensions of CPV are reduced and purified (Table 4.5).

4.8.1 CUSTOMER PERCEIVED VALUE DIMENSIONS

Quality is loosely defined as 'superiority or excellence' (Zeithaml, 1988). Perceived quality is a result of evaluating the expected products (Heinonen, 2004). Perceived quality is (1) different from objective or actual quality, (2) a higher-level of abstraction, (3) an assessment that resembles the attitude toward an item and judgment from the customer's evoked set (Bei and Chiao, 2001). Aaker (1995) mentioned that there are differences between perceived quality and actual quality. Perceived quality is the result of previous impressions and there is evidence that consumers might change their minds in the case that they have an impression of poor quality (Kardes *et al*., 2002). Perceived quality derives from what the consumers see and recognise, in addition, it is comparative, individual and situational (Holbrook and Corfman, 1985). Many studies agree that COO has a positive effect on perceived quality (Bannister and Saunders 1978; Chowdhurry, 2010; Erdem *et al*. 2006; Johansson 1989; Kapferer 1994; Jo 2005; Nagashima 1970).

Perceived *price* is described as 'what is given up or sacrificed to obtain a product' (Zeithaml, 1988). Gavin (1988) mentioned that price value and quality value are positively correlated, for instance a product of high quality can be produced at a higher price. Price has two meaning: (1) sacrifice and (2) symbolic of quality (Ulaga and Chacour, 2001).

Social value is conceptualized as *'the utility derived from the product's ability to enhance social self-concept'* (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). Roig *et al*. (2006) refer to social value as the utility or acceptability at the level of the individual's relationship with his/her social environment. The social dimension of CPV focuses on the individual or micro level because it carries social meaning and interest of consumers (Musso and Druica, 2014). Most consumers are driven by social value when choosing products that convey an image congruent with the social norms (Saxena, 2009). A product that delivers a negatively perceived social group also has a negative value.

*Emotiona*l value consists of a feeling or the affective state that a consumer generates from the experience consumption (Roig *et al*., 2006). Emotional value refers to the

enjoyment and emotional satisfaction from products or services received; it is usually associated with experiential consumption (Saxena, 2009).

4.9 CUSTOMER PERCEIVED VALUE AND COUNTRY IMAGE

This section explains the relationship between CPV and country image; this thesis investigates if country image has an influence on value perception from a consumer's perspective. Despite the numerous models of perceived value, perceived value is still a developing concept. The linkage between country image and CPV has not been so far identified, therefore, this research aims to establish whether COM and COD can enhance CPV.

During the purchase decision process, consumers tend to use a number of risk reduction cues (Agarwal and Teas, 2001; Cox 1962; Bearden and Shimp 1982; Locander and Hermann 1979; Roselius 1971; Shimp and Bearden 1982; Taylor 1976). These cues includes extrinsic factors, such as price might imply a higher monetary sacrifice, risk is concerned if the product does not perform as expected (Agarwal and Teas, 2001; Shimp and Bearden, 1982). Other extrinsic cues, for instance COM or COD, also mediate their impact on risk, as if higher COM and COD reputations are present, consumers may pay premium prices to reduce risk of failure (Bilkey and Nes 1982). The use of extrinsic cues to form a perception of risks, in turn, allows them to form a perceived value (Shimp and Bearden, 1982).

According to Sweeney *et al*. (1999) extrinsic cues allow consumers to make a judgment about a product's quality and the level of risk; therefore when making a decision, consumers have to consider quality, sacrifice and risks. Quality and sacrifice perform as the current benefits and costs of owning the product, whereas risk represents the future potential benefits and costs. It is possible that consumers' inference about quality and sacrifice leads to their risk assessment and forms a product value from that risk assessment (Sweeney *et al*., 1999).

With the trend of globalisation, especially in sport firms and the sport economy, the differentiation in sporting goods, apparel and trainers has gained competitors from all over the world (Gerke, 2013). The impact of COO creates an issue of image and value

in a consumer perspective. The emergence of product-country image generates country stereotypes in either positive or negative ways. COO can be a source of value creation that influences a positive image regarding a product. The examine of COO enables an understanding of the consumer's perspective in both a product image and product-country image while perceived value focuses on the overall mental evaluation of that product (Beneke *et al.*, 2013).

4.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The concept of value is a relevant concept that shifts companies to a customer-oriented strategy. A reliance only on price and quality cannot maintain customers in this era. The shift to focusing on perceived value determines what companies are offering and what factors the customer perceives as of value (Gale, 1994). The study of value provides an impact in decision-making. In this thesis, the focus of COD and COM attempt to provide an understanding of how consumers perceive these country images. Many studies involving country image deliver only a quality perspective, this research aims to identify on perceived value using a multi-dimensional model of Sweeney and Soutar (2001).

This chapter provides a comprehensive review of perceived value background and CPV model. It explains the constructs of perceived value in means-end theory, hierarchy of value and consumption value theory. Moreover, it demonstrates the differences between satisfaction and perceived value and various meanings of value in both a personal nature perspective and a consumer perspective. In the last section, it offers an explanation of the relationship between CPV and country image

The next chapter will focus on the development of research framework which is adapted from literature review of COM, COD, product familiarity, purchase involvement and CPV.

Chapter 5

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters provided the background of this research and stated the research objectives. The research intends to introduce the problem of country image. It explored the effects of COM and COD on consumer purchase intention and CPV, as well as product involvement and product familiarity. The research setting is Bangkok, Thailand, and the investigation of COM and COD images, with a focus on the sportswear industry.

This chapter will:

1. Construct the conceptual research model, explore the underlying dimensions of the relevant variables used in the research and address the relationships of the main effects and interaction effects

2. Explore the main effects and interaction effects of COM and COD on purchase intention and illustrate the research hypotheses of connecting these variables

3. Explain the main effects and interaction effects of COD and COM on CPV and its dimensions: quality value, social value, price value and emotional value. Moreover, the chapter formulates the research hypotheses for CPV

4. Explain the indirect effect of product familiarity and product involvement on purchase intention and CPV

5.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

The research model of this study is illustrated in Figure 5.1. Testing the research hypotheses, this research examines two dependent variables: purchase intention and CPV. It is assumed that these two dependent variables are influenced by three independent variables: COD, COM and product involvement.

First, this current research investigates the single cue of sportswear products. The purpose is to demonstrate if country information, in this case, COD and COM, can separately enhance consumers' purchase intentions. Second, it explores the moderating role of product involvement on COM and COD to see whether the effects reinforce or decrease consumers' purchase intentions. Third, it explores the (in)congruity of country information by examining high and low COM and COD. Fourth, it examines the interaction effects of product involvement, COM and COD on CPV. Past research has studied only one dimension of CPV: quality value. Therefore, this research attempts to thoroughly reveal if country images can increase CPV's dimensions. Finally, the role of product familiarity is studied in order to understand if familiarity can be included as a factor affecting purchase intention and CPV. Figure 5.1 show the overall conceptual framework of this thesis, it intends to measure the influences of different levels of COD and COD which is expected to provide understanding concerning consumer purchase intention, CPV and the moderating roles of product involvement and product familiarity. This research investigates purchase intention and CPV as two separate dependent variables because studies have shown that CPV can occur at any stage in the process of purchase decision (Iyer and Kalita, 2008). In addition, this type of study has not been explored in the literature.

From the purposes mentioned, this research employs experimental research and designs the experiment conditions to meet the objectives. Hence, independent variables are selected by conducting a pilot test in order to ascertain whether the variables used represent each level of COD and COM on 2 types of sportswear products. The experimental design employs 2 (trainer vs. t-shirt) x 2 (high vs. low COD) x 2 (high vs. low COM) factorial design. The later sections will explain how the hypotheses are formulated, with supporting evidence and arguments.

Figure 5.1: Conceptual framework of sportswear industry in Thailand
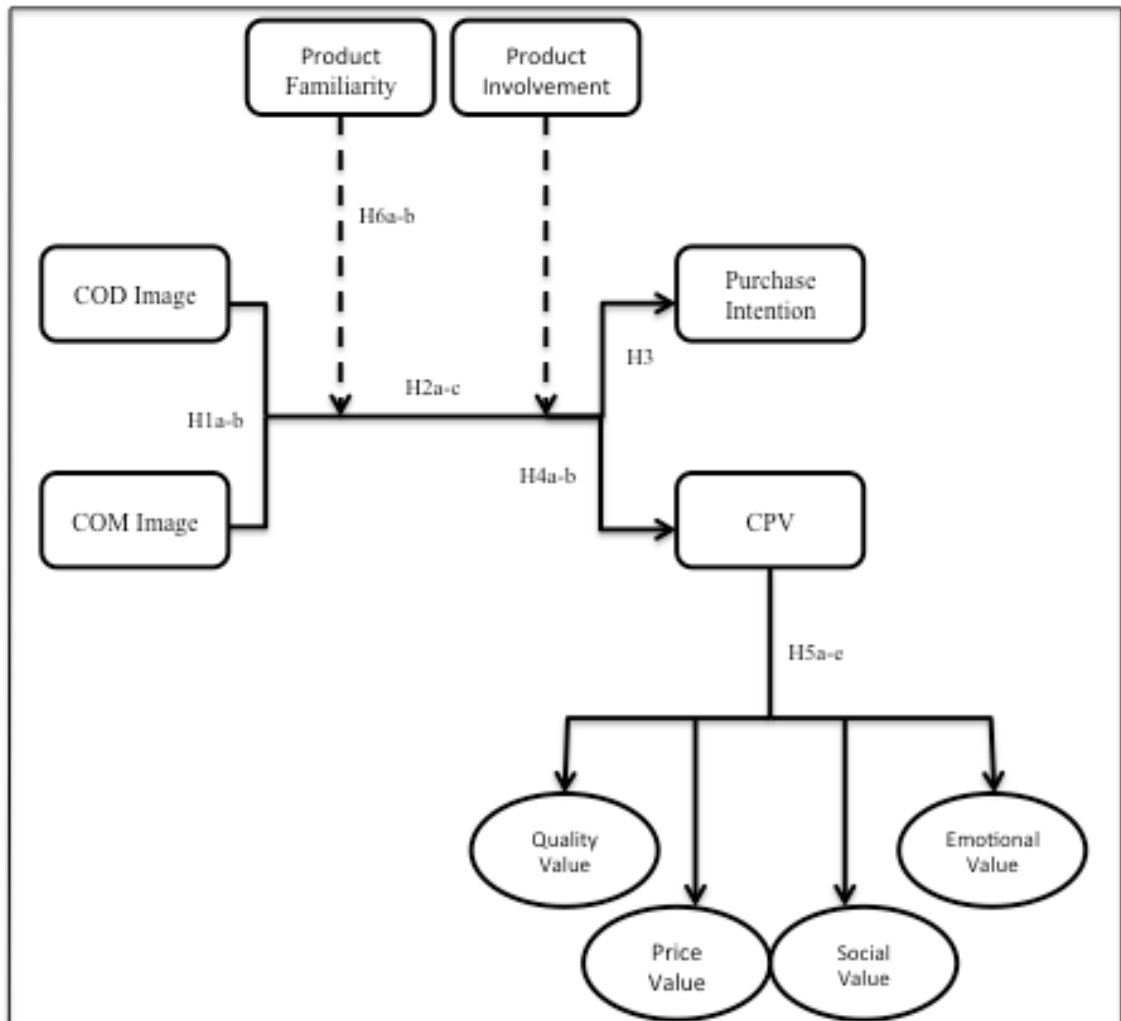
5.3 THE INFLUENCES OF COUNTRY-OF-MANUFACTURE AND COUNTRY-OF-DESIGN IMAGES

As firms and organisations face the issue of growing international competition, there is an increasing need for creating brand and product images. COO research has grown over the years to utilise country image for building a strong product-country image for businesses. However, many COO studies contain conflicting results and highlight the need for further research in this area (Insch and McBride, 2004; Ozsomer and Cavusgil, 1991). The contradicting findings have been due to product attributes (Johansson *et al*., 1985), socio-political and economic conditions (Ar and Kara, 2014; Leonidou *et al*., 2007; Terpstra and Sarathy, 2000), and changes in consumer consumption in emerging markets (Ar and Kara, 2014; Belk, 1999; Sharma, 2011; Wong and Ahuvia, 1998). In any case, consumers evaluate products using various aspects but it depends on

knowledge and how they interpret the information provided by the companies (Katsumata and Song, 2016). With the existing literature, empirical studies of COO are not applicable to rapidly growing of emerging consumers. Thus, Western consumers are proven to be culturally, economically and historically different in attitudes and perceptions (Batra, 1997; Sharma, 2011). However, COO studies is still inconclusive for emerging markets, some studies shows that consumers choose foreign products in preference to domestic products (Wang and Yang 2008) while other research suggest that consumers consider both brand and COO to inform about product's quality (Reardon *et al.*, 2005).

This research contributes to the construct of COO via a deconstruction of the COO model into the components of COM and COD. In addition, this research is conducted in a Thai context, in which COM and COD are hardly studied. Moreover, the sportswear industry is a fast-growing market that is attracting consumers all over the world (Hayes and Venkatraman, 2016). Due to major changes in labour costs, firms have searched for ways to reduce production costs. For example, the sportswear/activewear company Quiksilver has had to relocate to Romania and China (Bouchet *et al.,* 2013). This major phenomenon has caused changes in consumers' expectations.

According to cue utilisation theory, COM and COD are related to the external aspects of the product or extrinsic cues (Koschate-Fisher *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, they are considered informational cues that refer to the perceptions of consumers regarding a particular country (Roth and Romeo, 1992). According to Arora *et al.* (2015), 'made in' labels have become noteworthy and have gained equal importance to COD. Incidents relating to products, such as an incident of finding lead in toys and the accident of a garment manufacturing building collapsing in Bangladesh, have made consumers sensitive to both COM and COD images (Arora *et al.,* 2015). The influence of country image is believed to be an important factor in the decision-making process (Rezvani, 2012). Some studies reveal that consumers negatively evaluate products from developing countries because of their beliefs towards products manufactured in these countries.

Many studies examine the country effect on consumer behaviour regarding the country's economic and political development, level of industrialisation, and technological advancement (Bhaskaran and Sukumaran, 2007; Hooley *et al*., 1988; Lawrence *et al*., 1992). Customer stereotypes also influence product evaluation. Country stereotyping is a psychological process that affects how consumers react to country information (Ahmed *et al.,* 2002; Maheswaran, 1994; Tse and Gorn, 1993). It is an indicator of how they evaluate products from foreign countries, which can be positive or negative (Ahmed *et al.,* 2002). A nation's image acts as a compound of its contemporary and historical associations (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy, 2000). Ahmed *et al*. (2004) state that consumers generally use COO as an attribute to evaluate a product. The perception of COO has a relatively strong effect on consumers' purchase intentions compared to other informational cues. The reputation of a country can sometimes encompass the overall country's products (Balestrini and Gamble, 2006). Thakor and Katsanis (1997) mention that consumers are consistently willing to purchase products from countries that are more developed and have a superior image. In some cases, country image varies across product categories; it is necessary to have a 'fit' between product category and country image (Roth and Romeo, 1992), such as Columbian coffee and Indian tea (Ahmed *et al*., 2004). However, most products from developed countries demonstrate an increase in purchase intention compared to those from developing countries (Tabassi *et al*., 2013).

Country image has an influence on product evaluations and it can transfer to new products that have the same country association (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). The perceptions of overall country image vary in terms of what strength and number of the associations that consumer have (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006; Shimp *et al*., 1993). They might have a strong associations to a certain country such as France for fashion and design for Italy; moreover, these associations are activated when consumer are provided with country information such as manufactured or designed in a certain countries.

This study attempts to investigate the effects of COM and COD images on purchase intention. Cordell (1992) states that product brands from a country that is viewed as highly industrialised and competent are preferred to product brands viewed to be from

less-competent countries. O'Cass and Lim (2002) also mention that the development level of a country affects consumer attitudes. In a purchase decision, consumers use the information of product origin to reduce uncertainty (Ahmed *et al.,* 2002). According to Jian and Guoqun (2007), for example, the US and Switzerland are both developed countries. However, Switzerland has a high reputation for its watch industry. On the other hand, the US is well known for sport shoes. Therefore, the hypotheses of the main effects of COM and COD are as follows:

H1a: A positive COD image positively influences consumers' purchase intentions.

H1b: A positive COM image positively influences consumers' purchase intentions.

Figure 5.2: Main effects of COM and COD on purchase intention
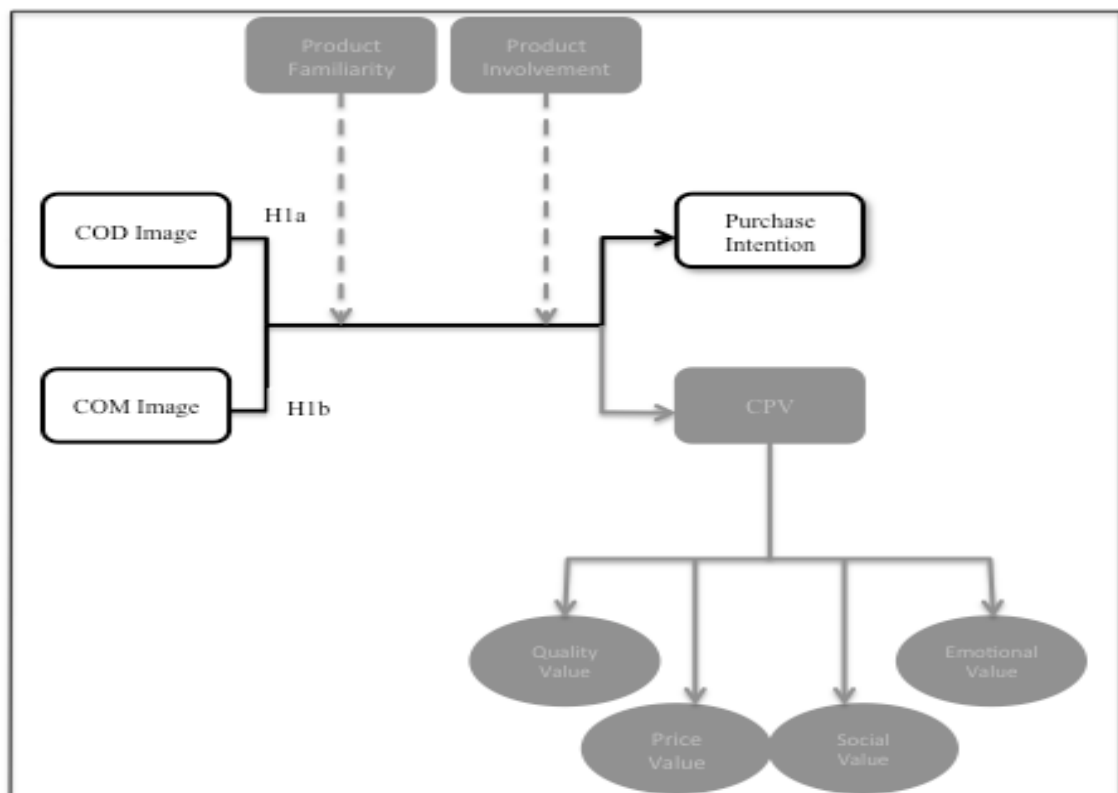
5.4 THE RELATIONSHIPS OF COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE AND COUNTRY OF DESIGN

The proliferation of bi-national or hybrid products is a consequence of global sourcing and the emergence of new markets (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). Marketers have

been aware that consumers consider products based on the place where they are branded/designed and the place of manufacturing (Ettenson and Gaeth, 1991). Bi-national products may result in conflicting views where products carry a brand associated with one country but are manufactured in another country, which may potentially harm the reputation of the brand and product (Fetcherin and Toncar, 2010).

Some arguments in the marketing research have claimed that there is a bias towards COO when focusing on single-cue evaluation (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Insch and McBride, 2004; Ozsomer and Cavusgil, 1991), and the results of these studies have found in favour of the significance of COO (Ulgado and Lee, 1993). Moreover, other researchers, such as Johansson *et al*. (1985) and Pharr (2005), support the argument that multi-cue studies should be encouraged because combining other variables and potential moderators replicates real-world circumstances. Therefore, recent international marketing research has focused on breaking down the concepts of COM and COD (Chen and Su, 2012). As multi-cue evaluation yields different and interesting results, this research develops a conceptual framework to explore how consumers from an emerging market assess the effects of COM and COM images when confronting both a single cue and multiple cues.

According to Ahmed and d'Astous (2008), COM and COD are two significant elements of COO studies. Considering previous studies, 'made in' information is not the only information that can be taken into account (Carvalho *et al.,* 2011); this research investigates COD, which comprises country-related information without brand-related issues. In general, COM has been found to be a factor that affects consumers' evaluations of a product (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Cattin *et al.,* 1982; Chen and Su, 2011). A product that is manufactured in a higher-perceived country is likely to be favourable to a product manufactured in a lower-perceived country (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). However, consumers have to face a wide range of foreign products, especially bi-national products such as a German Mercedes car that is manufactured in Brazil or a Korean Kia car that is manufactured in Slovakia (Essoussi and Merunka, 2007). The interaction effect of a mismatch between COM and COD can cause confusion as to whether COM or COD is the reliable information that consumers should resort to.

This research provides better explanations of how COM and COD can have an effect on customers' purchase intentions. COM and COD images can differently influence consumers' perceptions (Essoussi *et al.,* 2011). The COD image exists in consumers' long-term memory because it is associated with the brand name, whereas COM can vary over time because manufacturing countries can be relocated. Essoussi *et al.* (2011) give the example of perfume, which most consumers prefer to originate from or be branded in France and also manufactured in France. The positive COM and COD images benefit the positive associations linked to French perfume. Consumers' perceptions of COM and COD images vary substantially, depending on the associations they have in their minds (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006; Shimp *et al.*, 1993). Haubl and Elrod (1999) reveal that a positive CBO (country of brand origin) and COM congruity strengthens the effect of product evaluation. The positive and strong associations about countries, such as highly industrialised, highly designed or high craftsmanship, can benefit from these associations with products. However, Hui and Zhou (2003) mention that, for known brands manufactured in less-reputable countries, the results produce a significant negative effect on a product, especially for low-equity brands. As consumers are more favourable when COM and COD information is coherent (Haubl and Elrod, 1999). Another key perspective is the logical fit between country image and product category. The fit is determined by country's capability and perceived competencies between COD, COM and product characteristics (Hamazaoui-Essoussi and Merunka, 2007). Thus, positive COM and COD positively influence product's evaluation

When a COD has a positive image (e.g. the US) equal to that of the manufacturing country (e.g. Japan), there is congruity in the information. However, there is incongruity with a positive COD image and a negative COM image, or a negative COD image and a positive COM image, which may cause uncertainty in those products. The congruity can affect the overall evaluation of a product, as discussed by Han (1989) regarding his research on television sets and cars. He found that incongruity in a positive country image and inferior product quality affects the reputation of a country image. Hui and Zhou (2003) studied branded products of Sony and Sanyo by giving the information of incongruity of these two brands' manufacturing countries. The results indicate that the branded country image tends to dominate the manufacturing country image. However, in some situations, such as with luxury products, consistency of both COM and COD is

required when consumers are in the purchasing process (Ahmed and d'Astous, 1996; Godey *et al*., 2012; Tse and Gorn, 1993). This evidence is taken into consideration and hypotheses are formulated as follows:

H2a: The interaction effect between both positive COM and COD images positively affects consumers' purchase intentions.

H2b: The interaction effect between a negative COM image (with a positive COD image) negatively affects consumers' purchase intentions.

When consumers have no brand information, the associations of COD and COM can be communicated and create a new image of a brand (Keeler, 1993; Carvalho *et al*., 2011). They provide the benefit to the firms of exploiting the use of country information. Hence, this research examines whether COD or COD is more-important information for consumers. To date, most research has investigated country information with well-known brands. There is limited knowledge of how consumers may react to new products that provide the combination of positive COD and COM images. It is expected that it will be beneficial to understand how consumers respond to the conditions provided in this experiment.

Previous studies on foreign branding and COO include Leclerc *et al*.'s (1994) experiment on using French country branding and COM. The results conclude that COM counteracts the influence of branding; in other words, the country brand alone is a more effective asset than COM information is. Carvalho *et al*. (2011) also suggest that whenever there is only information of COO (either COM or COD) provided, consumers usually use their knowledge about the country and transfer their feelings towards the brand. However, in cases where both COM and COD information is provided, as in this current research (e.g. COD in the US and COM in the US), it is expected to cause an increase in the affective response (Carvalho *et al.,* 2011).

Hamzaoui and Merunka (2006), in their study of durable goods (television sets and cars), found that the participants' responses to the perceived quality of the COM was more important than the perceived quality of the COD. However, when applied to other

product categories, the overall COD image seems to have more of an effect than the COM image does, especially public goods and clothes (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). Negative COM and COD images would decrease the overall image of the brand (Johansson and Nebenzahl, 1986). When some countries present a weak COD with a strong COM, consumer perception tend to decrease in product evaluation especially for unknown brands. Moreover, Hamzaoui-Essoussi and Merunka (2007) mention that the complexity of product is relatively important. Although sportswear products exhibit similarly to fashion and apparel products, sportswear is considered as practical and technological designed goods. Their studies show that the effect of COD is more important than COM for a product that is perceived as a complex design. Hence, the hypothesis can be formulated as follows:

H2c: A positive COD image can outweigh the effect of a negative COM image on purchase intentions.

Figure 5.3: The interaction effects of COD and COM on purchase intention
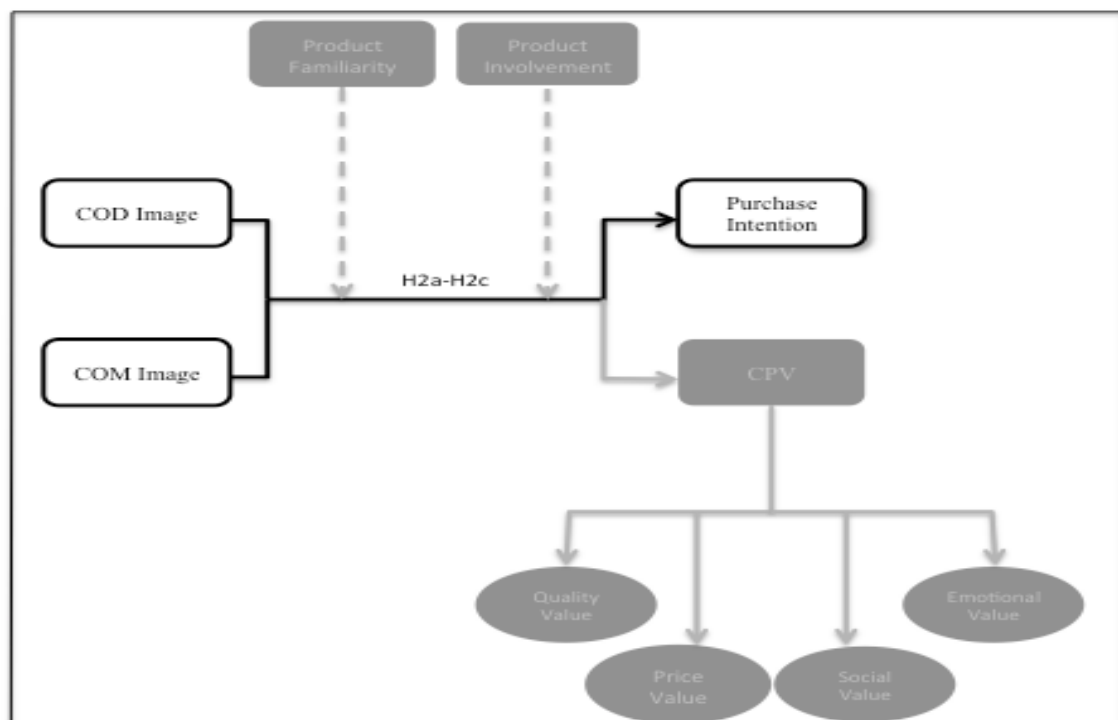
5.5 THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT, COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE AND COUNTRY OF DESIGN

Previous research has identified the relationship between country image and different levels of involvement (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001, 2004). It is a concept that defines consumers' enduring perceptions of a product based on consumers' needs, values and interests (Mittal, 1995). Consumer perceptions are influenced by the level of involvement when making purchase decisions (Liefeld, 1993; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001). Studies have determined the effect of high product involvement, yet there is limited research on low product involvement (Phau and Prendergast, 2000). Moreover, there is a call for research comparing the effects of high and low product involvement on consumer evaluation (Ahmed and d'Astous, 1999; Josiassen, 2010: Pharr, 2005; Phau and Predengast, 2000). Therefore, this research intends to examine the effects of high and low product involvement on consumers' purchase intentions.

Some early research on involvement mentioned that consumers tend to search for more information when the level of involvement increases (Goldsmith and Emmert, 1991). High-involvement consumers usually search for information about products prior to making a purchase (Tabassi, 2013). By contrast, low-involvement customers usually do not need to consider country information in the pre-purchase process. The study of Ahmed *et al.* (2004) suggested that consumers do not pay attention to the COM and COD information of low-involvement products. Singaporean consumers who have high involvement evaluate in the same way as low-involvement ones. The information of COM and COD has strong effects on consumers for high-involvement products (Goldsmith and Emmert, 1991).

However, dominant and recent views of product involvement suggest that involvement weakens the effect of country image, which is known as the contingency effect grounded in the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) (Josiassen, 2010). ELM theory suggests that there are two routes that interact with country image. The first is a central route by which consumers exert cognitive effort to seek more information in order to evaluate the product (Josiassen *et al.,* 2008). Generally, consumers use a central route in

a high-involvement situation and a peripheral route in a low-involvement one. According to previous studies of COO and product involvement, such as those of Han (1989) and Maheswaran (1994), when consumers have low involvement, they rely more on country information. Moreover, the study of Verlegh *et al*. (2005) confirms that COO information has a great impact when consumers are less motivated or have low involvement.

Until recently, there were many contradictions of the effects of product involvement and COO. It is likely that this inconsistency was caused by product category. In the previous research mentioned, Ahmed *et al*. (2004) focused on grocery products, while Josiassen *et al*. (2008) studied electronics, including cars, watches and household appliances. Therefore, the level of product involvement in this study is expected to vary when COM and COD information is presented.

Same as the interaction effects among COM, COD and purchase involvement, a high level of involvement causes consumers to seek more information in order to evaluate the product. Some researchers state that consumers with a low level of involvement may be reluctant to make efforts to find information about a product (Swinyard, 1993; Lin and Chen, 2006). However, Prendergast *et al*. (2010) mention that the past literature has not separated COO into COM and COD; therefore, the interactions among these factors are inconclusive.

To date, the conclusion on product involvement's effects on purchase intention is still questionable. Hence, this study intends to develop the conclusion on the combined effects of COM, COD and product involvement on purchase intention. In a study of low-involvement products, Ahmed *et al*. (2004) mention that COM is the most significant element for evaluation; however, the effect of COM tends to decrease when other extrinsic (COD, brand and price) cues are presented. Therefore, this research is formulated under the assumption that the influence of COM on purchase intention is weak in the case of low monetary risk, as previous literature has suggested that the interaction of COM, COD and product involvement has effects on purchase intention. Linking product involvement to purchase intention, Cilingir and Basfirinci (2014)

suggest that highly involved consumers are less affected by country information when they are making a buying decision.

Products with positive COM and COD images usually outweigh those with negative COM and COD images; therefore, it is expected that high involvement with positive COM and COD images can increase consumers' purchase intentions (Ahmed *et al.*, 2004). Following the same argument as that of Ahmed *et al.* (2004) and Josiassen *et al.* (2008), the hypothesis on low involvement is:

H3: (The moderating role of product involvement): a high level of product involvement combined with positive COM and COD images has a positive impact on purchase intention.

Figure 5.4: The moderating role of product involvement on purchase intention.
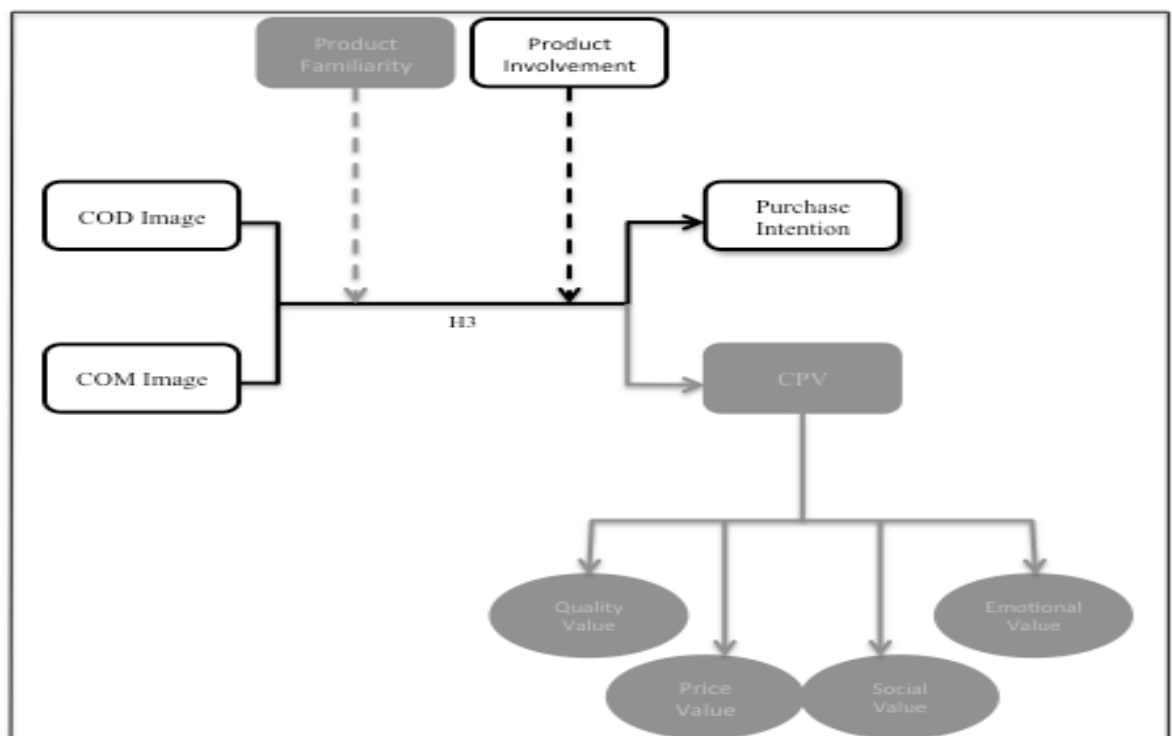
5.6 CUSTOMER PERCEIVED VALUE

CPV has been defined by researchers and explored using different terms, such as customer value (Holbrook, 1994, 1996; Woodruff, 1997), value for money (Sweeney *et*

al., 1999), consumption value (Sheth *et al.,* 1991), and acquisition and transaction value (Grewal *et al.,* 1998). It is a strategic marketing tool that has been growing extensively (Eggert and Ulaga, 2002). The role of CPV is related to the concept of customer satisfaction. Some researchers state that satisfaction is only a state of mind and should be compared with expectations (Eggert and Ulaga, 2002).

Satisfaction is considered a post-behaviour aspect; by contrast, CPV is an independent marketing tool that can be measured prior to, during and post-behaviour (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996). According to Dodds *et al*. (1991), a consumer uses extrinsic cues in order to form an assessment that leads to the perception of value. Perceived quality is an indicator in decision making; the concept of quality is usually related to price. Perceived quality does not refer to the actual quality of a product but rather to what the customer judges in respect of the product (Zeithaml, 1988). There are debates regarding the concepts of quality and value. Most of the extant literature states that both terms share common characteristics (Rust and Oliver, 1994; Zeithaml, 1988; Sanchez-Fernandez and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). The development of value is based on a view of benefits and sacrifice; this view is dominated by the unidimensional approach. The main researcher in this stream is Monroe (1990), who focuses on price theory. The wider view of value emphasises that value should not focus only on price because there are other intangible factors, for instance emotion and social values (Sanchez-Fernandez and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). Therefore, a multidimensional model of CPV was developed to measure other important values. This research applies the PERVAL measurement scale, which consists of four dimensions: quality, price, social and emotional values (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001).

CPV measurement scales have been developed by Sheth *et al.* (1991) from a theoretical foundation of consumption value. The dimensions of value are interrelated constructs that capture both hedonic and utilitarian perspectives (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). This thesis attempts to investigate the value perception of sportswear products from consumers' perspectives. Past studies have revealed that country image has an influence on quality perception (Baugh and Yaprak, 1993; Insch and McBride, 2004). Insch and McBride (2004) conducted a study on deconstructing COO and found that COO, COD, COP (country of parts) and COA (country of assembly) influence different product categories. In the COO study, country image was found to be a powerful tool to gain an

advantage in the market. The effect of country image can produce certain feelings, such as emotional value (Dinnie, 2008) and quality value (Kaynak *et al.,* 2000). When consumers have a strong association of a country in their minds, the benefit of that strong image results in positive product quality (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). The investigation of purchase intention and quality value demonstrates distinctive in effect size, therefore Petersen and Jolibert (1995) suggest that quality value and purchase intention should be examined separately in future research. Past research has only studied one of the CPV dimensions: quality value. Other values in CPV have not yet been investigated; hence, this research proposes that all dimensions of CPV should be studied. Sharma (2011) mentioned the country information is not merely cognitive cue but it has emotional feeling to consumers. Thus, COM and COD images that relate to highly developed are perceived higher for value perception (Iyer and Kalita, 1997). The Product design and manufacturing perceptions are influenced by country information. Countries such as US, Japan and Germany are ranked well-developed countries and China and The Philippines are likely rated lowest (Pecotich *et al*., 1996; Pecotich and Rosenthal, 2001). From previous literature, it can be assumed that the hypotheses are:

H4a: The positive main effects of COD positively affect the overall CPV.

H4b: The positive main effects of COM positively affect the overall CPV.

Figure 5.5: The interaction effects of COM and COD on CPV
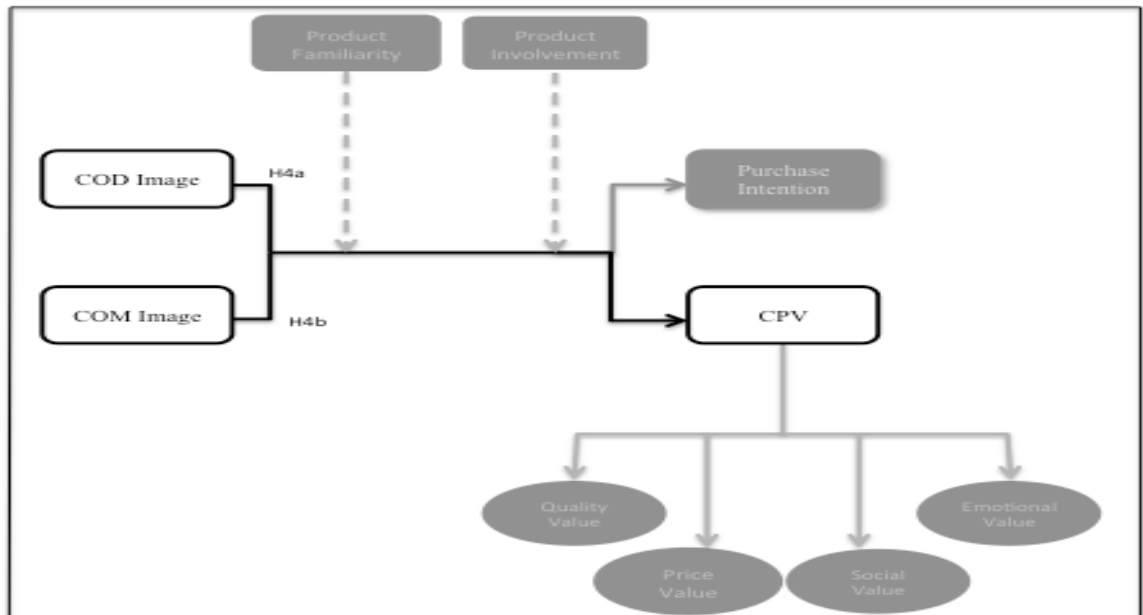
The interaction effects of COM, COD and purchase involvement are investigated in this research. The impact of country information has a direct influence on consumers (Diamantopoulos *et al*., 2011). The strong reputation of a country develops a strong image for a certain product category. For example, Turkey has a strong reputation for products like carpets (Abdelkader, 2015). Factors such as COM and COD are significant variables when consumers are confronted with alternative products. A positive country image is a powerful factor that firms can use to their competitive advantage. Developed countries are perceived as more desirable than developing countries in this regard (Kaynak *et al.,* 2000). Therefore, the hypotheses are:

H5a: The interaction effects of COM, COD and product involvement affect the overall CPV.

H5b: The interaction effects of COM, COD and product involvement affect the quality value.

H5c: The interaction effects of COM, COD and product involvement affect the social value.

H5d: The interaction effects of COM, COD and product involvement affect the price value.

H5e: The interaction effects of COM, COD and product involvement affect the emotional value.

Figure 5.6: The relationships among COM, COD and product involvement on CPV dimensions
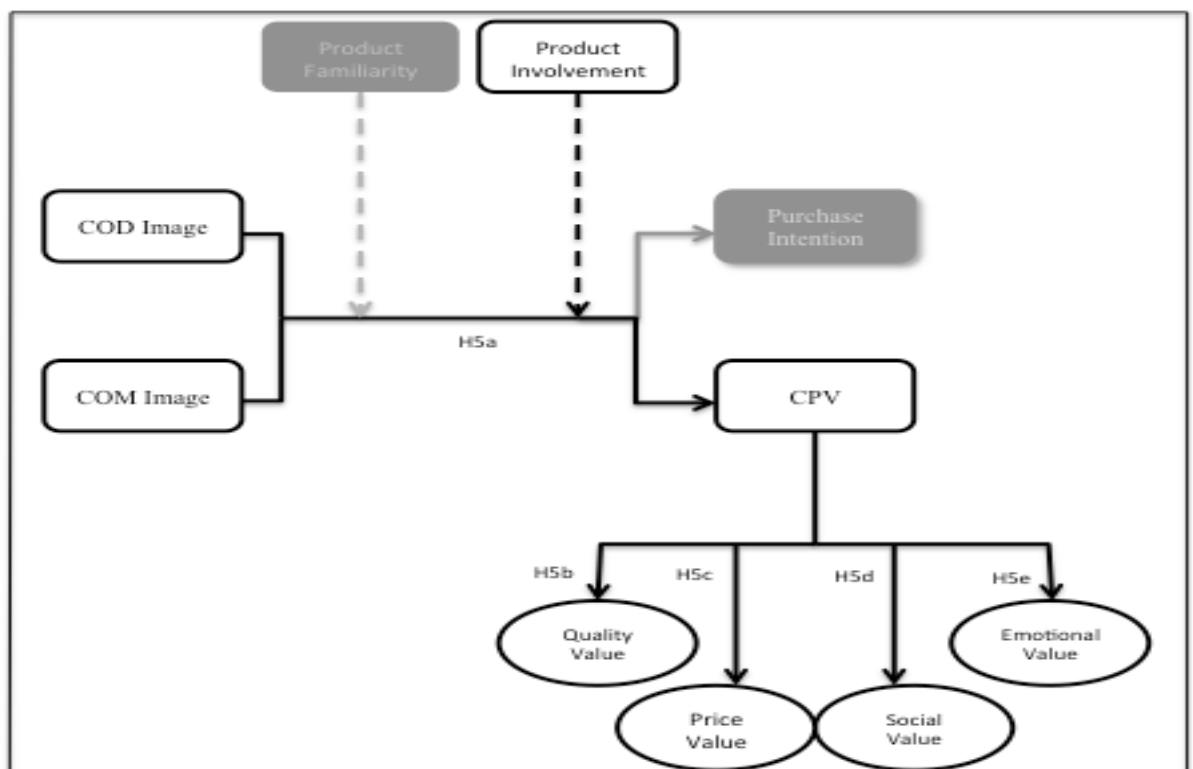
5.7 THE MODERATING EFFECT OF PRODUCT FAMILIARITY

Studies of consumer information processing suggest that familiarity has been an interesting effect to study in COO research (Erickson *et al.,* 1984; Johansson, 1989; Johansson *et al.,* 1984; Lee and Ganesh, 1999). Product familiarity is a measure of how familiar a customer is with a particular product category (Josiassen *et al.,* 2008). The common definition of familiarity involves one's prior knowledge with respect to a product brand or product class (Park and Lessig, 1981). Familiarity can interact or directly affect attitudes, preferences and choices. Lee and Ganesh (1999) bring

familiarity into COO research; they point out that country familiarity and product familiarity may play a role in COO perceptions. Past research has identified familiarity as playing a moderating role between COO and evaluation; some research has applied it as an antecedent of COO image (Lee and Garnesh, 1999). Alba and Hutchinson (1987) state that familiarity usually depends on the experiences accumulated by consumers related to a product. The more they use the product, the more familiar they become and the more their uncertainty towards that product decreases (Flavian *et al.,* 2005).

Product familiarity has been found to be an important moderator that helps in conducting realistic multi-cue studies (Pharr, 2005). However, there is still room for studying how familiarity can affect the influence of COO, especially for COM and COD. Phau and Suntornnond (2006) also state that previous studies have failed to determine how product familiarity affects information use.

Cilingir and Basfirinci (2014) mention that the relationship between product involvement and familiarity is expected to affect purchase intention. Consumers who are less familiar with a product are likely to use extrinsic cues in assessing its quality; however, consumers who are more familiar evaluate products based on their previous experiences (Rao and Monroe, 1988). In this research, product familiarity serves as an indirect effect of COD and COM. When country image is used as a halo, consumers use that information to evaluate a product that they are familiar with, so they are likely to rely less on indirect evidence (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Josiassen *et al.,* 2008) such as COM and COD. Country image is indirect knowledge by which a consumer can make assumptions regarding product perceptions. The level of product familiarity (high or low) is likely to have an impact on the external information sources (Gursoy, 2003). If a consumer has little knowledge about a product, they infer its quality from the country that it originates from (Laroche *et al.*, 2005). In this case, product familiarity has a halo effect; it implies that consumers decrease their reliance on COM and COD. Therefore, the hypothesis is:

H6a: When consumers are *more* familiar with a product, the influences of COD, COM and product involvement on purchase intention become *weaker*.

Johansson (1989) suggest that country information could play a role in the summary construct view. In a summary construct, consumers use country image as a proxy for evaluating a product when they have prior experience with products from the same country. This theory is based on consumers' limited processing capacity, as consumers resort to short-term memory. Consumers tend to use 'chunks' of information because they are easier to store and retrieve from long-term memory (Han, 1989).

In this research, product familiarity has a moderating role. Phau and Suntornnond (2006) describe that when consumers have low product familiarity, country information is an important piece of information in their product evaluation. Rao and Monroe (1988) also support the notion that under unfamiliar or low-familiarity situations, consumers are more likely to use extrinsic cues to assess products because they have relatively little intrinsic information. Therefore, it is expected that:

H6b: When consumers are *more* familiar with a product, the influences of COD, COM and product involvement on CPV become *weaker.*

As noted regarding product familiarity, consumers who are not familiar with a product usually depend on extrinsic cues such as COD and COM to assess the quality of the product. Being unfamiliar means that consumers lack the experience to evaluate a product (Ha and Jang, 2010).

Figure 5.7: The moderating role of product familiarity on purchase intention and CPV
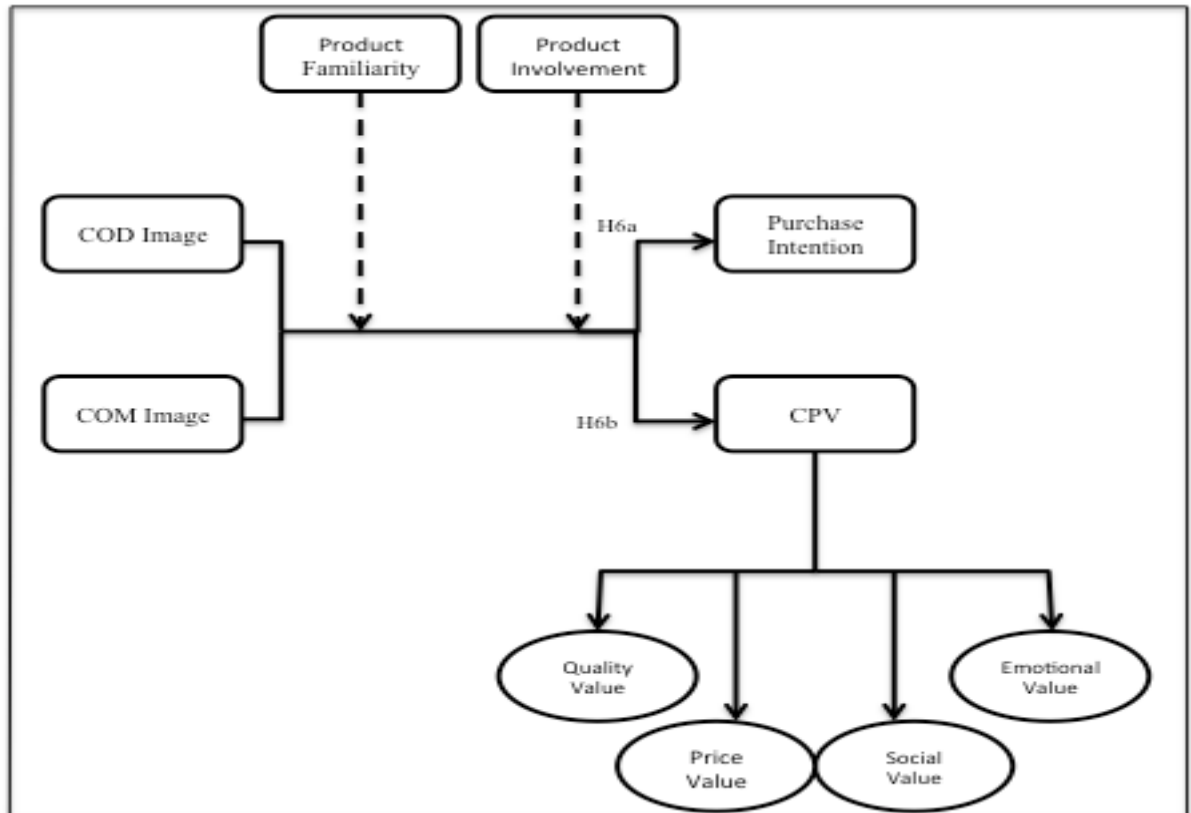
5.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

A summary of all the hypotheses can be found in Appendix 1. This chapter reviewed the research context and provided the theories used in this thesis. The conceptual framework portrays the model adapted from previous research. First, it investigates the deconstruction of COO. Many researchers argue that COO should not be examined only from a 'made in' label but also from other aspects (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). As the sportswear market has a heavy focus on symbolic expression and performance, it is logical to explore both COM and COD in the market. This study explores the main effects of COM and COD on purchase intention. In addition, the interactions among purchase involvement, COM and COD are investigated to understand Thai consumers' purchase intentions.

Second, the chapter provided insights regarding two main variables: COM and COD. It is important to understand whether COM or COD is considered the main decision-making variable. The study investigates the indirect effect of product familiarity before exploring CPV, which is a dependent variable in this thesis. Different levels of COM and COD images are investigated to provide detailed explanations of CPV in sportswear. The hypotheses will be examined by using a quantitative approach, which will be explained in detail in the next chapter on the research design and data collection.

CHAPTER 6

METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters introduced the research problems and objectives of this study and reviewed existing studies on the effects of COM and COD on purchase intention. The previous chapters provided the background concept of CPV and explored its multidimensional scale for use in this thesis before presenting the conceptual framework and hypotheses of this study.

This chapter will:

- Introduce the background of this study and the rationale behind the choice of research methodology
- Review the research paradigm, research philosophy and choice of research strategy
- Illustrate types of research designs and research design frameworks
- Present the procedure of the pilot study, the design of the experiment and the comprehensive procedures used to conduct the experiment
- Identify research variables (independent variables, dependent variables and manipulation), sampling techniques, product selection and data analysis tools
- Discuss the measurement scale and the ethical issues of conducting the experiment

This chapter commences by explaining the research aims and methodology for this research, which employed an experimental method. The purpose of the experiment was to be able to control an environment. A pilot test was conducted before the experiment in order to validate the proposed conceptual framework and answer the research questions. The following sections include discussions of the concepts and methods used in this study, as well as the reasons for adopting the specific method. This chapter starts with an overview of the research philosophy, an explanation of the nature of research and a discussion of how this research was conducted. Later, the chapter explores the research process of applying an experimental method, including preliminary testing,

pre-testing and conducting a field experiment, before presenting the results of the preliminary test.

6.2 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

This research explored the significance of the effects of COM and COD on purchase intention and CPV in the context of Thailand's sportswear industry. Identifying a clear understanding of the research problems and objectives gave the current research a suitable method, which will be discussed later in this chapter. The following goals were established:

1. To examine the effects of COM and COD images on Thai consumers' purchase intentions and CPV
2. To explore the effects of COM and COD on different levels of purchase involvement
3. To measure the moderating effects of product familiarity and product involvement on Thai consumers' purchase intentions and CPV

This study was developed from previous literature and existing studies. The theoretical framework was also developed from relevant research relating to this topic. The researcher gave great consideration to the identification of the most suitable research method for this study. The following section presents the philosophical research foundations and justification of the research method.

6.3 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY AND PARADIGMS

6.3.1   PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATION OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A research philosophy refers to assumptions of how researchers develop knowledge. A research philosophy contains assumptions about the way that researchers view the world (Saunders *et al*., 2016). It is the way in which the research attempts to develop knowledge (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Choosing a research philosophy is a commitment that has an impact on the research. It is not only about what the researcher is to investigate but also about how to interpret the results (Saunders *et al*., 2016). It is

critical for researchers to state which philosophical foundation has been adopted because different methods differ in strategies.

According to Eriksson and Kovalainen (2003), the key concepts of a philosophical foundation consist of ontology, epistemology and methodology. However, some researchers unify these concepts and call it a 'paradigm' (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2003; Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Burrell and Morgan, 1979). Ontology explains about assumptions about the nature of social entities (Bryman and Bell, 2015), and it informs the understanding of how a researcher sees the world of business and management (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Epistemology concerns assumptions about what constitutes acceptable and valid knowledge, as well as how a researcher communicates knowledge to others (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Saunders *et al.*, 2016). A paradigm is understood as a set of beliefs that represents the nature of the world (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). According to Johnson and Christensen (2014), a research paradigm is a perspective that researchers hold as a set of shared assumptions, values, concepts and practices. It also comprises the different beliefs about knowledge and how we understand that knowledge (Wright, 2006). There has long been disagreement about the best way to study and report knowledge, facts, values, beliefs and human behaviour, and few research paradigms are specific to human behaviours (Wright, 2006).

A research philosophy is associated with the nature of knowledge (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Knowing the philosophy of a study helps readers to understand why a study has a particular view of the world (Collins, 2010). Deciding which assumptions to use in research helps to develop a particular style of working, beliefs and practical considerations. Research philosophies/paradigms act as a lens to how the world is viewed. Each lens has a distinct focus of the world (Collins, 2010). Business and management researchers have debated which research philosophies and paradigms are appropriate; however, no agreement has been reached because every philosophy and method contributes a distinctive 'way of seeing' reality (Morgan, 1986; Saunders *et al.*, 2016).

When considering the research philosophy, no method is better than any other method because each philosophy can achieve a different purpose (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Table 6.1 lists four research philosophies (positivism, post-positivism, critical and

constructionism) and highlights the ontology, epistemology and methodology that offer the best solutions for choosing a strategy. The characteristics of positivist, post-positivist, critical and constructionist philosophies are presented.

Table 6.1: Philosophical research paradigms

	Ontology	**Epistemology**	**Methodology**
Positivism	Reality is out there to be studied, captured and understood (Hatch, 2002)	Advocates studying social reality (Bryman and Bell, 2015) and how the world really is ordered (Hatch, 2002)	Experimental/ manipulative; verification of hypotheses; chiefly quantitative methods (Guba and Lincoln, 1994)
Post-positivism	Reality exists but is never fully apprehended, only approximated (Hatch, 2002)	Approximation of reality; researcher is data collection instrument (Hatch, 2002)	Modified experimental/ manipulative; critical multiplism; falsification of hypotheses; may include qualitative methods (Guba and Lincoln, 1994)
Critical	Historical realism; virtual reality shaped by social, political, cultural, ethnic, economic and gender values; crystallised over time (Guba and Lincoln, 1994)	Knowledge is subjective and political; researcher's value frames inquiry (Hatch, 2002)	Transformative inquiry (Hatch, 2002)
Constructionism	Multiple realities are constructed (Hatch, 2002)	Knowledge as human construction; researcher and participant co-construct understanding (Hatch, 2002)	Naturalistic, qualitative methods: case studies, narratives, interpretations and reconstructions (Hatch, 2002)

6.3.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY ADOPTED FOR THIS RESEARCH: POSITIVISM

This research selected the positivist research philosophy due to the research aims and the nature of the research. The positivist research philosophy relates to understanding human behaviour and attitudes with numerical data (Hussey and Hussey, 1997) Positivist research is considered dominant in business and management disciplines; it concerns the reality that can be described by measurable properties, and the researcher acts as the observer (Myers, 2013). Positivist research is conducted via investigation in controlled settings with different variables (Wimmer and Dominick, 2011). Although there are arguments against positivism, adopting positivist research is not only about how to design the research but also about how to interpret facts and establish truths (Gray, 2014).

Normally, in the marketing literature, positivist research intends to measure and explain (Belk, 2006). Positivist research sees the world and understands behaviours by observing and recording in a systematic way (Mukherji and Albon, 2010) while understanding the underlying cause of the event. The important component of positivism is to explain how and why humans behave in such a way (Pring, 2000). Therefore, a positivist approach was suitable for this research, due to the manner of investigating the relationship between independent and dependent variables and testing hypotheses. Most positivist researchers use existing theory to develop hypotheses, which are then tested and concluded in a further development of the theory (Saunders *et al*., 2016). A positivist researcher has to remain neutral and detached from research in order to prevent influencing the findings (Crotty, 1998; Saunder *et al*., 2016). Marketing researchers mostly follow the positivist philosophy by establishing quantitative techniques, which present many advantages to the research, such as predicting patterns of behaviour and describing the relationships between variables (Allen *et al*., 2009).

6.4 RESEARCH APPROACH ADOPTED IN THIS STUDY: DEDUCTIVE RESEARCH

When conducting research, it is necessary to consider an appropriate scientific investigation. There are two types of research approach: a deductive approach and an

inductive approach. The distinction between these two contrasting approaches is that a deductive approach begins with a theory, which the researcher then investigates by coming up with hypotheses and testing them (Hayes, 2000). According to Collins (2010), deduction seeks to explain the causal relationships between variables. An inductive approach is more likely to be the reverse process of a deductive approach. Deductive research requires the researcher to be independent of what is being observed because the research has to be operationalised from the facts (Collins, 2010). Deductive research is usually associated with positivist and quantitative research because of the involvement of hypotheses and ideas from existing theory that can be tested through the collection of data (Gratton and Jones, 2004). The current research chose a deductive approach because it was concerned with describing what was happening by collecting numerical data. The research was also based on existing theory and knowledge from previous literature.

By contrast, inductive research is perceived as the inverse of deductive research, as an inductive approach intends to develop hypotheses or theories from empirical observation of the real world (Lancaster, 2005). Inductive research usually adopts the use of qualitative data and interpretative research (Gratton and Jones, 2004). However, management research occasionally applies a mixed-methods approach, using a combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques, depending on the research problems that require exploration (Lancaster, 2005). Table 6.2 presents the comparison between deductive and inductive research.

Table 6.2: Deductive and inductive research

Deduction	Induction
More-scientific principles	Gives an understanding of the meaning that people attach to various contexts
Emphasis on quantitative data	Emphasis on qualitative data
Move from theory to data; theory verification	Gives an understanding of the research context; theory generation and building
A structured approach	A flexible approach that allows a change of emphasis as the project continues
The researcher is separate from the research process	The researcher is part of rather than separate from the research process
Need to generalise results by selecting samples of a sufficient size	Less need to generalise results

Developed from Collins (2010)

As the deductive approach is developed from the natural sciences, it allows a researcher to anticipate phenomena. Figure 6.1 explains the process of deductive approach.

Figure 6.1: The process of a deductive approach
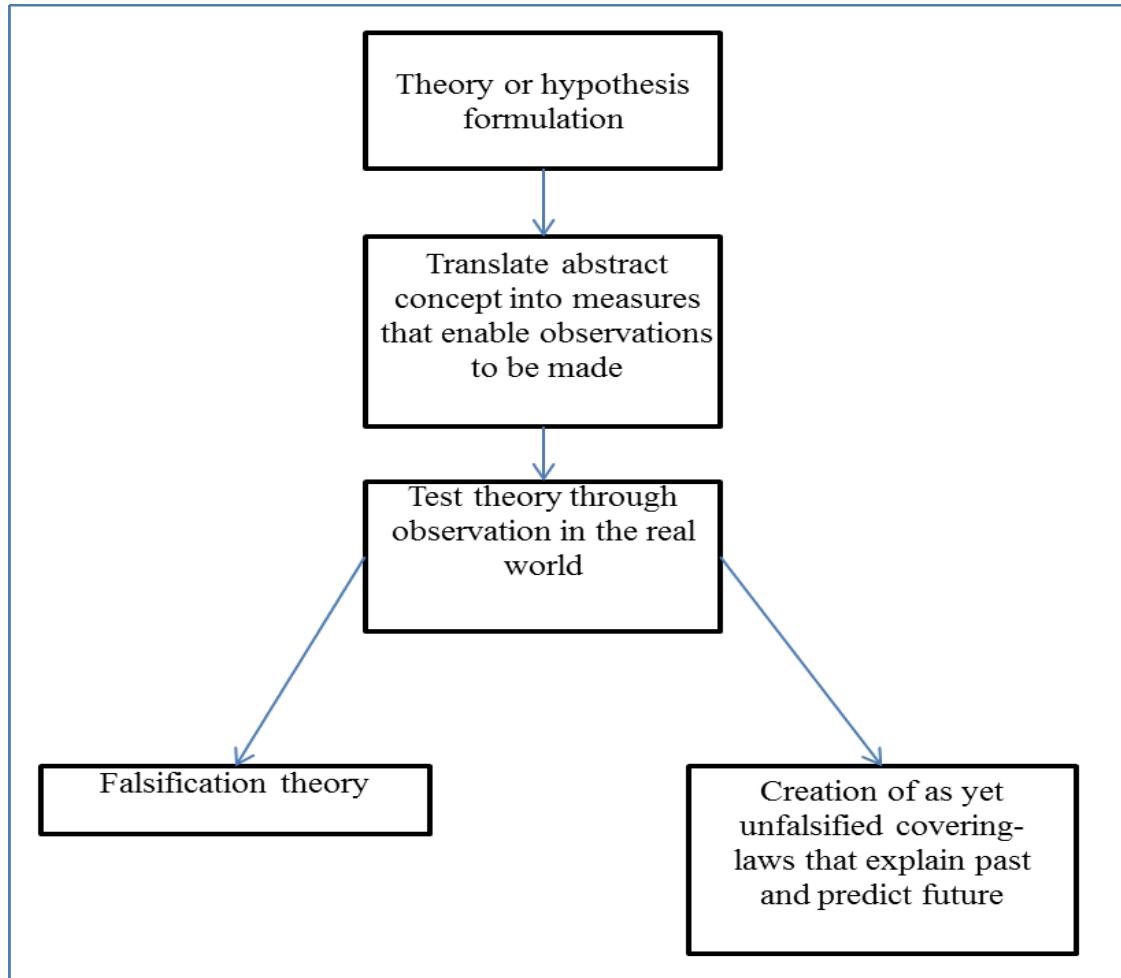
Source: Lancaster (2005)

This research employs a deductive strategy because it is suitable for this research. A deductive approach begins with past experience or literature searching. Most management research starts with outlining the issues or problems that the research intends to resolve (Lancaster, 2005). Later, the process is operationalised to confirm what is to be measured and how that measurement is to be carried out (Lancaster, 2005). The important characteristic of deduction is to consider the concepts to be operationalised in the manner that facts have to be measured quantitatively (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Later, when the research reaches the measurement process, it can eventually conclude if the theory or hypothesis is supported or rejected (Lancaster, 2005).

6.5 RESEARCH STRATEGY: QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE

Qualitative research and quantitative research have distinctive philosophical roots; consequently, the debate between these two approaches is based on the differences in assumptions of reality (Newman and Benz, 1998). Qualitative research focuses on prolonged contact with situations that reflect the everyday lives of individuals, societies and organisations; moreover, qualitative data is collected 'from the inside' (perceptions) through a process of attentiveness and understanding (Punch, 2014). Most of the data from qualitative research is analysed from interpretations of words, which allows a researcher to become the instrument in the study in order to contrast, compare and analyse.

Creswell (2014) states that quantitative research involves testing theories and investigating the relationships between variables. The variables are measured by using statistical procedures (Creswell, 2014). Positivist research is usually more associated with quantitative research than with qualitative research (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, positivist research uses structured data collection and predetermined questions. Quantitative research entails the use of a deductive approach (Bryman and Bell, 2015), while qualitative methods are involved with exploring a deep understanding of human behaviour (Gilbert, 2001) and are concerned with the subjective assessment of human attitudes, behaviours and opinions that researchers require insight regarding, in order to generate results. The techniques within a qualitative approach are in-depth interviews, focus group interviews and projective interviews (Kothari, 2006).

When conducting quantitative research, the relationships between variables are explored; quantitative research is associated with experimental or survey research (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). When choosing a research strategy, it is important to find the strategy that enables the researchers to meet their study objectives and achieve coherence throughout the study. Table 6.3 presents the comparison between quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods.

Table 6.3: Comparison between quantitative, mixed-methods and qualitative research

Typically	Quantitative research	Mixed-methods research	Qualitative research
Scientific method	Confirmatory; test hypotheses and theory with data	Confirmatory and exploratory	Exploratory; generates or constructs knowledge, hypotheses and grounded theory from data
Ontology	Objective, material and structural	Pluralism; appreciation of objective, subjective and intersubjective reality	Subjective, personal, mental and constructed
Epistemology	Scientific realism; search for truth	Dialectical pragmatism	Relativism; individual and group justification
View of human thought and behaviour	Regular and predictable	Dynamic, complex and partially predictable with multiple influences, such as environment, nature/biology, free will and chance	Situational, social, contextual , personal and unpredictable
Research objectives	Quantitative/ numerical description, causal explanation and prediction	Multiple objectives and perspectives	Qualitative and subjective description
Nature of observation	Study behaviour under controlled conditions; isolate the causal effect of single variables	Study multiple contexts and perspectives as they operate together	Study and understand insiders' views and meanings
Nature of data	Variables	Mixture of variables, words and categories	Words, images and categories
Focus	Narrow-angle lens; testing hypotheses	Multi-lens	Wide-angle and deep-angle lens; examine the depth and breadth of phenomena
Data analysis	Identify statistical relationships among variables	Mixture of qualitative and quantitative data	Use descriptive data
Form of report	Formal statistical report, such as comparisons, correlations and reporting statistical significance	Mixture of numbers and narrative	Less formal narrative report with contextual description and direct quotations from participants

Source: Developed from Johnson and Christensen (2014, p. 34)

6.5.1   RESEARCH STRATEGY ADOPTED FOR THIS STUDY: QUANTITATIVE

Selecting a research approach is challenging, as it affects the direction the research. The most appropriate approach for this study is the quantitative method because it produces numerical data from statistical analysis to allow the research to be generalised to a larger population (Andrew *et al*., 2011). As mentioned above, quantitative research is referred to as a hypothesis-testing approach that follows the research pattern by investigating the effects of treatment, as well as intervention (Newman and Benz, 1998). The goals of this study were to explore the effects of COM, COD and product involvement on consumer's purchase intentions. The study deals with variables, both independent and dependent, in a controlled manner (Krishnaswamy *et al*., 2006). The quantitative approach falls under the category of empirical studies and/or statistical studies (Newman and Benz, 1998). A quantitative design is generally used to answer the question 'what' by making generalisations about human behaviour; the researcher's duty is to observe, predict, explain and sometimes control specific phenomena (Allen *et al*., 2009).

In contemporary quantitative research, the researcher assumes that there are patterns of behaviour within the population; additionally, such research emphasises the relationships and differences. The relationships explore the behaviour exhibited by individuals, such as verbal aggression relating to physical aggression (Allen *et al*., 2009). The differences concern how patterns of behaviour may differ from one group of people to another, such as the differences between men's and women's behaviours. The advantages of quantitative research are that it can pinpoint the cause and allow the researcher to control the environment, but there are limitations to this method, such as the issue of positivism explaining the complexity of human environments (Burns and Burns, 2008). This is because, in real-life scenarios, individuals respond to situations differently. Business research attempts to operate in a controlled environment as much as possible; nevertheless, overly strict experimental control would result in conflicting findings (Burns and Burns, 2008).

The principle of quantitative research is essentially associated with surveys and experimental research (Saunders *et al*., 2016). The choice of research strategy is a research's plan of how to go about answering the research questions. Therefore, this

research was designed to carefully manipulate variables to test predictions (Allen *et al.*, 2009). Experimental research has potential in social science, especially business and management studies, because of the key features: causality and research control (Patzer, 1996). Later sections will discuss these two important elements when conducting an experiment.

From the literature review, most related studies employed quantitative research using an experimental design (Table 6.4). Previous studies that explored country images and COO showed evidence that an experiment was a suitable research strategy for this current research.

Table 6.4: Research strategies and data analysis techniques from previous authors

Authors	Research area	Year	Sample size	Instrument used	Data analysis
Nebenzahl and Jaffe	Brand and country image of two global brands	1996	305	**Experiment**	ANOVA
Chao	COO dimension on consumers' evaluations of design and quality	1998	360	**Experiment**	ANOVA
Acharya and Elliot	The effects of COD and COA on consumers' perceptions	2001	81	**Experiment**	ANOVA
Hui and Zhou	COM effects on product attitudes of different levels of brand equity	2001	192	**Experiment**	ANOVA and MANOVA
Ahmed *et al.*	COO and low involvement on consumers' attitudes	2002	236	**Experiment**	ANOVA
Hamzaoui and Merunka	COD and COM on consumer perceptions of model of fit	2006	389	**Experiment**	CFA

Table 6.4 (continued)

Authors	Research area	Year	Sample size	Instrument used	Data analysis
Ahmed and d'Astous	Examination of COO in multinational setting to explain demographic, familiarity, purchase behaviour and psychological factors	2007	151 Canadians, 202 Taiwanese and 153 Moroccans	**Experiment**	ANOVA and factor analysis
Josiassen *et al.*	Product familiarity and product involvement moderate COO image	2008	388	Survey	Hierarchical regression analysis
Koubaa	The impact of COO on brand perception and brand image	2007	129	**Experiment**	ANOVA
Chu *et al.*	COO's negative effect on brand image	2008	232	**Experiment**	MANOVA and ANOVA
Fetscherin and Toncar	Country of brand and COO on brand personality perceptions	2009	129	**Experiment**	MANOVA
Josiassen *et al.*	Investigate basic-origin image and product origin image	2013	913	Survey	CFA
Cilingir and Basfirinci	The impact of involvement, ethnocentrism, COO and product knowledge on Turkish consumers	2014	987	**Experiment**	CFA and two-way ANOVA

6.6 TYPES OF RESEARCH DESIGN

Research can be classified into exploratory, descriptive and causal research (Bajpai, 2011). Exploratory research is employed in order to identify research variables; moreover, it provides a better understanding of the problem and opportunity when there

is little information available (Hair, 2006). It relies heavily on qualitative methods; nevertheless, it is possible to use a quantitative approach.

Descriptive research is often carefully designed and specifically planned to measure the characteristics under investigation in the research questions. It aims to understand consumer perceptions about products or services and to make a forecast about production and phenomena (Bajpai, 2011). Descriptive research is considered well structured and pre-planned compared to exploratory research. Finally, causal research is designed to identify cause-and-effect relationships between variables (Bajpai, 2011). Causal research establishes causality when mean changes of independent variables cause changes in dependent variables (Bajpai, 2011) Causality is an important aspect that forms the condition 'if x, then y'. It determines the degree to which one variable is related to another variable (Wrenn *et al*., 2007). Generally, it focuses on the impact of an independent variable on a dependent variable. Conducting a causal experiment requires the manipulation of variables, measures the effect of dependent variables and controls other variables that could affect the dependent variables (Wrenn *et al*., 2007).

There are conditions for causality: *covariation* is a change in the cause that occurs then a change in the outcome is also observed (Zikmund and Babin, 2007), such as when sales go up alongside a lowered price (Hair *et al*., 2011). *Time order of occurrence of variable* describes whether the causal variable occurs before the effect or simultaneously with it (Neelankavil, 2007). The systematic elimination of other causal variables refers to excluding a third variable that can determine the variations of variables A and B.

The aim of this study was to determine if changes in certain variables could lead to changes in other variables: in this case, whether different levels of COM and COD can affect consumer perceptions. Table 6.5 lists the comparisons among exploratory, descriptive and causal research.

Table 6.5: Exploratory, descriptive and causal research comparisons

Comparison parameter	Exploratory research	Descriptive research	Causal research
Objectives	To understand problem background, identify variables, and understand problems and situation	To describe characteristics of business or market	To understand cause-and-effect relationships between variables
Key research statement	Research question	Research question	Research hypothesis
Problem	Clarifying problem and its components	Problem is clearly defined	Problem is clearly defined
Structure	Unstructured	Structured	Structured
Methods	Secondary data analysis, focus groups, case analysis, expert survey and projective techniques	Survey and observation	Experiment
Research findings	Inconclusive	Conclusive	Conclusive

Developed from Bajpai (2011, p. 35) and Zikmund and Babin (2007, p. 57)

Research design is an important process in developing a research method, as it helps to set the boundaries (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). This research (Figure 6.2) employed a hypothetico-deductive approach, which starts with reviewing the literature and identifying relevant studies. Later, the researcher formulated a research framework and executed a pilot questionnaire in an attempt to verify COD, COM and product involvement variables. At this stage, the pilot test provided consumer insights on country images and their levels of involvement when purchasing sports products. In the final questionnaire, the constructs of COM, COD and product involvement were derived from the pilot test and used as the manipulation checks in the main experiment.

Figure 6.2: Research design framework
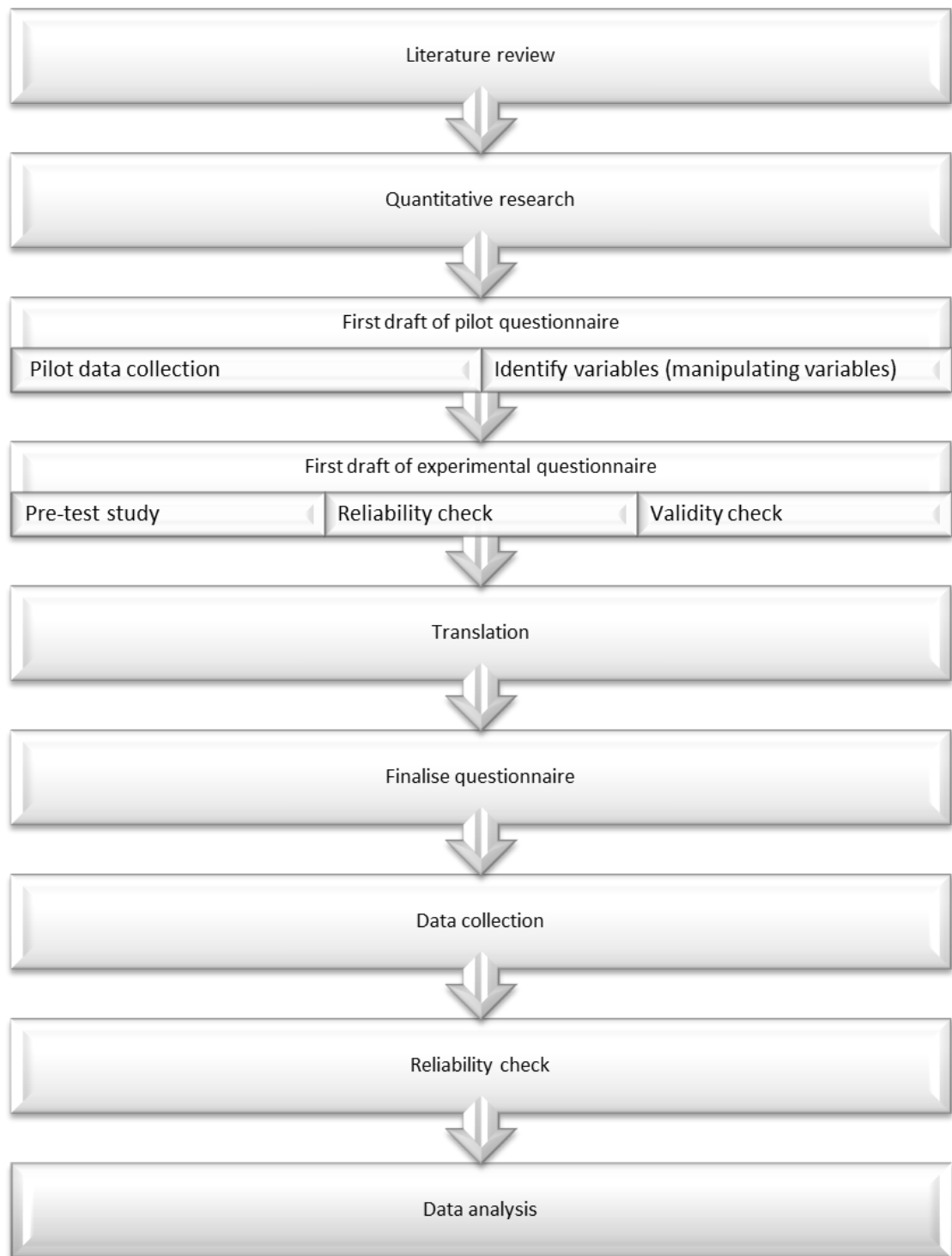
Developed from Saunders *et al.*, 2016

6.7 RESEARCH DESIGN: EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH

According to Jha (2014), research methods can be divided into experimental and non-experimental research. Both aim to study human behaviour. Experimental research attempts to control suspected variables that produce effects, whereas non-experimental research can only observe the behaviour. An experiment is a situation, incident, condition or phenomenon that generally contains at least two variables and observes under controlled conditions in order to identify a causal relationship (Jha, 2014).

Experimental research has been widespread in social science due to the reliability and efficiency of data collection (O'Gorman and Macintosh, 2014). An experiment is a tool for understanding the measurement of variables and manipulation (Krishnaswamy *et al.*, 2006). The roots of experimental research strategy are in natural science, which is a laboratory-based type of research; moreover, experimental research is also frequently used in social science and psychological research. An experiment deals with predictions, which most researchers known as the hypotheses, because they anticipate if there is a relationship between the variables (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Most standard experiments are concerned with two types of hypotheses: a null hypothesis and an alternative hypothesis. Null hypotheses predict that there are no significant relationships between variables. However, alternative hypotheses predict that there are significant relationships between variables (Saunders *et al.*, 2016).

According to Vogt *et al.* (2012), there is a misconception about an experiment that it is not necessarily quantitative and is not always the best option. An experiment is randomly assigned (Vogt *et al.*, 2012). In some circumstances, it is impossible to assign an experiment randomly; this raises the issue of ethical difficulties. It is necessary for the researcher to be able to manipulate the variables. A controlled experiment is the strongest type of research design; results from controlled experiments are seen as the gold standard (Boslaugh, 2013). However, it is difficult to implement this type of research successfully.

The use of an experiment was suitable for this research because the purpose of experimental research is to identify cause-and-effect relationships (Johnson and Christensen, 2014). Experimental research allows researchers to study and observe the

effects of changing one or more variables in a controlled environment (Johnson and Christensen, 2014). The main purpose of this research was to investigate changes in different variables (i.e. can changes in COM and COD affect consumer purchase intentions).

Experimental research is widely used in marketing research; it allows researchers to evaluate causal relationships among variables (Zikmund and Babin, 2007). The use of manipulation on independent variables is the main key to experimental research. In experimental research, the researcher manipulates one or more independent variables and observes the effects on dependent variables. In the end, independent variables are the key to determining the outcomes of interest (Zikmund and Babin, 2007), while dependent variables are the outcomes of interest. For example, a manipulation of the price (independent variable) would affect the sales (dependent variable) (Zikmund and Babin, 2007).

As mentioned in the previous section, there are two main features of experiments. The first and most important characteristic is causal relationship investigation, which is the ability to investigate whether a change in one variable affects other variables (Patzer, 1996). Experimental research allows a researcher to understand cause and effect through hypothesis testing in a controlled environment. Hence, the research design should reduce bias and increase the experiment's reliability (Jha, 2014). The second feature is related to research control, which is the ability to control research procedures in a planned manner (Patzer, 1996). Research control ensures accurate results and allows a researcher to make inferences about causal relationships. Additionally, Jha (2014) explains the characteristics of experimental design:

- Appropriateness: the experiment has to fit with the hypotheses and research objectives.
- Control: the experiment should be able to control independent variables.
- Validity: the results of an experiment should be similar if the experiment is repeated. There are two types of validity: internal and external validity, which are covered later.

In experimental research, cause and effect have to vary in some predictable manner (Wrenn *et al.*, 2007). If they vary in a positive way (i.e. both increase or decrease together) or inverse (i.e. one increases and the other decreases). Causal research is designed to understand 'why', similar to descriptive research (Hair *et al.*, 2011). It is a type of well-structured research design that intends to discover the functional relationships between causal factors and attempts to predict the impact on the dependent variables (Hair *et al.*, 2011). The benefit of an experiment is the manipulation of one or more variables in such a way that its effect can be measured (Hair *et al.*, 2011; Tull and Hawkins, 1984).

6.7.1   EXPERIMENT: FACTORIAL DESIGN

As some research includes more than one factor, factorial design deals with variations of two or more independent variables (Krishnaswamy *et al.*, 2006). Factorial design is often conducted in management and social science experiments that study the interactions among variables. In real-world situations, two or more treatments are explored; this refers to factorial design (Hair *et al.*, 2011). Kothari (2006) mentions that there are two types of factorial design: simple factorial design and complex factorial design. Simple designs consider the effects of two factors on a dependent variable: 2 x 2 or two-factor factorial design (Table 6.6). Simple factorial design can be 2 x 3, 3 x 4 and so on (Kothari, 2006). However, the present research was associated with

complex factorial design. This type of experiment has more than two independent variables and uses a 2 x 2 x 2 factorial design

Table 6.6: 2 x 2 simple factorial design

Control variable	Treatment A	Treatment B
Level 1	Cell 1	Cell 3
Level II	Cell 2	Cell 4

Developed from Kothari (2006, p. 47)

Table 6.7: 2 x 2 x 2 complex factorial design

	Treatment A		Treatment B	
	Control variable 2 Level I	Control variable 2 Level II	Control variable 2 Level I	Control variable 2 Level II
Control variable 1 Level I	Cell 1	Cell 3	Cell 5	Cell 7
Control variable 1 Level II	Cell 2	Cell 4	Cell 6	Cell 8

Developed from Kothari (2006, p. 50)

Stamatis (2002) explains that in industrial settings, factorial design can be useful when the experimenter can generate a useful factor to find out the main effects and interactions. The experimenter can observe factorial combinations with different levels of treatment; for example, for two factors with five and seven levels of treatment, the experiment should be 5 x 7 = 35 treatment combinations (Stamatis, 2002). The benefit of factorial design is the control of the effects of multiple variables. It can also provide the opportunity to observe interaction effects (Hair *et al*., 2011).

6.7.2   FIELD EXPERIMENT

This research used a field experiment, which is different from a laboratory experiment. A field experiment is conducted in a realistic situation. The most distinguishing difference between field and laboratory experiments is the degree of control (Krishnaswamy *et al*., 2006). In a field experiment, many unexpected variables can occur. The experimenter has to consider that there are limitations and that the situation is uncontrollable. Field experiments are suitable for social sciences like social psychology, education, organisational behaviour and management (Krishnaswamy *et al*., 2006).

For a field experiment, the randomisation of treatment and the manipulation of variables are possible; furthermore, it is important to obtain the cooperation and consent of participants. During a field experiment, researchers are able to study variables in a

natural setting, whereas a laboratory experiment can only create an artificial situation (Furnham, 2005). The behaviour of the participants is more typical in a field experiment than in a laboratory experiment, so field experiments tend to have greater external validity (Eysenck, 2005). A laboratory experiment is useful for product development in the initial stages, such as for a blind test. Although a laboratory experiment can lessen the cost and time, the artificial conditions cannot represent the real market like a field experiment can (Sreejesh *et al*., 2014). A field experiment can be conducted regarding launching products in certain regions or observing consumers in a supermarket. It tends to have a higher degree of external validity than a laboratory experiment but a lower internal validity (Sreejesh *et al*., 2014). A field experiment also requires more time, effort and cost. This experiment was conducted as a field experiment.

6.7.3 PILOT STUDY

Before the actual experiment, it was important to confirm the variables to be used in this experiment. The rationale of the pilot study was to determine product involvement and the countries that consumers consider as their favourite COMs, their least favourite COMs, their favourite CODs and their least favourite CODs. This test was conducted by using a survey method to confirm consumers' opinions about different levels of country development. The pilot test comprised two sections. The first examined the product involvement of sports trainers and sports t-shirts. The last section had four questions of a self-administered type, where respondents were expected to fill out their favourite and least favourite CODs and their favourite and least favourite COMs. The questionnaire for the pilot study was designed as follows:

Table 6.8: Pilot study – Part 1

Product involvement	Scale
1. Choosing sports trainers is an important decision to me (Mittal, 1989)	1 (Strongly disagree) – 7 (Strongly agree)
2. It is important to make the right decision when purchasing sports trainers (Mittal, 1989)	1 (Strongly disagree) – 7 (Strongly agree)
3. I have a great interest in sports trainers (Mittal, 1989)	1 (Strongly disagree) – 7 (Strongly agree)
4. Choosing a sports t-shirt is an important decision to me (Mittal, 1989)	1 (Strongly disagree) – 7 (Strongly agree)
5. It is important to make the right decision when purchasing a sports t-shirt (Mittal, 1989)	1 (Strongly disagree) – 7 (Strongly agree)
6. I have a great interest in sports t-shirts (Mittal, 1989)	1 (Strongly disagree) – 7 (Strongly agree)

Table 6.9: Pilot study – Part 2

1. In your opinion, please list your favourite country of design for sportswear apparel
2. In your opinion, please list your least favourite country of design for sportswear apparel
3. In your opinion, please list your favourite country of manufacture for sportswear apparel
4. In your opinion, please list your least favourite country of manufacture for sportswear apparel

The pilot test ensured that sports trainers and sports t-shirts represent high and low product involvement, respectively. Moreover, the countries that were included in the main questionnaire were the countries that the 39 Thai consumers of the pilot test had in their minds. Data was collected in person by the researcher and the results from the pilot

study are shown in detail in Chapter 7. The results show that the US was the favourite COD and China was the least favourite COD, while Japan was the favourite COM and China was the least favourite COM.

6.7.4 QUESTIONNAIRE PRE-TESTING AND VERIFICATION

The pre-test allowed the researcher to identify any problems with conducting the experiment. It helped to check the procedures of the experimental research and to give a useful method when collecting data (Collins, 2010). When designing a questionnaire, it is important that researchers refine and rethink some questions (Collins, 2010). A poorly designed questionnaire results in inaccurate and inappropriate data. A pre-test is a small-scale version of an actual study that is conducted in order to check the research design (Hall, 2008). It is not always possible for a pre-test to be conducted in the same settings/locations as the actual study. However, researchers should compromise and make a realistic assessment of a pre-test (Hall, 2008). The questionnaire verification aims to identify unexpected problems in validity and accessibility to respondents. Moreover, it tests the reliability of data collection and assists in the timing of the questionnaire completion (Hall, 2008).

Usually, a pre-test is conducted in a small sample of the target population. There is no limitation in the sample size (Bajpai, 2011). Most experts agree that a pre-test has to be small, perhaps less than 100 respondents. However, some argue that the pilot stage should have at least 15 respondents (Banjpai, 2011). This research employed 51 respondents, which is in the acceptable range for sample size. The pilot test was useful for the identification of problems with the questionnaire and allowed the researcher to discover weaknesses and misunderstandings in the content of the questionnaire before distributing it to actual respondents. At this stage, pre-test was conducted using Thai consumers as a sample. When the pre-test stage had been completed, there were no major problems foreseen for the experiment. However, some wording in the questionnaire needed to be adjusted in order to make the questions clearer.

6.7.5   MAIN EXPERIMENT

The first part of the questionnaire provided an introduction about the author, contact information and the general purpose of the research, which indicated the academic use for Brunel Business School. Furthermore, it provided codes of research and reassured participants of their confidentiality. The respondents were allowed to decide if they were willing to complete the questionnaire or not. Before the experiment began, the author clearly stated approximate timings and guidelines. When respondents agreed to participate in this experiment, it was a requirement that the experimenter described the situation that the respondents had to encounter. There were eight situations or scenarios, as illustrated in Figure 6.3. After the situation had been clearly explained, the respondents answered the questionnaire according to the situation provided.

First, it aimed to investigate the country images selected from the pilot test. The questions aimed to investigate product-country image and country image. Second, it compared the effects of different levels of COM, COD and product involvement on purchase intention and CPV. Third, it explored the interaction effects of the independent variables (COD, COM and product involvement). Finally, it investigated whether product familiarity acts as a moderating variable in the relationship between purchase intention and CPV.

The experiment was a factorial 2 x 2 x 2 design. It contained two different levels of product involvement of sportswear products (sports trainers and sports t-shirts), selected from the pilot test, as well as two levels of COD (US and China) and two levels of COM (Japan and China). This experiment was divided into eight scenarios or treatments, as illustrated.

Figure 6.3: Scenarios for experiment
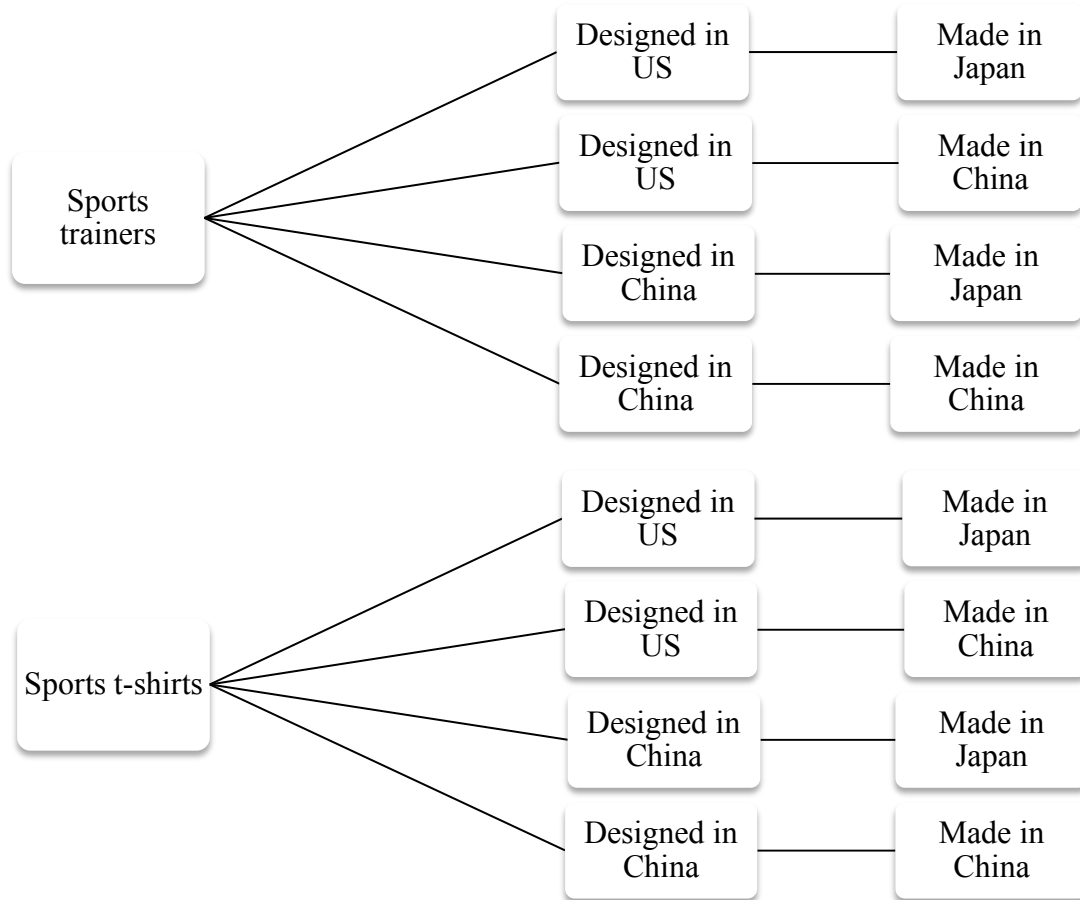
6.8 INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES AND MANIPULATION CHECK

A manipulation check from the pilot test verified that the independent variables were valid. An independent variable is in the form of an experimental stimulus; in other words, it is a cause, while a dependent variable is an effect (Babbie, 2011). In this research, the independent variables were product involvement, COD, COM and product familiarity. Dependent variables are those variables that researchers have no control over (Bajpai, 2011), which in this study were: consumer purchase intention and CPV. When there are different levels and varieties of COM and COD, the dependant variables are affected. The benefit of conducting experimental research is that it allows researchers to control the situation for determining the causal relationships between dependent and independent variables (Bajpai, 2011).

In this research, it was important to study the country images of different levels of COM and COD. The levels can be described as high or low in customers' opinions of a

country being more or less able to design and manufacture sports trainers and sports t-shirts. This research analysed eight different experimental conditions. The field experiment aimed to determine different consequences on consumer purchase intention and CPV by manipulating different levels of COO and COD.

Experimental research measures how people behave differently; in most cases, a manipulation check is used after the collection of data on the dependent variables because the check may influence the dependent variables (Zinkmund and Bobin, 2007). This experiment employed a manipulation check after the respondents had completed the dependent variable questions. It contained two sections: country manipulation and purchase involvement manipulation. The first section had four open-ended questions on favourite COM and COD and least favourite COM and COD. The last section had six questions on sports trainers and sports t-shirt purchase involvement, which were Likert-type questions. The full questionnaire can be found in Appendix 3.

6.8.1   EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

In the field experiment, data was collected in Bangkok, Thailand, concerning the popular shopping department stores, such as Siam Paragon, Emporium and Central World. As discussed earlier, the experiment was a 2 x 2 x 2 factorial design; therefore, there were eight scenarios. On distribution of the questionnaire, each respondent was exposed to only one out of the eight different treatments. Moreover, the questionnaire was randomly assigned due to the problem of selection bias (Bajpai, 2011).

In each experiment, the questionnaire and products were presented to respondents. Before they received the questionnaire, the experimenter instructed them on the rules and gave them an outline of the questions. The respondents were asked if they were willing to participant in the experiment. If the respondents agreed to participate, the experimenter began to describe the situation to the respondents. In order to minimise bias, the respondents were not aware of the intentions and objectives of the research. Each respondent was asked to consider one sport product, and the experimenter described the situation of wanting to purchase new sports trainers or a new sports t-shirt. The researcher attempted to imitate a real situation where the respondents needed a new pair of sports trainers / sports t-shirt. The real product (a pair of sports trainers or a sport

t-shirt) was shown to the respondents. Showing real products enabled the researcher to imitate the real-world situation and allowed the respondents to feel the actual products. After being shown the products, the respondents were asked fill out the questionnaire. During the experiment and questionnaire filling, the respondents were told to provide their opinions according to the situation and were able to re-examine the products if they wanted to. The scale of measurement will be explained in the next section.

6.9 PRODUCT SELECTION

This research focused on sportswear products from different countries. Labels and brands were concealed or removed to avoid consumer bias in terms of brand, colours, design and other factors. This research compared high-involvement and low-involvement sportswear products. The selection of trainers as the representation of a high-involvement product was due to rising global sales and them being used in an attempt to express self-identity (Coombs and Bachelor, 2013). In the apparel industry, clothing and footwear can account for both high and low involvement. However, in the purchase decision according to this experiment scenario, trainers were considered higher risk than sports t-shirts. Normally, trainers entail higher monetary risk and require more search than sports t-shirts, and t-shirts are considered items for simple daily use (Ahmed and d'Astous. 2004). Both products were purposely selected because they can be used by both males and females. The colour of the products used was plain white without distinguished design to decrease colour and design biases. Additionally, to prevent brand bias, the experimenter covered visible brands and logos on both products.

6.10   MEASUREMENT SCALE

This research selected a seven-point Likert scale as a measurement in the questionnaire. The Likert scale is also known as an 'agree–disagree scale' or 'summated rating scale' and is considered a reliable measurement (Kothari, 2006). When using a Likert scale, a series of statements are made and the respondents are asked to indicate where on the scale their level of agreement or disagreement sits (Kothari, 2006). It is widely used in investigating social attitudes, behaviours and feelings. According to Tulis and Albert (2008), the Likert scale is frequently used to express if participants agree or disagree by

applying a rating from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. It is popularly used in survey questionnaire research because its range of answers allows respondents to provide responses accurately.

6.10.1 COUNTRY IMAGE AND PRODUCT-COUNTRY IMAGE

Respondents were asked to respond with their perceptions on macro- and micro-images. The measure of country image has been justified in previous studies, such as those of Nagashima (1970, 1977), Martin and Eroglu (1993) and Pappu *et al.* (2007). A seven-point Likert scale was employed from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The questions were modified into a series of statements. The macro-image consisted of eight items about a country, and the micro-image consisted of nine items that measured the capability of the manufacturing/designing country of a sportswear product.

Each respondent randomly received only one scenairo. In each scenario, the respondents were inquired to rate one COM and one COD. The selection of countries was justified from the pilot test by asking respondents to fill out their favourite and least favourite COMs and CODs.

6.10.2 PURCHASE INTENTION

Many scales of purchase intention have been developed. Spears and Singh (2004) mention that when a researcher wishes to measure purchase intention, there are an array of choices but no validated scales. Starting with 15 items for measuring purchase intention, they selected five items to form their scale: never/definitely do not intend to buy, definitely do not intend to buy / definitely intend to buy, very low/high purchase interest, definitely not buy it / definitely buy it, and probably not buy it / probably buy it (Spears and Singh, 2004).

To measure purchase intention, three seven-point Likert scales were developed from the work of Spears and Singh (2004). Purchase intention is "an individual's conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand" (Eagly and Chaike, 1993, p. 168). Originally, there were 15 items for measuring purchase intention; some questions were retained because of reliability (Spears and Singh, 2004).

6.10.3 CUSTOMER PERCEIVED VALUE

The scale development of CPV was introduced by Sweeney and Soutar (2001). Although many scales have been proposed by other researchers, the PERVAL scale has been proven reliable and valid in this context. Sweeney and Soutar (2001) developed and purified the PERVAL scale into four-dimensional constructs. The scale demonstrates the assessment of a product in terms of performance, value for money, pleasure (emotional) and communication in terms of social value.

6.10.4 PRODUCT FAMILIARITY

Product familiarity refers to knowledge of a product. It is a collection of exposures to and experiences of a product. The scale used was a seven-point Likert scale (Lee and Lee, 2009). Familiarity plays an important role in moderating effects in COO studies because of its influence on consumers; it is suggested that consumers are likely to use country information to evaluate products (Josiassen *et al.*, 2008).

Table 6.10: Measurement scales of this research

Scale	Items
Designed/manufactured in (COD/COM) (Nagashima, 1977)	Innovative Excellent quality Comfortable Functional High-quality materials Reliable Highly recognised by consumers Durable
Country image (Martin and Eroglu, 1993)	Technological research Standard of living Labour cost Welfare system Civilian, non-military government Developed economy Educational standard Free-market system Democratic
Quality value (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001)	Quality Craftsmanship Durable Reliable Well designed High performance Innovative
Social value (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001)	Makes someone feel acceptable Improves the way people perceive Makes a good impression Gives social approval
Price value (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001)	Worth investing in Good value for money Good value for its features
Emotional value	Enjoy wearing this product

Scale	Items
(Sweeney and Soutar, 2001)	Want to wear this product Makes someone feel good Gives pleasure wearing this product Feel relaxed wearing this product Feel positive wearing this product Feel satisfied wearing this product
Product familiarity (Lee and Lee, 2009)	Familiar with this product Considered an experienced user Expert in this product
Purchase intention (Spears and Singh, 2004)	High interest in buying this product Would like to buy this product Would like to buy this product next time
Product involvement: **sport trainers /** **sports t-shirts** (Mittal, 1989)	Finding information before buying Have a great interest in Have to make a right decision before purchasing

6.11   CRITERIA FOR MEASUREMENT

6.11.1 VALIDITY

Validity is relevant to the measurement aspect (Krishnaswamy *et al.*, 2006). When conducting research, establishing validity is a complex issue, due to the concern of psychological and behavioural properties (Krishnaswamy *et al.*, 2006). Validity enables research to draw a valid conclusion from the experiment (Bajpai, 2011). The problem with validity in quantitative research is generalisability; on the other hand, the nature of qualitative research requires in-depth insights into certain phenomena. There are two aspects of research validity: external validity and internal validity. According to McBurney and White (2010), internal validity concerns the relationship between independent and dependant variables. In experimental research, when a cause-and-effect relationship is present between the independent and dependant variables, it means that the research has internal validity. Internal validity indicates that the manipulation of the experiment caused the effects on the dependent variables (Bajpai, 2011). This research

intended to draw valid conclusions regarding the effects of country images and product involvement on purchase intention and CPV.

External validity is concerned with the generalisability of the results or if the study represents the population to be generalised (McBurney and White, 2010). To increase the external validity of this study, each respondent was assigned to only one scenario, in order to prevent multiple treatment bias (Bajpai, 2011).

Extraneous variables refer to variables other than independent variables that can affect dependent variables (Spatz, 2011). In a real experiment, it is difficult to control every variable; the effects of uncontrolled variables can cause changes in dependent variables (Spatz, 2011). According to Creswell (1994), controlling extraneous variables requires randomly assigning participants to experimental groups.

6.11.2 RELIABILITY

Reliability refers to "the consistency or stability of a measuring instrument" (Jackson, 2009, p.83). Respondents tend to answer in a similar way for identical or near-identical questions (Bajpai, 2011). Bailey (1994) notes that reliability provides confidence to an experimenter that transient and situational factors have not disturbed the research process. Reliability is the primary concern in quantitative research (Tappen, 2011).

Cronbach's alpha is a popular measurement for internal consistency; it is also referred to as Cronbach's α (Andrew *et al.*, 2011) and is used to ensure the reliability of a questionnaire. It signifies how free it is from random error (Pallant, 2016). If the alpha coefficient is low, it means that the measurement scale has failed to measure what it meant to measure. The Cronbach's alpha is high when the correlations among questionnaire items are high. The range is from 0 to 1 (Andrew *et al.*, 2011). However, the alpha coefficient should be greater than 0.70 for most research (Hair et al., 1995). The Cronbach's alpha from the pre-test is shown in Appendix 4.

6.12   TRANSLATION OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

As this research was conducted in Thailand, a translation process was required. The questionnaire was written in English, but it was necessary for Thai consumers to complete the experiment in the Thai language. Sometimes in these situations, there are barriers in translation, such as technical words that cannot be translated into other languages (Brislin, 1970). According to Brislin (1970, cited in Rogelberg, 2004), the most accepted method is the translation–back-translation method. Translated questionnaire (Thai language) can be found in Appendix 3. This method's procedures are:

1. A professional translator translates the English questions (questionnaire) into the foreign language.
2. Later, two independent translators translate back from the foreign language into English without seeing the original questionnaire.
3. The final stage compares the original version of the questionnaire with the back-translated version to ensure consistency of the contents and meanings.

6.13   SAMPLE DESIGN

As no study can cover a total population, the concept of sampling was introduced (Singh and Bajpai, 2008). Sampling is "fundamental to all methodology of behavioural and social research" (Singh and Bajpai, 2008, p.137). Sampling is the selection of individuals from a population to provide an estimate of the population's characteristics (Singh and Bajpai, 2008). Sampling is a research technique that is divided into two types: probability and non-probability sampling (Murphy and Bhojanna, 2008). This study was based on non-probability sampling using a convenience approach. Selecting an appropriate research sample is important because it supports good-quality research. Probability sampling is a technique where every unit in the population has an equal chance of being chosen (Murphy and Bhojanna, 2008).

6.13.1 SELECTION OF SAMPLE

When selecting a sample, it has to represent the population (Andrew *et al*., 2011). The target population indicates which population represents the actual focus or target (Saunder *et al*., 2016). Selecting a sample is considered one of the most important factors in designing research. The probability approach considers that everyone has a possibility of being selected as part of the sample. Non-probability sampling is where the probability of being selected is unknown and is based on the judgement of the researcher (Saunders *et al*., 2016).

This research used convenience sampling, which refers to sampling people or units that are conveniently available (Zikmund and Babin, 2007). Probability sampling using convenience samples is associated with survey strategies and is considered the most convenient and economical sampling method. Convenience sampling is able to obtain a large number of questionnaire responses very quickly. However, a disadvantage of convenience sampling is the issue that the selected sample may not represent the targeted population. The targeted population for this research was individual males and females who lived in the Bangkok metropolitan region and who were aged over 18 years. Moreover, they were those interested in sportswear and fitness products and who loved to exercise regularly. The experiment took place mostly in front of fitness centres and sports department areas.

A sampling technique requires the researcher to identify a sampling frame that relates to the members of the population who are involved and enables the research to provide accurate information. Selecting the sample size is one of the problems that occur in research planning. The sample size can be as extreme as thousands of respondents or as small as a few (Guthrie, 2010). Normally, for a pilot test, a sample of 30 should gives results of a normal distribution.

The target sample of the main experiment was sought on a voluntary basis to prevent result bias. This research aimed to have at least 30 respondents per experiment group (Roscoe, 1975). This is an acceptable number of respondents, according to Gay and Diehl (1992), who state that the lowest acceptable number of respondents is 20 participants per single group. This research aimed to distribute questionnaires to more

than 30 participants per experiment group in order to prevent incomplete and erroneous answers. To prevent missing data and invalid questionnaire, a researcher aimed to conduct experiments approximately 80 per a condition.

6.14   POPULATION AND SAMPLE ISSUES

This study was conducted in the context of Thailand's sportswear industry. The experiment employed the technique of convenience sampling. The experiment was conducted in the most popular department stores of Bangkok and the most popular sports departments within other department stores. The approximate time taken to conduct each experiment was around 10 to 20 minutes per person. While the response rate was considerably high, there were issues with missing data and respondent participation. In response to this, the researcher attempted to minimise errors and data issues by ensuring that all questions were answered and decreasing the duration of the main experiment; dealing with incomplete or missing data was the most significant issue. Hair *et al*. (2011) mention that missing data can affect the validity of data. The typical solution for missing data is to remove those respondents with missing data exceeding 15%.

6.15   THAILAND'S SPORTSWEAR INDUSTRY

This research expected to contribute knowledge and findings to the development of the consumer and international marketing research concerning the influence of COD and COM images among Thai consumers in Bangkok, examining the influential factors in understanding consumer purchase intentions and CPV. The research attempted to explore the constructs of COO, which comprise COM and COD, along with the investigation of CPV: a multidimensional concept that is a fundamental basis for creating value.

This research focused on the sportswear/activewear business. In the past 20 years, sports-related businesses have increased in terms of creating value and brand equity (Pritchard and Stinson, 2013). In contemporary society, consumers purchase a product not only for its attributes and functions but also for the qualities of what a product can symbolise (Tong and Su, 2014). Many researchers have considerable interest in the

topic of creating a strong image. The sportswear industry has been a fast-growing market through creating a strong image (Tong and Hawley, 2009). It is positioned between fashion and sports. In addition, Tong and Su (2014) mention that sports-oriented consumers seek more than innovation and athletic spirit; they pursue products that have a good reputation and are associated with a confident personality and high levels of performance. In the sportswear market, building a strong image and ensuring differentiation are key. Thus, this research investigated the constructs of COD and COM images as associated with the perceptions of sportswear. In addition, CPV concepts, which act as a marketing tool for creating customer value and differentiation, can be used in both products and services (Aulia *et al.,* 2016). It has been proven that creating value can satisfy customers and affect their repurchase intentions and loyalty (Lin *et al.,* 2005).

In recent years, the sportswear market has changed into a mainstream apparel market, with the distinction between sports functionality and fashion becoming increasingly narrower. Therefore, most sportswear is purchased by consumers for leisure and casual purposes (Chi, 2013). Sportswear and performance-related apparel represents the outward sign of well-being and striving for a better quality of life (Hayes and Venkatraman, 2016). Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1954) explains the role of fashion in motivating consumers to achieve their goals (Hayes and Venkatraman, 2016). The theory explains that an individual is motivated to satisfy their needs from the basic level of psychological needs (such as hunger and thirst), then moves up to safety needs, belonging needs and esteem needs, and at the top are self-actualisation needs (Jackson and Shaw, 2009). Fashion has to do with the self-esteem level because it represents an individual's emotional image and personality (Diamond *et al.,* 2015). Moreover, sportswear fits into the level of self-esteem. As an example, Nike using the line 'Just do it' inspires consumers to look for self-actualisation (Hayes and Venkatraman, 2016). Schutte and Ciarlante (1998) mention that the hierarchy of needs is different when comparing an Asian perspective to a Western one. Figure 6.4 shows the comparison between Asian needs and Western needs.

Figure 6.4: Maslow's hierarchy of needs and the Asian equivalent
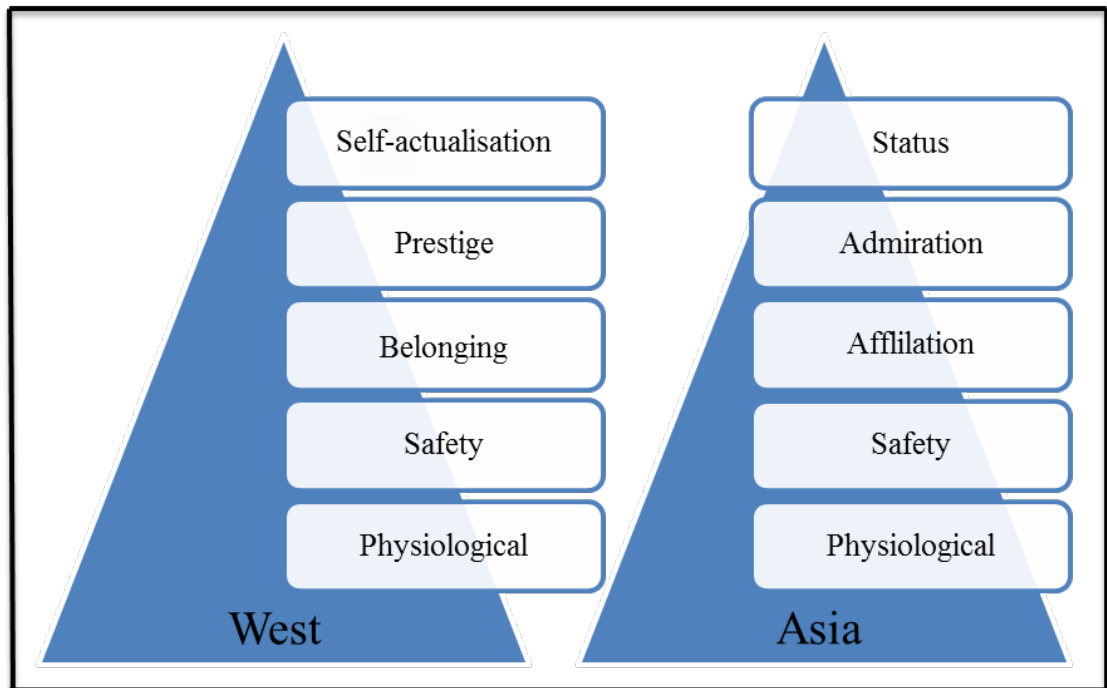
Adapted from Schutte and Ciarlante (1998)

According to Figure 6.4, status is the highest level, followed by admiration and affiliation. There is evidence showing that fashion is a symbol of wealth, which explains the growth in fashion consumption in Asian societies (Carr and Newell, 2014). Cultural differences between Western and Asian societies illustrate that Asians emphasise interpersonal relationships and social interactions more than Westerners do (Bell, 2008). In emerging markets, the fastest-growing class of consumers, the middle class, earn enough money to afford better-quality products. The hierarchy of needs helps to identify consumers and what drives their behaviours (Carr and Newell, 2014).

Despite the growth of the sportswear industry, there is a need for research studying value perceptions in order to understand CPV. From a commercial perspective, sportswear can convey meanings and be embedded in a specific use (Bouchet *et al.,* 2013). Because of this, many sports brands carry a strong message that embodies a set of values to customers.

The sportswear market has been affected by major changes concerning the relocation of production, which can cause changes in consumers' perceptions of a product (Bouchet

et al., 2013). This research intends to investigate this matter. Therefore, the exploration of country image at different levels, specifically COM and COD, is the main theme of this thesis. In Thailand, the sportswear market is experiencing extensive growth, and Thai consumers are becoming more sophisticated and demanding when choosing certain products. Moreover, access to borderless information allows Thai consumers to be knowledgeable (Watchravesringkan *et al.,* 2010).

'Country image' is a term used to signify purchase behaviours and other important outcomes. Prior studies have found that COO has an influence on product evaluation. However, very limited research exists regarding the determination of both COM and COD in the same product category. This research attempted to identify the interaction effects of COM and COD images.

6.16   DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

This research used the techniques of analysis of variance (ANOVA), multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and t-test in order to investigate the effects between variables. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 20, a tool for analysing data, was used. The descriptive statistics present the respondents' ages, genders, occupations, education levels and income levels. Before analysing data, it is important to check its validity. This should involve finding the skewness, kurtosis and standard deviation to normalise the data, as well as finding outliers in order to eliminate values below or above other scores (Pallant, 2013).

ANOVA is a statistical technique for testing hypotheses regarding whether there are significant differences in population means (Bajpai, 2011). ANOVA is an analysis technique that can analyse a factorial design (Andrew *et al*., 2011). The advantage of ANOVA is that it allows the researcher to study the main effects and interaction effects (Pallant, 2013). The interaction effect is a test of one independent variable depends on another independent variable with different levels. The significant interaction can be interpreted through a cell-means plot which can be ordinal interaction effect or disordinal interaction effect (Andrew et al., 2011). Ordinal interaction effect presents lines that are not parallel and do not cross each other within the graph, the latter refers to the lines that do not parallel but cross in the values of the graph. MANOVA is an

extension of ANOVA when there is more than one dependant variable (Field, 2013). It compares experimental groups and shows mean differences between groups.

6.17   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Apart from the instrumentation and experimental procedure, ethical concerns usually occur regarding harming people both physically and psychologically (Goddard and Melville, 2007). Research ethics in business research plays an important role because it generally affects participants, such as relating to the privacy of participants, the voluntary nature of research participation and the confidentiality of data (Kasper, 2006). While there is no general agreement on ethical issues, it is vital to ensure that participants are not harmed by research activities (Coldwell and Herbst, 2004). The researcher should aim to preserve the privacy and anonymity of respondents (Coldwell and Herbst, 2004). Conducting a field experiment may raise more ethical dilemmas than a laboratory study would (Davis, 2003). Socially sensitive issues in research can have practical consequences for respondents. Normally, experimental studies involve randomly assigned conditions; respondents are not allowed to choose which conditions they participate in (Jacobsen, 2012). Respondents should participate in the experiment voluntarily and must not be influenced by being compensated for their participation. Polonsky and Waller (2015) support the notion that participation in research must be voluntary and that the researcher should explain that respondents have no obligation to assist with the research.

This research was approved and followed Brunel Business School's ethical requirements. Before conducting the experiment, the researcher purposely explained the research process and objectives to the respondents, as well as giving them assurance that the experiment findings would only be used academically. Permission to research was approved by the Brunel Business School Committee. The researcher fully understood the rights of the respondents and that they could withdraw from the experiment at any time. Moreover, the respondents were asked whether they agreed to proceed with the experiment; if not, they were allowed to refuse to participate and withdraw at any stage (Guthrie, 2010). The researcher also made sure that information given by the respondents was treated confidentially (Davis, 2003).

6.18   CHAPTER SUMMARY

In conclusion, this chapter provides an explanation of positivism as a philosophical research foundation. The study employed a quantitative method to test the research hypotheses. Few studies use a qualitative approach, due to time restrictions and research objectives, whereas conducting research using a quantitative method enables the collection of large amounts of data.

This chapter also explores experimental research, which is the best method to control variables and environments. It explains the concept of pilot testing, which is a method used to identify and confirm variables for an actual experiment. Moreover, it presents sample selection and experimental procedures before explaining research ethics considerations and methods of data analysis.

CHAPTER 7

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Previous chapter explains research methodology using in this research. It clarifies philosophical foundation and research rationale. Later, it presents research process and research design framework. It justifies the reason why experiment is the most suitable method and the procedure of conducting experiment which includes pilot test, pre-test and the main experiment.

The chapters will:

- Begin with the results from pilot test, which intends identify country and purchase involvement variables using in an experiment.
- Present the results from pre-test of the main questionnaire in order to justify the reliability of this questionnaire by using Cronbach's alpha Coefficient.
- Present the results and explanations of this experimental research. The results include the recognition of the country images of the US, Japan and China.
- Display the effects of country of design and country of manufacture on purchase intention and customer perceived value.
- Test hypotheses using ANOVA and MANOVA techniques, the results of which explain the current situation of Thai consumers with reference to the country image of the US, Japan, and China, as well as the analysis of these countries' roles as country of design and country of manufacture.

This chapter presents the data analysis and results are obtained from 610 in-person questionnaires. The chapter will provide the findings and discussions from the research population in Bangkok, Thailand. This chapter is presented in two parts; the first section shows the results from the pilot test. It starts by demonstrating purchase involvement between sports trainers and sports t-shirts, before illustrating most favourite and least

favourite COD and COM. The second section confirms the variables of country and involvement used in the main experiment.

7.2 RESEARCH FROM PILOT TESTS

7.2.1   PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT

This study determines to investigate the different levels of product involvement that act as a cue in product evaluation. In order to compare high and low levels of product involvement, the study is conducted by investigating three dimensions of product involvement: finding out information before purchasing, having great interest in the product, and making the right purchasing decision. These three dimensions are measured between purchasing decisions regarding sport trainers and sport t-shirts. This pilot test provides two purposes: to identify the level of product involvement between sport trainers and sport t-shirts and also to pinpoint countries that respondents consider as being high and low COD and COM. The results (table 6.1) show that t-shirts are considered as low involvement products and sport trainers are considered as high involvement products for Thai consumers.

Figure 7.1 presents the results from the preliminary test, which ascertains the differences in product involvement between sport t-shirts and sport trainers. The results are obtained from 39 Thai respondents who completed a questionnaire in order to confirm the variable of involvement before use in an actual experiment. Figure 7.1 describes three issues: the importance of choice, having to make a right decision, and having a great interest in (Mittal, 1989). The scale measures from 1 to 7 (strongly agree to strongly disagree). The descriptive information is taken from SPSS program.

Figure 7.1: Bar charts of t-shirts and trainers
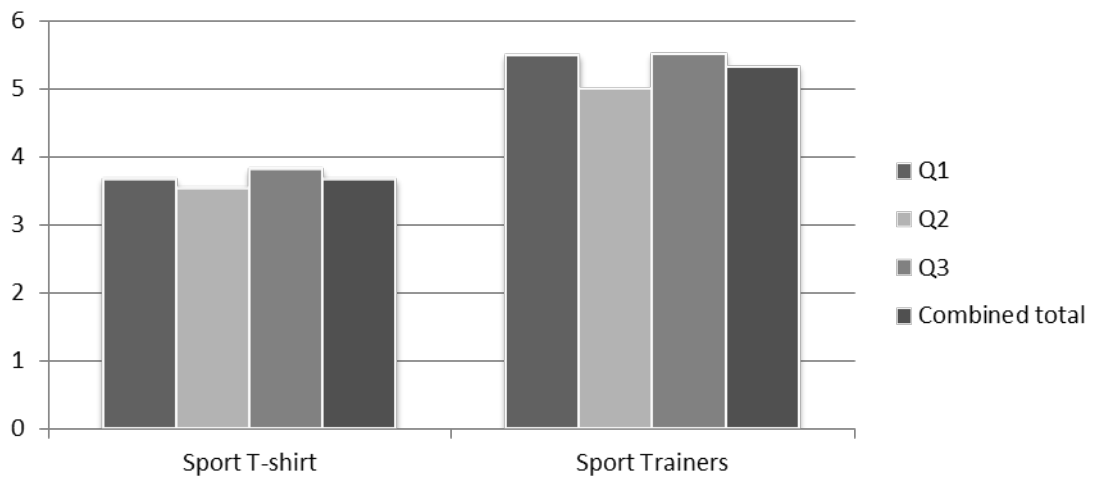
Q1: Choosing sports trainers/ sports t-shirts is important

Q2: I have to make the right decision in purchasing sports trainers/sports t-shirts

Q3: I have a great interest in sports trainers/sport t-shirts

Table 7.1: T-test of trainers and t-shirts

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Trainers	5.56	39	0.64	12.90	38	0.00
T-shirt	3.53	39	0.59			

Source: SPSS File

The paired-samples t-test (Table 7.1) is applied in this question because this test allows for the situation of one group of people in two conditions (Pallant, 2013). Usually the paired-samples t-test is used in pre-test and post-test experimental manipulation, nevertheless it can also be used as a method when the research requires the measurement of the same test subject in two different circumstances (Pallant, 2013). The nature of the paired-samples t-test assumes that there are differences between the score (Field, 2013). Table 7.1 shows the results of a paired-sample t-test conducted to calculate if sports trainers and sports t-shirts are different in terms of involvement. In this respect, there is a statistically significant difference between trainers (M = 5.56, SD =0.150) and t-shirts (M = 3.53, SD = 0.60), t (38) = 12.90, p = 0.00 (Sig. two-tailed). The mean difference is 2.03 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 1.71 to 2.34. The eta squared statistic (0.90) shows a large effect size.

7.2.2   COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE AND COUNTRY OF DESIGN

Figure 7.2: Favourite country of design
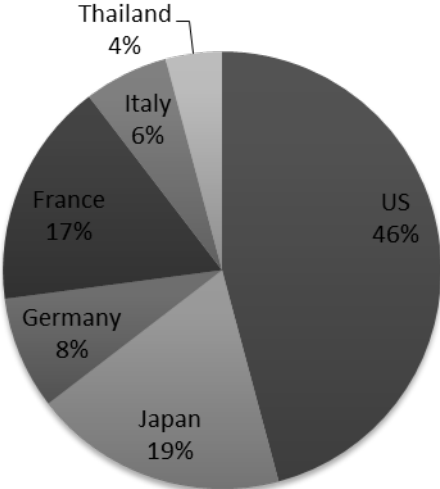
Figure 7.3: Least favourite country of design
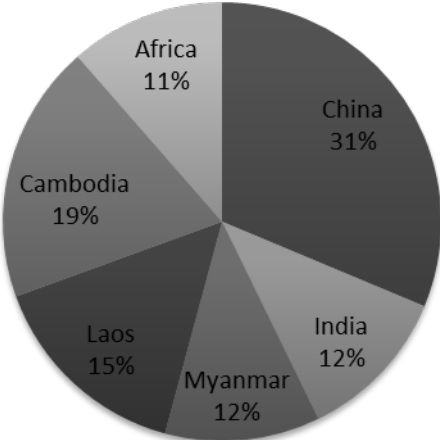
Figure 7.4: Favourite country of manufacture
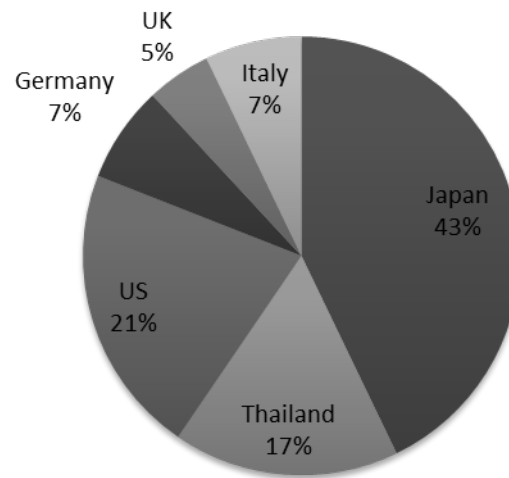
Figure 7.5: Least favourite country of manufacture
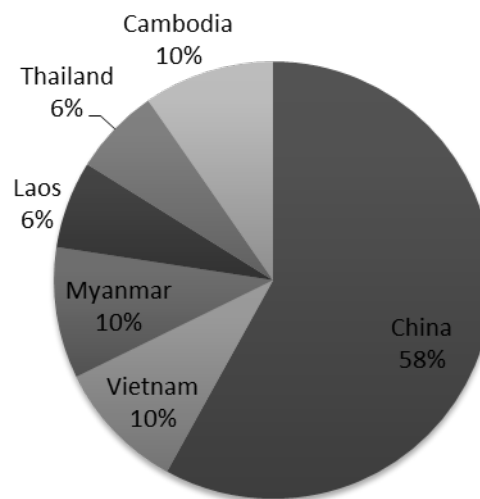
Respondents are allowed to write down as many countries as they can think of. The number of countries is altered as a percentage according to the tables shown. According to Figure 7.2 to Figure 7.5, the US is the most favourite country of design, while China is the least favourite country of design. Moreover, Japan is the most favourite country of manufacture and China is the least favourite country of manufacture.

The preliminary test is conducted in order to examine countries of design, countries of manufacture and product involvement and to confirm the variables used in this experiment. Trainers represent a high involvement product and t-shirts represent a low

involvement product. The most favourite COD is the USA and the most favourite COM is Japan, whereas the least favourite COD is China and the least favourite COM is also China.

7.3 DATA SCREENING

According to Hair *et al*. (2006), when the data is collected, before analysis the researcher must examine all questionnaires and ensure that they are complete. All data must be precise in order to produce practical findings. When entering data, there is the chance that the researcher might introduce errors that can distort the analysis, as well as the issue of outliers that can cause a very sensitive issue to the data.

7.3.1 MISSING DATA

Although all questionnaires are distributed by the researcher, there may still be instances of missing data. Due to the large quantity of data in business research, missing data is common (Hair *et al*., 2006). Missing data can have an impact on findings and analysis.

In this study, the researcher explained to respondents the importance and desirability of the questionnaires being as complete as possible in order to avoid missing data issues. According to Bajpai (2011), when a survey questionnaire contains a high number of unanswered question the recommended procedure is to discard that questionnaire. The rule is that if the number of unanswered questions is higher than 10% then it is best to discard that questionnaire. Bajpai (2011) also highlights that data checking is important for illogical and inconsistent entries, such as when a respondent provides an erroneous response. This type of data must be handled appropriately.

7.4 RESPONSE RATE

This research study attempted to distribute a total of 680 questionnaires to Thai consumers. In this study, there are 8 treatments, in each treatment the study aims to distribute the questionnaire to around 85 consumers.

This study is conducted by a self-administered data collection method. The researcher prepares the products for respondents and distributes them randomly while explaining the

situation. After the respondents consider the products, they are asked to fill out the questionnaire. During this process, the researcher monitored the respondents while the questionnaires were filled out and any incomplete or missing questionnaires were eliminated due to the introduction of inaccuracies in data processing. Out of 648 questionnaires, 95% or 610 are valid to proceed for data analysis (Table 7.2).

The experimental study was completed within the period of three months. This experiment was populated by 610 respondents. The researcher randomly selected scenarios for each respondent. The study was collected in a Bangkok, Thailand and focused in populate areas such as department stores, in front of fitness centres and sports-related exhibitions. All questionnaires were distributed by the researcher, enabling any invalid questionnaires to be discarded.

Table 7.2: Response rate of respondents in Bangkok

Total questionnaire distributed	648	100%
Missing questionnaires	7	1%
Invalid responses	31	5%
Valid responses	610	94%

7.4.1   SAMPLE CHARACTERISTCIS

This section demonstrates the demographic characteristics acquired from the field experiment. This experiment was completed over a period of 10 weeks. The response rate shown in the table above is considered as a high response rate; this experiment was conducted by a researcher and the questionnaire was carefully checked for incomplete questions before the experiment ended. The demographic characteristics are explained the tables below, which demonstrate the ratios of gender, age range, education, occupation and income.

Table 7.3: Gender of respondents

	Frequency N= 610	Valid %
Female	318	52.1
Male	292	47.9
Total	1610	100.0

With regard to gender group, there 318 females (52%) and 292 male (48%) and the age groupings of the 610 respondents from this experiment, there are 240 respondents within the age range 18-24 years old which is the largest group (39%), followed by the 25-35 age group, which contains 214 people or 35%. The 36-50 age range includes 17% or 105 respondents, while the age group of more than 50 years old least has the least number of respondents (51 or 8%).

Table 7.4: Age ranges of respondents

	Frequency N= 610	Valid %
18-24 years old	240	39.3
25-35 years old	214	35.1
36-50 years old	105	17.2
More than 50 years old	51	8.4
Total	610	100.0

With regard to education, almost 16% or 97 respondents are high school graduates. Undergraduates or those with bachelor's degrees comprise 72% or 438 out of the total number of respondents, while postgraduates or respondents who graduated at master's level comprise 71 respondents or 12 %. The lowest number of respondents are those with doctoral degrees, of which there are only 4 people.

Table 7.5: Highest education of respondents in Bangkok

	Frequency N= 610	Valid %
High school graduate	97	15.9
Undergraduate	438	71.8
Postgraduate	71	11.6
Doctoral degree	4	0.7
Total	610	100.0

This next table demonstrates the occupations of the respondents in this experiment. The majority of respondents (243 or around 40%) are working as company employees. The next largest group is that of students, which comprises 34% or 208 respondents. Business owners or self-employed respondents rank in the middle at 14% (86 respondents). Whereas the second lowest number of respondents (around 11% or 69 respondents) work in the field of civil/ government section, and the smallest group (1%) is comprised of those who are unemployed or retired.

Table 7.6: Occupations of respondents in Bangkok

	Frequency N= 610	Valid %
Student	208	34.1
Business owner/Self employed	86	14.1
Employee	243	39.87
Unemployed/Retired	4	0.7
Government/ Civil servant	69	11.3
Total	100.0	100.0

The last section of demographic information concerns the monthly income of the respondents in Bangkok. The largest income group comprises 43% of the total respondents, who earn less than 15,000 baht per month. The second largest group (26%) earn between 15,000 and 25,000 per month, and 16% of respondents earn more than 35,001 baht per month. Finally the income range of 25,000 to 35,000 baht includes the lowest number of respondents (15%).

Table 7.7: Income per month of respondents in Bangkok

	Frequency N= 610	Valid %
Low than 15,000 baht	264	43.3
15,001-25,000 baht	157	25.7
25,001-35,000 baht	91	14.9
More than 35,001 baht	98	16.1
Total	610	100.0

7.5 ASSESSING THE RELIABILITY OF A SCALE

In the previous chapter (methodology), it was discussed that it is necessary to check a scale's internal consistency, in other words to check that the scale is reliable and that recurring measurements give consistent results (Field, 2013). Cronbach's alpha is the most common way to measure reliability.

Table 7.8: Coefficient's alpha

Constructs	Number of Items	Cronbach's alpha
Country of design (COD): US	8	0.78
Country of design (COD): China	8	0.72
Country of manufacture (COM): Japan	8	0.75
Country of manufacture (COM): China	8	0.80
Country Image (CI) US	9	0.70
Country Image (CI) Japan	9	0.77
Country Image (CI) China	9	0.70
Purchase Intention (PI)	3	0.91
Customer Perceived Value (CPV)		
1. Quality (QUA)	8	0.95
2. Price (PRI)	3	0.89
3. Social (SOC)	4	0.92
4. Emotional (EMO)	7	0.95
Product Familiarity (PF)	3	0.88
Customer Involvement (INV)		
1. Trainers	3	0.73
2. T-shirt	3	0.70

7.6 ASSESSING NORMALITY

In statistics, normal distribution is most commonly used because it is a reasonable way to describe data regardless of the area of study (Boslaugh, 2013). Normality is a test of data distribution, which is an assumption in measuring the variation of variables. This study is based on values of skewness and kurtosis. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) observe that the test of normality is not compulsory in data analysis but that it is good to test when the variables are normally distributed. Normal distribution should be symmetrical and bell-

shaped (Boslaugh, 2013). Skewness represents the extreme cases that exist at one end of the distribution; in addition a skewness of zero means that the distribution is symmetrical (Kerr *et al*., 2002). Kurtosis represents the peakedness of the curve. When the sample size is less than 30, the absolute values for Z skewness and Z kurtosis should not be more than 1.96 or it indicates that the data is not normally distributed, it is usually acceptable for skewness and kurtosis value to be in the range ±3 in larger sample size (Hair *et al*., 2006).

Table 7.9: Normality check for trainers data

	Purchase Intention	Quality	Price	Social	Emotion
COD: US, COM: Japan					
N	76	76	76	74	76
Skewness	-0.28	-0.40	0.34	-0.15	-0.48
Std. Error of Skewness	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.28
Z Skewness	-1.02	-1.43	1.23	-0.55	-1.72
Kurtosis	-0.61	0.01	-0.01	-0.49	-0.35
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.55	0.55	0.55	0.55	0.55
Z Kurtosis	-1.12	0.02	-0.02	-0.89	-0.65
COD: US, COM: China					
N	73	69	68	72	73
Skewness	-0.17	0.48	-0.04	0.23	0.41
Std. Error of Skewness	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.28	0.28
Z Skewness	-0.60	1.66	-0.28	0.80	1.46
Kurtosis	-0.48	-0.21	0.17	-0.19	0.47
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.56	0.57	0.56	0.56	0.56
Z Kurtosis	-0.86	-0.37	0.31	-0.34	0.85
COD: China, COM: Japan					
N	74	74	74	72	74
Skewness	0.35	-0.17	0.02	0.69	0.15
Std. Error of Skewness	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.28
Z Skewness	1.24	-0.59	0.07	2.48	0.54
Kurtosis	0.12	0.69	0.89	0.48	-0.24
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.55	0.56	0.55	0.55	0.55
Z Kurtosis	0.22	1.21	1.61	0.86	-0.44
COD: China, COM: China					
N	74	76	75	75	76
Skewness	0.23	-0.20	0.12	0.29	0.03
Std. Error of Skewness	0.28	0.28	0.27	0.28	0.28
Z Skewness	0.84	-0.73	0.44	1.05	0.10
Kurtosis	-0.34	-0.18	-0.82	0.29	0.06
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.55	0.54	0.55	0.55	0.55
Z Kurtosis	-0.61	-0.33	-1.50	0.52	0.12

Table 7.10: Normality check for T-shirt data

	Purchase Intention	Quality	Price	Social	Emotion
COD: US, COM: Japan					
N	72	75	75	75	74
Skewness	-0.44	-0.11	-0.34	0.11	-0.07
Std. Error of Skewness	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.28
Z Skewness	-1.56	-0.39	-1.24	0.40	-0.25
Kurtosis	1.09	-0.48	0.21	-0.26	-0.51
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.56	0.55	0.55	0.55	0.55
Z Kurtosis	1.94	-0.87	0.39	-0.47	-0.92
COD: US, COM: China					
N	79	76	79	79	79
Skewness	0.47	-0.22	0.12	0.28	0.53
Std. Error of Skewness	0.27	0.28	0.27	0.27	0.27
Z Skewness	1.72	-0.79	0.46	1.03	1.94
Kurtosis	0.76	-0.32	0.32	-0.63	0.51
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.54	0.55	0.54	0.54	0.54
Z Kurtosis	1.42	-0.58	0.60	-1.18	0.96
COD: China, COM: Japan					
N	78	78	76	78	77
Skewness	0.33	0.28	-0.49	-0.12	-0.29
Std. Error of Skewness	0.28	0.27	0.28	0.27	0.27
Z Skewness	1.18	1.03	-1.78	-0.45	-1.06
Kurtosis	0.52	-0.33	0.45	0.20	-0.51
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.55	0.54	0.55	0.54	0.54
Z Kurtosis	0.95	-0.61	0.82	0.37	-0.95
COD: China, COM: China					
N	79	79	79	79	79
Skewness	-0.32	0.18	-0.66	-0.15	-0.37
Std. Error of Skewness	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27	0.27
Z Skewness	-1.12	0.65	-2.41	-0.56	-1.37
Kurtosis	-0.88	-0.03	0.32	-0.51	-0.17
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.54	0.54	0.54	0.54	0.54
Z Kurtosis	-1.65	-0.06	0.58	-0.95	-0.31

7.7 OUTLIERS DETECTION

Outliers refer to unusual or extreme values that might be found in distribution of scores (Meyes *et al*., 2013). Detecting outliers is important because the results in statistical analysis can be distorted with extreme scores (Meyes *et al*., 2013). Outliers can also be

errors from data entry. In this thesis, all data is checked for errors and mistype issues after entering. Univariate outliers can be inspected from boxplot to inspect any extreme outliers (Field, 2013). Multivariate outliers are more complicated, but can be detected by using Mahalanobis distance statistics (Field, 2013).

Table 7.11: Univariate Outliers

Involvement	COD	COM	Variable	Case number
Trainers	US	Japan	USCI	2
			SOC	2
			PUR	38
			QUA	41
			SOC	41
Trainers	US	China	QUA	90
			QUA	92
			QUA	130
			QUA	139
			SOC	80
Trainers	China	Japan	QUA	163
			QUA	165
			QUA	203
			QUA	212
Trainers	China	China	PUR	254
			PUR	255
			PRI	224
			SOC	291
T-shirt	US	Japan	PUR	300
			EMO	315
			PUR	317
			PUR	352
T-shirt	US	China	QUA	376
			QUA	434
			QUA	452
			PRI	488
			PUR	486
			PUR	487
T-shirt	China	Japan	COD	3
			COD	36
			EMO	490
			PRI	502
T-shirt	China	China	COD	17
			COD	52
			COM	3
			COM	23
			COM	30

USCI = US country image, SOC = social value, PUR = purchase intention, Quality = quality, e, PRI = price value, EMO = emotion

The Mahalanobis distance is 'the distance of a particular case from the centroid of the remaining cases, where the centroid is the point created by the means of all the variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). SPSS version 20 is used to calculate Mahalanobis D^2 (d-squared) by computing the Mahalanobis distance and determined by using chi-square with number of dependent variables as degrees of freedom; in this thesis there are four variables. The alpha value normally used is 0.05 or less (Hair *et al.*, 2006). Outliers may cause problems in bias and inflate the standard deviations, it is agreed that a researcher should be aware of outliers. In this research, test of Mahalonobis's distance indicates that there are 32 cases (Table. 7.12).

Table 7.12: Multivariate Outliers

Count	Mahalanobis distance	p-value
1	24.98586	0.00005
2	17.23836	0.00174
3	16.52808	0.00239
4	15.73715	0.00339
5	15.44132	0.00387
6	15.26946	0.00417
7	14.98699	0.00473
8	13.67305	0.00842
9	13.50169	0.00907
10	13.43766	0.00932
11	13.10271	0.01078
12	12.15534	0.01623
13	12.11426	0.01652
14	12.02345	0.01718
15	11.92699	0.01790
16	11.85531	0.01846
17	11.88072	0.01908
18	11.66531	0.02002
19	10.92286	0.02788
20	10.88548	0.02820
21	10.85861	0.02820
22	10.77072	0.02927
23	10.31715	0.03541
24	10.19506	0.03727
25	10.15295	0.03793
26	10.07266	0.03922
27	10.06352	0.03937
28	9.98425	0.04069
29	9.85043	0.04302
30	9.82827	0.04342
31	9.82028	0.04357
32	9.80735	0.04380

7.8 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS: MAIN EFFECT AND INTERACTION ANALYSIS

7.8.1 THE MAIN EFFECTS AND INTERACTION EFFECTS OF COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE (COM) AND COUNTRY OF DESIGN (COD) ON PURCHASE INTENTION

The table below displays the mean ratings of the descriptive statistics regarding the purchase intention for COD (US, China) and COM (Japan and China) for two categories of product involvement. This study comprises of eight scenarios. Each respondent is expected to fill in a questionnaire, in the same manner (1 respondent for 1 questionnaire).

Table 7.13: Descriptive statistic for experiment on purchase intention

Levels of involvement	Levels of COD	Levels of COM	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Trainers	USA	Japan	6.00	0.51	76
	USA	China	3.95	0.53	73
	China	Japan	3.51	0.52	74
	China	China	3.28	0.50	74
Total			4.20	1.21	297
T-shirt	USA	Japan	5.66	0.66	72
	USA	China	4.14	0.52	79
	China	Japan	3.08	0.48	76
	China	China	3.05	0.58	79
Total			3.96	1.19	308

The table reveals that there is an interaction effect on COD and COM, this section intends to explore this further to understand whether COD or COM is the main factor for decision-making. An independent t-test investigates two cases of products designed in the US and made in China, compared to designed in China and made in Japan.

From the Table 7.14, the main effect of COD in this analysis indicates that US design is higher than China, it is significant on purchase intention, $F(1, 596) = 1,502.63$, $p = 0.00$ effect size $\eta^2 = 0.72$. According to ANOVA analysis, the proposed hypotheses **H1a** is

supported that the main effect of states that the positive COD image positively influences consumer purchase intention (US: M=4.94, SE=0.03 and China: M=3.23, SE=0.03).

The main effect of made in Japan is higher than made in China, it is also significant, F (1, 596) = 472.87, p = 0.00, effect size η2 = 0.44 on purchase intention. The results support **H1b** which mentions that the positive COM image positively influence consumer purchase intention (Japan: M=4.56, SE=0.03 and China: M=3.60, SE=0.03). The main effect of involvement is considered a small effect (3%) when comparing COD and COM, 72% and 44%, respectively.

There is a significant at the 95% confidence level (P <0.05) interaction effect on involvement (INV) between trainers and t-shirt, F (1, 596) = 20.26, p = 0.00 effect size η2 = 0.03. In terms of the involvement between t-shirt and trainers, there is sufficient evidence that the effect of involvement of trainers is higher than that of t-shirts.

Table 7.14: ANOVA analysis on purchase intention

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	695.15	7	99.31	338.52	.00	.80
Intercept	10060.37	1	10060.37	34294.03	.00	.98
INV	5.94	1	5.94	20.26	.00	.03
COD	440.81	1	440.81	1502.63	.00	.72
COM	138.72	1	138.720	472.87	.00	.44
Error	174.840	596	.29			
Total	10902.78	604				
Corrected Total	869.99	603				

a. R Squared = .79 (Adjusted R Squared = .79)
INV= Product involvement   Source: SPSS File

Table 7.15: The interaction effect on purchase intention (from ANOVA)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
INV * COD	2.49	1	2.49	8.50	.00	.01
INV * COM	4.95	1	4.95	16.87	.00	.03
COD * COM	102.27	1	102.27	348.61	.00	.37
INV * COD * COM	1.03	1	1.03	3.50	.06	.01

INV= product involvement

Source: SPSS File

The interaction effect intends to compare the means to determine the differences The interaction of COD of COM on purchase intention in Table 7.15 shows that there is a significant interaction between COD and COM, F (1, 596) = 348.61, p = 0.00, effect size η2 = 0.37. The interaction of COD and COM accounts for 37%, in other words the interaction effect is high.

Simple effect investigates the interaction effect in order to determine the effect of independent factor at a given level of other independent factor (Weinberg and Abramowitz, 2002). The simple effect results in Table 7.16 and Table 7.17 indicate that there are significant interaction effects between COD and COM. In Table 7.16, products designed in the US and made in Japan lead to a higher mean for purchase intention, the mean difference is 1.78, p = 0 .00 than products designed in the US and made in China. Consumers prefer products designed in China and made in Japan more than made in China, the mean difference is 0.14, p = 0.03. Figure 7.6 also reveals a significant interaction between COM and COD on purchase intention. According to the results, **H2a and H2b** is supported on the interaction effect of COM and COD images affect consumers' purchase intentions.

From Table 7.15, it does *not* support the interaction effect of levels of purchase involvement, COM and COD **(H3)**, in the case of positive COM and COD images, a high level of purchase involvement has a positive effect on consumer purchase intention, F(1, 596) = 3.50, p= 0.06.

Table 7.16: Simple effect of COD on purchase intention

						95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
COD	(I) COM	(J) COM	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
US	Japan	China	1.78*	.06	.00	1.66	1.91
	China	Japan	-1.78*	.06	.00	-1.91	-1.66
China	Japan	China	.14*	.06	.03	.013	.26
	China	Japan	-.14*	.06	.03	-.26	-.01

Based on estimated marginal means
*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Source: SPSS File

Table 7.17: Simple effect of COM on purchase intention

						95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
COM	(I) COD	(J) COD	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Japan	US	China	2.53*	.06	.00	2.4	2.66
	China	US	-2.53*	.06	.00	-2.66	-2.41
China	US	China	.89*	.06	.00	.76	1.01
	China	US	-.89*	.06	.00	-1.01	-.76

Based on estimated marginal means
*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Source: SPSS File

Figure 7.6: Estimated marginal mean of COD and COM
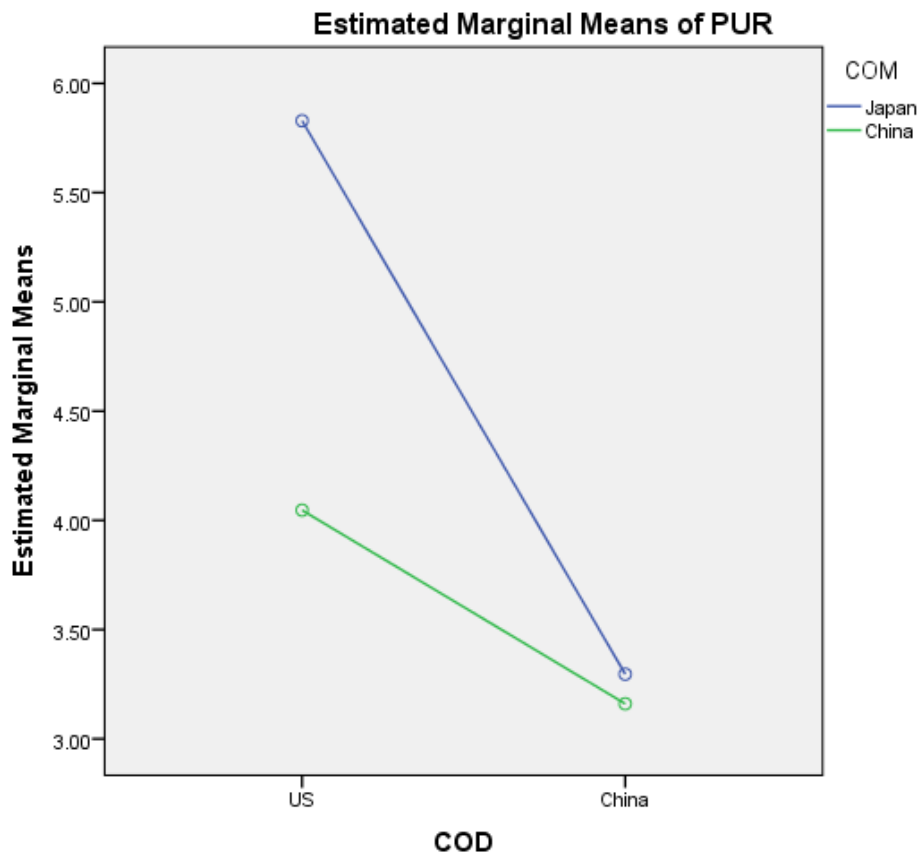
Table 7.18 shows t-test for equality of means that consumers prefer products made in Japan and designed in US more than designed in China, the mean difference is 0.75, p= 0.00. Using Levene's test the sig value is higher than 0.05 in this case, the results refers to **Equal variances assumed**. To find out the difference between two groups, 'designed in US + made in China' and 'designed in China + made in Japan', Sig. (2-tailed) shows that it is significant between the two groups, $t(300) = 11.66$, p= 0.00 (two-tailed).

Table 7.18: Independent sample t-test between designed in US + made in China and made in China + designed in Japan

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
PUR	Equal variances assumed	.09	.76	11.66	300	.00	.75	.07	.63	.88

Pur = Purchase intention

Table 7.19: Descriptive statistics between 'designed in US'+ 'made in China' and 'designed in China'+ 'made in Japan'

Conditions	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Designed in US+ Made in China	152	4.10	.52	.04
Designed in China+ Made in Japan	150	3.30	.59	.05

Table 7.19 shows that between the two groups for both products, Thai consumers prefer products designed in the US and made in China to products designed in China and made in Japan. Comparing COD and COM, the simple main effect implies that COD has a greater effect than COM. It supported **H2c** which states that there is effect of a positive COD image and a negative COM image (M=4.10, SE=0.04) outweighs the effects of a negative COD and a positive COM on purchase intentions (M=3.30, SE=0.05).

7.9   CUSTOMER PERCEIVED VALUE (CPV)

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used for analysing customer perceived value. MANOVA is a generalisation of ANOVA, for use when there is more than one

dependent variable (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2013). MANOVA is a technique that investigates the mean differences and statistical significance among groups (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2013). The result of this part of study focuses on customer perceived value as a dependent variable. The study examines the effect of four dimensions of customer perceived value by investigating three independent variables: involvement, COD and COM. The respondents are randomly assigned one of eight scenarios. There are two levels of each independent variable; therefore the factorial design is 2x2x2. The results of this stage of the analysis are reported in the table following

Table 7.20: Descriptive Statistic for experiment on customer purchase value

Conditions	Customer Perceived Value							
	Quality Value	Std. Error	Price Value	Std. Error	Social Value	Std. Error	Emotional Value	Std. Error
Trainers COD: US COM: Japan	5.83	0.04	5.64	0.05	5.77	0.05	5.81	0.06
Trainers COD: US COM: China	3.77	0.04	4.23	0.06	4.17	0.06	4.01	0.06
Trainers COD: China COM: Japan	3.57	0.04	3.32	0.06	3.58	0.06	3.61	0.06
Trainers COD: China COM: China	3.08	0.04	2.92	0.05	2.96	0.06	3.11	0.06
T-shirt COD: US COM: Japan	5.74	0.04	5.60	0.05	5.53	0.06	5.63	0.06
T-shirt COD: US COM: China	3.92	0.04	4.00	0.05	3.97	0.05	3.46	0.06
T-shirt COD: China COM: Japan	3.44	0.04	3.38	0.05	3.49	0.06	3.25	0.06
T-shirt COD: China COM: China	3.11	0.04	2.92	0.05	2.98	0.05	2.97	0.05

The multivariate MANOVA test in Table 7.21, below, shows if there are statistical significances among groups on a linear combination of dependent variables (Pallant, 2013). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggested that most studies use Wilk's Lambda for reporting statistics. The value that is important for interpreting this test is the significance level (**Sig.**).

Table 7.21: Multivariate test of Involvement, COD and COM on customer perceived value

		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
INV	Pillai's trace	0.10	16.25	4.00	580.00	.00	0.10
	Wilks' lambda	**0.90**	**16.25**	**4.00**	**580.00**	**.00**	**0.10**
	Hotelling's trace	0.11	16.25	4.00	580.00	.00	0.10
	Roy's largest root	0.11	16.25	4.00	580.00	.00	0.10
COD	Pillai's trace	0.91	1422.90	4.00	580.00	.00	0.91
	Wilks' lambda	**0.09**	**1422.90**	**4.00**	**580.00**	**.00**	**0.91**
	Hotelling's trace	9.81	1422.90	4.00	580.00	.00	0.91
	Roy's largest root	9.81	1422.90	4.00	580.00	.00	0.91
COM	Pillai's trace	0.83	726.47	4.00	580.00	.00	0.83
	Wilks' lambda	**0.17**	**726.47**	**4.00**	**580.00**	**.00**	**0.83**
	Hotelling's trace	5.01	726.47	4.00	580.00	.00	0.83
	Roy's largest root	5.01	726.47	4.00	580.00	.00	0.83

Source: SPSS File

Using Wilks' Lambda, there is no significant effect of product involvement (Table 7.21) on customer perceived value, $F_{(4, 580)} = 16.25$, $p = 0.00$; Wilk's Lambda = 0.90, Partial eta square = 0.10 There is a significant difference between US and China as COD on customer perceived value, $F_{(4, 580)} = 1422.90$, $p = 0.00$; Wilk's Lambda = 0.09, Partial eta square = 0.91. Between Japan and China as COM, there is a significant difference on customer perceived value, $F_{(4, 580)} = 726.47$, $p = 0.00$; Wilk's Lambda = 0.17, Partial eta square = 0.83. According to Cohen (1988), the effect size of COD and COM are large (above 0.5 is large effect size). Comparing from estimated marginal means, consumers consider that between trainers and t-shirt there is no effect on customer perceived value.

However, COD and COM have a large effect on customer perceived value. From MOVOVA, **H4a** is supported that the positive main effect of COD positively affects the overall CPV (US: M=4.78, SE=0.05 and China: M=3.25, SE=0.02). **H4b** is also supported that the positive main effect of COM positively affects the overall CPV (Japan: M=4.59, SE=0.05 and China: M=3.44, SE=0.03).

Table 7.22: Interaction of involvement, COD and COM

INV * COD	Pillai's trace	.03	3.83	4.00	580.00	.00	.03
	Wilks' lambda	**.97**	**3.83**	**4.00**	**580.00**	**.00**	**.03**
	Hotelling's trace	.03	3.83	4.00	580.00	.00	.03
	Roy's largest root	.03	3.83	4.00	580.00	.00	.03
INV * COM	Pillai's trace	.03	4.68	4.00	580.00	.00	.03
	Wilks' lambda	**.97**	**4.68**	**4.00**	**580.00**	**.00**	**.03**
	Hotelling's trace	.03	4.68	4.00	580.00	.00	.03
	Roy's largest root	.03	4.68	4.00	580.00	.00	.03
COD * COM	Pillai's trace	.66	280.15	4.00	580.00	.00	.66
	Wilks' lambda	**.34**	**280.15**	**4.00**	**580.00**	**.00**	**.66**
	Hotelling's trace	1.93	280.15	4.00	580.00	.00	.66
	Roy's largest root	1.93	280.15	4.00	580.00	.00	.66
INV* COD * COM	Pillai's trace	.03	4.18	4.00	580.00	.00	.03
	Wilks' lambda	**.97**	**4.18**	**4.00**	**580.00**	**.00**	**.03**
	Hotelling's trace	.03	4.18	4.00	580.00	.00	.03
	Roy's largest root	.03	4.18	4.00	580.00	.00	.03

INV= product involvement

Source: SPSS File

According to the multivariate table 7.22, the interaction of involvement and COD has a statistical significant difference regarding customer perceived value, $F_{(4, 580)} = 3.83$, $p = 0.00$; Wilks' Lambda = 0.97, Partial eta squared = 0.03. The interaction of involvement

and COM also has a significant effect on customer perceived value, $F_{(4, 580)} = 4.68$, p = 0.00; Wilks' Lambda = 0.97, Partial eta squared = 0.03. In addition, the interaction of COD and COM has a significant difference on customer perceived value, $F_{(4, 580)} = 280.15$, p = 0.00; Wilks' Lambda = 0.34, Partial eta squared = 0.66. The interaction of three independent variables; involvement, COD and COM also shows significant difference on customer perceived value, $F_{(4, 580)} = 4.18$, p = 0.00; Wilk's Lambda = 0.97, Partial eta squared = 0.03. From the multivariate results, three dependent variables – involvement, COD and COM – confirm that there are significant differences among involvement (trainers and t-shirt), COD (US and China) and COM (Japan and China). Therefore **H5a** is supported the interaction effect of COM, COD and product involvement affect on overall CPV**.** In this research, multivariate test obtains a significant effect on customer perceived value, leading to further investigation between-subjects.

Table 7.23: MANOVA tests of between-subjects effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Involvement	QUA	.01	1	.01	.12	.74	.00
	SOC	2.40	1	2.40	10.89	.00	.02
	PRI	.18	1	.18	.84	.36	.00
	EMO	14.21	1	14.21	61.87	.00	.10
COD	QUA	339.52	1	339.52	3025.71	.00	.84
	SOC	380.96	1	380.96	1730.58	.00	.75
	PRI	433.02	1	433.02	2001.20	.00	.77
	EMO	329.73	1	329.73	1435.69	.00	.71
COM	QUA	205.14	1	205.14	1828.15	.00	.76
	SOC	169.78	1	169.78	771.25	.00	.57
	PRI	134.02	1	134.02	619.36	.00	.52
	EMO	208.32	1	208.32	907.07	.00	.61

QUA= quality value, SOC= social value, PRI= price value, EMO= emotional value

Source: SPSS File

Tests of between-subjects output, shown in Table 7.23, were conducted to explore the impact of involvement, COD and COM on four dimensions of customer perceived value. Tests of the between-subjects effects indicates that there is no a significant main effect for involvement only on quality value, $F_{(1, 583)} = 0.12$, $p = 0.74$, Partial eta square = 0.00. There are no significant effects of involvement on social value, $F_{(1, 583)} = 10.89$, $p = 0.00$, Partial eta square = 0.02, price value, $F_{(1, 583)} = 0.84$, $p = 0.36$, Partial eta square = 0.00 and emotional value, $F_{(1, 583)} = 61.87$, $p = 0.00$, Partial eta square= 0.10.

COD and COM have significant effects on customer perceived value (quality value, price value, social value and emotional value). COD has a significant main effect on quality value, $F_{(1, 583)} = 3,025.71$, $p = 0.00$, partial eta squared = 0.84; social value, $F_{(1, 583)} = 1,730.58$, $p = 0.00$, partial eta squared = 0.75; price value, $F_{(1, 583)} = 2,001.20$, $p = 0.00$, partial eta square = 0.77 and emotional value, $F_{(1, 583)} = 1,435.69$, $p = 0.00$, partial

eta squared = 0.71. The results indicate that consumers' perceived value of trainers and t-shirts designed in the US is much higher than those designed in China.

Moreover, COM also has a significant main effect for quality value, F (1, 583) = 1,828.15, p = 0 .00, partial eta squared = 0.76; social value, F (1, 583) = 771.25, p = 0 .00, partial eta squared = 0.57; price value, F (1,583) = 619.36, p = 0.00, partial eta squared = 0.52 and emotional value, F (1, 583) = 907.07, p = 0.00, Partial eta squared = 0.61. The results shows that consumers examine Japan and China with significantly differences, because the estimated marginal mean of products made in Japan are QUA; m = 4.65, SD = 0.02, SOC; m = 4.59, SD = 0.03, PRI; m = 4.49, SD = 0.03 and EMO; m = 4.58, SD = 0.03, whereas those made in China are QUA; m = 3.47, SD = 0.02, SOC; m = 3.52, SD = 0.03, PRI; m = 3.54, SD = 0.03, EMO; m = 3.39, SD = 0.03. Partial eta squared shows that the difference between made in Japan and made in China has a high impact on customer perceived value. Made in Japan and designed in the US has a positive effect, while made in China and designed in China has a negative impact.

Figure 7.7: Estimated marginal means of CPV dimensions between trainers and t-shirts designed in the US and made in Japan
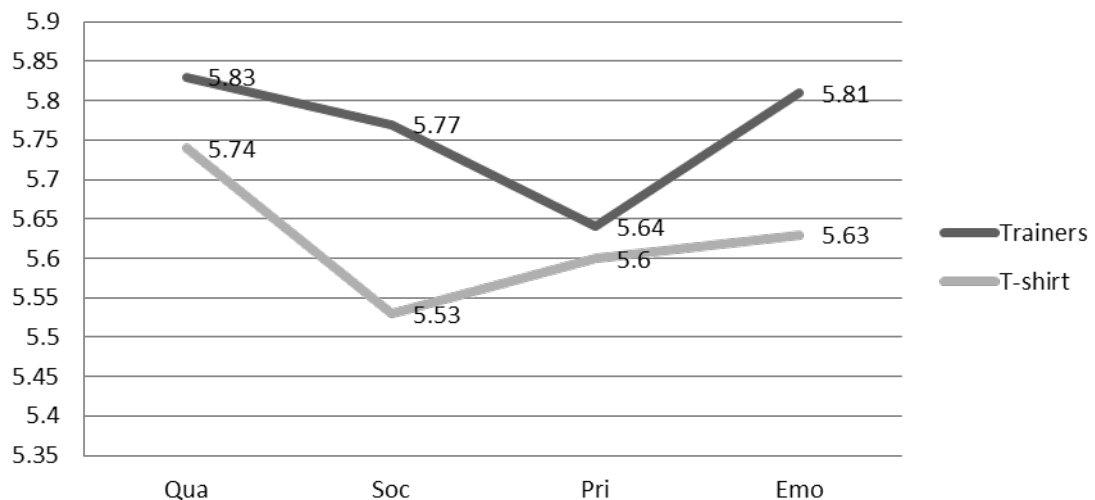
Figure 7.8: Estimated marginal means of CPV dimensions between trainers and t-shirts designed in the US and made in China
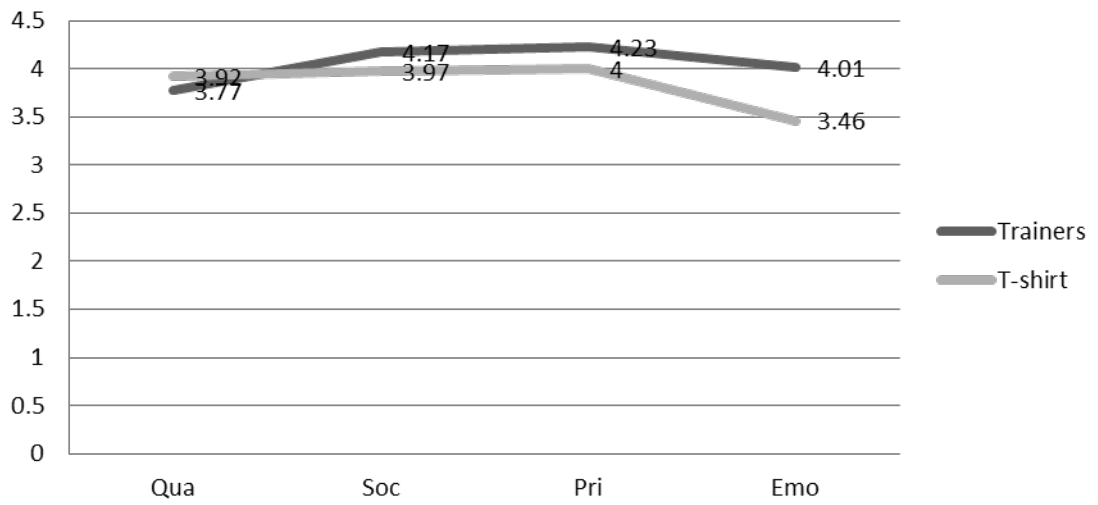
Figure 7.9: Estimated marginal means of CPV dimensions between trainers and t-shirts designed in China and made in Japan
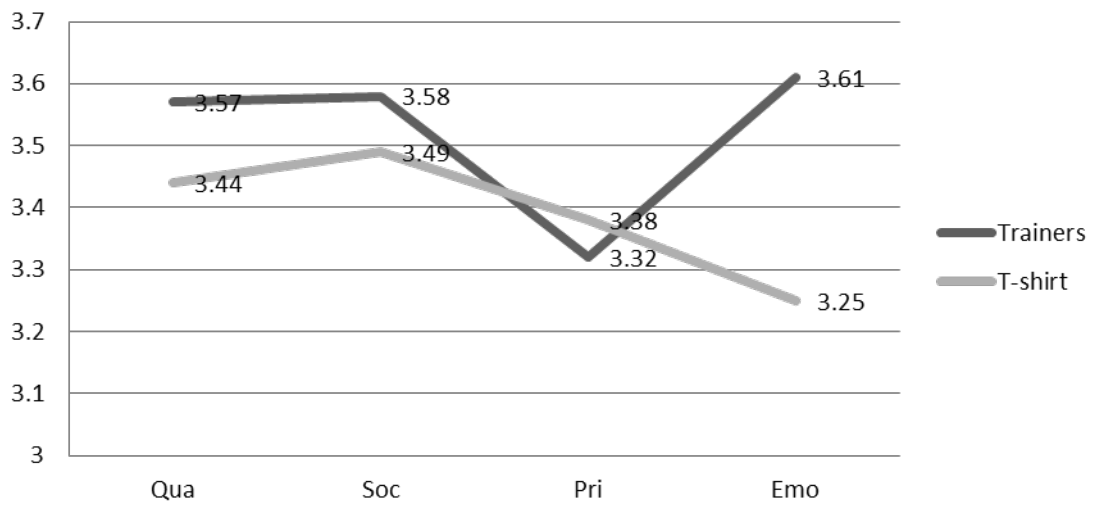
Figure 7.10: Estimated marginal means of CPV dimensions between trainers and t-shirts designed in China and made in China
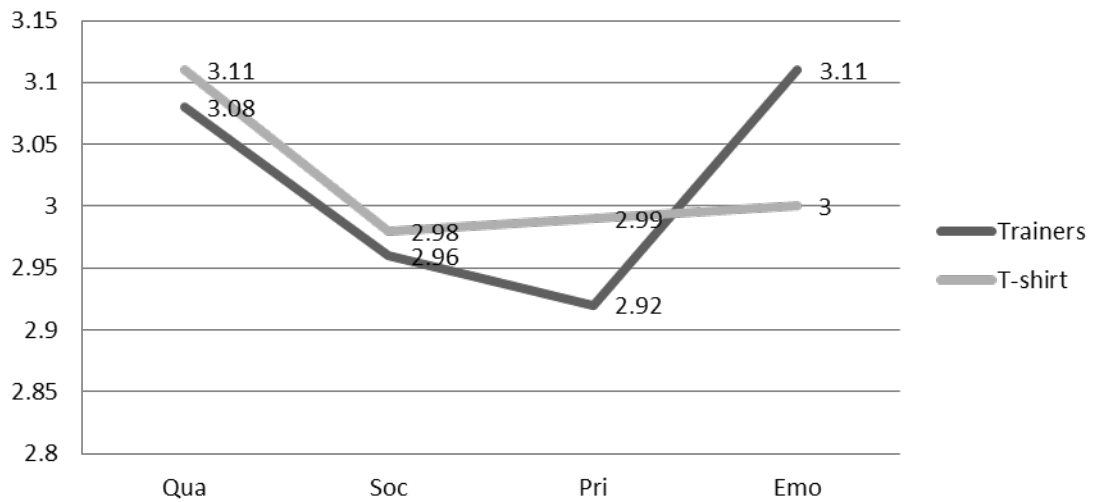
Table 7.24: MANOVA tests of between-subject effects II

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
INV * COD	QUA	.20	1	.20	1.76	.19	.00
	SOC	1.21	1	1.21	5.49	.02	.01
	PRI	1.44	1	1.44	6.65	.01	.01
	EMO	.47	1	.47	2.06	.15	.00
INV * COM	QUA	1.40	1	1.40	12.48	.00	.02
	SOC	.24	1	.24	1.08	.30	.00
	PRI	.29	1	.29	1.34	.25	.00
	EMO	.18	1	.18	.78	.38	.00
COD * COM	QUA	86.36	1	86.36	769.57	.00	.57
	SOC	37.69	1	37.69	171.22	.00	.23
	PRI	45.82	1	45.82	211.74	.00	.27
	EMO	93.37	1	93.37	406.54	.00	.41
Involvement * COD * COM	QUA	.07	1	.07	.61	.44	.00
	SOC	.05	1	.05	.23	.63	.00
	PRI	.35	1	.35	1.63	.20	.00
	EMO	3.15	1	3.15	13.72	.00	.02

Source: SPSS File

The interaction effect (Table 7.24) between country of design and product involvement has no statistically significant effect on quality, $F (1, 583) = 1.76$, $p = 0.19$, social value $F (1, 583) = 5.49$, $p = 0.02$, Partial eta squared $= 0.01$, Price value, $F (1, 583) = 6.65$, $p = 0.01$, Partial eta squared $= 0.01$ and emotional value, $F (1, 583) = 2.06$, $p = 0.15$, partial eta squared $= 0.00$. The interaction of COM and product involvement has a significant effect on quality, $F (1, 583) = 12.48$, $p = 0.00$, partial eta squared $= 0.02$, social value, $F (1, 583) = 1.08$, $p = 0.30$, partial eta squared $= 0.10$, price value, $F (1, 583) = 1.34$, $p = 0.25$ and emotional value, $F (1, 583) = 0.78$, $p = 0.38$.

The interaction of COD and COM has significant effect, quality value, $F (1, 583) = 769.57$, $p = 0.00$, partial eta squared $= 0.57$, social value, $F (1, 583) = 171.22$, $p = 0.00$, partial eta squared $= 0.57$; price value, $F (1,583) = 211.74$, $p= 0.00$, partial eta squared $= 0.27$ and emotional value, $F (1, 583) = 406.54$, $p = 0.00$, partial eta squared $= 0.41$. Quality and emotional value have a large effect size. However, there is no significant effect on quality value, $F (1, 583) = 0.61$, $p = 0.44$. Therefore, **H5b** is not supported that there is no interaction effect of COM, COD and product involvement affect on quality value. There is no significant effect on social value, $F (1, 583) = 0.23$, $p = 0.63$. Therefore **H5c** is not supported that the interaction effect of COM, COD and product involvement affect on social value. The interaction of involvement, COD and COM has no significant effect on price value, $F (1, 583) = 1.63$, $p = 0.20$. Therefore **H5d** is not supported that there is the interaction effect of COM, COD and product involvement affect on price value. There is significant on emotional value, $F (1, 583) = 13.72$. $p = 0.00$, Partial eta squared $= 0.02$ **H5e** states that there is the interaction effect of COM, COD and product involvement affect on emotional value.

7.10   PRODUCT FAMILIARITY

7.10.1 PRODUCT FAMILIARITY ON PURCHASE INTENTION

Table 7.25: Product familiarity on purchase intention

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Dependent Variable: PUR						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	701.60ª	15	46.77	163.32	.00	.81
Intercept	9355.65	1	9355.65	32667.77	.00	.98
FAM	1.74	1	1.74	6.07	.01	.01
INV * FAM	.33	1	.33	1.15	.29	.00
COD * FAM	.37	1	.37	1.28	.26	.00
COM * FAM	.45	1	.45	1.56	.21	.00
INV * COD * FAM	.01	1	.01	.03	.86	.00
INV * COM * FAM	.60	1	.60	2.09	.15	.00
COD * COM * FAM	2.09	1	2.09	7.30	.01	.01
INV * COD * COM * FAM	.61	1	.61	2.14	.14	.00
Error	168.40	588	.29			
Total	10902.78	604				
Corrected Total	869.99	603				
a. R Squared = .806 (Adjusted R Squared = .802)						

FAM= Product familiarity, INV= product involvement

Source: SPSS File

The main effect of familiarity (Table 7.25) is statistically significant, $F_{(1, 588)} = 6.07$, p = 0.01, partial eta squared = 0.01. The interaction of involvement and familiarity is not significant, $F_{(1, 588)} = 1.15$, p = 0.29. There are also no differences on the interaction of COD and familiarity, $F_{(1, 588)} = 1.28$, p = 0.26, and no interaction of COM and familiarity $F_{(1, 588)} = 1.56$, p = 0.21, partial eta squared = 0.00.

The interaction of involvement, COD and familiarity on purchase intention is not significant, $F_{(1, 588)} = 0.03$, p = 0.86, while the interaction of involvement, COM and familiarity is also non-significant, $F_{(1, 588)} = 2.09$, p = 0.15. There is a significant difference in the effect of COD, COM and familiarity on purchase intention, $F_{(1, 588)} = 7.03$, p = 0.01. Moreover, the interaction of involvement, COD, COM and familiarity is

not significant, $F (1, 588) = 2.14$, $p = 0.14$. It does not support **H6a** which states that when consumers are more familiar with a product, the influences of COD, COM and purchase involvement on purchase intention become *weaker*.

7.10.2 PRODUCT FAMILIARITY ON CUSTOMER PERCEIVED VALUE

Table 7.26 shows the results of the multivariate tests, which demonstrate if there are statistically significant differences between groups on purchase intention as a dependent variable. Using Wilk' lambda in this research, MANOVA is performed to investigate COD, COM, involvement and familiarity on CPV. There is a statistically significant difference between high and low familiarity on CPV, $F (4, 572) = 4.25$, $p = 0.00$; Wilk' lambda $= 0.97$, Partial eta squared $= 0.03$. The interaction of familiarity and COD is significant, $F (4, 572) = 3.00$, $p = 0.02$; Wilk' lambda $= 1.00$, Partial eta squared $= 0.02$. However, the interaction of COM and familiarity is not significant, $F (4, 572) = 1.18$, $p = 0.13$; Wilk' lambda $= 0.99$. The interaction of involvement, COD and familiarity is not statistically significant, $F (4, 572) = 3.00$, $p = 0.02$; Wilk' lambda $= 0.98$, partial eta squared $= 0.02$. The interaction of COD, COM and familiarity is not statistically significant $F (4, 572) = 2.08$, $p = 0.08$; Wilk' lambda $= 0.99$, which is the same as the interaction of involvement, COD, COM and familiarity, $F (4, 572) = 0.48$, $p = 0.75$; Wilk' lambda $= 1.00$, Partial eta squared $= 0.00$. Therefore, **H6b** is not supported that when consumers are more familiar with a product, the influence of COD, COM and product involvement con CPV become weaker.

Table 7.26: Multivariate test[a] on CPV

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
FAM	Pillai's trace	.03	4.25	4.00	572.00	.00	.03
	Wilks' lambda	.97	4.25	4.00	572.00	.00	.03
	Hotelling's trace	.03	4.25	4.00	572.00	.00	.03
	Roy's largest root	.03	4.25	4.00	572.00	.00	.03
COD * FAM	Pillai's trace	.02	3.00	4.00	572.00	.02	.02
	Wilks' lambda	.98	3.00	4.00	572.00	.02	.02
	Hotelling's trace	.02	3.00	4.00	572.00	.02	.02
	Roy's largest root	.02	3.00	4.00	572.00	.02	.02
COM * FAM	Pillai's trace	.01	1.81	4.00	572.00	.13	.01
	Wilks' lambda	.99	1.81	4.00	572.00	.13	.01
	Hotelling's trace	.01	1.81	4.00	572.00	.13	.01
	Roy's largest root	.01	1.81	4.00	572.00	.13	.01
COD * COM * FAM	Pillai's trace	.01	2.08	4.00	572.00	.08	.01
	Wilks' lambda	.99	2.08	4.00	572.00	.08	.01
	Hotelling's trace	.02	2.08	4.00	572.00	.08	.01
	Roy's largest root	.02	2.08	4.00	572.00	.08	.01
INV * COD * COM * FAM	Pillai's trace	.00	.48	4.00	572.00	.75	.00
	Wilks' lambda	1.00	.48	4.00	572.00	.75	.00
	Hotelling's trace	.00	.48	4.00	572.00	.75	.00
	Roy's largest root	.00	.48	4.00	572.00	.75	.00

a. Design: Intercept + Involvement + COD + COM + Fam + Involvement * COD + Involvement * COM + Involvement * Fam+ COD * COM + COD * Fam + COM * Fam + Involvement * COD * COM + Involvement * COD * Fam + Involvement * COM * Fam + COD * COM * Fam + Involvement * COD * COM * Fam

b. Exact statistic

Source: SPSS File

The MANOVA between-groups analysis (Table 7.27) is conducted to explore the impact of familiarity on four dimensions of CPV. There is a statistically significant main effect for familiarity on quality value, $F (1, 575) = 15.42$, $p = 0.00$, Partial eta squared = 0.03. There are no significant difference on social value $F (1, 575) = 2.02$, $p = 0.16$: Partial eta squared = 0.01 and on emotional value, $F (1, 575) = 1.61$, $p = 0.21$. However, there is no statistical difference on price value, $F (1, 575) = 1.54$, $p = 0.22$. This table presents the results of familiarity, which

has an effect on three dimensions: quality value, social value and emotional value; but price value has no difference.

Table 7.27: Test between- subjects effect

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
FAM	QUA	1.69	1	1.69	15.42	.00	.03
	SOC	.44	1	.44	2.02	.16	.00
	PRI	.33	1	.33	1.54	.22	.00
	EMO	.36	1	.36	1.61	.21	.00

QUA= quality value, SOC= social value, PRI= price value, EMO= emotional value

Source: SPSS File

Table 7.28 determines the results of the interaction effects from MANOVA, the interaction of involvement, COD, COM and familiarity are all non-significant: quality value, $F (1, 575) = 1.19$, $p = 0.28$, social value, $F (1, 575) = 0.13$, $p = 0.72$, price value, $F (1, 575) = 0.16$, $p = 0.69$ and emotional value $F (1, 575) = 0.45$, $p = 0.50$.

Table 7.28: Interaction effect test between-subjects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
INV * COD * COM * FAM	QUA	.13	1	.13	1.19	.28	.00
	SOC	.03	1	.03	.13	.72	.00
	PRI	.04	1	.04	.16	.69	.00
	EMO	.10	1	.10	.45	.50	.00

Source: SPSS File

7.11   PRODUCT COUNTRY IMAGE AND COUNTRY IMAGE

7.11.1 COUNTRY OF DESIGN

This section investigates COM and COD to determine Thai consumers' opinions on country image for the US, China and Japan. Table 6.36 demonstrates the results when comparing between the US and China as countries of design. The t-test shows that respondents consider that in terms of innovation, the US' image (M = 5.67, SE = 0.05) is higher than China's image (M = 2.99, SE = 0.05). This difference is significant t (302) = 36.65, p = 0.00. In terms of excellent quality, the US' image (5.57, SE = 0.05) is higher than China's image (M = 3.03, SE = 0.05), it is a significant difference t (302) = 36.35, p = 0.00. For the issue of comfort, the US (M = 5.53, SE = 0.05) is higher compared to China (M = 3.11, SE = 0.05), the significant difference is t (302) = 35.30, p = 0.00. In terms of functionality, the US (M = 5.58, SE = 0.05) is higher than China (M = 3.20, SE = 0.05) and a significant difference at t (302) = 35.44, p = 0.00. Comparing high quality materials, China (M = 3.01, SE = 0.05) is lower than the US (M = 5.61, SE = 0.05) and significantly different t (302) = 37.88, p = 0.00. For reliability, the US (M = 5.58, SE = 0.05) is higher than China (M = 3.01, SE = .0.5), with a significant difference of t (302) = 37.85, p = 0.00. The US is more highly recognised by consumers and more durable (M = 5.63, SE = 0.05), (M = 5.54, SE = 0.05), respectively, than China (M = 3.04, SE = 0.05) and (M = 3.01, SE = 0.05). Its significant difference is t (302) = 36.62, p = 0.00, t (302) = 35.34, p = 0.00. The overall combined image of the US (M = 5.59, SE = 0.03) is higher than China's image (M = 3.05, SE = 0.03), the significant difference is t (302) = 63.88, p = 0.00.

For the country image, the results show that there is a significant difference in terms of technological advancement t (301) = 36.87, p = 0.00, the US is higher (M = 5.67, SE = 0.05) and China is lower (M = 3.19, SE = 0.5). The living standard in the US (M = 5.76, SE = 0.05) is higher than that in China (M = 3.25, SE = 0.05) therefore there is a significant difference, t (301) = 38.64, p = 0.00. Similarly, the labour cost in the US (M = 5.83, SE = 0.05) is higher than that in China (M = 3.25, SE = 0.05), there is also a significant difference, t (301) = 39.36, p = 0.00. There is a significant difference for a good welfare system, t (301) = 36.00, p = 0.00, the US (M = 5.81, SE = 0.05) is higher than China (M = 3.25, SE = 0.05). The US is rated higher (M = 5.59, SE = 0.05) than China (M = 3.09, SE = 0.05) in civilian non-military government, and there is a significant difference, t (301) = 36.42, p = 0.00. The US' economy is perceived as more highly developed (M = 5.64, SE = 0.05) than China's (M = 3.31, SE = 0.05), it shows that there is a significant difference, t (301) = 32.08, p = 0.00. Likewise,

education in the US (M = 5.65, SE = 0.05) rates higher than in China (M = 3.28, SE = 0.05), t (301) = 33.00, p = 0.00, a significant difference. The free market system and democracy for the US (M = 5.67, SE = 0.05 and M = 5.73, SE = 0.05) are more highly perceived than for China (M = 3.16, SE = 0.05 and M = 3.08, SE = 0.05), both have significant differences, t (301) = 37.30, p = 0.00 and t (301) = 39.31, p = 0.00. In combined questions for country image, the difference is significant, t (301) = 71.15, p = 0.00, the US result (M = 5.71, SE = 0.02) is higher than that of China (M = 3.19, SE = 0.03).

Table 7.29: US and China as COD images

| Product country Image | US | | | China | | | Sig. (2-tailed) |
	Mean	N	Std. Error Mean	Mean	N	Std. Error Mean	
Innovative	5.66	303	0.05	2.99	303	0.05	**0.00**
Excellent quality	5.57	303	0.05	3.03	303	0.05	**0.00**
Comfortable	5.53	303	0.05	3.11	303	0.05	**0.00**
Functional	5.58	303	0.05	3.20	303	0.05	**0.00**
High quality materials	5.61	303	0.05	3.01	303	0.06	**0.00**
Reliable	5.58	303	0.05	3.01	303	0.05	**0.00**
Highly recognised	5.63	303	0.05	3.05	303	0.05	**0.00**
Durable	5.54	303	0.05	3.01	303	0.05	**0.00**
Combined questions	5.59	303	0.03	3.05	303	0.03	**0.00**
Country Image							
Advanced technological research	5.67	302	0.05	3.19	302	0.05	**0.00**
High standard of living	5.76	302	0.05	3.25	302	0.05	**0.00**
High labour costs	5.83	302	0.05	3.11	302	0.05	**0.00**
Good welfare system	5.81	302	0.05	3.25	302	0.05	**0.00**
Civilian non-military government	6.00	302	0.05	3.09	302	0.05	**0.00**
Highly developed economy	5.64	302	0.05	3.31	302	0.05	**0.00**
High educational standard	5.65	302	0.05	3.28	302	0.05	**0.00**
Free-market system	5.67	302	0.05	3.16	302	0.05	**0.00**
Democratic	5.73	302	0.05	3.08	302	0.05	**0.00**
Combined questions	5.71	302	0.03	3.19	302	0.03	**0.00**

7.11.2 COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE

Table 7.30 shows a comparison between Japan and China in terms of country image. In terms of innovation and excellent quality, Japan (M = 5.36, SE = 0.05), (M = 5.49, SE = 0.05) is higher than China (M = 3.35, SE = 0.05), (M = 3.31, SE = 0.05), significant difference, t (302)

= 27.63, p = 0.00, t (302) = 29.75, p = 0.00. For comfort, Japan (M = 5.39, SE = 0.05) is higher than China (M = 3.40, SE = 0.05), significant difference, t (302) = 27.48, p = 0.00. For function and high quality materials, Japan's image (M = 5.35 SE = 0.05, M = 5.37 SE = 0.05, respectively) is higher than China's (M = 3.51 SE = 0.05, M = 3.35 SE = 0.06, respectively), significant difference, t (302) = 24.85, p = 0.00 and t (302) = 26.63, p = 0.00. Japan (M = 5.40, SE = 0.05) is more reliable than China (M = 3.33, SE = 0.05), statistically significant, t (302) = 26.28, p = 0.00. Japan is more highly recognised (M = 5.36, SE = 0.05) than China (M = 3.29, SE = 0.05), statistically significant, t (302) = 28.06, p = 0.00. Japan's products (M = 5.46, SE = 0.05) are seen as more durable than China's (M = 3.38, SE = 0.05), it is statistically significant, t (302) = 30.52, p = 0.00. Finally in terms of the combined questions, Japan's image (M = 5.40, SE = 0.03) is superior to China's (M = 3.37, SE = 0.03), it can be conclude that there is a significant difference, t (302) = 45.24, p = 0.00.

The country image shows that in terms of advanced technology and standard of living, Japan (M = 5.49, SE = 0.05 and M = 5.38, SE = 0.05) is higher than China (M = 3.35, SE = 0.05 and M = 3.31, SE = 0.05), there are significant differences, t (301) = 28.32, p = 0.00 and t (301) = 30.14, p = 0.00. The labour cost in Japan (M = 5.38, SE = 0.05) is higher than that in China (M = 3.36, SE = 0.05), the significant difference at t (301) = 27.92, p = 0.00. As regards a good welfare system in Japan (M = 5.81, SE = 0.05) and Japan's civilian non-military (M = 6.00, SE = 0.05), they are significantly different, t (301) = 30.63, p = 0 .00 and t (301) = 27.83, p = 0.00 to China (M = 3.25, SE = 0.05) and (M = 3.09, SE = 0.05), respectively. Japan (M = 5.37, SE = 0.05) is seen as different, t (301) = 27.06 and more highly developed than China (M = 3.42, SE = 0.05). Japan's education (M = 5.41, SE = 0.05) and free-market system (M = 5.39, SE = 0.05) are seen as higher than China (M = 3.45, SE = .05) and (M = 3.29, SE = 0.05) and are significantly different, t (301) = 30.36, p = 0.00 and t (301) = 27.53, p = 0.00. With regard to democracy, Japan (M = 5.45, SE = 0.05) is higher than China (M = 3.27, SE = 0.05) and there is a significant difference, t (301) = 30.30, p = 0.00. Finally the combined questions show a significant difference, t (301) = 50.39, p = 0.00, Japan (M = 5.40, SE = 0.03) and China (M = 3.37, SE =. 03). SE =. 03).

Table 7.30: Japan and China as COM images

Product country Image	Japan			China			Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	N	Std. Error Mean	Mean	N	Std. Error Mean	
Innovative	5.36	303	0.05	3.35	303	0.05	0.00
Excellent quality	5.49	303	0.05	3.31	303	0.05	0.00
Comfortable	5.39	303	0.05	3.40	303	0.05	0.00
Functional	5.35	303	0.05	3.51	303	0.05	0.00
High quality materials	5.37	303	0.05	3.35	303	0.05	0.00
Reliable	5.40	303	0.05	3.33	303	0.05	0.00
Highly recognised	5.36	303	0.05	3.29	303	0.05	0.00
Durable	5.46	303	0.05	3.38	303	0.05	0.00
Combined questions	5.40	303	0.03	3.37	303	0.03	0.00
Country Image							
Advanced technological research	5.49	302	0.05	3.41	302	0.05	0.00
High standard of living	5.38	302	0.05	3.36	302	0.05	0.00
High labour costs	5.30	302	0.05	3.36	302	0.05	0.00
Good welfare system	5.36	302	0.05	3.28	302	0.05	0.00
Civilian non-military government	5.34	302	0.05	3.26	302	0.05	0.00
Highly developed economy	5.37	302	0.05	3.42	302	0.05	0.00
High educational standard	5.41	302	0.05	3.45	302	0.05	0.00
Free-market system	5.39	302	0.05	3.29	302	0.05	0.00
Democratic	5.45	302	0.05	3.27	302	0.05	0.00
Combined questions	5.39	302	0.03	3.35	302	0.03	0.00

7.12   EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS: MANIPUATION CHECKS

7.12.1 COUNTRY OF DESIGN AND COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE

Manipulation checks are performed for the COD and COM results from the questionnaire, which contains four questions about consumer's opinions regarding countries. The in-person experiment received accurate answers according to the preliminary test, the results of which can be found in the previous chapter. The figures following demonstrate the percentages relating to country information collected from 610 respondents.

Figure 7.11: Favourite country of design
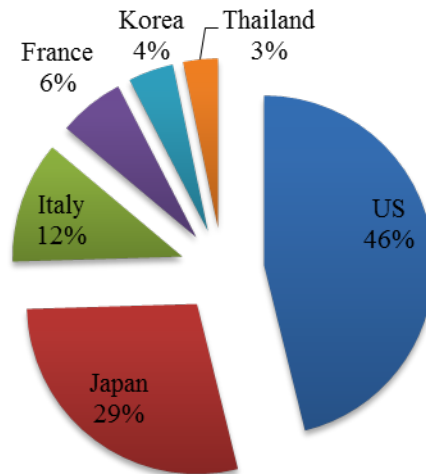
Figure 7.12: Least favourite country of design
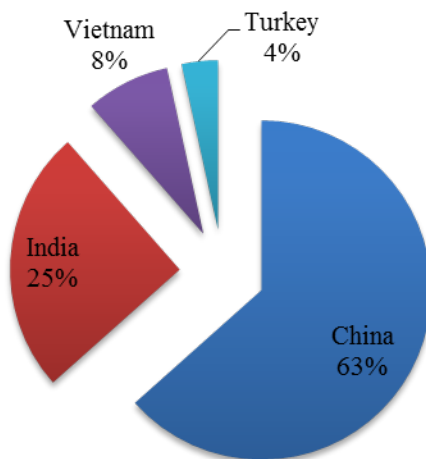
Figure 7.13: Favourite country of manufacture
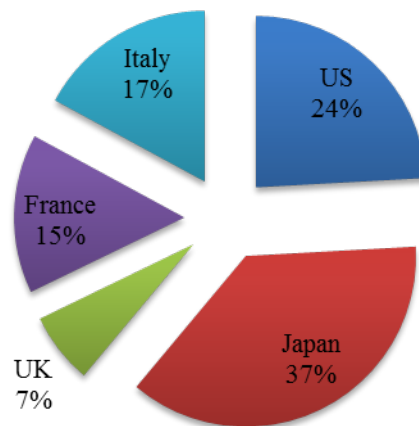
Figure 7.14: Least favourite country of manufacture
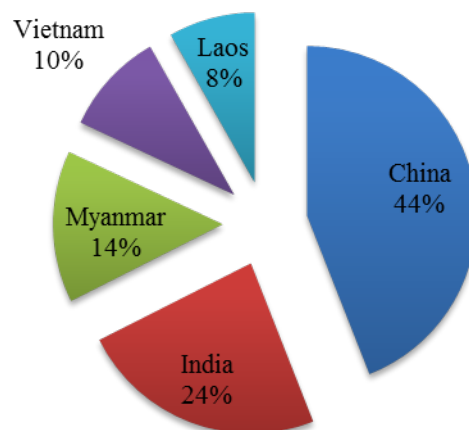
7.12.2 MANIPULATION CHECK: HIGH AND LOW INVOLVEMENT

Product involvement serves as a cue in the decision-making process; the relationship between a high involvement and a low involvement product can be useful for anticipating the consumer's evaluation of products. This study concerns product involvement, which acts as a manipulation check. Product involvement was investigated in the pilot study, which confirmed that sports trainers represent a high involvement product and t-shirts represent a low involvement product.

Table 7.31: Mean ratings of trainers and t-shirt

	Trainers	T-shirt
N	610	610
Mean rating	4.74	3.33
Std. Deviation	0.75	0.74

This section verifies that both sports products which sports trainers and t-shirt. A Likert scale was used to measure levels of product involvement, the questionnaire investigated the respondent's attitudes towards finding information before purchasing, representing a sense of style and the necessity of making the right decision before purchasing. The method used to analyse this data is the t-test technique, which is a technique used when the study requires comparing mean scores (Pallant, 2013). The table below presents the output from the SPSS file; it explains the differences in product involvement between sport trainers and t-shirts. All scenarios are considered statistically significant (p = 0.00)

Table 7.32: Result from product involvement

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Trainers								
US-Japan	1.51	1.08	0.12	1.26	1.76	12.20	75	0.00
US-China	1.36	1.01	0.12	1.12	1.60	11.49	72	0.00
China-Japan	1.68	1.10	0.13	1.42	1.93	13.11	73	0.00
China-China	1.20	1.02	0.12	0.96	1.43	10.19	75	0.00
T-shirt								
US-Japan	1.33	0.92	0.11	1.12	1.55	12.53	74	0.00
US-China	1.47	0.98	0.12	1.24	1.70	12.83	72	0.00
China-Japan	1.55	1.06	0.12	1.31	1.79	12.90	77	0.00
China-China	1.27	1.02	0.12	1.03761	1.49	11.04	78	0.00

7.13   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discusses the quantitative results from the experiment followed by an explanation and analysis of the results. The main themes that are focused on within this study are: the main effects and interaction effects on purchase intention, the main effects and interaction effects on CPV country image for the US, Japan and China, the role of product familiarity. The next chapter (8) presents a key discussion according to the results presented.

CHAPTER 8

DISCUSSION

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented data analysis from the pilot test, pre-test and experiment. The main effects of COD, COM and product involvement were investigated and analysed; moreover, it determined the interaction effects of these variables.

This chapter will:

1. Provide an overview of the research objectives of this thesis and discuss population and sample issues
2. Present the discussion relating to the research findings, the statistical analyses of the results and the understanding of country image
3. Discuss the relationships between COM and COD on purchase intention
4. Discuss the constructs of CPV and the influence of COM and COD on CPV
5. Discuss the indirect effect of product familiarity on purchase intention and product familiarity

8.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The thesis intends to discuss the research findings from the statistical analysis. The research topics include:

- Clarify the effect of the interaction between COM and COD images of sportswear products on purchase intention and CPV
- Explore incongruity of COM and COD information
- Examine country images of US, Japan and China
- Understand the role of product involvement on purchase intention and CPV
- Understand the role of product familiarity on purchase intention and CPV

8.3 INFLUENCES OF PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT, COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE AND COUNTRY OF DESIGN ON PURCHASE INTENTION

8.3.1 THE INTERACTION EFFECTS OF COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE AND COUNTRY OF DESIGN ON PURCHASE INTENTION

To date, there are significant amount of studies on COO and consumers' evaluation, but many have failed to distinguish the effects of COM and COD on purchase intention. This study investigates the effect of interaction between COM and COD images on customers' purchase intentions.

The results on the interaction effects show that with a strong positive COM and/or COD, the intention to purchase is also higher. In other words, both products from countries with favourable images receive positive evaluations (designed in US and made in Japan). The results are congruent with **H2a** (*The interaction effects of both positive COM and COD images positively affect consumers' purchase intentions).* ANOVA found a significant difference: $F_{(1, 596)} = 348.61$, $p = 0.00$, effect size $\eta^2 = 0.37$. The findings indicate that COM-COD congruity has a strong effect on Thai consumers. Previous studies also confirm that consumers from emerging countries prefer products from developed countries, resulting in higher levels of satisfaction (Essoussi and Merunka, 2007; Okechuka and Onyemah, 1999; Wang *et al.*, 2000). In the case of both negative COM and COD images (designed in China and made in China), the results indicate a significant negative effect on purchase intention (trainers: M = 3.28, SE = 0.06; t-shirt: M = 3.05, SE = 0.06).

Results from the experiment suggest that COM and COD information both have strong influences on consumers. The effect of COO is stronger when product categories have social or symbolic value (Batra *et al.*, 2000). However, they fail to decompose COO constructs into COM and COD (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). Hence, this study shows that positive COM and COD image can magnify consumers' purchase intention.

The study on the interaction effect provides a better understanding on how Thai consumers use information related to COM and COD to assess sportswear products and how the combined effect of COM and COD images influences purchase intention.

According to Tse and Lee (1993), cars and computers are common products which is known to be bi-national or multi-national. For example, a computer may have CPU chips from Japan, a monitor from South Korea and casing from Singapore. This phenomenon offers challenges for international companies to understand how consumers perceive these products. Decomposing the COO construct is proven to be an important influence to the study of COO (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). The results suggest that the combined effect of both COM and COD creates a strong influence on purchase intention. The COD and COM with which products are associated can either magnify or reduce consumers' perceptions of those products. Haubl and Elrod (1999) also support this finding which shows that the interaction effects of positive country images increase consumers' purchase intention. Moreover, an early study of the interaction effects of COO and brand image revealed that constructing a positive brand image requires communication of the product's origin (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). Some businesses suffer a negative impact of the manufacturing countries being developing countries. It is essential to understand to what extent hybrid products are associated with a positive or negative overall country image.

The US and Japan are evaluated and categorised as highly industrialised countries (HICs) compared to China, which is a newly industrialised country (NIC) (Ahmed *et al*., 2002a). The study of COM and COD is used to explain the psychological process that determines how consumers react to country information (Ahmed *et al*., 2002a; Tse and Gorn, 1993; Maheswaran, 1994). From the results, Thai consumers hold positive national stereotypes for the US and Japan. Japan as a product manufacturer is considered the most favourable COM because it has emerged in the market as the quality leader in Asia (Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000). Touzani *et al*. (2015) suggest that in emerging countries, consumers are driven by Western products but have great confidence in developing countries' products because of their innovation, high quality and modern image (Opoku and Akorli, 2009; Touzani *et al*., 2015).

There are many studies supporting the results that products from developed countries, in this case the US and Japan, are more favourable than products from developing countries (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2007; Wang and Chen, 2004; Wong 2008). Consumers from developing countries hold positive stereotypes for products from developed countries because they are perceived as having a high level of social impact and economic position (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001). Moreover, consumers in developing

countries seek a glamorous Western lifestyle and level of consumption; additionally, they tend to purchase products from countries that they are exposed to from TV shows and films (Batra *et al.,* 2000). Kaynak *et al.* (2000) also comment on the links of country information, whether it is COM or COD: if a product's country association and country connotations are not positive to consumers, they tend to be less favourable regarding that particular product.

It is clear that Thai consumers hold positive beliefs about the US, which is regarded as one of the leading sportswear countries in the world (Losneck, 2009). In contrast, the results show that sportswear designed in China and made in China receives the lowest rating in purchase intentions. According to Batra *et al.* (2000), consumers in developing countries consider country information as symbolic and as having status-enhancing effects. Thai consumers show clear preferences for the US and Japan; conversely, China's country image leads to negative effects in purchase intentions and evaluations. Although in recent years China's manufacturing boom has led to greater acceptance of Chinese products, the attitudes towards and images of China are still weaker than those of Western countries because of concerns of product quality (Sharma, 2011). Moreover, the symbolic meaning related to COO has been apparent since the historical domination of the West during the colonial period (Batra *et al*., 2000; Chand and Tung, 2011; Touzani *et al*., 2015). Consumers in developing countries idealise the symbol and superiority of developed countries' products.

For both single- and multi-cue sportswear products, the information on COM or COD is important in decision making. Pappu *et al.* (2007) give an example to explain the relationship between COM and COD: when a country such as Japan has certain associations with designing reliable cars, it builds country equity in this product category (Thakor and Katsanis, 1997); if a Japanese car is made somewhere else, it can affect the perception significantly. The experiment shows that the US has a strong association with designing high-quality sportswear. When the manufacturer is perceived as a lower country of development (e.g. China), the level of purchase intention decreases. The results show that when bi-national sportswear products are shown to consumers, there is an increase in dissonance for them as they try to reconcile the conflicting information of COM and COD.

8.3.2 INCONGRUITY OF COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE AND COUNTRY OF DESIGN

Relating to the previous results, this research intended to investigate further whether COD or COM is more important when consumers are in the decision-making process. Further investigation revealed that in the case of consumers having information on COM and COD, they prefer to rely on COD to COM. The results from the ANOVA indicate that the effect size of COD is 72%, while COM is 44%. Moreover, the t-test of equality shows that Thai consumers consider COD a higher priority than COM. According to the t-test, products designed in the US but made in China (M = 4.10, SE = 0.04) receive a higher mean score than products designed in China but made in Japan (M = 3.30, SE = 0.05), and it shows that there is a significant difference, t (300) = 11.66, p = 0.00 (two-tailed). The between-groups analysis is portrayed in Figure 8.1.

Figure 8.1: Designed in US + made in China vs. designed in China + made in Japan – comparison of sportswear products.
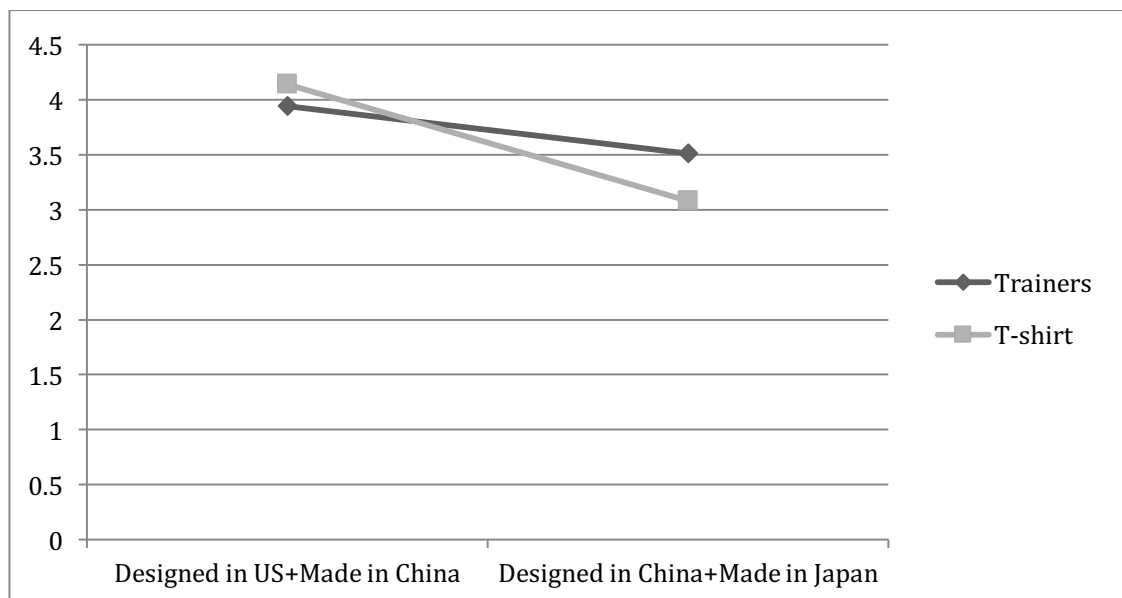
From Figure 8.1, H2c is confirmed *a positive COD image can outweigh the effects of a negative COM image on purchase intentions*. Previous studies have confirmed that when a product with a less-developed COM is presented by a reputable brand name, the brand name can outweigh the negative feelings associated with the COM (Ahmed *et al.,* 2004; Cordell, 1992; Eroglu and Machleit, 1988,). In multi-cue situations, COD is a more significant cue in purchase decisions than COM is (Ahmed *et al*., 1994; Kaynak *et*

al., 2000). When extrinsic cues like COM appear, COD usually becomes the main factor for consideration. This argument supports this experiment for investigating Thai consumers. Phau and Prendergast (2000) also suggest that COD information is more accurate and appropriate than COM information is.

However, a study by Ahmed and d'Astous (1995) on household products finds that COM and COD have equal importance. In a household product category, product warranty has the strongest effect. They point out that COM and COD images have different effects depending on the product category, and the effect of COD increases with product complexity (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). Similarly, sportswear products can be considered as fashion product category because it triggers a more symbolic value on Thai consumers (Bouchet *et al*., 2013). Moreover, they reveal their findings on the importance of the effect of the COD image, which conveys information on a product's design and cultural heritage and is a signal of the product's sophistication and performance. The results show that Thai consumers consider the country that is associated with a brand more than the manufacturing country. COD is integrated with brand image; it signifies the origins of products (Thakor and Koli, 1996) – in this case, the country. Similarly, as the terms 'Nordic' and 'Scandinavian' recall specific attributes (relating to winter activities), similar to the use of places within product names (such as 'Philadelphia cream cheese'), this implies that different country names and places are perceived differently by consumers.

The experiment showed that consumers strongly associate the US with being the leading sportswear brand country. The stronger country name allows communication with consumers in various ways. Using COM and COM origin cues can strengthen evaluations and purchase intentions; a country conveys visual elements and provides insights to the products (Batra *et al.,* 1993). In this research, China is associated with being a mass-production country and does not have a favourable country image (micro- and macro-images) for producing sportswear. By contrast, Japan has a positive reputation for manufacturing products. The name of the country can provide symbolic communication, such as relating to luxury and wealth. Some brands use a country to communicate appealing attributes, for instance Volkswagen reflects the joy of living and German engineering.

Conversely, this research also investigated the incongruence of COM and COD, which confirms H2b: *The interaction effect between a negative COM image (with a positive COD image) negatively affects consumers' purchase intentions*. Whenever firms employ country-related information of the subdivided COO constructs (COM and COD) and the information is incongruent (in this case, sports trainers designed in the US and made in China), the literature suggests that consumers associate brands with the countries to make a decision (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2008; Carvalho *et al.*, 2011; Ettenson and Gaeth, 1991; Thakor and Lavack, 2003). This shows the benefit of a positive COD image on consumer perceptions. The use of COD can also be of benefit across product categories. For instance, as the US is well known for sportswear, it is likely that other US sportswear brands would influence consumers positively (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2008; Carvalho *et al.*, 2011). Additionally, this argument is not confirmed if information on COM is available.

Therefore, this research's results confirm that a negative COM image (with a positive COD image) diminishes purchase intentions. Haubl and Elrod (1999) mention that the congruity of COM and COD information produces a stronger effect. However, when there is incongruence between COM and COD (e.g. designed in the US but made in China), it produces a negative effect on product evaluation (Carvalho *et al.*, 2011). The results reveal that both product types suffer from delocalisation, although COD is positive compared to positive COD and COM in Figure 8.2. Koubaa (2008) unveils a similar explanation for a known brand: an erosion of the product image occurs when the product is produced in an inferior country. The results underline the significance of COM and COD for both products; additionally, they imply that the perception of negative or less-developed COM can damage purchase intentions, compared to both positive COM and COD.

Figure 8.2: Positive COM and COD images vs. positive COD and negative COM images
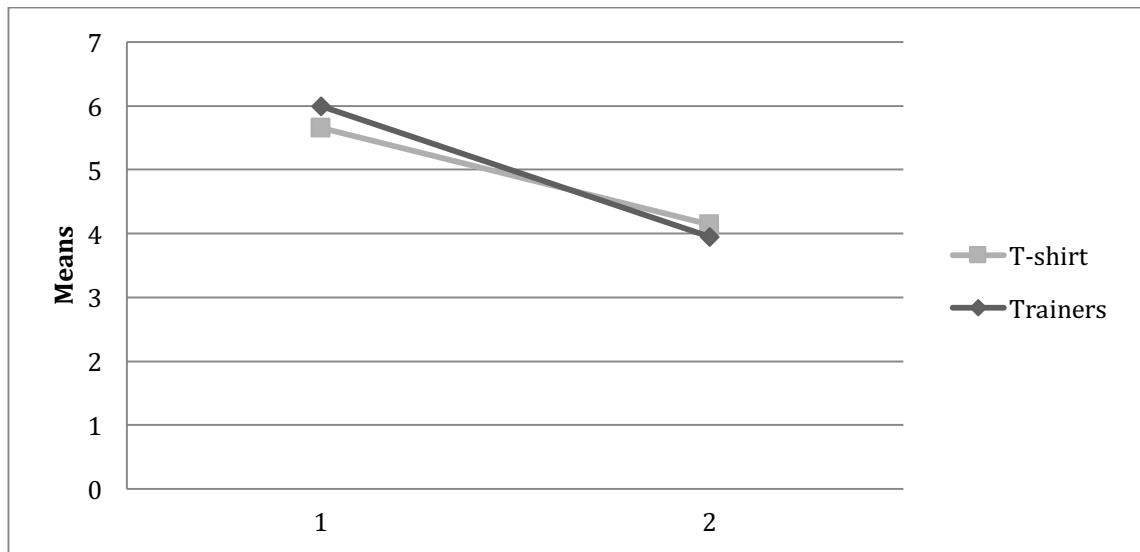
8.3.3 THE MODERATING ROLE OF PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT ON PURCHASE INTENTION

The level of involvement indicates a customer's personal involvement in terms of degree of thought and motivation when buying a product (Prendergast *et al.,* 2010). A high level of involvement refers to an investment in time to conduct research prior to engaging in purchasing behaviour, while low involvement indicates a low level of consideration in the pre-purchase process (Tabassi *et al.,* 2013).

According to Ahmed *et al.*, (2002), there are a few studies on COO and low involvement products that intend to establish the role that COO plays in shaping purchase intentions and whether its influence is the same for low involvement products as for high involvement products. This research explores high involvement product (trainers) and low involvement (t-shirt) in the same product category because previous studies have found that there is a significant difference between high and low product involvements. Ahmed *et al.*, (2002) point out that the effect of COO is weak for low-involvement products. Prendergast *et al.*, (2010) mention that higher level of product involvement leads to higher motivation to purchase. On the other hand, low product involvement is less risk-averse; therefore, consumers rely less on information like COM and COD.

The results from the ANOVA (main experiment) demonstrate that there are significant differences in purchase involvement levels' effects on purchase intentions, F (1, 596) = 20.26, p = 0.00, effect size η2 = 0.03. In other words, products such as trainers (M = 4.18, SE = 0.03) and t-shirts (M = 3.98, SE = 0.03) affect consumers' purchase intentions differently.

The between-groups results (eight conditions) significantly differ for purchase intention in cases where COD and COD information is not presented. As mentioned above, according to the ELM, the consumer can go through either a central or a peripheral route. A central route refers to high involvement because it requires cognitive effort to evaluate information (Josiassen *et al.*, 2008). By contrast, a peripheral route is a low-involvement route. In some cases, when consumers consider low-involvement products, they rely more on country information (Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000). When consumers become highly involved with a product, they tend to seek more information before choosing (Celsi and Olson, 1988). Ahmed *et al.* (2002a) argue that some studies have focused on high-involvement products, finding that consumers look beyond cues such as price and product design because high involvement signals social value and experiential consumption. Moreover, high involvement implies that the purchase is important and the perceived risk is strong (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). The present research aimed to investigate further the relationships among COD, COM and involvement and their influence on purchase intention, as discussed in the next section.

The results portray that there are no interaction effects among COM, COD and involvement, F (1, 596) = 3.50, p = 0.06, compared to the interaction of COM and COD, which is statistically significant, as already mentioned. This means that, no matter if the product has high or low involvement, when COM and COD information is provided, it is enough to make a judgement. Hence, H3 is not supported: *(The moderating role of product involvement): a high level of product involvement combined with positive COM and COD images has a positive impact on purchase intention.*

Although both product types exhibit clear consumer (high/low) involvement, as discussed in the previous section, sportswear goods are considered hedonic. Hedonic products provide relatively more pleasure, fun and experiential consumption and

include clothes, luxury watches, sports cars, etc.; conversely, utilitarian products are primarily functional and instrumental (Dhar and Wertenbroch, 2000). Moreover, hedonic goods deliver affective or sensory gratification (Tseng and Balabanis, 2011; Wood, 1960). In a situation where COM and COD information is provided to consumers, sportswear products display social value to Thai consumers. In this experiment, product involvement did not produce a significant difference between sports trainers and t-shirts.

8.4. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF COUNTRY IMAGE

In the current research, COM and COD are subcategories of COO. The notion of country image as an extrinsic cue has been extensively investigated in past literature (Touzani *et al*., 2015). However, many COO (often referred to as COM) studies have focused on COD, COA (country of assembly) or COP (country of parts). Therefore, this research intended to investigate the roles of both COM and COD to ascertain the influences on consumers' decisions.

Product origin provides significant strategic information to domestic and international businesses (Laroche *et al*., 2005); globalisation and international production may lead to a product being characterised as having multiple places of origin, which may cause complications (Samiee, 1994). From previous studies, the effects of COO on consumers' product evaluations derive from the country images, which are presented as a set of stereotypes held in consumers' minds (Touzani *et al*., 2015). These stereotypes are what consumers perceive about a product and a country. Country image can be conceptualised as: (1) the image of a country, assessed on the basis of the social, political and technological advancement aspects of a country (Agarwal and Sikri, 1996); and (2) product-country image, identified as the beliefs about a certain product from a specific country based on sets of attributes (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Agarwal and Sikri, 1996).

As per the results shown in Chapter 7, three countries were investigated through the experiment. For Thai consumers, it is shown that the US is the most favourable COD and China is the least favourite, whereas Japan is the most favourable COM and China

is the least favourite. Within the experiment, COM and COD were operationalised into two groups, as mentioned before: product-country image and country image. The results show that the US is perceived as having a higher level for COD than China for both product-country image and country image. The product-country image of the US compared to China is M = 5.59 > M = 3.05, p = 0.00, and for country image is M = 5.71 > M = 3.19, p = 0.00. Additionally, Japan has a higher COM than China does (product-country image: M = 5.40 > M = 3.37, p = 0.00 and country image: M = 5.39 > M = 3.35, p = 0.00). Therefore, H1a is supported: *a positive COD image positively influences consumers' purchase intentions.* Moreover, H1b is also confirmed: *a positive COM image positively influences consumers' purchase intentions.*

This analysis examines the notion of the Thai respondents' stereotypical images of these countries and their products. Ahmed and d'Astous (2007) and Ahmed *et al.* (2004) agree that country image is differently perceived in terms of whether it relates to the manufacturing or designing country (Hamzaoui-Essoussi *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, this research intended to compare manufacturing and designing counties separately. The next section will discuss in detail and provide evidence to support the results on the COM and COD images perceived by Thai consumers. Ahmed et al. (2004) mention that low involvement plays an important role in product evaluation; however, the effect is relatively weak because consumers usually pay less attention when purchasing.

8.4.1 THE US AS THE COUNTRY OF DESIGN

The construct of COD is considered important regarding its association with the brand (Rashid, 2016; Samiee *et al.*, 2005; Thakor and Kohli, 1996). The experiment shows that the US has a high-level COD image and it concludes that the US as a COD has a higher image than China. Both the product-country image and country image suggest that Thai consumers hold a positive country image of US, which has an impact on product evaluation. The images that are perceived by customers can be viewed as an asset (Adina *et al.*, 2015; Lampert and Jaffe, 1998); in this case, the US has a positive connotation, while China's image is a liability because it is associated with negative views.

The experiment shows that country perception plays a significant role in consumer perceptions and in marketing strategy. It shows that country image and product-country image reinforce consumers' positive and/or negative responses. The study provides an evaluation of the capabilities of the US: it represents an HIC. Moreover, the findings conform to previous literature that stated that consumers perceive HICs as technologically sophisticated and more capable (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2004; Li and Monroe, 1992). As COD is associated with the country where the brand originated, the communication of brand origin can add value to the products (Rashid *et al*., 2016). For example, some retailers use a sub-brand to manifest the brand origin to deliver a message that has an association with a place or country, such as River Island introducing 'Chelsea girl'(Mintel, 2013; Rashid *et al*., 2016) or 'Best of British' of the M&S collection.

The globalisation of the sportswear industry has reached rapid growth, especially in the US, which is the world's largest sportswear market (Chi and Kilduff, 2011). Moreover, Loschek (2009) supports that the US is highly regarded as a COO of sportswear/activewear. Sportswear is worn both as a street style and as leisurewear; moreover, it has changed into fashionable, everyday wear, for which the US intends to develop high-tech materials and products (Loschek, 2009). Therefore, it is accepted that the US receives the highest rating as a designing country. Ahmed and d'Astous (2008) mention that when consumers recognise which country a product originates from or where it is designed, for instance Nike as a US company, it gives a signal of the design quality. The results also indicate that a positive COD leads to higher purchase intention.

The ANOVA concludes that a positive COD positively influences consumers' purchase intentions for both sportswear product types. Past studies have also supported that country image's dimensions, such as workmanship and innovative or superior design, improve the nation's profile (Roth and Romeo, 1992). Products that are branded in HICs are favoured over those branded in less-developed ones (Sharma, 2011).

8.4.2 CHINA AS THE COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE AND COUNTRY OF DESIGN

The COM images of Japan and China were compared and statistically analysed. Thai consumers prefer sportswear 'made in' Japan (M = 5.40, SE = 0.03) over that 'made in' China (M = 3.37, SE = 0.03). The study of Cordell (1991) supports this argument because products from a less-developed country are perceived as lower in quality and workmanship than those from a developed country. According to the results of this study, Thai consumers perceive the country image of Japan higher than the China.

According to Yunus and Rashid (2016), 'made in China' is seen in any international market. However, the reputation is still doubtful and lack of consumer's confidence. Many years ago, China was considered an irrelevant competitor in a low-cost market (Luo, 2007; Lew and Sulaiman, 2014). In fact, it has started to grow as one of the leading manufacturers but the quality is still perceived as low (Lew and Sulaiman, 2014; Garten, 2002; Sarwar *et al*., 2013). Other manufacturing countries were unconcerned about China until 2008; however, since then, China has shifted its economy and has begun to stretch its capability to be a multinational trading country (Lew and Sulaiman, 2014). From the results, it can be concluded that Thai consumers have a negative image for sportswear product from China, as well as, products that are designed in China. It indicates that comparing to US (M=5.59, SE=0.03) has a higher product image than China (M=3.05, SE=0.03).

The setback to the 'Made in China' and Chinese brands has affected various types of products such as toys, toothpaste, pet food which causes incidents that made consumers to think twice about Chinese-made goods (Kabadayi and Lerman, 2011; Roberts, 2007). Almost 40 percent of UK consumers are hesitant to buy Chinese-made products, as well as US consumers are concerned. Country image suggests that the negative image can effect purchase intentions. The evaluations show a large difference between China and US for design capability. It indicates that sportswear products are deeply associated to US due to the famous sportswear brands such as Nike or Reebok hold the largest market in sports clothing and footwear (Tong and Howley, 2009). Country association is deeply linked to Thai consumers and positively create feelings and attitudes.

8.4.3 JAPAN AS THE COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE

Japan's manufacturing system emphasises high-quality products with sophisticated production systems; it is famous for producing cars and electronics products (Westerbeek, 2012). As Han (1989) mentions, the general country image transfers to specific products. In this case, the overall positive image of Japan is transferred to sportswear products. The results show that Thai consumers rate Japan's country image highly in both its macro- and micro-images. Roth and Romeo (1992) conducted research on managing COO effects through matching product category and country image. Their results show that product–country match information is important when consumers evaluate country image dimensions; for example, consumers prefer a car from Japan, Germany or the US to a car from Mexico or Hungary.

The issue of product–country match is also significant when matching a country with a product. The countries used in this experiment were confirmed by Thai consumers as appropriate variables for this research. Another reason for Thai consumers' perceptions of Japan is due to the trade between Thailand and Japan. Since the 1990s, the global integration of trade has allowed Japanese culture and lifestyles to influence Thai society, especially in metropolitan areas like Bangkok (Pecotich and Shultz II, 2006). According to Toyoshima (2008), Thai consumers are influenced by Japan because of cultural similarity, which is an important component for Thai consumers to feel comfortable with the 'made in Japan' label. Moreover, Japanese industrial products have been familiar to Thai consumers for a long time, which creates a positive effect for Thai consumers when considering Japan in terms of being a highly advanced technological country (Toyoshima, 2008).

8.5 THE MAIN EFFECTS OF COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE AND COUNTRY OF DESIGN ON CUSTOMER PERCEIVED VALUE

CPV is a significant concept in business strategy for achieving competitive advantage (Landroguez et al., 2013; Yeh, 2016). In recent years, businesses and marketers have shown increasing interest in value creation because it enables them to deliver superior value to customers (Smith and Colgate, 2007). In traditional business views, value is determined by the producers and is usually embedded in products. In contrast, value is

now perceived and determined by customers (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). CPV is applied as a fundamental marketing tool for not only attracting and retaining customers but also as an indicator of repurchasing behaviour (Parasuraman and Grewal, 2000).

The results from the MANOVA show that the main effects of COM and COD on CPV are significantly different. H5a is supported: *the positive main effects of COD positively affect the overall CPV*, $F (4, 581) = 1129.22$, $p = 0.00$; Wilks's lambda = 0.11, partial eta square = 0.89. It indicates that US is rated as higher perceived value country (M=4.78, SE= 0.05) than China (M=3.25, SE=0.02). The main effect of COM is also significant, $F (4, 581) = 642.60$, $p = 0.00$; Wilks's lambda = 0.18, partial eta square = 0.82. Japan (M=4.59, SE=0.05) is perceived as higher than China (M=3.44, SE=0.03). Therefore, H5b is also supported: *the positive main effects of COM positively affect the overall CPV*.

According to Iyer and Kalita (1997), the study of COM and perceived value shows that for products with moderate technical sophistication, the effects of COM tend to have a stronger influence. For a product such as a telephone made in the US compared to one made in Malaysia, consumers generally rate the US telephone as a higher-quality product. In order to achieve successful value creation, using the country is still a significant cue for consumers to evaluate value (Iyer and Kalita, 2008; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993; Tse and Lee, 1993; Ulgado and Lee, 1993). As COO is composed of COM and COD, the study of perceived value in terms of COM and COD effects is still underdeveloped. The purpose of this research was to deliver conclusions as to whether COM/COD can produce CPV.

The use of extrinsic cues such as brand names and price has been empirically investigated by previous research, which found that there is a linkage between extrinsic cues with quality and value perceptions (Teas and Agarwal, 2000). In accordance with the results, positive COM and COD images cause higher perceived value (Table 8.2). Previous evidence has strongly indicated a close link between manufacturing country and quality perception; thus, COM becomes the surrogate indicator of quality value (Elliott and Cameron, 1994; Gaedeke, 1973; White and Cundiff, 1978; Eroglu and Machleit, 1989). This suggests that a superior manufacturing country is associated with higher quality perceptions. However, there is no previous research that draws a

connection between COD and CPV. According to the results, it is acceptable to conclude that a positive COD is associated with a higher overall perceived value in sportswear products.

Table 8.1: Main effects of COM and COD on CPV

	COD	Mean	Std. Error
Quality value	US	4.79	0.02
	China	3.30	0.02
Social value	US	4.73	0.03
	China	3.37	0.03
Price value	US	4.87	0.03
	China	3.15	0.03
Emotional value	US	4.73	0.03
	China	3.23	0.03
	COM		
Quality value	Japan	4.63	0.02
	China	3.46	0.02
Social value	Japan	4.71	0.03
	China	3.39	0.03
Price value	Japan	4.49	0.03
	China	3.54	0.03
Emotional value	Japan	4.57	0.03
	China	3.39	0.03

8.6 THE INTERACTION EFFECTS BETWEEN COUNTRY OF DESIGN, COUNTRY OF MANUFACTURE ON CUSTOMER PERCEIVED VALUE

In essence, Thai consumers pay a great attention to COM and COD images both trainers and t-shirt. The findings indicate strong evidence that that high developed country have a strong influence on Thai consumers. The hypothesis supports H6a the interaction effects among COM, COD and product involvement on overall perceived value, $F_{(4,580)} = 4.18$, $p = 0.00$; Wilks' Lambda = 0.97. It supports Dinnie (2016) that country image plays as a differentiator that is value by consumers. He mentioned that the matching between product category and country image offers benefits to products; moreover, he exemplifies Icelandic vodka, 'Reyka' which proclaim itself as a pure and natural alcoholic drink. Using country association, such Iceland, receives an advantage from the power of country image as the brand-building tool. Previous research also suggest that using country as an image-enhancing effects, it is proven challenging but effective method (Steenkamp *et al.*, 2003).

COM and COD images are the influencers in shaping consumer's attitudes, consumers develop stereotypical beliefs of a particular country and product's attributes (Yasin *et al.*, 2007). The combined effect of COD and COM is found to influence Thai consumers' value perceptions. The results suggest that Thai consumers are aware of country information (COM and COD). Specifically, US-designed and Japanese-made trainers and t-shirt are rated as the highly perceived product. In other words, positive COM and COD images enhance the perception of value for trainers and t-shirt; also, perceived value decreases when the both products are made in China. In cases of Chinese-designed and Japanese-made, value perception is even more decreasing. Consequently, COD is considered to be the most important information for evaluation. This implies that positive COM cannot compensate the negative image of COD. The results are reasonable in the sense of consumer's perceptions. It can be explained that since 1868, Western knowledge and technologies were wide-spread in Thailand (Punyapiroje *et al.*, 2002). Normally Westerners who came to Thailand are often rich and elite, therefore it reflects Thai's values on Western lifestyles and products until today.

Perceived value is a concept of trade-off between benefits and the price consumers have to pay (Monroe, 1990), this perspective of value is mostly used for utilitarian goods. However, unidimensional view of perceived value cannot measure the entire perception of products. Hence, both hedonic and utilitarian products should be measured using multidimensional approach. Quality, social, price and emotional values are discussed separately in the following section and Figure 8.3 and 8.4 portray the results from MANOVA analysis.

Figure 8.3: CPV dimensions for sports trainers
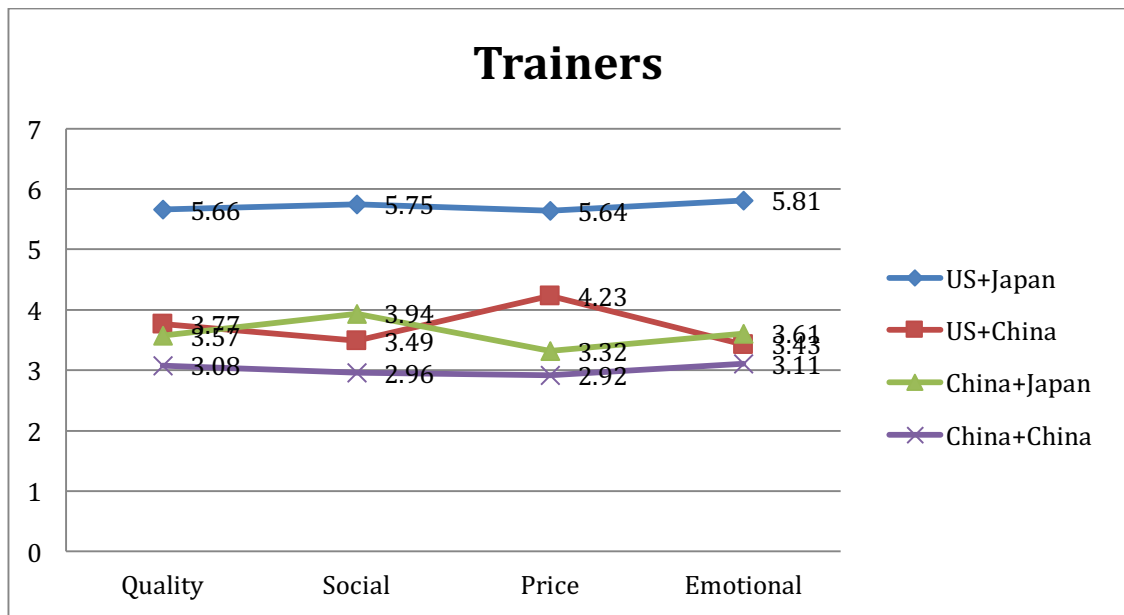
Figure 8.4: CPV dimensions for sports t-shirts
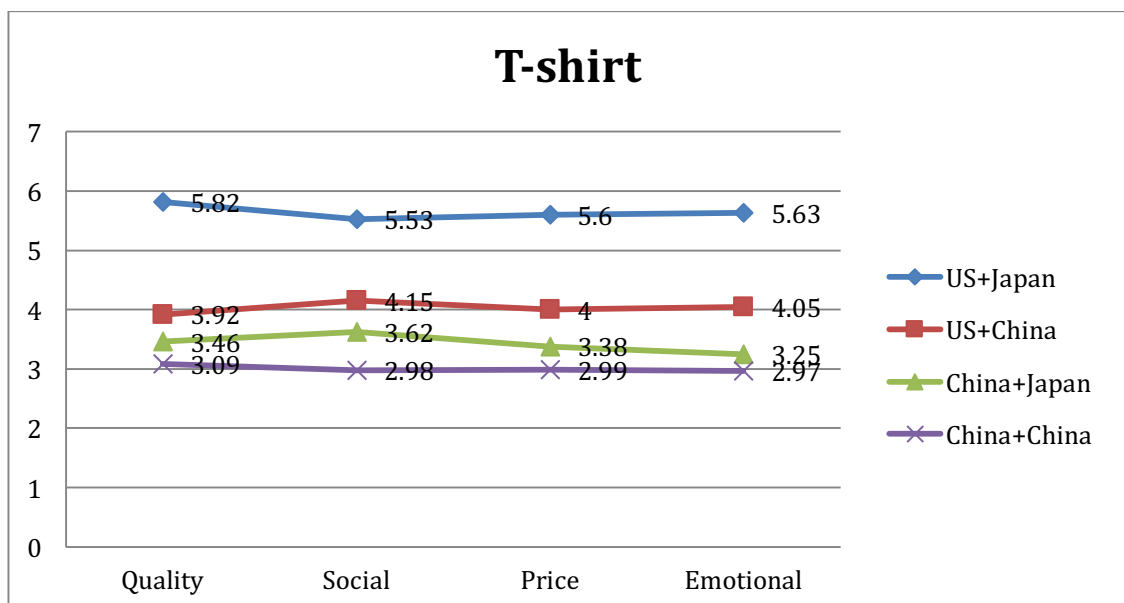
8.6.1 QUALITY VALUE

The results show the interaction effect among COM, COD and product involvement is not significant, F (1,583) = 0.6, p= 0.44. In other words, both products show the same effect between-groups, the presences of COM and COD show a significant effect on quality value, F (1, 583) = 769.57, p = 0.00.

They indicate that both products designed in the US + made in Japan show the highest rating, M=5.79, SE=0.03, followed by designed in US + made in China, (M=3.84, SE=0.03). Chinese design+ Japanese-made products are perceived lower (M=3.51, SE=0.03) and Chinese design + Chinese-made is the lowest (M= 3.09, SE=0.03). It indicates that the congruence of COM and COD images have a greater effect on quality perception. Moreover, the congruence of COM and COD portrays lower quality perceptions and, in this case, both products are equally rated as having the lowest quality perceptions. The findings show that consumers usually relate country information to assess quality value, Insch and McBride (2004) mentioned that quality perception is consumer's assessment about superiority of both design and manufacture process (Insch and McBride, 2004). Therefore, country image is a significant factor in the sportswear industry. According to Thakor and Lavack (2003), the use of country enables to reinforce the positive effects on products. It was found that consumers consider the quality of sports garments as a high priority (Rahulan *et al.,* 2015) in their purchasing behaviour. In fact, when consumers see the labels 'made in Japan' and 'made in Germany', the products are regarded as higher quality than those 'made in Myanmar' (Morgan *et al.,* 2011). The perception of quality is due to the reputations of manufacturers and country brands. A country can also be used to promote a product, for instance 'Café de Colombia', which consumers regard as high-quality coffee (Morgan *et al.,* 2011).

Country image provides a message to consumers that promises with a certain level of quality value (Bouchet *et al*., 2013). In other words, country-related information give a signal that communicate to consumers in the sense of superiority and high quality sportswear products for example US design + Japanese-made ones. Therefore, it can be concluded that COM and COD jointly influence Thai consumer's quality perceptions and COD image has the most impact on consumers.

8.6.2 SOCIAL VALUE

The results from social value shows that there are no significant difference among product involvement, COM and COD, F (1,583) = 0.23, p=0.63. Thus, the investigation between COM and COD on social value indicates a difference, F (1,583) = 171.22, p=0.00.

Social value influences norms of behaviour; it has an impact on attitudes and practices (Bouchet *et al.,* 2013). The results regarding social value portray that there is an interaction effect between COM and COD, creating a significant difference in the between-groups experiment. The results indicate that higher COM and COD create higher social value for Thai consumers; by contrast, negative COM and COD images create the lowest social value. The results show that COD appears as a symbol or sign for consumers in terms of their acceptance. When purchasing a product that allows consumers to display their social status, consumers consider that wearing US-branded apparel is a way to impress and gain social approval because the US is the world's largest sportswear market and is well known for its sportswear brands (Chi and Kilduff, 2011). Tarrant and Jolles (2012) also mention that the consumption of fashion and apparel allows consumers to display their wealth and social status. Comparing the US and China, the social value of US products is higher than those of China because the image of the US reinforces consumers' self-esteem and self-expression (Bouchet *et al.,* 2013). Although a high-level manufacturing country (Japan) is preferable, it cannot strengthen social value from the consumer's perspective.

Choices in visible products, for instance clothing, are usually driven by social value, while in industries such as the automobile industry, choices are usually driven by social image, and choices of other utilitarian products like kitchen appliances may also be driven by social value (Sheth *et al., 1*999). Sportswear is becoming a lifestyle choice and a means of expressing an identity that one belongs to a specific community; for example, the sportswear brand Quiksilver is associated with surfing and freedom (Bouchet *et al.,* 2013). In addition, Nike is a trademark of function and performance; the brand is associated with the US, which symbolises achievement and transcendence. Lacoste is another example of a brand that has a country association by referring to French tradition, so it is perceived as having high social value (Kotler and Dubois, 1997). When a brand's equity is leveraged by being associated with countries or places, its image has the potential to more efficiently enhance the brand's equity. For instance, products with German and Swiss heritage are perceived as being high in craftsmanship (Shimp, 2010).

The strong message associated to COM and COD can be explained by the shift of economic structure in developing countries (Batra *et al*., 2000; Ger and Belk, 1996;

225

Saffu and Walker, 2006; Touzani *et al.*, 2015). Consumers from developing countries adopt consumption behaviour from Western culture through media, tourism and migration. Moreover, country-related information gives consumers the increasing desire and elevated status for the purchasers (Kaynak *et al.*, 2000). The establishment of foreign products can be traced back through the fashion system (Barthes, 1967; Touzani et al., 2015). The attachment of symbolic meaning from fashion good, as well as, sportswear allows an individual to express him/herself. The results show that both products convey meanings in communicating social distinction and status especially in developing countries (Douglas and Isherwood, 1979; Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). Economic transition gives the importance of positional value by display social status. Consumption of fashion goods links to the understanding of both COM and COD images which influence different level of social values.

8.6.3 PRICE VALUE

From the results, the interactions of COD and COM show no significantly different results for price value, $F_{(1,583)} = 0.20$, p=0.20. The analysis indicates that between sport trainers and t-shirts, price value shows similar results. But, the interaction between COM and COD shows a significant difference, $F_{(1,583)} = 211.74$, p = 0.00.

The findings demonstrate that when consumers confront more-positive COM and COD, they consider it worthwhile to make a monetary risk for purchasing sportswear products. When consumers face the situation of a higher COD but lower COM, the effect of price value decreases. The price-related issue has been investigated and is usually understood as the monetary value of a product, but the concept of price is also considered in terms of the time, search and effort involved in the overall cost (Monroe, 1990; Zeithaml, 1988). Whether it is a high- or low-involvement product, consumers appreciate a favourable COM and COD and perceive that the product is worth the monetary costs. The study of Hu and Wang (2010) examined price issues associated with country images and found that for a country like the US, participants are willing to make a trade-off with premium prices instead of taking risks with unfavourable countries.

Price is a sensitive value because of the difficulty in determining what price consumers are willing to pay (Verma, 2009). Nevertheless, price value is a dominant factor in marketing. Price can also be viewed as having a negative image in the case of using low prices to attract consumers. Price cannot always win over customers because they are also concerned with the quality that they receive. In most cases, customers are willing to pay more for higher quality, such as Hong Kong's consumers are willing to pay a premium for a preferable COD (Speece *et al.,* 1994).

From the experiment, the levels of COM and COD vary consumers' perceptions of price value. In fact, for products designed in the US + made in Japan, consumers are willing to pay more. Nevertheless, COD still dominates price value in this research. In the case that a product relocates to China (designed in the US + made in China), Thai consumers have doubts as to the quality they plan to pay for; the results show that in both cases (designed in the US + made in China and designed in China + made in Japan), price value tends to decrease significantly.

8.6.4 EMOTIONAL VALUE

The results from the MANOVA demonstrate the significant difference among COM, COD and product involvement on emotional value, $F_{(1,583)} = 13.72$, p= 0.00. Further investigation indicates that trainers show a higher emotional value than t-shirt when COM and COD images are positive.

Emotional value is a utility that enables the arousal of feelings or affective states (Sheth *et al.,* 1991). Normally, products may be associated with emotional responses, such as a feeling of romance by candlelight or a feeling of comfort in running shoes (Bouchet *et al*., 2013). Especially in the sportswear industry, consumers' emotional value can be positive or negative (Sheth *et al.,* 1991). When consumers consider a product, they receive utilitarian benefits such as quality and the emotional benefits such as display of wealth and status (Kumar *et al*., 2009). Moreover, using favourable country's products exhibit more emotional value than less favourable ones. The model of affective component suggests that emotional value gives the feeling of fun and enjoyable experience from a product (Kumar *et al*., 2009).

Given the results, the positive relationship toward US designed and Japanese-made products and negative relationship on Chinese designed and Chinese-made products indicate that emotional value is strongly influenced on sportswear products. According to Kumar *et al*., (2009), it supports this research in terms of the crucial role of emotional value of developing country's consumers toward apparel industry.

Emotional value consists of the affective states or feelings that are generated by the experience of consumption (Roig *et al*., 2005). Products and services usually carry an emotional value that offers intrinsic enjoyment and functionality (Holbrook and Hirshman, 1982; Sheth *et al*., 1991). When consumers use a positive country-related product, it implies they attach psychological meaning to a product (Smith and Colgate, 2007). Hedonic value from sportswear goods creates feeling and emotions such as in restaurant and retails focuses on ambiance, aroma and mood and tone. Therefore the results shows that US design and Japanese-made portray 'feel good' emotion for Thai consumers. This research on country image in relation to sportswear products reveals that the consumer attaches stronger emotion to the designing country. In the case of a strong emotional value of both COM and COD, the emotional value also increases.

8.7 THE ROLE OF PRODUCT FAMILIARITY ON PURCHASE INTENTION AND CUSTOMER PERCEIVED VALUE

Most studies have been interested in the role of product familiarity in a COO context (Erickson *et al*., 1984; Johansson, 1989; Lee and Ganesh, 1999; Johansson *et al*., 1984). In this research, product familiarity is an indirect effect, and consumers who are familiar or have high knowledge of sports trainers/t-shirts tend to rely on less information on COM and COD (Lee and Lee, 2009). The results show that the effect of product familiarity is no different comparing between the groups of the experiment. However, when there is information about COD or COM, product familiarity is not a factor that consumers consider in the decision process. Moreover, in regard to the interactions of familiarity, COD, COM and involvement, product familiarity is not an influence for Thai consumers on purchase intention, $F(1,588) = 0.61$, $p = 0.14$. However, the interaction effect among COM, COD and product familiarity indicates a significant difference, $F(1, 588) = 7.30$, $p = 0.01$. It reveals that consumers with high familiarity

(expert) tend to portray higher purchase intention than low familiarity consumers (novice).

Product familiarity is described as how much an individual is familiar with a given product category. In addition, the use of familiarity involving COO depends on how consumers use COO information in their purchasing behaviours (Josiassen *et al.*, 2008). According to Ahmed *et al. (*2004), when consumers are not familiar with the product provided, they evaluate that product by using the halo effect and use COO information as an indirect product evaluation (Laroche *et al.*, 2005). In contrast, in regard to consumers that are familiar with the product, the summary construct sets in: Pappu *et al.* (2007) state that if consumers are familiar with a product from a certain country, it can affect how they use the information of country image in evaluations.

Regarding CPV, the result shows that there is no significant difference among product familiarity, COM, COD and product involvement, F (4, 572) = 0.48, p= 0.75. When there is information about COD and COM, product familiarity does not indirectly affect the overall CPV. As well as, the interaction of each CPV dimension, it shows no significant difference.

8.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter concluded the results from the analysis in Chapter 7, with support from previous studies and literature reviews. The findings from the ANOVA suggest that the main effects of COM and COD show significant differences on purchase intention. Moreover, they imply that the interactions among COM, COD and product involvement and their effects on purchase intention show no differences between trainers and t-shirts.

It can be concluded that Thai consumers prefer using COD as the main cue when making decisions. Thus, the comparisons between COM and COD indicate that the US is ranked higher than China for COD, and Japan is ranked higher than China for COM. Moreover, the experiment examined CPV as a dependent variable. The results show that the main effects of COM and COD exhibit significant differences on CPV. However, the MANOVA also investigated each dimension of CPV and indicated that the

interactions among COM, COD and product involvement and their effects on emotional value showed significant differences.

Chapter 9

CONCLUSIONS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the conclusions drawn from the identification of and subsequent research relating to the research problems and describes how the research objectives were met with regard to the relationship of COM, COD, product familiarity and product involvement on purchase intention and CPV.

9.2 RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS

As identified in the research development and literature review, globalisation has had a major impact for production and sourcing industries. Multinational companies, especially in sports and clothing sectors, have suffered from world's economic downturn. In addition, as a result of the challenge of new players and innovative technology introduced to the market, the sporting and activewear industry has undergone massive changes with high wages during the economic crisis. The production and manufacturing of famous brands have moved overseas in order to take advantage of lower costs in labour. COO has gained importance because of consumers' concerns regarding production capability and perceived image.

With the emerging market in Asian countries now rising, demand and market opportunities have doubled as the trend for a health conscious and active lifestyle has begun to alter consumers' lives. Due to the changing economic structure in developing countries, international brands are entering these markets (Batra *et al*., 2000; Ger and Belk, 1996; Saffu and Walker, 2006; Touzani *et al*., 2015). Global trade flows into these markets and offers consumers new levels of expectations on goods, especially desirable Western products. This research intends to unlock this diffusion of bi-national products and to explain the influences on consumer choices. This section presents the research contributions from the investigation of the concepts of COM, COD and CPV in the context of the sportswear industry in Thailand, namely the theoretical, methodological and managerial contributions.

9.2.1 MANAGERIAL CONTRIBUTIONS

The research presents a number of managerial contributions in marketing strategy. These contributions will be of benefit to marketers and companies in evaluating CPV and purchase intention.

- Country image has been extensively documented in multiple conceptualisations (Gotsi *et al.*, 2011) such as country image, product-country image and product. However, questions remain as to how to successfully implement the COO concept in international marketing strategy (Amine *et al.*, 2005). Marketers have to choose from the options whether to leverage country equity to develop a certain image for products (Samiee, 2011). The use of country as a product positioning strategy can psychologically gain the attention from consumers. In some cases, country associations are integrated into product design and packaging for example IKEA's use of blue and yellow to convey its Swedish origin. The type of country associations positively influences a favourable view for US consumers (Samiee, 2011). However, this question leads to the reality if consumers desire Swedish origin in products or not. Consequently, this research contributes to the arguments that consumers are concerned with country associations, with the experimental support.

- The general concept of COO in the research field has been followed by the absence of COD and the combined effects of COM and COD. Country image not only impacts on how consumers perceive a particular country, but also on the interpretation of what they see as the salient cue when they consider a product. It provides a broad knowledge that Thai consumers form perceptions regarding sportswear products that are made in the high developed and emerging countries. Also, the study offers deeper understanding of their purchase intention on products from different levels of COD and COM. This research confirms the contrasting effects between COM and COD and how country image plays an important role in the sportswear industry. The decomposition of COO shows a significant effect for sportswear products, where COD has greater importance than COM; although for products that are designed in developing countries and produced in developed countries, the country that established the brand name is of greater significance. This study provides beneficial knowledge to newly

established companies as well as to existing companies regarding a deeper understanding of consumers' perspectives, in this respect it combines multiple cues such as COM, COD, product involvement and product familiarity, in order to imitate a real-world situation.

- This study contributes to managerial implications for international companies who intend to expand their products to emerging countries. The results provide combining COM ad COD images which provide eight conditions for companies to understand consumer perceptions.

- COO studies are important when studying Asia counties like Thailand. Since it is a representative of Asian countries that share similarity in cultures, beliefs, values and lifestyle. In Asian society the concept of status reflects on consumers' choices of products that represent social status (Weiermair and Mathies, 2004). Research of the subject of COM and COD provides a comparison of consumer perceptions on sportswear from different countries (high/low). In addition, sportswear apparel has a similar function as fashion clothing (Bouchet *et al*., 2013). The collectivism belief plays the role of shaping Thai society in attitudes and perceptions toward appearances (Weiermair and Mathies, 2004). Because of cultural differences, studies conducted in Western countries cannot be adapted in Thailand. Given the importance of country-related information, it is beneficial for international companies to select the appropriate country via which promote their products. The results from single-cue and multi-cue studies indicate that more developed countries are more favourable than less developed countries on all CPV dimensions and purchase intention. In the emerging market where the number of imported products is increasing, consumers distinguish bi-national products based on the image of country, which can be either positive or negative. Understanding the importance of country image benefits branding and manufacturing strategy. Companies might seek to use associations between COD and their brands to reinforce brand perception. In the case of products with a negative country image, marketers should employ strategies that minimize country information and emphasise on other characteristics of the product.

- Thailand has experienced a recent progression as the centre of ASEAN community and as a fashion hub. Moreover, Thai consumers are becoming more demanding and knowledgeable. This study helps to position sportswear products in the Thai market, which has a growing number of consumers purchasing more and more sporting goods because of the trend for a health-conscious lifestyle. Support from the government is also the key to boost sales of sportswear apparel and sports equipment; recently, the Ministry of Tourism and Sports of Thailand (2012) announced full support for Thai people to engage in sports and fitness because of participation in the Olympics and ASEAN Games. This changing lifestyle allows sportswear sales to grow every year. However, there is a need to study what inspires consumers to purchase products and what factor is the most important factor to consider.

- In the global market, research has shown that perceived value is recognised as a powerful concept for managing customer behaviour (Graf and Mas, 2008). The study of perceived value can be applied in building a relationship between a company and consumers of its products. In the competitive market, particularly sportswear, it is highly significant to understand consumer value. Value creation has been practiced for a long time, but creating country image as the value creation in the sportswear industry is still new. If such value exists then it is likely that consumers will have a preference for a particular brand or product as a result of this value. Creating value refers to generating differentiation from other similar products/brands. In the emerging market, consumers are likely to purchase product from countries that convey symbolic meanings. The importance of COD and COM image emphasise a strong influence on fashion goods, especially sportswear products. This research reveals that international firms should utilise country-related information strategically in order to create consumer value.

In a marketing perspective, value gives a better understanding on customers' needs and behaviours, it also aids the marketer to make more accurate management decisions. The development of value in this study has focused on quality, social, price and emotional values. The emphasis of value and country

image can be applied in marketing strategy, manufacturing and branding. In every industry, establishing a good image for a brand is an important strategy. If customers have a positive image on both the country that established the brand and the country of manufacture it can convey an overall positive image of the product.

9.2.2 THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

This research contributes a decomposition of COO, conducted in the developing country, Thailand. There is a scarcity of research regarding the context of the country image of a developing country from its consumers' perspectives. Therefore, from this study, Thailand can be added to the existing body of COO research. Findings from different contexts give interesting conclusions of how country image may have influence in other cultures. This research provides a strong theoretical contribution of how the research of COO can be examined using other variables and contexts.

This research investigates both product and product-country images, it depicts country image in both constructs in a particular product category (sportswear). There are few researches that have extended country image in both effects. The evaluation of both images indicates that country images provide two major functions: halo effect and summary construct.

The framework construct of COO was studied by decomposing into COM and COD. Past studies are based on the 'made-in' label, which refer to COM constructs. Therefore, Since a multi-cue construct was proposed, there was a requirement for COO to be investigated. The results of COO studies vary, due to their product categories and targeted consumers. The constructs of COO have received considerable attention due to their role in lowering trade barriers between nations (Dinnie, 2003). Countries can be used as a competitive advantage and improve consumer attitude. The development of COO as proposed by Thakor and Kohli (1996) on product-place image, which is at the centre of this thesis, is considered a useful construct in terms of richness of country stereotypes and their connotations. The examination of product country image was taken into account in this the research, with significant findings.

Extant knowledge in the COO studies is based on quality perception; however, this research uses the model of CPV to investigate the effects of country image and product involvement. The findings advocate to the main the importance of using country to communicate to consumers. The experiments demonstrate the strong effects of country image on CPV. This means that the congruence in country images can positively influence perceived value.

Customer satisfaction research has shown that there are conflicting results of high satisfaction in combination with declining market share (Eggert and Ulaga, 2002; Gale, 1994; Jones and Sasser, 1995). Researchers have argued that the satisfaction construct does not taken into account price or costs. Consequently, the value construct was proposed. This research covered the literature of value, which posits that consumer value has a behavioural outcome (Eggert and Ulaga, 2002). CPV has its roots in social psychology, before being developed in marketing research (Holbrook, 1994). The concept has evolved from uni-dimensional conceptualisation to multi- dimensional conceptualisation; the essence of the value construct contributes to the confirmation of the relationship between country image and perceived value. The results show that a positive country image leads to a higher customer perceived value.

9.2.3 METHODOLOGICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

A quantitative approach was adopted in this research, it verified the usefulness of employing experimental approach. The measurement of scales, validity and reliability were tested and refined. Also, wordings and question statements were adapted from the relevant literature review. As the result, the reliability test (Cronbach's alpha) was shown to be satisfied. One contribution of this research is to provide a modified scale for later research.

Moreover, experimental research is becoming more widespread in business research because of the manipulation between variables, which a technique of isolating variables that helps to determine the relationship between cause and effect (Neelankavil, 2007). This study's experimental research offered an analysis of the powerful effect of COD

and COM images. The results between-subjects show that COD and COM images produce significant effects for different experimental groups. The experiment gives confidence in validity of the results because each group was randomly assigned and received equally planned intervention from a researcher.

9.3 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

9.3.1 LIMITATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH

The first limitation is the focus on the sportswear industry, limiting the results to only one industry. It offers a snapshot of Thai consumers' opinions on their preferences and intentions. The investigation of COM and COD images in the thesis might not be applicable to other sectors. Since the context of this research, Thailand's sportswear industry, provides extensive details of the relationship of COM and COD on purchase intention and customer perceived value, it cannot be applied to Western consumers. The nature of this thesis is to understand consumers from developing countries. The results of this study cannot be assumed to be representative of consumers internationally. But, it will be of interest to see if this research can be replicated in other contexts. Since the sportswear industry in Thailand is growing extensively, this study acknowledges that it is important to investigate this industry.

The findings from this research is not valid for other product categories such as computers, electronics or household appliances. Fashion consumption is usually associated to the brand and COM because these cues are easier to identify more than complex products (e.g. cars, computers or mobile phones). These products correspond to different levels of financial risk, technological complexity and social distinction (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006). Hence, the results from this research are not applicable to other types of products.

The second limitation is the restricted timeframe and resources. Since this research is conducted by experimental research, developing the procedure and the controlled environment is time consuming. Since it is a field experiment, there are a lot of uncontrollable situations, for instance distracting surroundings and the effort of a self-administered questionnaire. Due to the procedure of the experiment, it requires

237

participation and communication between a researcher and respondents. Some respondents take more time to understand to the situation given, it is mentioned in Chapter 6 (methodology) that the average time spent for each experiment is up to 10–20 minutes; however, some respondents need a longer period than that.

The third limitation is due to the generalisability of the findings, which heavily related to university students who live in Bangkok. This sample may differ within other occupations. The results may not be representative of the whole population of Bangkok. However, research often uses university students as experimental subjects because of convenience and considerable practicality (Zikmund *et al*., 2013). Some studies that require specific occupations, such as a certain company's employees or subjects with specific knowledge, are not suitable for using students as the representatives; in this research, it is acceptable to have a large number of students in the experiment.

9.3.2 DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The sheer volume of COO studies has shown that there is much to learn about COO regarding to its effects. The research can also be investigated by adopting a different model. The research considers two dependent variables: purchase intention and customer perceived value. Perceived value can be investigated as the antecedent of purchase intention or as the consequence of after purchase intention. However, Sweeney and Soutar (2001) mention that value is formed at any stage. Previous studies have not focussed on the investigation of the influence of country image on perceived value. Future research can adapt perceived value as an antecedent or can investigate perceived value as the result of purchase intention. In addition, the methodology of the research can be conducted by using a qualitative approach, which may benefit the results in different directions and provide more insight details. The results of this research provide a critical account of country image effects, it would be noteworthy if group-focus or in-depth interview was the research strategy.

Regarding the investigation of COM and COD images on Thai's consumers' purchase intentions and perceived value, this research can be extended to explore other cultures; with an aim to acquire the relationship of different levels of COM and COM images,

future research can vary in using the effects of brand equity. Brand equity is an important concept in a marketing context. Brands can enhance consumers' confidence and beliefs and so their buying behaviour (Aaker, 1990). Brand name is also an extrinsic cue; many researches consider brand name as a product cue. The research of Hui and Zhou (2003) studies the influence of COO on different levels of brand equity and the congruence of brand name information regarding products. This thesis only considers COM and COD image information.

The investigation of consumer ethnocentrism (CE) has been associated with COO studies. This topic has been introduced from other disciplines, for instance psychology and sociology (Balabanis *et al*., 2002; Jimenez and Martin, 2010). It describes the emotional attachment to a person's own country, moreover, it is a domestic defensive behaviour that is a significant variable in COO studies. Therefore, future studies can focus on CE and consumer preference between foreign and domestic products.

9.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focussed on the research contributions namely, managerial, theoretical and methodology implications. Following, the research limitations and suggesting future research directions.

REFERENCES

Aaker, D.A. (1995): Building strong brand. The Free Press, New York

Abdelkader, O.A. (2015). Influences of Country-Of-Origin on Perceived Quality & Value According to Saudi Consumers of Vehicles. International Journal of Marketing Studies. 7(1), pp. 93-105.

Abraham, A. and Patro, S., (2014). 'Country-of-origin' Effect and Consumer Decision-making. Management and Labour Studies, 39(3), pp. 309-318.

Adina, C., Gabriela, C. and Roxana-Denisa, S. (2015). Country-of –origin effects on perceived brand positioning, presented at 2nd Global Conference on Business, Economics, Management and Tourism, 30-31 October 2014, Prague, Czech Republic, pp. 422-427.

Agarwal, J. and Kamakura, W.A. (1999). Country of origin: A competitive advantage?. International Journal of Research in Marketing. 16, pp.255-267.

Agarwal, S. and Sikri, S. (1999). Country image: consumer evaluation of product category extension. International Marketing Review. 13(4). pp. 23-39.

Agarwal, S. and Teas, R. K. (2001). Perceived Value: Mediating Role of Perceived Risk. Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 9(4), pp.1-14.

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

Ahmed, S.A. and d'Astous, A. (2004). "Perceptions of countries as producers of consumer goods: a t-shirt study in China", Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management, 8(2), pp. 187-200.

Ahmed, S.A. and d'Astous, A. (2008). Antecedents, moderators and dimensions of country-of-origin evaluations. International Marketing Review. 25(1), pp.75-106.

Ahmed, S.A., d'Astous, A. and Eljabri, J., (2002a),"The impact of technological complexity on consumers' perceptions of products made in highly and newly industrialised countries", International Marketing Review, 19(4). pp. 387 – 407.

Ahmed, Z.U., Johnson, J.P., Ling, C.P., Fang, T.W. and Hui, A.K. (2002b). "Country-of-origin and brand effects on consumers' evaluations of cruise lines", International Marketing Review, 19(2/3), pp.279-303.

Ahmed, Z.U., Johnson, J.P., Yang, X. and Fatt, C.K. (2004). "Does country of origin matter for low involvement products?", International Marketing Review, 21(1), pp. 102-120.

Ajzen, I. (2005). Attitudes, Personality and Behavior. 2nd ed. Berkshire: Open University Press.

Alba, J. and Hutchinson, J.W. (1987). "Dimensions of consumer expertise". Journal of Consumer Research, 13(4), pp.411-415.

Al-Ekam, J.M.E., Mat, N.K.N., Salleh, S.M., Baharom, N.B., The, T.R.B.T., Noh, N.A.B. and Hussain, N.E.B. (2012). The Influence of Trust, Advertising, Family on Intention and Actual Purchase of Local Brand in Yemen. American Journal of Economics, Special Issue, pp.64-68.

Allen, M., Titsworth, S. and Hunt, S.K. (2009). Research in Communication. California: Sage.

Allred A., Chakraborty G. and Miller S.J. (1999). Measuring images of developing countries: a scale development study. Journal of Euromarketing, 8(3), pp. 29–49.

Almonte, J., Falk, C., Skaggs, R. and Cardenas, M. (1995). ''Country-of-origin Bias among High Income Consumers in Mexico: an Empirical Study'', Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 8(2), pp.27-44.

Al-Sulaiti, K.I. and Baker, M.J., (1998). Country of origin effects: a literature review. 16(3), pp.150-199.

Amine, L.S., Chao, M.C.H. and Arnold, M.J. (2005). Executive Insights: Exploring the practical effects of country of origin, animosity and price-quality issues: Two case studies of Taiwan and Acer in China. Journal of International Marketing. 13(2), pp. 114-150,

Amonini, C., Keogh, J. and Sweeney, J.C. (1998). 'The dual nature of country-of-origin effects: a study of Australian consumers' evaluations', Australasian Marketing Journal, 6(2),pp.13–27.

Andreff, W. and Szymanski, S. (2006). Handbook of Economics of Sport. Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar.

Andrew, D.P.S., Pedersen, P.M. and McEvoy, C.D., (2011). Research Method and Design in Sport Management. Champaign: Human Kenetics.

Andrews, J.C., Durvasula, S. and Akhter, S.H. (1990). A Framework for Conceptualizing and Measuring the Involvement Construct in Advertising Research. 19(4), pp. 27-40.

Anholt, S. (2005). Brand New Justice: How branding places and products can help the developing world. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Ar, A. A. and Kara, A.(2014). Emerging market consumers' country of product image, trust and quality perceptions of global brands made-ins China. Journal of Product and Brand Management. 23(7). pp. 491-503.

Archarya, C. and Elliott, G. (2001). An Examination of the Effects of 'Country-of-Design' and 'Country-of-Assembly' on Quality Perceptions and Purchase Intention. Australasian Marketing Journal. 9(1), pp. 61- 75.

Armstrong, G. et al., (2009). Marketing: An Introduction. Essex: Pearson.

Arora, A.S., McIntyre, J.R., Wu, J. and Arora, A. (2015). Consumer Response to Diffusion Brands and Luxury Brands: The Role of Country of Origin and Country of Manufacture. Journal of International Consumer Marketing. 27(3), pp. 3-26.

Aulia, S.A, Sukati, I. and Sulaiman, Z. (2016). A Review: Customer Perceived Value and its dimension. Asian Journal of social science and management studies. 3(2), pp. 150-162.

Aurifeille, J., Svizzero, S. and Tisdell, C. A., (2007). Globalization and Partnerships: Features of Business Alliances and International Cooperation. New York: Nova Science.

Azadi, R., Yousefi, B. and Eydi, H. (2015). The Impact of brand country-of –origin the formation of brand equity in the apparel industry. Universal Journal of Industrial and Business Management. 3(3), pp. 67-73.

Babbie, E., (2011). The Basic of Social Research. 5th ed. Belmont: Wadsworth.

Babin, B.J., Darden, W.R. and Griffin, M. (1994), Work and/or fun: measuring hedonic and utilitarian shopping value. Journal of Consumer Research. 20, pp. 644-56.

Bailey, K.D., (1994). Methods of Social Research. 4th edu. New York: The Free Press.

Bajpai, N., (2011). Business Research Methods. New Delhi: Dorling Kindersley.

Baker, M.J. and Ballington, L. (2002) Country of origin as a source of competitive advantage. Journal of Strategic Marketing, 10(2), 157-168.

Bannister, J.P. and Saunders, J.A. (1978). UK Consumers' Attitudes towards Imports: The Measurement of National Stereotype Image", European Journal of Marketing, 12(8), pp.562 – 570.

Bangkok Population (2015). Available at: <http://worldpopulationreview.com/world-cities/bangkok-population/>Accessed 1 Feb (2016).

Barnes, L. and Greenwood, G.L. (2010). Fast fashion in the retail store environment, International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management, 38(10), pp. 760 – 772.

Batra, R., Ramaswamy, V., Alden, D.L., Steenkamp, J.-B.E.M., & Ramachander, S. (2000). Effects of brand local/non-local origin on consumer attitudes in developing countries. Journal of Consumer Psychology, forthcoming

Batra, S. K. and Kazmi, S.H.H. (2008). Consumer Behaviour: Text and Cases. 2nd ed. New Delhi: Excel.

Bearden, W. O., Netemeyer, R. G. and Haws, K.L., (2011). Handbook of Marketing scales: Multi-item Measures for Marketing and Consumer Behaviour Research. 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bearden, W.O. and Shimp, T.A. (1982), "The Use of Extrinsic Cues to Facilitate Product Adoption," Journal of Marketing Research, 19, pp.229-239.

Becker, A. (2008). Electronic Commerce: Concepts, Methodologies, Tools and Application. Hershey: IGI Global.

Bei, L. T. and Chiao, Y. C. (2006). The determinants of customer loyalty: An analysis of intangible factors in three service industries. International Journal of Commerce and Management. 16(3/4), pp.162–177.

Belk, R.W., (2006). Handbook of Qualitative Research Methods in Marketing. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Belleau, B. D, Summers, T.A., Xu, Y. and Pinel, R. (2007). Theory of Reasoned Action: Purchase Intention of Young Consumers. Clothing and Textiles Research Journal. 25(3). Pp. 244-257.

Beneke, J., Flynn, R., Greig, T., & Mukaiwa, M. (2013). The influence of perceived product quality, relative price and risk on customer value and willingness to buy: a study of private label merchandise. Journal of Product & Brand Management, 22(3), pp.218-228.

Beng-Huat, C. (2000). Consumption in Asia: Lifestyles and identities. London: Routledge.

Bertoli, G. and Resciniti, R. (2012). International marketing and Country of Origin Effect: The Global Impact of 'made in Italy'. Chetenham: Edward Elgar.

Bhaskaran, S. and Sukumaran, N. (2007), Contextual and methodological issues in COO studies, Marketing Intelligence & Planning. 25(1), pp. 66 – 81.

Bilkey, W.J. and Nes, E. (1982). Country-of-origin effects on product evaluations. Journal of international Business Studies, 13, pp.89-99.

Bloemer, J., Brijs, K. and Kasper, H. (2009), The CoO-ELM model: A theoretical framework for the cognitive processes underlying country of origin-effects. European Journal of Marketing, 43(1), pp. 62 – 89.

Boksberger, P.E. and Melsen, L. (2011). Perceived value: a critical examination of definitions,concepts and measures for the service industry. Journal of Services Marketing, 25(3), pp.229-240.

Boslaugh, S., (2013). Statistics in a Nutshell: A Desktop Quick Reference. Sebastopol: O'Reilly Media.

Bouchet, P., Hillairet, D. and Bodet, G. (2013). Sport brands. New York: Rouledge.

Bravo, R. Fraj, E. andMartinez, E. (2007). Intergenerational influences on the dimensions of young customer-based brand equity. Journal of Young Consumer. 8(1), pp. 58-64.

Brennan, L. and Mavondo, F., (2000). Involvement: an unfinishes story?. ANZMAZ Conference paper, pp.132-137.

Brislin, R.W., (1970). Back-Translation for Cross Cultural Research. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 1(3), pp.185-216.

Brucks, M. (1985), "The effect of product class knowledge on information search behavior", Journal of Consumer Research, 12(1), pp.1-16.

Browne, B.A. and Kaldenberg, D.O. (1997). Conceptualizing self-monitoring: links to materialism and product involvement. Journal of Consumer Marketing. 14(1), pp. 31-44.

Bryman, A. and Bell, E., (2015) Business Research Methods. 4th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

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

Bruwer, J. and Buller, C. (2013). Product involvement, brand loyalty, and country-of-origin brand preferences of Japanese wine consumers. Journal of wine research. 24(1), pp. 38-58.

Bucholz, L.M. and Smith, R.E. (1991). The role of Consumer involvement determining cognitive response to broadcast advertising. Journal of Advertising, 20(1), pp.4-17.

Burns, R.B. and Burns, R.A. (2008). Business Research Methods and Statistics Using SPSS. London: Sage.

Buttle, F. and Maklan, S. (2015). Customer Relationship Management: Concepts and Technologies. 3rd ed. Abingdon: Routledge.

Cai, Y and Shanon, R. (2012). Personal values and mall shopping behavior: The mediating role of attitude and intention among Chinese and Thai consumers. Australasian Marketing Journal, 20, pp.30-47.

Carr, M.G. and Newell, L.H. (2014). Guide to fashion entrepreneurship: the plan, the product, the process. New York: Bloomsbury.

Carvalho, S.W., Samu, S. and Sivaramakrishnan, S. (2011). The effect of country-related brand associations and product attributes on attitude toward unfamiliar foreign brands: A schema congruity perspective. Journal of International consumer marketing. 23(2), pp. 135-150.

Cant, M.C. Strydom, J.M., Jooste, C.J. and Plessis, P. J., (2007). Marketing Management. 5th ed. Cape Town: Juta & Co.

Catalyst, (2014). Global Sportswear Sector. Available at: <http://www.catalystcf.co.uk/research-documents/(2014)/13-global-sportswear-sector-report-spring-(2014).pdf> (Accessed: 18 March 2016).

Celsi, R.L. and Olson, J.C. (1988), "The role of involvement in attention and comprehension processes",Journal of Consumer Research, 15(2), pp. 210.

Cervino, J. Sanchez, J. and Cubillo, J. (2005). "Made in Effect, Competitive Marketing Strategy and Brand Performance: An Empirical Analysis for Spanish Brands." The Journal of American Academy of Business 6(2): 237-243.

Chang, C. and Dibb, S. (2012). Reviewing and conceptualising customer-perceived value. The Marketing Review, 12(3), pp.253-274.

Chang, T. and Wildt, A.R. (1994). Price, Product Information, and Purchase Intention: An Empirical Study. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science. 22(1), pp. 16-27.

Chao, P., (1993). Partitioning Country of Origin Effects: Consumer Evaluations of a Hybrid Product. Journal of International Business studies. 24(2), pp.291-306.

Chao. P. (2001). The Moderating Effects of Country of Assembly, Country of Parts, and Country of Design on Hybrid Product Evaluations. Journal of Advertising. 30(4), pp. 67-81.

Chattalas, M., Kramer, T. and Takada, H. (2008). The impact of national stereotypes on the country of origin effect: A conceptual framework. International Marketing Review, 25(1), pp.54-74.

Chaudhuri, A. (2000). A Macro analysis of the relationship of product involvement and information search: the role of risk. Journal of Marketing, 64, pp.1-12.

Chen, W. (2013). Perceived value in community supported agriculture (CSA) A preliminary conceptualization, measurement, and nomological validity. British Food Journal, 115(10), pp.1428-1453.

Chen, Y. and Su, Y. (2012). Do country-of-manufacture and country-of-design matter to industrial brand equity?. Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing, 27(1), pp.57-68.

Chen, Y., Su, Y. and Lin, F. (2011). Country-of-origin effects and antecedents of industrial brand equity. Journal of Business Research. 64, pp. 1234-1238.

Chi, T. (2013), The effects of contingency factors on perceived values of casual sportswear, Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics. 25(2), pp. 249 – 262.

Chi, T. and Kilduff, P.P.D. (2011). "Understanding consumer perceived value of casual sportswear: An empirical study". Journal of Retailing and consumer Services, 18, pp.422-429.

Chowdhury, H. K. (2009) 'An Examination of Effects of Partitioned Country of Origin on Consumer Product Quality Perceptions' International Journal of Consumer Studies, 33(4), pp.496-502.

Clarke, I., Owens, M. and Ford, J.B. (2000). Integrating country of origin into global marketing strategy: A review of US marking statutes. International Marketing Review. 17(2), pp.114 – 126.

Claret, A., Guerrero, L., Aguirre, E., Rincón, L., Hernández, M.D., Martínez, I., Peleteiro, J.B., Grau, A. and Rodríguez-Rodríguez, C. (2012). Consumer Preferences for Sea Fish using Conjoint Analysis: Exploratory Study of The Importance of Country of Origin, Obtaining Method, Storage Conditions and Purchasing Price. Journal of Food Quality and Preference. 26(2), pp. 259–266.

Coldwell, D and Herbst, F.J., (2004). Business Research. Cape Town: Juta and Co. Ltd.

Collins, H., (2010). Creative Research: The Theory and Practice of Research for the Creative Industries. Lausanne: AVA.

Coombs, D.S. and Batchelor, B. (2013). American History through American Sports: From Colonial Lacrosse to Extreme Sports. Santa Barbara, CA: Praeger.

Cooper, M, Vafadari, K. and Hieda, M., (2015). Current Issue and Emerging Trends in Medical Tourism. Hershey: IGI Global.

Cordell, V. V. (1992). Effects of Consumer Preferences for Foreign Sourced Products. Journal of International Business Studies, 23(2), pp.251-269.

Creswell, J.W., (2014). Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches. California: Sage.

Earl, P.E. and Kemp, S. (2002). The Elgar Companion to Consumer Research and Economic Psychology. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Eggert, A. and Ulaga, W. (2002) Customer perceived value: a substitute for satisfaction in business markets?. Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, Vol. 17 (2/3), pp.107 – 118.

D'Astous, A. and Ahmed, S.A. (1999). The importance of country images in the formation of consumer product perceptions. International Marketing Review. 16(2), pp. 108-125.
d'Astous, A., Voss, Z.G., Colbert, F., Caru, A., Caldwell, M. and Courvoisier, F. (2008). Product-country images in the arts: a multi-country study". International Marketing Review. 25(4), pp. 379-403.

Dahlen et al., (2010). Marketing Communication: A brand Narrative Approach. West Sussex: John Wiley& Son.

Davis, H., Douglas, S., and Silk, A., (1981). Measure Unreliability: A Threat to Cross National Marketing Research. Journal of Marketing 45 (2), pp. 98-109.

Dawar, N., and Parker, P. (1994) 'Marketing Universals: Consumers' Evaluations Use of Brand Name, Price, Physical appearance and Retailer Reputation as Signals of Product Quality', Journal of Marketing, 58(2), pp.81-95.

Day, G. S. (1970). Buyer attitudes and brand choice. New York: Free Press.

Day, E. and Crask, M.R. (2000). Value Assessment: the Antecedent of Customer Satisfaction. Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior. 13, pp. 52- 60.

Dayal-Gulti, A. and Lee, A.Y. (2004). Kellogg on China: Strategies for Success. Evanston, IL: Northwestern University Press.

De Wulf, K., Odekerken-Schröder, G. and Lacobucci, D. (2001) "Investments in Consumer Relationships: a Cross-Country and Cross-Industry Exploration." Journal of Marketing, 65(4), pp.33-51.

Dhar, R. and Wertenbroch, K. (2000). Consumer Choice Between Hedonic and Utilitarian Goods. Journal of Marketing Research. 37, pp. 60-71.

Dholakia, U.M. (1997), An investigation of the relationship between perceived risk and product involvement, Advances in Consumer Research, 24(1), pp. 159-67.

Dholakia, U.M. (1998), Involvement response models of joint effects: an empirical test and extension. Advances in Consumer Research, 25(1), pp. 499-506.

Diamantopoulo, A.,Schlegelmilch, B. and Palihawadana, D. (2011).The relationship between country-of-origin image and brand image as drivers of purchase intentions. International Marketing Review. 28(5) pp. 508 - 524

Diamond, J, Diamond, E. and Litt, S. (2015). Fashion Retailing: a multi-channel approach. 3rd ed. New York: Fairchild.

Dichter, E (1962). "The World Customer," Harvard Business Review, 40, July-August.

Dikcius,V. and Stankeviciene, G. (2010). Perception of country of vrand origin and country of product manufacturing among Lithuanian and Emigrants from Lithunia. Organisations and Markets in Emerging Economies, 1(2), pp.108-122.

Dinnie, K. (2003). Place branding: Overview of an emerging literature. Place Branding and Public Diplomacy, 1(1), pp. 10, pp. 106-110.

Dinnie, K. (2008). Nation Branding: Concepts, issues, practice. Abingdon: Routledge.

Dinnie, K. (2016). Nation Branding: Concepts, issues, practice. 2nd ed. Abingdon: Routledge.

Dodds, W. B. and Monroe, K.B., (1985). The Effect of Brand and Price Information on Subjective Product Evaluations. Advances in Consumer Research, 12, pp.85-90.

Dogra, B. and Ghuman, K. (2008). Rural Marketing: Concepts and Practices. New Delhi: Tata McGraw-Hill.

Drossos, D.A. et al., (2014). The effects of product involvement and impulse buying on purchase intentions in mobile text advertising, 13, pp.423-430.

Dywer, L. and Wicken, E. (2013). Event tourism and Cultural Tourism: Issue and Debates. Abingdon: Routledge.

Edberg, M. C. (2010). Essential Reading in Health Behaviour: Theory and Practice. Sudbury, MA: Jones and Barlett.

Elliott, G.R. and Cameron, R.C. (1994). Consumer perception of product quality and the country-of-origin effect. Journal of International Marketing. 2(2), pp. 49-62.

Eriksson, P., & Kovalainen, A. (2003). Qualitative methods in business research SAGE Publications Ltd.

Ettenson, R. and Gaeth, G. (1991). Consumer perceptions of hybrid (bi-national) products. Journal of Consumer Marketing. 8(4). pp. 13-18.

Ettenson, R. (1993), Brand Name and Country of Origin Effects in the Emerging Market Economies of Russia, Poland and Hungary. International Marketing Review, 10(5). pp.14- 36.

Euromonitor, (2015). Sportswear in Thailand. Euromonitor International. Available at: <http://www.fastmr.com/prod/1060256_sportswear_thailand.aspx?afid=702> (Accessed 1 February (2015).

Eysneck, M.W. (2004). Psychology: An International Perspective. Sussex: Psychology Press.
Eysenck, M.W., (2005). Psychology for AS Level. 3rd ed. Sussex: Psychology Press.

Feinberg, F.M., Kinnear, T.C. and Taylor, J.R., (2013). Modern Marketing Research: Concepts, Methods and Cases. 2nd ed. Mason, OH: Cengage.

Ferreira, A.G. and Coelho, F.J. (2015), Product involvement, price perceptions, and brand loyalty. Journal of Product & Brand Management, 24(4), pp.349 - 364

Fetscherin, M. and Toncar, M., (2009). An experiment study of consumer's brand personality perceptions. International Marketing Review, 27(2), pp. 161-178.

Field, A. (2013). Discovering Statistics using IBM SPSS Statistics. 4th ed. London: Sage.

Flavian, C. Guinaliu, M. and Gurrea, R. (2005). The influence of familiarity and usability on loyalty to online journalistic services: the role of user experience. Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services. 13, pp. 363-375.

Forsythe, S., Kim, J. O. and Petee, T. (1999). Product cue usage in two Asian markets: Across cross-cultural comparison. Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 16, pp.275-292.

Foxall, G.R. and Pallister, J.G. (1998). Measuring purchase decision involvement for financial services: comparison of the Zaichkowsky and Mittal scale. International Journal of Bank Marketing. 16(5), pp. 180-194.

Furnham, A., (2005). The psychology of Behavior at Work: the Individual in the Organization. Sussex: Psychology Press.

Fuss, F.K., Subic, A., Strangwood, M. and Mehta, R. (2014). Routledge Handbook of Sports Technology and Engineering. New York: Routledge.

Gale, B., (1994). Managing customer value: Qualtiy and ervice that Customers Can See. New York: The Free Press.

Gallarza, M.G. and Saura, I.G., (2006). Value dimensions, perceived value, satisfaction and loyalty: an investigation of university students' travel behaviour. Tourism Management, 27, pp.437-452.

Garvin, D.A. (1988). Managing Quality: The Strategic and Competitive Edge. New York: The Free Press.

Gay, L.R., and Diehl, P.L. (1992), Research methods for Business and Management, Macmillan Publishing Co., New York, NY.

Gerke, A., Chanavat, N. and Benson-Rea, M., (2014). How Can Country-of-Origin image be leveraged to create global sporting goods brands?. Sports Management Review, 17, pp.174-189.

Gilbert, N. (2001). Researching Social life. 2nd ed. London: Sage.

Gillespie, K. and Hennessey, H. D., (2011). Global Marketing. 3rd ed. Mason: South-Western Cengage.

Godey, B., Pederzoli, D., Aiello, G., Donvito, R., Chan, P., Oh, H., Singh, R., Skorobogatykh, I.I., Tsuchiya, J. and Weitz, B. (2012). Brand and country-of-origin effect on consumers' decision to purchase luxury products. Journal of Business Reserch. 65, pp. 1461-1470.

Gogoi, B. (2013), Study of antecedents of purchase intention and its effect on brand loyalty of private label brand of apparel, International Journal of Sales & Marketing, 3(2), pp.73-78.

Goldsmith, R.E. and Emmert, J. (1991) 'Measuring Product Category Involvement: A Multitrait-multimethod Study', *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 23(4), pp. 363-371.

Gotsi M., Lopez, C. and Andriopoulos, C. (2011). Building country image through corporate image: exploring the factors that influence the image transfer, Journal of Strategic Marketing, 19(3), pp. 255-272.

Graf, A. and Maas, P. (2008). Customer value from a customer perspective: a comprehensive review, 58, pp.1-20.

Gratton, C. and Jones, I. (2004). Research Methods for sport studies. London: Routledge.

Gray, D. E. (2014). Doing Research in the Real World. 3rd ed. London: Sage.

Gronroos, C. (1996). Relationship marketing: strategic and tactical implications. Management Decision, Vol. 34 (3), pp.5 – 14.

Guba, E.G. and Lincoln, Y.S. (1994). 'Competing paradigms in qualitative research' in Handbook of Qualitative Research, eds. N.K. Denxin and Y.S. Lincoln, Sage, Thousand Oaks, pp.105-117.

Gupta, D. D. (2011). Tourism Marketing. New Delhi: Doring Kindersley.

Gürhan-Canli Z., Maheswaran D. (2000). Cultural variations in country of origin effects. Journalof Marketing Research, 37(3), pp. 309–317.

Gursoy, D. (2003). Prior Product Knowledge and Its Influence on the Traveler's Information Search Behavior, Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 10(3-4), pp. 113-131.

Guthrie, G. (2010). Basic Research methods: An entry to social science research. New Delhi: Sage.

Gutman, J. (1982). A Means-End Chain Model Based on Consumer Categorization Processes." Journal of Marketing. 46(2), pp. 60-72.

Ha, J. and Jang, S. (2010). Perceived values, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions: The role of familiarity in Korean restaurants. International Journal of Hospitality Management. 29, pp. 2-13.

Hair, J.F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R.L., and Black, W.C. (1995). Multivariate Data Analysis With Readings. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

Hair, J.F., Celsi, M.W., Money, A.H, Samouel, P. Page, M.J. (2011). Essentials of Business Research Methods. 2nd ed. New York: M.E. Sharpe.

Hall, R. (2008). Applied Social Research: Planning designing and conducting a real-world research. South Yarra: Palgrave.

Hamzaoui, L., and Merunka D. (2006) 'Consumers' Product Evaluations in Emerging Markets Does Country of Design, Country of Manufacture, or Brand Image Matter?' International Marketing Review, 24(4), pp.409–426.

Hamzaoui-Essoussi, L., and Merunka, D. (2006) 'The Impact of Country of Design and Country of Manufacture on Consumer Perceptions of Bi-national Products' Quality: An Empirical Model based on the Concept of Fit', The Journal of Consumer Marketing, 23(3), pp.145–155.

Hamzaoui-Essoussi, L., Merunka, D. and Bartikowski, B. (2011). Brand Origin and Country of Manufacture Influences on Brand Equity and The Moderating Role of Brand Typicality. Journal of Business Research, 64(9), pp.973-978

Hampson, D.P. and McGoldrick, P.J. (2011). A typology of adaptive shopping patterns in recession, 66, pp. 831-838.

Han, C.M. (1989). Country image: Halo or Summary construct. Journal of marketing research. 26, pp.222-229.

Han, C.M., (1990). Testing the role of country image in consumer choice behaviour. European Journal of Marketing, 26(6). pp.24-40.

Han, H. T., (2010). The Investigation of Country-of-Origin Effect-Using Taiwanese Consumers' Perceptions of Luxury handbags as Example. The Journal of American Academy of Business, 15(2), pp. 66.72.

Hansen, F. and Christensen, S.R. (2007). Emotions, Advertising and Consumer Choice. Oslo: Copenhagen Business School Press.

Hanzaee, K.H. and Khosrozadeh, S. (2011). The Effect of the Country-of-Origin Image, Product Knowledge and Product Involvement on Information Search and Purchase Intention, 8(3), pp.625-636.

Hassan, S. S. and Kaynak E. (2013). Globalization of Consumer Markets: Structures and Strategies. New York: Routledge.

Hatch, J. A., (2002). Doing qualitative research in education settings. New York: State University of New York Press.

Havitz, M and Diamanche, F. (1997). Leisure involvement revisited: Conceptual conundrums and measurement advances. Journal of Leisure Research, 29, pp.245-278.

Haubl, G. and Elrod, T. (1999). The impact of congruity between brand name and country of production on consumer's product quality judgement. International Journal of Research in Marketing. 16(3), pp. 199-215.

Hayes, N., (2000). Foundations of Psychology. 3rd ed. London: Thomson.

Hayes, S. G. and Venkatraman, P. (2016). Material and Technology for Sportswear and Performance Apparel. Boca Raton: CRC.

Heinoen, K. (2004). Reconceptualizing customer perceived value: the value of time and place. Managing Service quality: An international Journal, 14(2/3), pp.205-215.

Heslop, L.A. and Papadopoulos, N. (1993). 'But Who Knows Where or When: Reflections on the Images of Countries and their Products', in N. Papadopoulos and

Heslop L.A. Product and Country Images: Impact and Role in International Marketing. New York: The Haworth Press. pp. 39–76.

Heslop, Louise A., Liefeld, J. and Margorie W. (1987). "An Experimental Study of the Impact of Country-of-Origin Information," in R.E. Turner (ed.), Marketing, Vol 8, Proceedings, of the Administrative Sciences Association of Canada, 179-185.
Herz, M. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2013). Activation of country stereotypes: automaticity, consonance and impact. Journal of the Academic Marketing Science. 41, pp. 400-417.

Hilton, J.L. and von Hippel, W. (1996). Stereotypes. Annual Review of Psychology, 47, pp.237-271.

Hobrook, M.B. and Hischman, E.C. (1982). The Experiential Aspects of Consumption: Consumer Fantasies, Feeling, and Fun. Journal of Consumer Research, 9, pp.132-140.

Holbrook, M.B. and Corfman, K.P., (1985). Quality and value in the consumption experience: phaedrus rides again, in perceived quality. In: Jacoby, J., Olson, J. (eds.) pp.31–57. Lexington Books : Lexington, MA.

Holbrook, M.B., (1994). The Nature of customer value: an Axiology of Services in the Consumption Experience.
Holbrook, M.B., (1999). Consumer Value: a Framework for analysis and research. New York: Routledge.

Hong, S. and Wyer, R.S. (1989). Effects of Country-of-Origin and Product-Attribute Information on product Evaluation: An Information Processing Perspective. Journal of Consumer Research, 16, pp.175-187.

Hoyer, W.D. and Maclnnis, D.J. (2010). Consumer Behavior. 5th ed. Mason, OH: South-Western.

Hu, Y. and Wang, Xin. (2000). County-of-origin Premiums for retailers in international Trades: Evidence from eBay's International market. Journal of Retailing. 86(1), pp.200-2007.

Huber, F., Hermann, A. and Morgan, R.E. (2001). Gaining competitive advantage through customer value oriented management. Journal of Consumer marketing, 18(1), pp.41-53.

Hui, M.K. and Zhou, L. (2001). Country-of-manufacture effects for known brands. European Journal of Marketing. 37(1/2), pp. 133-153.

Hui, M.K. and Zhou, L. (2002). Linking Product Evaluations and Purchase Intention for Country-of-Origin Effects, Journal of Global Marketing, 15(3-4), pp.95-116.

Hussey J. and Hussey, R. (1997). Business Research, a practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students. New York: Palgrave.

Iman, A.H.M. (2006). Basic aspects of Property Market Research. Kuala Lumpur: Muapakat Jaya Percitakan.

Insch, A. and Florek, M. (2008). Prevalence of country of origin associations on the supermarket shelf. International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management, 37(5), pp. 453-471.

Insch, G.S. and McBride, J.B. (2004). The impact of country-of-origin cues on consumer perceptions of product quality: a bi-national test of the decomposed country-of-origin construct. Journal of Business Research, 57(3), pp.256-65.

Ittersum K.V., Candel M.J.J.M, Meulenberg M.T.G. (2003). The influence of the image of a product's region of origin on product evaluation. Journal of Business Research, 56(3), pp. 215-226.

Iyer, G.R. and Kalita, J.K. (1997). The Impact of Country-of-Origin and Country-of Manufacture Cues on Consumer Perceptions of Quality and Value. Journal of Global Marketing, 11(1), pp. 7-28.

Jackson, S.L. (2009). Research Methods and Statistics: A Critical Thinking Approach. 3rd ed. Belmont: Wadsworth.

Jackson, T. and Shaw, D. (2009). Mastering fashion marketing. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillian.

Jacoby, J., Troutman, T., Kuss, A. and Mazursky, D. (1986). Experience and expertise in complex decision making. In Lutz, R.J. and Provo, U.T. (Eds.). Advances in Consumer Research, 13, pp.469-472.

Jain, S.C. and Griffith, D.A. (2011). Handbook of Research in International Marketing. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Jeffe, E.D. and Nebenzahl, I.D. (1984). Alternative Questionnaire Formats for Country Image Studies. Journal of Marketing Research, XXI, pp.463-471.

Jaffe, E.D. and Nebenzahl, I.D. (2006). National Image & Competitive Advantage. Copenhagen: Copenhagen Business School.

Jha, A. S. (2014). Social Research Methods. New Delhi: McGraw Hill.

Jian, W. and Guoqun, F. (2007). The effects of brand origin country and made-in country on consumers' product evaluations and purchase intention. Frontiers business research in China. 1(3), pp. 333-350.

Jiang, P. (2010). Country-of-Manufacture Labeling Effect on Product Quality Evaluations: A Model Incorporating Consumers' Attention. Research in Consumer Behaviour, 12, pp.101-129.

Jimenez, N.H. and Martin, S.S. (2010). The role of country-of-origin, ethnocentrism and animosity in promoting consumer trust: The moderating role of familiarity. International Business Review. 19, pp. 34-45.

Johansson, J.K. (1993), Missing a strategic opportunity: managers' denial of country-of-origin effect, in Papadopoulos, N. and Heslop, L.A. (Eds), Product-Country Images: Impact and Role in International Marketing, International Business Press, New York, pp. 77-86.

Johansson, J. K., Douglas, S.P., and Nonaka, I. (1985). "Assessing the Impact of Country of Origin on Product Evaluations: A New Methodological Perspective,*" Journal of Marketing Research, 22 (November), pp.388-96.

Johansson, J.K and Nebenzahl, I.D. (1986). Multinational production: effect on brand value. Journal of International Business Studies, 17 (Fall), pp.101–126.

Johnson, B. and Christensen, L. (2014). Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Approaches. 5th ed. California: Sage.

Josiassen, A. (2009). Are young consumers still susceptible to the country-of-origin Effect?. Journal of Business systems, Governance and Ethics. 4(2). P.53-63.

Josiassen, A. (2010). Young Australian consumers and the country-of-origin effect: Investigation of the moderating roles of product involvement and perceived product-origin congruency. Australasian Marketing Journal. 18, pp. 23-27.

Josiassen, A., Lukas, B.A., Whitwell, G.J. (2008). Country-of-origin contingencies. International Marketing Review, 25(4), pp.423 – 440.

Jung, H.J., Lee, Y, Kim, H. and Yang, H. (2013). Impacts of country images on luxury fashion brand: facilitating with the brand resonance model. Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management. 18(2), pp. 187-205.

Kabadayi, S. and Lerman, D. (2011). Made in China but sold in at FAO Schwarz: country-of-origin effect and trusting beliefs. International Marketing Review. 28(1), pp. 102-126.

Kahle, L. R. and Kim, C. (2006). Creating Images and the Psychology of marketing Communication. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Kaynak, E., Kucukemiroglu, O. and Hyder, A.S. (2000). Consumers' country-of-origin (COO) perceptions of imported products in homogenous less-developed country. European Journal of Marketing. 34(9/10), pp. 1221-1241.

Kapferer, J.N. and Laurent, G. (1985a). Consumers' involvement profiles: new empirical results. In: Hirschman, E.C., Holbrook, M.B. (Eds.), Advances in Consumer Research 12, Provo UT: Association for Consumer Research, pp.290-295.

Kapferer, J-N. & Laurent, G. (1985b). Consumers' involvement profiles: a new practical approach to consumer involvement. Journal of Advertising Research, 25(6), pp.48-56.

Kapferer, J-N. & Laurent, G. (1993). Further evidence on the consumer involvement profile: five antecedents of involvement. Journal of Marketing Research, 22 (February), pp.41-53.

Kardes, F.R., Cronley, M.L. and Cline, T.W. (2011). Consumer Behaviour. Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage.

Kardes, F.R., Sanbonmatsu, D.M., Cronley, M.L., Houghton, D.C. (2002). Consideration set overvaluation: When impossibly favorable ratings of brands are observed. Journal of Consumer Psychology, 12(4), pp.353–361.

Kasikorn Research Centre (2015), 'Sportswear market increases: Suggest SMEs to sell online. Manager Online, (online) 22 October. Available at: <http://www.manager.co.th/iBizchannel/ViewNews.aspx?NewsID=9580000118450> (Accesses on 1 Feb 2016).

Kasper, E., (2006). Internal Research & Development Markets. Germany: Physica-Verlag.

Katsumata, S. and Song, J. (2016). The reciprocal effects of country-of-origin on product evaluation: An empirical examination of four countries. Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics. 28(1), pp. 92-106.

Kerr, A.W., Hall, H.K. and Kozub, S.A. (2002). Doing Statistics. London: Sage.

Kirmani, A., Sood, S. & Bridges, S. (1999). The ownership effect in consumer response to brand line stretches. Journal of Marketing, 63 (January), pp.88-101.

Klein, J. G., Ettenson, R., & Morris, M. D. (1998). The animosity model of foreign product purchase: An empirical test in the People's Republic of China. Journal of Marketing, 62(1), pp.89-100.

Klenosky, D.B., Gengler, C.E. and Mulvey, M.S. (2009). Understand the factors influencing ski destination choice: A means-end analytic approach (Eds.), Consumer Behaviour in Travel and Tourism. (Chapter3, pp.59-81). New York: Routledge.

Klopper, H.B., Berndt, A., Chipp, K., Ismail, Z., Robert-Lombard, M., Subramani, D., Petzer, D., Hern, L., Saunders, S. and Myers-Smith, P. (2006). Marketing: Fresh Perspective. Cape Town: Pearson.

Knight, G.A. and Calantone, R.J. (2000). A flexible model of consumer county-of-origin perceptions: A cross-cultural investigation. International Marketing Review, 17(2), pp.127-145.

Ko, E., Taylor, C.R., Sunf, H., Lee, J. Wagner, U., Navarro, D. and Wang, F. (2012). Global segmentation usefulness in the sportswear industry. Journal of Business Research, 65, pp.1565-1575.

Koschate-Fischer, N., Diamantopoulos, A. and Oldenkotte, K., (2012). Are consumers really willing to pay more for a favourable country image? A study of country-of-origin effects on willingness to pay, 20(1), pp.19-41.

Kotabe, M and Helsen, K., (2009). The Sage Handbook of International Marketing. London: Sage.

Kothari C.R. (2006). Research Methodology: Methods & Techniques. Delhi: New Age International.

Kotler P., Haider D.H. and Rein I. (1993). Marketing places: attracting investment, industry, and tourism to cities, states, and nations. New York: Free Press.

Kotler, P. and Dubois, B., (1997). Marketing Management. 9th ed. Paris:Publi-Union.
Kotler, P. (1991). Marketing management: Analysis, Planning, Implementation and Control. Englewood, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kotler, P. and Armstrong, G. (2014). Principles of Marketing. Harlow: Pearson.

Kotler, P. and Gertner, D. (2002). Country as brand, product, and beyond: A place marketing and brand management perspective. Journal of Brand Management, 9, pp. 249-261.

Kotler, P. and Keller, K.V. (2009). Marketing management, 13th ed. London: Prentice Hall.

Kotler, P., Keller, K.V., Brady, M., Goodman, M. and Hansen, T. (2009). Marketing Management. Essex: Pearson.

Koubaa, Y. (2008). Country of origin, brand image perception, and brand image structure. Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics. 20(2), pp. 139-155.

Krishnamacharyulu, C.S.G. and Ramakrishnan, L. (2009). Rural Marketing: Text and Cases. New Delhi: Pearson.

Krishnaswamy, K.N., Sivakumar, A.I. and Mathirajan, M. (2006). Management Research Methodology: Integration of Principles, Methods and Techniques. New Delhi: Dorling Kindersley.

Krugman, H.E. (1965). The impact of television advertising: Learning without Involvement. Public Opinion Quarterly. 29, pp. 349-356.

Krupka, Z., Ozrectic-Dosen, D. and Previsic, J. (2014). Impact of Perceived Brand Name Origin on Fashion Brand's Perceived Quality. Acta Polytechnica Hungarica, 11(3) pp.153-166.

Kumar, A., Lee, H. and Kim, Y. (2009). Indian consumers' purchase intention toward a United States versus local brand. Journal of Business Research. 62, pp. 521-527.

Lai, A. W., (1995). Customer Values, Product Benefits and Customer Value: A Consumption Behaviour Approach. Advances in Consumer Research, 22. pp.381- 388.

Lamb, C. W., Hair, J.F., JR. and McDaniel, C., (2012). Essentials of Marketing. Mason: South-Western Cengage.

Lancaster, G. A. and Reynolds, P. (2005). Management of Marketing. Oxford: Routledge.

Lancaster, G., (2005). Research Methods in Management: A Concise introduction to Research in Management and Business Consultancy. Oxford: Elsevier.

Landy, D. and Sigall, H. (1974). Beauty is talent: Task evaluation as a function of the performer's physical attractiveness. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. 29(3), pp. 299-304.

Lantos, G. P. (2011). Consumer Behavior in Action: Real-Life Applications for Marketing Managers. New York: Routledge.

Lapierre, J., Filiatrault, P. and Chebat, J., (1999). Value Strategy Rather Than Quality Strategy: A Case of Business-to-Business Professional Services. Journal of Business Research, 45(2), pp.235-246.

Laroche, M., Papadopoulos, N., Heslop, L. A. and Mourali, M. (2005). The influence of country image structure on consumer evaluations of foreign product. International Marketing Review. 22(1), pp. 96-115.

Larson, C. U. (2010). Persuasion: Reception and Responsibility. 12th ed. Boston, Ma: Wansworth.

Laurent, G., Kapferer, J-N., (1985). Measuring consumers' involvement profiles. Journal of Marketing Research, 22 (February), pp.41-53.

Leao, A.L.M.S., and Mello, S.C.B., (2007). The means-end Approach to understanding customer value of an On-Line Newspapr. Brazilian Administration Review, 4(1), pp.1-20.

Leclerc, F., Schmitt, B.H. and Dube, L.. (1994). "Foreign branding and its effects on product perceptions and attitudes". Journal of Marketing Research, 31 (2): 263-270.

Lee, C., Yoon, Y and Lee, S., (2007). Investigating the relationships among perceived value, satisfaction, and recommendations: The case of the Korean DMZ. Tourism Management, 28(1), pp. 204-214.

Lee, W., Yoon, T. and Lee, B. (2005). The Role of Involvement in Country-of-Origin Effects on Product Evaluation. 17(2/3), pp. 51-72.

Lee, C.K.C., Levy, D.S. and Yap, C.S.F. (2015). How does The Theory of Consumption Values contribute to place identity and sustainable consumption?. International Journal of Consumer Studies, 39, pp.597-607.

Lee, H., Kim, C. and Miller, J. (1992). The relative effects of price, warranty and country of origin on consumer product evaluations. Journal of Global Marketing, 6(1/2), pp.55-80.

Lee, D. and Ganesh, G. (1999). Effects of partitioned country image in the context of brand image and familiarity, International Marketing Review, 16(1), pp. 18 – 41.

Lee, J.K. and Lee, W. (2009). Country-of-Origin Effects on Consumer Product Evaluation and Purchase Intention: The Role of Objective Versus Subjective Knowledge, Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 21(2), pp.137-151.

Lee, R. and Lockshin, L. (2011). Halo effects of tourists' destination image on domestic product perceptions. Australasian Marketing Journal, 19, pp. 7-13.

Lee, W.J., Phau, I. and Roy, R. (2013). 'Bonds' or 'Calvin Klein' Down-under: Consumer Ethnocentric and Brand Country Origin Effects towards Men's Underwear', Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management, 17(1), pp.65-84.

Leech, N. L., Barrett, K.C. and Morgan, G. A. (2005). SPSS for Intermediate Statistics: Use and Interpretations. 2nd ed. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Lew, S. and Sulaiman, Z. (2014). Consumer Purchase Intention toward products Made in Malaysia vs. Made in China: A Conceptual Paper. Social and Behavioural Science, 130, pp.37-45.

Li, Zhan G, L William Murray, and Don Scott. (2000). Global sourcing, multiple country of-origin facets, and consumer reactions. Journal of Business Research, 47(2), pp. 121-33.

Lim, K. and O'Cass, A. (2001). Consumer brand classifications: the assessment of culture-of-origin and country-of-origin. Journal of Product and Brand Management. 10(2), pp. 120-136.

Lin, L. and Chen, C. (2006). The influence of the country-of-origin image, product knowledge and product involvement on consumer purchase decisions: an empirical study of insurance and catering services in Taiwan, 23(5), pp.248-265.

Lin, C.H., Peter, S.J. and Shih, H.Y. (2005). Past progress and future directions in conceptualizing customer perceived value: International Journal of service Industry management. 16(4), pp.318-336.

Lindgreen, A., (2008). Managing Market Relationships: Methodological and Empirical Insights. Surrey: Gower.

Lindgreen, A. and Wynstra, F. (2005). Value in business markets: What do we know? Where are going?. Industrial Marketing Management. 34, pp. 732-748.

Liu, S. S. and Johnson, K.F. (2005). The automatic country-of-origin effects on brand judgements. Journal of Advertising. 34(1), pp. 87-97.

Lopez, C., Gotsi, M. and Andriopoulos, C. (2011),"Conceptualising the influence of corporate image on country image", European Journal of Marketing, 45 (11/12), pp. 1601 – 1641.

Loscheck, I. (2009). When Clothes Become Fashion: Design and Innovative Systems. Oxford: Berg.

Magnusson, P., Westjohn, S.A. and Zdravkovic, S. (2011). What? I thought Samsung was Japanese": accurate or not, perceived country of origin matters. International Marketing Review. 28(5), pp. 454 – 472.

Maheswaran, D., (1994). Country of origin as a stereotype: effects of consumer expertise and attribute strength on product evaluations. Journal of Consumer Research. 21 (2), 354–365.

Maheswaran, D. and Chen, C. Y. (2006) 'Nation Equity: Incidental Emotions in Country-of Origin Effects. Journal of Consumer Research, 21(3), pp. 370-376.

Majumdar, R. (2010). Consumer Behaviour: Insights from Indian Market. New Delhi: PHI Learning.

Manager. 16 July (2009). Super Sport, Play Everday. Available: <http://www.manager.co.th/iBizChannel/ViewNews.aspx?NewsID=9520000080392> Accessed: 1 Febuary 2016.

Marczyk, G., DeMatteo, D. and Festinger, D. (2005). Essentials of research design and methodology. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Marketeer, (2015). 'Healthy trend, sportswear with function and fashion', The Marketeer 26 October. Available from http://marketeer.co.th/(2015)/10/sport-wear-kresearch/. (Accessed: 1 February 2016).

Martin, I. M. and Eroglu, S. (1993). Measuring a Multi-Dimensional Construct: Country Image. Journal of Business Research, 28, pp.191-210.

Masterson, R. and Pickton, D. (2014). Marketing: An introduction. 3rd ed. London: Sage.

Mayr, T and Zins, A. H. (2012). Extensions on the conceptualisation of customer perceived value: Insights from Airline industry. International Journal, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 6(4), pp. 356-376.

McBurney, D.H. And White, T. L. (2010). Research Methods. 8th ed. Belmont: Wadworth.

McIvor, R. (2005). The outsourcing process: Strategies for Evaluation and Management. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Meyes, L.S., Gamst, G. and Guarino, A.J. (2013). Performing Data Analysis Using IBM SPSS. New Jersey: Wiley.

Michaelidou, N. and Dibb C.S. (2006). Product involvement: an application in Clothing. Journal of Consumer Behaviour, 5 (5), pp. 442-453.

Michaelidou, N. and Dibb, S. (2008). Consumer involvement: a new perspective. Marketing Review, 8(1) pp.83–99.

Michman, R.D., Mazze, E.M. and Greco, A.J., (2003). The Lifestyle Marketing: Reaching the New American Consumer. Westport: Praeger.

Ministry of Tourism and Sports, (2012). The Fifth National Development plan for Sports (2012)-(2015). (PDF) Ministry of Tourism and Sports (Accessed 1 Feb 2016).

Mirabi, V. Akbariyeh, H. and Tahmasebifard, H. (2015). A Study of Factors Affecting on Customers Purchase Intention Case Study: the Agencies of Bono Brand Tile in Tehran. Journal of Multidisciplinary Engineering Science Technology, 2(1), pp.267-273.

Miranda, M.J. and Parkvithee, N. (2013). The influence of social class on the perceptions of country of origin. Marketing Intelligence and Planning. 31(4), pp. 388-404.

Mitchell, A.A. (1981). The dimensions of Advertising Involvement. Advances in Consumer Research, 8, pp. 25-30.

Mittal, B. and Lee, M. (1989). A Casual Model of Consumer Involvement. Journal of Economic Psychology, 10, pp. 363-389.

Mittal, B., Lee, M.S. (1987). Separating brand-choice involvement from product involvement via consumer involvement profiles. In: Houston, M.J. (Ed.), Advances in Consumer Research 15, Provo UT: Association for Consumer Research, pp.43-49.

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

Monroe, K.B. (1990). Pricing: making Profitable Decisions. 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Monroe, K.B. (1991), Pricing: Making Profitable Decisions. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Morgan Stanley Research, (2015). Athletic lifestyles keep apparel sales healthy. 30 October (2015). Morgan Stanley. Available at: <http://www.morganstanley.com/ideas/global-athletic-wear-geared-for-growth> (Accessed: 1 February 2016).

Mourad Touzani Smaoui Fatma Labidi Mouna Meriem, (2015),"Country-of-origin and emerging countries: revisiting a complex relationship", Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal, 18(1), pp.48 – 68

Mugnusson, P. and Westjohn, S. A. (2011). Is there a country-of-origin theory?. In: Handbook of Research in International Marketing. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar, pp.290-315.

Mukherji, P. and Albon, D., (2010). Research Methods in Early Childhood: An Introductory Guide. London: Sage.

Murphy, S.N. and Bhojanna, U. (2008). Research methods. 2nd ed. New Delhi: Excel.

Musso, F. and Druica, E., (2014). Handbook of Research on Retailer- Consumer Relatioship Development. Hershey: IGI.

Myers, M.D. (2013). Qualitative Research in Business and Management. 2nd ed. London: Sage.

Nagashima, A. (1977), "A comparative 'made in' product image survey among Japanese businessmen", Journal of Marketing, 41(3), pp. 95-100.

Nagashima, A.,(1970). "A comparison of Japanese and U.S. attitudes toward foreign products.". The Journal of Marketing, 34(1), pp. 68-74.

Nebenzahl, I.D., Jaffe, E.D. and Lampert, S.I. (1997). Towards a theory of country image effect on product evaluation. Management International Review. 37(1), pp. 27-49.

Neelankavil, J.P. (2007). International Business Research. New York: Routledge,

Newman, I. and Benz, C.R. (1998). Qualitative-Quantitative Research Methodology: Exploring the Interactive Continuum. Southern Illinois University Press.

Nevid, J.S. (2012). Essentials of Psychology: Concepts and Applications. Belmont, CA: Wansworth.

Nisbett, R.E. and Wilson, T.D. (1977). The Halo Effect: Evidence for Unconscious Alternative of Judgments. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. 35(4), pp.250-256.

Nugroho, S.S., Rostiani, R. and Gitosudarmo, I. (2014). The impacts of country-of-origin, product involvement, and product familiarity on product evaluation. Journal of Indonesian Economy and Business. 29(2), pp. 165-182.

Nykiel, R.A., (2007). Handbook of Marketing Research Methodologies: For Hospitality and Tourism. New York: The Haworth Hospitality &Tourism Press.

O'Cass A., Lim K., Julian K. (2000). Brand Classifications: Identifying the Origins of Brand. ANZMAC (2000) Visionary Marketing for the 21 Century: Facing the Challenge, 871–878.

O'Cass, A. (2000). An assessment of consumers product, purchase decision, advertising and consumption involvement in fashion clothing. Journal of Economic Psychology, 21, pp.545-576.

O'Gorman, K. D, and MacIntosh, R. (2014). Research Methods for Business and Management. Good fellow Publishers Ltd.

Oliver, R. (1997). "Satisfaction, A Behavioral Perspective on the Consumer." New York: McGraw-Hill.

Onkvisit, S. and Shaw, J, J., (2009). International Marketing: Strategy and theory. 5th ed. Abingdon: Routledge.

O'Shaughnessy, J. and O'Shaughnessy, N.J. (2000), Treating the nation as a brand: some neglected issues, Journal of Macro-Marketing, 20(1), pp. 56-64.

Pallant, J. (2013). SPSS Survival Manual: A Step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS. 5th ed. Berkshire: McGraw-Hill.
Papadopoulos, N. and Heslop, L.A. (1993). Product-Country Images. New York: Routledge.

Papadopoulos, N., Heslop, L. A. and Bamossy, G., (1990a). A comparative image analysis of domestic versus imported products. International Journal of Research in Marketing. 7(4), pp. 283-294.

Papadopoulas, N., Heslop, L.A. and Beracs, J. (1990b) National stereotypes and product evaluations in a socialist country. International Marketing Review, 7, pp.32-47.

Papadopoulos, N. and Heslop, L. A., (2014). Product-Country Images: Imapact and Role in Interantional Marketing. New York: Routledge.

Pappu, R. and Quester, P. (2010). Country equity: Conceptualization and Empirical Evidence. International Business Review. 19, pp. 276-291.

Pappu, R., Quester, P. G. and Cooksey, R.W. (2007). Country Image and Customer-Based Brand Equity: Relationship and Implications for International Marketing, 38(5), pp.726-745.

Parasuraman, A. and Grewal, D. (2000), "Serving customers and consumers effectively in the twenty-first century: a conceptual framework and overview", Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28(1), pp. 9-16.

Park, C.W. and Lessig, V.P. (1981). Familiarity and its impact on consumer decision biases and heuristics. Journal of Consumer Research. 8, pp. 223-230.

Patzer, G.L. (1996). Experiment-Research Methodology in Marketing: Types and Applications. Westport, CT: Greenwood.

Pecotich, A. and Rosenthal, M.J. (2001) Country of Origin, Quality, Brand and Consumer Ethnocentrism, Journal of Global Marketing, 15(2), pp.31-60.
Pecotich, A. and Shultz II, C.J. (2006). Handbook of Markets and economies. New York: M.E. Sharpe.

Pedro, G. (2015). Lululemon, Nike and the Rise of 'Athleisure'. (Online) Forbes. Available at: http://www.forbes.com/sites/gregpetro/(2015)/09/16/lululemon-nike-and-the-rise-of-athleisure/#655705404c1d (Accessed 1April 2016).

Peterson, R.A., Jolibert, A.J.P., (1995). A meta-analysis of country of-origin effects. Journal of International Business Studies, 26(4), pp.883–899.

Petrick, J. F. and Backman, S.J., (2002). An Examination of the Construct of Perceived Value for the Presiction of Golf Travelers' Intnetions to Revisit. Journal of Travel Research, 41, pp.38-45.

Petty, R.E. and Wegener, D. T. (1999). The Elaboration Likelihood Model: Current Sttus and Controversies. In S. Chaiken and Y Trope (Eds.), Dual process theories in social psychology (p. 41-72).New York: Guildford Press.

Pharr, J.M., (2005). Synthesizing country-of-origin research the last decade: Is the concept salient in an era of global brand? Journal of Marketing, 13(4), pp.34-45.

Phau, I. and Leng, Y.S. (2008), Attitudes toward domestic and foreign luxury brand apparel. Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal, 12(1), pp. 68 - 89

Phau, I. and Prendergast, G. (2000). Conceptualizing the country ofConceptualizing the country of origin of brand, Journal of Marketing Communications, 6(3), pp.159-170.

Phau, I. and Suntornnond, V. (2006) Dimensions of consumer knowledge and its impacts on country of origin effects among Australian consumers: a case of fast consuming product. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 23(1), pp.34 – 42.

Piacentini, M.G. and Cui, C.C. (2012). Multicultural Perspectives in Customer Behaviour. Abingdon: Routledge.

Piron, F (2000), 'Consumers' perceptions of the country-of-origin effect on purchasing intentions of (in)conspicuous products', Journal of Consumer Marketing, 17(4), pp.308-321.

Polonsky, M.J. and Waller, D. S. (2015). Designing and managing a research project: a business student's guide. Singapore: Sage.

Post Today Newspaper (2013). 8 healthy trend in Thailand. Post Today. Available at: http://www.hfocus.org/content/(2013)/01/2233 (Accessed: 18 March 2016).

Prendergast, G.P., Tsang, A.S.L. and Chan, C.N.W. (2010). The interactive influence of product involvement. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 27(2), pp.180-188.
Pritchard, M.P. and Stinson, J.L. (2013). Leveraging brand in Sport Business. New York: Routledge.

Pring, R. (2000). Philosophy of educational research. 2nd ed. London: Continum.

Punch, K.F. (2014). Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches. 3rd ed. London: Sage.

Punpeng, K., (2015). Exercise trend for fitness business, SCB Economic Intelligence Center. Available at: <https://www.scbeic.com/th/detail/product/1347> (Assessed: 27 May (2015).

Punyapiroje, C., Morrison, M. and Hoy, M.G. (2002) A Nation under the Influence: The Creative Strategy Process for Advertising in Thailand, Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising. 24(2), pp.51-65.

Pura, M. (2005). Linking perceived value and loyalty in location-based mobile services. Managing service quality, 15(6), pp. 509-538.

Rai, A.K. (2013). Customer Relatioship Management: Concepts and Cases. 2nd ed. New Delhi: PHI.

Ramaswamy, V.S. and Namakumari, S. (2013). Marketing Mangament: Global Perspective. 5th ed. New Delhi: McGraw Hill.

Rao, A.R. and Monroe, K.B. (1988). The moderating effect of knowledge on cue utilization in product evaluation. Journal of Consumer Research. 15(2), pp. 253-264.

Rashid, A., Barnes, L. and Warnaby, G. (2016). Management perspectives on country of origin. Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management. 20(2), pp. 230-244.

Reardon, J., Miller, C., Vida, I. and Kim, I. (2005). The effects of ethnocentrism and economic development on the formation of brand and ad attitudes in transitional economies. European Journal of Marketing. 39(7/8), pp. 737-754.

Reierson, C.C. (1966) 'Are Foreign Products seen as National Stereotypes?'. Journal of Retailing, 42(3), pp. 33-40.

Reierson, C.C. (1967) 'Attitude Changes toward Foreign Products', Journal of Marketing Research, 4(4), pp. 385-387.

Rezvani, S. Dehkordi, G.J., Rahman, M.S., Fouladivanda, F., Habibi, M. and Eghtebasi, S. (2012). A Conceptual Study on the Country of Origin Effect on Consumer Purchase Intention. Asian Social Science, 8(12), pp. 205-215.

Rogelberg, S.G., (2004). Handbook of Research Method in Industrial and Organisational Psychology. Oxford: Blackwell.

Roig, J. C. F., Garcia J. S., Tena, M.A.M. and Monzonis, J.L. (2006). Customer perceived value in banking services. International Journal of Bank Marketing, 24(5), pp.266 – 283.

Roscoe, J.T. (1975), Fundamental research Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences. 2nd ed. Holt Rinehart and Winston, New York, NY.

Rosenau, J.A. and Wilson, D.L., (2014). Apparel Merchandising: the line starts here. 3rd ed. New York: Fairchild.

Roth, K. P. and Diamantopolous, (2009). Advancing the country image construct. Journal of Business research, 62, pp.726-740.

Roth, M.S. and Romeo, J.B. (1992). Matching Product Category and Country Image Perceptions: A Framework for Managing Country-Of-Origin Effects, 23(3). pp. 477-497.

Ruyter, K., Wetsels, M. and Bloemer, J. (1998) On the relationship between perceived service quality, service loyalty and switching costs. International Journal of Service Industry Management, Vol. 9 (5), pp.436 – 453.

Ryu, K. Han, H. and Jang, S. (2010). Relationship among hedonic and utilitarian values, satisfaction and behavioural intentions in the fast-casual restaurant industry. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Manangement. 22(3), pp. 416-432.

Ryu, G, Park, J. and Feick, L. (2006). The Role of Product Type and Country-of-Origin in Decisions about Choice of Endorser Ethnicity in Advertising. Psychology and Marketing, 23(6), pp. 487-513.

Samiee, S. (1994). Customer Evaluation of Products in a Global Market. Journal of International Business Studies. 25(3), pp.579-604.

Samiee, S. (2011). Resolving the impasse regarding research on the origins of products and brands. International Marketing Review. 28(5), pp. 473 – 485.

Samiee, S., Shimp, T.A. and Sharma, S. (2005), Brand origin recognition accuracy: its antecedents and consumers' cognitive limitations. Journal of International Business Studies, Vol. 36 No. 4, pp. 379-397.

Sanchez, J., Callarisa, L., Rodriguez, R.M. and Moliner, M.A. (2006). Perceived value of the purchase of a tourism product. Tourism Management, 27, pp. 394-409.

Sanchez-Fernandez, R. and Iniesta-Bonillo, M.A., (2007). The concept of perceived value: a systematic review of the research, 7(4), pp.427-451.

Sandys, A. (2014). Increasing consumer interest in sports apparel as ' everyday' clothing sees Nike retain global industry lead. (Online). Available at: <http://www.companiesandmarkets.com/News/Textiles-and-Clothing/Increasing-consumer-interest-in-sports-apparel-as-everyday-clothing-sees-Nike-retain-global-industry-lead/NI9601> (Accessed 18 March 2016).

Saunders, M.N.K.; Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2016). Research Methods for Business Students. 7th ed. Essex: Pearson.

Saxena, R. (2009). Marketing Management. New Delhi: Tata McGraw-Hill.

Schaffmeister, N. (2015). Brand Building and Marketing in Key Emerging Markets: A Practitioner's Guide to Successful Brand Growth in China, India, Russia and Brazil. Cologne: Springer.

Schiffman, L., O'Cass, A, Paladino, A. and Carlson, J., (2014). Consumer Behaviour. 6th ed. Frenchs Forest: Pearson.

Schroder, M.J.A. (2003). Food Quality and Consumer Value. New York: Springer.

Shahrokh, Z.D., Azodi, A. D. and Vahidinia, E. (2014). The effect of country of brand and country of brand loyalty and purchase intention. Standard Global Journal of Business Management, 1(3), pp.41.48.

Shanker, A. (2012). A Customer Value Creation Framework for Businesses That Generate Revenue with Open Source Software. Technological Innovation Management Review. March, pp. 18-22.

Sharma, P. (2011). Country of origin effects in developed and emerging markets: Exploring the contrasting roles of materialism and value consciousness. Journal of International Business Studies. 42, pp. 285-306.

Sheth, J.N., Newman, B.I. and Gross, B.L., (1991). Why We Buy What We Buy: A Theory of Consumption Values. Journal of Business Research, 22, pp.159-170.

Shimp, T.A. (2010). Advertising, Promotion, and other aspects of Integrated Marketing Communications. Mason, OH: South-Western.

Shimp, T. A. and Bearden, W.O. (1982), "Warranty and Other Extrinsic Cue Effects on Consumers' Risk Perception". Journal of Consumer Research, 9, pp. 38-46.

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

Shishoo, R. (2005). Textiles in Sports. Boca Raton, FL: CRC.

Schutte, H. and Ciarlante, D. (1998). Consumer Behaviour in Asia. London: Macmillian Business Press.

Singh, Y.K. and Bajpai, R.B. (2008). Research Methodology: Techniques and Trend. New Delhi: APH.

Sinha, I. S. and DeSarbo, W.S. (1998). An Integrated Approach toward the Spatial Modeling of Perceived Customer Value. Journal of Marketing Research, 35(2), pp.236-249.

Smith, J.B. and Colgate, M. (2007). Customer Value Creation: A Practical Framwork. Journal of Marketing and Practice. Vol, 15, No.1, pp.7-23.

Soderlund, M. (2002). Customer Familiarity and Its Effects on Satisfaction and Behavioral Intentions. Psychology and Marketing, 19(10), pp.861-880.

Sohail, M.S. (2005). Malaysian consumers' evaluation of products made in Germany: the country of origin effect. Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 17(1), pp.89 – 105.

Solomon, M.R., Bamossy, G.J., Askegaard, S.T. and Hogg, M.K. (2013). Consumer Behaviour: A European Perspective. 5th ed. Essex: Pearson.

Spatz, C. (2011). Basic Statistic: Tales of distribution. 10th ed. Belmont, Ca: Wadsworth.

Spears, N. and Singh, S.N. (2004) Measuring Attitude toward the Brand and Purchase Intentions, Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising, 26(2), pp.53-66.

Speece, M., Kawahara, Y. and Miller, C.E. (1996), The impact of offshore manufacturing on quality perceptions, Asian Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 1 No. 1, pp. 15-29.

Sreejesh, S., Mohapatra, S. Anusree, M.R. (2014). Business Research Method: An applied orientation. New York: Springer.

Srinivasan, N., Jain, S.C. and Sikand, K., (2004). An experimental study of two dimensions of country-of-origin (manufacturing country and branding country) using intrinsic and extrinsic cues. Interantional Business Review, 13, pp.65-82.

Stamatis, D.H., (2002). Six Sigma and Beyond: Design of Experiments. Boca Raton: CRC Press.

Steenkamp, J.E.M., Batra, R. and Alden, D.L. (2003). How perceived brand globalness creates brand value. Journal of International Business Studies. 34, pp. 54-65.

Stewart, D.W. and Gugel, C. T. (2016). Accountable Marketing: Linking Marketing Actions to Financial Performance. New York: Routledge.

Strutton, D., True, S.L. and Rody, R.C. (1995). Russian consumer perceptions of foreign and domestic consumer goods: An analysis of country-of-origin stereotypes with implications for promotions and positioning. Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice. 3(3), pp. 76-87.

Suh, T. and Smith, K.H. (2008) Attitude Toward Globalization and Country-of-Origin Evaluations: Toward a Dynamic Theory, Journal of Global Marketing, 21(2), pp. 127-139.

Summers, T.A. and Belleau, B.D. and Xu, Y. (2006). Predicting purchase intention of a controversial luxury apparel product. Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management. 10(4), pp. 405-419.

Sweeney, J.C. and Soutar, G.N. (2001). Consumer perceived value: The development of multiple item scale. Journal of Retailing, 77, pp.203-220.

Sweeney, J.C., Soutar, G.N. and Johnson, L.W. (1999). The role of perceived risk in quality-value relationship: A study in retail environment. Journal of Retailing. 75(1), pp. 77-105.

Tabachnick, B.G. and Fidell, L.S. (2013). Using Multivariate Statistics. 6th ed. Essex: Pearson.

Tabassi, S. and Esmaeilzadeh, P. and Sambasivan, M. (2013). The influence of product involvement and country of origin on purchase intention: A study in Malaysia toward European brands. 2(11), pp. 269-277.

Tam, J.L.M. (2004). Customer satisfaction, service quality and perceived value: An integrative model. Journal of marketing management, 20(7-8), pp.897-917.

Tarrant, S. and Jolles, M. 2012. Fashion talks: Undressing the power of style. New York: Suny Press.

Teppan, R.M. (2011). Nursing Research: from theory to Practice. Sudbury: Jones & Barrett Learning.

Thailand Textile Institute. (2014). Thailand industry Profile: Sports wear. Avaiable online:<www.thaitextile.org/index.php/downloads/file/industry-sportswear> Accessed on 1 Feburay 2016.

Thakor, M.V. and Katsanis, L.P. (1997). A model of brand and country effects on quality dimensions: issue and implication. Journal of International Consumer Marketing. 9(3), pp. 70-100.

Thakor, M.V. and Kohli, C.S. (1996). Brand origin: conceptualisation and review. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 13(3), pp.27-42.

Thanasuta, K., Patoomsuwan, T., Chaimahawong, V. and Chiaravutthi, Y. (2009). Brand and country of origin valuations of automobiles. Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 21(3), pp.355-375.

Timothy, D.J. (2005). Shopping Tourism, Retailing and leisure. Clevedon:Channel View.

To, P., Liao, C. and Lin, T. (2007). Shopping motivations on internet: A study based on utilitarian and hedonic value. Technovation. 27, pp. 227-787.

Tong, X. and Hawley, J.M. (2009), Measuring customer-based brand equity: empirical evidence from the sportswear market in China, Journal of Product & Brand Management, Vol. 18 No. 4, pp. 262-271.

Tong, X. and Su, J. (2014). Exploring the personality of sportswear brand. Sports, Business and Management: An international Journal. 4(2), pp. 178-192.

Touzani, M., Fatma, S. and Meriem, L.M. (2015) Country-of-origin and emerging countries: revisiting a complex relationship. Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal, Vol. 18(1), pp.48 – 68.

Toyoshima, N. (2008). Longing for Japan: The consumption of Japanese cultural product in Thailand. 23(2), pp. 252-282.

Treacy, M. and Wiersema, F (1993). Customer Intimacy and Other Value Disciplines. Harvard Business Review, 71(January–February), pp.84–93

Troilo, G. (2015). Marketing in Creative Industries: Value, Experience, and Creativity. London: Palgrave.
Tseng, T. and Balabanis, G. (2011). Explaining the product-specificity of country-of-origin effects. International Marketing Review. 28(6), pp.581-600.

Tse, D. K. and Lee, W. (1993). Removing Negative Country Images: Effects of Decomposition, Branding, and Product Experience. Journal of International Marketing, 1(4), pp.25-48.

Tse, D.K. and Gorn, G.J. (1993) An Experiment on the Salience of COO in An Era of Global Brand. Journal of International Marketing, 1(1), pp.57-76.

Tullis, T. and Albert B. (2008). Measuring the user Experience: Collecting, Analyzing and Presenting Usability Metrics. Burlington: Morgan Kaufmann.

Tyagi, C. L. and Kumar, A. (2004). Consumer Behaviour. New Delhi: Atlantic.

Ulaga, W., & Chacour, S. (2001). Measuring customer-perceived value in business markets: a prerequisite for marketing strategy development and implementation. Industrial marketing management, 30(6), pp.525-540.

Ulgado, F.M. and Lee, M. (1993). Consumer Evaluations of Bi-National Products in the Global Market. 1(3), pp. 5-22.

United Nation, (2015). 'World Population Prospects: The (2015) Revision, Key Finding and Advance Tables' (PDF). United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs/Population Division. Accessed 1 Feb (2016).

Usunier, J. (2006). Relevant in business research: the case of country-or-origin research in marketing. European Management Review, 3, pp.60-73.

Vargo, S. L. and Lusch, R.F. (2004). Evolving to a New Dominant Logic for Maketing. Journal of Maketing. 68, pp. 1-17.

Veale, R., Quester, P. and Karunaratna, A. (2006). Tasting quality: The role of intrinsic cues and the extrinsic cues. Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics. 21(1), pp. 195-207.

Verlegh, P.W.J., (2001). Country-of-Origin Effects on Consumer Product Evaluations. Doctoral Dissertation, Wageningen University.

Verlegh, P.W.J. and Steenkamp, J.E.M. (1999) A Review and Meta-analysis of Country-of origin Research. Journal of Economic Psychology, 20(5), pp.521-546.

Verlegh, P. W. J., Steenkamp, J.-B. E. M., and Meulenberg, M. T. G. (2005). Country-of-origin effects in consumer processing of advertising claims. International Journal of Research in Marketing, 22(2), pp.127–139.

Verma, H., (2009). Services Marketing: Text and Cases. New Delhi: Dorling Kindersley.

Venugopal, P. (2010). Marketing Management: A Decision-making Approach. New Delhi: Response.

Villar, M.E. and Ai, D. and Segev, S. (2012). Chinese and American perceptions of foreign name brands. Journal of Product & Brand Management, 21(5), pp.341 – 349.

Vogt, W.P., Gardner, D.C. and Haeffele, L.M. (2012). When to Use What Research Design. New York: Guildford Press.

Walters, D. and Lancaster, G. (1999). Value and information – concepts and issues for management. Management Decision, 37(8), pp.643- 656.

Wang, J., (2011). Information Systems and New Applications in the Service Sector: Models and Methods. Hershey: IGI Global.

Wang, X. and Yang, Z. (2008). Does country-of-origin matter in the relationship between brand personality and purchase intention in emerging economies?. International Marketing Review, 25(4), pp.458 – 474.

Watchravesringkan, K., Karpova, E., Hodges, N.N., Copeland, R. (2010). The competitive position of Thailand's apparel industry: Challenges and opportunities for globalization. Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management, 14(4), pp.576-597.

Weinstein, A. (2012). Superior customer value: Strategies for winning and retaining customers. New York: CRC Press.

Westerbeek, H. (2012). Global Sport Business. Abingdon: Routledge.

Wimmer R.D. and Dominick, J.R., (2011). Mass Media Research. 9th edn. Boston: Wadsworth.

Wrenn, B., Stevens, R.E. and Loudon, D.L. 2007. Marketing Research Texts and Cases. 2nd ed. Binghamton, NY: Best Business Book.

Woodruff, R.B., (1997). Customer value: the next source for competitive advantage. Journal of Academy of Marketing Science, 25(2), pp. 139–153.

Woodruff, R. B., and Gardial, S.F. (1996). Know Your Customer: New Approaches To Understanding Customer Value and Satisfaction. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell Publications.

World Bank, (2015). Thailand Overview. (Online) Thailand: World Bank. Available at: <http://www.worldbank.org/en/country/thailand/overview> (Accessed 1 Feb 2016).

Yeh, Y. 2016. Market orientation and service innovation on customer perceived value: The case of supermarket retailers. Supermarket retailers. 39(4), pp. 449-467.

Weiermair, K. and Mathies, C. (2004). Tourism and Leisure Industry: Shaping the Future. New York: The Haworth Hospitality.
Weinberg, S.L. and Abramowitz, S.K. (2002). Data Analysis for the Behavioural Science Using SPSS. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wright, R., (2006). Consumer Behaviour. London: Thomson Learning.

Wu, B.T.W. and Petroshius, S.M. (1987). The halo effect in store image measurement. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science. 15(3), pp. 44-51.

Yasin, N.M., Noor, M.N. and Mohamad, O. (2007). Does image of country-of origin matter to brand equity?. Journal of Product and Brand Management. 16(1), pp. 38-48.
Yunus, N.S.N.M. and Rashid, W.E.W. (2016). The Influence of Country-of-origin on Consumer Purchase Intention: The Mobile Phones Brand from China, presented at Fifth International Conference on Marketing and Retailing (5th INCOMaR), 2015, Procedia Economics and Finance, pp. 363-349.

Zaichkowsky, J.L., (1985). Measuring the involvement construct. Journal of Consumer Research, 12, pp.341-352.

Zaichkowsky, J.L., (1994). The personal involvement inventory: reduction, revision, and application to advertising. Journal of Advertising, 23(4), pp.59-70.

Zaichkowsky, J.L. (2012). Consumer involvement: review, update and links to decision neuroscience. In Wells, V. and Foxall ed. Handbook of Development in Consumer Behaviour. Cheltenham : Edward Elgar, pp. 523-546.

Zbib, I.J., Wooldrige, B. R., Ahmed, Z.U. and Benlian, Y. (2010). Purchase of global shampoo brands and the impact of country of origin on Lebanese consumers. Journal of product and Brand Management, 19(4), pp.261-275.

Zdravkovic, S. (2013) 'Does Country-Of-origin Matter to Generation Y?', Young Consumers: Insight and Ideas for Responsible Marketers, Vol. 14(1), pp. 89-102.

Zeithaml, V.A. (1988). Consumer Perceptions of Price, Quality and Value: A Means-End Model and Synthesis of Evidence. Journal of Marketing, 52(3), pp.2-22.

Zhang, Y. (1996), Chinese consumers' evaluation of foreign products: the influence of culture, product types, and product presentation format. European Journal of Marketing, 30(12), pp.50-69.

Zhuang, G. Wang, X. Zhou, L. and Zhou, N. (2007). Symmetric effects of brand origin confusion: Evidence from the emerging market of China. International Marketing Review, 25(4), pp.441-457.

Zikmund, W.G. and Babin, B.J. (2007). Exploring Marketing Research, 9th ed. Mason: Thomson.

Research Hypotheses	Hypotheses Content	Authors
Country of design (COD) Country of manufacture (COM)	H1a: The positive COD image positively influences consumers' purchase intentions. H1b: The positive COM image positively influence consumers' purchase intentions.	Ahmed *et al.* (2002, 2004); O'Cass, Lim (2002);
The interactions of country of manufacture (COM) and country of design (COD)	H2a: Regarding the interaction effect, both positive COM and COD images positively affect consumers' purchase intentions. H2b: Regarding the interaction effect, a negative COM image (with a positive COD image) negatively affects consumers' purchase intentions. H2c: Regarding the interaction effect, a positive COD image can outweigh the effects of a negative COM image on purchase intentions.	Hamzaoui and Merunka, (2006); Essoussi and Merunka, (2007); Essoussi *et al.* (2011); Carvalho *et al.*, (2011); Hui and Zhou (2003)
Purchase involvement	H3a: The levels of product involvement and COM image significantly affect customer purchase intention. H3b: The levels of product involvement and COD image significantly affect customer purchase intention.	Ahmed and d'Astous (2001, 2004); Josiassen *et al.* (2008); Tabassi (2013); Lin and Chen, (2006)
The interactions of purchase involvement, country of manufacture (COM) and country of design (COD)	H4: In regard to the interaction effects of levels of purchase involvement, COM image and COD image, a high level of product involvement combined with positive COM and COD images has a positive impact on purchase intention.	Josiassen *et al.* (2008); Tabassi (2013); Admed *et al.*, 2004; Laroche *et al.* (2005); Phau and Suntornnond (2006); Ha and Jang (2010), Rao and Monroe (1988)

Research Hypotheses	Hypotheses Content	Authors
Customer perceived value (CPV)	H5a: The positive main effects of COD positively affect the overall CPV. H5b: The positive main effects of COM positively affect the overall CPV.	Insch and McBride (2004); Dinnie, 2008; Ha and Jang, (2010) Laroche *et al.* (2005); Phau and Suntornnond (2006); Josiassen *et al.* (2008); Ha and Jang (2010), Rao and Monroe (1988)
The interaction effect on customer perceived value (CPV)	H6a: The interaction effects of COM, COD and product involvement affect the overall CPV. H6b: The interaction effects of COM, COD and product involvement affect the quality value. H6c: The interaction effects of COM, COD and product involvement affect the social value. H6d: The interaction effects of COM, COD and product involvement affect the price value. H6e: The interaction effects of COM, COD and product involvement affect the emotional value.	Insch and McBride (2004); Dinnie, 2008; Ha and Jang, (2010)
Product familiarity	H7a: When consumers are *more* familiar with a product, the influences of COD, COM and purchase involvement on purchase intention become *weaker*. H7b: When consumers are more familiar with a product, the influences of COD, COM and product involvement on CPV become weaker.	Phau and Suntornnond (2006); Johansson (1989); (Ha and Jang, 2010)

APPENDIX 2: PILOT TEST

Please list your opinions from the questions below

13. Please list your favourite country that you think is capable in designing sportswear/activewear.

14. Please list your **LEAST** favourite country that you think is capable in designing sportswear/activewear.

15. Please list your favourite country that you think is capable in manufacturing sportswear/active

16. Please list your **LEAST** favourite country that you think is capable in manufacturing sportswear/activewear.

APPENDIX 3: QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear participants,

My name is Natinee Thanajaro and I am a PhD student at Brunel University, London, UK. I am conducting a research experiment for my thesis. In doing so, I will explain the situation for you and I would like you to examine the products for this experiment. I am confident that this is an anonymous survey whereby all responses will remain confidential. The data will be used for academic purposes only and has been approved by the Brunel Business School Ethics Committee.

Your participation is voluntary, and if you do not want to participate, please discards the questionnaire. However, I really appreciate your help in this experiment by filling in this questionnaire. It will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete this experiment.

Scenario: You decided to buy a new pair of trainers. While considering, you come across (the experimenter will explain in person).

Scenario 1: A pair of sport trainers which is designed in the US and made in Japan (Show a real product)

Select the number that best describes your opinion from this following scale:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Considering **the pair of sports trainers** as described above, please indicate your opinion in the following statements

1. US design capability	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
US's design is innovative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US's design is excellent quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US's design looks comfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US's design is functional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US's design uses high quality materials	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US's design is reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US's design is highly recognised by consumers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US's design is durable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. US as a country							
US is considered to have an advanced technological research	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US has a high standard of living	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US has a high labour costs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US has a good welfare system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

US has civilian non-military government	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US has a highly developed economy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US has a high educational standard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US is a free-market system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
US China is democratic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. Trainers made in Japan	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Japan is capable of producing innovative trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan is capable of producing excellent quality trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan is capable of producing comfortable trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan is capable of producing functional trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan utilises excellent materials for manufacturing trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan's production is reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan's production is highly recognised by consumers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan is capable of producing durable trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. Japan as a country							
Japan is considered to have an advanced technological research	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan has a high standard of living	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan has a high labour costs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Japan has a good welfare system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan has civilian non-military government	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan has a highly developed economy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan has a high educational standard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan is a free-market system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Japan China is democratic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Instruction: From **the same pair of sports trainers**, please select the number that best describes your opinion in the following statements.

5. Quality Perception	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
These trainers is of excellent quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers is of superior craftsmanship	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers is high durable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers is reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers is well-designed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers is high performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers are innovative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am proud to own these trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. Price value							
These trainers are worth the investing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers offer a good value for money	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers are a good value for their features (design in US and made in Japan)							
7. Social value							
These trainers would help me feel acceptable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers would improve the way people perceive me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers would make a good impression on other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers would give theirs owner social approval	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Emotional value							
I would enjoy wearing these trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers would make me want to wear them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers would make me feel good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
These trainers would give me pleasure while wearing them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would feel relaxed wearing these trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would feel positive wearing these trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would feel satisfied in these trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Instruction: Please select your opinion in the following statements

9. Product familiarity	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I consider myself to be familiar with sports trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have considerable experience of purchasing sports trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am an expert about sports trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

So, would you like to buy them? **A pair of sports trainers designed in the US and made in Japan.**

10. Purchase Intention	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I have a high interest to purchase these trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would like to purchase these trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would like to purchase this product next time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please specify your perception of the each of the product involvement when you are buying **a pair of sport trainers** and **a sport t-shirts**.

11. Sport Trainers	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I spend a lot of time on finding information search when making a decision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a great interest in this product	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is important to me to make a right decision when buying sport trainers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Sport T-shirts							
I spend a lot of time on finding information search when making a decision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a great interest in this product	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is important to me to make a right decision when buying a sport t-shirt.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please list your opinions from the questions below

13. Please list your favourite country that you think is capable in designing sportswear/activewear.

14. Please list your **LEAST** favourite country that you think is capable in designing sportswear/activewear.

15. Please list your favourite country that you think is capable in manufacturing sportswear/active

298

16. Please list your **LEAST** favourite country that you think is capable in manufacturing sportswear/activewear.

Background information

Instruction: Please indicate background information about yourself.

1. **What is your gender:**
   - o Male
   - o Female

2. **Your age group:**
   - o 18-24
   - o 25-35
   - o 35-50
   - o Over 50

3. **What is your highest level of education you have completed?**
   - o High school
   - o Undergraduate / Bachelor degree
   - o Postgraduate/ Master degree
   - o PhD / Doctoral degree
   - o Others please specify……………

4. **What is your current occupation?**
   - o Student
   - o Self-employed
   - o Employee
   - o Unemployed
   - o Others please specify……………..

5. What is your monthly income?

- o Below 15,000 Baht
- o 15,001-25,001 Baht
- o 25,001-35,000 Baht
- o Over 35,001 Baht

APPENDIX 3: continued

สถานการณ์:หากคุณตัดสินใจที่จะซื้อรองเท้ากีฬาคู่ใหม่ ขณะที่คุณกำลังพิจารณาอยู่นั้นคุณก็เห็นรองเท้า
กีฬาคู่นี้(ตามรูป)

<u>รองเท้ากีฬาที่ออกแบบจากประเทศอเมริกาและผลิตในประเทศญี่ปุ่น</u>

เลือกหมายเลขที่อธิบายถึงความคิดเห็นของคุณได้ดีที่สุดจากระดับคะแนนต่อไปนี้

ไม่เห็นด้วย						เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
อย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยในบางกรณี	เป็นกลาง	เห็นด้วยในบางกรณี	เห็นด้วย	
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

การพิจารณา<u>รองเท้ากีฬา</u>ที่อธิบายข้างต้น   โปรดระบุความคิดเห็นของคุณในข้อความต่อไปนี้

1.ประสิทธิภาพในการออกแบบอเมริกัน	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยในบางกรณี	เป็นกลาง	เห็นด้วยในบางกรณี	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
การออกแบบของอเมริกันนั้นเป็นไปอย่างมีนวัตกรรมสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
การออกแบบของอเมริกันนั้นมีคุณภาพที่ดีเยี่ยม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
การออกแบบของอเมริกันนั้นดูแล้วใส่สบาย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
การออกแบบของอเมริกันนั้นใช้งานได้จริง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
การออกแบบของอเมริกันนั้นใช้วัสดุคุณภาพสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
การออกแบบของอเมริกันนั้นเชื่อถือได้อย่างสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

การออกแบบของอเมริกันนั้นได้รับการยอมรับอย่างสูงจากผู้บริโภค	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
การออกแบบของอเมริกันนั้นมีความทนทานสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. ประเทศอเมริกาเป็นประเทศที่:

ประเทศอเมริกาเป็นประเทศที่มีการวิจัยทางด้านเทคโนโลยีในระดับสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศอเมริกามีมาตรฐานการครองชีพที่สูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศอเมริกามีต้นทุนค่าแรงงานสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศอเมริกามีระบบสวัสดิการที่ดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศอเมริกามีรัฐบาลของประชาชนไม่ใช่ระบอบทหาร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศอเมริกามีการพัฒนาทางเศรษฐกิจที่สูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศอเมริกา มีระดับการศึกษาที่ดี (ความรู้)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศอเมริกา เป็นระบบการตลาดเสรี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศอเมริกา เป็นประชาธิปไตย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.รองเท้ากีฬาที่ผลิตในประเทศญี่ปุ่น	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อยหรือปานกลาง	เป็นกลาง	เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อยหรือปานกลาง	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
ประเทศญี่ปุ่น สามารถผลิตรองเท้ากีฬาที่เป็นนวัตกรรมสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่น สามารถผลิตรองเท้ากีฬาที่มีคุณภาพดีเยี่ยม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่น สามารถผลิตรองเท้ากีฬาที่มีสวมใส่สบาย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่น สามารถผลิตรองเท้ากีฬาที่ใช้งานได้จริง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่น สามารถผลิตรองเท้ากีฬาจากวัสดุที่มีคุณภาพสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่น มีการผลิตที่เชื่อถือได้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่นมีการผลิตที่ได้รับการยอมรับอย่	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

วงสูงจากผู้บริโภค							
ประเทศญี่ปุ่น สามารถผลิตรองเท้ากีฬาที่มีความทนทานสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ประเทศญี่ปุ่นเป็นประเทศที่:							
ประเทศญี่ปุ่นเป็นประเทศที่มีการวิจัยในด้านเทคโนโลยีสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่นมีมาตรฐานการครองชีพที่สูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่นมีต้นทุนด้านค่าแรงงานสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่นมีระบบสวัสดิการที่ดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่นมีรัฐบาลของประชาชนไม่ใช่ระบอบทหาร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่นมีการพัฒนาเศรษฐกิจที่สูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่นมีระดับการศึกษาที่ดี (ความรู้)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่นเป็นระบบการตลาดเสรี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ประเทศญี่ปุ่นเป็นประชาธิปไตย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

คำแนะนำ: จากรองเท้ากีฬาคู่เดิม โปรดเลือกหมายเลขที่ดีที่สุด ที่จะอธิบายถึงความคิดเห็นของคุณในข้อความต่อไปนี้

5.การรับรู้ในเรื่องของคุณภาพ	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่ค่อยเห็นด้วยเท่าไร	เป็นกลาง	ค่อนข้างเห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
รองเท้ากีฬาคู่นี้ มีคุณภาพดีเยี่ยม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้ากีฬาคู่นี้ เป็นงานหัตถกรรมขั้นสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้ากีฬาคู่นี้ มีความทนทานสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้ากีฬาคู่นี้ เชื่อถือได้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้ากีฬาคู่นี้ มีการออกแบบที่ดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้ากีฬาคู่นี้ มีประสิทธิภาพสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้ากีฬาคู่นี้ แสดงถึงนวัตกรรมสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ฉันภูมิใจที่ได้เป็นเจ้าของรองเท้ากีฬาคู่นี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. ความคุ้มค่าของราคา	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	เป็นกลาง	เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้าคู่นี้คุ้มค่าที่ลงทุน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้าคู่นี้มีมูลค่าสูงพอ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้าคู่นี้ที่ออกแบบในอเมริกาและผลิตในญี่ปุ่นมีความคุ้มค่าพอที่ลงทุน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.ค่านิยมในสังคม							
รองเท้าคู่นี้ทำให้ฉันรู้สึกว่าทุกคนเห็นชอบด้วย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้าคู่นี้ทำให้คนอื่นมองฉันในทางที่ดีขึ้น	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้าคู่นี้ทำให้คนอื่นรู้สึกประทับใจในตัวฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้าคู่นี้ทำให้คนใส่ได้รับการยอมรับในสังคม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. คุณค่าเชิงอารมณ์ความรู้สึก							
ฉันรู้สึกดีใจที่ได้ใส่รองเท้าคู่นี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้าคู่นี้ทำให้ชั้นรู้สึกว่าอยากสวมใส่มัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้าคู่นี้ทำให้ฉันรู้สึกดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้าคู่นี้ทำให้ฉันรู้สึกสนุกสนานที่ได้ใส่	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้าคู่นี้ทำให้ฉันรู้สึกผ่อนคลาย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
รองเท้าคู่นี้ทำให้ฉันคิดในทางบวก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ฉันรู้สึกพอใจที่ได้ใส่รองเท้าคู่นี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.ความคุ้นเคยต่อผลิตภัณฑ์							
โดยทั่วไป ฉันคิดว่าตัวฉันมีความคุ้นเคยกับการเลือกรองเท้ากีฬา	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ฉันพิจารณาตัวเองเป็นผู้มีประสบการณ์ในการเลือกซื้อรองเท้ากีฬา	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ฉันเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญเกี่ยวกับรองเท้ากีฬา	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.ความตั้งใจที่จะซื้อ							

	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยในบางกรณี	เป็นกลาง	เห็นด้วยในบางกรณี	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
ฉันมีความสนใจเป็นอย่างมากที่จะซื้อรองเท้ากีฬาคู่นี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ฉันคิดว่าฉันจะซื้อรองเท้ากีฬาคู่นี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
สำหรับรองเท้ากีฬาคู่ต่อไป ฉันต้องการที่จะซื้อรองเท้ากีฬาคู่นี้อีกครั้ง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

คำถามต่อไปนี้ไม่เกี่ยวข้องกับภาพที่ให้ไว้ในหน้าแรก กรุณาตอบคำถามต่อไปนี้

เพื่อแสดงความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างผู้บริโภคกับรองเท้ากีฬาและเสื้อกีฬา

11.รองเท้ากีฬา	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยในบางกรณี	เป็นกลาง	เห็นด้วยในบางกรณี	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
ฉันใช้เวลาศึกษาหาข้อมูลก่อนซื้อ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ฉันคิดรู้สึกว่ารองเท้าบ่งบอกถึงตัวฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ฉันคิดว่าฉันต้องใช้เวลาตัดใจสินให้ถูกต้องเมื่อต้องการ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.เสื้อกีฬา							
ฉันใช้เวลาศึกษาหาข้อมูลก่อนซื้อ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ฉันคิดรู้สึกว่าเสื้อกีฬาบ่งบอกถึงตัวฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ฉันคิดว่าฉันต้องใช้เวลาตัดใจสินให้ถูกต้องเมื่อต้องการ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

กรุณาตอบคำถามต่อไปนี้ตามความคิดเห็นของท่าน

13.เมื่อนึกถึง**การออกแบบชุดกีฬา** กรุณาเขียนชื่อประเทศที่คุณชื่นชอบและคิดว่าทำได้ดี

14.เมื่อนึกถึง**การออกแบบชุดกีฬา** กรุณาเขียนชื่อประเทศที่คุณ¨ไม่¨ชอบและคิดว่าทำได้¨ไม่¨ดี

15. เมื่อนึกถึง**การผลิตชุดกีฬา** กรุณาเขียนชื่อประเทศที่คุณชอบและคิดว่าทำได้ดี

16.เมื่อนึกถึง**การผลิตชุดกีฬา** กรุณาเขียนชื่อประเทศที่คุณ"ไม่"ชอบและคิดว่าทำได้"ไม่"ดี

ข้อมูลพื้นฐาน: โปรดระบุข้อมูลพื้นฐานเกี่ยวกับตัวคุณ

17. กรุณาระบุเพศของคุณ

- ○ หญิง
- ○ ชาย

18. กรุณาระบุกลุ่มอายุของคุณ

- ○ 18-24 ปี
- ○ 25-35ปี
- ○ 35-50ปี
- ○ สูงกว่า 50 ปี

19. ระดับการศึกษาสูงสุดของคุณคือ

- ○ มัธยมปลาย
- ○ ปริญญาตรี
- ○ ปริญญาโท
- ○ ปริญญาเอก
- ○ อื่นๆ กรุณาระบุ............

20. อาชีพปัจจุบันของคุณคือ

- ○ นักเรียน
- ○ เจ้าของธุรกิจ
- ○ พนักงาน
- ○ ผู้ว่างงาน
- ○ อื่นๆ กรุณาระบุ................

21. รายได้ของคุณคือเท่าไร

- ○ ต่ำกว่า 15,000 บาท
- ○ 15,001-25,001 บาท
- ○ 25,001-35,000 บาท
- ○ มากกว่า 35,001 บาท

APPENDIX 4

Responbrach's characteristics and Cronbrach's Alpha on pilot test (N=51)

Respondent's characteristics	Frequency	Per cent
Female	30	58.8
Male	21	41.2
Age 18–24	13	35.5
Age 25–35	22	43.1
Age 36–50	10	19.6
More than 50	6	11.8
High school	7	13.7
Undergraduate	37	72.5
Postgraduate	7	13.7
Student	11	21.6
Business owner	8	15.7
Employee	22	43.1
Government/ civil servant	10	19.6
< 15,000	14	27.5
15,001–25,000	18	35.3
25,000–35,000	12	23.5
35,001+	7	13.7
Items	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Quality value	8	0.96
Price value	3	0.94
Social value	4	0.91
Emotional value	7	0.90
Purchase intention	3	0.94

APPENDIX 5

ANOVA analysis on purchase intention

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: PUR

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.045	7	595	.398

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + INV + COD + COM + INV * COD + INV * COM + COD * COM + INV * COD * COM

APPENDIX 5: ANOVA ON PURCHASE INTNETION

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PUR

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	690.812[a]	7	98.687	316.003	.000	.788
Intercept	10045.009	1	10045.009	32164.756	.000	.982
INV	6.138	1	6.138	19.655	.000	.032
COD	438.254	1	438.254	1403.317	.000	.702
COM	138.783	1	138.783	444.392	.000	.428
INV * COD	2.531	1	2.531	8.103	.005	.013
INV * COM	5.129	1	5.129	16.424	.000	.027
COD * COM	101.236	1	101.236	324.163	.000	.353
INV * COD * COM	.998	1	.998	3.195	.074	.005
Error	185.818	595	.312			
Total	10882.556	603				
Corrected Total	876.629	602				

a. R Squared = .788 (Adjusted R Squared = .786)

1. COD * COM

Dependent Variable: PUR

COD	COM	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
US	Japan	5.827	.046	5.736	5.917
	China	4.047	.045	3.958	4.136
China	Japan	3.301	.046	3.211	3.390
	China	3.161	.045	3.072	3.249

Simple effect on purchase intention

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PUR

COM	(I) COD	(J) COD	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Japan	US	China	2.526[*]	.065	.000	2.399	2.653
	China	US	-2.526[*]	.065	.000	-2.653	-2.399
China	US	China	.886[*]	.064	.000	.760	1.012
	China	US	-.886[*]	.064	.000	-1.012	-.760

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PUR

COM		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Japan	Contrast	475.060	1	475.060	1521.173	.000	.719
	Error	185.818	595	.312			
China	Contrast	59.780	1	59.780	191.418	.000	.243
	Error	185.818	595	.312			

Each F tests the simple effects of COD within each level combination of the other effects shown. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: PUR

COD	(I) COM	(J) COM	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
US	Japan	China	1.780[*]	.065	.000	1.653	1.907
	China	Japan	-1.780[*]	.065	.000	-1.907	-1.653
China	Japan	China	.140[*]	.064	.030	.014	.266
	China	Japan	-.140[*]	.064	.030	-.266	-.014

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: PUR

COD		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
US	Contrast	237.289	1	237.289	759.815	.000	.561
	Error	185.818	595	.312			
China	Contrast	1.485	1	1.485	4.756	.030	.008
	Error	185.818	595	.312			

Each F tests the simple effects of COM within each level combination of the other effects shown. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

APPENDIX 6: MANOVA ON CPV

Multivariate Tests[a]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.996	37514.095[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.996
	Wilks' Lambda	.004	37514.095[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.996
	Hotelling's Trace	258.718	37514.095[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.996
	Roy's Largest Root	258.718	37514.095[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.996
INV	Pillai's Trace	.101	16.253[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.101
	Wilks' Lambda	.899	16.253[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.101
	Hotelling's Trace	.112	16.253[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.101
	Roy's Largest Root	.112	16.253[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.101
COD	Pillai's Trace	.908	1422.896[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.908
	Wilks' Lambda	.092	1422.896[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.908
	Hotelling's Trace	9.813	1422.896[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.908
	Roy's Largest Root	9.813	1422.896[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.908
COM	Pillai's Trace	.834	726.471[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.834
	Wilks' Lambda	.166	726.471[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.834
	Hotelling's Trace	5.010	726.471[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.834
	Roy's Largest Root	5.010	726.471[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.834
INV * COD	Pillai's Trace	.026	3.828[b]	4.000	580.000	.004	.026
	Wilks' Lambda	.974	3.828[b]	4.000	580.000	.004	.026
	Hotelling's Trace	.026	3.828[b]	4.000	580.000	.004	.026
	Roy's Largest Root	.026	3.828[b]	4.000	580.000	.004	.026
INV * COM	Pillai's Trace	.031	4.683[b]	4.000	580.000	.001	.031
	Wilks' Lambda	.969	4.683[b]	4.000	580.000	.001	.031
	Hotelling's Trace	.032	4.683[b]	4.000	580.000	.001	.031
	Roy's Largest Root	.032	4.683[b]	4.000	580.000	.001	.031
COD * COM	Pillai's Trace	.659	280.145[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.659
	Wilks' Lambda	.341	280.145[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.659
	Hotelling's Trace	1.932	280.145[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.659
	Roy's Largest Root	1.932	280.145[b]	4.000	580.000	.000	.659
INV * COD * COM	Pillai's Trace	.028	4.181[b]	4.000	580.000	.002	.028
	Wilks' Lambda	.972	4.181[b]	4.000	580.000	.002	.028
	Hotelling's Trace	.029	4.181[b]	4.000	580.000	.002	.028
	Roy's Largest Root	.029	4.181[b]	4.000	580.000	.002	.028

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
QUA	2.680	7	583	.010
SOC	1.410	7	583	.199
PRI	1.136	7	583	.339
EMO	2.395	7	583	.020

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + INV + COD + COM + INV * COD + INV * COM + COD * COM + INV * COD * COM

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected	QUA	641.151[a]	7	91.593	816.243	.000	.907

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Model	SOC	602.065[b]	7	86.009	390.717	.000	.824
	PRI	622.912[c]	7	88.987	411.252	.000	.832
	EMO	660.086[d]	7	94.298	410.586	.000	.831
	QUA	9709.881	1	9709.881	86530.823	.000	.993
Intercept	SOC	9697.932	1	9697.932	44055.064	.000	.987
	PRI	9497.721	1	9497.721	43893.347	.000	.987
	EMO	9350.240	1	9350.240	40712.214	.000	.986
	QUA	.013	1	.013	.115	.735	.000
INV	SOC	2.396	1	2.396	10.885	.001	.018
	PRI	.182	1	.182	.843	.359	.001
	EMO	14.209	1	14.209	61.869	.000	.096
	QUA	339.524	1	339.524	3025.711	.000	.838
COD	SOC	380.956	1	380.956	1730.579	.000	.748
	PRI	433.024	1	433.024	2001.203	.000	.774
	EMO	329.729	1	329.729	1435.687	.000	.711
	QUA	205.142	1	205.142	1828.149	.000	.758
COM	SOC	169.778	1	169.778	771.254	.000	.570
	PRI	134.018	1	134.018	619.358	.000	.515
	EMO	208.324	1	208.324	907.071	.000	.609
	QUA	.197	1	.197	1.757	.186	.003
INV * COD	SOC	1.208	1	1.208	5.489	.019	.009
	PRI	1.439	1	1.439	6.651	.010	.011
	EMO	.472	1	.472	2.055	.152	.004
	QUA	1.401	1	1.401	12.482	.000	.021
INV * COM	SOC	.238	1	.238	1.083	.299	.002
	PRI	.289	1	.289	1.337	.248	.002
	EMO	.179	1	.179	.780	.378	.001
	QUA	86.356	1	86.356	769.572	.000	.569
COD * COM	SOC	37.690	1	37.690	171.217	.000	.227
	PRI	45.817	1	45.817	211.742	.000	.266
	EMO	93.369	1	93.369	406.542	.000	.411
	QUA	.068	1	.068	.610	.435	.001
INV * COD * COM	SOC	.051	1	.051	.230	.632	.000
	PRI	.352	1	.352	1.625	.203	.003
	EMO	3.152	1	3.152	13.724	.000	.023
	QUA	65.420	583	.112			
Error	SOC	128.337	583	.220			
	PRI	126.151	583	.216			
	EMO	133.896	583	.230			
	QUA	10433.484	591				
Total	SOC	10423.875	591				
	PRI	10247.778	591				
	EMO	10136.041	591				
	QUA	706.571	590				
Corrected Total	SOC	730.402	590				
	PRI	749.063	590				
	EMO	793.981	590				

a. R Squared = .907 (Adjusted R Squared = .906)

b. R Squared = .824 (Adjusted R Squared = .822)

c. R Squared = .832 (Adjusted R Squared = .830)

d. R Squared = .831 (Adjusted R Squared = .829)

APPENDIX 7: COM and COD images

COM: Japan vs. China

Product country image	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
1 Innovative	2.00	1.26	0.07	1.86	2.15	27.63	302	**0.00**
2 Excellent quality	2.18	1.27	0.07	2.03	2.32	29.76	302	**0.00**
3 Comfortable	1.88	1.31	0.08	1.73	2.03	24.96	302	**0.00**
4 Functional	2.00	1.30	0.07	1.85	2.15	26.74	302	**0.00**
5 High quality materials	2.03	1.32	0.08	1.88	2.18	26.63	302	**0.00**
6 Reliable	2.06	1.37	0.08	1.91	2.22	26.28	302	**0.00**
7 Highly recognised by consumers	2.07	1.28	0.07	1.92	2.21	28.06	302	**0.00**
8 Durable	2.08	1.18	0.07	1.94	2.21	30.52	302	**0.00**
9 Combined Questions	2.03	0.78	0.04	1.94	2.12	45.24	302	**0.00**

	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				(2-tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
	Country Image								
1	An advanced technological research	2.08	1.28	0.07	1.94	2.22	28.32	301	**0.00**
2	High standard of living	2.02	1.16	0.07	1.89	2.15	30.14	301	**0.00**
3	High labour costs	1.94	1.21	0.07	1.80	2.08	27.92	301	**0.00**
4	Good welfare system	2.09	1.18	0.07	1.95	2.22	30.63	301	**0.00**
5	Civilian non-military government	2.08	1.30	0.07	1.94	2.23	27.83	301	**0.00**
6	Highly developed economy	1.95	1.25	0.07	1.81	2.09	27.06	301	**0.00**
7	High educational standard	2.11	1.21	0.07	1.98	2.25	30.36	301	**0.00**
8	Free-market system	2.09	1.32	0.08	1.94	2.24	27.53	301	**0.00**
9	Democratic	2.17	1.25	0.07	2.03	2.31	30.30	301	**0.00**
10	Combined questions	2.04	0.70	0.04	1.96	2.12	50.39	301	**0.00**

COD: US vs. China

Product Country Image	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
1 Innovative	2.67	1.27	0.07	2.53	2.82	36.65	302	**0.00**
2 Excellent quality	2.54	1.22	0.07	2.40	2.68	36.35	302	**0.00**
3 Comfortable	2.42	1.19	0.07	2.28	2.55	35.30	302	**0.00**
4 Functional	2.38	1.17	0.07	2.25	2.52	35.44	302	**0.00**
5 High quality materials	2.60	1.20	0.07	2.47	2.74	37.88	302	**0.00**
6 Reliable	2.59	1.19	0.07	2.45	2.72	37.86	302	**0.00**
7 Highly recognised by consumers	2.58	1.23	0.07	2.45	2.72	36.62	302	**0.00**
8 Durable	2.53	1.25	0.07	2.39	2.67	35.34	302	**0.00**
9 Combined questions	2.54	.69	0.04	2.46	2.62	63.88	302	**0.00**

Table continued

Country Image	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig.

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				(2-tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
1	An advanced technological research	2.48	1.17	0.07	2.35	2.61	36.87	301	0.00
2	High standard of living	2.51	1.13	0.07	2.38	2.64	38.64	301	0.00
3	High labour costs	2.72	1.20	0.07	2.59	2.86	39.36	301	0.00
4	Good welfare system	2.56	1.24	0.07	2.42	2.70	35.94	301	0.00
5	Civilian non-military government	2.50	1.19	0.07	2.37	2.64	36.42	301	0.00
6	Highly developed economy	2.33	1.26	0.07	2.19	2.47	32.08	301	0.00
7	High educational standard	2.37	1.25	0.07	2.23	2.51	32.99	301	0.00
8	Free-market system	2.50	1.17	0.06	2.37	2.64	37.30	301	0.00
9	Democratic	2.65	1.17	0.067	2.52	2.78	39.31	301	0.00
10	Combined questions								

Source: SPSS File

APPENDIX 8: Simple effect on emotional value

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: EMO

COM	INV		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Japan	shoes	Contrast	180.540	1	180.540	786.891	.000	.567
		Error	137.661	600	.229			
	t-shirt	Contrast	217.212	1	217.212	946.724	.000	.612
		Error	137.661	600	.229			
China	shoes	Contrast	31.485	1	31.485	137.230	.000	.186
		Error	137.661	600	.229			
	t-shirt	Contrast	9.697	1	9.697	42.266	.000	.066
		Error	137.661	600	.229			

Each F tests the simple effects of COD within each level combination of the other effects shown. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: EMO

COM	INV	(I) COD	(J) COD	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Japan	shoes	US	China	2.194[*]	.078	.000	2.041	2.348
		China	US	-2.194[*]	.078	.000	-2.348	-2.041
	t-shirt	US	China	2.399[*]	.078	.000	2.246	2.552
		China	US	-2.399[*]	.078	.000	-2.552	-2.246
China	shoes	US	China	.920[*]	.078	.000	.765	1.074
		China	US	-.920[*]	.078	.000	-1.074	-.765
	t-shirt	US	China	.495[*]	.076	.000	.346	.645
		China	US	-.495[*]	.076	.000	-.645	-.346

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

317