Reflective versus unreflective country images: How ruminating on reasons for buying a country's products alters country image

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ABSTRACT

Based on the excitation-transfer model, this study considers how pondering on reasons for buying a particular country's products influences country image (CI). We use an experimental approach to test our hypotheses and check for differences between unreflective/ad lib CI and reflective/reasoned CI measurements. The findings indicate differences between reflective and unreflective CI perceptions. These differences are more prominent for CI measurements relating to less well-known countries. Only a minority of consumers seem to knowingly buy a country's products because of its reputation. Our research extends existing approaches to CI based only on country knowledge activation by incorporating the concept of motivational relevance and the applicability of activated knowledge. We also propose a segmentation scheme based on the motivational relevance of CI.

1. Introduction

Many governments and private businesses afford considerable importance to country image (CI). For example, the Council on Foreign Relations (2017) reports that "China is believed to spend billions of dollars to boost its international image," and the Turkish Exporters' Assembly recently established a Turkey Promotion Group to unify all activities promoting the "Made in Turkey" image in global markets (Moroğlu, 2017). This has resulted in the rise of consulting agencies specializing in nation branding, such as Bloom, Wally Olins and Curzon, and CI rating services that track changes in CI perceptions, including Anholt-GfK Nation Brands Index, Brand Finance Nation Brands, FutureBrand Country Brand Index and Monocle.

Marketing academics also recognize the importance of CI and link it with several other constructs, such as product/brand evaluations and purchase intentions, brand loyalty and brand differentiation (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2011; Koschate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos, & Oldenkotte, 2012; Magnusson, Krishnan, Westjohn, & Zdravkovic, 2014; Nebenzahl, 2001; Allman, Fenik, Hewett, & Morgan, 2016; Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2019). More recent international business research acknowledges that a company's home CI may be an asset, a source of competitive advantage for its internationalization strategy, and a resource for international expansion, as well as benefiting its exports and foreign direct investment (Suter, Borini, Floriani, Da Silva, & Polo,

2018; Cuervo-Cazurra, Luo, Rumamurti, & Ang, 2018; Eddleston, Sarathy, & Banalieva, 2019).

Research shows that in most buying-decision situations, consumers reflect on their reasons for buying a product before doing so (Bunn, 1993). As consumer choices are based on some level of reasoning or buying calculus, we propose that it is more ecologically valid not to detach CI measurement from underlying reasons for deciding to buy a country's products. This study draws on theory from Higgins, Bargh, and Lombardi's (1985) "excitation-transfer model," which suggests that people will use only mental representations that are "excited" in a given task to evaluate a country's image. Reflecting on reasons for buying a country's products makes it easier for consumers to bring relevant and applicable country information to attention. This theory is supplemented by Eitam and Higgins's (2010) relevance-of-a-representation (ROAR) framework, which specifies how the content of knowledge about a country activated through reflection is motivationally relevant to CI evaluations.

This study examines how CI evaluations are influenced by underlying theoretical reasoning and by different motivations when purchasing a country's products. Consumers may buy products from a specific country for various reasons. For example, they may wish to economize, seek the prestige associated with a particular country's products, reduce uncertainty about quality or express solidarity with the country. Li and Monroe (1992) suggest that people consider specific countries' products

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for reasons of authenticity, exoticness, patriotism, personalization or enhanced social standing. According to ROAR, variations in motivational relevance affect the applicability of activated knowledge units and their incorporation into consumers' CI evaluations.

Few country-of-origin (COO) studies have addressed the motivational relevance of CI information and participants' levels of reflection. Gürhan-Canli and Maheswaran's (2000) experiment shows that motivating participants to reflect on a country influences their evaluations of its products and their perceptions of the relevance of CI information. Similarly, our study examines how reflecting on reasons for buying a particular country's products influences CI assessments. It allows participants' activation of motivationally relevant country knowledge (i.e., relating to their buying decisions), which informs their CI assessments. An experimental procedure is used to investigate differences in CI assessments with and without knowledge activation. The experimental effects are examined under conditions of high and low familiarity with the country. Thus, this study has important implications for determining appropriate conditions for measuring CI.

In light of the previous theoretical considerations, we examine how, when contemplating product purchases, assessments of a country's image vary with differing measurement conditions (i.e., reflective and unreflective), and under conditions closer to those encountered in real life, such as individuals' reasons for buying countries' products (see Bunn, 1993). We argue that CI measures under such conditions differ from those assessed after presenting a country's name or a country cue. Our findings provide a theoretical grounding for assessing CI, with the ultimate aim of improving the quality of CI measures that inform managers' and policymakers' decisions. In addition, we provide a segmentation scheme based on the motivational relevance of CI for use in conjunction with CI measures. This will enable better management of countries' self-promotion and help international marketers to selectively leverage CI as a product attribute or positioning associated with different segments. Theoretically, the study extends existing approaches to CI based only on country knowledge activation by incorporating the concept of motivational relevance and the applicability of activated knowledge.

2. Theoretical background and hypotheses

2.1. CI as beliefs, stereotypes, schemas and attitudes

Before discussing the effects of motivational relevance, it is important to understand underlying conceptualizations of CI and how they influence its measurement. The CI literature follows two independent but interrelated paths: one defines CI from consumers' perspective and focuses on evaluating the acceptability of a country's products at an international level, and the other defines CI from tourists' perspective and focuses on evaluating CI from a tourism standpoint (Lopez & Balabanis, 2021). In the latter path, for example, Ramkissoon acknowledges both cognitive and affective components of a destination's image and emphasizes the impact of that image on tourists' destination choices and travel behavior (Jiang, Ramkissoon, Mavondo, & Feng, 2017; Ramkissoon, Nunkoo, & Gursoy, 2009; Ramkissoon, Uysal, & Brown, 2011).

Studies relating to the former path take four different but interrelated approaches to defining CI, in terms of beliefs (Martin & Sevgin, 1993), stereotypes (Brijs, Bloemer, & Kasper, 2011; Maheswaran, 1994), schema (Kochunny, Babakus, Berl, & Marks, 1993) and attitudes (Buhmann & Ingenhoff, 2015; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). CI beliefs are common to all four approaches. As Fishbein (1966, p. 205) explains, "a person's attitude toward any object can be seen as a function of his beliefs about the object (i.e., the probability or improbability that the object has a specific relationship with some other object, value, concept, or goal) and the evaluative aspects of those beliefs (i.e., the subject's attitude toward, or evaluation of, the 'related object')." A second common aspect is the dynamic nature of CI. How consumers perceive a national culture determines their beliefs, stereotypes, schemas and attitudes relating to the country, as culture is considered to be one dimension or component of CI. Rather than viewing culture as relatively stable (Leung, Bhagat, Buchan, Erez, & Gibson, 2005; Fang, 2005; Fletcher & Fang, 2006), some studies highlight its dynamic nature. Leung et al. (2005, p. 366) refer to the adaptability of the human mind continuously interacting with its environment to suggest that "culture is represented by cognitive structures and processes that are sensitive to environmental influences"; thus, beliefs, stereotypes, schemas and attitudes "are dynamic in the sense that their content and salience are sensitive to environmental influences" and can "change over time as a function of experience and situational influence."

2.2. CI as a set of beliefs

Martin and Sevgin (1993) and Kotler, Haider, and Rein (1993) define CI as a set of beliefs. However, according to expectancy-value theory (Ajzen, 2001), beliefs form the basis for attitudes. Thus, in the current context, expectancy-value theory suggests that people form beliefs about countries from various sources, which subsequently form the basis of their attitudes toward those countries. These beliefs associate a country with both positive and negative attributes. According to this theory, CI is determined by interaction between how closely the beliefs are tied to the country and the valence of the attributes underlying those beliefs. The expectancy-value model holds that attitudes are the result of cognitive processes, such as linking beliefs about and attributes of the country. The main implication for CI measurement is that the content of the CI must be aligned with actual beliefs about and pertinent attributes of the country.

2.3. CI as a set of stereotypes

Stereotypes are defined as a special type of beliefs "about the characteristics, attributes, and behaviors of members of certain groups" (Hilton & Von Hippel, 1996, p. 240). According to Gardner (1994), for a belief to qualify as a stereotype, it must be consensual and unjustified, or distinguish one category from another. In the CI literature, the concept of stereotypes is used loosely, failing to apply Gardner's (1994) qualifying conditions. Furthermore, none of the methods available for measuring stereotypes (e.g., Brigham, 1971; Katz & Braly, 1933a; Katz & Braly, 1933b; McCauley & Stitt, 1978) have been used in CI studies.

Gardner (1994) argues that stereotypes of outgroups and people's attitudes toward these groups are unrelated. He explains that owing to the consensual nature of stereotypes, which implies reliance on common sources of information, the basis for stereotypes is cognitive rather than motivational. Absence of motivational factors is one reason why attitudes and stereotypes are unrelated. Gardner (1994, p. 19) uses the following example to highlight the importance of motivation in forming attitudes:

> An individual with a favorable attitude toward French Canadians might say that what is so nice about them is that they are religious. An individual with a negative attitude might state that the problem with them is that they are too religious. Both individuals, however, might ascribe the attribute of religion to French Canadians. That is, individuals with different attitudes perceive different evaluative connotations in the attributes they assign to a group.

CI research (see Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009) takes for granted a direct correspondence between stereotypes and attitudes, without examining how respondents' differing motivations may alter their evaluations of stereotypical attributes assigned to a country. Nevertheless, there is little evidence to support this view. More recent studies (e. g., Chen, Mathur, & Maheswaran, 2014; Diamantopoulos, Florack, Halkias, & Palcu, 2017; Maher & Carter, 2011) adopt the stereotype content model (SCM) to assess COO effects. Using the SCM to associate stereotypes with attitudes toward a country's products, Maher and

Carter's (2011) results show that only one dimension of the SCM (competence) has a moderate effect on CI. Diamantopoulos et al. (2017) use the SCM to analyze the influence of explicit and implicit country stereotypes on consumer preferences. Other studies (e.g., Chen, Mathur, & Maheswaran, 2014) link country-based SCM stereotype measures with attitudes toward brands or specific products under different conditions, but they do not measure CI.

2.4. CI as a schema

A schema is a "cognitive structure that represents organized knowledge about a given concept or type of stimulus" which is abstracted from prior experience (Fiske & Shelley, 1984, p. 139). A recent review (Ghosh & Gilboa, 2014) identifies four features of schemas: (1) they have an associative network structure; (2) they are representations of similarities or commonalities across events or multiple episodes; (3) they are general and represent the image of the average category member; and (4) they are adaptable and constantly developing because they are affected by new experiences. Schemas develop with new experiences through extraction of commonalities. Stereotypes may be organized and processed as schemas (Maheswaran, 1994), but schemas are broader organizing frameworks that may also include non-stereotypical information about and attributes of an object.

Although several previous studies adopt schema-related perspectives on CI, few measure the content of country schemas (e.g., Shimp, Samiee, & Madden, 1993). Such an approach commonly involves the use of free recall measures rarely encountered in CI studies (for a list of measures, see Wicks, 2012). In contrast, most studies omit the schema content measurement stage and assume that country schemas correspond with attitudinal CI assessments. However, this assumption is contestable, as respondents may have no schemas relating to an object (Wicks, 2012). Schema development depends on one's level of experience with an object or concept. Fiske (1982) examination of the relationship between schemas and attitudes provides evidence that if there is a fit between an object and its schema, the attitudinal response will be associated with the schema. However, when a schema is unavailable or if there is a poor fit, the default response is moderate. Fiske (1982) finds that for novice respondents, schematic processing is not evident and their attitudes are not schema-related. The potential absence of a schema relating to a country calls into question CI studies using schemas or schema-based conceptualizations (e.g., stereotypes) to assess attitudes. Perceivers' motivations for processing specific stimuli have already been established to be an important moderator of the relationship between schemas and attitudes (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990).

2.5. CI as an attitude

The attitudinal approach is the most popular for assessing CI (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009), and recent studies have focused on the content of attitudes (Brijs et al., 2011; Buhmann & Ingenhoff, 2015). Thus, it is important to examine the nature of attitudinal measures of CI. Evaluations distinguish attitudes from schemas or categories (Pratkanis, 1989). While expectancy-value theory (Ajzen, 2001), suggests that CI as attitudes will be congruent with CI measured as beliefs, evidence (for a review of the literature, see Marsh & Wallace, 2014) suggests that the two may be inconsistent. According to Marsh and Wallace (2014), attitudes based on knowledge of and reflection on the attitudinal object tend to make attitudes congruent with beliefs. The amount of knowledge and thinking about a country will determine whether there is a discrepancy between CI as beliefs and CI as attitudinal measures.

Attitudes have traditionally been defined as relatively enduring and stable evaluations (e.g., Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). However, more recent approaches view attitudes as temporary formations (e.g., Tesser, 1978; Wilson & Hodges, 1992). For example, according to Tesser (1978, p. 297), "an attitude at a particular point in time is the result of a constructive process." In adopting this view, Wilson, Douglas, and Kraft

(1990) and Wilson and Hodges (1992) argue that in constructing attitudes, people draw on a large and often contradictory set of beliefs, behaviors and feelings about an object. The subset of elements that people use to construct their attitudes depends on the social context and introspective reasons underlying these attitudes toward an object (Wilson & Hodges, 1992; Wilson, Douglas, & Kraft, 1990). As a result, Wilson and Hodges (1992) suggest that many attitudes are not stable, but are affected by the context and people's thoughts at a specific point in time. In other words, attitudes vary depending on the data used. However, Wilson and Hodges (1992, p. 40) acknowledge that "under some conditions, people do have pre-packaged attitudes that do not have to be generated on the spot." They also argue that "there is not a single attitude toward an object but, rather, any number of attitudes depending on the number of schemas available for thinking about the objects" (Wilson & Hodges, 1992, p. 39). The salience of different thoughts about an attitude toward an object at a given point in time is a key determinant of people's attitudes at that time (Tesser, 1978; Wilson et al., 1990). Accordingly, attitudes reflect information about the country which is momentarily accessible to the individual. The implication is that many CI assessments (commercial and academic) may have only a momentary value.

Wegener and Carlston (2014, p. 518) conclude that "attitudes based on high, rather than low, levels of elaboration have been found to persist longer over time… and to better predict future behavior." Petty, Haugtvedt, and Smith (1995) also argue that an attitude formed on the basis of effortful, issue-relevant information processing will be well formulated and backed by supporting information, and will consequently be stronger. According to Wegener and Carlston (2014), in relatively low-elaboration processes, attitudes are the outcome of "mere associations," heuristics, or simple inferences about the country based on information that is not central to its attributes. In this context, elaboration refers to examination or scrutiny of country-relevant knowledge that is accessible and activated in memory. Elaboration occurs naturally when motivation or ability to think are present, but may also be induced. The reasoning is that elaboration of activated country knowledge influences interpretations of information about the country and self-evaluation of one's amount of knowledge of the country. Realization that one's country knowledge is limited may undermine confidence in one's current attitudes to a country. Individuals' knowledge of a country is an important factor because it influences their ability to think about, elaborate or form informed attitudes toward the country (see Wood & Kallgren, 1988).

As previously mentioned, Eitam and Higgins's (2010) ROAR framework illustrates that not all country knowledge units available to an individual are activated or become accessible. Whether information becomes accessible depends on its motivational relevance and the extent to which it relates to desired or undesired outcomes. Thus, motivational relevance moderates the accessibility of knowledge, but not whether accessible knowledge is used in cognitive responses. Finally, the utility of information accessible to people will determine which parts they use in forming responses.

On the basis of the above, we identify two types of CI (as attitude) measurement processes: reflective and unreflective CI. In the reflective CI measurement condition, respondents are required, through a free recall task, to elaborate on the reasons why they will or will not buy products from a country, before providing their CI evaluation. This is in line with Eitam and Higgins's (2010) ROAR framework. In the unreflective measurement process, only the name of the country is provided as a cue prior to the respondent's CI evaluation. The latter is the dominant CI measurement process.

One issue that emerges from the attitude literature is that reflection about an attitudinal object may increase polarization of the resulting attitudes, a phenomenon known as thought-induced polarization (Millar & Tesser, 1986b) or the "mere thinking effect" (Tesser, 1978). Polarization of CI measurement is ignored in extant CI research. However, it is important because it leads to bimodal or skewed distributions of CI

scores, which may raise questions about traditional ways of reporting CI means.

3. Hypothesis development

3.1. Reflective and unreflective CI

The CI literature is dominated by two major theoretical perspectives: CI as a halo effect and CI as a summary construct (Han, 1989). The former suggests that people use CI to infer attributes of a country's products and form attitudes toward them. The halo model proposes a spreading activation process whereby activation of evaluative information about a country automatically spreads to its products. In contrast, viewing CI as a summary construct assumes that it is built from beliefs about attributes of a country's products stored in consumers' memories (Han, 1989). Both theoretical approaches implicitly assume that the CI construct serves an evaluative function and can, thus, be viewed as an attitude (see Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). The halo and summary effect perspectives share many similarities with the dispositional and constructionist perspectives on attitude formation (Fazio, 2007; Schwarz, 2007). The dispositional approach conceives attitudes (i. e., evaluations of a country) as stable structures stored in one's memory which can be readily retrieved without further processing (Fazio, 2007), whereas the constructionist perspective contends that attitudes are not stored in memory, but rather are constructed from beliefs about the country that people have stored in their memories (Schwarz, 2007). Both perspectives require activation of stored knowledge about a country, which may be either beliefs or readily available evaluative associations (attitudes). In short, knowledge activation forms the basis for both approaches.

As previously mentioned, extant studies show that in many buying-decision situations, consumers reflect on reasons for buying a product before doing so (Bunn, 1993); thus, CI evaluations may be affected by reasons underlying buying decisions. The excitation-transfer model (Higgins, Bargh, & Lombardi, 1985) assumes that in evaluating a CI, people will use only mental representations that are "excited" in a given task. Asking respondents to identify their reasons for buying or not buying a country's products increases excitation of mental representations of the country stored in their memories relevant to the buying situation. Thinking about reasons for buying a country's products makes it easier to bring relevant and applicable country information to consciousness. During this process, consumers will exclude country information that is inapplicable to the buying context, and will correct prior evaluations they may have made about the country. We expect that CI measures taken after such an excitation process will be closer to the conditions pertaining to actual buying situations. This approach resembles the assimilation effect identified by DeCoster and Claypool (2004), where evaluations of a country are aligned with explanations provided for buying the country's products. Furthermore, consumer introspection on likely reasons for buying a country's products involves conscious attention and processing of information available about the country, thus leading to more consistent and crystalized CI evaluations than spontaneous assessments.

Consequently, we argue that people's CI evaluations made when contemplating reasons for buying a country's products will differ from those made when spontaneously and unreflectively expressing opinions about a country. Thinking about reasons goes beyond knowledge activation in Higgins (1996) sense, as people are required to process and combine activated knowledge in a logical way to determine the applicability of the activated knowledge units. This may involve subjective or rational processes (Malle, 1999) that make views about the country's function in purchasing choices more logically coherent and motivationally consistent. As Higgins (1996) explains, the perceived applicability of activated knowledge units will determine whether this knowledge is used in CI formation. Articulating reasons for considering purchasing a country's products allows people not only to retrieve

salient information and attitudes stored in their memories, but also to judge the applicability of the accessed information and attitudes and their consistency with people's buying motivations and rationality. Wilson, Hodges, and LaFleur (1995, p. 17) explain that the act of analyzing reasons is compatible with accessibility and judged applicability. They outline two steps involved in this process:

> The first step of this process involves accessibility; as a result of the limits of introspection and memory, the reasons that are accessible are often unrepresentative of people's initial attitude. The second step can be viewed as the process of judged usability noted by Bem, Higgins, and others; people often assume that their accessible reasons are applicable in the sense that they infer that these accessible reasons reflect their current attitude.

Furthermore, Murphy and Medin (1985) suggest that providing mental explanations for decisions is important, because these explanations increase the coherence of the concepts involved. Accordingly, providing explanations for considering purchasing a country's products will influence how people categorize that country and subsequently structure their CI concept representations. Lombrozo (2009, p. 252) asserts that "explanation and categorization are intimately related." Different types of explanations used to justify buying a country's products reflect differences in people's underlying reasoning and have consequences for categorizing the country. Applying Lombrozo (2009) argument to CI, explanations may influence how CI representations are structured and/or may highlight inferentially useful information to guide the structure of a CI. Malle (1999, p. 35) also explains that "explanations capture the heart of people's concept of intentional action: the assumption of a subjective reasoning process on whose basis the agent forms an intention to act."

Some research (Tesser, 1978; Wilson & Hodges, 1992; Wilson & Kraft, 1993) suggests that when people think about an object such as a country, their thoughts influence their attitudes toward the object. Accordingly, thinking about a country may make favorable (unfavorable) attitudes toward a country even more positive (negative). The reinforcing effect of thoughts on attitude measurement depends on how developed are people's schemas of the country and how consistent are their evaluations of the country with their prior cognitions (Millar & Tesser, 1986b). These factors will determine the extent to which their thoughts influence CI measurement.

Tesser (1978) summarizes the process through which this effect emerges. First, people have organized knowledge structures for different countries, which are called schemas. Schemas make some beliefs about the country more prominent than others, and provide rules for making inferences about other attributes. Second, thoughts are influenced by the schema, and tend to make beliefs about the country less ambivalent (or more univalent) and more consistent with the individual's schema. Third, attitudes toward the country are a function of prominent beliefs. In other words, thoughts affect attitudes through activation of prominent beliefs about the country that are brought into line with underlying reasoning. According to Tesser (1978), because thoughts make beliefs more schema-like and less ambivalent, they are also expected to polarize attitudes, making the latter more negative or more positive, depending on the situation. Attitudinal polarization refers to "a social psychological phenomenon in which an attitude becomes more extreme after exposure to, deliberation on, and/or communication about attitude-congruent information" (Chan & Cui, 2011, p. 325).

Previous research also identifies another influence of thoughts on attitude measurement: thinking about reasons may change people's attitudes toward a country in a direction that diverges from their initial attitude (e.g., Millar & Tesser, 1986a; Wilson & Dunn, 1986; Wilson & Kraft, 1993; Wilson & Schooler, 1991). Wilson and colleagues (e.g., Hodges & Wilson, 1993; Wilson & Hodges, 1992; Wilson, Hodges, & LaFleur, 1995) explain the mechanisms responsible for this effect. When people are asked to explain their reasoning, they may focus on a subset of reasons that are accessible, and, therefore, deem these to be most

applicable. This subset is disproportionately weighted in subsequent attitude formation, and has a disruptive effect that leads people to change their attitudes to be consistent with these reasons (Hodges & Wilson, 1993; Wilson & Hodges, 1992; Wilson & Schooler, 1991). More recently, Clarkson et al.'s (2011, p. 454) research confirms a "mere thought effect" on attitude polarization, whereby "increasing opportunity for thought increases thought confidence and attitude polarization".

In line with the above discussion, we distinguish two conditions under which CI evaluations are taken into consideration: reasoned CI (RCI) evaluations, and ad lib or unreflective CI (ACI) evaluations. The former are measured through a survey questionnaire administered after asking respondents to think about and list reasons for buying or not buying a given country's products. The latter are measured in the customary way, through a survey questionnaire without requesting the respondents to reflect on and list reasons for buying or not buying a country's product. ACI responses are immediate or "off the top of one's head" when the country's name is provided as a cue. Consistent with our arguments thus far, we hypothesize:

H1a.. ACI evaluations differ from RCI evaluations (the direction of effects will be in agreement with favorable or unfavorable stored beliefs activated in an individual's memory).

H1b.. ACI evaluations result in lower levels of attitude polarization than RCI evaluations.

3.2. Moderating effect of country familiarity

Because alignment with applicable activated knowledge is a primary reason for differences between ACI and RCI, it is important to observe what happens when country knowledge availability is limited. In testing the moderating effects of individuals' knowledge availability, Wilson, Kraft, and Dunn (1989) conclude that thinking about reasons has a stronger effect on the attitudes of less knowledgeable people. They find that people with less knowledge of a given stimulus tend to have (1) more ambivalent and biased beliefs about the stimulus, (2) attitudes with incongruent cognitive and affective elements, and (3) weaker attitudes that are more malleable (Wilson et al., 1989, 1993). Consequently, people with little knowledge of a country are more likely to rely on fewer applicable activated knowledge units to form a CI. As such, the CI is likely to be less crystalized and stable.

However, the opposite occurs when country knowledge availability is higher. The memory structure of knowledgeable people indicates better integration of cognitive and affective components (Wilson, 1990), a more consistent set of thoughts (Lusk & Judd, 1988), and stronger and more stable attitudes (Fazio & Zanna, 1981). Cognitive psychology shows that consumers familiar with an object, such as a country, have a more stable, complex, rich and veridical cognitive structure of knowledge about that object (Olson & Dover, 1978). Therefore, people with greater country knowledge availability are likely to have a more crystalized and stable CI. Those with familiarity will have a more robust memory structure for the country, making it less likely that different circumstances will change or polarize their CI. Wilson, Dunn, Bybee, Hyman, and Rotondo (1984) suggest that thought-induced polarization of attitudes will not arise if subjects do not have access to the reasons for which they formed their attitude. Polarization is more common for attitudinal objects about which an individual has extensive knowledge (Tesser & Leone, 1977). Accordingly, we propose the following hypotheses:

H2a.. The discrepancy between ACI and RCI evaluations is mitigated by a person's level of familiarity with the country, such that the difference between ACI and RCI is higher among people with low country familiarity.

H2b.. The difference in the polarization of ACI and RCI ratings is moderated by a respondent's level of familiarity with the country, such that the difference between ACI and RCI polarization is higher among

people with low country familiarity.

3.3. Effect of the content of reasons for buying a country's products

Few studies examine the reasons people may consider when contemplating buying a country's products. Li and Monroe (1992) find that such reasons include authenticity, exoticness, patriotism, personalization and enhanced social standing. These fall into Malle's (1999) classification into belief reasons and desire reasons. People will buy a product from a country if they believe that country's products are more likely than those of other countries to possess specific valued attributes, such as greater authenticity or exoticness, or because they are seeking to signal higher social status, achieve greater personalization or support their home country. Thus, the content of these explanations relates to people's CI. This discussion is also germane to arguments about motivational relevance in Eitam and Higgins's (2010) ROAR framework. They state that what information is accessible is influenced by its motivational relevance. Information relevant to motivation for buying a country's product will become accessible and, if judged applicable, will be used in CI formation. Similarly, as explained previously, Wilson, Hodges, & LaFleur (1995) show that analyzing reasons determines which information about a country becomes accessible and which units of accessible information are judged applicable to forming CI. Both approaches suggest that people's CI will be aligned with their reasons for buying a country's products through the mechanisms of accessibility and judgments of the usability of the information. Because it is difficult to determine a priori the potential reasons for consumers buying a country's products, we propose a general hypothesis:

H3.. Explanations offered for buying a country's products correlate with the corresponding CI dimension.

4. Methodology

We adopted an experimental approach to test the postulated differences between ACI and RCI, using a mixed-effects (two-by-two) experimental design. The between-subjects factor was measurement of CI under ad lib conditions (ACI), and under conditions in which participants had to specify their reasons for buying or not buying products from a stimulus country (RCI). The within-subject factor consisted of one generally familiar and one generally less familiar country stimulus.

4.1. Experimental conditions

We randomly assigned consumer respondents to two groups. We asked those in the RCI condition to write down as many reasons as they could think of for buying or not buying a product from the stimulus country. The reason for this task was to activate country knowledge stored in participants' memories. We measured the CI for the stimulus country, and then assessed respondents' familiarity with the country, measured the control variables, and collected demographic information (gender, age and income). In the ACI condition, we asked respondents to spontaneously provide CI ratings of the stimulus country, and then measured the same variables as for the first group.

4.1.1. Within-subject design

The within-subject factor included an assessment of a generally well-known country (high familiarity), followed by one for a less well-known country (low familiarity). As a lesser-known country stimulus, we selected South Korea. South Korean products are widely available in the UK, but for several reasons South Korea, as a country, appears not to be well-known to British consumers. As a more well-known country, we used Italy because Italian brands and products are sufficiently diffused in the UK, and because most British consumers are more familiar with Italy than with South Korea, as confirmed by manipulation checks.

Respondents in both the ACI and RCI conditions repeated the same

process for the two countries. Online data collection software enabled us to randomly alter the order in which each country was used as a stimulus. To avoid contamination effects between the two countries, we separated the two stages with a distraction task: before completing sections relating to the second country, respondents read a short newspaper article about recent budget issues in the UK and rated their approval on a three-item Likert scale.

We used data from an online panel of British people. To avoid confounding effects, respondents were screened to ensure that they were neither Italian nor South Korean. All respondents were aged 18 or older. We used attention filters, which are common in online surveys (see Meade & Craig, 2012), to eliminate careless respondents. After doing so, 257 usable responses remained for the RCI group and 112 for the ACI group.

4.2. Control variables

Following Becker et al.'s (2016) suggestion, we selected control variables on a theoretical basis. Theoretically, consumer ethnocentrism relates negatively to CI evaluations of foreign countries (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). This effect is empirically supported by many studies (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). To eliminate the effect of individual differences in consumer ethnocentrism on our results, we included it as a control variable. We also included three demographic variables (gender, age and income) as control variables because we expected the reasons for people buying from a country to vary according to demographic characteristics.

Individuals' familiarity with a country affects how they perceive it and how they form a CI (Han, 1989). This is theoretically congruent with the premises of Allport's (1954) contact theory and with mere exposure theory, which are widely supported in empirical research (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). These theories suggest that, all else being equal, the greater the contact and familiarity with other groups, the more positive will be evaluations of those groups. More recently, Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre (2016), drawing on Han (1989) arguments, have identified the moderating role of country familiarity. They hypothesize that country familiarity decreases products' influence on CI. Their theoretical argument is that individuals familiar with a country use multiple sources of information to form their CI, and, thus, rely less on products. However, Lee et al.'s (2016) empirical results provide only marginal support for this theory. Therefore, we used familiarity with each of the stimulus countries as a control variable. Our analysis included both proposed relationships (direct and moderating) of country familiarity with CI.

4.3. Sample composition

We collected a total of 369 valid responses from the two experimental groups (257 for the RCI group and 112 for the ACI group). The respondents' ages ranged from 18 to 53 years, with an average of 31.12 years (SD = 8.28), and 46.1% were male. The distribution of reported income was as follows: less than £ 10,000, 4.06%; £ 10,000–£ 19,999, 13.27%; £ 20,000–£ 29,999, 18.97%; £ 30,000–£ 39,999, 21.14%; £ 40,000–£ 49,999, 13.82%; £ 50,000–£ 59,999, 10.57%; £ 60,000–£ 69,999, 6.23%; £ 70,000–£ 79,999, 3.79%; £ 80,000–£ 89,999, 1.90%; £ 90,000–£ 99,999, 2.71%; and more than £ 100,000, 3.25%. There were no demographic differences across the groups (gender: $\chi^2 = 1.51$, df = 1, $p = 0.22$; age: $t(367) = 1.16$, $p = 0.25$; income: $t(367) = 0.70$, $p = 0.49$).

4.4. Measures

We used existing scales to operationalize the image and control variables. Several scales are available for measuring CI (for reviews, see Costa, Carneiro, & Goldszmidt, 2016; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). Most reviews of CI reach consensus on two CI components: micro and macro CI. Macro CI is defined as "the total of all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs one has about a particular country," and micro CI is defined as "the total of all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs one has about the products of a given country" (Pappu & Quester, 2010, p. 283). We measured macro CI using Pappu, Quester, & Cooksey (2007) nine-item, seven-point semantic differential scale, which has three subdimensions: economic, political and technological (see Martin & Sevgin, 1993). We assessed micro CI with a seven-item, seven-point Likert scale adapted from Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998). Following Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) suggestion, we also included an affective CI measure, operationalized on a six-item, seven-point rating scale based on Oberecker and Diamantopoulos (2011) consumer affinity scale. This scale captures favorable feelings toward a foreign country.

We expected thinking about reasons for buying or not buying a country's product (RCI condition) to influence any of the above dimensions, depending on the reasons mentioned by the participants. Participants who claimed to buy a country's products because they are technologically superior were expected to rate the country high on the technological dimension. Participants who mentioned avoiding a country's products because of human rights abuses, child labor, slave labor or sweatshops (i.e. moral reasons) were expected to rate that country low on the political dimension. Participants who mentioned buying products from a country because they are cheap (i.e., low labor costs) were expected to rate the country low on economic development. The micro CI dimension seems to be more relevant to actual product purchases as it may directly reflect consumers' ordinary concerns about products, such as workmanship and design, which are captured by this dimension. The affective dimension will be influenced not by the content of the cited reasons but by their valence. The RCI condition was expected to activate stored knowledge about the country relating to these dimensions, and thereby alter participants' assessments of CI, as predicted in H1a.

In line with Oberecker and Diamantopoulos (2011), we measured consumer ethnocentrism with a five-item, seven-point Likert scale adapted from Shimp and Sharma (1987). We measured country familiarity using two self-reported items ("How familiar do you consider yourself with country X?" and "How knowledgeable do you consider yourself about country X?") on a seven-point rating scale (1 = not at all, 7 = extremely familiar). Following Bassili (1996), we computed the extremity of attitudes by taking the absolute value of the difference between a respondent's answer and the midpoint of the CI scales (i.e., 3.5).

4.5. Measurement model

Using pooled data from the two experimental groups, we validated the constructs through confirmatory factor analysis. We examined both convergent and discriminant validity, and the measurement model included scales for consumer ethnocentrism, familiarity with Italy, familiarity with South Korea, and the five CI dimension measures for both Italy and South Korea. We used the robust maximum likelihood method of estimation. The model for the pooled sample exhibited good fit ($\chi^2(482) = 770.60$, $p < 0.001$; comparative fit index [CFI] = 0.96; Tucker–Lewis Index [TLI] = 0.96; root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = 0.04; standardized root mean square residual [SMR] = 0.04). Average variances extracted (AVEs) and reliability statistics are reported in Appendix A.

4.6. Measurement invariance

Putnick and Bornstein (2016) suggest that measurement invariance checks are appropriate when examining different groups and different measurement occasions (i.e., repeated measures), as in this study. We calculated two types of measurement invariance: invariance of the image and familiarity measures used for Italy and South Korea (condition measurement invariance), and invariance of all measures in the ACI and RCI groups. Three types of invariance were assessed: configural,

metric and scalar.

Configural invariance refers to whether the overall factor structure stipulated in the measure fits well for all groups and countries. This was tested by fitting the specified measurement model for all groups, without constraining the factor loadings and item intercepts in each group. A good multi-group model fit suggested that the overall factor structure held up similarly for all groups. Metric invariance indicates whether the factor loadings are equivalent across the examined groups. The factor loadings are constrained to be equivalent across groups, while the item intercepts are allowed to vary freely. Metric invariance was ascertained by good multi-group model fit. Scalar invariance denotes whether the item intercepts are equivalent across groups. In this case, both factor loadings and item intercepts were constrained to be equivalent across groups. Again, good multi-group model fit suggested scalar equivalence.

Scalar invariance is a requirement for performing multi-group comparisons of factor means. For the first type of invariance of measures for Italy and South Korea, the fit statistics for metric invariance were $\chi^2(348) = 583.88$, $p < 0.001$, CFI = 0.97, TLI = 0.96, RMSEA = 0.04 and SRMR = 0.04; and those for partial scalar invariance were $\chi^2(353) = 597.88$, $p < 0.001$, CFI = 0.96, TLI = 0.96, RMSEA = 0.04 and SRMR = 0.04. The intercepts of three items were freed (item 2 from the economic image dimension, item 1 from the micro dimension and item 1 from the affective dimension). Examination of the latent variables' standardized means revealed that South Korea scored higher than Italy on the technological dimension of CI (0.29, $p < 0.001$). However, South Korea's standardized average for CI was significantly lower than Italy's on the other dimensions (economic –0.88, political –0.78, micro –1.12, affective –1.54; all $ps < 0.001$). Similarly, country familiarity with South Korea was significantly lower than with Italy (–1.11, $p < 0.001$), thus confirming the two countries as appropriate selections on the basis of their familiarity to our UK sample (representing less-known and well-known stimuli, respectively).

For the measurement invariance models, the model fit was $\chi^2(678) = 982.45$, $p < 0.001$, CFI = 0.96, TLI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.05 and SRMR = 0.05 for configural invariance, $\chi^2(696) = 996.32$, $p < 0.001$, CFI = 0.96, TLI = 0.96, RMSEA = 0.05 and SRMR = 0.05 for metric invariance, and $\chi^2(714) = 1006.44$, $p < 0.001$, CFI = 0.96, TLI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.05 and SRMR = 0.05 for scalar invariance.

5. Results

To test the hypotheses, we used multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) for H1 and H2, and latent class analysis followed by the three-step distal approach (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014) for H3. We explain the analytical methods and our rationale for their use in the next sections.

5.1. CI differences (H1a and H2a)

As noted, we used MANCOVA to test H1a and H2a. The dependent variables were political CI, technological CI, economic CI, micro CI and affective CI. The independent variables were the experimental condition (RCI versus ACI) and a median split of country familiarity. The covariates included consumer ethnocentrism, gender, age and income. We performed a two-way MANCOVA for the two stimulus countries separately to check for any interaction effect between country familiarity and the RCI/ACI condition, which is country-specific. The MANCOVA approach is preferable to separate analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) because the five dependent variables are moderately correlated with each other (thus protecting against inflated Type 1 errors in separate ANCOVAs). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2014, p. 285), using multivariate analysis of variance rather than multiple univariate analysis of variance has the advantages that "by measuring several DVs instead of only one, the researcher improves the chance of discovering what it is that changes as a result of different treatments and their interactions," that when there are several dependent variables it offers

"protection against inflated Type I error due to multiple tests of (likely) correlated DVs" and that "under certain, probably rare conditions, it may reveal differences not shown in separate ANOVAs."

In testing the CI differences in the ACI and RCI conditions (H1a), the MANCOVA results for Italy revealed a statistically significant effect for the method of CI evaluation (Pillai's trace = 0.03, $F(5, 356) = 3.73$, $p = 0.036$, $\eta^2 = 0.03$), providing support for H1a. To test the mitigating effect of country familiarity on H1a, the interaction effects between the two grouping variables (country familiarity and experimental groups) were examined. We found no statistically significant interaction effect between country familiarity and method (Pillai's trace = 0.01, $F(5, 356) = 0.49$, $p = 0.782$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$), thus failing to support H2a. Participants' familiarity with the country had an independent significant effect on the CI dimensions (Pillai's trace = 0.28, $F(5, 356) = 28.07$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.28$). Examination of the subsequent ANCOVAs indicated that the method of CI evaluation had an effect on all except the affective and economic CI dimensions of CI. The specific univariate effects of RCI on CI dimensions were as follows: political ($F(1, 369) = 4.89$, $p = 0.028$; $\eta^2 = 0.01$), technological ($F(1, 369) = 5.44$, $p = 0.020$, $\eta^2 = 0.02$), economic ($F(1, 369) = 3.57$, $p = 0.060$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$), micro CI ($F(1, 369) = 7.50$, $p = 0.006$, $\eta^2 = 0.02$) and affective ($F(1, 369) = 2.07$, $p = 0.149$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$). For all variables, the scores were higher in the RCI group.

We conducted the same analysis for South Korea to test H1a and H2a for this country. The results revealed that the method of CI evaluation had a significant effect on the South Korean CI (Pillai's trace = 0.04, $F(5, 356) = 3.09$, $p = 0.010$, $\eta^2 = 0.04$), supporting H1a. However, we found no statistically significant interaction effect between country familiarity and the method of evaluation (Pillai's trace = 0.03, $F(5, 356) = 1.93$, $p = 0.089$, $\eta^2 = 0.03$), failing to support H2a. We found that participants' familiarity with the country also had a significant independent effect on South Korean CI dimensions (Pillai's trace = 0.23, $F(5, 356) = 21.68$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.23$). Examination of the subsequent univariate ANCOVAs revealed that the method of CI evaluation had an effect on the technological, micro and affective image dimensions of CI, but not on the political and economic dimensions. The specific univariate effects of method on CI dimensions were as follows: political ($F(1, 369) = 0.67$, $p = 0.413$, $\eta^2 = 0.07$), technological ($F(1, 369) = 5.74$, $p = 0.017$, $\eta^2 = 0.02$), economic ($F(1, 369) = 0.54$, $p = 0.463$, $\eta^2 = 0.00$), micro ($F(1, 369) = 5.17$, $p = 0.024$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$), and affective ($F(1, 369) = 9.46$, $p = 0.002$, $\eta^2 = 0.03$). These results provide support for H1a but not for H2a.

The theoretical argument in support of H2a is that people with low familiarity with a country tend to have more ambivalent and biased beliefs about it (Wilson et al., 1989), and weaker attitudes that are more malleable (Wilson et al., 1989, 1993). In contrast, people who are highly familiar with a country tend to make more crystalized and stable CI evaluations and rely less on activated knowledge. Our findings suggest that country knowledge activation (RCI condition) plays an equally important role for those with both high and low familiarity with a country, which does not support H2a. The RCI condition similarly influences CI evaluations by consumers familiar and unfamiliar with the country, suggesting that it is important to both types of consumers. However, our findings show that country familiarity has an independent effect on CI. This can be explained by mere exposure and contact theories (Allport, 1954; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006), which suggest that, all else being equal, the greater the familiarity, the more positive the evaluations of a country. Knowledge activation seems to have an additive, validatory effect on familiar CI evaluations.

5.2. Polarization of CI measures (H1b and H2b)

To test H1b and H2b, we used a MANCOVA, as in the previous section, and checked the same statistics. For H1b, the MANCOVA results for Italy as the country stimulus revealed no statistically significant effect for the method of CI evaluation on polarization (Pillai's trace = 0.02, $F(5, 356) = 1.55$, $p = 0.175$, $\eta^2 = 0.02$), so H1b is not empirically supported. For H2b, we checked the statistical significance of the

interaction term, and similarly found no statistically significant interaction effect between country familiarity and the method of CI evaluation on polarization of CI (Pillai's trace = 0.01, $F(5, 356) = 0.52$, $p = 0.762$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$), thus failing to support H2b. However, we identified a significant independent effect of participants' familiarity with the country on CI polarization (Pillai's trace = 0.142, $F(5, 356) = 11.82$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.14$). Individuals who were familiar with the country had more polarized scores on all dimensions of CI than those who were unfamiliar. Examination of the subsequent ANCOVAs for specific univariate effects of the method of CI evaluation on polarization revealed no significant effects on any dimension: political ($F(1, 369) = 3.36$, $p = 0.068$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$), technological ($F(1, 369) = 2.65$, $p = 0.105$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$), economic ($F(1, 369) = 1.39$, $p = 0.170$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$), micro ($F(1, 369) = 2.03$, $p = 0.061$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$) and affective ($F(1, 369) = 0.33$, $p = 0.528$, $\eta^2 = 0.00$).

We conducted the same analysis for South Korea as the stimulus country, which revealed that the method of CI evaluation had a significant effect on the polarization of CI measures (Pillai's trace = 0.04, $F(5, 356) = 3.08$, $p = 0.010$, $\eta^2 = 0.04$), supporting H1b. The interaction effect between country familiarity and the method of evaluation on CI polarization was not significant (Pillai's trace = 0.01, $F(5356) = 0.44$, $p = 0.824$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$), indicating lack of support for H2b from this dataset.

We also found a significant independent effect of participants' familiarity with the country for South Korea (Pillai's trace = 0.14, $F(5356) = 11.94$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.14$). Similarly, individuals who were familiar with South Korea had more polarized scores on all dimensions of CI than those who were unfamiliar. It appears that evaluations by respondents with greater familiarity were more crystallized because they were based on more developed schemas of the country. Examination of the subsequent ANCOVAs indicated that the method of CI evaluation had an effect on polarization only of the micro image dimension of CI, with no effects on the other dimensions. The specific univariate effects of the method of evaluation on polarization of CI were as follows: political ($F(1, 369) = 0.82$, $p = 0.365$, $\eta^2 = 0.00$), technological ($F(1, 369) = 3.47$, $p = 0.063$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$), economic ($F(1, 369) = 1.78$, $p = 0.83$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$), micro ($F(1, 369) = 6.95$, $p = 0.009$, $\eta^2 = 0.019$) and affective ($F(1, 369) = 1.88$, $p = 0.172$, $\eta^2 = 0.01$). Polarization of CI was greater in the RCI group. These results provide partial support for H1b but not for H2b. Post hoc tests showed that polarization increased in the RCI condition, as predicted in H1b. For the micro CI dimension of South Korea, the ACI extremity mean was 0.66, and the RCI extremity mean was 1.216 (Bonferroni difference = −0.25, $p = 0.009$).

A paired sample *t*-test revealed that the average score for familiarity with Italy (M = 3.23, SD = 1.54) was significantly higher (*t*-test = 18.56, $p < 0.001$) than that for South Korea (M = 1.89, SD = 1.34). These results confirm that our respondents' familiarity with the two countries differed, with Italy being better known than South Korea.

H1b was supported in the expected direction of the micro CI for South Korea, but not for Italy. Cognitive psychology has shown that consumers familiar with a country have a more stable, complex, rich and veridical cognitive structure of knowledge about that country (Olson & Dover, 1978). It appears that for products from South Korea (micro CI), views become more polarized with country knowledge activation (RCI). A plausible explanation may be variability in consumers' experiences of South Korean products or the information available about the country's products. Experiences of Italian products may be more consistent than those of South Korean products, which is an issue that deserves further research.

The theoretical argument in support of H2b is that people who are familiar with a country will have a more robust memory structure for that country, which will be less likely to change under ACI/RCI. Our results show that polarization of CI evaluations resulting from country knowledge activation is the same for individuals with high and low familiarity, so H2b is not supported. However, we identified a significant independent effect of participants' familiarity with the country on polarization of CI evaluations, which suggests that individuals who are familiar with a country have more polarized CI perceptions than those who are unfamiliar. The CI evaluations of individuals with greater familiarity (as explained for H2b) are more fixed and more polarized because they are based on more developed schemas of the country, as stated in our hypothesis. Although this is confirmed in our findings, our experimental conditions proved to be insufficient to alter levels of CI polarization for consumers with high familiarity.

5.3. Content analysis and latent class analysis of reasons for buying a product from a country (H3)

To test H3, we followed a three-step approach. First, we coded the reasons given by participants for buying or not buying a product from a specific country. Second, these reasons were statistically clustered into broader categories defined by the available data using latent class analysis (LCA). In the third step we adopted a three-step distal approach (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014) and used the chi-square statistic.

In Step 1, we asked participants in the RCI group to state the reasons why they would buy a product from each stimulus country. Several reasons were identified for each. To better visualize these prior to coding, we prepared two semantic word clouds (see Appendix B), in accordance with Barth, Kobourov, and Pupyrev's (2014) approach. We used the Jaccard similarity coefficient to assess the pairwise similarity of the words identified. In the Italian word cloud, "quality," "style," "fashion" and "price" are highly salient, whereas in the South Korean word cloud, the dominant words are "quality," "technology," "cheap" and "price."

Two researchers coded the statements, with acceptable intercoder reliability (Cohen's kappa = 0.901). The codes were ranked according to their frequencies, as shown in Table 1. The key reasons for buying Italian products are quality, design and style, specific Italian products (e.g., ice cream, pizza, mozzarella), economic (price, cheap), utilitarian (durable, easy to use, reliable, effective, efficient, customer service), sensory (taste, smell), image (reputation, premium, image) and fashion (see

Table 1
Coding and frequencies of reasons for buying a country's products.

Italy			South Korea		
	Frequency	%		Frequency	%
Product quality	177	13.95	Economic-related	281	26.53
Design/style	151	11.90	Utilitarian reasons	177	16.71
Specific products	151	11.90	Technology	126	11.90
Economic-related	109	8.59	Product quality	88	8.31
Utilitarian reasons	94	7.41	Specific products	68	6.42
Sensory reasons	87	6.86	Differentness	43	4.06
Image of the products	73	5.75	Design and style	39	3.68
Fashionability	59	4.65	Image of the products	36	3.40
Originality	56	4.41	Originality	35	3.31
Heritage	56	4.41	Fashionability	32	3.02
Authenticity	54	4.26	Emotional	27	2.55
Emotional	49	3.86	Heritage	16	1.51
Affinity with Italy	36	2.84	Authenticity	15	1.42
Differentness	36	2.84	Trustworthiness	15	1.42
Status of the products	33	2.60	South Korean origin	14	1.32
Italian origin	18	1.42	Solidarity	11	1.04
Trustworthiness	8	0.63	Country affinity	10	0.94
Solidarity	7	0.55	Sensory reasons	10	0.94
Ethically produced	5	0.39	Ethically produced	9	0.85
Technology	3	0.24	Status of the products	2	0.19

Table 1). For South Korea, the key reasons are economy-related (e.g., prices, cheap), utilitarian, technology and product quality, specific South Korean products (televisions, cell phones) and differentness (afferent, special, exclusive). COO was also cited as a reason (see Table 1). Li and Wyer (1994) have established that COO may act as an independent product attribute. Other reasons for buying products not found in previous studies include solidarity with the country (e.g., economic struggle) and the country's ethicality (e.g., in production methods, wages, labor rights and conditions, and discrimination).

In Step 2, to determine the different configurations of reasons, we performed LCA on the reasons identified. First, we converted the reason categories into binary variables. The first step was to choose the optimal number of classes by specifying LCA models with various numbers of classes. We evaluated the number of classes in the LCA models by comparing several statistical criteria, including Akaike's information criteria (AIC), Bayesian information criteria (BIC), adjusted BIC, entropy and the parametric bootstrapped likelihood ratio test. LCA was chosen for its advantages over other clustering techniques. Specifically, it enables better management of categorical variables and better handling of missing data, it can provide probabilities for individual classifications, and it has higher classification accuracy (Magidson & Vermunt, 2002). Furthermore, LCA provides an array of goodness-of-fit measures unavailable in other techniques for assessing model fit and determining the appropriate number of clusters.

LCA enabled us to identify configurations of the reasons people gave to justify purchases of a country's products. These configurations can be viewed as consumers' mental models of a country stimulus. According to Derry (1996), mental models are tailored reconfigurations of stored memory pieces about an object (e.g., a country) that constitute a specific interpretation of behaviors (e.g., buying products from the country). By asking people to explain why they would consider buying a specific country's products, we activated only relevant pieces of information about the country that respondents had stored in their memories and used to develop a mental model.

We performed LCA separately for each country. For Italy, the four-class model provided the optimal number of classes (four-class fit: AIC = 4033.71, BIC = 4299.89, sample-size adjusted BIC = 4062.12, entropy = 0.74, parametric bootstrapped likelihood ratio test for four (H_0) versus five classes: 2LL differences [df = 19] = 37.80, p = 0.667). As shown in plots of the classes (Fig. 1), the first class contained scores for Italian products' status, image, quality and utilitarian attributes. This

was the smallest class (4.1%), labelled as the "status group." The second class, labelled the "specific products group," contained high scores for specific Italian products given as reasons for buying Italian products. The third class, labelled the "style/fashion group," had high scores for style and design, fashion and heritage. The final class had high scores for differentness and sensory attributes, which we labelled the "differentness group."

For South Korea, the five-class model provided the optimal number of classes (five-class model: AIC = 3110.52, BIC = 3461.88, sample-size adjusted BIC = 3148.02, entropy = 0.91; Vuong-Lo-Mendell-Rubin likelihood ratio test for five [H_0] versus six classes: 2LL differences [df = 20] = 27.85, p = 0.737; Lo-Mendell-Rubin adjusted LRT test value = 27.60, p = 0.7390; parametric bootstrapped likelihood ratio test for five [H_0] versus six classes: 2LL differences [df = 20] = 27.85, p = 0.333). A plot of the classes (Fig. 2) indicates that those in the first class would buy South Korean products because of the country's image, status and trustworthiness as a producer, and for their affinity with the country. This was the smallest class (4%), labelled as the "status/image group." The second class, labelled the "economic group," had high scores for economic reasons and consisted of people who would buy South Korean products primarily because they are cheaper. The third class, labelled the "differentness group," would buy South Korean products because of their differentness from other countries' products. The fourth class, the "technology group," would buy South Korean products because of their high technology, and the last class, the "specific products group," would buy South Korean products because of specific products and brands.

In Step 3, to test H3, we analyzed the differences between the four classes (for Italy) for different aspects of CI using the three-step distal approach (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014) and the chi-square statistic. The three-step approach replaces the one-step approach, amalgamating the latent class model and the latent class regression model into a joint model. According to Asparouhov and Muthén (2014), in the one-step approach, the regression model may affect the latent class formation, and the derived latent classes may lose their meaning. This flaw is addressed by the three-step approach, in which (1) "the latent class model is estimated using only latent class indicator variables", (2) "the most likely class variable is created using the latent class posterior distribution obtained during the first step," and (3) "the most likely class is regressed on predictor variables taking into account the misclassification in the second step" (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014, p. 5). To improve accuracy, we used the factor scores for the different CI dimensions rather
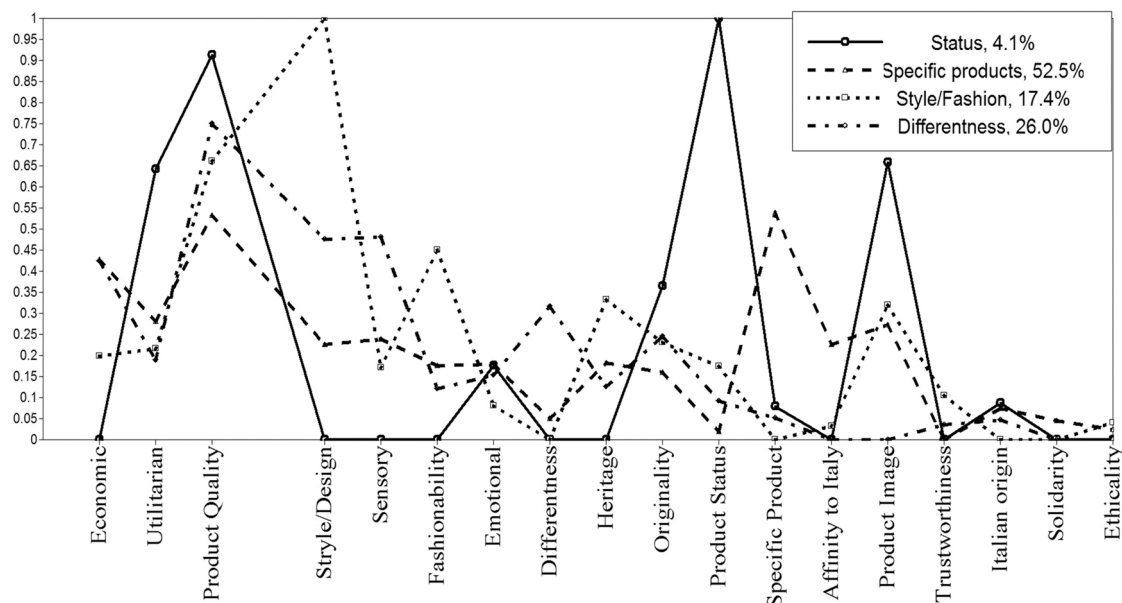

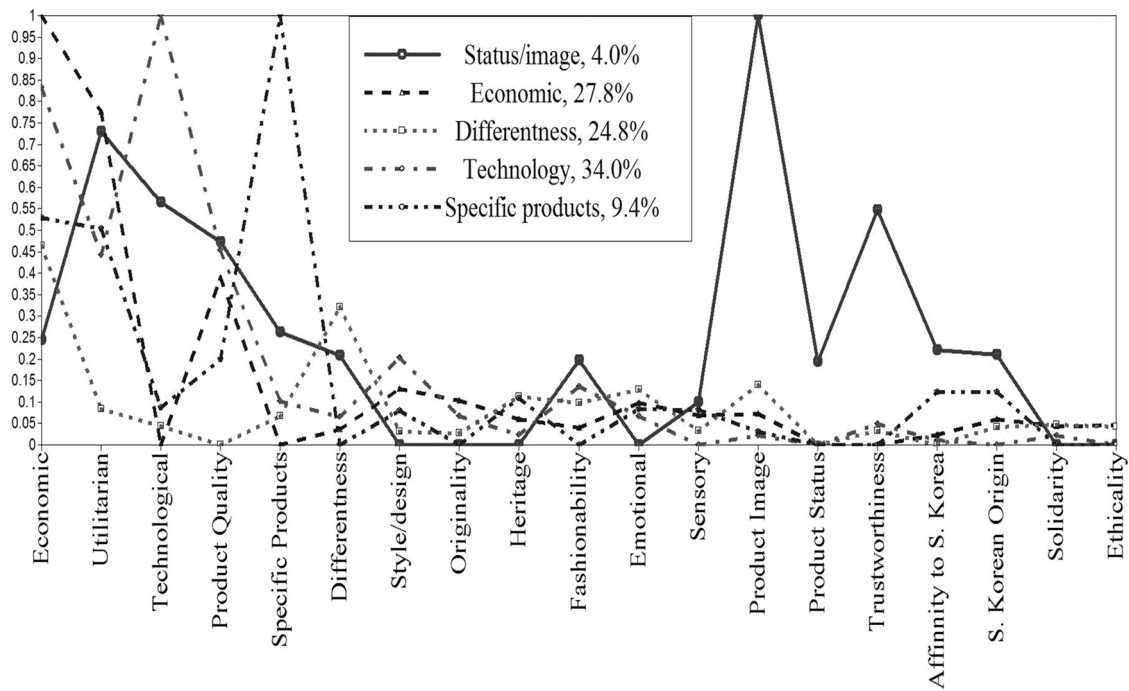**Fig. 1.** Latent classes of reasons for purchasing Italian products.

Fig. 2. Latent classes of reasons for purchasing South Korean products.

than averages. Table 2 reports the CI scores for each class.

For Italy, the overall chi-square test revealed differences across the four classes on only two of the five dimensions of CI—micro image and affective image of Italy—providing partial support for H3. For micro image (overall $\chi^2 = 10.03$, $p = 0.018$), the status group had a stronger image than the specific products ($\chi^2 = 9.22$, $p = 0.002$), style/fashion ($\chi^2 = 4.12$, $p = 0.041$) and differentness groups ($\chi^2 = 6.39$, $p = 0.011$). The status group had significantly higher micro CI scores than all other groups. We found similar differences for the affective dimension of CI (overall $\chi^2 = 11.80$, $p = 0.008$). The status group had a higher score than the specific products ($\chi^2 = 11.44$, $p = 0.001$), style/fashion ($\chi^2 = 8.24$, $p = 0.004$) and differentness groups ($\chi^2 = 5.48$, $p = 0.019$).

The chi-square test indicated a significant difference on the technological dimension of CI between the status and differentness groups ($\chi^2 = 4.00$, $p = 0.045$), with the technological image of Italy being higher in the status group. We identified a similarly significant difference on the economic dimension of CI between the status and specific product groups ($\chi^2 = 5.29$, $p = 0.021$), with the status group scoring higher.

As predicted in H3, it appears that people who buy Italian products for their status and image (the status group) hold the strongest micro and affective images of Italy. To a lesser extent, they are more likely to believe that Italy is technologically and economically advanced than people who buy Italian products simply because they are different from other products or those who buy specific products that are iconic of Italy.

For South Korea, the overall chi-square test used in the three-step analysis revealed differences across the four classes on all five dimensions of the South Korean CI, providing support for H3. To improve

accuracy, we used the factor scores for the different CI dimensions rather than averages. Table 3 reports the CI scores for each class.

For technological image (overall $\chi^2 = 95.80$, $p < 0.001$), differences were found in the status/image group, which had stronger image ratings than the economic ($\chi^2 = 15.70$, $p < 0.001$), differentness ($\chi^2 = 32.04$, $p < 0.001$) and specific products groups ($\chi^2 = 7.64$, $p = 0.006$). The economic group had lower technological CI ratings than the technology group ($\chi^2 = 36.18$, $p < 0.001$), and higher technological CI ratings than the differentness group ($\chi^2 = 5.41$, $p = 0.020$). Finally, the technology group had stronger image ratings than the economic ($\chi^2 = 36.18$, $p < 0.001$), differentness ($\chi^2 = 70.29$, $p < 0.001$) and specific products groups ($\chi^2 = 9.81$, $p = 0.002$). These results provide support for H3, as the technological rationale for purchasing South Korean products aligns with the technological CI.

The economic dimension of the South Korean CI differed statistically across the five identified classes (overall $\chi^2 = 60.97$, $p < 0.001$). The patterns of differences observed were similar to those for the technological CI dimension. Specifically, the status/image group had stronger image ratings than the economic ($\chi^2 = 27.87$, $p < 0.001$), differentness ($\chi^2 = 23.80$, $p < 0.001$) and specific products groups ($\chi^2 = 7.29$, $p = 0.007$). Finally, the technology group had stronger image ratings than the economic ($\chi^2 = 36.13$, $p < 0.001$), differentness ($\chi^2 = 27.16$, $p < 0.001$) and specific products groups ($\chi^2 = 3.71$, $p = 0.054$).

The political dimension of the South Korean CI was statistically different across the five identified classes (overall $\chi^2 = 36.05$, $p < 0.001$). Specifically, the status/image group had stronger image ratings than the economic ($\chi^2 = 13.56$, $p < 0.001$) and differentness groups ($\chi^2 = 10.83$, $p = 0.001$), and the technology group had stronger

Table 2

Results of LCA on configurations of reasons for buying Italian products: three-step distal analysis.

Class	Technological		Economic		Political		Micro		Affective	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE
Status	0.304	0.180	0.648	0.303	−0.007	0.322	0.615	0.214	1.192	0.355
Specific products	−0.003	0.067	−0.075	0.080	0.014	0.098	−0.076	0.077	−0.153	0.177
Style/fashion	0.124	0.133	0.002	0.164	0.230	0.157	0.113	0.122	−0.040	0.241
Differentness	−0.125	0.116	0.048	0.147	−0.180	0.162	−0.018	0.128	0.147	0.271

Table 3
Results of LCA on configurations of reasons for buying South Korean products: three-step distal analysis.

Class	Technological		Economic		Political		Micro		Affective	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE
Status/image	0.918	0.268	1.082	0.273	0.873	0.345	1.358	0.291	0.560	0.677
Economic	−0.303	0.150	−0.560	0.140	−0.581	0.183	−0.405	0.142	−0.338	0.161
Differentness	−0.832	0.151	−0.422	0.142	−0.396	0.171	−0.478	0.124	−0.535	0.148
Technology	0.820	0.116	0.637	0.140	0.639	0.173	0.507	0.130	0.344	0.189
Specific products	−0.219	0.310	0.008	0.290	0.085	0.335	0.041	0.347	0.933	0.463

political image ratings than the economic ($\chi^2 = 23.36$, $p < 0.001$) and differentness groups ($\chi^2 = 17.61$, $p < 0.001$).

The micro/product-level dimension of the South Korean CI also differed statistically across the five identified classes (overall $\chi^2 = 59.19$, $p < 0.001$). The status/image group had stronger image ratings than the economic ($\chi^2 = 28.67$, $p < 0.001$), differentness ($\chi^2 = 33.63$, $p < 0.001$), technology ($\chi^2 = 7.12$, $p = 0.008$) and specific products groups ($\chi^2 = 78.53$, $p = 0.008$), and the technology group had stronger image ratings than the economic ($\chi^2 = 22.31$, $p < 0.001$) and differentness groups ($\chi^2 = 29.22$, $p < 0.001$).

The affective dimension of the South Korean CI was statistically different across the five identified classes (overall $\chi^2 = 22.54$, $p < 0.001$). The technology group had higher image scores than the economic ($\chi^2 = 7.61$, $p = 0.006$) and differentness groups ($\chi^2 = 14.07$, $p < 0.001$), and the specific products group had higher affective image scores for South Korea than the economic ($\chi^2 = 6.56$, $p = 0.010$) and differentness groups ($\chi^2 = 8.54$, $p = 0.003$).

It appears that people who buy South Korean products because of their status and image are more likely to have stronger technological, economic, political and micro images of South Korea, but this group has no particular affection for South Korea. People who buy South Korean products because of their technology also have stronger technological, economic, political and micro images of South Korea, yet this group also has a stronger affection for South Korea. People who would buy South Korean products because they are cheaper or different from other countries' products have the weakest image ratings of South Korea on all the CI dimensions. Those who buy South Korean products because of specific iconic products or brands have lower image perceptions of South Korea than the status/image and technology groups, but feel more affection for the country.

5.4. Post hoc analysis

We performed post hoc analysis to examine factors affecting the emergence of the categories of reasons for buying. Both availability and accessibility of information about a country stored in memory are important preconditions for whether this information will be used (Higgins, 1996). Accordingly, we expected that the explanatory reasons given by respondents might be determined by the availability and accessibility of stored information about the country, their familiarity with the country, and their difficulty in providing reasons for buying the country's products. In addition, we expected individuals' buying reasons to be consistent with their ethnocentric predispositions. Theory suggests that people selectively store and access information about a stimulus (e. g., country) from their memories in a manner consistent with their predispositions (see Higgins, 1996). Thus, consumers are likely to discard as inapplicable any information that disconfirms their ethnocentric tendencies, and to refrain from storing or using it when they offer reasonable explanations. We expected ethnocentric consumers to be less attentive to attributes of a foreign country's products that negated their perceptions of domestic product superiority. In light of this argument, we used four variables to predict the reasoned explanations offered by respondents for buying a country's products: self-reported familiarity with the country, perceived ease of identifying reasons, the time taken to offer reasons (as an objective measure of difficulty) and consumer

ethnocentrism. We assessed perceived ease of producing buying reasons with two items ("How easy was it to think of reasons to buy products from country X?" and "How long did it take you?") measured on seven-point bipolar scales. The Cronbach's alpha values were 0.72 for Italy and 0.70 for South Korea. The time it took respondents to provide a list of reasons was automatically recorded in milliseconds on the online survey platform.

We again employed the three-step regression approach (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014) while including the factor scores for country familiarity, perceived ease of identifying reasons and consumer ethnocentrism as independent variables, and using as a reference category the group that identified the country's status or image as a reason for buying its products. The results shown in Table 4 indicate that the reasons provided are independent of the covariates used for Italy. Similarly, the results for South Korea (Table 5) indicate only one statistically significant effect of country familiarity. Respondents who were familiar with South Korea were more likely to give the country's status as a reason for buying South Korean products than the differentness of its products. Collectively, the two results suggest that reasons given for buying a country's products are independent of people's familiarity with the country, difficulty in thinking of reasons and levels of consumer ethnocentrism.

6. Discussion

In this study, we propose a reflective approach to assessing CI. Based on the excitation-transfer model (Higgins, Bargh, & Lombardi, 1985), we determine that ruminating on reasons for buying a country's products provides access in consumers' memories to country information that is more relevant and applicable to the buying task. Country information unconnected with the buying task is disregarded. Furthermore, consumers' reflections on reasons for buying a country's products focus their attention and cognitive elaboration on information available about the country, which may lead to more crystallized perceptions of CI.

Our study reveals differences between reflective and unreflective measures of CI for both macro and micro CI measures. Differences are more pronounced in stimuli for the less familiar country (South Korea). Interestingly, thinking about reasons for buying South Korean products makes South Korea more likable to consumers by influencing the affective dimension of CI. However, this does not apply to Italy, the more well-known country. This finding suggests that for countries that are not

Table 4
Results of LCA with covariates for Italy[a].

Reference group	Specific products	Style/ fashion	Differentness
Status of the country	Odd ratio	Odd ratio	Odd ratio
Intercepts	2.245 * *	1.103	1.944
Familiarity with Italy	−0.430	−0.123	−0.339
CETSCALE	−0.160	−0.356	0.021
Ease of providing reasons	−0.015	−0.092	0.017
Time taken to provide reasons	0.005	0.004	0.000

[a] The three-step analysis (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014) is analogous to a multinomial logistic regression, with the four-category latent class membership as the outcome variable. * ** $p < 0.001$; * * $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; +$p < 0.10$.

Table 5
Results of LCA with covariates for South Korea[a].

Reference group	Specific products	Economic	Technology	Differentness
Status/image of the country	Odd ratio	Odd ratio	Odd ratio	Odd ratio
Intercepts	1.015 *	2.196 * *	2.269 * *	2.367 * *
Familiarity with South Korea	0.039	–0.330	–0.101	–0.907 *
CETSCALE	0.071	0.059	–0.204	–0.158
Ease of providing reasons	0.026	–0.067	–0.180	0.024
Time taken to provide reasons	–0.001	–0.001	–0.001	–0.010

[a] The three-step analysis (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014) is analogous to a multinomial logistic regression, with the four-category latent class membership as the outcome variable. * ** $p < 0.001$; * * $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; [+]$p < 0.10$.

well-known, making consumers think about them in buying-decision contexts may lead them to reconsider their prior affective attitudes. This effect is pertinent to less well-known countries, for which inattention to individuating information may be higher in the general CI measurement conditions than for more well-known countries.

However, overall differences in the measurement method are not moderated by familiarity with the country. For both familiar and unfamiliar consumers, reflective and unreflective CI perceptions remain the same. This suggests that knowledge of a country does not reflect which country knowledge units are excited and used in CI ratings. Perceptions of country familiarity may be based on factors not necessarily related to buying decisions.

The results do not conclusively confirm the hypothesis that reflective CIs are more polarized than unreflective ones, as more applicable information will be consciously used in CI evaluations. However, the reflective micro CI of South Korea is more polarized than the unreflective one. This may be because South Korea is less well-known than Italy, and thus the likelihood of using context-specific information in general ratings of the country is lower. In addition, the micro CI dimension is cognitively more directly related to buying-decision reasoning than the macro or affective CI dimensions. It appears that excitation of information motivationally relevant to the purchase is more likely to lead to corrective processing of the most relatable CI dimensions. This seems to apply to tentatively held CI evaluations of less well-known countries. Consequently, unreflective CI assessments may lead to under-evaluation of such countries' images.

While rumination on purchasing reasons leads individuals to correct their CI perceptions in line with their motivations for buying a country's products, the study explores how specific buying rationales and CI are interrelated, and how informative CIs are for consumers' buying decisions. The results reveal a variety of reasons for buying a country's products, many of which are not directly related to standard measures of CI, such as solidarity with the country, ethicality of production methods and treatment of the labor force. Our LCA indicates that three groups of buying reasons are equivalent across the two countries and can be generalized: (1) the country's status/image, (2) the differentness of the country's products, and (3) specific iconic products or brands of the country. The first group uses the CI and the status of the country's products as reassurance for their purchasing choices. CI is more relevant to this group than to the others. However, this group accounted for only a minority of respondents (approximately 4%). Those in the second group buy a country's products because they are different from other products, and are likely to consume foreign products to satisfy a need for diversity, nonconformity and/or uniqueness. Approximately 25% of respondents fell into this category. The third category buys a country's products for its iconic products or brands. For this group, we have an exemplar-based model of judgment (Smith & Zarate, 1992). This group of consumers finds it easier to access and use stored information about specific exemplars of the country (products or brands) in their overall

country evaluations. This differs both from the attribute-based model of judgment, where individuals identify key attributes of the country that have implications for their evaluations, and from the schematic model, where individuals categorize countries (e.g., into economically developed, developing and other categories) and then use information or potentially stereotypical characteristics of the category to make their judgments. Regarding knowledge activation, DeCoster and Claypool (2004) suggest that frequent exposure to specific exemplars may make them accessible and automatically recalled when rendering judgments on an object. Similarly, products and brands regularly encountered by consumers may be automatically accessed and used in CI evaluations. The distribution of respondents in this group varied for Italy and South Korea, with 52.5% of respondents identifying specific products as a reason for buying Italian products, and only 9.4% for South Korean products. This reflects differences in the history and market penetration of the two countries' products/brands in consumer markets. Compared with South Korean products, Italian products and brands have a longer and stronger presence in the UK, where the study was conducted.

The other groups identified in the analysis indicate that attribute-based judgment processes are pertinent to some consumers. For example, unsurprisingly, Italy is typically associated with a flair for design, style and fashion, whereas South Korea is known for its technologically advanced and lower-priced products. The latter two attribute groups (technology and economy) were the most cited reasons for buying South Korean products: 34% of respondents would buy South Korean products because they are technologically advanced, and 27.8% because of their lower prices. A schematic model of judgment is likely to apply to these groups, as South Korea may be stereotyped as a developing economy with low labor costs. For Italy, only 17.4% of respondents would buy Italian products for their style and fashion. These differences in distributions reflect the prevalence of the attributes among consumers and are likely to relate to consumers' purchasing history and experience of each country's products.

Analysis of the correspondence between consumers' motivations for buying a country's products and CI dimensions reveals a tendency for motivationally consistent images. For Italy, the country status group produced higher scores for the micro and affective CI dimensions of Italy than the other groups. The technological and economic CI dimensions were more appreciated by the status group than by consumers who would buy Italian products simply because they are different. It appears that in the case of Italy, CI is relevant to only a minority for whom the country is an important cue. The results for South Korea are similar: status/image and technological rationalizations are associated with stronger perceptions of macro and micro CI dimensions of South Korea, both of which are cognitive dimensions. The affective dimension is appreciated more by those who would buy specific South Korean products and brands, and by those who would buy them for their technological qualities. The group who would buy South Korean products because of their lower prices produced the lowest scores on all dimensions, suggesting that this group of consumers uses a schematic judgment model and relies on characteristics and stereotypes of developing countries or the Southeast Asian country category to infer CI.

7. Implications

7.1. Theoretical implications

Our results inform theoretical thinking underlying the measurement of CI and the importance of knowledge activation. The excitation-transfer model (Higgins, Bargh, & Lombardi, 1985) and the ROAR framework appear to be directly applicable to CI research. While there is a good level of agreement in the international marketing literature that CI should be operationalized as an attitude (for reviews, see Costa et al., 2016; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009), there is very little theoretical understanding of how CIs are formed, and of their accessibility to people asked to complete CI surveys. The two theoretical frameworks used here

may encourage future researchers to reconsider their assumptions about CI, and more specifically about CI accessibility and stability. In addition, the motivational relevance of stored knowledge units that underpin CI evaluations, as suggested by ROAR theory, seems to impact on CI measurement.

This information may help academics to use more theory-grounded approaches to assess the CI construct and develop more stable and more accurate CI measures. First, standard unreflective CI measures are directly relevant to only a small group of consumers who use CI as reassurance for their purchasing decisions. Our finding of variation in buying motivations suggests that CI measures must be adjusted to capture the dominant attributes of each country by using reflective CI assessments. Second, halo and summary construct conceptions of CI may apply to different groups of consumers. The results indicate that, in most cases, reasons for buying a country's products are independent of perceived consumer familiarity with the country. Rather than focusing on consumer familiarity to assess which CI perspective is applied, buying motivations may provide better guidance.

The findings indicate two additional perspectives on CI. First, we identify the exemplar model of judgment. A significant number of consumers base their CI perceptions on a country's iconic products and brands rather than on attributes. Second, a schematic type of processing is evident, and countries may belong to other categories that influence CI judgments. Overall, consumers seem to apply various processes (exemplar-based, attribute-based and schematic) in forming CI perceptions. Their motivations for buying a country's products may help reveal the processes they apply, which in turn may provide a better understanding of underlying CI assessments. Given that reasons for buying a country's products do not relate to consumers' familiarity with a country, the difficulty they experience in thinking of reasons for purchasing a country's products and their levels of ethnocentrism may provide independent bases for consumer segmentation.

7.2. Managerial implications

Many market research agencies routinely compile indices of CI measures (for instance, Anholt-GfK Roper, Bloom Consulting, Futurebrand) but pay little attention to how respondents fill in their surveys (for a critique, see Csaba & Stöber, 2011). Such indices are important metrics and are used as inputs into nation-branding decisions. Many countries' governments have launched nation-branding initiatives to improve their countries' images, and a flourishing nation-branding consultancy industry has developed to support such efforts. Our study may assist CI agencies and nation-branding initiatives and consultancies in improving their CI assessments. The findings suggest that underlying reasons for consumers favoring or disfavoring a country or its products influence their CI evaluations. Activation of motivationally relevant country knowledge might be incorporated into CI survey routines to provide more accurate CI assessments and improve nation-branding strategy development. Segmented views of CI based on underlying reasons and levels of country familiarity might help nation-branding decision makers to address issues of CI inconsistencies and develop more targeted strategies.

Appendix A. Factor loading and scale reliability

	Italy		South Korea		Item source
	lambdas	AVE/Rho	lambdas	AVE/Rho	
Technological dimension					Pappu et al. (2007)
Low/high level of technological research	0.675		0.869		
Low/high level of industrialization	0.788	0.538/ 0.699	0.783	0.684/ 0.812	
Economic dimension					Pappu et al. (2007)
Low/high standard of living	0.815		0.873		
Low/high labor costs	0.628	0.529/ 0.689	0.614	0.570/ 0.720	
Political dimension					Pappu et al. (2007)
Military/civilian government	0.795		0.861		
Dictatorial/democratic system	0.667	0.538/ 0.698	0.932	0.805/ 0.892	
Micro dimension					Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998
Products made in country X are carefully produced and have fine workmanship	0.852		0.879		
Products made in country X usually show very clever use of design	0.686		0.714		
Products made in country X are usually quite reliable and seem to last the desired length of time	0.803		0.879		
Products made in country X are up-market	0.789	0.616/ 0.864	0.841	0.691/ 0.899	
Affective dimension					Oberecker & Diamantopoulos (2011)
Country X captivates me	0.944		0.911		
I love country X	0.901		0.941		
Country X inspires me	0.905	0.844/ 0.941	0.950	0.873/ 0.954	
Country familiarity					
How familiar do you consider yourself to be with country X?	0.923		0.947		
How knowledgeable do you consider you are about country X?	0.929	0.857/ 0.923	0.946	0.896/ 0.945	
Consumer ethnocentrism					Shimp & Sharma (1987)
It is not right to purchase foreign products because it puts Britons out of jobs	0.885				
A real Briton should always buy British-made products	0.840				
Britons should purchase products manufactured in the UK rather than letting other countries get rich off us	0.843				
Britons should not buy foreign products because this hurts British business and causes unemployment	0.888				
I always prefer domestic products over foreign ones	0.637	0.679/ 0.913			

Appendix B. Semantic cloud words

A: Semantic cloud words for Italy

B: Semantic cloud words for South Korea

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