

FACTORS AFFECTING THE BRAND USA:  
THE MEDIATED COUNTRY BRAND MODEL

By

JONG WOO JUN

A DISSERTATION PRESENTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL  
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT  
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

2007

© 2007 Jong Woo Jun

To my family

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I thank the chair and members of my dissertation committee for their mentoring. I thank my wife and my children for their devotion, which enabled me to complete my study. Also, I thank my colleagues at the University of Florida and members of the Korean Gator Tennis Club.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS .....	4
LIST OF TABLES .....	7
LIST OF FIGURES .....	8
ABSTRACT .....	9
 CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION .....	11
2 LITERATURE REVIEW .....	17
Brands and Brand Building .....	17
Brand Image .....	18
Brand Identity .....	21
Brand Personality .....	23
Country as a Brand .....	26
3 CONCEPTUALIZATION .....	33
Attitudes toward a Country .....	33
Consumption of Mediated Cultural Products as Behaviors of International Publics .....	34
Inter-Country Relationship Beliefs .....	38
Country Visual Identity .....	41
Personal Knowledge and Experiences .....	45
Country-of-Origin in the Brand Perspective .....	46
4 METHOD .....	54
5 RESULTS .....	63
Subject Profile .....	63
Measurement Model .....	64
Model Testing .....	64
Competing Model .....	67
S. Korean Model .....	68
Mexican Model .....	68
Differences between S. Koreans' and Mexicans' Brand USA Attitudes .....	69
Differences of Country-of-origin Effects depending on Product Categories .....	70
6 DISCUSSION .....	83

7	CONCLUSION.....	96
APPENDIX		
A	CORRELATION MATRIX .....	98
B	ENGLISH SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE .....	101
C	KOREAN SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE .....	106
D	SPANISH SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE .....	111
	LIST OF REFERENCES.....	116
	BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH .....	130

## LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table</u>	<u>page</u>
4-1 Cultural differences among the US, S. Korea, and Mexico.....	59
4-2 Results of exploratory factor analysis of pre-test .....	60
4-3 Constructs, indicators, and key statistics of the final model.....	61
5-1 Constructs, indicators, and key statistics of the S. Korean model .....	72
5-2 Constructs, indicators, and key statistics of the Mexican model .....	73
5-3 Results of ANOVA.....	82
A-1 Correlation matrix.....	99

## LIST OF FIGURES

<u>Figure</u>	<u>page</u>
3-1 Hypothesized model.....	53
5-1 Confirmatory factor analysis of consumption of mediated cultural products.....	74
5-2 The mediated country brand model .....	75
5-5 The single construct model.....	76
5-4 Competing model testing 1 .....	77
5-5 Competing model testing 2.....	78
5-6 S. Korean model.....	79
5-7 Mexican model.....	80
5-8 Country-of-origin model by product categories .....	81

Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School  
of the University of Florida in Partial Fulfillment of the  
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

FACTORS AFFECTING THE BRAND USA:  
THE MEDIATED COUNTRY BRAND MODEL

By

Jong Woo Jun

December 2007

Chair: Chang-Hoan Cho  
Major: Mass Communication

As the concept of brand building began to draw a great amount of attention from academic and industrial fields, advertisers and marketers started to view countries as brands that could be managed and marketed like other product and service brands. Also, there is a consensus among different academic fields on the existence of the country-branding concept. Using brand management approaches, this study explores the antecedents and consequences of attitudes toward country brands from communication and marketing perspectives, and proposed the mediated country brand model. Particularly, the main focus of this study is to investigate the role of mediated cultural product consumption on various targeted country-related constructs. Collecting South Korean and Mexican college students as a sample, this study is designed to identify the role of U.S. mediated cultural product consumption on attitudes toward the U.S. brand, attitudes toward U.S.-based products, and purchase intentions for U.S.-based products, including the mediation effects of inter-country relationship beliefs and country visual identity. The findings of this study conclude that the consumption of mediated cultural products has no direct influences on country brand attitudes (H1-1); however, the consumption of mediated cultural products has a direct relationship with inter-country relationship beliefs (H1-2) and

country visual identity (H1-3). Country brand attitude is influenced by inter-country relationship beliefs (H2), country visual identity (H3), and personal knowledge/experiences (H4). This country brand attitude is linked to attitudes toward country-based products (H5), and positive attitudes toward country-based products subsequently affect consumer purchase intentions of country-based products (H6). Finally, relationships among constructs are slightly different according to individual countries (RQ1) and product categories (RQ2). Unexpectedly, this study also found that the consumption of mediated cultural products directly influences attitudes toward country-based products and purchase intentions. In conclusion, the mediated country brand model is supported across countries. Implications of these findings and directions for refinement and future research are discussed.

## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, image is one of the most important factors in evaluating objects, because people evaluate objects through their own perspectives. When people evaluate something, perceived images are sometimes more important than actual quality. Though consumers are said to use rational thinking in buying environments (Hoyer and MacInnis 2001), it is often true that a product inferior to other competitive products draws the attention of consumers and succeeds in markets by using well organized image strategies. In this regard, consumer product or service brands should be managed to create a favorable image for success within the market place, because consumers might judge products or services based on simple heuristics, such as image (Kotler and Gertner 2002). Image especially has marketing communication implications when we view an object as a brand for the purpose of building a favorable image. Brand perspective approaches could explain the reasons for the successes or failures of many products or services launched in current markets. Favorably perceived brands could have both visible and invisible advantages over other competitors and greater longevity.

These brand management approaches are not limited to specific marketed products or services. For example, human brand image is crucial to candidates launching political campaigns, as favorable images could mean success to those candidates running in elections. The importance of a personal brand is also applicable to consumer marketplaces. For instance, a CEO's image can influence a company's reputation and its products, especially for technology companies. Typical examples include Apple's Steve Jobs, Microsoft's Bill Gates, Cisco's John Chambers, Sun's Scott McNeely, and Oracles's Larry Ellison (Keller 2003). Furthermore, presidents are also critical human brands who can influence the brand equity of the countries they govern. For presidents of relatively unknown countries in particular, the human brand plays

a more significant role in terms of fostering global visibility and familiarity with international publics because of the global media's limited coverage of countries of lesser news value (Sreberny-Mohammadi, Nordenstreng, and Stevenson 1984). Presidents' images might be the only source that international publics use when evaluating countries.

The image and brand debate can be extended to specific countries, as well. A country must develop a strong global image in order to be a successful brand. The desirable outcomes of country brand-building endeavors include attracting international tourists and industrial investors, and promoting its country of origin products to global markets. Thus, discussions of brand management could lead marketers to question the world's perception of a country like the United States, its overall favorability, and what images of the United States have been generated by foreigners. The ability to identify and understand global perceptions of the United States could provide implications for various diplomatic sectors in every country, such as political, economic, cultural, tourism, and even consumer marketing perspectives.

Unique country images continuously evolve and change. For example, the most important brand image for the United States was the "freedom" image developed between the 1940s and 1960s, but America is no longer perceived as the only country of freedom or "the home of desirable brands and popular culture" (Allison 2005, p.1). More specifically, international publics have developed increasingly negative images of or unfavorable feelings toward the United States as a brand; one study showed that the United States was the least favored country among five major countries in the world: the United States, Germany, China, Japan, and France (Mitchell 2005). According to reports by the Pew Research Center (2004), the French, German, and British hold negative views of the United States, and Muslim countries continue to harbor anger toward America after the Iraq War. Further, nearly every citizen of

Jordan or the Palestinian Authority (99%) reported unfavorable attitudes toward the United States (Gentzkow and Shapiro 2004). The serious problem is that this negative image is not limited to certain countries. For example, 53% of the Chinese have negative opinions of the United States (Mitchell 2005), and 46% of Russians still consider the United States as an adversary instead of an ally, even in the post-Cold War era (Nesterov 2005). This negative image of the United States seems primarily associated with its foreign policy—not its people, values, or products (Telhami 2003). For example, the Chinese show sensitive reactions to the U.S.-driven and annually published human rights reports. Also, Taiwan issues raise delicate concerns for the Chinese, because the U.S. policy on Taiwan conflicts with the traditional One-China policy. Another example is a conflict between the United States and Canada, which stems from the rivalry of sharing a border (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998). The same situation also can be extended to Mexico. The geographic proximity of two countries can evoke an affinity between the countries, but it can also generate negative reactions. Even though negative images may not be directly connected to international business, they could indirectly affect international business, especially for companies that make “distinctly American” products (Allison 2005, p. 1; Guyon 2003, p. 179).

Another problem is that the number of U.S. global companies keeps decreasing. According to the top 100 global brand list (BusinessWeek 2001; 2006), the top ten American brands decreased from nine to seven between 2001 and 2006. Also, the number of top 100 brands shrank from 61 to 51. Though this decrease in the top U.S. brands might be due to competition with and the success of other countries’ brands, it should be noted that this decrease happened around the world. More specifically, the sales of U.S.-based brands declined as a result of the Iraq War, or additional international conflicts between the United States and other

countries. The percent of international consumers who use major U.S. products (e.g., Microsoft, McDonald's, Nike, Coca Cola, etc.) in the 30 surveyed countries decreased by about 3%, and the level of trust toward U.S.-based brands also decreased an average of 3% between 2003 and 2004 (NOP World 2004). For South Korea, the event in which two Korean schoolgirls were killed by a U.S. armored car, impacted the sales volume of U.S. made products due to a civil campaign among South Korea's younger generation to boycott American products (Kim 2002).

In recognizing these increasingly negative opinions from international consumers toward the U.S. brand and U.S.-based products, it would be fruitful to explore the various factors affecting attitudes toward the U.S. brand and their impact on U.S.-based products. It is generally acknowledged that there are tremendous factors influencing brand images. For example, images of McDonald's could be generated from various sources such as advertising, word-of-mouth, the golden arches, the Ronald McDonald House, promotion toys, playgrounds, employees, litter in the street, news stories, signage, products, and personal experiences (Aaker 1996). When we view a country as a brand that should be strategically managed, there are many uncontrollable factors that might be beneficial or fatal to country images. From a brand management perspective, the first step is to identify both controllable and uncontrollable factors and manage both of them under rigid strategizing. Among these various factors, mass mediated content can be a powerful source from which international publics obtain information or develop images of a country. It could include controllable messages, like advertising or other marketing communication messages, as well as uncontrollable mass media content, such as news reports, documentaries, and films. Given that the United States is a leading country in the international entertainment industry, dominant "made in the USA" entertainment content could be an effective marketing communication tool for building a strong brand image. However, tremendous

quantities of entertainment content could also hurt the U.S. image, depending on their levels of acceptance by international audiences.

Another factor affecting brand image could be individuals' direct experiences and personal knowledge about a country. Direct experiences with a country may include personal visits to the country, meeting people from the country, making friends with citizens of the country, learning the national language, and even marrying a person from the country. These direct contacts are effective channels to understanding other cultures (Khairullah 1995). Personal knowledge about a country could constitute language proficiency and an understanding of the culture. In the same vein, inherited beliefs about a country can be an effective approach to understanding a country, beyond making simple judgments. These beliefs can also be generated through various controllable or uncontrollable sources that represent criteria with which to judge images of a certain country. Furthermore, general inter-country perceptions are based on political, economic, and cultural relationships (Martin and Eroglu 1993).

In addition, there is a brand management factor influencing country brand image. Considering a country as a strategic brand, the first element of country brand identity can be the country's visual identity (Aaker 1996; Schmitt and Simonson 1997). Within the country brand management setting, the national flag, government badge, and other national symbols could provide formal or informal international representations of a country. If the concept of corporate visual identity is applied to the United States, the stars and stripes, the American eagle, and the Statue of Liberty are core visual signifiers of the country.

This study will focus on the effect of mediated cultural products, such as movies, TV shows, music, advertising, and books on country brand image. It is assumed that the degrees to which people are exposed to these kinds of mediated cultural products positively affects their

attitudes toward a given country. The study's findings could be applied to general marketing communication strategies of the country as a brand and the country-based products that it produces.

This study was initiated by the proposition that mediated cultural products could increase positive attitudes toward a country brand, which in turn, would be linked to attitudes toward and purchase intention of country-based products. The main purposes of this study are to clarify the extent to which consumption of mediated cultural products, including inter-country relationships and national symbols, can explain attitudes toward the country brand, and to examine the effect of country brand attitudes on attitudes toward and purchase intentions of country-based products. Finally, this study intends to help advertising and marketing scholars and practitioners by suggesting marketing communication strategies that will improve country brand image and attitudes toward country-based product brands. This study focuses on perceptions of the U.S. brand and U.S.-based products among consumers in foreign countries.

## CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

### **Brands and Brand Building**

Traditionally, it is believed that companies make products, and consumers own brands. This means that products are developed based on physical attributes and benefits, while brands are created based on invisible values within the consumer's cognition and mind. Because product attributes can be easily imitated and consumers may not recognize differences among similar products, brands can be a competitive asset for differentiating similar products in the consumer's mind (Aaker 1996). Nowadays, it is said that almost everything can be branded, including human beings, ideas, and cities or countries (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). Before discussing the concept of country branding, it is necessary to review what a brand is and how it works. The American Marketing Association defined a brand as "a name, term, sign, symbol, or combination of them that is designed to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors" (Keller 2003, p. 3). This AMA definition focuses on specific brand elements, and thus creating a brand means choosing a name, logo, symbol, package design, and other components that identify and distinguish it from competing products. A brand is also viewed as "a promise a company makes to the customer, of what this product is going to fit into the business of the customer" (Campbell 2002, p. 208). Furthermore, Keller (2003) defined a brand as "a product, but one that adds other dimensions that differentiate it in some way from other products designed to satisfy the same need" (p. 4). According to Keller (2003), a brand provides several benefits from the perspective of both consumers and firms. From consumer perspectives, brands help identify the source or maker of products, and provide simple cues for their product decisions. Beyond their functional benefits, brands serve as a symbolic representation of a consumer's self-image. From the firm perspective, brands make it

possible to identify each brand when handling various products, and provide legal protection for their unique assets. Ultimately, a brand is “nothing more and nothing less than the good name of something” to be offered to consumers (Anholt and Hildreth 2004, p. 10).

Given the importance of brands, brand building is a critical goal for advertisers and marketers. The current market situation makes brand building more important because of different usages and developments in the media, as well as globalization, the fragmentation and transformation of markets, and increasing numbers of available products (Kathman 2002). As consumer markets become more complicated and diverse, customers and audiences cannot remember or recognize brands or products launched in markets. For instance, even though advertisers and marketers try to develop recognizable commercials or effective promotions, it is hard for average product brands to obtain appropriate responses from audiences. In these competitive market situations, branding can be a strategic solution to promoting audience’s recognition, recall, and purchase intentions. There are three practical steps to building brands: (1) identify a point-of-view, (2) develop a pitch, and (3) identify your target platform (Bliss and Wildrick 2005, p. 2–4). Aaker (2000) also introduced the concept of the “sweet spot” and stressed the importance of non-mass media communication beyond traditional advertising, such as sponsorship and using the Internet. As previously noted, there are critical concepts needed to understanding a brand such as brand image, brand identity, and brand personality. Among them, brand image should be explored first when attempting to build a favorable and strong brand, because brand image is the general description of a brand that consumers will first recognize (Aaker 1996).

### **Brand Image**

The concept of image is used in various academic fields, but the meaning is quite confusing because of its vast number of conceptual constructs. Lippman (1922), the famous

American reporter, identified image as a mental picture associated with objects. However, a negative aspect of image exists, which shows only distorted and fractional views of an event instead of the comprehensive image (Boorstin 1964). Scott (1965) divided image into three parts: “composite” image, “generic” image, and “hallucinatory” image. The composite image is acquired through repetitive experiences and it becomes similar to knowledge. The generic image is a representative image stemming from the core characteristics of an object. Many scholars understand image as a construct or schema (Beach 1990). Schema is the linkage of related items in the map of the human brain. Understanding schema as a cognitive construct of information, Kern and Just (1995) regard the image and schema as a similar concept. Boulding (1959) also recognized the similarity between image and schema, asserting that the image is a subjective knowledge. Both scholars suggest that image belongs to the cognitive aspect of information gathering.

The concept of brand image has been used since the early 1950s (Dobni and Zinkhan, 1990). Brand image is defined as “the meaning consumers develop about the brand as a result of the firm’s marketing activities” (Roth 1994, p. 495). Keller (2003) defined brand image as “perception about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory,” and brand associations as “the other information nodes linked to the brand node in memory [that] contain the meaning of the brand for consumers” (p. 66). A desirable brand image is formed when brand associations within the consumer mind are favorable, strong, and unique (Keller 1998). This brand image is also important in country branding or marketing (Pike and Ryan 2004).

However, one of the problems in studying country branding is that no common word represents this single concept. A review of academic and practical literature on the subject

reveals that each term has been given a variety of definitions, and the terms are often used interchangeably. Researchers use several different terms such as “country brand,” “nation brand,” “location brand,” “place brand,” and “destination brand”. This study uses the term country brand, but place branding is used when discussing other geographical branding concepts, such as state or city branding. A country’s image is important in country branding, particularly for young countries (Konecnik 2004); for instance, studies suggest that developing a new brand image can promote tourism in U.S. cities (Judd 1995). Given the importance of brand image, accurate measurement methods are needed to understand and develop images (Roth 1994). Brand images can be measured for country or place brands in various ways. Tapachai and Waryszak (2000) used the beneficial image for the analysis of country or place image. A beneficial image has five value dimensions: functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional. Foley and Fahy (2004) examined images on national tourism promotion websites to analyze the incongruities between expression and experience. Culture is the primary component of brand images of countries or places (Thompson 2004). Hankinson (2004) assessed the salience of image attributes linked with history, heritage, and culture in building a destination brand, and suggested organic images formed from outside marketing’s core, such as education, literature, and the arts using a repertory grid technique. In his research, organic image is defined as “the totality of what a person already knows or perceives about that destination from newspapers, radio and TV news, documentaries, periodicals, dramas, novels, and non-fictional books and classes on geography and history” (p. 7).

There also has been research about constituting the elements of place images (Goodrich 1978; Haahti 1986; Bojani, 1991; Fakeye and Crompton 1991; Reilly 1990; Embacher and Buttle, 1989). Goodrich (1978) did a comparative study of images from nine places in North

America and Central/South America. Haahti (1986) suggested Finland's country image by comparing it to adjacent countries. Leisen (2001) found four categories of U.S. state images: socio-cultural amenities, natural amenities, participative recreational facilities, and climate attribute interrelation. As previous literature shows, country image is currently perceived as consumers', audiences', and/or travelers' mental descriptions of a country. This current image can be good or bad. A more strategic concept of brand is brand identity, which is a desirable image created by marketers for consumers, audiences, and/or travelers. The ultimate goal that a company aims to achieve is effective brand identity. When a brand is successful, brand image and brand identity should be similar.

### **Brand Identity**

Brand identity—one of the core concepts in brand building—is an objective goal that is defined as a strategy that aims to change or develop a brand (Aaker 2000). Brand identity is based on two important factors: brand image and awareness (Aaker 1996). Normally, brand image and identity are used interchangeably, but these two should be distinguished. Brand image refers to the current consumer associations with a brand. Brand identity is a target image that customers are supposed to perceive about a company. According to Aaker (1996), brand identity is more important than brand image and perception in brand building. He viewed brand identity as the outcome of brand associations. In other words, brand identity is the result of the combination of all items related to building brand image and awareness. Brand identity is composed of 12 factors developed from four dimensions: brand as product, brand as organization, brand as person, and brand as symbol. Among the 12 factors, brand as product includes product scope, product attributes, quality/value, uses, users, and country of origin; brand as organization includes organization attributes and local vs. global; brand as person is represented by personality and brand-customer relationships; and brand as symbol includes

visual imagery/metaphors and brand heritage (Aaker 1996). Brand identity *can* differentiate brands from competitors' brands, and then the brand can achieve audience recall and favorable perceptions more easily than others. These achievements encourage sales and improve the company image, encourage continuous purchasing, and lead to actual product trials and loyal consumers of the brand.

Brand identity strategy is practically defined as “a set of processes that include the coordinated efforts of the brand strategists in (1) developing, evaluating, and maintaining the brand identity, and (2) communicating the brand identity to all individuals and groups (internal and external to the firms) responsible for the firm’s marketing communications” (Madhavaram, Badrinarayanan, and McDonald 2005, p. 70). Also, Keller (1993) commented that good brand identity requires two important factors: internal efforts to create brand identity and brand identity integration.

Other authors suggest the concept of brand power. The Brand Power Index is used in technological industries and includes four components: price premium, customer commitment, brand advocacy, and preference among non-customers (Brandt and Johnson 1997). Na, Marshall, and Keller (1999) also applied the concept of brand power to optimize brand equity. Brand power can be explained with the key words trust, perception, and satisfaction. According to Campbell (2002), brand equity can be the cause and result of brand power. In other words, brand equity can build brand power, and brand equity can then be increased by strong brand power. Specifically, brand equity is composed of two key words: awareness and associations (Campbell 2002). Campbell added that an increase in the rate of recall from customers is needed to increase awareness of the brand and also suggested analyzing customers, competitors, and the company in

order to increase associations. Ultimately, brand equity building is the goal of brand strategy. Keller (1993) also explained that brand equity is related to brand awareness and brand image.

Equity is valued as an important asset for companies and other organizations. Brand equity is composed of brand loyalty, name awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, and other proprietary brand assets (Aaker 1991). More specifically, brand equity is influenced by brand image, which is also enhanced by company image, product image, user image, and even the images of competing brands (Beil 1992). This brand identity is important for country branding. While exploring current country images is the first step of branding, developing the right identity is a core step to managing a country brand and ultimately achieving brand equity. Even though international publics perceive the United States negatively, developing desirable country brand identities could strengthen the U.S. brand and alleviate negative perceptions of the country. Thus, the concept of brand identity is essential to building a strong country brand.

### **Brand Personality**

Another important concept of branding is brand personality. Brand personality can broaden our understanding of branding, help differentiate brand identity, act as a communication guideline, and create brand equity (Aaker 1996). The personality concept first appeared in 1930s psychology, and the two major theories behind it are the trait or the dispositional theory and the person-situation theory (Wee 2004). According to the dispositional theory, individual dispositions remain constant and distinctive for each person. On the other hand, the person-situation theory posits that human propensity depends on certain contextual situations. From this traditional perspective of personality, definitions of brand personality normally contained the words “durable” and “stable” and focused on the dynamic nature of a brand (Allport 1937; Sullivan 1953). It is said that personality scales can measure human characteristics (Brinol and Petty 2005). The representative scale is the Big Five of Personality (Digman 1990). The five

factors include: extraversion or dominance and submissiveness, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience. Human personality scales were developed and applied to brand personalities.

Since Martineau (1958) first identified the personality concept for retail stores, this concept has gained popularity. Nowadays, the human personality concept is extended to brand personality, and this brand personality is an important tool to differentiating competitors' brands (Sweeney and Brandon 2006). Brand personification has become common since the frequent use of celebrity endorsements (Azoulay 2003) and is important because brand personality is a viable metaphor for understanding brand image (Caprara, Barbaranelli, and Guido 2001). Research supports that brand personality functions in the same way the human personality does (Wee 2004).

Aaker (1997) investigated the possibility of brand personality by defining it as “the set of human characteristics associated with a brand” (p. 347) and applied various personality scales, including the Big Five of Personality scale and other traditional personality scales used by academics and practitioners, to brands. The results identified five dimensions of brand personality: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness. Among them, three brand personality scales were correlated with three of the Big Five dimensions, and two are different from the Big Five human personality scales. As Aaker (1997) mentioned, personality traits can be associated with a brand in direct or indirect ways. For instance, a brand can be directly associated with people, as when consumers associate a brand with a company's employees or CEO. This concept is applicable to people-related country images, such as associating a country with its citizens or president. A brand can be indirectly associated with

personality traits through product-related attributes, which include the country name, the national flag or badge, advertising, and transportation.

In addition, personality variables are related to attitudes toward brands, so positive personalities lead to favorable brand attitudes (Aaker 1996). For example, while Folgers used more dynamic personalities in its advertising during the early 1990s, Maxwell House suffered in sales because it used characters with weak personalities. Brand personality has been studied across cultures (Sung and Tinkham 2005) and extended to non-profit sectors (Venable, Rose, and Gilbert 2003). Kim, Han, and Park (2001) found positive correlations between attractiveness, distinctiveness, and the self-expressive values of brand personality. However, studies show that the replication of Big Five constructs is dependent upon the brand (Caprara et al. 2001). Other research proposes that the current brand personality scales cannot measure true brand personality, and assert the importance of brand identity over brand personality (Azoulay 2003). Recently, Sweeney and Brandon (2006) suggested an alternative approach to brand personality by introducing the circumplex model, which focuses on interpersonal personality traits derived from social and personality psychology.

The brand personality concept is applicable to any given country. For example, companies or individual brands use celebrity endorsements or a personalized mascot as a tool for developing brand associations. Countries can use this concept to adopt brand personality symbols. These symbols could be people or artificial signifiers created through brand management strategy. More specifically for the United States, the Statue of Liberty is a typical personalized image of the country. The president of the United States could also represent human characteristics of the country. Furthermore, actors or actresses, sports athletes, artists, and

famous business people from the United States could provide personalities representative of the country.

### **Country as a Brand**

Every country has its unique characteristics, such as its people, geography, resources, and culture. Indeed, no two countries have the same name or identity. This affirms the fact that countries come by brand attributes naturally. Almost all objects can be branded and marketed in the same way companies and products are. There has been an overall consensus among academics and practitioners about the existence of the country brand concept (Keller 2003; Anholt 2003; Olins 2002; Caldwell and Freire 2004). Keller (2003) suggested the possibility of branding countries in his book, noting “geographic location also can be branded, and increased mobility of both people and businesses and growth in the tourism industry have contributed to the rise of place marketing” (p. 30). Other authors assert that “any nation can be viewed as a brand, as it can be viewed as a compound of contemporary and historical associations that have relevance for marketing” (O’Shaughnessy and O’Shaughnessy 2000, p. 56). Anholt (2003) also mentioned that a country is operated like a brand in various respects. In particular, Olins (2002) asserted the existence of country branding by refuting Michel Girard’s proposition that “a corporation can be branded, not a state; a country carries specific dignity unlike a marketed product” (p. 241). Olins’s argument is illustrated by the fact that France has changed politically over time, and French politicians became experts in branding and re-branding the country (2002). Benjamin Franklin and his successor, Thomas Jefferson, could be similarly identified as the builders of brand America (Anholt and Hildreth 2004).

Country brand is one of the representative concepts for place brands. In general, country brand image is generally defined as “the total of all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs one has about a particular country” (Martin and Eroglu 1993, p. 193). Based on previous

brand literature, this study defines a country brand as *a mental description of collective country images generated by cognitive, affective, and behavioral experiences about a country*. This definition will be applied throughout the study.

In this era of globalization, positive and attractive branding guarantees success on a global scale (Hsieh et al. 2004). A country brand is crucial to a country and its citizens, because people tend to perceive and respond according to the brand images that shape their attitudes and behaviors (Jaworski and Fosher 2003; Tse and Gorn 1993). Several studies exploring the relationship between one's projected image about an object and the individual's resulting perceptions about and attitudes toward that object have confirmed this notion (e.g., Johansson et al. 1994; Liu and Johnson, 2005). A country image can be one of the main contributors to public perceptions and attitudes about a place (Bramwell and Rawding 1996; Knight and Calantone 2000). In country branding, "developing a brand can be equated to the development of an image identity" (Joppe et al. 2001, p. 252).

However, country branding is challenging because country image is a multifaceted and complex construct (Roth and Romeo 1992) and there are a great number of variables that determine a country image (Lee and Ganesh 1999). Furthermore, because a country is a composite of such diverse images it is not easy to identify as a unified brand (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy 2000). Establishing or changing a country image also consumes a great amount of time and effort (Lebedenko 2004). Despite these challenges regarding country branding and country image promotion, the fact that images are dynamic and can be improved through diligent management means there is hope for the successful development of country brands (Gallarza et al. 2002).

Previous studies found that individual's processes of associating images with foreign countries can be segmented into cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions (Laroche et al. 2005; Lawrence and Marr 1992). A country's familiarity and visibility are prerequisites to these image dimensions and image formation processes. A country's familiarity influences one's feelings toward it (Lee and Ganesh 1999). Moreover, according to Mackay and Fesenmaier (1997), "familiarity was the one consistently significant input variable across all image dimensions" (p. 559). On the contrary, unless a country is familiar and visible, one cannot develop an image of it or even be aware of its presence (Papadopoulos and Heslop 2000).

Consumers do not respond to what is true, but what they believe to be true (Lindquist 1974). Therefore, a country's perceived image is much more important than its actual state. The global media plays a role in today's country branding, in that the media is the major source, if not the only source, from which most people obtain information about countries (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy 2000). Frequent and wide exposure to place identity helps establish a distinguished place brand for global publics (Bramwell and Rawding 1996).

International corporations have already applied this branding concept to the country level as a way of differentiating their products for international consumers. Furthermore, global marketers have become interested in building positive country brand images because they realize the power of country image for their companies and products (Keller 2003). The application range of the branding concept has now extended from its original conceptualization of brand as a product or company to brand as a human, brand as a culture, and brand as a country.

Thus, the country image acts as a halo that surrounds and a summary construct that affects attitudes toward a product brand (Han 1989). In particular, country image acts as a halo when consumers are not familiar with products and as a summary construct when consumers are

familiar with products. Kim and Chung (1997) also found that country image interacts with other marketing variables such as brand popularity and advertising, and they identified country image as a country-related intangible asset. Lee and Ganesh (1999) divided country image into two constructs: overall image and product specific image. They found that specific country images showed stronger effects than country of origin mediating relationships between overall country image and consumer evaluation. Then, what are the factors influencing country brand image? Extant research on country brand image is mostly descriptive, comparing the country brand attitudes or images of different nations in the world without explaining what factors contribute to country brand attitude or image. One recent study (Fullerton 2005) explored the differences in attitudes toward the U.S. brand between individuals who watched U.S. television programs and those who did not. The study found no significant differences between the two groups. The same study also failed to detect a significant correlation between attitudes toward the U.S. brand and an acceptance of U.S.-based products. Laroche, Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Murali (2005) suggested that country image constituted three dimensions—country beliefs, effects on people and desired interactions, and how country image influences product beliefs and product evaluation. Empirically, Jun and Shim (2007) found country personality constructs representing the United States and identified the five constructs of country personality as follows: excitement, trendiness, sincerity, uniqueness, and down to earth. Among these five constructs, trendiness and sincerity are the significant constructs influencing brand attitudes toward the United States.

In addition, marketing communication endeavors can promote country brands.

Advertising is one such typical promotional tool. For the United States, the Shared Value Initiative (SVI) is essential to viewing the effects of country advertising. The SVI was created by Charlotte Beers, a successful advertising executive, and was tested on Muslim countries

(Fullerton and Kendrick 2005). The models depicted in the advertisements include a Muslim-American baker, doctor, schoolteacher, journalist, and firefighter, who say they lead happy lives in the United States (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). According to Fullerton and Kendrick (2005), it is “a first-of-its-kind use of advertising” developed by government officials, and even though there are critical debates on its success, the effects of SVI were proven through experimental research using international students. They confirmed that attitudes toward the United States were enhanced after viewing the advertising, and proposed that marketing techniques are effective tools for building country brands. However, some arguments exist regarding the true success of the SVI. Anholt and Hildreth (2004) asserted that the SVI was a failure because messages do not represent the real thoughts of Muslim people and contain biased depictions of Muslim individuals. For example, Muslims regard other Muslims living in the United States as betrayers (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). In this respect, it is dubious whether the SVI was successful or not, but the SVI has implications for advertising and marketers because it represents the first attempt to use advertising as a brand building communication tool. After that, other countries started to use advertising techniques as a country promotion tool. For example, South Korea is running its country advertising campaign using the slogan, “Sparkling Korea,” which was distributed through ESPN. Taiwan is also running its country branding advertising campaign in the United States featuring Chien-Ming Wang, a baseball player for the New York Yankees. Australia has also run its worldwide country advertising campaign, and it has proven to be a promotional success.

Another marketing communication tool for country brands is sporting events. Though mass media advertising is regarded as the most effective form of marketing communication, the situation is somewhat different when the target object is a country. For instance, a tremendous

budget is required to advertise a country and even this is not always sufficient for reaching all international publics and consumers. Thus, an effective alternative marketing communication tool is a major sports event. When a country hosts a mega event, it can draw international media coverage, thus presenting an effective country-branding vehicle. Empirically, the importance of a sporting event is supported. Jun and H. D. Lee (2007) found that the Olympic Games are an important antecedent that has positively affected the Germany brand. An art event was also one of the significant event categories influencing the Germany brand. Studies show that international sports events and country of origin companies influence country image (Jun and Byon 2006). In their study, Jun and Byon found that the World Cup Games and Olympics influenced the South Korea brand, and the sponsoring companies of those mega events also had positive influences on the country. Furthermore, participating in mega sports events generated favorable country images (Jun and H. M. Lee 2007). Studies also suggested that Latin American countries participating in the World Baseball Classic games, such as Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Mexico, Puerto Rico, and Venezuela, built favorable attitudes among international publics.

One representative consequence of country branding is the country of origin effect. However, many consequences beyond country of origin effect exist. For example, companies consider country of origin images when investing money, constructing factories in foreign countries, and exporting their products. Governments also care about country images when spending foreign aid budgets. Thus, country image is crucial when choosing a host country for international events or finding affiliate partners for international organizations (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). In this regard, Anholt and Hildreth (2004) proposed the hexagon model of country brand, which includes six perceptual constructs that explain the brand equity of a

country: tourism, export brands, foreign and domestic policy, investment and immigration, culture and heritage, and citizens. Even though it might not seem sufficient for six constructs to explain the complexity of country equity, it is worth looking into the specific constructs influencing country brands. Constructs related to this study are export brands and foreign and domestic policy. Tourism-related constructs are not included because a main consequence of this study is country of origin effects from advertising and communication perspectives. Specifically, both constructs of country of origin effects and purchase intentions used in this study are based on export brands, and inter-country relationship beliefs are linked to a country's foreign policy. The main problem with the hexagon model is its lack of mass communication constructs. So this study incorporates mass-mediated cultural products as a main study construct along with country visual identity. Given that the visual identity related to a country is mainly developed through mass-mediated content, it is essential to include mass communication constructs or variables.

In general, there has been limited academic research from a marketing perspective on the antecedents and consequences of country attitudes. Given the unfavorable U.S. country image and the decreasing dominance of U.S. brands around the world, there may be practical advantages to employing a theoretical framework that will examine the antecedents and consequences of country brand attitude. The current study examines which factors influence country brand attitude and how country brand attitude affects attitudes toward, and purchase intentions for, country-based products. The results of this examination will provide theoretical and practical implications for the consumer brand marketing of global companies.

## CHAPTER 3 CONCEPTUALIZATION

### **Attitudes toward a Country**

Country attitude is an extended concept from attitude psychology and brand management. Given that a country can be a brand, attitudes toward product brands can be applied to attitudes toward a country. Even though a country represents much bigger conceptual and physical elements, an attitudinal approach is appropriate to exploring the advertising and marketing implications of a country brand. Moon (1996) explored the impact of consumer ethnocentricity and foreign culture attitudes when consumers are processing country of origin advertisements. In his research, the concept of attitudes toward a foreign culture was used as a main variable. Moon (1996) defines consumer attitudes toward a foreign culture/country as “a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating the life-styles, values, and customs of a specific foreign culture/country in consumption behavior” (p. 437–438). Thus, attitudes toward a foreign country are formed from travel, trade, education, watching movies, or paying attention to world events.

However, one problem is that Moon (1996) measured only consumer attitudes toward a foreign country. Given that a country brand also includes citizens’ evaluations of their own country, this definition has limitations. Branding is not limited to the areas outside of an organization. For example, residents within a country also have certain attitudes about their own country, and these internal evaluations and perceptions are important when building a country brand, in order to draw consensus from all stakeholders. Therefore, a broader definition is required to incorporate brand management concepts. In this study, Eagly and Chaiken’s (1993) traditional definition of attitude is modified to define the concept of country attitude as *a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular country with some degree of favor or disfavor.*

## **Consumption of Mediated Cultural Products as Behaviors of International Publics**

It is said that Hollywood is the world's leading entertainment business. Through this entertainment business, American culture can be easily disseminated to the world, familiarizing international publics with American values, beliefs, and lifestyles (Anholt 2003). It has been well documented that the media appears to have significant agenda setting (e.g., McCombs 1994) and framing (e.g., Entman 1993) influence, in terms of guiding and shaping public opinion. In that sense, the media's depiction of a certain object seems to be critical to determining publics' subsequent perceptions of it. A significant amount of U.S. mediated cultural products are exported globally and international consumers have already become accustomed to such cultural products as movies, TV shows, periodicals, books, and websites. For example, U.S. made television shows make up 75% of Latin American television programs (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). For South Korea, the market share of domestic movies has been over 50%, but recently the market share of Hollywood movies during May 2007 reached 75.4% in the South Korean film market (YTN Star 2007).

The concept of mediated cultural products is defined as *mediated information or entertainment created and delivered by and reflective of a certain culture or country*, and includes movies, music, art, and literature. These mediated cultural products are important factors in conveying a country brand to international audiences and consumers because mediated cultural products have the ability to close perceived distances between a country and international publics (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). During the twentieth century, people who have contact with books, radios, television, music, movies, video games, or other products were influenced by the United States (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). This is because the U.S. government used media products to promote its country brand during the Cold War era. Specific examples of

those media products include the radio program “Voice of America” as well as the magazines *Problems of Communism*, *America Illustrated*, and *Soviet Life* (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). It is widely assumed that the U.S. entertainment business affects global consumers in various ways, such as socially, culturally, and in terms of marketing.

This study views the consumption of mediated cultural products as a behavior-related construct of international publics. Previous research documents the relationship between behaviors and attitudes (Olson and Stone 2005). According to Olson and Stone (2005), individuals’ behaviors influence their attitudes in three ways. First, by reminding the individual of particular information, behavior can change attitudes. Second, actions make individuals affect certain attitudes psychologically. Third, behaviors can serve as information for judging personal attitudes. Three main approaches to explaining the influence of behavior on attitudes exist: biased scanning, dissonance theory, and self-perception theory. According to biased scanning, role-playing evokes selective generation and supports one-sided arguments. Biased scanning makes role players convince themselves that the advocated position is better. In the context of country branding, people who are heavy users of American mediated cultural products tend to advocate U.S. mediated cultural products when there are pros and cons, and this could lead to favorable attitudes toward the United States. Dissonance theory posits that “people prefer logical, harmonious, or coherent associations among their attitudes, values, and interpersonal relationships” (Olson and Stone 2005), and people tend to reduce dissonance by changing behaviors or avoiding it (Festinger 1957). It is possible, then, that a person who likes and watches Hollywood movies frequently but who has unfavorable attitudes toward the United States might change his/her attitudes to resolve the dissonance problem. Self-perception theory proposes that self-perception is parallel to social perception (Bem 1965). This means that

“individuals often infer their own internal states, including attitudes, from the same external, visible cues they would use to infer another person’s internal states” (Olson and Stone 2005, p. 250). When a majority of people like and advocate Hollywood movies, this environment can persuade someone who does not like Hollywood movies to adopt more favorable attitudes toward American films in order to remain in harmony with his/her peer group. This is a common situation among international audiences due to the positive and negative effects of American mass culture.

Another explanation of the role of mediated cultural products involves media-related theories. Anholt (2003) proposed that brands could be highlighted by the essence of history and culture. This means that historical properties and cultural outcomes can help raise an individual product’s brand equity, and by extension, the brand image of a country. To test this proposition, the current study adopts the theory of social reality building, which posits that people construct their own reality through social communications, including their interactions with the mass media (DeFluer and DeFluer 2003; Fullerton 2005). Based on this theoretical premise, this study assumes that the consumption of mediated cultural products such as TV shows, Hollywood movies, advertising, music, news, and websites may influence how people build their reality or images of a culture. Consumption of mediated cultural products from foreign cultures could be a critical means of understanding other countries, since the mass media provides a more convenient source of information for intercultural communication than other sources like interpersonal interactions (Yaple and Korzenny 1989). In this regard, a country’s mediated cultural products, such as movies, TV shows, and news stories, could be a significant information source for most people to learn about and form better understandings of other cultures and countries. Furthermore, the ideological effects of the mass media indicate that when

mediated cultural products are consumed in other cultures, the ideological values and norms presented by mediated cultural products can be easily transferred to consumers (Shanahan and Morgan 1999). More specifically, learning or information acquisition through the mass media plays a positive role in intercultural communications, such that people who consume more mediated cultural products related to a country tend to develop positive beliefs about that country's culture (Baldwin and Hunt 2002; Gudykunst and Kim 1997). For example, CNN viewers from Muslim countries showed favorable attitudes toward the United States while general TV, newspaper, and radio news consumption did not affect U.S. attitudes (Gentzkow and Shapiro 2004).

This study defines the perceived inter-country relationship context as *beliefs that general publics hold about the relationship of a certain country with their own countries*. Given that mediated cultural products represent a country's values, norms, and culture (Shabahan and Morgan 1999), and that the consumption of mediated cultural products can positively influence individuals' beliefs about the countries depicted (Baldwin and Hunt 2002; Gudykunst and Kim 1997), it can be posited that mediated cultural products have positive effects on inter-country relationships.

In addition, mediated cultural products such as music, movies, television, and other entertainment forms relate to consumers' personal likes or aesthetic tastes (Holbrook and Schindler 1994). This study views country visual identity as an emotional stimulus for international consumers, and defines the term "country identity" as *a country-scale application of corporate identity*. Thus, the consumption of mediated cultural products can lead to favorable feelings about U.S. visual identity as depicted in movies, TV shows, or international newscasts, because mere exposure (Zajonc 1968) to country visual identity can generate positive attitudes.

The representative examples of U.S. visual identity include the national flag, national badge, or symbolic monuments like the Statue of Liberty.

In sum, given that people construct their own realities and understand objects through mediated content, and that this understanding can shape attitudes toward objects, it can be postulated that the consumption of mediated cultural products will positively affect attitudes toward the country brand, the inter-country relationship beliefs, and the country visual identity of the United States.

**H1:** Consumption of mediated cultural products will influence various aspects of international publics.

**H1-1:** The more people consume a country's mediated cultural products, the more likely they are to develop positive attitudes toward the country brand.

**H1-2:** The more people consume a country's mediated cultural products, the more likely they are to develop positive attitudes toward inter-country relationships.

**H1-3:** The more people consume a country's mediated cultural products, the more likely they are to develop positive attitudes toward that country's visual identity.

### **Inter-Country Relationship Beliefs**

Beliefs can be summarized as “estimates of the likelihood that the knowledge one has acquired about a referent is correct or alternatively, that an event or state of affairs has or will occur” (Wyer and Albarracin 2005, p. 273). It is said that beliefs can influence individuals' attitudes (Kruglanski and Stroebe 2005). According to the expectancy-value model, “an individual's attitude toward a given attitude object depends on the subjective value attached to attributes of the object or its consequences, each weighted by the subjective probability that the object is associated with these attributes or consequences” (Kruglanski and Stroebe 2005, p. 328). Traditionally, dual process models, such as the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) and

the heuristic systematic model (HSM) have dominated theoretical frameworks on attitude change (Petty and Cacioppo 1986; Chaiken, Liberman, and Eagly 1989). ELM posits that information processing occurs through the central route or peripheral route depending on the circumstances. Similarly, HSM proposes systematic processing and heuristic processing to explain the two different information processing systems. In addition, Albarracin (2002) identified cognition in a persuasion model (CPM), which is a single process model with different processing stages. CPM posits a non-linear effect on persuasion showing that moderate conditions work better (Albarracin and Kumkale 2003). All of the above three models posit that people's cognitive processes are an important means of moderating individual beliefs and attitudes. In the country-branding context, these models are applied to the relationship between constructs of inter-country relationship beliefs and country attitude. Given that various political, economic, and cultural perceptions of a country make up the set of beliefs that people have about a country, the positive relationship is in the same line of thought with the three previously mentioned models.

Given that attitudes are evaluative judgments or knowledge structures about an object, people's perceptions of the inter-country relationships between countries can act as beliefs and therefore influence their attitudes toward a country. If beliefs are positive, they may be a powerful source of country branding. Extant literature indicates that political context is related to country image. According to Anholt (2003), foreign policy is regarded as an important component of country image. Similarly, Telhami (2003) suggests that negative images of the United States are primarily connected to its foreign policy, not its people or values (Telhami 2003). Martin and Eroglu (1993) also suggest that political context is one of the three components constituting country image, along with economic and technical components. Furthermore, Kelman (1965) showed that country image is related to various inter-country

relationship factors such as inter-country contacts, international events, and international collisions. More specifically, Brunner, Flaschner, and Lou (1993) empirically demonstrated that the events at Tiananmen Square in 1989 negatively affected China's country image. Jaffe and Nebenzahl (1993) found that the 1988 Seoul Olympics promoted a positive image of South Korea. Similarly, consumers in Nanjing, China do not buy Japanese products, even though they admit they are of high quality, because of their traumatic memories of a brutal Japanese army in 1937. New Zealand consumers report low purchase intentions when it comes to buying French products because of the actions France took against Greenpeace in New Zealand territory (Beverland and Lindgreen 2002). Thus, international tensions, conflicts, and atrocities affect consumer willingness to buy products made in particular countries (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998). These empirical results illustrate that political, economic, and/or international events play an important role in forming country image and product purchase intentions. Several important political and economic events have taken place between the United States and other countries, and some events have yielded a delicate political balance between these countries. For example, people in Mainland China have negative feelings about the United States' intervention in Taiwan. Another example is the human rights reports generated by the U.S. government that criticize the Chinese for human rights violations. U.S. inter-country events also include the Iraq war, economic issues with free trade, and cultural relationships. For example, the United States exerts a strong influence on other countries through its credit-rating agencies such as Moody's, Standard & Poor's, and Fitch because credit ratings could instigate economic crises for other countries (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). Another example is the FTA between the United States and South Korea, Colombia, Peru, and Panama. The FTA drew international attention and negative reactions like demonstrations because of its potential to change the entire map of

international business. Not only were countries signed to the FTA with the U.S. interested in the agreement, but other countries preparing the FTA with the U.S. also paid great attention to it. The inter-country relationships related to these events affect the U.S. country image among international publics. Based on the extant literature, it can be postulated that country image is constructed within the context of inter-country relationships.

**H2:** Publics with positive beliefs about the inter-country relationship between their country and a foreign country are more likely to develop positive attitudes toward the foreign country brand.

### **Country Visual Identity**

The concept of identity is important to understanding the core meaning of brand architecture. According to Aaker (1996), brand identity is “a unique set of brand associations that the brand strategist aspires to create or maintain;” brand identity “should help establish a relationship between the brand and the customer by generating a value proposition involving functional, emotional, or self-expressive benefits;” brand identity “consists of twelve dimensions organized around four perspectives such as brand-as-product, brand-as-organization, brand-as-person, and brand-as-symbol;” and brand identity structure “includes a core and extended identity” (p. 68). Visual imagery and metaphors are included in the brand-as-symbol category.

It was Pilditch (1970) who first suggested that corporate identity is an important concept in marketing. Even though corporate identity has garnered the attention of academics and managers alike (e.g., Alessandri 2001; Balmer and Wilson 1998; Melewar and Jenkins 2002; Melewar and Saunders 2000; Olins 1978, 1989; van Riel and Balmer 1997), the definition of corporate identity is different between scholars and practitioners. While people in the marketing industry view corporate identity as a composite of visual elements including a corporate name, logo, and tagline, scholars define it as a more abstract concept incorporating corporate strategy,

corporate culture, and communication (Alessandri 2001; Balmer and Wilson 1998; Melewar and Jenkins 2002).

In spite of disputes between academics and practitioners over the definition of corporate identity, both groups seem to agree that corporate identity is a strategic management tool that communicates with the public about a company and influences long term public perceptions (Alessandri 2001). More specifically, Lambert (1989) explained the concept of corporate identity as an “iceberg” with two levels: above the surface is a company’s visual presentation of itself to consumers, including name, logo, and tagline. Beneath the surface are the invisible elements of written communication, corporate structure, and behavior. In the same vein, Schmidt (1995) diversified corporate identity-related concepts by identifying corporate culture, corporate behavior, market conditions, strategy, products, services, communications, and graphic design. In addition, van Rekom (1997) suggested defining corporate identity as “the set of meanings by which an object allows itself to be known and through which it allows people to describe, remember, and relate to it” (p. 411).

Another approach to defining corporate identity is through conceptual and operational perspectives. Alessandri (2001) defined corporate identity perceptually as “a firm’s strategically planned and purposeful presentation of itself in order to gain a positive corporate image in the minds of the public” and “to gain a favorable corporate reputation over time.” On the other hand, the operational definition of corporate identity means “all of the observable and measurable elements of a firm’s identity manifest in its comprehensive visual presentation of itself.” The core elements of the operational definition of corporate identity are corporate name, logo, tagline, color palette, and architecture. Alessandri also viewed “the firm’s public behavior,” including its corporate reception from employees, customers, stakeholders, and suppliers, as an

important element of operational corporate identity (p. 177). Van Riel and Balmer (1997) focused on organizational behavior and broadly exemplified elements of corporate identity such as graphic design, integrated corporate communication, and a multidisciplinary approach. Van Riel and Balmer (1997) also stressed that marshaling the corporate identity mix (communications, symbols, and organizational behavior) is important to linking actual corporate identity with desired corporate identity.

Particularly, the visual components of corporate identity communicate “the central idea of the organization with impact, brevity, and immediacy” (Olins 1995, p. 11). This corporate visual identity affects consumers’ purchase decisions, influencing the perceived reputation and goodwill of a company (Melewar and Saunders 1998). Corporate visual identity is a core element of corporate branding strategy and is more important for multinational companies that should choose a standardized and a localized corporate identity for their international marketing (Henderson et al. 2003; Melewar and Saunders 1998, 1999; Melewar et al. 2000). Schmitt (1995) asserted that localized corporate visual identity is needed when entering the Asian market. East Asians assess corporate name, visual symbols, color, and phonological appeal differently than Westerners. For example, while the color blue is primarily used as a corporate identity color in the United States, it is associated with negative emotions in China. Furthermore, East Asians weight indirect expressions such as naturalism, complexity, and decoration, as well as modern aesthetics, including traditional values, more heavily than Westerners (Schmitt, 1995). Based on the literature regarding corporate visual identity, this study proposes the concept of country visual identity. Given that a country can be viewed as a brand, this extension could be appropriate to understanding the visual identity system that is used in country brand architecture.

This study defines the country visual identity as *visual descriptions or icons that represent a country and evoke emotional responses from audiences or consumers.*

Bald eagles, the great seal, monuments and buildings, and the national flag represent America's visual identity (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). The national flag was developed during the colonial period and its first design was Benjamin Franklin's "Join, or Die". This later changed to the Navy Jack flag, which included 13 stripes and the slogan, "Don't tread on me" (Anholt and Hildreth 2004, p. 30–32). Thus, the flag was an effective tool in differentiating the United States from the British and gathering individuals under one common identity. It is said that the most prominent brand icon of the United States is the Statue of Liberty (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). This means that when international publics think about the United States, they probably visualize the Statue of Liberty. Empirically, it is reported that subliminal exposure to the U.S. flag activates egalitarian concepts and lowers hostility of outlying groups by moderating opposition with a degree of nationalism (Butz, Plant, and Doerr 2007).

This study operationally defined country visual identity as the affective components of country brand attitudes. There are said to be at least three types of affective components: emotion, mood, and sensory affects (Schimmack and Crites 2005). Existing literature supports the roles of affect on attitudes (Clore and Schnall 2005). For instance, favorability can be increased by simple repeated exposure to something (Zajonc 1968). This means that watching stimuli on mediated cultural products could increase favorability toward the depicted object without cognitive mediation. It is true that signifiers of country visual identity such as a national flag, national badge, and other miscellaneous symbols could evoke emotions from international audiences because the symbols have aesthetic components. According to Schmitt and Simonson (1997), aesthetic components are important factors influencing the emotional reactions of consumers.

International publics are able to identify the visual identity of certain countries through that country's movies, TV programs, advertising, Internet sites, and televised international sports games like the World Cup Soccer Games, the Olympics Games, or the World Baseball Classic. Exposure to these symbols of country visual identity through mediated cultural products can yield "the positive affective consequences of the experience of cognitive fluency" (Clore and Schnall 2005, p. 479). In this regard, the current study posits the following third hypothesis.

**H3:** Individuals who have positive feelings toward country visual identity are more likely to develop positive attitudes toward the foreign country brand.

### **Personal Knowledge and Experiences**

Even though mass mediated communication is a critical factor influencing country attitude, personal experiences are also an important construct to developing attitudes toward a country (Kim 2001; Gudykunst and Kim 1997). Given that messages can be communicated through both mass mediated channels and direct contact with a source, direct experiences and established knowledge about an object can be generators of favorable attitudes. It is also said that interpersonal communication and interaction with people are essential when learning about a host culture (Kim 2001). Pool (1965) showed that levels of acculturation are positively related to levels of interpersonal interaction. More specifically, customs, language, and interpersonal contacts influence changing behaviors and attitudes toward the United States and among U.S. immigrants (Khairullah 1995).

This study applied the acculturation concept to a global context. This means that even international publics who live in their own countries can learn about other countries' cultures and values through direct contact with other countries and this contact will help them develop certain images of those countries. According to the acculturation approach, personal experiences could include English fluency, experiences residing in the United States, and whether individuals have

American friends or friends who live in the United States (Khairullah 1995; Kim 2001). In this study, knowledge about the United States could be measured by the degree to which people understand American culture. Also, the country hexagon model proposed that citizens and tourism are important constructs influencing country brand image (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). In this regard, it is easily assumed that having American friends or experiences residing in the United States could be factors affecting country brand image.

**H4:** The more personal knowledge/experiences people have with a country, the more likely they are to develop positive attitudes toward the foreign country brand.

### **Country of Origin in the Brand Perspective**

When consumers are in purchasing environments, they sometimes use country information as a simple cue for decision-making. It is true that some countries have strong associations with certain products (Hoyer and MacInnis 2001)—the standard example is that car buyers often prefer Japanese cars to U.S. cars when all other conditions are equal (Kim 1995). Even though Russia has a low quality image for general products, caviar from Russia is regarded to be of higher quality and price than that of other countries (Beverland and Lindgreen 2002). This situation can be applied to French wine and cheese, German beer and cars, and Swiss chocolate and watches—these products are all favored simply because of the country where they originated. Thus, country of origin plays an important role in brand identification for those products.

The country of origin effect has been an important research issue in marketing and advertising. Extant literature shows that country of origin is a noticeable factor affecting company images, attitudes, and purchase intentions (Beverland and Lindgreen 2002; D'Astous and Ahmed 1999; Hsieh, Pan, and Setiono 2004; Kleppe et al. 2002; Kotler and Gertner 2002; Lim and O'Cass 2001; Thakor and Lavack 2003; Ruth and Simonin 2003). Thus, the country of

origin image should be understood as a multifaceted construct (Parameswaran and Pisharodi 1994). For example, Kotler and Gertner (2002) summarized that country of origin information could be an important indicator of perceived product quality, especially when other quality indicators are absent and people have low motivation or involvement. Specifically, a country of origin cue was found to be effective in quality perceptions of videocassette recorders (D'Astous and Ahmed 1999). Chao (2001) suggested that country of origin, moderated by country of origin parts, assembly and design, affects the attitudes and purchase intentions of television and stereo consumers. The country of origin effect is activated by its mere presence and linked to quality evaluations, even if consumers did not intend to buy the item (Liu and Johnson 2005). Ruth and Simonin (2003) also confirmed that country of origin affected attitudes toward sponsored events. Lim and O'Cass (2001) proposed the culture of brand origin concept to replace country of origin, since consumers more easily recognize the cultural origin than country of origin. Hong and Wyer (1989) found that positive attitudes toward a certain country influence evaluations of that country's products. Recently, Hsieh, Pan, and Setiono (2004) also showed that consumer purchase behaviors are influenced by company images and country images.

It is hard to exactly distinguish the country of origin for foreign products due to the advent of various trade blocs such as the World Trade Organization (WTO), the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), the European Union (EU), and Mercosur. As global product operations become more complex, the country of origin concept is further refined and broken down into country of design (COD), country of parts (COP), country of assembly (COA), and country of manufacture (COM) (Pharr 2005). These new constructs are also found to influence product quality evaluations. Specifically, COA, COP, and COD influence consumers' product quality perceptions (Insch and

McBride 1998; Chao 2001). Further, COA, COP, and COD are moderated by the technological complexity of the product (Insch and McBride 1998) along with demographic variables and the degree of product familiarity (Insch and McBride 2004). When COA and COP are matched, consumers showed more favorable cognitive and behavioral responses (Chao 2001). In addition, COP was valued above COA and COD by consumers (Insch and McBride 2004; Chao 2001).

There are various antecedents to country of origin. Specifically, extant literature studies the negative aspects of the country of origin effect. Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) proposed the animosity model of foreign product purchase, in which animosity is defined as “the remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events” (p. 90), and it ranges from benign rivalry (e.g., the United States and Canada) to more serious manifestations due to previous military struggles or recent political conflicts (e.g., Japan and China or South Korea). In their study, animosity significantly influenced Chinese consumers’ willingness to buy Japanese products. The representative antecedent of country of origin is a country’s level of economic development, which has a significant effect on country of origin evaluations (Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999). Gurhan-Candi and Maheswaran (2000) attempted to explain the cognitive antecedents of country of origin and found that motivational intensity, the goals of information processing, and product information were effective in evaluating country of origin’s impact.

Country of origin effects are moderated by several factors. For instance, country of origin is weak in evaluating product and purchase intentions when the extrinsic cues of price and brand name are provided (Lin and Kao 2004). On the contrary, country of origin also influenced product quality perceptions even with the extrinsic product cues of price and brand name (Teas and Argawal 2000). Purchase intentions were not influenced by country of origin, but by price and brand name (Hui and Zhou 2002). Furthermore, country of origin showed interaction effects

on purchase intentions when a famous brand was introduced or when consumers were ethnocentric (Pecotich and Rosenthal 2001). As extrinsic cues, brand image negated negative country of origin perceptions (Jo, Nakamoto, and Nelson 2003). According to Chao and Werani (2005) country of origin evaluations were diminished by the use of foreign brand names. Also, country of origin evaluations were mediated by brand equity (Lin and Kao 2004), and the country of origin effect was moderated by consumers' involvement level and type (Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000; Ahmed et al. 2004; Lee, Yun, and Lee 2005). The degree of stereotype assimilation was found to influence country of origin evaluations, but was not related to the country of origin's influence on product evaluations and purchase intentions (Parameswaran and Pisharodi 2002). However, purchase intentions were not susceptible to the country of origin effects, which were mediated by product quality evaluations, and which in turn lead to purchase intentions (Hui and Zhou 2002). Pecotich and Rosenthal (2001) also did not find a direct country of origin effect on purchase intentions. Lin and Kao (2004) found that brand equity mediated the country of origin effect on product perceptions and purchase intentions. Cervino, Sanchez, and Cubillo (2005) suggested that another mediating variable of country of origin on purchase intentions is brand success.

In sum, country of origin acts as heuristic information for judging products, and a favorable perception of a product's country of origin leads to positive product attitudes, quality perceptions, and purchase intentions with various moderating and mediating variables. Extending the effects of country of origin to the concept of country branding, this study proposed the role of general country brand attitudes on attitudes toward country-based products and subsequent purchase intentions. Based on previous country of origin, culture of origin, and country image literature, it can be postulated that country brand attitude can be transferred to product attitudes.

In other words, there is a positive relationship between attitudes toward a country brand and attitudes toward country-based products, which, in turn, leads to positive purchase intentions.

**H5:** People with positive attitudes toward a country brand are more likely to have positive attitudes toward country-based products.

**H6:** People with positive attitudes toward country-based products are likely to have higher purchase intentions for country-based products.

Figure 3-1 is the visual description of the hypothesized model (i.e., the mediated country brand model) showing the paths among constructs included in the model, such as consumption of mediated cultural products, inter-country relationship beliefs, country visual identity, personal knowledge/experiences, attitudes toward country brand, attitudes toward country-based products, and purchase intentions.

In addition, this study examines the potential differences between countries, such as South Korea and Mexico. Previous literature suggests that country of origin effects vary according to consumers' cultures. For instance, consumer ethnocentrism is one of the important predictors of the country of origin effect (Orth and Firasova 2003; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004). Ethnocentric individuals believe that their own culture is superior to other cultures. Thus, cultural variation is an important factor in the country of origin effect (Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000). In individualist cultures, the home country product is favorably evaluated only when the product is superior to another country's product, but in collectivist cultures, the home country product is favorably evaluated regardless of product superiority. The country of origin effect is also influenced by consumers' sub-cultural differences (LaRoche et al. 2003), power distance (Insch and McBride 2004), country stereotypes (Liu and Johnson 2005), and the degree of the assimilation of host country stereotypes (Parameswaran and Pisharodi 2002). These

antecedents to country of origin imply the existence of different country of origin effects among different countries.

Given the fact that South Korea and Mexico have different experiences related to the United States, comparisons among different countries would provide insightful results and implications for advertising and marketing strategies. Results would prove especially varied depending on the market shares of mediated cultural products from the United States. For example, given that the markets for Mexican mediated cultural products are influenced by the United States because of the countries' geographic proximity, one can assume that different degrees of attitudes toward U.S.-related constructs and purchase intentions exist. Also, South Korean consumers could show varying responses toward the United States because South Koreans have whimsical emotions about and attitudes toward America. However, favorable attitudes alone are not dominant to publics, as negative attitudes are also detected depending on the issues related to a country, such as anti-American demonstrations. Given the differences in individual countries' situations, it is worth comparing countries using inter-related variables.

**RQ1:** Because of cultural differences and geographic and inter-country issues, this study will note the differences in models (e.g., path direction, path strength, path structure, means of each construct, etc.) between South Korean and Mexican respondents.

Another consideration is the difference in country origin effects depending on product categories. According to Pharr (2005), intrinsic cues such as product complexity and the level of product familiarity are moderators of the country of origin effect. More specifically, country of origin influences purchase intentions for luxurious brands and publicly consumed products, while no significant results were found regarding essential or privately consumed products. Product-based variables such as product familiarity, product importance, and product complexity

moderated the country of origin effect on brand equity (Lin and Kao 2004; Isch and McBride 2004). Contextual variables such as the size of a resource base, product type, the nature of targeted niches, and positioning strategy moderate firms' uses of country of origin (Beverland and Lindgreen 2002). In this regard, it can be hypothesized that product categories can yield differences in country of origin effects.

**RQ2:** Are there any differences in country of origin effects depending on product categories (e.g., electronics, fashion, food)?

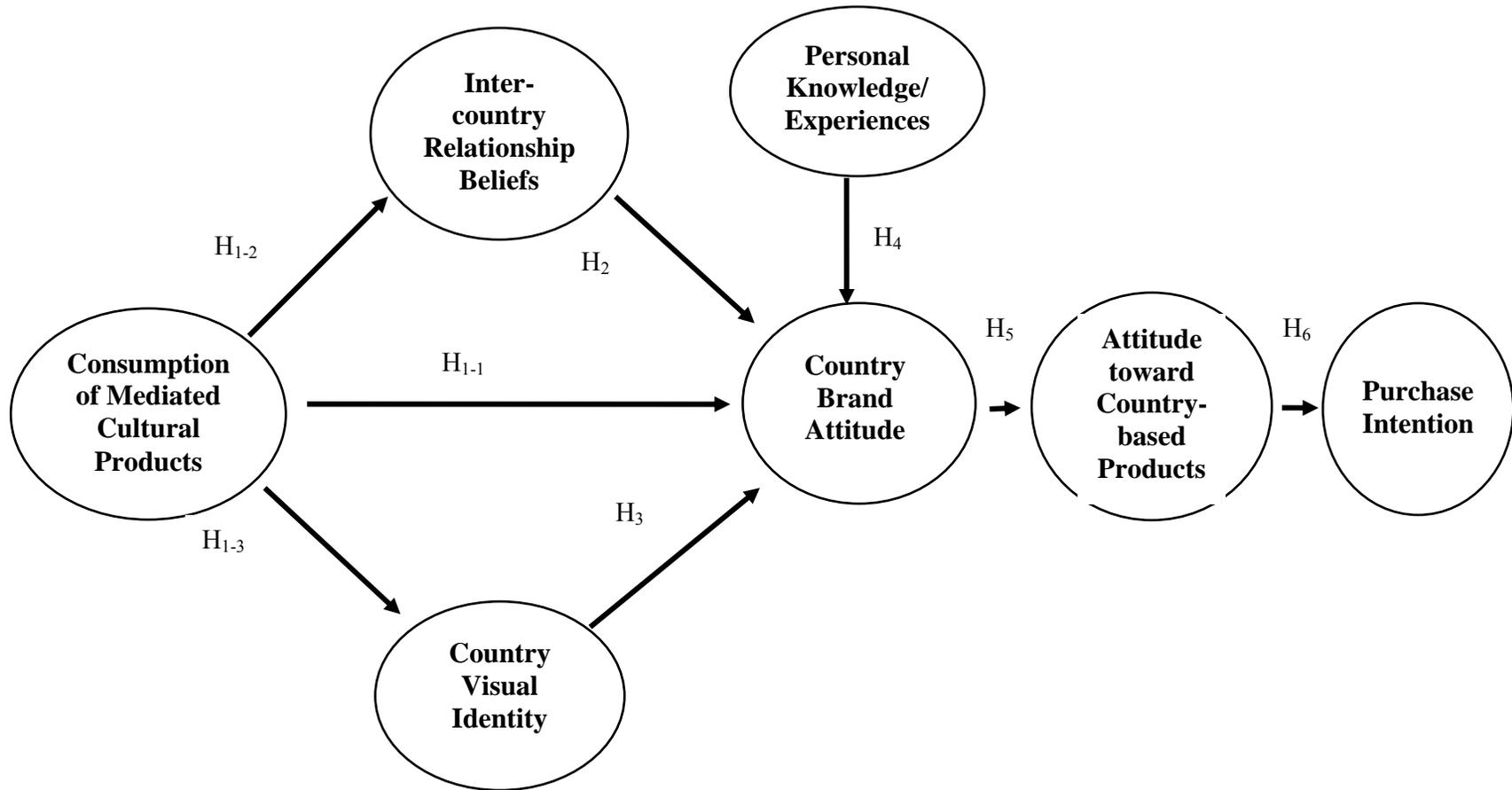


Figure 3-1. Hypothesized model

## CHAPTER 4 METHOD

Survey research was employed to examine the consumption of mediated cultural products and the antecedents and consequences of country brand attitude. The United States was selected as a target country brand for this study, and younger South Korean and Mexican consumers were surveyed for their attitudes toward the United States, attitudes toward U.S.-based products, and their purchase intentions. College students were chosen to represent younger consumers because they are more sensitive to images of the United States than other consumers in that they are intermittently enthusiastic about U.S. culture and opinion leaders on anti-Americanism. South Korea and Mexico were chosen based on their geographic distances and cultural orientations. Mexico shares a border with the United States, and is therefore geographically influenced by the United States. On the contrary, South Korea is far from the United States, but the United States still influences South Korean consumers. Recently, the United States organized the Free Trade Agreement with South Korea and three Latin American countries (Colombia, Peru, and Panama). This international economic event could influence international attitudes toward the United States and evoke the U.S.-related thoughts and beliefs. Culturally, South Korea and Mexico are different from one another and from the United States. As Table 4-1 shows, both countries are collectivistic countries, but each shows different characteristics in terms of power distance and masculinity.

College students from both countries were recruited as the study sample. A total of 361 college students participated in the survey. Among the 361 participants, 179 were South Korean, 174 were Mexican, and eight were from other countries. To develop a model based on the two countries and to validate comparisons of the two countries, the eight participants from other countries were eliminated, and total of 353 subjects were included in the final analysis. For each

country's participants, questionnaires were translated into Korean and Mexican. Structural equation modeling (SEM), which is frequently used to combine a comprehensive statistical methodology with factor analysis and path analysis (Kaplan 2000), was used to test the hypothesized model. The benefit of this methodology is that the measurement error is considered to provide a more exact causal relationship (Hair et al. 1998). SEM is adequate for this study to identify the relationships among constructs, because the concept of country brand is complex and constitutes various factors. Through this structural equation analysis, the eight hypotheses of this study were analyzed using the method of maximum likelihood. AMOS 5 was utilized for the data analyses.

Generally, “measurement permits one to assign values to individuals in a theoretically meaningful manner, such that differences in those values are thought to reflect differences in the understanding construct that is being measured” (Krosnick, Judd, and Wittenbrink 2005). Seven latent constructs were examined in this study: consumption of mediated cultural products, inter-country relationship beliefs, country visual identity, personal knowledge/experiences, country brand attitude, attitudes toward country of origin products, and purchase intentions. Question items for the consumption of cultural products and inter-country relationship beliefs were constructed by the researcher due to the lack of previously validated measures or an adaptable preexisting scale in the literature. Also, measurement scales for personal knowledge/experience were constructed by modifying measurement scales of acculturation. The researcher conducted a pre-test to determine the types of mediated cultural products, inter-country relationship issues, and consumer product categories. One hundred and one South Korean college students participated in the pre-test. After exploratory factor analysis, the researcher developed sets of

measurement scales constituting each construct. Table 4-2 illustrates the factor loadings of the exploratory factor analyzed pre-test data.

For consumption of U.S. mediated cultural products, this study measures the degree to which international subjects were exposed to American TV shows, Hollywood movies, news stories, advertising, periodicals, books, music, and websites. For inter-country relationship beliefs, the researcher selected eight important relationship issues between the United States and other countries including ally, political relationship, U.S. army, North Korea issues, economic relationship, the Free Trade Agreement (FTA), country credit evaluation, and cultural relationship. For country visual identity, participants' affections for representative visual items including the national flag, the national badge, and the Statue of Liberty were measured.

For attitude measurement, general attitude measurement scales were chosen according to the definitions of attitudes. Traditionally, attitudes were thought to be latent, and therefore could not be observed directly or exist as a concrete, stored association (Krosnick, Judd, and Wittenbrink 2005). In this regard, attitudes are variously defined according to different perspectives. Allport (1935) defined attitude as “a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related.” Thurston (1931) more narrowly defined it: “attitude is here used to describe potential action as will be favorable or unfavorable toward the object.” Eagly and Chaiken (1993, p. 1) defined attitude as “a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor.” The researcher reviewed existing attitude definitions and attitude measures in the extant literature and modified them to fit the context for the United States as a country brand and U.S.-based

consumer products. Consequently, favorable/unfavorable, positive/negative, likable/unlikable, and good/bad were selected to measure attitude.

For purchase intentions of U.S.-based consumer products, the researcher selected 13 product categories through the pre-test that are highly relevant to younger consumers (e.g., cellular phones, jeans, premium brands, apparel, sneakers, restaurants, computers, home appliances, MP3 players, cars, soft drinks, beer, and toilet products). Seven-point semantic-differential scales, or Likert scales, were used to measure all questionnaire items. Previous literature suggests that the seven-point scale is reasonable for measuring attitude or related concepts and recommend that mid-points be added to rating scales and to label scale points with words because doing so could contribute to improved reliability and validity of ratings (Krosnick, Judd, and Wittenbrink 2005).

Since measurement items used in this study were constructed or modified by the researcher, this study performed a four-step measurement purification process: (1) exploratory factor analysis to discover the items that deviate from the common core of items and to produce additional dimensions (Churchill 1979), (2) confirmatory factor analysis for the final verification of unidimensionality (Gerbing and Anderson 1988), (3) reliability test of the final scales, and (4) calculation of construct validity (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black 1998). First, through exploratory factor analysis the researcher decided to keep one factor for each construct. Second, through confirmatory factor analysis, selected measurement items were confirmed. For consumption of mediated cultural products, news variables, periodicals, and books were deleted due to the low exploratory factor loadings. Thus five of the eight original variables were included in the final model (i.e., TV shows, movies, advertisements, music, and websites). For the construct of inter-country relationship beliefs, issues of North Korea and the U.S. army were

deleted after confirmatory factor analysis. For the personal knowledge/experiences construct, the variable of English fluency was deleted due to double loading on two factors. This may have been due to the similar levels of English proficiency among the college student subjects. The results from first-order confirmatory factor models showed that the item-loading estimates on their factors were significant ( $p < .01$ ). Goodness-of-fit indices also demonstrated the quality of all models. The reliability coefficient alpha for each construct was higher than .70. Finally, construct validity for each construct was calculated manually following Hair et al. (p. 642), and the coefficients were all above the rule of .50. The final measurement items, purified through a series of factor analyses and used in the final structural equation analysis, are presented in Table 4-3.

Table 4-1. Cultural differences among the United States, South Korea, and Mexico

Country	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI	LTO
United States	40	91	62	46	29
South Korea	60	18	39	85	75
Mexico	81	30	69	82	

\* PDI: Power Distance

IDV: Individualism

MAS: Masculinity

UAI: Uncertainty Avoidance

LTO: Long-Term Orientation

\*\*Table is constructed from Hofstede's cultural dimensions

Table 4-2. Results of exploratory factor analysis of pre-test

Varialbes	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9
Economic	.83								
Political	.80								
Ally	.79								
FTA	.76								
U.S. Army	.75								
Cultural	.68								
Credit	.67								
North Korea	.64								
Websites		.78							
Advertisements		.77							
Periodicals		.69							
TV shows		.67							
U.S. friends		.66							
News		.62							
Friends in U.S.		.61							
English		.59							
Books		.58							
Music		.55							
Movies		.55							
U.S. brand 4			.83						
U.S. brand 1			.77						
U.S. brand 2			.76						
U.S. brand 3			.76						
Soft drinks				.77					
Toiletries				.70					
Home Appliance				.70					
Computer				.69					
Cell phones				.54					
Restaurants				.48					
MP3				.47					
U.S. attitude 4					.79				
U.S. attitude 2					.75				
U.S. attitude 3					.72				
U.S. attitude 1					.70				
Sneakers						.83			
Jeans						.77			
Apparel						.74			
Premium brands						.59			
Beer						.44			
Residence							.93		
U.S. Schools							.91		
The U.S. Flag								.78	
Badge								.72	
Statue of Liberty								.50	
Relatives								.49	
Cars									.49

Table 4-3. Constructs, indicators, and key statistics of the final model

Latent Constructs	Indicators	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Confirmatory Factor Loadings
Consumption of mediated cultural products	I watch American TV shows.	4.57	2.11	.69 <sup>b</sup>
	I watch American movies.	6.03	1.19	.67 <sup>a</sup>
	I watch or read American advertising.	3.91	1.77	.64 <sup>a</sup>
	I listen to American music.	5.59	1.54	.61 <sup>a</sup>
	I visit American websites.	4.32	2.07	.63 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	4.88	1.32	Cronbach $\alpha = .80$
Inter-country relationship beliefs	I believe that the United States is an ally of my country.	3.27	1.57	.71 <sup>b</sup>
	I believe that the United States has a good political relationship with my country.	3.52	1.43	.74 <sup>a</sup>
	I believe that the United States has a good economic relationship with my country.	3.45	1.59	.79 <sup>a</sup>
	The Free Trade Agreement (FTA) with the United States is appropriate.	3.76	1.66	.71 <sup>a</sup>
	Country credit ratings evaluated by the U.S. rating service are trustworthy.	3.59	1.39	.74 <sup>a</sup>
	I believe that the United States has a good cultural relationship with my country.	3.27	1.46	.69 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	3.41	1.17	Cronbach $\alpha = .88$
Country visual identity	National flag	4.05	.95	.90 <sup>b</sup>
	National badge	3.92	.93	.76 <sup>a</sup>
	The Statue of Liberty	4.36	1.06	.65 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	4.11	.83	Cronbach $\alpha = .80$
Personal experience /knowledge	I have some experiences of residence in the United States.	2.46	2.15	.58 <sup>b</sup>
	I have some American friends that I hang around with.	2.23	1.79	.66 <sup>a</sup>
	I have some close friends living in the United States.	3.42	2.19	.72 <sup>a</sup>
	I think that I have a quite good understanding of the United States.	3.77	1.73	.72 <sup>a</sup>
	I think that I am quite familiar with American culture.	4.03	1.73	.61 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	3.18	1.44	Cronbach $\alpha = .80$
Attitudes toward the United States	To me, the United States is:			
	(1) unfavorable / favorable (7)	4.01	1.57	.86 <sup>b</sup>
	(1) bad / good (7)	3.81	1.47	.90 <sup>a</sup>
	(1) unlikable / likable (7)	3.47	1.63	.74 <sup>a</sup>
	(1) negative / positive (7)	3.64	1.49	.86 <sup>a</sup>

Index	3.73	1.38	Cronbach $\alpha = .90$
-------	------	------	-------------------------

Table 4-3. Continued.

Latent Constructs	Indicators	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Confirmatory Factor Loadings
Attitudes toward U.S.-based products	To me, products/brands from the United States are:			
	(1) unfavorable / favorable (7)	5.03	1.37	.86 <sup>b</sup>
	(1) bad / good (7)	5.21	1.29	.86 <sup>a</sup>
	(1) unlikable / likable (7)	4.94	1.32	.85 <sup>a</sup>
	(1) negative / positive (7)	4.98	1.35	.86 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	5.04	1.20	Cronbach $\alpha = .92$
Purchase intentions of U.S.-based products	If I were in the marketplace, I would purchase American _____:			
	impossible/possible; improbable/probable.			
	Electronics (cell phone, computer, home appliance, and MP3)	4.60	1.75	.65 <sup>b</sup>
	Fashion (premium brands, apparel, and sneakers)	5.28	1.37	.72 <sup>a</sup>
	Food (restaurant, soft drink, and beer)	4.08	1.41	.60 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	4.65	1.28	Cronbach $\alpha = .79$

<sup>a</sup> Factor significance:  $p < .01$

<sup>b</sup> loading was set to 1.0 to fix construct variance.

## CHAPTER 5 RESULTS

### **Subject Profile**

Among 353 participants, 173 (46.6%) were male and 180 (53.4%) were female. Their nationalities were 179 South Korean and 174 Mexican. Their ages ranged from 18 to 29, but most (92.9%) were between the ages of 19 and 25. The mean age was 21.7. More specifically for Korea, 79 participants (44.1%) were male and 100 were female (55.9%). The mean age of the Korean sample was 21.13. For Mexico, 94 participants (54%) were male and 80 (46%) were female. Their mean age was 22.31. Korean participants were slightly younger than the Mexican sample, but their overall profiles were quite similar. As Table 4-2 illustrated, the most consumed mediated cultural products among respondents were American movies followed by American music, American TV shows, American websites, and American advertising. For inter-country relationship beliefs, the mean of the FTA issue with the United States was the highest ( $M = 3.76$ ), but it was below the scale average. For personal knowledge/experiences, an understanding of American culture showed the highest mean value ( $M = 4.03$ ). The product category that showed the highest purchase intentions was American fashion brands ( $M = 5.28$ ), and purchase intentions were lowest for the food category ( $M = 4.08$ ). Generally, the means of personal knowledge/experiences, inter-country relationships beliefs, and attitudes toward the U.S. were below the average ( $M = 3.18, 3.41, \text{ and } 3.73$  respectively). Respondents showed the strongest emotional responses to the Statue of Liberty ( $M = 4.36$ ) followed by the national flag ( $M = 4.05$ ), and the national badge ( $M = 3.92$ ). Attitudes toward U.S.-based products and purchase intentions of U.S.-based products were favorable ( $M = 5.04 \text{ and } 4.65$ ).

## Measurement Model

A confirmatory factor analysis using maximum likelihood was conducted to authenticate the key construct of the consumption of mediated cultural products identified through the exploratory factor analysis. As Figure 5-1 shows, the measurement model for the consumption of mediated cultural products had a good model fit: a  $X^2$ /degrees of freedom ratio was 2.63, Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) was .97, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was .98, and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was .068. Specifically, websites were the most important dimension for the construct of mediated cultural product consumption ( $\lambda = .72$ ), followed by TV shows ( $\lambda = .70$ ), movies ( $\lambda = .68$ ), advertisements ( $\lambda = .67$ ), and music ( $\lambda = .62$ ). This indicated that websites are highly correlated to the construct of mediated cultural product consumption.

## Model Testing

Prior to the main hypothesis testing, we validated several underlying assumptions for SEM (normality, sampling adequacy, and no extreme multicollinearity) (Hair et al., 1998), and the assumptions were confirmed to be within acceptable boundaries. The researcher tested six research hypotheses, using structural equation analysis, by the method of maximum likelihood. AMOS 5 was used for performing data analyses. Exogenous variables included the consumption of mediated cultural products and personal knowledge/experience. The five endogenous variables included inter-country relationship beliefs, country visual identity, country brand attitudes, attitudes toward U.S.-based products, and purchase intentions. Estimating goodness-of-fit for the hypothesized research model is the first step in model testing. In our study, the  $X^2$  test is significant and suggests that the estimated model does not fit well with the observed data. However, the  $X^2$  test is sensitive to sample size and such a test frequently leads to model rejection. Therefore, Bentler and Bonnet (1980) suggested that an  $X^2$ /degrees of freedom ratio

that does not exceed five indicates acceptable model fit (Bentler 1989; Bollen 1989), and this was estimated as 2.98 in the hypothesized model ( $X^2 = 1175.69$ ,  $df = 395$ ). NNFI was .86, CFI was .87, and RMSEA was .075 respectively. Based on these measures, we can conclude that the model is marginally acceptable despite the significant  $X^2$  statistic.

To improve the model, the significance of the regression weights was first examined and all variables were significant ( $p < .05$ ). Modification indices were then used to identify any theoretically meaningful paths/relationships omitted in the original model. We found that the consumption of mediated cultural products is directly related to both attitudes toward the United States and purchase intentions ( $p < .01$ ). Therefore, the two relationships were added to the revised model. Given that mediated cultural products are also kinds of American products, and that consumption of mediated cultural products is one of the purchase behaviors, it can be assumed that the consumption of mediated cultural products plays a positive role in shaping people's attitudes and behavioral intentions. Even though those relationships were not the main interest of this research, they are meaningful results that support the model proposed in this study.

The revised model with the added paths (consumption of mediated cultural products → attitudes toward the United States and consumption of mediated cultural products → purchase intentions) were tested (see Figure 5-2), and the revised model was found to fit the data better than the original model:  $X^2$  (921.54) /  $df$  (388) ratio = 2.36, NNFI = .90, CFI = .91, and RMSEA = .063. The significance of regression weights was examined for all constructs, and their associated measures and relationships were significant at  $p < .01$ . However, there was a negative relationship between the consumption of mediated cultural products and attitudes toward the United States. This is exactly the opposite result of the hypothesized relationships. To explore

the original relationship, the researcher tested the single construct model of mediated cultural product consumption. As Figure 5-3 illustrated, the mediated cultural product consumption construct positively influences attitudes toward the United States in the single construct model. However, when other constructs are added, the relationship between the consumption of mediated cultural products and attitudes toward the United States is fully mediated, and even shows a negative relationship. In this case, the constructs of inter-country relationship beliefs and country visual identity can be identified as mediated moderators between the consumption of mediated cultural products and country brand attitudes (Muller, Judd, and Yzerbyt 2005). When examining direct and indirect path values, direct positive relationships between the consumption of mediated cultural products and attitudes toward the United States were weak ( $\gamma = .13$  in the single construct model). Therefore, when mediating constructs of inter-country relationship beliefs and country visual identity were added in the model, the direct relationship is fully mediated by two mediating constructs, and so the direct positive relationship between the consumption of mediated cultural products and attitudes toward a country cannot be found in the final model.

In this regard, the final model provides support for seven out of eight hypotheses, including mediated moderating effect. The final model is named *the mediated country brand model*. First,  $H_{1-1}$  was not supported. Greater consumption of mediated cultural products from a country does not directly lead to more favorable attitudes toward the country brand, but indirectly through inter-country relationship beliefs and country visual identity. In other words, this hypothesized positive relationship was negated and even became negative when other factors were included ( $H_{1-1} : \gamma = -.23, p < .01$ ). So it can be said that  $H_1$  is not supported. Even though the single construct model shows a direct positive relationship ( $\gamma = .13, p < .05$ ) between

consumption of mediated cultural products and attitudes toward a country, this relationship was weak and should be understood with caution. However, consumption of mediated cultural products positively influences inter-country relationship beliefs ( $H_{1-2}$ :  $\gamma = .24$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and country visual identity ( $H_{1-3}$ :  $\gamma = .35$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Beliefs about inter-country relationships ( $H_2$ :  $\beta = .58$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and country visual identity ( $H_3$ :  $\beta = .26$ ,  $p < .01$ ) were also positively related to country brand attitudes. This means that consumption of mediated cultural products indirectly influences attitudes toward the United States when mediated by both inter-country relationship beliefs and country visual identity. Another exogenous construct of personal knowledge/experience influences the attitudes toward country brands ( $H_4$ :  $\gamma = .23$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Country brand attitude, in turn, leads to attitudes toward country-based products ( $H_5$ :  $\beta = .48$ ,  $p < .01$ ), which in turn leads to purchase intentions of country-based products ( $H_6$ :  $\beta = .46$ ,  $p < .01$ ). In addition, new causal relationships (consumption of mediated cultural products  $\rightarrow$  attitudes toward country based products and consumption of mediated cultural products  $\rightarrow$  purchase intentions) emerged ( $\gamma = .31$  and  $\gamma = .47$  respectively,  $p < .01$ ) in the mediated country brand model.

### **Competing Model**

To secure the validity of the final model, this study compared its main constructs with a competing model in which country attitudes were set to be exogenous constructs and the consumption of mediated cultural products was set as an endogenous construct. One could argue that consumption behavior should be the consequence of attitudes because attitudes traditionally precede behaviors. As Figures 5-4 and 5-5 illustrate, consumption of mediated cultural products is set to be a consequence construct in the competing model. The results show that the model fit of both models is the same [ $\chi^2 (278.45) / df (127)$  ratio = 2.19, NNFI = .95, CFI = .95, and RMSEA = .058], but path values are different. The relationship between inter-country

relationship beliefs and the consumption of mediated cultural products is not statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ). This means that originally hypothesized relationship directions are more reasonable than those in the competing model.

### **South Korean Model**

This study proposed the research question of whether country differences exist by applying the mediated country brand model to individual countries. To explore the differences of individual countries, the data for each country was tested separately for the applicability of the mediated country brand model to each country. For South Korea, a goodness-of-fit index shows that the model is marginally acceptable. An  $X^2$ /degrees of freedom ratio was estimated as 2.03 in the model ( $X^2 = 787.96$ ,  $df = 388$ ). NNFI was .86, CFI was .87, and RMSEA was .076. An  $X^2$ /degrees of freedom ratio shows acceptable model fit, but the NNFI and CFI indexes were somewhat low. When the significance of regression weights was examined for all constructs, the relationships between the consumption of mediated cultural products and country visual identity (H1-3  $\gamma = .07$ ), U.S. attitudes (H1-1  $\gamma = -.17$ ), and U.S.-based products ( $\gamma = .00$ ) are insignificant. Other constructs and their associated measures and relationships were significant at  $p < .05$ . For the separate South Korean model, six out of eight hypotheses (H1-2, H2, H3, H4, H5, and H6) were supported with one additional path (consumption of mediated cultural products  $\rightarrow$  purchase intentions).

### **Mexican Model**

Next, the mediated country brand model was tested separately for Mexican respondents. For Mexico, a goodness-of-fit index shows that the model has a good model fit that is better than the South Korea model. An  $X^2$ /degrees of freedom ratio was 1.67 in the model ( $X^2 = 649.20$ ,  $df = 388$ ). NNFI was .89, CFI was .90, and RMSEA was .063. The significance of regression weights in the Mexican model shows that the relationship between the consumption of mediated cultural

products and U.S. attitudes (H1-1  $\gamma = -.24, p > .05$ ) was not statistically significant. For the Mexican model, seven out of eight hypotheses (H1-2, H1-3, H2, H3, H4, H5, and H6) were supported with one additional path (consumption of mediated cultural products  $\rightarrow$  attitudes toward country based product). Thus, the Mexican model better fits the mediated country brand model.

### **Differences between South Koreans' and Mexicans' Brand U.S.A. Attitudes**

Through testing individual country models, this study showed the slight differences in model application to a specific country. Furthermore, specific country differences among study constructs were also tested (RQ1). ANOVA was used to compare the differences of individual constructs between surveyed countries. The independent variable is the nationality of subjects (i.e., South Korean or Mexican), and the dependent variables are eight constructs tested in the mediated country brand model: consumption of mediated cultural products, inter-country relationship beliefs, country visual identity, personal knowledge/experiences, country brand attitudes, attitudes toward country-based products, and purchase intentions. Table 5-3 illustrates the means of each construct and ANOVA results.

As Table 4-4 shows, there is no statistically significant mean difference for inter-country relationship beliefs and attitudes toward the United States ( $p > .05$ ). For the two variables, the means of South Korea are slightly higher than those of Mexico, but their mean differences are not statistically significant. The other five variables—consumption of mediated cultural products, country visual identity, personal knowledge/experiences, U.S. product attitudes, and purchase intentions—are statistically significant ( $p < .01$ ), and the means for Mexico are higher than those for South Korea. More specifically, for the consumption of mediated cultural products, younger Mexican audiences consume more mediated cultural products than their South Korean counterparts. Also, the Mexican students showed more positive emotional responses to country

visual identity, had more knowledge and experience about the United States, held more favorable attitudes toward U.S.-made products, and had more positive purchase intentions. Generally, the degree of attitudes toward the United States and inter-country relationship beliefs are not different between South Korean and Mexican people, but Mexicans show an overall higher degree of favorability toward the U.S.-related constructs than did South Koreans. This might be due to the geographic proximity of Mexico and the United States and the spillover of U.S. culture and products into Mexico. However, interestingly, both South Korean and Mexican respondents show similar degrees of attitudes toward the United States.

In summary, there was no major difference between the two countries in terms of the applicability of the mediated country brand model (i.e., the antecedents and consequences of country brand), even though there were minor differences such as path values and mean differences. Therefore, it may be concluded that the final mediated country brand model generally applies similarly across the two target countries.

#### **Differences in Country of Origin Effects Depending on Product Categories**

The second research question proposed to investigate the differences in country of origin effects depending on product categories. Product categories used in the mediated country brand model were electronics, fashion, and food. To explore the effects of country of origin, three individual models were tested. The exogenous construct was attitudes toward the United States, and the two endogenous constructs were attitudes toward U.S.-based products and purchase intentions. As Figure 5-6 illustrates, the fashion brand model has the best model fit among three country of origin models: an  $X^2/\text{degrees of freedom}$  ratio was 3.39 in the model ( $X^2 = 176.27$ ,  $df = 52$ ). NNFI was .95, CFI was .96, and RMSEA was .082. Also, the relationship strength between attitudes toward country of origin products and purchase intentions shows the highest value ( $\beta = .63$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

The food model shows the lowest model fit: an  $X^2$ /degrees of freedom ratio was 4.54 in the model ( $X^2 = 190.68$ ,  $df = 42$ ). NNFI was .92, CFI was .94, and RMSEA was .100. For the electronics model, an  $X^2$ /degrees of freedom ratio was 4.37 in the model ( $X^2 = 227.28$ ,  $df = 52$ ). NNFI was .93, CFI was .95, and RMSEA was .098. These results show that fashion brands (e.g., jeans, premium brands, apparel, and sneakers) were most highly linked to country brand attitudes, and food products have comparatively low linkage to country brand attitudes. In general, this implies that consumers care more about country of origin when they buy fashion brands, but on the contrary, food products are not susceptible to the country of origin of those products.

Table 5-1. Constructs, indicators, and key statistics of the South Korean model

Latent Constructs	Indicators	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Confirmatory Factor Loadings
Consumption of mediated cultural products	TV shows	3.62	2.05	.65 <sup>b</sup>
	Movies	5.51	1.32	.54 <sup>a</sup>
	Advertising	3.23	1.70	.59 <sup>a</sup>
	Music	5.15	1.64	.55 <sup>a</sup>
	Websites	2.93	1.60	.54 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	4.09	1.13	Cronbach $\alpha = .70$
Inter-country relationship beliefs	Ally	3.37	1.52	.77 <sup>b</sup>
	Political relationship	3.43	1.42	.75 <sup>a</sup>
	Economic relationship	3.23	1.51	.82 <sup>a</sup>
	The Free Trade Agreement (FTA)	3.68	1.73	.73 <sup>a</sup>
	Country credit ratings	3.47	1.38	.79 <sup>a</sup>
	Cultural relationship	3.49	1.28	.74 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	3.48	1.20	Cronbach $\alpha = .90$
Country visual identity	National flag	3.80	.72	.77 <sup>b</sup>
	National badge	3.74	.75	.68 <sup>a</sup>
	The Statue of Liberty	4.24	.89	.53 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	3.93	.62	Cronbach $\alpha = .67$
Personal experience /knowledge	Residence in the United States	1.62	1.38	.64 <sup>b</sup>
	American friends	1.65	1.24	.69 <sup>a</sup>
	Close friends living in the United States	2.69	1.85	.71 <sup>a</sup>
	Good understanding of the United States	2.96	1.37	.59 <sup>a</sup>
	American culture	3.69	1.60	.61 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	2.52	1.12	Cronbach $\alpha = .80$
Attitudes toward the United States	(1) unfavorable / favorable (7)	3.95	1.56	.90 <sup>b</sup>
	(1) bad / good (7)	3.79	1.45	.94 <sup>a</sup>
	(1) unlikable / likable (7)	3.79	1.71	.83 <sup>a</sup>
	(1) negative / positive (7)	3.69	1.56	.86 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	3.80	1.44	Cronbach $\alpha = .94$
Attitudes toward U.S.-based products	(1) unfavorable / favorable (7)	4.73	1.27	.84 <sup>b</sup>
	(1) bad / good (7)	4.71	1.26	.88 <sup>a</sup>
	(1) unlikable / likable (7)	4.79	1.26	.87 <sup>a</sup>
	(1) negative / positive (7)	4.77	1.28	.89 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	4.75	1.14	Cronbach $\alpha = .93$
Purchase intentions of U.S.-based products	Electronics	3.43	1.48	.66 <sup>b</sup>
	Fashion	4.73	1.30	.90 <sup>a</sup>
	Food	3.85	1.36	.85 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	4.00	1.15	Cronbach $\alpha = .78$

<sup>a</sup> Factor significance:  $p < .01$

<sup>b</sup> loading was set to 1.0 to fix construct variance.

Table 5-2. Constructs, indicators, and key statistics of the Mexican model

Latent Constructs	Indicators	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Confirmatory Factor Loadings
Consumption of mediated cultural products	TV shows	5.59	1.68	.46 <sup>b</sup>
	Movies	6.58	.71	.56 <sup>a</sup>
	Advertising	4.61	1.57	.54 <sup>a</sup>
	Music	6.06	1.27	.64 <sup>a</sup>
	Websites	5.76	1.43	.64 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	5.36	.90	Cronbach $\alpha = .70$
Inter-country relationship beliefs	Ally	3.15	1.60	.66 <sup>b</sup>
	Political relationship	3.63	1.45	.75 <sup>a</sup>
	Economic relationship	3.64	1.63	.78 <sup>a</sup>
	The Free Trade Agreement (FTA)	3.85	1.60	.68 <sup>a</sup>
	Country credit ratings	3.70	1.41	.68 <sup>a</sup>
	Cultural relationship	3.05	1.59	.70 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	3.50	1.19	Cronbach $\alpha = .80$
Country visual identity	National flag	4.31	1.08	.92 <sup>b</sup>
	National badge	4.10	1.05	.80 <sup>a</sup>
	The Statue of Liberty	4.49	1.21	.71 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	4.30	.98	Cronbach $\alpha = .85$
Personal experience /knowledge	Residence in the United State	3.31	2.43	.40 <sup>b</sup>
	American friends	2.81	2.06	.59 <sup>a</sup>
	Close friends living in the US	4.18	2.27	.68 <sup>a</sup>
	Good understanding of the US	4.61	1.70	.62 <sup>a</sup>
	American culture	4.38	1.83	.58 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	3.86	1.43	Cronbach $\alpha = .72$
Attitudes toward the United States	(1) unfavorable / favorable (7)	4.08	1.59	.84 <sup>b</sup>
	(1) bad / good (7)	3.83	1.50	.84 <sup>a</sup>
	(1) unlikable / likable (7)	3.15	1.49	.70 <sup>a</sup>
	(1) negative / positive (7)	3.59	1.43	.86 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	3.66	1.32	Cronbach $\alpha = .90$
Attitudes toward U.S.-based products	(1) unfavorable / favorable (7)	5.35	1.41	.87 <sup>b</sup>
	(1) bad / good (7)	5.73	1.11	.85 <sup>a</sup>
	(1) unlikable / likable (7)	5.09	1.36	.86 <sup>a</sup>
	(1) negative / positive (7)	5.21	1.40	.84 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	5.35	1.18	Cronbach $\alpha = .91$
Purchase intentions of U.S.-based products	Electronics	5.80	1.07	.86 <sup>b</sup>
	Fashion	5.89	1.12	.91 <sup>a</sup>
	Food	4.33	1.47	.59 <sup>a</sup>
	Index	5.34	1.04	Cronbach $\alpha = .79$

<sup>a</sup> Factor significance:  $p < .01$

<sup>b</sup> loading was set to 1.0 to fix construct variance.

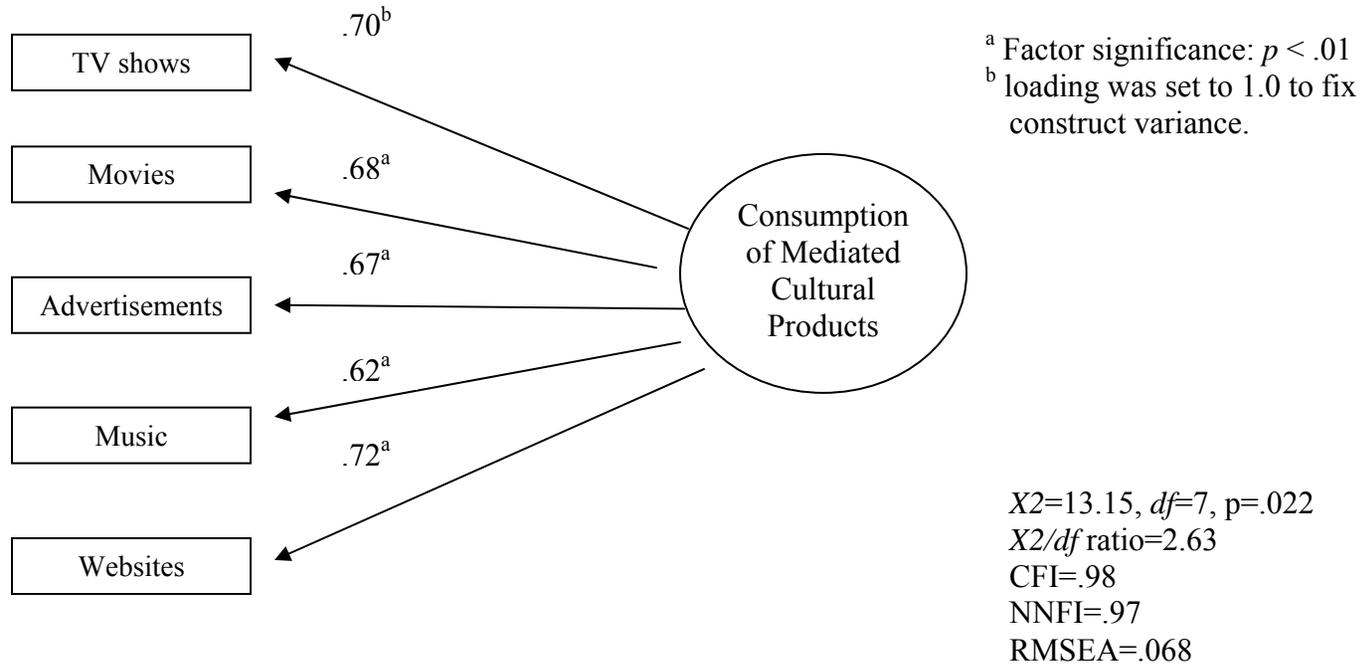


Figure 5-1. Confirmatory factor analysis of consumption of mediated cultural products

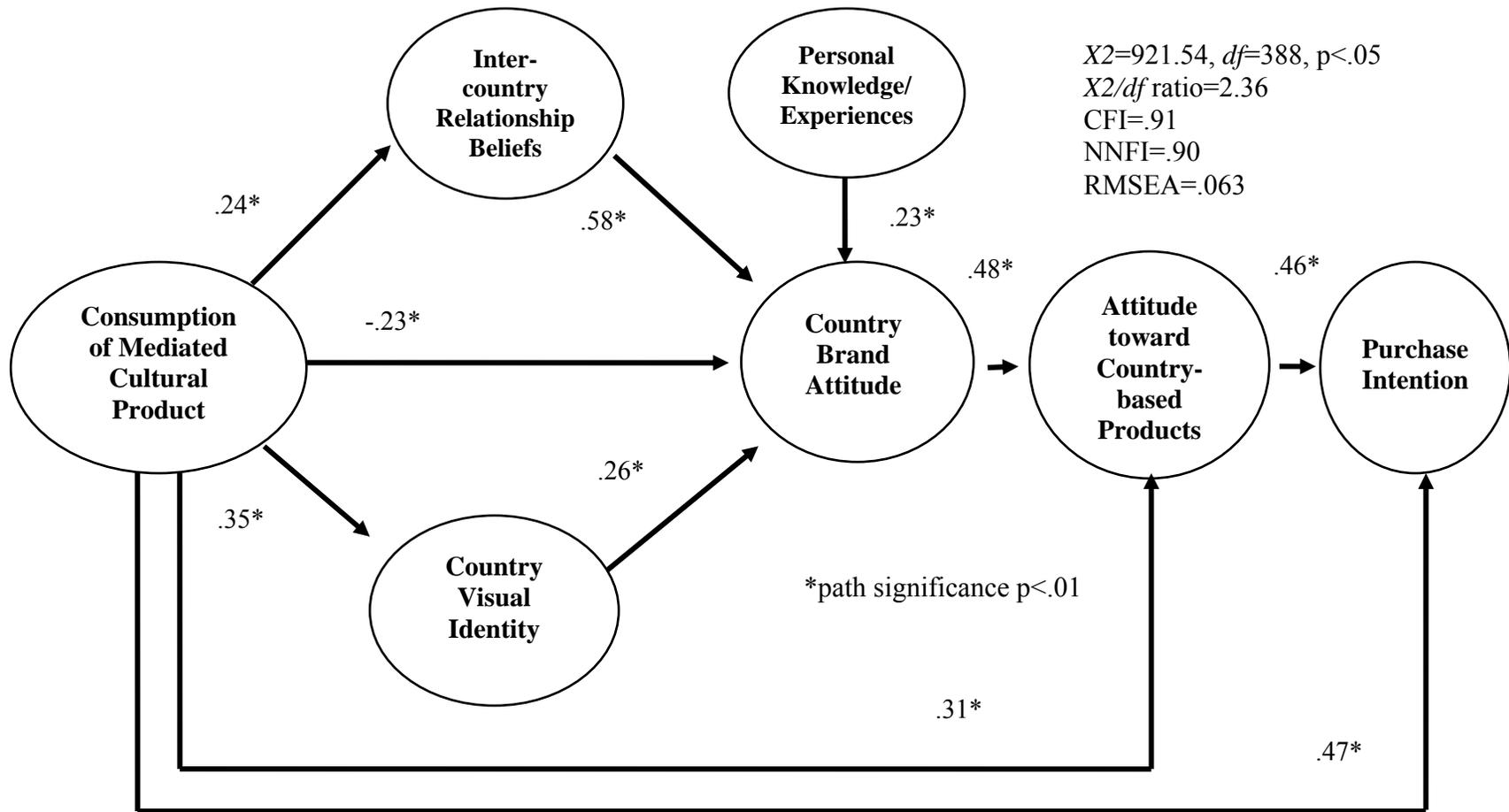


Figure 5-2. The mediated country brand model

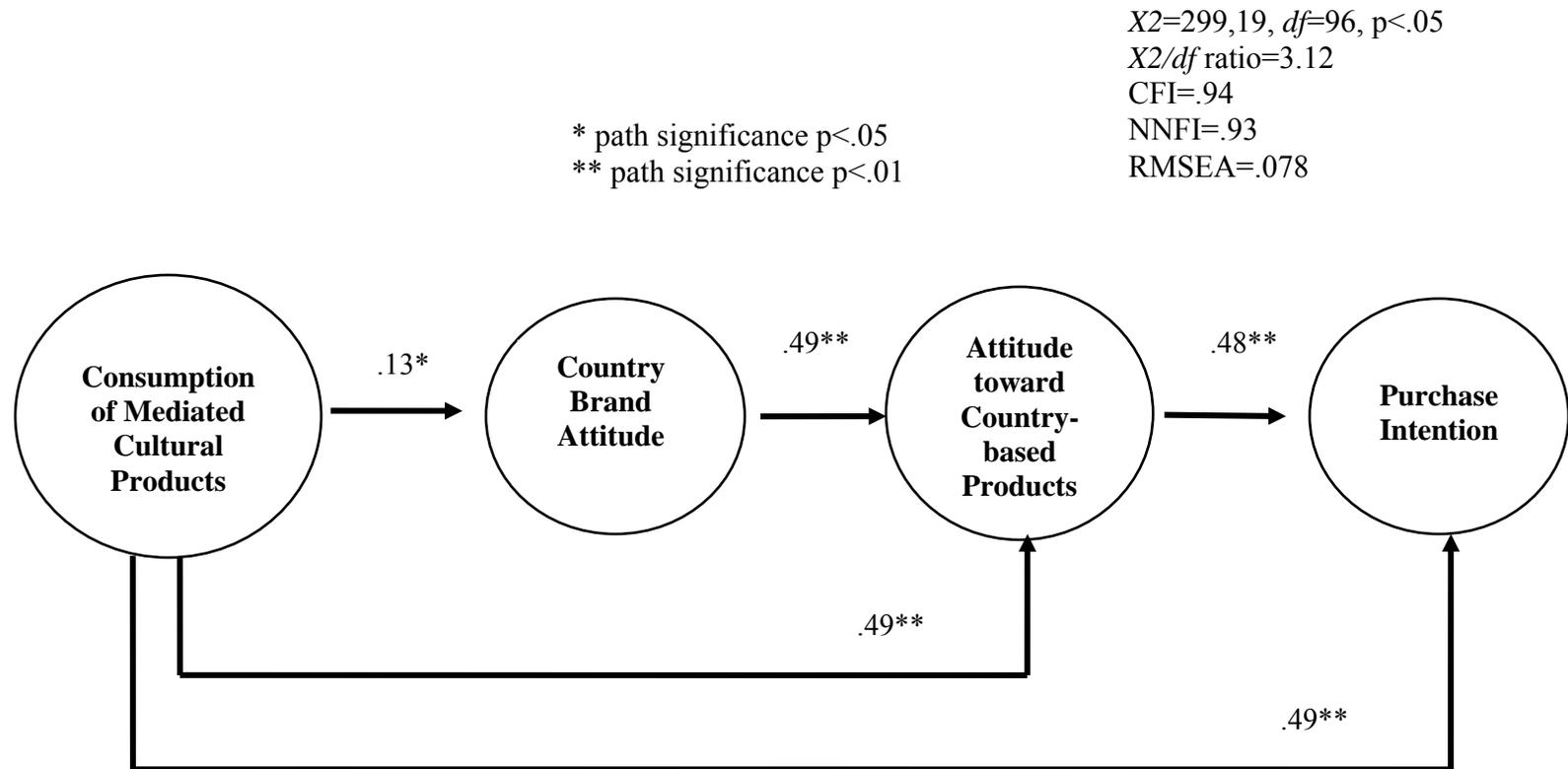


Figure 5-5. The single construct model

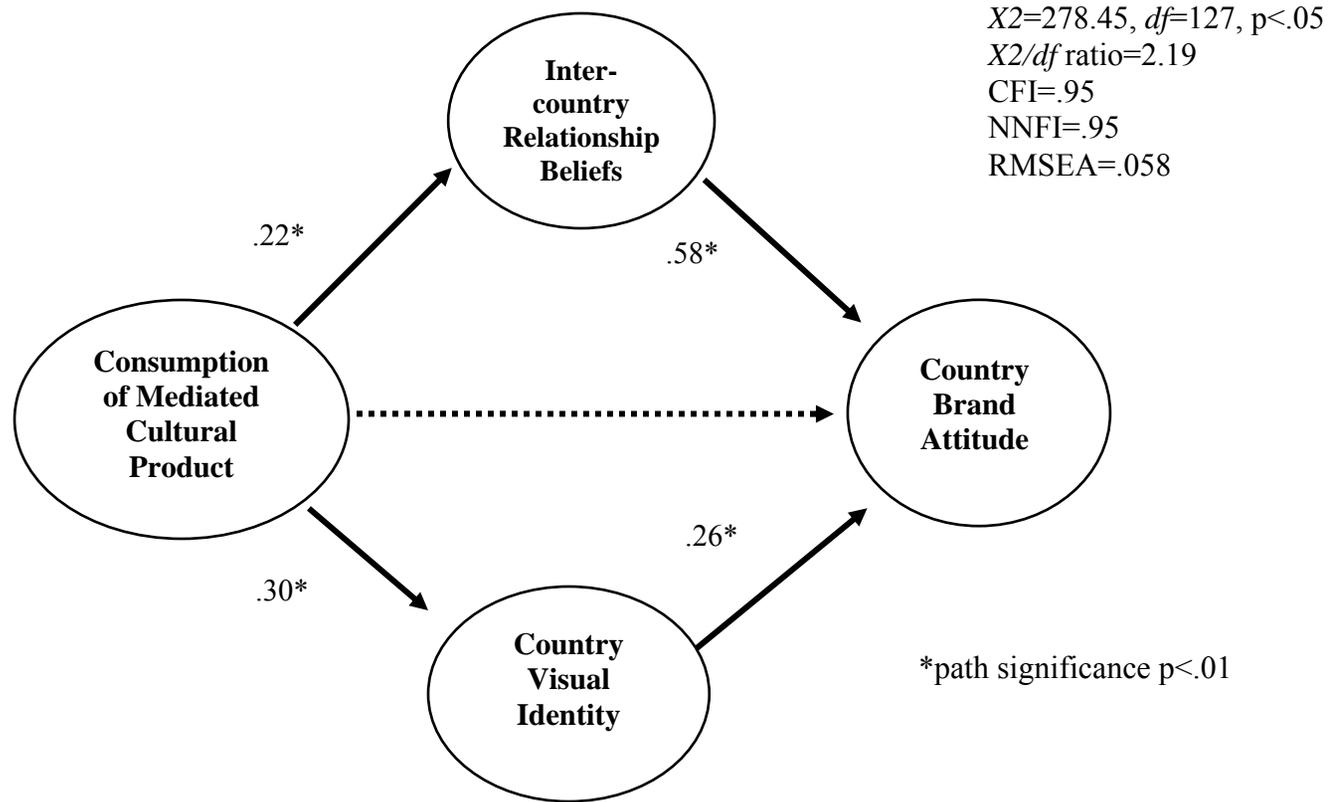


Figure 5-4. Competing model testing 1

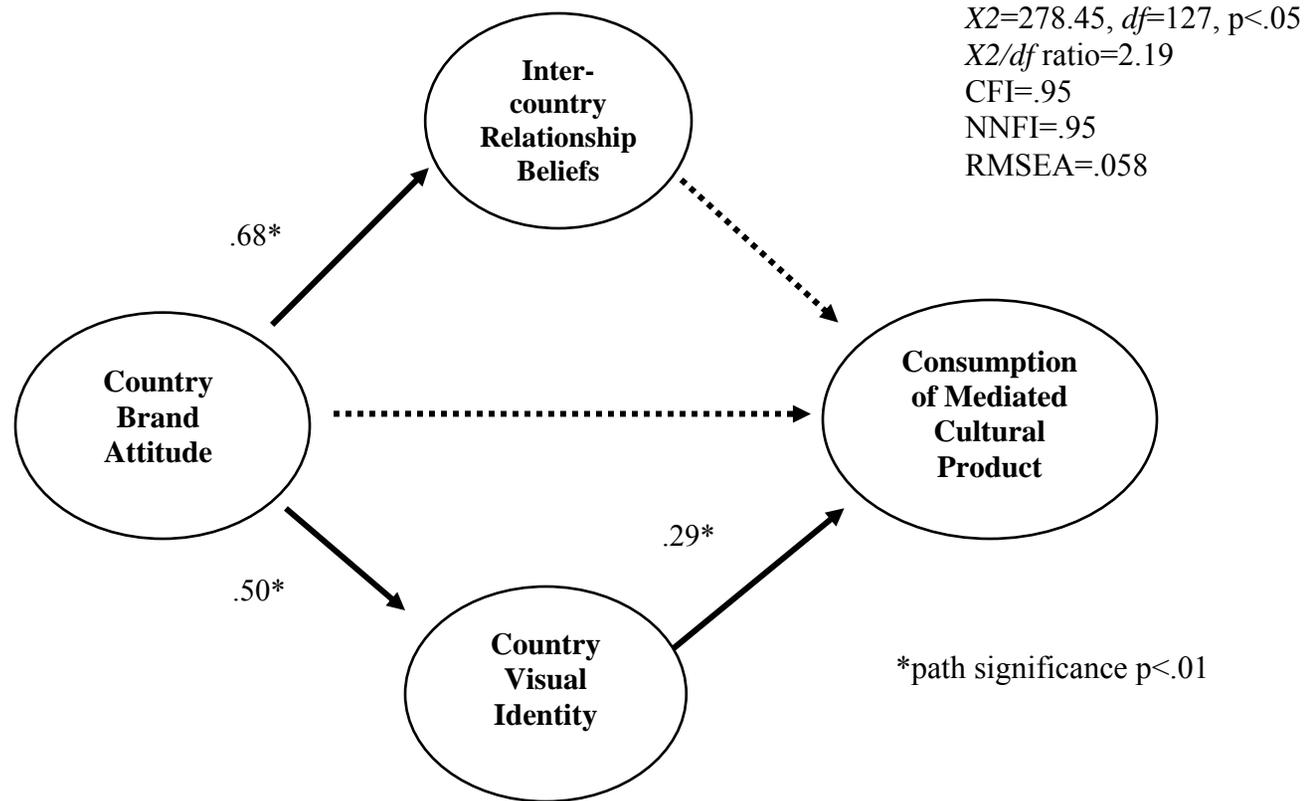


Figure 5-5. Competing model testing 2

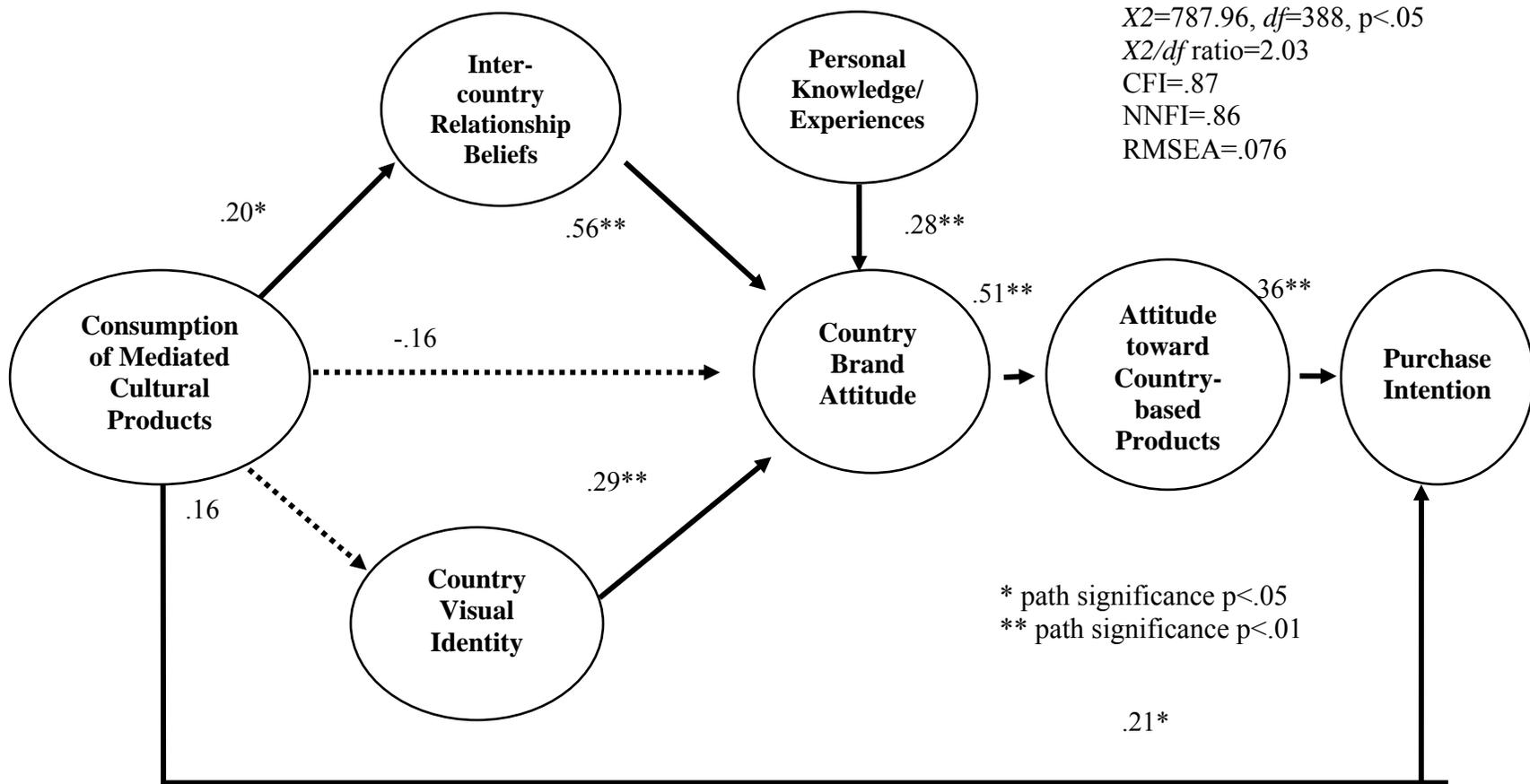


Figure 5-6. S. Korean model

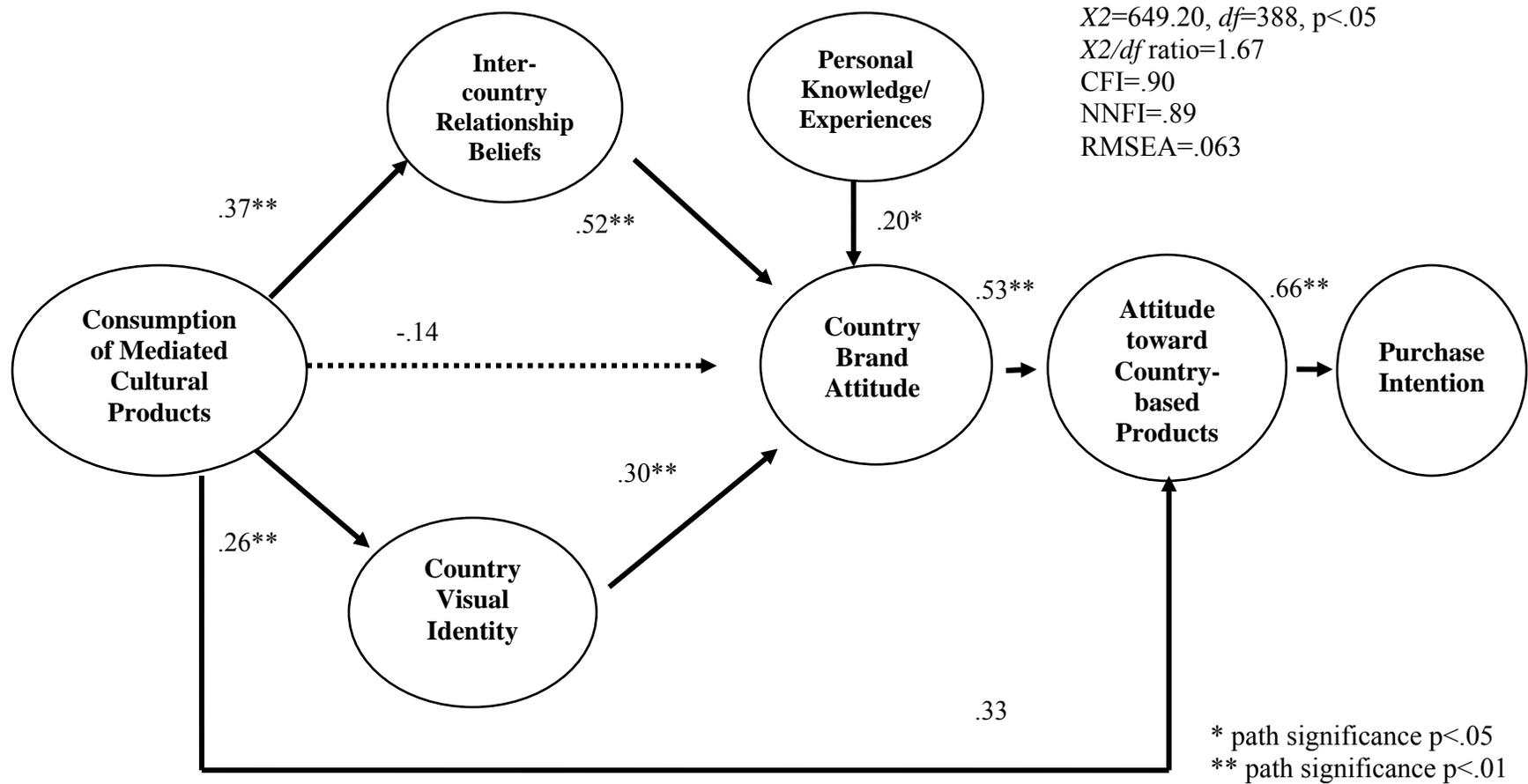
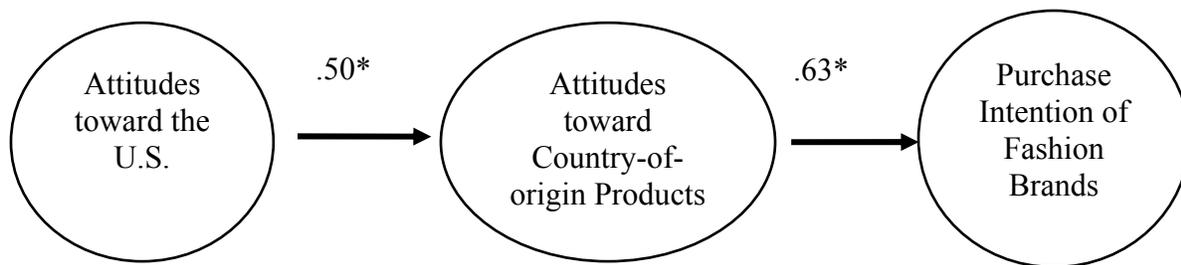
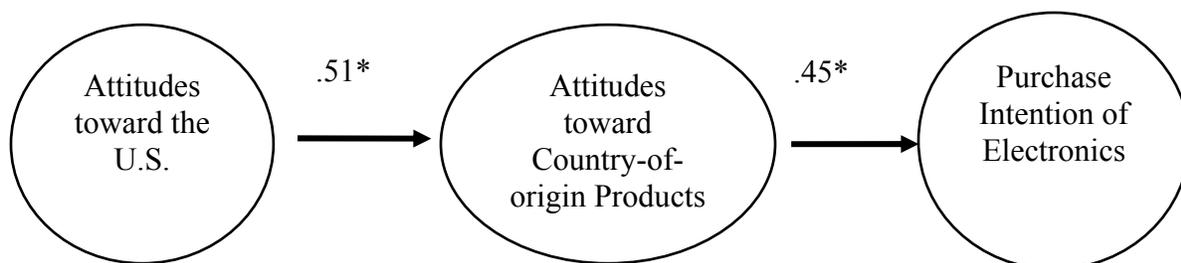


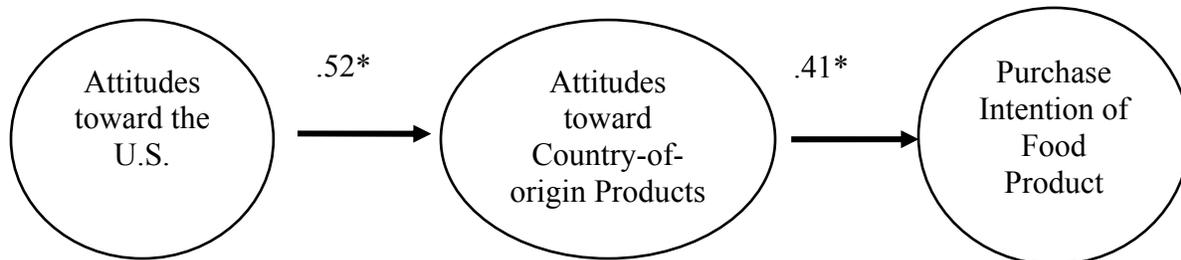
Figure 5-7. Mexican model



$\chi^2=176.271$ ,  $df=52$ ,  $p<.05$   
 $\chi^2/df$  ratio=3.39  
 CFI=.96  
 NNFI=.95  
 RMSEA=.082



$\chi^2=227.28$ ,  $df=52$ ,  $p<.05$   
 $\chi^2/df$  ratio=4.37  
 CFI=.95  
 NNFI=.93  
 RMSEA=.098



$\chi^2=190.68$ ,  $df=42$ ,  $p<.05$   
 $\chi^2/df$  ratio=4.54  
 CFI=.94  
 NNFI=.92  
 RMSEA=.100

\* path significance  $p<.01$

Figure 5-8. Country of origin model by product categories

Table 5-3. Results of ANOVA

Variables	Means	M.S	F	
Consumption of mediated cultural products	S. Korea	4.09	230.24	213.53*
	Mexico	5.70		
Inter-country relationship beliefs	S. Korea	3.48	1.80	1.32
	Mexico	3.34		
Country visual identity	S. Korea	3.93	12.63	19.18*
	Mexico	4.30		
Personal knowledge/experiences	S. Korea	2.52	158.89	97.03*
	Mexico	3.86		
Country attitudes	S. Korea	3.80	1.86	.97
	Mexico	3.66		
Country of origin product attitudes	S. Korea	4.75	30.28	22.47*
	Mexico	5.34		
Purchase intentions	S. Korea	4.00	152.78	125.54*
	Mexico	5.32		

\*p < .05

## CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION

This study explored the antecedents and consequences of attitudes toward country brands from communication and marketing perspectives. The main focus of this study was to investigate the roles of mediated cultural product consumption on various target country-related constructs. The findings of this study conclude that the consumption of mediated cultural products does not directly influence country brand attitudes (H1-1); however, consumption of mediated cultural products has direct relationships with inter-country relationship beliefs (H1-2) and country visual identity (H1-3). In addition, country brand attitude is influenced by inter-country relationship beliefs (H2), country visual identity (H3), and personal knowledge/experiences (H4); this country brand attitude is then linked to attitudes toward country-based products (H5). Positive attitudes toward country-based products subsequently affect consumer purchase intentions for country-based products (H6). Relationships among constructs are different according to individual countries (RQ1), and country of origin effects are strongest for fashion brands (RQ2). Unexpectedly, this study also found that consumption of mediated cultural products directly influences both attitudes toward country-based products and purchase intentions.

First, this study does not support that the consumption of a country's mediated cultural products directly influences attitudes toward the country brand (H1-1). Even though a weak relationship can be found between the two within the single construct model, when communication circumstances become complex (i.e., the research setting in which other country-related factors are included in the mediated country brand model), the influence of mediated cultural product consumption loses its direct power. Furthermore, the relationship between the consumption of mediated cultural products and attitudes toward the country brand experienced a negative change. These results are due to the mediated moderators of inter-country relationship

beliefs and country visual identity. When people have firm conceptual beliefs and a strong preexisting visual imagery of a culture or country, they are not directly influenced by mediated cultural products. As mentioned before, Fullerton (2005) and Gentzkow and Shapiro (2003) could not find direct relationships between American TV exposure and U.S. country attitudes or anti-Americanism from their studies using international students living in the United States. These failures are consistent with the results of the current study.

However, this study found that the consumption of mediated cultural products directly influences both inter-country relationship beliefs (H1-2) and country visual identity (H1-3). This means that the more people watch mediated cultural products, the more they have positive beliefs about inter-country relationships and favorable emotional responses toward visual descriptions of that country. This finding supports Shanahan and Morgan's (1999) argument on the ideological effects of mass media, Anderson and Bryant's (1983) proposition of the role of symbolic environments created by mediated cultural products in consumers' formation of attitudes toward the culture, and Baldwin and Hunt's (2002) assertion of the positive roles of mediated cultural products in intercultural communication effects. Given that international publics obtain country information and images from the mass media, this is quite consistent with the previous literature.

According to Anholt (2003), consumers learn about the cultural values, lifestyles, political systems, and social norms of a country through various communication channels including the mass media. This implies that symbols of American culture and values embedded in mediated cultural products could have positively influenced international consumers' beliefs about the inter-country relationships between America and other countries. Baldwin and Hunt (2002) also point out that people who consume more mediated cultural products related to a

country tend to have positive beliefs about that country's culture, and this positive relationship could be extended to people's beliefs about inter-country relationships.

Also, Anholt (2003) and Baldwin and Hunt's (2002) proposition can be applied to country visual identity because cultural identity is one of the "top of mind" cultural icons of a country, and this visual identity is frequently depicted in mediated cultural products like TV shows, movies, and other visual media. For example, when watching blockbuster movies, it is common to see country icons in important scenes. When the plot of movie is focused on powerful images of the United States fighting with enemies (e.g., formerly Russia and now North Korea) or invaders from another universe, the visual country symbols play a more significant role and become country icons. In short, this study found that the consumption of mediated cultural products does not directly influence country brand attitude, but it indirectly affects country brand attitude through inter-country relationship beliefs and country visual identity. Although not included in the hypotheses, this study found that the amount of mediated cultural product consumption directly influences both attitudes toward country-based products and purchase intentions.

Second, this study demonstrates that inter-country relationship beliefs affect country brand attitudes (H2). This is consistent with extant literature, which notes that the political dimension is an important component constituting country image (Martin and Eroglu 1993) and that international events affect country image (Brunner, Flaschner, and Lou 1993; Jaffe and Nebenzahl 1993). In this regard, political, economic, and cultural perceptions are significant factors influencing country brand attitudes. Particularly, individual issues like the FTA could also be important factors because these issues draw a great amount of attention from

international publics. This result also supports the importance of public diplomacy (Anholt and Hildreth 2004), and that a government should care about international publics' perceptions.

Third, a positive relationship between country visual identity and country brand attitude was found in this study (H3). This study operationally defined country visual identity as the national flag, the national badge, and the Statue of Liberty. Using the corporate brand management concept, the national flag and national badge were identified as identical to corporate visual symbols or word mark designs representing a corporate identity and image. This result is consistent with literature on corporate visual identity, which states that visual symbols work as an important brand-building factor (Aaker 1996). Given that corporate visual identity is a basic representation of a company's image, this result shows that corporate identity management can be applied to a country visual identity management setting.

Fourth, personal knowledge/experiences proved to be significant factors affecting country brand attitudes (H4). The items used in this study were residence experience, friends, general knowledge, and an understanding of a country. This means that the more people have knowledge of and experiences with a country, the more likely they are to develop favorable attitudes toward that country. This result is consistent with the proposition of acculturation—that immigrants who are accustomed to a host country's customs and language and who have interpersonal contacts with a host country's people, can change their behaviors and attitudes toward the United States (Pool 1965; Khairullah 1995). In the global era, the acculturation concept was used to explain the acquisition of culture in an international setting beyond country boundaries.

This study also found that international consumers who have positive attitudes toward the U.S. brand are more likely to have positive attitudes toward U.S.-based products (H5). This finding is different from that of Fullerton (2005), who failed to find significant correlations

between U.S. country image and favorable attitudes toward U.S. brands. This might be due to the use of different samples and the interaction effects of knowledge. Fullerton's study sample of international students living in the United States is different because those students would buy American products anyway due to their accessibility, and so the situation is totally different for respondents living in other countries. International consumers should have to choose between domestic products and U.S. products that normally require more effort to attain. Furthermore, most previous literature on the country of origin effect demonstrates the positive relationship between country of origin and attitudes toward country-based products (Beverland and Lindgreen 2002; D'Astous and Ahmed 1999; Hsieh, Pan, and Setiono 2004; Kleppe et al. 2002; Kotler and Gertner 2002; Lim and O'Cass 2001; Thakor and Lavack 2003). In alignment with the extant country of origin literature, the current study confirmed the proposition that direct attitudes transfer from country to country-based products.

This study also shows that international consumers who have positive attitudes toward U.S.-based products have a greater intent to purchase U.S. products (H6). The relationship between brand attitude and purchase intention has already been confirmed by previous studies; however, the current study further suggests that general attitudes toward U.S. products also have a positive effect on purchase intentions for general U.S. products.

Additionally, product categories should be considered (RQ2). When a separate model for a different product category was tested, the product category of fashion fit the country of origin model best (NNFI = .95 and CFI = .96), followed by electronics (NNFI = .93 and CFI = .95) and food (NNFI = .92 and CFI = .94). This is consistent with the confirmatory factor loadings (see Table 4-1), which indicate that fashion brands (.85) are the most important item in the construct of purchase intentions, followed by electronics (.80) and the food category (.57). This trend can

also be detected in the mean comparison. The means of purchase intentions are 5.30 (fashion), 4.59 (electronics), and 4.09 (food). This indicates that fashion brands are most highly associated with typical American products and that the food category has the least association with general American products. This might be due to the fact that South Korea and Mexico have their own inherent food cultures. It is also believed that food is the most difficult export item to standardize globally. So, in the practice of country of origin marketing executions, different country of origin strategies are needed according to product categories.

Finally, this study provides somewhat different descriptions of country brand relationships between two countries (RQ1). Mexican consumers consume more mediated cultural products than South Korean consumers and view the United States more favorably in terms of country visual identity, personal knowledge/experiences, attitudes toward U.S.-made products, and purchase intentions. This means that Mexican consumers are more familiar with U.S.-related concepts than South Koreans. However, their overall attitudes toward the United States do not differ from those of South Koreans.

In addition, the mediated country brand model is a better fit for Mexican consumers than for South Korean consumers. While the consumption of mediated cultural products does not directly influence attitudes toward the United States, consumption of mediated cultural products does indirectly affect attitudes toward the United States for both countries. For South Koreans, consumption of mediated cultural products influences attitudes toward the United States through inter-country relationship beliefs. For Mexican consumers, attitudes toward the United States are affected by their consumption of mediated cultural products through both inter-country relationship beliefs and country visual identity. So, South Korean consumers can be said to hold more conceptual understandings about the United States than Mexican consumers, and Mexican

consumers have more visible and animated attitudes toward American-related products. This result is due to the differences in geographic distance and cultural orientation between each country and the United States. As Figure 4-1 shows, Mexico is more similar to the United States—especially in terms of masculinity—than South Korea, based on cultural orientation. This similarity of cultural orientation could play a positive role in absolving U.S. culture and its products. However, despite these minor differences, the general antecedents and consequences of country branding apply similarly for both countries. Therefore, one could conclude that the mediated country brand model might be universal across two countries or more.

This study provides several important managerial implications for U.S. government officials and global marketers. First, in accordance with recent international polls and reports (e.g., Pew Research Center 2004; Mitchell 2005; Nesterov 2005), this study shows that general feelings toward the United States are not favorable among international college students ( $M = 3.73$ , less than the mid-point of four in a seven-point scale). Moreover, the current study demonstrates that attitudes toward the U.S. brand influence attitudes toward U.S.-based products. Recently, the Bush administration attempted to improve America's image through government-sponsored advertising campaigns for America called the Shared Value Initiative (SVI). However, these campaigns have mostly targeted Muslim and Arabic countries and the effectiveness of the campaigns is open to debate (Fullerton and Kendrick 2005; Anholt and Hildreth 2004). The results of the current study and other previous polls and reports strongly recommend that the U.S. government develop a comprehensive international communication campaign to improve America's image worldwide and change its current international diplomatic activities.

Recognizing the overwhelmingly negative image of America, U.S. global marketers tend to be concerned that this negative image could influence their international business activities

(Allison 2005). The current study proves that this fear is not exaggerated, as reported by *Fortune* magazine (Guyon 2003), but is actually happening, in that country brand attitudes transfer to product brand attitudes. This implies that international consumers care about country of origin when they purchase products, and that country image has a significant impact on their attitudes toward, and purchase intentions of international brands. Since the U.S. government has not been fully engaged or effective in improving the U.S. image around the world, global marketers in the United States need to strive on their own to enhance international consumers' attitudes toward the U.S. brand. First of all, U.S. marketers need to examine through international market analysis how foreign consumers view them. If anti-Americanism exists in foreign markets, then U.S. marketers should scrutinize why local consumers dislike America and what negative images are associated with America (e.g., America is too materialistic, is only concerned with money making, is insensitive to local customers and cultures, hurts local traditions, etc.). Based on this market research to understand local customers and their cultures, U.S. marketers need to develop marketing communication campaigns that promote the USA brand as well as their product brands.

There are some effective tools for building country brands. As the results of this study show, inter-country relationship beliefs, country visual identity, and personal knowledge/experiences are important factors influencing country brand attitudes. This means that there are various consumer contact points for country brands to influence country brand attitudes. Even though it is hard for marketers or government officials to change international publics' inter-country relationship perceptions within a short period of time, they can promote positive beliefs about a country. Inter-country relationship beliefs can be developed through various sources. The U.S. government should enhance its efforts to build more positive beliefs

about America within international publics. Nowadays, as public diplomacy is a main approach to international administration (Anholt and Hildreth 2004), targets of diplomacy should incorporate general international publics, and not just governments, in their diplomacy efforts. Technically, country advertising and public relations management can be effective marketing communication tools for country branding. It is time to borrow business strategies to run a country more strategically. For country visual identity management, it is suggested that favorable visual icons of the United States be developed. These icons can be monuments, buildings, or even people. The important point is that these icons should be managed strategically. When visual icons are effectively communicated, the brand equity of the United States can be increased through secondary associations with visual icons.

In addition, greater personal knowledge or favorable experiences can be constructed among international publics. The Fulbright fund is a typical example of this case. Traditionally, the U.S. funded international students and imparted knowledge and experience about the United States on those students. Such programs are successful because students who study in the United States could be opinion leaders in their countries, and transfer favorable images of the United States to their people. In this regard, government officers or corporate marketers need to develop various programs providing students with an understanding of the United States and actual experiences living there.

Tourism marketers could also contribute to this strategic program because travelers are civil ambassadors and transfer the U.S. image to others. The World Citizen Guide that the National Business Travel Association (NBTA) published would be a good example. This guidebook suggests 16 guidelines for U.S. travelers: 1) you'll never go wrong with a smile; 2) show your pride, but respect theirs; 3) think as big as you like, but talk and act smaller; 4) it may

be Greek to you, but they'll love it; 5) it's okay to talk with your hands if you know what they're saying; 6) leave the slang at home; 7) listen at least as much as you talk; 8) save the lecture for your kids; 9) think a little locally; 10) slow down; 11) speak lower and slower; 12) remember that your religion is your religion and not necessarily theirs; 13) if you talk politics, talk but don't argue; 14) read a map and dress up because you can always strip down; and 16) a few extra hours in their country will do a lot for yours (NBTA 2004). These guidelines could work for building a favorable country image.

Another managerial implication from the findings of the current study is that the degree of consumption of mediated cultural products could be used as a target segmentation variable for international customers who are not familiar with the United States. For example, U.S. marketers could segment international customers in terms of their use of U.S. mediated cultural products such as American movies, TV shows, music, and websites. Generally, those who use more U.S. mediated cultural products could be defined as target audiences for U.S. consumer brands, since they are more likely to have positive attitudes toward American products. At the same time, media vehicles that deliver U.S. cultural content (e.g., American TV shows or movies on television) can be purchased for advertising media planning. Given that the consumption of mediated cultural products indirectly affects country attitudes and directly influences attitudes toward country-based products and purchase intentions, product placement in U.S. movies and TV shows exported to target countries would be an effective marketing tool to reach local customers. Placing brand images and messages within mediated cultural products can appeal more effectively to those who watch U.S. movies and TV shows, because these consumers tend to feel more positively toward U.S.-based products and have higher purchase intentions after being exposed to U.S. movies and TV shows.

While this study provides various useful implications for brand management, there are also significant implications from mass communication perspectives. As the results of this study show, mediated cultural products impact various country-related concepts. This result is consistent with traditional literature, suggesting the powerful influence of mass media content such as agenda setting, framing, priming, and so on. Though previous literature suggests the effects of media content, this study generally showed that the degree of various media consumption impacted the beliefs, emotions, attitudes, and behaviors of international audiences. For entertainment practitioners considering these effects, producers of mediated cultural products should note the results of this study. Specifically, producers need to note that their entertainment products are influential to international audiences. For example, a Hollywood film could set a certain agenda among international audiences. When a country is described as a main enemy of the plot, audiences can develop a stereotype of the depicted country, which then influences attitudes toward that country. Also, producers should avoid biased descriptions of other countries that could evoke negative consequences. In the same vein, they should pay attention when describing the United States. It is desirable to depict the United States with consideration of its huge impact on international audiences.

This study has some limitations that mostly relate to sampling issues. For example, this study employed South Korean and Mexican samples to measure attitudes toward the U.S. brand and American products. The results may have been different if more country samples were included. In addition, the use of a homogeneous student sample might have resulted in different effects than what would have been found in a sampling of the general population. Therefore, it would be valuable to replicate the current study with more representative samples. It would also be interesting to replicate the current study for other country brands and consumers (e.g.,

perceptions of the France brand and French products among U.S. consumers) and for city attitudes or U.S. state images (e.g., the New York brand or Florida brand).

Further, given that this study and those of Fullerton (2005), DeFluer and DeFluer (2003), and Shapiro (2003), could not find direct relationships between consumption of mediated cultural products and country attitudes, there might be moderating variables between the consumption of mediated cultural products and attitudes toward a country. First, an exploration of interaction effects of knowledge and media consumption would be valuable. If study samples were divided by their degree of knowledge about a country, the result would yield more specific results and a conclusion regarding the conditional roles of mediated cultural products.

Experimental research would be one of the options for exploring other moderating effects that this study could not uncover. Another interesting future study could focus on not only the degree of consumption of mediated cultural products, but also the content or format of the mediated cultural products. For example, the effects of mediated cultural products could be different between negative violent movies and positive silent dramas. In this regard, specific categorizations of mediated cultural products could be fruitful moderators of country branding.

Future studies should also include various factors affecting country brand. As Anholt and Hildreth (2004) proposed, people, tourism, investment, immigration, culture, and heritage could be additional factors influencing attitudes toward a country that have not been empirically tested. Finally, a future country brand study could investigate citizens' satisfaction with their own country. Due to developments in transportation and globalization, people can move across borders. Brain exodus is one of the main national problems for developing countries, and some other countries are in need to attract immigrants for their economic growth. In this regard, a

country brand study of a particular country's residents could provide further implications for country brand management.

## CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION

This study proposes the mediated country brand model and shows that the model was successfully supported. The mediated country brand model explains how country brand is influenced and what factors are important. Particularly, this study focuses on the role of mediated cultural products. Mediated cultural products convey the cultural values of a country, and the transfer of culture is different for different product exports/imports. The market share of products could be a zero-sum game, but culture is different (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). This means that mediated cultural products can play a role as effective communication channels transferring American values and its favorable image, because after experiencing U.S. culture, international publics became familiar with the U.S. brand. The mediated country brand model incorporates cognitive, affective, and behavioral constructs within a single model. It is recommended to apply the mediated country brand model to explain various country branding strategies and to predict the influence of individual country branding factors.

Brand management strategy is essential to any country. The United States in particular needs to build a comprehensive and well-organized country brand strategy (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). Country brand strategy is the same as corporate brand strategy, in terms of analyzing current situations and perceptions from different locations, and establishing clear brand identities, or a desirable country brand image. Furthermore, this country identity should be shared, not only among government offices but also among general publics who live in the United States, and effectively communicated globally. The means of building a country brand is not that different from that of corporate brand management: for a company, corporate brand identity should be shared, from the top management level to every employee (Aaker 1996; Keller 2003). All stakeholders should understand the brand vision of America from government to civil

society, NGOs, entertainment, the media, small and large businesses, foreign services, tourism, culture and arts, religion, academia, and education (Anholt and Hildreth 2004).

However, U.S. brand-building endeavors have not been successful. For example, the budget for the Shared Value Initiative was only \$15 million (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). This is too small when compared to the marketing expenditures of American mid-sized companies. It is even said that U.S. advertising campaigns are not effective and could yield a counter-effect (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). For example, if the general perceived image of America is that of a bully, allotting bigger budgets for country branding could reinforce that image and evoke resistance to branding messages (Anholt and Hildreth 2004). This is why a comprehensive country brand management system is required. International publics could have a great number of contact points with the United States. Even though there are both controllable and uncontrollable factors in country branding, they are needed to run strategic country brand management systems starting from manageable brand factors. For example, immigrants from all over the world could be precious sources for the United States as a global brand. Their attachment to brand America could play a role in effective branding because people trust them more than marketing messages. This is why word-of-mouth is important to marketing practices. Also, people who live in the United States should help to build a favorable U.S. brand. When they travel abroad, they should act as civil ambassadors in order to transfer a positive U.S. image to other countries.

In conclusion, the United States is not a “mysterious, idealized, magical land” anymore (Anholt and Hildreth 2004, p. 130). However, the U.S. brand is still a strong brand. It should be remembered that the United States is loosing its status as a premium brand, and that brand-rehabilitating programs are needed.

APPENDIX A  
CORRELATION MATRIX

Table A-1. Correlation matrix

	TV	Movie	Ads	Music	Web	Ally	Polotical	Economic	FTA	Credit	Cultural	Flag	Badge	Statue	Residence
TV	1														
Movie	.50**	1													
Ads	.50**	.44**	1												
Music	.38**	.45**	.37**	1											
Web	.48**	.46**	.49**	.49**	1										
Ally	0.01	0.03	0.07	0.07	0.05	1									
Political	.15**	.15**	.15**	.18**	.14*	.71**	1								
Economic	0.08	.13*	.15**	0.08	.18**	.58**	.61**	1							
FTA	0.06	.12*	.11*	.17**	.12*	.48**	.48**	.58**	1						
Credit	.14**	.13*	0.06	.18**	.19**	.51**	.53**	.55**	.59**	1					
Cultural	0.01	0	.12*	0.08	0.01	.47**	.53**	.55**	.45**	.51**	1				
Flag	.20**	.18**	.12*	.28**	.24**	.27**	.32**	.33**	.27**	.34**	.26**	1			
Badge	0.1	0.08	0.06	.18**	.19**	.22**	.24**	.28**	.23**	.31**	.23**	.69**	1		
Statue	0.03	.12*	0.08	.19**	.12*	.23**	.19**	.22**	.17**	.18**	.18**	.58**	.49**	1	
Residence	.25**	.24**	.24**	.15**	.37**	0.07	0.09	.13*	0.09	0.04	-0.09	.25**	.23**	.24**	1
Friends1	.27**	.19**	.34**	.23**	.38**	.13*	.14**	.24**	.16**	.11*	0.09	.27**	.18**	.25**	.42**
Friends2	.34**	.30**	.30**	.25**	.36**	.11*	.14**	.20**	.15**	0.1	0.03	.18**	0.1	.17**	.37**
Knowledge	.37**	.31**	.32**	.26**	.50**	.21**	.27**	.34**	.20**	.27**	.11*	.33**	.24**	.22**	.44**
US culture	.33**	.30**	.24**	.28**	.33**	.11*	.11*	.16**	.13**	.15**	0.08	.19**	.16**	.16**	.40**
US 1	.18**	.17**	.11*	.16**	.17**	.54**	.50**	.53**	.45**	.49**	.43**	.41**	.35**	.41**	.21**
US 2	0.02	0.09	0.03	.11*	.12*	.45**	.44**	.45**	.37**	.43**	.43**	.38**	.39**	.35**	.11*
US 3	-0.04	0	-0.03	0.04	-0.03	.39**	.35**	.42**	.33**	.34**	.43**	.22**	.27**	.22**	-0.02
US 4	0	0.05	0	0.03	0.05	.43**	.38**	.44**	.40**	.39**	.44**	.33**	.33**	.31**	0.08
Brand 1	.18**	.31**	.14**	.23**	.28**	.28**	.32**	.26**	.26**	.27**	.20**	.31**	.18**	.30**	.12*
Brand 2	.24**	.33**	.20**	.19**	.38**	.18**	.26**	.24**	.23**	.21**	.11*	.31**	.21**	.39**	.23**
Brand 3	.14**	.24**	.13*	.17**	.18**	.25**	.28**	.26**	.26**	.24**	.23**	.31**	.19**	.36**	.14**
Brand 4	.17**	.26**	.16**	.13*	.19**	.22**	.26**	.26**	.23**	.25**	.21**	.26**	.14**	.34**	.12*
Electronics	.41**	.41**	.33**	.34**	.48**	0.09	.17**	.19**	.18**	.20**	-0.01	.39**	.24**	.24**	.31**
Fashion	.32**	.42**	.24**	.34**	.39**	.11*	.21**	.17**	.19**	.16**	0	.28**	.19**	.33**	.25**
Food	.26**	.21**	.14**	.20**	.19**	.22**	.25**	.21**	.25**	.24**	.18**	.21**	.11*	.21**	.11*

Table A-1. Continued.

	Friends1	Friends2	Knowledge	USculture	US1	US2	US3	US4	B1	B2	B3	B4	Electronics	Fashion	Food
TV															
Movie															
Ads															
Music															
Web															
Ally															
Political															
Economic															
FTA															
Credit															
Cultural															
Flag															
Badge															
Statue															
Residence															
Friends1	1														
Friends2	.53**	1													
Knowledge	.43**	.52**	1												
US culture	.33*	.45**	.66**	1											
US 1	.26**	.26**	.35**	.27**	1										
US 2	.24**	.17**	.23**	.22**	.76**	1									
US 3	0.1	0.03	0.07	0.06	.65**	.70**	1								
US 4	.17**	.13*	.20**	.13*	.73**	.80**	.79**	1							
Brand 1	.17**	.23**	.29**	.16**	.52**	.44**	.33**	.41**	1						
Brand 2	.17**	.27**	.32**	.18**	.42**	.38**	.18**	.31**	.77**	1					
Brand 3	.19**	.20**	.22**	.13*	.46**	.40**	.37**	.41**	.72**	.72**	1				
Brand 4	.15**	.22**	.21**	.11*	.43**	.39**	.30**	.39**	.72**	.73**	.78**	1			
Electronics	.26**	.27**	.39**	.18**	.22**	.18**	-0.02	.18**	.37**	.49**	.34**	.38**	1		
Fashion	.21**	.25**	.27**	.16**	.27**	.22**	0.07	.15**	.52**	.57**	.48**	.52**	.68**	1	
Food	.20**	.20**	.21**	.14**	.28**	.24**	0.09	.26**	.27**	.29**	.28**	.30**	.52**	.50**	1

APPENDIX B  
ENGLISH SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

**Consumption of Mediated Cultural Products**

I watch American TV shows.

Rarely (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frequently

I watch American Movies.

Rarely (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frequently

I watch or read news stories about America.

Rarely (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frequently

I watch or read American advertising.

Rarely (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frequently

I read American periodicals.

Rarely (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frequently

I read American books.

Rarely (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frequently

I listen American Music.

Rarely (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frequently

I visit American websites.

Rarely (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frequently

**Inter-country Relationship beliefs**

I believe that the United States is an ally of my country.

Strongly disagree (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Strongly agree

I believe that the US has a good political relationship with my country.

Strongly disagree (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Strongly agree

The US army in other countries is necessary

Strongly disagree (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Strongly agree

The US is the only country who can control North Korea

Strongly disagree (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Strongly agree

I believe that the US has a good economic relationship with my country.

Strongly disagree (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Strongly agree

The Free Trade Agreement (FTA) with the US is appropriate

Strongly disagree (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Strongly agree

Country credit ratings evaluated by the US rating service are trustworthy  
Strongly disagree (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Strongly agree

I believe that the US has a good cultural relationship with my country.  
Strongly disagree (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Strongly agree

**Personal experiences**

Would you say you can speak English?  
Strongly disagree (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Strongly agree

I have some experiences of residence in the United State.  
Strongly disagree (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Strongly agree

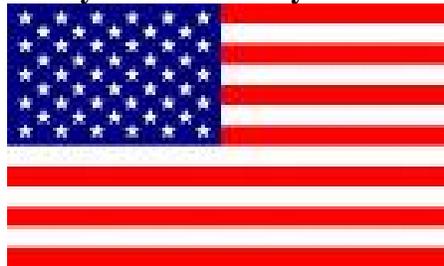
I have some American friends I hang around with.  
Strongly disagree (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Strongly agree

I have some close friends living in the US.  
Strongly disagree (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Strongly agree

I think that I have a quite good understanding of the US  
Strongly disagree (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Strongly agree

I think that I am quite familiar with the American culture  
Strongly disagree (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Strongly agree

**Emotional responses of the Country Visual Identity**



To me, the presented US national flag is:

- |             |   |            |
|-------------|---|------------|
| Unhappy     | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Happy      |
| Annoyed     | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Pleased    |
| Unsatisfied | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Satisfied  |
| Melancholic | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Contented  |
| Despairing  | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Hopeful    |
| Bored       | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Relaxed    |
| Relaxed     | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Stimulated |
| Calm        | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Excited    |
| Sluggish    | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Frenzied   |
| Dull        | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Jittery    |
| Sleepy      | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Wide awake |



To me, the presented US national badge is:

- |             |   |            |
|-------------|---|------------|
| Unhappy     | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Happy      |
| Annoyed     | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Pleased    |
| Unsatisfied | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Satisfied  |
| Melancholic | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Contented  |
| Despairing  | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Hopeful    |
| Bored       | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Relaxed    |
| Relaxed     | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Stimulated |
| Calm        | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Excited    |
| Sluggish    | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Frenzied   |
| Dull        | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Jittery    |
| Sleepy      | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Wide awake |



To me, the presented Statue of Liberty is:

- |             |   |            |
|-------------|---|------------|
| Unhappy     | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Happy      |
| Annoyed     | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Pleased    |
| Unsatisfied | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Satisfied  |
| Melancholic | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Contented  |
| Despairing  | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Hopeful    |
| Bored       | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Relaxed    |
| Relaxed     | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Stimulated |
| Calm        | (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) | Excited    |

Sluggish (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Frenzied  
Dull (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Jittery  
Sleepy (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Wide awake

**Attitude toward the United States**

To me, the United States is:

Unfavorable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Favorable  
Bad (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Good  
Unlikable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Likable  
Negative (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Positive

**Attitude toward US-based products**

To me, products/brands from the United States are:

Unfavorable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Favorable  
Bad (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Good  
Unlikable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Likable  
Negative (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Positive

**Purchase Intention of US-based Products**

If I were in the market place, I would purchase American cellular phone.

Impossible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Possible  
Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

If I were in the market place, I would purchase American jeans.

Impossible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Possible  
Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

If I were in the market place, I would purchase American luxury products.

Impossible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Possible  
Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

If I were in the market place, I would purchase American apparel products.

Impossible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Possible  
Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

If I were in the market place, I would purchase American sneakers.

Impossible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Possible  
Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

If I were in the market place, I would use American fast food/restaurant chains.

Impossible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Possible  
Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

If I were in the market place, I would purchase American computers.

Impossible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Possible  
Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

If I were in the market place, I would purchase American home appliance.

Impossible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Possible  
Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

If I were in the market place, I would purchase American MP3 players.

Impossible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Possible  
Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

If I were in the market place, I would purchase American cars.

Impossible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Possible  
Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

If I were in the market place, I would purchase American soft drinks.

Impossible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Possible  
Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

If I were in the market place, I would purchase American beer.

Impossible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Possible  
Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

If I were in the market place, I would purchase American toiletries.

Impossible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Possible  
Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

Nationality ( )

Gender: male ( ) female ( )

Occupation ( )

Age ( ) years

APPENDIX C  
KOREAN SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

문화상품소비

나는 미국 TV 프로그램을 시청한다.  
거의 시청하지 않는다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 자주 시청한다

나는 미국 영화를 관람한다.  
거의 관람하지 않는다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 자주 관람한다

나는 미국관련 뉴스기사를 보거나 읽는다.  
거의 보거나 읽지 않는다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 자주 보거나 읽는다

나는 미국 광고를 본다.  
거의 보지 않는다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 자주 본다

나는 미국 정기간행물을 보거나 읽는다.  
거의 보거나 읽지 않는다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 자주 보거나 읽는다

나는 미국 책을 읽는다.  
거의 읽지 않는다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 자주 읽는다

나는 미국 음악을 듣는다.  
거의 듣지 않는다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 자주 듣는다

나는 미국 웹사이트를 방문한다.  
거의 방문하지 않는다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 자주 방문한다

국가 관계에 대한 신념

미국은 한국의 동맹국이라고 믿는다.  
매우 그렇지 않다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 그렇다

미국은 한국과 정치적으로 좋은 관계를 유지한다고 믿는다.  
매우 그렇지 않다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 그렇다

미군의 해외주둔은 필요하다고 믿는다  
매우 그렇지 않다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 그렇다

미국은 북한을 통제할 유일한 나라라고 믿는다  
매우 그렇지 않다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 그렇다

미국과 한국은 좋은 경제 관계를 유지한다고 믿는다.  
매우 그렇지 않다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 그렇다

미국과의 FTA 는 적절하다

매우 그렇지 않다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 그렇다

미국의 신용평가회사의 국가 신용평가는 믿을만하다

매우 그렇지 않다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 그렇다

미국과 한국은 좋은 문화적 관계를 유지한다고 믿는다.

매우 그렇지 않다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 그렇다

### 개인적인 경험

당신은 영어 할 줄 아십니까?

거의 잘 하지 못 한다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 잘 한다

나는 미국 거주 경험이 꽤 있다

매우 그렇지 않다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 그렇다

나는 친하게 지내는 미국인 친구가 몇 있다

매우 그렇지 않다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 그렇다

나는 미국에 거주하는 친한 친구가 몇 있다

매우 그렇지 않다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 그렇다

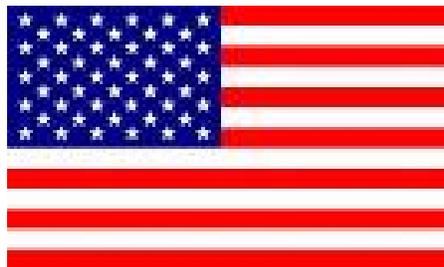
나는 미국에 대해 잘 안다고 생각한다

매우 그렇지 않다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 그렇다

나는 미국 문화에 익숙한 편이다

매우 그렇지 않다 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 매우 그렇다

### 국가 시각 아이덴티티에 대한 정서 반응



나에게 있어 제시된 미국 국기는 나를...(하게) 만든다

불행하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 행복하게

짜증나게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 기쁘게

불만족스럽게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7)만족스럽게

우울하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 흐뭇하게

절망적으로 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 희망적으로

지루하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 편안하게

편안하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 자극되게

- 고요하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 흥분되게
- 활기가 없게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 열광적으로
- 둔감하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 안절부절 못하게
- 즐리게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 정신이 말짱하게



나에게 있어 제시된 미국 국가 문장은 나를...(하게) 만든다

- 불행하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 행복하게
- 짜증나게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 기쁘게
- 불만족스럽게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 만족스럽게
- 우울하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 흐뭇하게
- 절망적으로 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 희망적으로
- 지루하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 편안하게
- 편안하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 자극되게
- 고요하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 흥분되게
- 활기가 없게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 열광적으로
- 둔감하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 안절부절 못하게
- 즐리게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 정신이 말짱하게



나에게 있어 제시된 자유의 여신상은 나를...(하게) 만든다

- 불행하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 행복하게
- 짜증나게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 기쁘게
- 불만족스럽게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 만족스럽게

- 우울하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 흐뭇하게
- 절망적으로 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 희망적으로
- 지루하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 편안하게
- 편안하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 자극되게
- 고요하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 흥분되게
- 활기가 없게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 열광적으로
- 둔감하게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 안절부절 못하게
- 즐리게 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 정신이 말짱하게

**미국에 대한 태도**

나에게 있어 미국은:

- 우호적이지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 우호적인
- 나쁜 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 좋은
- 호감이 가지 않는 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 호감이 가는
- 부정적인 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 긍정적인

**미국 제품에 대한 태도**

나에게 있어 미국 제품과 브랜드는:

- 우호적이지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 우호적인
- 나쁜 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 좋은
- 호감이 가지 않는 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 호감이 가는
- 부정적인 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 긍정적인

**미국 제품에 대한 구매 의도**

만약 핸드폰을 구매한다면 나는 미국산 핸드폰을 구매할 것이다  
 불가능한 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 가능한  
 그럴법하지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 그럴법한

만약 청바지를 구매한다면 나는 미국산 청바지를 구매할 것이다  
 불가능한 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 가능한  
 그럴법하지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 그럴법한

만약 명품 브랜드를 구매한다면 나는 미국산 명품 브랜드를 구매할 것이다  
 불가능한 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 가능한  
 그럴법하지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 그럴법한

만약 의류제품을 구매한다면 나는 미국산 의류 제품을 구매할 것이다  
 불가능한 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 가능한  
 그럴법하지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 그럴법한

만약 운동화를 구매한다면 나는 미국산 운동화를 구매할 것이다

불가능한 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 가능한  
그럴법하지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 그럴법한

만약 식사 장소를 선택한다면 나는 미국산 패스트 푸드/패밀리 레스토랑 체인을 이용할 것이다  
불가능한 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 가능한  
그럴법하지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 그럴법한

만약 컴퓨터를 구매한다면 나는 미국산 컴퓨터를 구매할 것이다  
불가능한 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 가능한  
그럴법하지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 그럴법한

만약 가전제품을 구매한다면 나는 미국산 가전제품을 구매할 것이다  
불가능한 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 가능한  
그럴법하지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 그럴법한

만약 MP3 플레이어를 구매한다면 나는 미국산 MP3 플레이어를 구매할 것이다  
불가능한 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 가능한  
그럴법하지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 그럴법한

만약 자동차를 구매한다면 나는 미국산 자동차를 구매할 것이다  
불가능한 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 가능한  
그럴법하지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 그럴법한

만약 음료수를 구매한다면 나는 미국산 음료수를 구매할 것이다  
불가능한 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 가능한  
그럴법하지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 그럴법한

만약 맥주를 구매한다면 나는 미국산 맥주를 구매할 것이다  
불가능한 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 가능한  
그럴법하지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 그럴법한

만약 세면도구 (치약, 칫솔, 비누, 샴푸 등)를 구매한다면 나는 미국산 세면도구를 구매할 것이다  
불가능한 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 가능한  
그럴법하지 않은 (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) 그럴법한

국적 ( )  
성별: 남자( ) 여자( )  
직업 ( )  
나이 만( )세

APPENDIX D  
SPANISH SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

**Consumo Cultural de Productos**

Yo veo programas americanos de televisión.

Raramente (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frecuentemente

Yo veo películas americanas.

Raramente (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frecuentemente

Yo veo o leo noticias sobre los Estados Unidos.

Raramente (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frecuentemente

Yo veo o leo publicidad americana.

Raramente (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frecuentemente

Yo leo periódicos americanos.

Raramente (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frecuentemente

Yo leo libros americanos.

Raramente (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frecuentemente

Yo escucho música americana.

Raramente (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frecuentemente

Yo visito sitios de Internet americanos.

Raramente (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Frecuentemente

**Creencias sobre relaciones interculturales.**

Yo creo que los Estados Unidos son un aliado de mi país.

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

Yo creo que los Estados Unidos tienen una buena relación política con mi país.

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

El ejército americano es necesario en otros países.

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

Los Estados Unidos son el único país que pueden controlar a Corea del Norte.

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

Yo creo que los Estados Unidos tienen una buena relación económica con mi país.

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----- (2)----- (3)----- (4)----- (5)----- (6)----- (7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

El Acuerdo de Tratado Libre (ATL) con los Estados Unidos es apropiado.

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

La clasificación de crédito del país, evaluada por el servicio de clasificación de los Estados Unidos es confiable.

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

Yo creo que los Estados Unidos tienen una buena relación cultural con mi país.

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

### **Experiencias Personales**

¿Usted diría que puede hablar inglés?

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

Tengo algunas experiencias de residencia en los Estados Unidos.

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

Tengo algunos amigos americanos con los que salgo.

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

Tengo algunos amigos cercanos que viven en los Estados Unidos.

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

Creo que tengo un buen entendimiento de los Estados Unidos.

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

Creo que tengo conocimiento de la cultura Americana.

No estoy de acuerdo (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estoy de acuerdo totalmente

### **Respuestas Emocionales sobre la Identidad Visual del País:**



Para mí, la bandera nacional de los Estados Unidos está:

Descontento	(1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7)	Contento
Molesto	(1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7)	Complacido
Insatisfecho	(1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7)	Satisfecho
Melancólico	(1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7)	Estresado
Desesperado	(1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7)	Optimista
Aburrido	(1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7)	Relajado

Relajado (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estimulado  
 Calmado (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Emocionado  
 Haragán (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Frenético  
 Poco interesante (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Nervioso  
 Soñoliento (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Despierto



Para mí, el escudo nacional de los Estados Unidos está:

Descontento (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Contento  
 Molesto (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Complacido  
 Insatisfecho (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Satisfecho  
 Melancólico (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estresado  
 Desesperado (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Optimista  
 Aburrido (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Relajado  
 Relajado (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estimulado  
 Calmado (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Emocionado  
 Haragán (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Frenético  
 Poco interesante (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Nervioso  
 Soñoliento (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Despierto



Para mí, la Estatua de la Libertad presentada está:

Descontento (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Contento  
 Molesto (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Complacido  
 Insatisfecho (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Satisfecho

Melancólico (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estresado  
 Desesperado (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Optimista  
 Aburrido (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Relajado  
 Relajado (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Estimulado  
 Calmado (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Emocionado  
 Haragán (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Frenético  
 Poco interesante (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Nervioso  
 Soñoliento (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Despierto

### **Actitud hacia los Estados Unidos**

Para mí, los Estados Unidos son:

Desfavorable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Favorable  
 Malos (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Buenos  
 Antipáticos (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Simpáticos  
 Negativo (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Positivo

### **Actitud hacia productos americanos**

Para mí, productos/marcas de los Estados Unidos son:

Desfavorable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Favorable  
 Malos (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Buenos  
 Antipáticos (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Simpáticos  
 Negativo (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Positivo

### **Intención de consumo de productos americanos**

Si yo estuviera en el mercado, yo compraría un celular americano.

Imposible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Posible  
 Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

Si yo estuviera en el mercado, yo compraría pantalones jeans americanos.

Imposible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Posible  
 Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

Si yo estuviera en el mercado, yo compraría productos de lujo americanos.

Imposible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Posible  
 Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

Si yo estuviera en el mercado, yo compraría productos de ropa americanos.

Imposible (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Posible  
 Improbable (1)----(2)----(3)----(4)----(5)----(6)----(7) Probable

Si yo estuviera en el mercado, yo compraría zapatos tenis americanos.



## LIST OF REFERENCES

- Aaker, David. A. (1991), *Managing Brand Equity*, New York, NY: The Free Press.
- (1996), *Building Strong Brand*, New York, NY: The Free Press.
- (2000), *Brand Leadership*, New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Aaker, Jennifer L. (1997), "Dimensions of Brand Personality," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 34(August), 347-356.
- Ahmed, Zafar, James P. Johnson, XiaYang, Chen Fatt, Han Teng, and Lim Chee Boon (2004), "Does Country of Origin Matter for Low-Involvement Products?" *International Marketing Review*, 21 (1), 102-120.
- Albarracin, Dolores (2002), "Cognition in Persuasion: An Analysis of Information Processing in Response to Persuasive Communications," *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, M. P. Zanna, ed., San Diego, CA: Academic Press, 61-130
- , and G. Tarcan Kumkale (2003), "Affect as Information in Persuasion: A Model of Affect Identification and Discounting," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84, 453-469.
- Alessandri, Sue Wescott (2001), "Modeling Corporate Identity: A Concept Explication and Theoretical Explanation", *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 6 (4), 173-82.
- Allison, Kevin (2005), "World Turning its Back on Brand America," *Financial Times*, August 1, available at <http://www.organicconsumers.org/BTC/brandname080305.cfm>.
- Allport, Gordon W. (1937), *Personality a Psychological Interpretation*, New York, NY: Henry Holt & Co.
- Anderson, Daniel, and Jennings Bryant (1983), "Research on Children's Television Viewing: The State of the Art," *Children's Understanding of Television: Research on Attention and Comprehension*, J. Bryant and D. Anderson, eds., New York: Academic Press, 331-354.
- Anholt, Simon (2003), *Brand New Justice-The Upside of Global Branding*, Burlington, MA: Butterworth Heinemann.
- , and Jeremy Hildreth (2004), *Brand America: The Mother of All Brands*, London: Cyan Books.
- Azoulay, Audrey (2003), "Do Brand Personality Scales really Measure Brand Personality?" *Journal of Brand Management*, 11 (2), 143-155.

- Balabanis, George, and Adam Diamantopoulos (2004), "Domestic Country Bias, Country of origin Effect, and Consumer Ethnocentrism," *Academy of Marketing Science Journal*, 32 (1), 80-91.
- Baldwin, John R., and Stephen K. Hunt (2002), "Information-Seeking Behavior in Intercultural and Intergroup Communication." *Human Communication Research*, 28 (2), 272-286.
- Balmer, John M. T., and Alan Wilson (1998), "Corporate Identity: There is More to It than Meets the Eye", *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 28 (3), 12-31.
- Beach, Lee Roy (1990), *Image Theory: Decision Making in personal and Organizational Contexts*, New York: Wiley.
- Beil, Alex (1992), "Converting Image into Equity," *Journal of Advertising Research*, (November/December), RC-9.
- Bem, Daryl J. (1965), "An Experimental Analysis of Self-Persuasion," *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 1, 199-218.
- Bentler, Peter M. (1989), *EQS Structural Equations Program Manual*, Los Angeles: BMDP Statistical Software.
- , and Douglas G. Bonett (1980), "Significance Tests and Goodness of Fit in the Analysis of Covariance Structures," *Psychological Bulletin*, 88 (November), 588-606.
- Beverland, Michael, and Adam Lindgreen (2002), "Using Country of Origin in Strategy: The Importance of Context and Strategic Action," *Journal of Brand Management*, 10 (2), 147-167.
- Bliss, John, and Meg Wildrick (2005), "How to build a personal brand," *Consulting To Management*, 6-10.
- Bojanic, David C. (1991), "The Use of Advertising in Managing Destination Image," *Tourism Management* (December), 352-355.
- Boorstin, Daniel J. (1964), *The Image: A guide to Pseudo-Event in America*, New York: Harper & Row.
- Bollen, Kenneth A. (1989), *Structural Equations with Latent Variables*, New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Boulding, Kenneth E. (1959), "National Image and International System," *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 11 (3), 324-332.
- Bramwell, Bill, and Liz Rawding (1996), "Tourism Marketing Images of Industrial Cities," *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23 (1), 201-221.

- Brandt, Marty, and Grant Johnson (1997), *PowerBranding: Building Technology Brands for Competitive Advantage*, San Francisco, CA: International Data Group.
- Brinol, Pablo, and Richard E. Petty (2005), "Individual Differences in Attitude Changes," *The handbook of Attitudes*, Dolores Albarracin, Blair T. Johnson, and Mark P. Zanna, eds., Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 575-615
- Brunner, A. James, Alan B. Flaschner, and Xiaogan Lou (1993), "Images and Events: China before and after Tianamen Square," *Product-Country Images: Impact and Role in International Marketing*, N. Papadopoulos, & L.A. Heslop, eds., Binghampton, NY: International Business Press, 379-401
- BusinessWeek (2001), "The 100 Top Brands: Our First Ranking of the World's Most Valuable Brands," August 6, p. 60-64, available at [http://www.ourfishbowl.com/images/surveys/IB\\_SV\\_BW\\_8\\_6\\_01.pdf](http://www.ourfishbowl.com/images/surveys/IB_SV_BW_8_6_01.pdf)
- BusinessWeek (2006), "The 100 Top Brands 2006," available at <http://bwnt.businessweek.com/brand/2006/>
- Butz, David A., E. Ashby Plant, and Celeste E. Doerr (2007), "Liberty and Justice for All? Implications of Exposure to the Intergroup Relations," *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33 (3), 396-408.
- Caldwell, Niall, and Joao R. Freire (2004), "The Differences between Branding a Country, a Region and a City: Applying the Brand Box Model," *Journal of Brand Management*, 12 (1), 50-61.
- Campbell, Margaret C. (2002), "Building Brand Equity," *International Journal of Medical Marketing*, 2 (3), 208-218.
- Caprara, Gian V., Claudio Barbaranelli, and Gianluigi Guido (2001), "Brand Personality: How to Make the Metaphor Fit?" *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 22, 377-395.
- Cervino, Julio, Joaquin Sanchez, and Jose Maria Cubillo (2005), "Made in Effect, Competitive Marketing Strategy, and Brand Performance: An Empirical Analysis for Spanish Brands," *Journal of American Academy of Business*, 6 (2), 237-244.
- Chaiken, Shelly, Akiva Liberman, and Alice Eagly (1989), Heuristic and Systematic Information Processing within and beyond the Persuasion Context, *Unintended Thought*, J. S. Uleman and J. A. Bargh, eds., New York: Guilford, 212-252
- Chao, Paul (2001), "The Moderating Effects of Country of Assembly, Country of Parts, and Country of Design on Hybrid Product Evaluations," *Journal of Advertising*, 30 (4), 67-81.

- Chao, Gerhard Wuhler, and Thomas Werani (2005), "Celebrity and Foreign Brand Names as Moderators of Country-of-origin Effects," *International journal of Advertising*, 24 (2), 173-84.
- Churchill, Gilbert A. (1979), "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16 (February), 64-73.
- Clore, Gerald L., and Simone Schnall (2005), "The Influence of Affect on Attitude," *The Handbook of Attitudes*, Dolores Albarracin, Blair T. Johnson, and Mark P. Zanna, eds., Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 437-489.
- D'Astous, Alain, and Sadrudin A. Ahmed (1999), "The Importance of Country Images in the Formation of Consumer Product Perception," *International Marketing Review*, 16 (2), 108-125.
- DeFleur, Melvin L., and Margaret H. DeFleur (2003), *Learning to Hate Americans: How US Media Shape Negative Attitudes Among Teenagers in Twelve Countries*, Spokane, WA: Marquette Books.
- Digman, John M. (1990), "Personality Structure: Emergence of the Five Factor Model," *Annual Review of Psychology*, 41, 417-440.
- Eagly, Alice, and Shelly Chaiken (1993), *The psychology of attitudes*, Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Embacher, Johann, and Francis Buttle (1989), "A Repertory Grid Analysis of Austria's Image as a Summer Vacation Destination," *Journal of Travel Research* (Winter), 3-7.
- Entman, Robert M. (1993), "Framing: Toward Clarification of A Fractured Paradigm," *Journal of Communication*, 43 (4), 51-58.
- Fakeye, Paul C., and John L. Crompton (1991), "Image Difference between Prospective First-time, and Repeat Visitors to the Rio Grande Valley," *Journal of Travel Research* (Fall), 10-16.
- Festinger, Leon (1957), *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance*, Evanston, IL: Row, Peterson.
- Foley, Anthony, and John Fahy (2004), "Incongruity Between Expression and Experience: The Role of Imagery in Supporting the Positioning of a Tourism Destination Brand," *Journal of Brand Management*, 11 (3), 209-217.
- Fullerton, Jami A. (2005), "Why Do They Hate Us? International Attitudes towards America, American Brands and Advertising," *Place Branding*, 1 (2), 129-140.
- , and Alice Kendrick (2006), *Advertising's War On Terrorism: The Story of the U.S. State Department's Shared Values Initiative*, Spokane, Washington: Marquette Books

- Gallarza, M. G., Gill Saura, and Calderon Garcia (2002), "Destination image: Towards a Conceptual framework," *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29 (1), 56-78.
- Gentzkow, Matthew A., and Jesse M. Shapiro (2004), "Media, Education and Anti-Americanism in the Muslim World," *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 18 (3), 117-133.
- Gerbing, David, and James Anderson (1988), "An Updated Paradigm for Scale Development Incorporating Unidimensionality and Its Assessment," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 25 (May), 186-92.
- Goodrich, Jonathan N. (1978), "The Relationship Between Preferences for and Perceptions of Vacation Destinations: Application of a Choice Model," *Journal of Travel Research*, 17 (Fall), 8-13.
- Gudykunst, William B., and Young Yun Kim (1997), *Communicating with Stranger: An Approach to International Communication* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gurhan-Canli, Z., and Maheswaran, D. (2000), "Cultural Variations in Country of Origin Effects", *Journal of Marketing Research*, 37 (3), 309-317.
- Guyon, Janet (2003), "Brand America, Is Anti-Americanism Bad for Business? Rumors of the Death of U.S. Capitalism Abroad are Greatly Exaggerated." *Fortune*, October 27, p. 179, available at <http://www.fortune.com/fortune/brainstorm/0,15704,517351,00.html>
- Haahti, Antti J. (1986) "Finland's Competitive Position as a Destination," *Annals of Tourism Research*, 13, 11-35.
- Hair, Joseph F., Rolph E. Anderson, Ronald L. Tatham, and William C. Black (1998), *Multivariate Data Analysis*, 5<sup>th</sup> edition, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Han, C. Min (1989), "Country Image: Halo or Summary Construct?" *Journal of Marketing Research*, 26 (May), 222-229.
- Hankinson, Graham (2004) "The Brand Image of Tourism Destinations: A Study of the Saliency of Organic Images," *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 13 (November), 6-14.
- Henderson, P. W., Cote, J. A., Leong, S. M. and Schmitt, B. (2003), "Building Strong Brands in Asia: Selecting the Visual Components of Image to Maximize Brand Strength", *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 20, 297-313.
- Holbrook, Morris B., and Robert M. Schindler (1994), "Age, Sex, and Attitude Toward the Past as Predictors of Consumers' Aesthetic Tastes for Cultural Products," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31 (3), 412-422.

- Hong, Sung-Tai, and Robert S. Wyer Jr. (1989), "Effects of Country-of-origin and Product Attribute Information on Product Evaluation: An Information Processing Perspectives," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16, 175-187.
- Hoyer, Wayne D., and Deborah J. MacInnis (2001), *Consumer Behavior*, Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company
- Hsieh, Ming-Huei, Shan-Ling Pan, and Rudy Setiono (2004), "Product-, Corporate-, and Country-Image Dimensions and Purchase Behavior: A Multicountry Analysis," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 32 (3), 251-270.
- Hui, Michael K., and Lianxi Zhou (2002), "Linking Product Evaluations and Purchase Intention for Country-of-Origin Effects," *Journal of Global Marketing*, 15 (3/4), 95-101.
- Insch, Gary S., and J. Brad McBride (1998), "Decomposing the Country-of-Origin Construct: An Empirical Test of Country of Design, Country of Part, and Country of Assembly," *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 10 (4), 69-91.
- , and ----- (2004), "The Impact of Country-of-Origin Cues on Consumer Perceptions of Product Quality: A Binational Test of the Decomposed Country-of-Origin Construct," *Journal of Business Research*, 57 (2), 256-265.
- Jaffe, Eugene D., and Israel D. Nebenzahl (1993), "Global Promotion of Country Image, *Product-country images: Impact and role in international marketing*, N. Papadopoulos and L.A. Heslop, eds., Binghamton, NY: International Business Press, 433-453
- Jaworski, Stefan Paul, and Don Fosher (2003), "National Brand Identity & Its Effect on Corporate Brands: The Nation Brand Effect (NBE)," *The Multinational Business Review*, 11 (2), 99-113.
- Jo, Myung-Soo, Kent Nakamoto, and James E. Nelson (2003), "The Shielding Effects of Brand Image Against Lower Quality Countries-of-Origin in Global Manufacturing," *Journal of Business Research*, 56 (8), 637-649.
- Johansson, Johnny K., Ilkka A. Ronkainen, and Michael R. Czinkota (1994), "Negative Country-of-origin Effects: The Case of the New Russia," *Journal of International Business Studies*, 25 (1), 157-176.
- Joppe, Marion, David W. Martin, and Judith Waalen (2001), "Toronto's Image as a Destination: A Comparative Importance-satisfaction Analysis by Origin of Visitors," *Journal of Travel Research*, 39, 252-260.
- Judd, Dennis R. (1995), "Promoting Tourism in US Cities," *Tourism Management*, 16 (3), 175-187.

- Jun, Jong Woo, and Kun-Wung Byon (2006), "Modeling the Relationship among Sports Events, Companies, and Country Brand," *The East-West Channel*, 20, 81-103.
- , and Hyungdong Lee (2007) "Impacts of 2006 World Cup Soccer Games on the Brand Germany: Perspectives from Younger Korean Consumers," presented at the American Academy of Advertising, Asia-Pacific conference, May, Seoul, South Korea
- , and Hyung Min Lee (2007), "Enhancing Global-scale Visibility and Familiarity: The Impact of World Baseball Classic on Participating Countries," *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 3 (1), 42-52.
- , and Sung Wook Shim (2007) "Dimensions of Country Personality of the United States," presented at the American Academy of Advertising, Asia-Pacific conference, May, Seoul, South Korea
- Kaplan, David (2000), *Structural Equation Modeling: Foundations and Extensions*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kathman, Jerry (2002), "Brand identity development in the new economy," *Massachusetts Institute of Technology*, 18 (1), 24-35.
- Keller, Kevin Lane (1993), "Conceptualizing, Measuring, and Managing Customer-Based Brand Equity," *Journal of Marketing*, 57, 1-22.
- (1998), *Building, Measuring, and Managing Brand Equity*. NJ: Prentice Hall.
- (2003), *Strategic Brand Management*, Pearson Education.
- Kelman, Herbert C. (1965), *International Behavior*, New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Kern, Montague, and Marion Just (1995) "The Focus group Method, Political Advertising, Campaign news, and the Construction of Candidate Images," *Political Communication*, 12, 127-145.
- Khairullah, Durriya (1995), "Acculturation and Its Relation to Asian-Indian Immigrants' Perceptions of Advertisements," *Journal of Applied Business Research*, 11 (2), 55-64.
- Kim, Chung K. (1995), "Brand Popularity and Country Image in Global Competition: Managerial Implications", *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 4 (5), 21-33.
- , DongChul Han, and Seung-Bae Park (2001), "The Effect of Brand Personality and Brand Identification on Brand Loyalty: Applying the Theory of Social Identification," *Japanese Psychological Research*, 43(4), 195-206.
- Kim, KeeHan (2002), "Trembling US companies," *Segae Ii-Bo*, December 12, p. 26.

- Kim, Young Yun (2001), *Becoming Intercultural: An Integrative Theory of Communication and Cross-Cultural Adaptation*, CA: Sage: Thousand Oaks.
- Klein, Jill Gabrielle, Richard Etteson, and Marlene D. Morris (1998), "The Animosity Model of Foreign Product Purchase: An Empirical Test in the People's Republic of China," *Journal of Marketing*, 62 (January), 89-100.
- Kleppe, Ingeborg Astrid, Nina M. Iversen, and Inger G. Stensaker (2002), "Country Images in Marketing Strategies: Conceptual Issues and an Empirical Asian Illustration," *Journal of Brand Management*, 10 (1), 61-74.
- Knight, Garry A., and Roger J. Calantone (2000), "A Flexible Model of Consumer Country-of-origin Perceptions: A Cross Cultural Investigation," *International Marketing Review*, 17 (2), 127-145.
- Konecnik, Maja (2004) "Evaluating Slovenia's Image as a Tourism Destination: A Self-analysis Process towards Building A Destination Brand," *Journal of Brand Managements*, 11 (4), 307-316.
- Kotler, Philip, and David Gertner (2002), "Country as Brand, Product, and beyond: A Place Marketing and Brand Management Perspective," *Journal of Brand Management*, 9 (4-5), 249-261.
- Krosnick, Jon A., Charles M. Judd, and Bernd Wittenbrink (2005), "The Measurement of Attitudes," *The Handbook of Attitudes*, Dolores Albarracín, Blair T. Johnson, and Mark P. Zanna, eds., Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum, 21-76.
- Kruglanski, Arie W., and Wolfgang Stroebe (2005), "The Influence of Beliefs and Goals on Attitudes; Issues of Structure, Function, and Dynamics," *The Handbook of Attitudes*, Dolores Albarracín, Blair T. Johnson, and Mark P. Zanna, eds., Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 323-368.
- Lambert, A. (1989), "Corporate Identity and Facilities Management", *Facilities*, 7 (12), 7-12.
- Laroche, Michael, Nicholas Papadopoulos, Louise A. Heslop, and James Bergeron (2003), "Effects of Subcultural Differences on Country and Product Evaluations," *Journal of Consumer Behavior*, 2 (3), 232-247.
- , -----, -----, and Mehdi Murali (2005), "The Influence of Country Image Structure on Consumer Evaluations of Foreign Products," *International Marketing Review*, 22 (1), 96-115.
- Lawrence, C., Marr, N. E. and Prendergast, G. P. (1992), "Country-of-origin Stereotyping: A Case Study in the New Zealand Motor Vehicle Industry," *European Journal of Marketing*, 26 (3), 37-51.

- Lebedenko, Vladimir (2004), "Russia's National Identity and Image-building," *International Affairs: A Russian Journal*, 4, 71-77.
- Lee, Dongdae, and Gopala Ganesh (1999), "Effects of Partitioned Country Image in the Context of Brand Image and Familiarity," *International Marketing Review*, 16 (1), 18-39.
- Lee, Wei-Na, Tai Woong Yun, and Byung-Kwan Lee (2005), "The Role of Involvement in Country-of-Origin Effects on Product Evaluation: Situational and Enduring involvement," *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 17 (2,3), 51-59.
- Leisen, Birgit (2001), "Image Segmentation: the Case of A Tourism Destination," *Journal of Service Marketing*, 15 (1), 49-66.
- Lim, Kenny, and Aron O'Cass (2001), "Consumer Brand Classifications: an Assessment of Culture-of-Origin versus Country-of-Origin," *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 10 (2), 120-136.
- Lin, Chien-Huang, and Danny T. Kao (2004), "The Impacts of Country-of-Origin on Brand Equity," *Journal of American Academy of Business, Cambridge*, 5(Jan/Feb), 37-40.
- Lindquist, Jay D. (1974), "Meaning of image," *Journal of Retailing*, 50 (4), 29-38.
- Lippman, Walter (1922) *The Public Opinion*. New York, NY: the Macmillan Company.
- Liu, Scott S., and Keith F. Johnson (2005), "The Automatic Country-of-Origin Effects on Brand Judgments," *Journal of Advertising*, 34 (1), 87-97.
- Mackay, Kelly. J., and Daniel R. Fesenmaier (1997) "Pictorial Element of Destination in Image Formation," *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24 (3), 537-565.
- Madhavaram, Sreedhar, Vishag Badrinarayanan, and Robert E. McDonald (2005), "Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC) and Brand Identity as Critical Components of Brand Equity Strategy," *Journal of Advertising*, 34 (4), 69-80.
- Martin, Ingrid M., and Sevgin Eroglu (1993), "Measuring a Multi-dimensional Construct: Country Image," *Journal of Business Research*, 28, 191-210.
- Martineau, Pierre (1958), "The personality of a Retail Store," *Harvard Business Review*, 36.
- McCombs, Maxwell (1994), "News Influence on Our Picture of the World," *Media effects: Advances in theory and research*, J. Bryant and D. Zillmann, eds., Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1-16.
- Melewar, T. C., and Elizabeth Jenkins (2002), "Defining the Corporate Identity Construct", *Corporate Reputation Review*, 5 (1), 76-90.

- , and John Saunders (1998), "Global Corporate Visual Identity Systems: Standardization, Control and Benefits", *International Marketing Review*, 15 (4), 291-308.
- , and ----- (1999), "International Corporate Visual Identity: Standardization or Localization?", *Journal of International Business Studies*, 30 (3), 583-98.
- , and -----, (2000), "Global Corporate Visual Identity Systems: Using an Extended Marketing Mix", *European Journal of Marketing*, 34 (5/6), 538-50.
- , -----, John Balmer (2000), "The saliency of Olins' Visual Identity Structure in Relation to UK Companies Operating in Malaysia", *Corporate Reputation Review*, 3 (3), 194-200
- Mitchell, Anthony (2005), "Exploring Attitudes Toward Americans in China, India," *Ecommerce Times*, September 13, available at <http://www.crmbuyer.com/story/46063.html>
- Moon, Byeong-Joon (1996), "The Roles of Consumer Ethnocentricity and Attitude Toward a Foreign Culture in Processing Foreign Country-of-origin Advertisements, *Advances in Consumer Research*, 23, 436-439.
- Muller, Dominique, Charles Judd, and Vincent Yzerbyt (2005), "When Moderation Is Mediated and Mediation Is Moderated," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 89 (6), 852-863.
- Na, Woon Bong, Roger Marshall, Kevin Lane Keller (1999), "Measuring Brand Power: Validating a Model for Optimizing Brand Equity," *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 8 (3), 170-184.
- NBTA (2004), *World Citizen Guide*, Business for Diplomatic Action, Inc.
- Nestrov Andrei (2005), "Russia's Attitude Toward the U.S.; Ally or Adversary" May 21, available at <http://www.worldpress.org/Europe/2085.cfm>
- NOP World (2004), "NOP World Perspectives," available at <http://marketing.nopworld.com/perspectives/spring2005/nopworldperspectives-spring2005.pdf>
- Olins, Wally (1978), *The Corporate Personality: An Inquiry into the Nature of Corporate Identity*, London: Design Council
- (1989), *Corporate Identity: Making Business Strategy Visible through Design*, London: Thames and Hudson
- (1995), *The New Guide to Identity*, Aldershot, UK: Gower Publishing.
- (2002) "Branding the Nation-the Historical Context," *Brand Management*, 9, 241-248.

- Olson, James M., and Jeff Stone (2005), "The Influence of Behavior on Attitudes," *The Handbook of Attitudes*, Dolores Albarracín, Blair T. Johnson, and Mark P. Zanna, eds., Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 223-271.
- Orth, Ulrich R., and Zuzana Firbasova (2003), "The Role of Consumer Ethnocentrism in Food Product Evaluation," *Agribusiness*, 19 (1), 137-146.
- O'Shaughnessy, John, and Nicolas Jackson O'Shaughnessy (2000), "Treating the Nation as a Brand: Some Neglected Issues," *Journal of Macromarketing*, 20 (1), 56-64.
- Papadopoulos, Nicolas, and Louise Heslop (2000), "Countries as Brands," *Ivey Business Journal*, 65, 30-37.
- Parameswaran, Ravi, and R. Mohan Pisharodi (1994), "Facets of Country of Origin Image: An Empirical Assessment," *Journal of Advertising*, 28 (1), 43-56.
- , and ----- (2002), "Assimilation Effects in Country Image Research," *International Marketing Review*, 19(Feb/Mar), 259-278.
- Pecotich, Anthony, and Melissa J. Rosenthal (2001), "Country-of-Origin, Quality, Brand and Consumer Ethnocentrism," *Journal of Global Marketing*, 15 (2), 31-41.
- Petty, Richard E., and John T. Cacioppo (1986), The Elaboration Likelihood Model of Persuasion, L. Berkowitz, ed., *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, New York: Academic Press, 123-205.
- Pew Research Center (2004), "A Year After Iraq War," March 16, available at <http://people-press.org/reports/display.php3?ReportID=206>
- Pharr, Julie M. (2005), "Synthesizing Country-of-origin Research from the Last Decade: Is the Concept still Salient in An Era of Global Brands?" *Journal of Marketing*, 69 (Fall), 34-45.
- Pike, Steven, and Chris Ryan (2004) "Destination Positioning Analysis through a Comparison of Cognitive, Affective, and Conative Perceptions," *Journal of Travel Research*, 42 (May), 333-342.
- Pilditch, James (1970), *Communication by Design: A Study in Corporate Identity*, London: McGraw-Hill
- Pool, Ithiel D. (1965), "Effects of Cross-National Contact on National and International Images," in *International Behavior: A Social-Psychological Analysis*, Herbert C. Kelman, ed., New York: Holt, Rinehard & Winston.
- Reilly, Michael D. (1990), "Free Elicitation of Descriptive Adjectives for Tourism Image Assessment," *Journal of Travel Research* (Spring), 21-26.

- Roth, Martin S. (1994), "Innovations in Defining Brand Image", *Advances in Consumer Research*, 21, 495.
- , and Jean B. Romeo (1992), "Matching Product Category and Country Image Perceptions: A Framework for Managing Country-of-origin Effects," *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23 (3), 477-497.
- Ruth, Julie A., and Bernard L. Simonin (2003), "Brought to You by Brand A and Brand B," *Journal of Advertising*, 32 (3), 19-30.
- Schimmack, Ulrich, and Stephen L. Crites Jr. (2005), "The Structure of Affect," *The Handbook of Attitudes*, Dolores Albarracin, Blair T. Johnson, and Mark P. Zanna, eds., Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum, 397-435.
- Schmidt, Klaus (1995), *The Quest for Corporate Identity*, London: Cassell.
- Schmitt, Bernd (1995), "Language and Visual Imagery: Issues of Corporate Identity in East Asia," *The Columbia Journal of World Business*, 30 (4), 28-36.
- , and Alex Simonson (1997), *Marketing Aesthetics-the Strategy of Brands*, New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Scott, William A. (1965), "Psychological and Social Correlates of International Images," H.C. Kelman(ed), *International Behavior: A Social-Psychological Analysis*, New York: Holt, Reinhart and Winston.
- Shanahan, James, and Michael Morgan (1999), *Television and its Viewers: Cultivation Theory and research*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sreberny-Mohammadi, Annabelle, Kaarle Nordenstren, Robert L. Stevenson (1984), "The World of the News," *Journal of Communication*, 34(1), 120-142.
- Sullivan, Harry S. (1953), *The Interpersonal Theory of Personality*, New York, NY: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc.
- Sung, Yongjun, and Spencer F. Tinkham (2005), "Brand Personality Structures in the United States and Korea: Common and Culture-Specific Factors," *Journal of Consumers Psychology*, 15 (4), 334-350.
- Sweeney, Jillian C., and Carol Brandon (2006), "Brand Personality: Exploring the Potential to Move from Factor Analytical to Circumplex Models," *Psychology & Marketing*, 23 (8), 639-663.
- Tapachai, N., and Waryszac, R. (2000) "An Examination of the Role of Beneficial Image in Tourist Destination Selection," *Journal of Travel Research*, 9, 37-44.

- Teas, R. Kenneth, and Sanjeev Argawal (2000), "The Effects of Extrinsic Product Cues on Consumers' Perceptions of Quality, Sacrifice, and Value," *Academy of Marketing Science Journal*, 28 (2), 278-290.
- Telhami, Shibley (2003), "A View from the Arab World: A Survey in Five Countries," Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press, available at <http://www.brookings.edu/fp/saban/survey20030313.pdf>
- Thakor, Mrugank V., and Anne M. Lavack (2003), "Effect of Perceived Brand Origin Associations on Consumer Perceptions of Quality," *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 12 (6), 394-407.
- Thompson, Craig J. (2004) "Beyond Brand Image: Analyzing the Culture of Brands," *Advances in Consumer Research*, 31, 98-99.
- Thurston, Louis L. (1931), "Measurement of Social Attitudes," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 26, 249-269.
- Tse, David K., and Gerald J. Gorn (1993) "An Experiment on the Salience of Country-of-origin in the Era of Global Brands," *Journal of International Marketing*, 1 (1), 57-76.
- van Rekom, J. (1997), "Deriving an Operational Measure of Corporate Identity", *European Journal of Marketing*, 31 (5/6), 410-22.
- van Riel, C. B. M., and Balmer, J. M. T. (1997), "Corporate Identity: The Concept, its Measurement and Management", *European Journal of Marketing*, 31 (5/6), 340-55.
- Venable, Beverly T., Gregory M. Rose, and Faye W. Gilbert (2003), "Measuring the Brand Personality of Non-Profit Organizations," *Advances in Consumer Research*, 30, 379-380.
- Verlegh, Peeter W. J., and Jan-Benedict E. M. Steenkamp (1999), "A Review and Meta-Analysis of Country-of-Origin Research," *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 20 (5), 521-46.
- Wee, Thomas Tan Tsu (2004), "Extending Human Personality to Brands: The stability Factor," *Journal of Brand Management*, 8 (4), 317-330.
- Wyer, Robert S. Jr., and Albarracin, Dolores (2005), "Belief Formation, Organization, and Change: Cognitive and Motivational Influences," *The Handbook of Attitudes*, Dolores Albarracin, Blair T. Johnson, and Mark P. Zanna, eds., Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 273-322.
- Yaple, Peter, and Felipe Korzenny (1989), Electronic Mass Media Effects Across Cultures, *Handbook of International and Intercultural Communication*, M. K. Asante and W. B. Gudykunst, eds., Newbury Park, CA: Sage, 295-317.

YTN Star (2007), "Hollywood Movies are Dominant in S. Korean Film Market," YTN Star report, available at [http://www.ytnstar.co.kr/news/news\\_view.php?cd=0102&key=200706131259080880](http://www.ytnstar.co.kr/news/news_view.php?cd=0102&key=200706131259080880)

Zajonc, Robert B. (1968), "Attitudinal Effects of Mere Exposure," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 39, 117-123.

## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Jong Woo Jun enrolled in the Department of Advertising at the University of Florida in August 2004, and received Ph.D. degree in 2007. Previous to his study, he worked in the advertising business. He has worked for LGAd, an affiliate of WPP, and Crayfish, a branding consulting firm in S. Korea. He received a BA and MA, both in mass communication from the Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Seoul, South Korea.