

Place Associations In International Branding And Advertising:
A Cross-National Investigation

by

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Abstract

The impact of globalization, characterized by technological innovations in the sphere of transportation and communications, presents multiple challenges to international marketing managers. The accelerated diffusion of brands on a worldwide scale has heightened the importance of international branding, as manufacturers endeavour to differentiate their products and create a sustainable and relevant brand image across multicultural consumer audiences.

This study offers a significant contribution to the field of international marketing research by bringing together two connected areas that have largely been studied in parallel. Specifically, this research examines the role of place brands in supporting the development of product brand images. The increasing volume of studies in this field centres on the use of place associations as brand image heuristics from the consumer perspective. The key compelling element of this study is that it provides, for the first time, an exploration of the use of country brand associations in marketing communications from the managerial perspective.

The focal area of analysis of this study is to examine how the construct of [geographic] place manifests itself in international branding and advertising, and to identify some of the antecedent factors that direct the way place associations are utilized by marketing managers. A multimethod quantitative and qualitative approach was adopted, and, therefore, the study is divided into three phases.

In Phase 1, the actual use of place associations in brand marketing communications is investigated, using the vehicle of print advertising across four economically similar, but culturally divergent nations. In light of the exploratory nature of this first-ever marketing management study integrating the fields of place branding and product branding, an inductive approach was adopted for the in-depth interviews in Phase 2, to gain a deeper understanding of the managerial perspective and aid the design of the online survey conducted in Phase 3. Each phase of the study is of value in itself to advancing research in the fields of international branding and advertising, not least by engaging practitioners in the process.

All three research phases reflect the continued interest in this topic from a marketing management perspective, thus reinforcing the call for further investigation into this untapped field.

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CHAPTER 1. Introduction

A number of factors, including technological innovations especially in the sphere of transportation and communications, have enabled international marketing managers to expand their businesses on a worldwide scale at an ever-increasing pace. As a consequence, the globalization of business has heightened the importance of international branding as manufacturers endeavour to differentiate their products and create a brand image that resonates with the aspirations of the target consumer (Aaker 1991, 1996). In a parallel stream of research, attention has been drawn to the development of places as brands (Papadopoulos 2004; Anholt 2009; Rojas, Murphy, and Papadopoulos 2013), and the subsequent role of place brands in supporting the development of product brand images (Samiee 1994; Phau and Prendergast 2000; Pharr 2005; Rosenbloom and Haefner 2009).

Although both research streams have inspired a plethora of diverse research studies across the field of international marketing, there remain several gaps which this study aims to address, specifically within the sphere of brand communications. The majority of international marketing research attention has focused on consumer attitudes and responses to brand communications, resulting in a dearth of studies that would explore the development of communication elements by marketing managers. In this light, the overall goal of this study is to examine international brand communications strategies, (a) from a managerial perspective, and (b) with a focus on place branding and its role in international branding and advertising.

Because of the study's innovative nature, and therefore the lack of guidance from past research, a three-phase, grounded theory-based methodological approach, using three different methods, was developed to address the research objectives. Phase 1 consisted of a content analysis of advertisements, aimed to examine and assess the extent to which 'place' is used in branding and advertising executions and the forms that such usage takes; Phase 2 was a set of in-depth interviews with marketing managers, intended to obtain a detailed view of how and why they use 'place' in their strategies and tactics; and Phase 3 comprised an international survey of marketing managers, which, building on the previous two phases, explored the antecedents of the use of 'place' and examined more fully the various manifestations of this usage in marketing.

1.1. Outline of Key Issues in the Study

Notwithstanding its tight focus on the above themes, because of its very nature this study casts a broad net which in one way or another addresses a number of issues that are relevant in international marketing research. This section outlines some of the main ones that are key when examining the field from the manager's perspective.

1.1.1. Consumers, "Global" Brands, and Place Associations

Among the many impacts of the modern era of globalization are an enhanced awareness among consumers across diverse markets of the existence of assorted international brands, and faster access to a greater volume of product information and associated brand imagery than ever before (Craig and Douglas 2006). This adds greater complexity to the role of the international marketing practitioner in developing the appropriate communications strategy

to maintain a consistent brand message worldwide. The debate on the degree to which marketers can standardize their message and when the transmission of the message should be adapted to the local environment has been extended by the ongoing debate on the impacts of globalization on the consumer.

The arguments purporting an inevitable convergence of global consumers as a consequence of globalization (Levitt 1983; Yunker 2010) have been countered by proponents of divergence theories as individual groups (at national and sub-national levels) seek to assert their own identities (Schlesinger 1987; Arantes 2007). Divergence theorists warn that examples of convergence between nations observed at the macro-level may mask diversity at the micro-level of consumer behaviour (Giddens 2005; de Mooij 2011).

Furthermore, Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, and Palihawadana (2011) suggest that the perpetuation of diversity is evidenced by the images attributed to specific places that marketers use to reinforce elements of brand imagery. For example, recognizable place symbols (such as the Eiffel Tower or the Rome Coliseum) carry meaning that does not require explanation in the text but underscores traits that are deemed congruent with the brand image. However, there is little research into understanding the factors that may be influencing the strategic decisions to utilize place associations in international branding, an issue which is also of keen interest to place marketers charged with strengthening and promoting place identities.

In order to provide a platform to the research objectives of this study, the literature review in the following chapter (2) summarizes the status of current research in the respective fields and identifies the key themes occupying researchers within the three primary international marketing areas that are of interest to this study:

- International brand strategy
- International advertising
- Place in international brand marketing

1.1.2. Managerial and Consumer Perspectives

Surprisingly, there has been very little research within these fields of study from the managerial perspective. It has been noted that the accelerated globalization of branded products adds further complexity to the international marketing manager's role, in that consumers in different markets may enjoy the same products but observe a different cultural value set in relation to the interpretation of the symbols applied to represent the product brands.

The challenge for the modern day brand marketing manager is to keep pace with the changing environmental dynamics and stay in tune with evolving consumer wants and desires through the application of a consistent brand communication strategy across multiple diverse markets, while at the same time ensuring that a consistent brand message is received across those diverse markets. However, little is known with regard to the antecedent factors that influence marketing managers' strategic decision-making and the conditions under which this may vary at the corporate or local/regional level of the organization. The main aim of this study is to begin to address this gap.

In contrast to the dearth of studies exploring managerial perspectives, there exists a substantial body of research exploring consumer behaviour in response to the messages transmitted by multinational marketers. On the one hand, technological advances in communications technology and global media serve to create a common set of expectations,

brand familiarity, and similar preferences among general market segments around the world, such as the “business” or “youth” segments (e.g., Alden, Steenkamp and Batra 1999; Kjeldgaard and Askegaard 2006). On the other hand, local market factors, such as the level of development of the infrastructure (e.g., Chiou 2002), or the lifecycle stage of the product industry (e.g., Lee & Carter 2005), may play a significant role in the final purchase decision at the local level. Empirical research has also revealed that a perceived association with a country influences product evaluations in the absence of other information (Ahmed, d’Astous, and El Adraoui 1994; Al-Sulaiti and Baker 1998; Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic 2011a), pertaining to the connotations of that country image in relation to the product industry or product positioning.

However, debate has recently raged around the relative importance of brand origin associations in consumer purchase decisions. Samiee, Shimp, and Sharma (2005) concluded that the high level of brand origin recognition inaccuracy, which was uncovered in their study of American consumers, undermines the degree of influence afforded to country of origin cues in brand communications. This claim is partly refuted by studies demonstrating that it is the associated origins of the brand (irrespective of the actual corporate-level ownership of the brand) that influence the purchase decision (Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, and Palihawadana 2011), and that correcting consumers’ initial perceptions of brand origins can actually contribute to changes in brand attitudes (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2011; Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic 2011a).

1.1.3. Local, Foreign, and Global Brands

Within this field, debate has also continued over the relevancy of national cultures as appropriate units of differentiation in an increasingly globalized world that blurs nation-state cultural boundaries through the emergence of multicultural societies and ever-moving diasporas (Hannerz 1990; Morris-Suzuki 2008). Conversely, it has also been argued that it is the widely-understood reputations of nation-state origins that underpin the brand images of some of the most successful international brands (Hollis 2008). Subsequently, scholars have urged for the focus to switch away from whether or not they are important, to addressing how and when identified elements of national cultures make a difference in international marketing (Leung et al. 2005).

Attitudes towards ‘foreign’ products are notoriously complex and difficult to predict (Craig and Douglas 2001), and subject to change at both the general and individual consumer level, pending evolving national or personal experiences with the specific country of origin or, for example, during times of economic difficulty when the consumption of imported products is discouraged (Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic 2011a). More recently, studies have also begun to explore the potential impact on the country brand image of brand transgressions, e.g., as a result of product recalls from brands strongly associated with their country of origin (Magnusson, Krishnan, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic 2014).

There is evidence to suggest that brand origin assumptions may influence brand attitudes simply at the foreign versus local level, or the Western versus emerging markets level (Okechuku and Onyemah 1999; Batra et al. 2000; Zhou, Yang, and Hui 2010), which further underscores the importance of assessing the multiplicity of dimensions that

contribute to consumer purchase decisions, and, implicitly, marketers' strategic decision-making.

While the extant literature has explored the dimensions influencing the purchase decision from the consumer perspective, assumptions are made with regard to the devices selected by marketing managers to execute the brand strategy, without investigation into the antecedent factors that determine the strategic decisions on, for example, whether to accentuate the brand's origins and at what level.

1.1.4. Products and "The Brand State"

In parallel to product branding, countries have also sought to assert their individual identity (i.e., the traits that define them), to both investors and tourists, through the development of an image (the perception derived from the combination of the traits projected) based on natural resources and technological strengths (Kavaratzis 2005; Hankinson 2010). The potential benefits to be accrued from the merger of country-specific advantages with firm-specific advantages to gain competitive advantage, as outlined in Porter's (1990) diamond model, continues to draw attention in the literature (Johansson 1993; Rugman and D'Cruz 1993; Agrawal and Kamakara 1999; Rugman, Oh, and Lim 2012).

Separate streams of research have also explored the attributes of place images (at the city, region and nation-state/country level), the use of symbols to convey brand images, and recorded observations of the communications tactics deployed by firms to appeal to consumers in culturally different markets – as documented in periodic literature reviews of the field (e.g., Agrawal 1995; Papadopoulos and Heslop 2003). However, there is little research bringing these separate streams together in order to understand why or how firms

integrate perceived country-specific advantages in their core international brand strategies. This thesis study therefore makes a contribution towards this untapped area of research by examining the use of place associations as an integral part of brand communications in advertising, and investigates the utilization of place associations in international brand strategy from the perspective of practitioners. Moreover, to assess variances in application across countries, a range of European and North American markets are incorporated in the study.

1.1.5. Advertising Agencies and Marketing Managers

The rapid growth of advertising and its emergence on a worldwide scale has stimulated a considerable volume of research studies. Since the core role of advertising is to sell product (Ogilvy 1983; Naccarato and Neuendorf 1998), a large body of empirical research centres on exploring the factors that motivate a purchase response by the consumer. The smaller proportion of practitioner-oriented research has mostly focused on the role and/or perspective of the advertising agency (e.g., Koslow, Sasser, and Riordan 2006; West 2007; Nyilasy and Reid 2009), rather than that of the marketing manager, who is the key instigator of the advertising campaigns and, as the custodian of brand strategy, highly influential on the execution and dissemination of the advertising communication (Douglas, Craig, and Nijssen 2001).

While scholars continue to debate the influences of brand origins in product evaluations as a result of consumer-based assumptions (Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic 2011b; Samiee 2011; Usunier 2011), anecdotal evidence, supported by the available research results (e.g., Papadopoulos 2011), suggests that the complementary

imagery derived from associations with the country of origin continues to be utilized by product marketers in worldwide brand communications, either directly in the brand name (e.g., L'Oréal Paris, Rimmel London, Maybelline New York) or indirectly through visual symbols and references (e.g., Volkswagen's "Das Auto" campaign, and Ikea's use of the Swedish national flag colours in its logo and Swedish names for product collections). In contrast to the wealth of studies examining the consumer perspective, this study explores the antecedent factors stimulating the use of place associations by marketing managers, as well as exploring the role of advertising agencies in the decision-making process.

1.1.6. Academic and Practitioner Perspectives

Although research in the field is centred on observed realities, concern is raised about the divide between academicians and practitioners pertaining to the relevancy of academic research (Starkey and Maden 2001; Holt 2002; Ottesen and Gronhaug 2004; de Gregorio and Cheng 2009), despite the potential benefits to both parties of rigorous studies conducted to address the critical issues facing international marketing managers (Katsikeas, Robson and Hulbert 2004). One of the explanations presented maintains that academics are too far removed from the actual issues facing practitioners and therefore produce research that is of little relevance to practitioners (Brennan and Anker 2004; Nyilasy and Reid 2007), coupled with the use of a different language/terminology that is not clearly understood (Brennan 2004).

Tapp (2004) urges business schools in particular to address this gap, on the grounds that there are benefits to be gained for both sides by conducting more collaborative research. This implies the adoption of an inductive approach to practitioner-oriented research, which

promotes theory development through the discovery of patterns in the recorded observations, in contrast to a deductive approach that collects data with which to validate a theory and may consequently miss critical factors that can affect the results (Miller and Fredericks 1999; Stern and Porr 2011). This study accounts for criticisms of the relevancy of academic research to practitioners by adopting an inductive approach to understanding managerial strategic decision-making and its antecedent factors pertaining to brand communications.

With regard to the academic-practitioner gap, Usunier (2006) suggests that the research stream exploring the added brand value of country of origin associations constitutes a relevancy gap, considering the changing shape of the globalized world as a result of boundary-spanning brand communications. By broadening the construct of "country of origin" to that of "country of association", and even more broadly to "place association" (Papadopoulos et al. 2012), and investigating the utilization of place associations in branding strategies from the perspective of practitioners, this study also seeks to challenge the notion that the alleged homogenization of consumers renders national cultural associations increasingly obsolete (e.g., Buzzell 1968; Levitt 1983; Yunker 2010). That is, the study utilizes and evaluates the 'real world' evidence that Usunier (2006) claims is missing from the ongoing research in this field.

1.2. Contribution to International Marketing Research

The overall goal of this study is to examine the role of place branding in international branding and advertising from the perspective of managers. In doing so, the study contributes in a number of ways to each of the core themes outlined above by (a) exploring

untapped areas of investigation, and (b) doing so through the multi-method approach that was summarized above.

1.2.1. International Brand Strategy

In contrast to the majority of studies in the general spheres of product marketing and advertising, this research focuses on the perspective of managers and their advisors (in this study, advertising agency executives) with regard to the utilization of place associations in product branding. Therefore, the study provides the first-ever examination from a managerial perspective in this burgeoning field.

Since there is little extant research in this area from which to draw methodological guidance, an inductive approach was adopted in order to capture the antecedent factors influencing managerial strategic decision-making. As a by-product, the study contributes to the development of the grounded theory method as a means of theory development in untapped fields (Stern and Poor 2011), and helps to address some of the issues that were raised above concerning the academic-practitioner gap by engaging practitioners in the research process (Brennan 2004; Tapp 2004; Nyilasy and Reid 2007).

1.2.2. International Advertising

There exists a wealth of research utilizing the content analysis method to examine the key elements featured in advertisements across a range of markets (Samiee and Jong 1994; Taylor 2005), but no research on the element of 'place'. This study contributes new insights to the field by presenting the first-ever place-focused content analysis, thereby drawing

attention to an element that has not previously been investigated and that, as will be seen in later chapters, plays a prominent and important role in branding and advertising.

As well as providing a platform for the examination of managerial decision-making in brand communications, the content analysis phase of this study enriches understanding of the core elements of advertising appeals and executions by exploring those itemized in current classification schemes, and adding 'place', which has not been included so far. Thus, this study introduces new codings for appeals and executions, updating the older classification schemes which are deemed incomplete for cross-national studies (Abernethy and Franke 1996; Al-Olayan and Karande 2000; Ford, Mueller and Taylor 2011).

1.2.3. Place in International Brand Marketing

While interest in the use of 'place' in brand marketing has gathered speed over the past few decades (Papadopoulos 2004; Kavartzis 2005), this is the first-ever study to capture an understanding of the construct from both the product marketer's and the place marketer's perspective, and thus bring together the parallel research streams of place branding and product branding.

The in-depth interviews in Phase 2 of the study reveal for the first time the attitudes of place and product marketers, including advertising agencies that execute the communications strategies on behalf of product marketers, toward the use of place in marketing communications, and interactions between the two sets of marketers pertaining to their shared interest in place images.

The survey of international business executives then quantitatively explores the use of place associations across various industries and country markets. This phase of the study

also seeks to uncover the antecedent factors prompting the use of place and provide a platform for further investigation in this untapped area.

Therefore, this study offers valuable insights on the factors affecting the use of place for both public policy makers charged with building the place brand image, and product brand marketers interested in its use to reinforce product brand values, from each other's perspective.

It further contributes to this burgeoning field of study by highlighting the relevancy of the construct in international advertising and international brand research. Directions for further research are discussed in the concluding Chapter 7 of this document.

1.3. Structure

Following the literature review (Chapter 2) that discusses in depth the core themes outlined above, Chapter 3 describes the methodologies used to investigate the use of place associations in international branding, as manifested in international advertising communications. As noted above, the study is divided into three phases:

Phase 1: A content analysis of magazine advertisements to ascertain the types and usage levels of place associations and cues in branding and advertising.

Phase 2: A set of in-depth qualitative interviews to obtain a broad view of how and why managers use "place" in brand communications.

Phase 3: An international quantitative survey to investigate in detail the critical antecedent factors that are associated with and/or influence marketing managers' strategic decision-making choices in international brand communications, and to obtain fuller and more detailed information on the use of 'place' in marketing.

The first and second phases provide the platform and direction for the subsequent stages of the research. Through the multi-method approach that was adopted, the quantitative findings of Phase 1 (content analysis) are enriched by the inductive qualitative study in Phase 2 (in-depth interviews), which in turn directs the design of the quantitative survey in Phase 3. The detailed analyses of the findings from each phase are separately described in Chapters 4, 5 and 6, since each phase makes a valuable contribution in itself to the core areas of study.

The concluding Chapter 7 summarizes the key findings, future research directions, and limitations of this exploratory study, which aims to provide a platform for theory development by combining the research fields of international product branding, international advertising, and place branding, and examining the antecedent factors that influence brand communications strategies from a managerial perspective.

CHAPTER 2. Literature Review

As outlined in the previous introduction section, the focal area of this study is the utilization by marketing practitioners of place associations in their branding and advertising strategies. The literature review is therefore divided into three sections to examine the core themes implicit in the fields of:

- International brand strategies
- International advertising
- Place in international brand marketing

2.1. International Brand Strategies

As described by the American Marketing Association, a brand is “a name, term, design or other feature that distinguishes one seller's product from those of others”. For centuries, manufacturers have sought to differentiate their products through the development of brand identities (Farquhar 1989; Tungate 2007). To understand the challenges facing the modern marketer seeking to expand the brand image internationally, it is important to examine the environmental factors that affect strategic decision-making with regard to diffusion of the brand image. Therefore, this section of the literature review explores the ramifications of the modern manifestations of globalization and, as an integral part of the evolution of globalization, the influence of culture on international strategic decision-making with regard to branding.

2.1.1. Managing Brand Equity

Scholars have long discussed the power and range of the marketing elements deployed for consumer goods that combine to appeal to the consumer and influence purchasing behaviour (Copeland 1923; Fullbrook 1940; Kaish 1967). The concept of branding is not new: producers have for centuries placed names or symbols on their products as a means to assure customers of the quality of their products and prevent substitution with cheaper products (Farquhar 1989; Aaker 1991; Tungate 2007). However, the purposes and strategies behind branding have evolved over time, gaining particular impetus during the twentieth century. Copeland (1923) acknowledged the potential power of branding to aid the sale of a specific product item through its implicit connotations of recognition, trust, reliability and quality, but it was Levy's (1959) observations of the changing world of the post-World War II consumer in the U.S. that changed the shape of marketing management research and launched a new stream of research on brand image and the use of symbols (Harris 2007). Levy (1959) highlighted the importance of the symbolic implications of the brand or product in the minds of consumers, and maintained that the concept of brand loyalty posed a significant new means of competitive advantage and, therefore, that in defining the brand's appeal, marketers should afford greater attention to how consumers relate personally to the brands presented.

Levy (1959) argued that in the newly emerging consumer world, the purchase decision is increasingly defined by feelings and desires to possess products, rather than simply functional needs. While the traditional values of price, quality, and durability remain important factors in the purchase decision, the degree to which the symbolic references of the product or brand resonate with the consumer's sense of self-identity plays a greater role

in the final purchase decision than had previously been encountered. This is supported by Murphy and Enis' (1986) study, which elaborates on the interplay between cost and risk factors across the dimensions and illustrates how the power of a clearly defined brand may supersede other factors in influencing the purchase decision. (It should be noted that Murphy and Enis' (1986) resulting model was somewhat static and did not reflect the pace of change driven by the accelerated launch of technological innovations that was noted during the 1980s, nor the resulting evolution in consumer values attributed to factors of globalization; the authors themselves conceded at that time that further empirical study was needed to validate their assumptions of buyer behaviour in rapidly changing environments – a suggestion that was certainly followed in subsequent years, as research on branding flourished and accelerated.)

Over time, brands have become unique properties that are able to differentiate products and services through a combination of tangible and intangible attributes; in other words, a brand endows a product with 'added value' beyond its functional purpose (Farquhar 1989). This incremental value has increasingly been captured as a form of asset capital by financial professionals in many companies, who have developed equity measures to recognize the competitive advantage of branded products over unbranded products in terms of additional sales and licensing opportunities (Farquhar 1989; Simon and Sullivan 1993; Kim, Kim, and An 2003). It is therefore critical for marketing practitioners to harness the power of the brand's equity, and deploy a brand strategy that consistently reinforces the desired brand image, through the prudent use of symbols and messages across all communications and across multiple diverse markets.

To understand how consumers respond to brand messages, Aaker (1991) identifies four key sources of brand equity that incorporate both perceptual (brand awareness, perceived quality, associations) and behavioural (brand loyalty) dimensions. A brand image is a fragile asset that is subject to potentially negative extraneous influences outside of the firm's control, therefore, brand loyalty – founded on notions of trust and reliability in satisfying the needs and demands of the consumer – is defined as a core dimension of brand equity (Farquhar 1989; Aaker 1991, 1996). Trust is a central construct in Morgan and Hunt's (1994) Commitment-Trust theory, which illustrates the power of trust in securing commitment and, as a result, the creation of long-term relationships resistant to external influences. Therefore, it may be stated that brand loyalty constitutes a powerful barrier to entry against other competitors, facilitates premium price positioning, and allows the firm time to respond to competitor innovations by reducing the consumer's propensity to switch brands when something new comes onto the market (Aaker 1996).

Aaker's (1991) perceptual dimensions are also critical components of brand equity and play a role in determining the degree of loyalty enjoyed by the brand. However, the inherent subjectivity of these dimensions poses a significant challenge to marketers, in order to be able to identify and develop the notions of quality and product associations that are meaningful to the target consumer and successfully communicate the desired brand positioning (Blankson and Kalafatis 2007). Moreover, the elements that create the overall brand image must uniquely combine to clearly differentiate the brand from its key rivals.

As a means to enhance the individuality of different brands, the renowned advertising guru David Ogilvy (1983) drew upon Levy's (1959) theory that the psychological benefits of a product or service are as important as the functional benefits, and

imbued advertised products with a personality with which to create the brand image (e.g., Saunders and Rod 2012). For Ogilvy (1983), the closer the fit between the brand image and the target consumer's desired self-image, the more successful the brand would be over the longer term through its capacity to command loyalty from consumers who feel an affinity with the brand.

Drawing upon the emotional connection between consumers and brands, Belk (1988) maintains that possessions are in fact an extension of the self and the means with which individuals assert their own identity and make lifestyle statements. Therefore, Belk (1988) asserts, the individual may grieve the involuntary loss of physical possessions more out of a loss of a part of oneself, than out of a materialistic sentiment. Hence, the elements of a brand's image that appeal to the individual are those congruent with the sense of self and that reinforce the self-image (in terms of identity or membership of a group, for example) that the individual desires to project.

To maximize these opportunities for strengthening the brand image and subsequent loyalty, the challenge for international marketers is to define the appropriate range of symbols and cues that reinforce the image they wish to convey for the brand, and which may, to varying degrees, be indirectly or directly associated with the brand. For instance, accentuating the country of origin of the brand may add a level of credibility to the product claims, if that country's reputation is strongly associated with the relevant product industry, such as Italian leather goods, French beauty products, German engineering, Japanese electronics, etc.. Alternatively, place images may invoke a sense of pride in the local residents of the home nation, or appeal to aspirational or self-image sentiments (e.g., cosmopolitanism) among the host nation.

This complexity increases exponentially when the international marketer seeks to maintain the same brand image across multiple markets, where variations in cultural frames of reference affect consumer responses to brand image cues (Craig and Douglas 2001; de Mooij 2011), while also contending with the advent of global communication innovations that render immediate accessibility to messages broadcast outside of the home environment and targeted to a different audience (Dowling 2001). In addition, the opportunities afforded to all nations by the new era of globalization have given rise to challenges to the monopolistic reputations of expertise, to which marketers must remain alert (e.g., the emergence of New World wines versus traditional French vintners; the rise of the Korean automobile industry).

2.1.2. Globalization and the Opportunity for Global Branding

The construct of globalization in its modern day format has attracted the attention of academic theorists across multiple disciplines (most notably sociologists and economists), who have paid considerable attention to the phenomenon. The complexity of the construct derives from the interplay between disparate economic, political, cultural, religious, and legal dimensions. However, there remains continued academic debate on the identification of the dominant dimension that drives the direction of the globalization process (Featherstone 1990) – that is to say, whether there are global dominant forces overriding the input of the other dimensions, which has led to concerns on the perceived rise of hegemonic nations subsuming other nation-state cultures, or whether globalization comprises more of an organic process of assimilation that merges economic and social needs (Wiarda 2007).

Scholars have endeavoured to identify the key characteristics and evolutionary direction of globalization, in an effort to provide practitioners with the tools to exploit the potential opportunities afforded by constant technological advancements – most notably the accelerated boundary-spanning dissemination of information (Craig and Douglas 2006). Within the sphere of brand marketing, globalization may be viewed as an opportunity to rapidly pursue business expansion through transportation and communication advancements, however, these opportunities pose challenges in the maintenance and propagation of the brand's equity in the face of a culturally diverse target customer.

2.1.2.1. The Modern Era of Globalization

The phenomenon of globalization has existed for centuries in various different forms, and with different scope depending on the era (Featherstone 1990; Yunker 2010). However, the changed characteristics of the modern era of globalization arguably bode more favourably for long-term sustainability than was achieved under its previous imperialist guise. As history has shown, the reliance on military power to disseminate the norms and values of the hegemonic nation among the aboriginal social groups over which it exerted political power only ever had a limited lifespan (Hall 1991). By contrast, the current form of globalization suggests a greater degree of voluntary acceptance by the individual of 'imported' norms and values (Robertson 1990). For instance, de Sousa Santos (2006) highlights the broad acceptance of the English language as the *lingua franca* in many countries, and the unexpected rise in the consumption of American fast food in societies with a collectivist and long-term cultural orientation.

The accelerated pace of technological advances, and especially those in the areas of transportation and communications, towards the end of the twentieth century has launched a new era of globalization, emerging from the range and depth of transnational interactions that have gained momentum in modern society. This new form of globalization is commonly identified as a multifaceted phenomenon embracing greater complexity than existed in its previous state (Featherstone 1990; Hall 1991; de Sousa Santos 2006), owing to the seemingly voluntary manner with which social groups assimilate facets of external cultural values as they gain increased exposure to them, without wholeheartedly embracing them (Koundoura 1998; Langer 1998; Arantes 2007).

However, the debate on the market trends and direction of globalization, and the subsequent implications for marketers, has become polarized. On the one hand, economics-oriented convergence theorists argue that economic determinism will subsume socio-cultural differences and lead to worldwide convergence towards a singular modern society (Kerr et al. 1964; Yunker 2010). On the other, social scientists insist on the maintenance of cultural heterogeneity, arguing that the social tensions created by a rapidly changing environment will stimulate the re-assertion of individual identities to counter the threats of *anomie* and fears of social alienation (Archer 1985; Jones 1986; Bauman 1990).

Postmodernists conceptualize global culture in terms of its diversity and richness, and anticipate a localized interpretation of imported global values rather than an alleged homogenizing process. The postmodernist vision is partially supported by the example of the emergence of self-declared multicultural societies in countries, such as the U.S. and the UK, wherein nation-states embrace cultural diversity, and presume the assimilation of broader national cultural values within the framework of regional cultural groups. Among

formerly colonized nations, such as Brazil, Canada and Australia, the protection of the indigenous cultural heritage is embedded in the national constitution to maintain perceived unique identities, and thus create a new form of national identity and shared pride (Arantes 2007).

Similarly, Schlesinger (1987) highlights the form of “unity *in* diversity” (1987: 221) exemplified by the expansionist and unifying policies of the European Union (EU): notwithstanding the minor policy implementation disagreements, the overall philosophy of the EU members contradicts the convergence theorists’ proposition of the alleged inevitability of global mass homogenization, in that member states strive to harness economic similarities while maintaining sovereign powers and individual national identities. Giddens (2005) concurs with the notion that the current era of globalization is stimulating greater local diversity, rather than homogeneity, and argues that the worldwide visibility of Western and American cultural influences merely comprises a superficial cultural veneer, and should not be confused with a trend towards cultural standardization at a deeper level, echoing the empirical findings of Koundoura (1998) and Langer (1998).

2.1.2.2. Cultural Globalization

The sociological debate during the twentieth century has been criticized for its focus on the study of the modern nation-state as the cultural, or moral, framework for societies on the premise that national characteristics forge a model of social integration and thus an implicit cultural homogeneity within the visible boundaries of the nation-state. Although the construct of the nation-state has provided a useful unit of analysis with which to segment cultural groups, and mirrors the segmentation of most firms’ organization structures (Craig

and Douglas 2001), the validity of the construct for the generalizability of research findings has come increasingly under fire in the modern age.

Morris-Suzuki (2008) challenges the ‘myth’ of the nation-state as a stable body of citizens occupying a permanently defined territory, in light of the growing cross-border movements of migrant labour and political refugees which further dilutes the mix of aboriginal and colonial immigrants within the nation-state boundaries. Acknowledging the increasing trend of nation-states to incorporate multicultural groups under the umbrella of a national cultural stereotype, scholars have sought to redefine the emerging ‘global culture’.

Featherstone (1990) suggests that this new ‘global culture’ may operate at multiple levels simultaneously, comprising an eclectic mix of generalized human values within a “uniformly streamlined packaging” (Smith 1990: 176). Inherent in Featherstone’s (1990) conceptualization is an understanding of the globalization process and the recognition of its current stage of development. The author explains that the emergence of the nation-state has created identifiable units of cultural homogeneity, which, with the subsequent creation of globally unifying institutions (such as the UN and its associated agencies), has sought to develop standard notions of citizenship and social responsibilities. Indeed, international marketing scholars have sought to define global consumer segments, for which practitioners may adopt a standardized brand strategy (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999; Douglas and Craig 2011).

However, although there is an apparent cross-national convergence of consumer groups segmented by demographic factors such as income level, age, gender, education, and so on at the macro level (de Mooij 2011), there is evidence that the behaviour patterns of global consumer segments are divergent at the micro level (e.g., McCain 1986; Keillor,

Parker, and Schaefer 1996; Kjeldgaard and Askegaard 2006; Wen, Qin, Prybutok, and Blankson 2012). This is attributed to local cultural influences (de Mooij 2011), and so marketers should adopt caution when targeting the similarities between cross-national consumer segments, lest critical underlying differences are overlooked.

Hannerz (1990) posits that the new ‘world culture’ invoked by the process of globalization is emerging from the increasing interconnectedness of varied local cultures, in addition to the development of cultures that are not tethered to specific nation-state boundaries. This tolerance of international diversity characterizes the notion of cosmopolitanism, which embraces a plurality of cultures within and across nations without commitment, and acknowledges the potential for diverse cultures to overlap and mingle (Bauman 1990; Hannerz 1991; Cannon and Yaprak 2002). Moreover, global media and the broad dissemination of the Internet has exponentially increased the individual’s exposure to other cultures and the capacity to assimilate particular traits, as well as formulate attitudes towards the representatives of those cultures, without, necessarily, any direct contact with native representatives or by visiting the respective nations (Craig and Douglas 2006).

2.1.2.3. Global Branding

Critics have raised concerns that the new era of globalization constitutes a more surreptitious style of ‘cultural’ imperialism than in previous ages (Smith 1990; Hall 1991). This has at times also been referred to, in a less than positive light, as ‘Americanization’ (Schiller 1985), reinforced by the frequent use of McDonald’s and Coca-Cola as examples to illustrate the phenomenon (despite both companies’ visible efforts to adapt to local cultures, as illustrated in their advertising and localized product portfolios).

Subsequently, there has been a backlash against this latest manifestation of globalization, with a degree of protestation against the potential subsumption of traditional cultures by a singular dominant [cultural] force, targeted at multinational brands originating from the hegemonic nation (perceived to be the U.S. in the current era of globalization, as a world leader in branding and product innovations, and with an aggressive diffusion approach). However, as Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen (2008) note, even consumers that declare an allegiance to local brands over global brands will not rule out the purchase of the latter if they offer desired benefits and fill a gap untapped by local brands.

Hollis (2008) defines global brands as “strong brands that transcend their origins and create enduring relationships with consumers across countries and cultures” (2008: 7). While this may imply that global brands are, in effect, borderless and, therefore, nationless, it has been argued that the strongest global brands are anchored in their nation-state origins as a source of the identity that underpins their brand image. Examples include the association of L'Oréal Paris with the French beauty industry, Marlboro with American "frontier" values, Volkswagen with German engineering, and so on (please also see discussion in Section 2.3.5. of this chapter). Associations with national origins are therefore designed to attribute to the brand a selected set of the host nation's values that appeal to the individual consumer's lifestyle aspirations, rather than override host nation norms and values with a new cultural framework. As a result, scholars have argued, purveyors of global brands have moved towards a strategy of international segmentation that targets groups of consumers which share similarities of consumption rather than a national culture (Steenkamp and Ter Hofstede 2002; Leung et al. 2005).

Scholars have also warned against confusing the acceptance of iconic symbols of American culture across diverse nations with the wholesale embracing of American culture and its connotations in those nations (Huntington 1996; Koundoura 1998; Langer 1998; Giddens 2005), in the same way that the popularity of Chinese restaurants in the West, and the adaptation of certain Japanese management methods have not fundamentally changed the orientation of the underlying cultural values of the Western nations (Leung et al. 2005).

Nevertheless, the speed and ease of access to new groups of consumers afforded to international marketers with the advent of technological innovations (and especially with the recent emergence of social media), creates substantial opportunities for the rapid worldwide expansion of products and services under a global brand umbrella. The challenge for marketers is to gain an understanding of how brand symbols are interpreted across different cultures, and specifically which elements of a brand's image constitute its worldwide appeal. For example, to what degree is McDonald's or Coca-Cola's inherent 'Americanness' the source of their global popularity, and to what extent should this be the predominant feature of their brand communications?

2.1.2.4. Global Brands vs. Local Brands

Concern over the threat of 'cultural imperialism' as an outcome of an unstoppable globalization process stems from fears that multinational corporations operate an ethnocentric approach to global branding that subsumes local cultures. Eckhardt and Mahi (2004) refer to Ger and Belk's (1996) notion of consumer agency and posit that, rather than global brands enforcing their cultural values on developing markets, local consumers play a role in changing the meaning of global brands to suit the local cultural environment, to the extent that the imported brands start to embody local values over time. International

marketers must tread a fine line between retaining their global brand credentials and appealing to a diverse range of local consumers; globally oriented practitioners will even re-export some of the newly defined features of their brands back to the home market (Eckhardt and Mahi 2004).

Empirical research has revealed that in some of the newly emerging markets, consumers seek brand differentiation at the primary foreign versus local level (Okechuku and Onyemah 1999; Batra et al. 2000; Zhuang et al. 2008; Zhou, Yang, and Hui 2010). Therefore, brands extolling their French, German, or American origins, etc., may benefit simply from their foreign/Western associations, rather than from the specificities of national identities. Recognition of the potential benefits of such assumptions (Thakor and Kohli 1996; Thakor and Lavack 2003) has in fact encouraged some companies to adopt a ‘foreign brand’ positioning even in their home markets (Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic 2011a).

For example, the Scandinavian-sounding name of the Häagen-Dazs ice-cream brand lends it a ‘Nordic exoticism’ in North America that belies its U.S. origins, and a number of Chinese companies, such as Seagull, Eastcom, Draft, and Bird, have adopted a foreign branding strategy in their home market (Zhuang et al. 2008). However, this strategy will only succeed as long as the brand delivers on the promises associated with the designated place of association, and those promises are relevant to the product and the local consumer, since there is also evidence to suggest that consumers will choose local products over imported products if a comparable domestic option exists (Han and Terpstra 1988; Okechuku 1994; Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008).

Although the relevancy of the use of brand origins in an increasingly globalized world has been challenged (Samiee, Shimp, and Sharma 2005; Usunier 2006; Samiee 2011), empirical studies continue to demonstrate the influence of brand origin cues in consumer purchase decision-making, especially for high involvement products (Phau and Chao 2008; Zbib et al. 2010; Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, and Palihawadana 2011; Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic 2011a). What the literature does not examine, however, is the factors that influence the marketing practitioner's decision-making with regard to international brand strategy; what remains to be ascertained are the perceived role of brand origin cues in the overall brand communications, what determines whether and to what extent brand origin cues are deployed, and how the optimization of brand origin cues differs across markets, especially when the global brand is in the home market. The debate on globalization, as previously discussed, suggests that culture has a significant role to play.

2.1.3. The Influence of Culture in International Brand Strategies

For international marketers, the parallel trends of globalization and multiculturalism demand a deeper understanding of culture and its diverse manifestations, as they unavoidably influence consumer behaviour (Craig and Douglas 2006; Hollis 2008; de Mooij 2011). However, there remains considerable debate on the nature and degree to which homogenization or further heterogenization may occur on a worldwide scale (e.g., Levitt 1983 versus Wind 1986). There is a consensus within the field of international marketing research in support of the notion of partial globalization, in that global segments may exist across specific industry sectors that recognize universal symbols, but also that local cultural differences may elicit variations in the interpretation of the meaning or relevancy of those

symbols (McCracken 1986; Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999; Kates and Goh 2003; Craig and Douglas 2006; Akaka and Alden 2010).

For instance, the concept of the ‘Marlboro Man’ (widely used in print/outdoor advertising for over 40 years starting in the 1950s) presented a lone cowboy in the American Southwest, implying individualism, freedom, and the pioneering spirit often associated with that country’s culture (Baudot 1991). However, in other cultures these symbols connoted status and luxury (in countries where the brand was in limited supply and very expensive, or even where it served as a means of exchange currency, such as in the Soviet Union), or more simply a foreign brand from a culture alien to one’s own. Kates and Goh (2003) cite the example of Kraft’s Philadelphia Cream Cheese, which is globally positioned as “an indulgent, heavenly experience”: since the concept of heaven differs across religions (e.g., Islam vs. Christianity), angels were used to represent heaven in some cultures but not in others.

Prime, Obadia, and Vida (2009) point to the literature defining culture as a “pivotal variable” (2009: 192) in international marketing, and highlight, as an example, the potential difficulties in forging business relationships with customers whose cultural backgrounds dictate a notably different approach to business interactions. The authors conclude that it is important not only to understand the language of customers from a culture at the opposing end of the scale to one’s own culture, but also to have an insight into their patterns of thought and of behaviour, which will undoubtedly differ from the more familiar home patterns, and where it is anticipated that the relationship would require more time to develop into a relationship of mutual trust and understanding. The authors’ findings support the theory that culture is a significant influencing factor in the success or failure of international

business partnerships, and lead to the conclusion that the greater the perceived cultural differences between the respective business partners, the greater the propensity for failure of the business partnership as a result of the greater difficulties in building mutual trust (Ellis, Rod, Beal, and Lindsay 2012; Darley, Luethge, and Blankson 2013).

Since trust has also been defined as one of the core building blocks in the creation of brand loyalty (Farquhar 1989; Aaker 1996) in individual consumers, as well as commercial customers (Taylor, Celuch, and Goodwin 2004), the findings from cross-cultural research in the domain of international business may have equally important ramifications for consumer loyalty creation in brand marketing, through the implication that trust may prove a more elusive trait the greater the dissimilarities between national cultures.

Fournier (1998) applied relationship theory to illustrate how developing a sense of self-connection with the brand would enhance the quality of the brand-consumer relationship, thus strengthening the bonds of commitment, trust, and ultimately consumer loyalty in the face of competition. Although it should be noted that these relationships require continuous nurturing, as with all long-term relationships (Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel 2004).

Moreover, in discussing the dependence of brand loyalty on relational associations (such as brand-image congruence) that reflect the consumer's lifestyle choices, Fournier (1998) went so far as to say that "consumers do not choose *brands*, they choose *lives*" (1998: 367). Brands are, therefore, not only symbols of culture, but also play a role in the production of modern culture through their active positioning in daily lives (Holt 1995; Fournier 1998; Mick and Fournier 1998).

The study of culture and how it influences modes of behaviour and attitudes has captured the imagination of multiple disciplines across the social sciences, and, consequently, generated a plethora of definitions with which to guide the research operationalization. The advent of multiculturalism has challenged the robustness of national cultural values as a unit of analysis, and empirical cross-national studies have revealed a variety of other factors that moderate anticipated consumer responses to marketing communications (Chandy, Tellis, MacInnis, and Thaivanich 2001; Craig and Douglas 2006). However, the national cultural frameworks developed by scholars such as Hall (1976), Hofstede (1980), Schwartz (1992), and House et al. (2004), have proven useful starting points in international marketing research for identifying points of difference, as well as similarities, across markets (Steenkamp 2001; de Mooij and Hofstede 2010; House, Quigley, and de Luque 2010; de Mooij 2011). Further extension of the concepts originating in organizational leadership studies in the social sciences (e.g., Triandis 1996, 2002) has further enriched understanding of consumer behaviour patterns in the marketing domain.

The continued application of these models in studies to explain cross-national variations in consumer behaviour highlights the continued importance of the role of culture (at the national or group level) in the potential success of an international brand strategy. However, the inherent complexity in the construct of culture is underscored by Craig and Douglas' (2006) framework, which outlines the interaction between the three core components of:

- material culture and artifacts
- values and belief systems
- language and communication systems

The authors illustrate how the rise of globalization has accentuated the permeability of cultural boundaries and thus accelerated the diffusion of ideas, products and images, which inevitably affects the evolution of cultures. In identifying the global flows that influence this change, Appadurai (1990) stressed the role of mediascapes, i.e., the flows of images and communication, as the most powerful tool for marketers with which to shape cultural change. That is not to infer, however, that marketers should ignore the embedded cultural values that they seek to influence, and that globalization renders all messages to be interpreted in the same way by the target audience. Certain cultural values may equally stimulate resistance to change, particularly in cultures demonstrating high uncertainty avoidance (Harzing and Hofstede 1996; Leung et al. 2005), which suggests that marketers should tread carefully when developing the execution elements of international brand strategies.

In his definition of global brands as able to ‘transcend their origins’, Hollis (2008) stresses that the concept does not necessitate a fully homogeneous approach to global branding since “one size does not fit all” (2008: 23). The author illustrates, for instance, how the brand persona of Jack Daniels whiskey, which embodies the individualistic cultural traits associated with its U.S. origins, has proved successful in the opposing, collectivist culture of China by leveraging its Western brand image to position itself as a status item. Therefore, it is critical that international marketers recognize the relevant cultural differences, as well as similarities, across the various markets when defining the specific elements of the brand imagery with which to reach the target audience (Craig and Douglas 2006; Akaka and Alden 2010). This may, as in the cited case of Jack Daniels whiskey,

require modifications to the points of emphasis in the execution, rather than a fundamental overhauling of the brand strategy.

The marketing literature has also pointed to a preference among consumers for products from culturally similar markets (e.g., Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985; Heslop, Papadopoulos, and Bourk 1998). De Mooij and Hofstede (2010) maintain that cultural values define the self and personality of consumers, and are thus instrumental in shaping the mental processes that interpret the information received, and the social processes that affect emotional responses to messages. This would explain the propensity to respond more favourably to messages that are apparently more in tune with the individual's own cultural framework.

2.1.4. Standardization vs. Adaptation

Despite powerful arguments in favour of customizing the product offering and brand positioning to appeal to the local consumer, counter arguments point to technological advancements that offer alleged greater gains for the international marketing practitioner. The advent of mass production and its inherent cost minimization opportunities towards the end of the nineteenth century facilitated greater international expansion by companies pursuing new markets to absorb their new-found production capacities. This in turn raised the question among both practitioners and academics as to the extent to which firms could standardize their approach across multiple markets, and to what extent they would need to acquiesce to localized demands (Ryans, Griffith, and White 2003; Katsikeas, Samiee, and Theodosiou 2006).

In cognizance of the rapid growth of multinational corporations following the recovery from the Great Depression and World War II, Buzzell (1968) argued that firms could only benefit from the new possibilities of economies of scale by standardizing their international marketing operations (in terms of both internal structure and external activities). Although the author was quick to acknowledge that there are distinct differences between nations that cannot be ignored, both legally and culturally, Buzzell (1968) stressed that there are equally significant benefits to be gained from encouraging standardization in marketing strategies – not only in terms of cost savings, but also pertaining to a greater consistency in customer interactions (especially when those customers themselves operate internationally). In Buzzell's (1968) opinion, it was critical for ambitious multinational corporations to place high on the priority list, the balancing of the individual needs of heterogeneous markets with the potential gains of standardization.

The successful expansion of brands to a worldwide audience in turn provoked discussion as to whether the broad acceptance of brands and products was actually indicative of a global convergence of cultural norms and values. Most famously, Levitt (1983) argued that multinational corporations would ignore this potential at their own peril. To ground his theory of cultural convergence in the market realities, Levitt (1983) acknowledged that a degree of localization will always be required (for example, to conform to linguistic and legal requirements). However, inspired by Buzzell's (1968) observations, Levitt (1983) insisted that the successful global company will focus on the similarities rather than the differences between markets, and exhaust all standardization opportunities before succumbing to any localized diversions, which would ultimately become obsolete as globalization evolved.

Although the prospect of marketing standardization has proven to be an enticing concept to multinational corporations for a variety of economic and brand consistency reasons (Agrawal 1995), Levitt's (1983) declaration of consumer convergence (coupled with a lack of empirical evidence) invited academic criticism from scholars. Wind (1986) countered that although standardization may certainly be appropriate under certain conditions, there existed "no strong empirical evidence that the world is becoming homogeneous" (1986: 23). Furthermore, Wind (1986) drew attention to the emergence of intra-country segmentation within multicultural nations, and advocated a market oriented approach that takes advantage of Levitt's (1983) underlying proposition, on the one hand, but equally optimizes understanding of the local market environment, on the other.

Wind (1986) argued that many international failures stem from instances of cultural insensitivity that ignores variations in consumer behaviours and response patterns. Therefore, the international marketer should take care to avoid the pitfalls of deploying a global standardization strategy where it is inappropriate when pursuing the perceived economic benefits of a homogeneous approach. Douglas and Wind (1987) highlighted additional barriers to standardization, such as local government and trade regulations, the level of development of the local marketing infrastructure, and local market characteristics, suggesting that the standardization decision is more complex than is alluded to by Levitt's (1983) proclamation of the inevitability of consumer homogeneity.

Subsequent articles have presented arguments both for and against standardization (e.g., Kashani 1989; James and Hill 1991; Kanso 1992; Agrawal 1995; Onkvisit and Shaw 1999). It has been widely argued that practitioners, on the whole, prefer to adopt a generally standardized approach to a brand strategy, not least for reasons of economics and brand

control (Jain 1989; Agrawal 1995; Duncan and Ramaprasad 1995; Kanso and Nelson 2006). This is in spite of the findings of empirical studies that have challenged the economic benefits of standardization in overall business performance (e.g., Samiee and Roth 1992), which suggests that more in-depth investigation of the effectiveness of a standardized strategy and the influence level of moderating environmental factors is needed.

A number of empirical studies have uncovered various local environmental factors and considerations, whereby the value of adaptation outweighs the gains accrued from a standardized approach (Mueller 1992; Yavas, Verhage, and Green 1992; Chandy et al. 2001). Other studies have in fact directed their attention away from the polemic arguments and onto *degrees* of standardization/adaptation, which may vary in their execution at the local level (de Chernatony, Halliburton, and Bernath 1995; Zou and Cavusgil 2002).

In his review of the literature of the post-World War II era, Agrawal (1995) reflects on how the practitioner preference for a standardized versus localized approach has alternated over time according to environmental dynamics. Agrawal (1995) suggests that inexperience and low levels of familiarity encouraged the use of local agencies and personnel during practitioners' initial ventures overseas in the early post-war period, and resulted in a relatively high level of local adaptation of communication strategies. The expansion of international brands enhanced the knowledge and awareness of both practitioners and consumers, facilitating a wider standardized approach across markets through the 1960s. However, this was reversed during the following decade as the adoption of a greater sensitivity towards localized needs began to emerge as a more effective strategy for long term business growth.

By the 1980s, the rise in the number of multinational advertising agencies, coupled with the emergence of newly developing countries unencumbered by a history of foreign brand evolution, swung the balance towards a more standardized approach, which enabled minor local adaptations that did not deflect significantly from the umbrella global strategy (Agrawal 1995). Academics, on the other hand, have mostly advocated the adaptation approach, citing the numerous environmental variables that have been revealed in cross-national comparative studies as causing differences in consumption behaviours across different markets (Onkvisit and Shaw 1987; Agrawal 1995; Wen et al. 2012). Furthermore, Ryans, Griffith, and White (2003) remark that despite the volume of work on either side of the debate, there is as yet no empirical validation of Levitt's (1983) central thesis of impending market homogeneity to negate the adaptation argument.

Undoubtedly, technological innovations towards the end of the twentieth century have further contributed towards bringing the world closer together through the facilitation of communication and travel. The purported increase of cosmopolitanism (Bauman 1990; Hannerz 1991) does offer a unique opportunity for standardization through greater exposure to and a willingness to sample, or at least tolerate, cultural variations. As more and more people travel the world, the ability to offer similar products in different areas becomes increasingly appealing. For instance, global travellers can find comfort in the general standardization of McDonald's and Coca-Cola, even though the local execution may nod more towards the cultural traits of the host nation than those of the brand's country of origin (e.g., beer is offered in a French McDonald's restaurant, and there is no beef in an Indian McDonald's "Maharaja" burger). The high level of worldwide brand recognition possible in the current era has allowed global companies to utilize a standardized approach of their core

business model and brand identity, and subsequently enabled the international traveller an opportunity to identify with a ‘domestic’ product in an otherwise alien environment, which also serves to enhance brand loyalty.

Despite the enormous body of work centred on the topic of standardization versus adaptation, the debate continues and critics bemoan the lack of a robust theoretical foundation for addressing the issue (Agrawal 1995; Onkvisit and Shaw 1999; Ryans, Griffith, and White 2003) – which is partly attributable to the fragmented nature of the studies that tend to focus on industry-specific observations. Conclusions are therefore largely drawn from observation-based assumptions that restrict the level of generalization as a result of the highly specific context of the sample investigated. Increasingly, the debate has suggested that standardization and adaptation are two ends of the same continuum along which the firm may plot its strategic position, according to the specific environmental determinants in the different markets (Quelch and Hoff 1986; Papavassiliou and Stathakopoulos 1997; Theodosiou and Leonidou 2003).

This contingency perspective promotes greater flexibility on the part of international companies and affirms that their strategic orientation may be modified according to the specific functional needs of the business (Wind, Douglas, and Perlmutter 1973; Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993). Despite the plethora of research, a usable outcome such as a practical framework with which practitioners may select whether and to what degree they should standardize their activities has not been delivered (Samiee and Roth 1992; Agrawal 1995; Theodosiou and Leonidou 2003).

2.1.5. International Brand Architecture and Brand Communication

Among the many challenges facing international marketers at multinational companies is the dilemma of how to develop a consistent brand image and recognizable product portfolio across multiple markets and, by definition, multicultural consumers, in this uncertain and dynamic environment. The evolution of international brands is derived in part from their administrative heritage (Bartlett and Ghoshal 1987), coupled with a need to find a 'fit' with the local environment and ways to assert their own identity (Belk 1988; Smith 2006). The greater the number of markets targeted by the brand managers, the greater the complexity in creating and asserting that unique identity as a means of clear differentiation from competitors.

Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra (1999) introduced the construct of global consumer culture positioning (GCCP) as a strategic brand positioning tool for practitioners to optimize the potential marketing opportunities across multiple international markets. This strategic tool combines the perspectives of the company (responding to the consumer) and the consumer (responding to the brand), enabling marketers to adopt a proactive as well as a reactive approach. The GCCP strategic framework targets global segments on the premise that certain consumers worldwide share specific appeals or can draw benefits from a particular product globally. For instance, busy people worldwide may value time-saving products, however, the specific benefits valued by the target consumer in the individual markets and the communication of those benefits may require variances in the presentation of the message, in order to successfully resonate with the target consumer.

The fundamental premise of the GCCP concept is that global segments may exist, rather than a singular global consumer group (e.g., youth, business travellers) (Cleveland,

Papadopoulos, and Laroche 2011; Haverila, Rod, and Ashill 2013). In recognition of the fact that culture plays an influencing role in the interpretation of the symbols used to express the brand image (Kates and Goh 2003; Kjeldgaard and Askegaard 2006; Akaka and Alden 2010), marketers may want to apply GCCP in conjunction with a localized (LCCP) strategy. In some situations, a positioning strategy accentuating the ‘foreignness’ of the core brand (FCCP) may be deemed more appropriate than a fully localized strategy, according to the identified needs of the market (as well as the capabilities of the company).

To highlight the deeper complexity of this dilemma, and acknowledging the power behind branding as a means for sustainable growth, Douglas, Craig, and Nijssen (2001) developed the concept of *brand architecture*, in order to create a framework with which managers may develop the appropriate strategy for handling multiple brands and sub-brands across diverse markets, in an increasingly lucrative, but equally unpredictable and dynamic environment.

Douglas, Craig, and Nijssen (2001) maintain that as markets evolve and multinational firms expand their product portfolio in response to local/regional needs, the urgency increases for companies to establish an explicit brand architecture, which prescribes a harmonized brand strategy across product lines and country markets: for both economic and brand consistency reasons. In the arena of global brands, the authors identify a movement towards a more corporate-dominant structure in terms of the global umbrella brand, which serves to forge a longer-term identity that sustains a relationship with the target consumer through the inherent reassurances of reliability that support the product-level sub-brands, brand extensions, and new product launches. However, multinational corporations with a diverse product portfolio spanning multiple categories (e.g., Procter & Gamble,

Unilever, Colgate-Palmolive, Johnson & Johnson), may designate specific umbrella brands as defining their positioning in the respective industries (e.g., the Gillette name is synonymous with shaving, Colgate with dental care), under which the appropriate sub-brands are launched and can reap the benefit of the core umbrella brand image.

Whether the company operates a corporate-dominant, product-dominant, or hybrid brand structure, Douglas, Craig, and Nijssen (2001) stress that in all cases it is critical that the custodians of the brand (which could be centralized at corporate headquarters, or at a lead market operation specific to the core brand) are clearly designated, and that clear guidelines with regard to all identifying elements of the brand are mandated, to ensure consistency across all markets where the brand is distributed.

Although the brand architecture must be clearly defined, it is not a static framework and must be continually monitored (in terms of compliance, and also strategically to evaluate effectiveness), as well as modified according to changes in the environmental or product-market dynamics. The ultimate challenge is for practitioners to design an efficient brand architecture that spans multiple international markets and weaves together the practical needs of the company with the cultural dictates of the consumer in each market (Douglas, Craig, and Nijssen 2001; Hollis 2011).

Despite the evidence that each international market possesses its own idiosyncrasies with regard to the environment and cultural frameworks (de Mooij 2011), practitioners continually seek opportunities to standardize their product portfolio and communications strategies across countries (Buzzell 1968; Hite and Fraser 1988; James and Hill 1991; Kanso and Nelson 2006). This has given rise to a plethora of research analyzing the propensity for standardization versus adaptation across multiple markets, and the creation of strategic tools

to map the relevant criteria for decision-making, although there is criticism that much of the work lacks empirical verification of some of the underlying assumptions (Ryans, Griffith, and White 2003).

2.1.6. Strategic Decision-Making in International Marketing

In an effort to bridge the polarized standardization versus adaptation debate, de Chernatony, Halliburton, and Bernath (1995) developed a demand-supply decision-making model based on a research study of pan-European brands. The authors' model concurs with Levitt's (1983) proposition that companies should focus on cultural similarities rather than differences when defining the brand strategy. However, de Chernatony, Halliburton, and Bernath (1995) stress the importance of moderating environmental factors, such as the product/market context, the competitive environment and the specific moment in time. In their model, equally important to the consideration of demand-side factors are the supply-side capabilities of the firm (both in terms of organizational and manufacturing structure), which addresses a critical point often missing in the standardization debate.

The authors also suggest that many contributors to the polemic debate overlook Buzzell's (1968) original assertion that the standardization versus adaptation strategy decision is based on a continuum of options, rather than an either/or decision. Furthermore, de Chernatony, Halliburton, and Bernath's (1995) study of successful pan-European brands highlights that firms may choose to adopt an international standardized strategy at the brand level, while a greater degree of adaptation may be required for the execution of the strategy at the local level, according to the idiosyncrasies of the individual market environment.

The firm's decision-making structure plays a key role in the formulation of marketing standardization strategy, and reflects the degree of authorization afforded to the firm's local subsidiary when developing their localized marketing strategies (Zou and Cavusgil 2002; Theodosiou and Leonidou 2003; Chung 2009). As internationalization of businesses gathered pace during the post-war period, Wind, Douglas, and Perlmutter (1973) explored the use of the E.P.R.G. framework as a guideline for planning and developing international marketing strategies. This framework identifies four types of strategic orientation and outlines the respective implications for a firm when expanding its business overseas:

- Ethnocentrism: home country orientation
- Polycentrism: host country orientation
- Regiocentrism: regional orientation
- Geocentrism: world orientation.

The core underlying assumption of the E.P.R.G. framework is that the identified degree of internationalization of the firm defines the management's attitudes and, thereby, commitment towards international expansion, which in turn affects the decision-making structure and international marketing strategies of the firm. Moreover, the preferred strategic orientation may be an evolutionary process dependent upon other factors such as the experiences, level of international exposure, size and resources of the firm.

The focus of an ethnocentric company is the domestic market, with overseas markets occupying a secondary role in the firm's business expansion plans; therefore, no special consideration or major product modifications are afforded to what is, essentially, an export business. In contrast, a polycentric orientation, which Wind, Douglas, and Perlmutter

(1973) suggest may evolve at a later stage as the overseas business expands, is characterized by the establishment of subsidiary organizations that operate independently of each other in terms of determining their own marketing plans according to identified local requirements. At the regiocentric and geocentric level, the firm ignores national boundaries and develops its marketing strategies on a regional or worldwide basis – viewing each multi-country region or the entire world as a single potential market, regardless of its domestic base. While the geocentric perspective offers the most intuitive appeal to supporters of standardization, not least for reasons of brand consistency and control, as well as economies of scale (Buzzell 1968; Levitt 1983), the lack of a singular global consumer market due to the pervasive influences of culture (Douglas and Wind 1987; de Mooij 2011; Wen et al. 2012) renders a fully geocentric orientation infeasible at least operationally, even if the similarly appealing broad arguments for adaptation are set aside.

In their development of a global marketing strategy (GMS) model, Zou and Cavusgil (2002) highlight the role of the firm's strategic orientation (Wind, Douglas, and Perlmutter 1973) and its previous level of international experience as key antecedents in the implementation of a global strategy. In particular, the authors stress that the fit between the firm's own resource competencies (Grant 1991) and external environmental factors (Porter 1998) is critical to the successful execution of a global strategy.

Additionally, it has been observed that the adoption of strategic approaches may be differentiated according to the business function (Wind, Douglas, and Perlmutter 1973; Madden and Weinberger 1984; Samiee and Roth 1992), adding further complexity to defining the overall strategic orientation of an international firm. Organizational theorists have noted that the prevailing national cultures permeating the subsidiary operations can

have further ramifications on the application of business strategies that may also moderate the general strategic orientation of the firm across highly differentiated cultures (Kirca, Cavusgil, and Hult 2009).

The study by Chung (2009) similarly found that the firm's decision-making structure is partly determined by marketing environmental factors (such as competitive, political, and cultural considerations), which together influence the marketing standardization strategy: the greater the market environment similarities, the greater the degree of standardization of marketing strategy.

A number of studies have also concluded that firms are also prone to adjust their original strategic marketing orientations as they become more familiar with the individual markets and more experienced in multi-market business activities (Albaum et al. 2003). However, these studies have focused on experience at the firm level (Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993) and not the level of international exposure of the individuals involved in the decision-making process. Greater multinational experience points to a greater degree of cultural sensitivity, but that is not to preclude a propensity for stereotyping, depending on the extent and nature of the experience (Zaidman 2000).

Management's degree of multicultural experience is generally seen as a contributor to the sustainable success of international business activities (Bartlett and Ghoshal 1987; Barmeyer and Mayrhofer 2008) and the development of a global mindset to transcend national barriers (Levy et al. 2007). It is common practice within multinational organizations to assign high-potential employees to overseas markets for the purposes of individual development through broader international exposure, and/or accelerating the immersion and development of local employees in the corporate strategies and processes:

breadth of experience matches formal training as an important means with which to reduce unfamiliarity and ambiguity in situations that require strategic decision-making (Kumar and Subramaniam 1997). Therefore, the more experienced the respondent is within the greater company, the more likely the level of influence he/she enjoys and thus, a standardized approach may be approved by the local market as the most appropriate action (Hite and Fraser 1988).

An additional rationale for the placement of headquarters-oriented managers in the local subsidiary is afforded by Ghoshal and Bartlett (1990), who posit that the efficacy of the headquarters' hierarchical power is moderated by the density of interactions among members of the subsidiary organization; the authors (2003) later argued for a *transnational* manager, able to co-ordinate the unique skills sets of individual countries towards achieving group strategic goals across borders. However, the research to date is inconclusive on the decision-making structure determining strategic marketing decisions (Chung 2009) and the level of influence of the subsidiary operations on corporate strategies, hence the questions still need to be asked.

Through the deployment of an inductive approach, this study identifies the key influencing factors on strategic decision-making with regard to the use of place associations in international brand strategies. The subsequent cross-national survey (described in Chapter 3, Section 3.2.3) then evaluates the variations in strategic decision-making factors according to the market and company position within the organization, and considering the demographic background of the local marketing manager.

2.2. International Advertising

The dissemination of the brand image and the visual symbols selected to reinforce the desired imagery are most visible through the company's advertising. In this second part of the literature review, which examines the execution of international brand communications strategies, the recurring themes of globalization and culture emerge, among other factors, as influential components of international advertising strategies. The issue is particularly important and relevant in the context of this study, since the use of place associations attached to a global brand may be moderated in the local marketing communications by the varying levels of recognition of the place brand attributes and symbols.

2.2.1. The Purpose of Advertising

“When I write an advertisement, I don't want you to tell me that you find it ‘creative’, I want you to find it so interesting that you buy the product” (Ogilvy 1983: 7)

Although the above quotation summarizes the mantra of the late advertising guru, David Ogilvy, and that of the majority of large corporations utilizing the services of advertising agencies, modern day advertising endorses the scope of the concept of marketing beyond the selling of physical products/services (Levitt 1960; Ogilvy 1983; Aaker 1991), to the creation of interest in/awareness of a brand image (Mikhailitchenko et al. 2009) or organization (for example, charity and not-for-profit organizations, government organizations).

The emergence of multiple modes of advertising communication has stimulated the development of umbrella brands to encapsulate the lifestyle imagery and personality of the

product portfolio to an increasingly sophisticated and aspirational consumer (Levy 1959; Aaker 1991; de Mooij 2011; Moriarty, Mitchell, and Wells 2014). As highlighted in Section 2.1.3., above, in his analysis of the effects of globalization Appadurai (1990) affords considerable weight to the power of mediascapes as conduits in the communication of ideas to influence consumers. This researcher, a sociologist, notes that communication media themselves are subject to influence by marketers seeking to find a predominant share of voice amid the noise clutter. It has further been suggested that the evolution of advertising mirrors the cultural evolution of the market (An 2006), which is especially noticeable by the increasing tendency to frame product features within a specific aspirational lifestyle context (Wang 2000; de Mooij 2011; Moriarty, Mitchell, and Wells 2014), in preference to a predominantly informational orientation.

2.2.2. Variations in Information Processing Styles

The traditional communication model demonstrates how the sender transfers information by means of an encoded message, adapted to the selected medium of communication, which is then decoded by the receiver (de Mooij 2011; Moriarty, Mitchell, and Wells 2014). The sender will often then solicit feedback to ensure that there is a match between the message transmitted and the message received: the international marketer has to be attuned to the potential issues that can occur as a result of varying interpretations of the symbols utilized to convey the brand message across multiple consumer markets.

In the international arena, the potential for a mismatch between the message transmitted and the one received is exacerbated by variations in information processing styles (Verlegh, Steenkamp, and Meulenbach 2005), which is largely attributed to factors of

culture (McCracken 1986; de Mooij 2011; Ford, Mueller, and Taylor 2011; Blankson, Spears, and Hinson 2012; Solomon, White, and Dahl 2014), as well as to a number of other factors pertaining to the level of development of the specific product industry or communication media (Chandy et al. 2001; Craig and Douglas 2006). Table 2.1 summarizes the findings of major and recent studies concerning the factors that affect consumer responses to advertising messages.

De Mooij (2011) explains how the diverse information processing styles of international consumers affect how mass communication messages are decoded and why different attributes may be assigned to the same brand across different markets. The complexity of the cultural dimensions – primarily those developed by Hall (1976), Hofstede (1980) and Schwartz (1992) – that impact the interpretation of the transmitted message indicates the dilemma facing international marketers who seek to develop a global brand equity.

The challenge ultimately comprises communicating the core brand values in a style and manner that resonates with the target audience, that is, selecting the appropriate degree of information versus emotion in the tone, and utilizing symbols that convey a meaningful message. For instance, the use of the French language and visual representations of Paris may connote different associations across different cultures, according to the historical connections, individual experiences, or recognition of those symbols, etc. Therefore, the international marketer's comprehension of and sensitivity to how audiences process the information presented through assorted media outlets, plays a key role in determining international advertising strategies.

Table 2.1: Factors Affecting Consumer Responses to Advertising Messages

Factor	Author(s)	Countries in Study
Level of involvement with product/service	Mueller (1987)	U.S., Japan
	Assael & Kamins (1989)	U.S.
	Chang (2010)	U.S., Taiwan
Stage of evolution of the market	Chandy, Tellis, MacInnis & Thaivanich (2001)	Various U.S. states
	Chiou (2002)	Taiwan
Stage in the product lifecycle	Lee & Carter (2005)	multiple
Level of brand/product awareness	Weilbacher (2003)	U.S.
	Yang, Bi & Zhou (2005)	China
	Matthes, Schemer & Wirth (2007)	Switzerland
Legal constraints in message design	Hoek, Gendall & Calfee (2004)	U.S., New Zealand
	Nelson & Paek (2008)	U.S., Brazil, China, France, India, Korea, Thailand
Type of medium	Mikhailitchenko, Javalgi, Mikhailitchenko & Laroche (2009)	U.S., Russia
National culture	Albers-Miller & Stafford (1999)	Brazil, Mexico, Taiwan, U.S.
	Lass & Hart (2004)	UK, Germany, Italy
	Teng & Laroche (2006)	N. America, China
	Barnes, Siu, Yu & Chan (2009)	China, Hong Kong
	Wen, Qin, Prybutok, & Blankson (2012)	U.S., China
Local/Nonlocal origin of product or advertisement	Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden, Steenkamp & Ramachander (2000)	India
	Tai & Pae (2002)	China
	Bawa (2004)	India
Country of origin of brand/product	Baker & Ballington (2002)	Australia, Scotland
	Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004)	UK
	Verlegh, Steenkamp & Meulenbach (2005)	Germany
Demographics – Age & perception of time	Codruta Micu & Chowdhury (2010)	U.S.
Consistency of advertising campaign	Yoo, Bang & Kim (2009)	Korea

There is a broad spectrum of studies across a range of markets utilizing the cultural frameworks developed by Hall (1976), Hofstede (1980), Schwartz (1992) and, more recently, House et al. (2004), to assess consumer interpretations of advertising and draw cross-cultural comparisons. Table 2.2 illustrates the scope of recent studies applying the aforementioned theoretical frameworks to their analysis. However, to date, there is little research exploring the degree to which marketers integrate that knowledge in the decision-making process.

Table 2.2: Application of Theoretical Frameworks on Culture

Theoretical Framework	Author(s)	Countries
Hall (1976) – High/Low context	Biswas, Olsen & Carlet (1992)	U.S., France
	Cutler & Javalgi (1992)	U.S., China
	Callow & Schiffman (2002)	U.S., Philippines
	An (2007)	U.S., UK, Germany, Japan, Korea, China
	Reardon & Miller (2012)	23 countries
Hofstede (1980) – Five dimensions of national culture	Kale (1991)	U.S., India
	Han & Shavitt (1994)	U.S., Korea
	Albers-Miller & Gelb (1996)	Japan, Taiwan, India, Israel, South Africa, France, Finland, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, U.S.
	Moon & Chan (2005)	Hong Kong, Korea
	Lam, Lee & Mizerski (2009)	Australia, Singapore
	Chang (2010)	U.S., Taiwan
Schwartz (1992) – Seven dimensions of culture	Eisingerich & Rubera (2010)	UK, China
	Oyedele, Minor & Ghanem (2009)	Ghana, Nigeria, South Africa
	Cleveland, Arikan & Poyraz (2011)	Canada, Turkey
House et al. (2004) – Nine dimensions (GLOBE study)	Terlutter, Diehl & Mueller (2010)	U.S., Germany, UK, Austria, Argentina
Hall (1976) and Hofstede (1980)	Al-Olayan & Karande (2000)	U.S., Egypt, Lebanon, UAE (pan-Arab)
	Zhou, Zhou & Xue (2005)	U.S., China
	Darley, Luethge, & Blankson (2013)	Sub-Saharan Africa

2.2.3. International Advertising Strategy

It has been argued that the greater the brand recognition a firm enjoys across foreign markets, the more it will be able to standardize its communications (Hite and Fraser 1988; Wind 1986;

Yin 1999) and adopt more globally unified strategies. However, at the micro level, the efficacy of a global strategy relies on the level of brand familiarity and the maturity of the brand within the given market, which will impact the need for different styles of execution (Mikhailitchenko et al. 2009). To help practitioners define the most appropriate approach for marketing a brand across multiple markets, Quelch and Hoff (1986) advocate a continuum of decision-making frameworks to encapsulate all the relevant criteria, that is, a global approach can fall anywhere on the spectrum from tight agreement on an advertising concept to a loose agreement on advertising details.

The GCCP framework (described in Section 2.1.5. above) espoused by Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra (1999) targets global segments on the premise that groups of consumers worldwide share specific appeals or can draw benefits from a particular product globally, even though the specific benefits and the communication of those benefits may require variances in the presentation of the message. The authors contrast a GCCP strategy with a strategy of local consumer culture positioning (LCCP), which aligns a product “with local cultural meanings, reflects the local culture’s norms and identities, [portrays it] as consumed by local people in the national culture, and/or [depicts it] as locally produced for local people” (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999: 77).

An alternative strategy, foreign consumer culture positioning (FCCP), may conform with local values in its execution style. However, this strategy associates the advertised

brand with a specific foreign culture on the central assumption that the positive supporting values of the foreign culture are understood (and desired) by the target consumers. While GCCP and FCCP may be utilized in standardized advertising campaigns and LCCP implies a localized approach of adaptation, Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra (1999) suggest that the three positioning strategies are not mutually exclusive, and that marketers may elect to utilize a combination of all three strategies according to the needs of the various markets in which they are promoting the brand.

Researchers have identified the emergence of global consumer segments in specific industries (Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004), which suggest similarities in consumption behaviour patterns across seemingly diverse markets (Oyedele, Minor, and Ghanem 2009). However, they caution against full standardization of the brand communications for fear of blurring the finer points of brand differentiation through a cultural barrier that may be raised by a global approach. Since the flurry of standardization vs. adaptation studies that emerged with brand globalization in the 1970s and 1980s, scholars now largely echo Quelch and Hoff's (1986) call to move away from the standardization debate and focus on defining what elements can be standardized, and when a localized adaptation is more effective (Onkvisit and Shaw 1999; Taylor 2002; Taylor and Johnson 2002; Ford, Mueller, and Taylor 2011).

2.2.4. Advertising Appeals and Executions

On the previously asserted premise that the main purpose of advertising is to motivate a response from the message recipient (either in the form of a purchase inducement or brand awareness/curiosity), arguably the most important factor of an advertisement is the appeal (Karp 1974; Labarbera, Weingard, and Yorkston 1998; Lee and Carter 2005; Belch and

Belch 2007), which is generally defined as that part of an advertisement which specifies the seller's suggested "reason (or motive) to buy".

The effectiveness of advertising is difficult to measure as there are many other factors, such as economic conditions, pricing strategy, and competitors' promotional activities, that can affect sales volume independently of the actual advertising appeal and message (Onkvisit and Shaw 1999). The literature on advertising has therefore focused more on the type and scope of advertising appeals selected by marketers to capture the target consumer's attention and reinforce their brand positioning across multiple markets, based on the assumption that the campaign strategies are deemed effective by the advertisers.

Table 2.3 summarizes some of the types of appeals that have been studied in international advertising research.

Table 2.3: Types of Advertising Appeals Evaluated in International Research

Type of Appeal	Author(s)	Country(ies)
<i>Emotional</i>		
Emotional vs. rational	de Pelsmacker & Geuens (1997)	Belgium
	Albers-Miller & Stafford (1999)	Brazil, Taiwan, U.S., Mexico
	Janssens & de Pelsmacker (2005)	Belgium
	Bülbül & Menon (2010)	U.S.
Informational vs. transformational	Cutler, Thomas & Rao (2000)	U.S., Japan, India, Korea
Need vs. want	McNeal & McDaniel (1984)	U.S.
Thinking vs. feeling	Golden & Johnson (1983)	U.S.
Empathy vs. pride	Aaker & Williams (1998)	U.S.
Positive vs. negative feelings	Faseur & Geuens (2006)	U.S.
Persuasion vs. advocacy	Ehrenberg (2000)	U.S.
	Han & Shavitt (2004)	U.S., Korea
	Teng & Laroche (2006)	North America, China
	Okazaki, Mueller & Taylor (2010)	U.S., Japan

<u>Claims</u>		
	Kamins & Marks (1987)	U.S.
	Maciejewski (2005)	U.S.
	Kim, Cheong & Zheng (2009)	U.S.
<u>Environmental Concerns</u>		
“Green” products / claims	Carlson, Grove & Kangun (1993)	U.S.
	Banerjee, Gulas & Iyer (1995)	U.S.
	Schuhwerk & Lefkoff-Hagius (1995)	U.S.
	Chan (2000)	China
Social values	Zinkhan, Hong & Lawson (1990)	U.S.
<u>Humour</u>		
	Weinberger & Spotts (1989)	U.S., UK
	Alden, Hoyer & Lee (1993)	U.S., Germany, Thailand, Korea
	Spotts, Weinberger & Parsons (1997)	U.S.
	de Pelsmacker & Geuens (1999)	Belgium
	Toncar (2001)	U.S., UK
	Chung & Zhai (2003)	U.S.
	Hatzithomas Zotos & Boutsouki (2011)	UK, Greece
<u>Fear / Threats / Guilt</u>		
Fear	Kay (1972)	U.S.
	Rotfeld (1999)	New Zealand
	Mowen, Harris & Bone (2004)	U.S.
	Vincent & Dubinsky (2005)	U.S., France
Threats / Shocks	Dahl, Frankenberger & Manchanda (2003)	U.S.
	Dickinson & Holmes (2008)	Australia
Guilt	Coulter & Pinto (1995)	U.S.
	Huhmann & Brotherton (1997)	U.S.
	Cotte, Coulter & Moore (2005)	U.S.
<u>Public Health & Safety:</u>		
- anti-smoking	Laroche, Toffoli, Zhang & Pons (2001)	China, Canada
	Smith & Stutts (2003)	U.S.
	Devlin, Eadie, Stead & Evans (2007)	UK
	Michaelidou, Dibb & Haider (2008)	UK
- road safety	Rossiter & Thornton (2004)	U.S.
	Lewis, Watson & Tay (2007)	Australia
- alcohol consumption	Cui (2000)	U.S. (minority groups)
	Dorsett & Dickerson (2004)	UK
	Austin (2006)	U.S.

- AIDS awareness	Hill (1988) LaTour & Pitts (1989) Mitchell, Macklin & Paxman (2007)	U.S. U.S. UK
<hr/>		
<i><u>Lifestyle, Status</u></i>		
Lifestyle images	Belk & Pollay (1985)	U.S., Japan
Materialism and status appeals	Watson, Rayner, Lysonski & Durvasula (1999)	New Zealand China
Materialism and status appeals	Barnes, Kitchen, Spickett-Jones & Yu (2004) Chan & Prendergast (2008) Bisseil & Rask (2010)	China U.S.
<hr/>		
<i><u>Sex</u></i>		
	Pope, Voges & Brown (2004) Lass & Hart (2004)	Australia UK, Germany and Italy
	Beetles & Harris (2005) Manceau & Tissier-Desbordes (2006) Nelson & Paek (2008)	UK France U.S., Brazil, Canada, China, Germany, Korea, Thailand
<hr/>		
<i><u>Sub-groups – gender, age, ethnicity</u></i>		
Ethnic minorities	Whittler & DiMeo (1991) Lee, Fernandez & Martin (2002)	U.S. New Zealand
Age	Simcock & Sudbury (2006)	UK
Gender roles	Vitell, Rallapalli & Desborde (1994) Wiles, Wiles & Tjernlund (1995) Prendergast, Yan & West (2002) Strieter & Weaver (2005)	U.S., India U.S., Netherlands, Sweden Hong Kong U.S.
<hr/>		
<i><u>Country-of-Origin</u></i>		
	Wall, Liefeld & Heslop (1991) Thakor & Kohli (1996) Verlegh, Steenkamp & Meulenberg (2005)	Canada Multiple worldwide Germany
Patriotism	Gelb 2002	U.S.
<hr/>		
<i><u>Endorsement</u></i>		
Expert endorsers	Lafferty & Goldsmith (1999) Chang, Wall & Tsai (2005)	U.S. Taiwan
Employee endorsers	Stephens & Faranda (1993)	U.S.
Celebrity endorsers	Ohanian, R. (1991) Erdogan, Baker & Tagg (2001) Chao, Wuhler & Werani (2005) Amos, Holmes & Strutton (2008) Biswas, Hussain & O'Donnell (2009)	U.S. UK Austria U.S. U.S., India

Explorations of the factors contributing to the effectiveness of an advertisement gathered pace in the post World War II period, as advertising investments accelerated. In discussing the concept of appeals, Miller (1950) equated an appeal to a 'drive', which was further segmented into two levels: primary (e.g., hunger, thirst), or secondary (e.g., pride, ambition, desire for money). Merriman's 1958 study identified five different appeals, ranging from emotional at one end and rational at the other, and some combination of these two categories in between.

Although classification schemes have varied in subsequent studies, according to the specific market or product context of the area of study, researchers have since utilized the rational and emotional divide to segment the types of advertising appeals selected by marketers in specific markets or industries. Baudot (1991) posits that a rational appeal tends to be more effective than an emotional one where a product or service addresses a consumer need versus a consumer want, on the premise that a need is satisfied by functionality, which is best explained using a rational argument. In contrast, the author cites the example of the desire (i.e., 'want') created for specific cigarette brands through the creation of lifestyle and 'role model' imagery (e.g., the macho Marlboro man, the fashionable women in the Virginia Slims advertisements) to stimulate an emotional response, and a product demand that defies human need. Similarly, the promotion of alcohol brands uses emotional appeals based on lifestyle and status aspirations. However, depending on stage of development, what is considered a need in one country may be a want in a less developed one (Baudot 1991; Mikhailitchenko et al. 2009).

Across the plethora of research studies available, the precise definition of an appeal suffers from a degree of ambiguity due to its use interchangeably with terms like drive,

claim, and theme. There is additionally some overlap between the identification of appeals and executions (Frazer, Sheehan, and Patti 2002), as well as an ongoing debate over whether an appeal should be treated as a message element or a response element. Modern definitions of the construct are derivatives of the definition by Hovland, Janis, and Kelley (1965) that refers to an advertising appeal as a message element designed to promote a behavioural response by the receiver, which is most popularly used by researchers exploring the application of advertising appeals. Although, in an increasingly complex and sophisticated media environment, the message may be designed to create awareness rather than stimulate purchase intentions (Mikhailitchenko et al. 2009).

Depending on the focal area of research, numerous studies have subsequently used broad dichotomous classifications of advertising appeals. These classifications include emotional versus rational (Belk and Pollay 1985; Mattila 1999), functional versus emotional (Lee and O'Connor 2003), cognitive versus affective (Lohtia, Donthu, and Hershberger 2003), informational versus emotional (Singh and Cole 1993; So 2004), individualistic versus collectivistic (Teng and Laroche 2006), and thinking versus feeling (Golden and Johnson 1983) categories. It should also be noted that the classification labels are applied from the (Western) researcher's perspective, which often has less relevancy in different cultures (de Mooij 2011).

Although a number of researchers have based their analyses on published classification schemes, such as the CETSCALE (Shimp and Sharma 1987), multi-cultural studies have frequently required the modification of such schemes to accommodate the cultural nuances of the participating markets (e.g., Lindquist et al 2001; Bawa 2004; Klein, Ettenson, and Krishnan 2005; Sepehr and Kaffashpoor 2012; Pentz, Terblanche, and

Boshoff 2013). Pollay (1983), followed by Albers-Miller and Gelb (1996), examined various advertising studies over a 25-year period to produce a listing of 42 distinct appeals, comprising emotional and rational cues. However, the potentially wide applicability of this list at the international level is again tempered by cultural and other country-specific factors that imply a different consumer response to the same appeal type (Albers-Miller and Gelb 1996).

In their comparative study of U.S. and Chinese television commercials, for example, Cutler and Javalgi (1992) observed a high level of utilitarian values used in the low-context (Hall 1976) culture of the U.S., compared to the predominance of symbolism in the high-context culture of China, as well as the predominance of ‘individualism’ versus ‘family’ oriented advertising in the respective countries. The authors also noted that the respective levels of development of product categories and advertising sophistication played a role in the differentiation of the appeals deployed.

Many of the classification schemes applied by researchers have overlapping categories, both within a scheme (informational versus emotional), as well as across the schemes (thinking versus feeling). Moreover, the observations per study are limited to analyses of preselected styles of communication, rather than adopting a more inductive approach to first identify the prevalent types of appeal deployed. This is especially important in cross-cultural studies, where the classifications are defined according to the native structure of the researcher’s market and may not have the same resonance or validity across the other markets.

The study by Chandy, Tellis, MacInnis, and Thaivanich (2001), comparing the use of advertising appeals in new versus well-established markets, confirmed that the same

advertising appeals can have very different effects on behaviour depending on the maturity of the market. In relatively young markets rational or informational types of appeals are sought, whereas emotional appeals are more effective in well-established markets. Chandy, Tellis, MacInnis, and Thaivanich (2001) attribute this response to the fact that when markets are relatively new, the limited consumer knowledge of the product facilitates consumers' motivations to respond to the argument focused on rational/informational appeals. The reverse is true for markets that are well established and the product-related knowledge of consumers is fairly high, so that they are likely to be more responsive to emotional appeals.

2.2.5. The Influence of Culture on Communication Strategies

2.2.5.1. Culture and Marketing Communications

Implicit in Levitt's (1983) vision of the global company serving the needs of the global consumer is the requirement for a global mindset among marketing practitioners that views all markets through the same lens – in contrast to an ethnocentric approach that seeks to create all foreign markets in the image of the domestic market (Wind, Douglas, and Perlmutter 1973). This continues to pose a challenge to firms (Nummela, Saarenketo, and Puumalainen 2004), which, as Wind (1986) points out, are usually expanding internationally from a well-established domestic base and are reluctant to change the domestic model that has served them so well, in order to conform to a notional global model.

The labelling of national cultures as viewed through ethnocentric lenses negates the need for in-depth understanding of the host cultures (Friedman 2006), and the same may apply to geocentric companies which operate under the presumption of mass cultural homogeneity, subsequently running the same risks of missed opportunities or sustaining

irreparable damage to the business relationship or brand image by inadvertently causing offence.

In support of the standardized approach, Backhaus, Muehlefeld, and van Doorn (2001) highlight that divergences in localized advertising risk image confusion and even irritation. However, it is important to keep in mind Hornik and Rubinow's (1981) warning of the tacit cultural variations beyond the obvious language issues in intercultural communication, to which the international advertiser must remain alert. Additionally, since cultural factors affect the way various phenomena are perceived, if the cultural frameworks change, the interpretation of the message will also differ across cultures (Aaker and Williams 1998). Therefore, even when participating in what have been identified as global segments (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999; Douglas and Craig 2011), the marketer must be sensitive to the cultural nuances of the local markets and the dynamics of the particular society, especially with regard to the execution of the selected marketing strategy (de Mooij 2011).

The increasing internationalization of businesses has triggered a dramatic growth in advertising expenditures internationally, which has in turn required marketing managers to find ways and means to communicate effectively with people from a wide spectrum of cultures. Depending on who views the advertisement, the kind of response achieved may be different to that originally intended by the advertiser. When the beholders come from different cultures, the variances in the specificity and the meanings assigned to similar messages can be even greater (Belk and Pollay 1985; Smith 1990; Verlegh, Steenkamp, and Meulenberg 2005; de Mooij 2011). For international marketing managers seeking to sustain a global brand image through their product advertising, identifying the different cultural

elements that define how the audience will decode the advertising message is critical to effectively communicate the buying incentive or end benefit of a product. Aaker and Williams (1998) caution that inadequate attentiveness to the thinking and perceiving processes of the different audiences, as well as the differentiated needs and wants, may result in the miscommunication of the intended message.

The complexity of cultural interpretations of an advertising appeal conceived in one culture and executed in a different culture plays a critical role in the standardization versus adaptation decision-making process. However, as Zandpour et al. (1994: 311) reflect, “there are few guidelines to assist practitioners in discriminating between advertising which is ‘culturally fit’ and that which is not”. Comparative studies of the use of specific advertising appeals across different markets have sought to clarify the degree to which cultural differences affect the reception of the brand message (Belk and Pollay 1985; Nevett 1992; Toncar 2001; So 2004; Teng and Laroche 2006), and thus endeavour to provide guidelines to practitioners with regard to the level of standardization that may be applied in their global brand positioning.

A note of caution from Friedman (2006) maintains that the application of labels to cultures is a purely subjective phenomenon based on the external observer’s attachment of particular traits to specific societies, derived from individual experiences/exposure to other cultures – although numerous studies have confirmed that cross-cultural differences (based on national dimensions of culture) do exist in the individual’s reception of and response to advertising appeals (e.g., Mueller 1987; LaTour and Pitts 1989; Lass and Hart 2004; Vincent and Dubinsky 2004). Of primary importance when the study of advertising appeals is approached from a cross-cultural perspective is the identification of the prevalent cultural

value sets of the audience (de Mooij 2011), coupled with an assessment of the degree to which culture (versus individual personality traits) impacts the effectiveness of the advertisements.

In a review of cross-cultural advertising research, Okazaki and Mueller (2007) found that the majority of studies frame their research on Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions (e.g., Albers-Miller and Gelb 1996; de Mooij 1999; Mortimer and Grierson 2010), despite the availability of alternative theoretical approaches (Craig and Douglas 2006) and concerns raised relating to the use of Hofstede's dimensions at the individual level (de Mooij 2013; Venaik and Brewer 2013). For example, Jung and Kellaris (2004) related purchase intentions to the message appeal used in various cultures and established that elements of culture, such as a tendency towards uncertainty avoidance or collectivism (as described by Hofstede 1980), significantly influence this relationship, thus confirming that national dimensions of culture seem to have an important effect on the persuasive capacity of message appeals.

However, scholars have also warned against predicting consumer responses simply according to nationally-defined cultural tendencies. Mortimer and Grierson's (2010) comparative study of French and British advertising suggests that other moderating factors should be applied, on the basis of the authors' findings that differences in the type of advertising appeal were only observed where there is a clear differentiation between the two nations in the corresponding cultural dimension (in this case, uncertainty-avoidance).

In a complex field such as culture, where individual members of a cultural group are subject to a variety of influences according to their own unique environment and

experiences, it is likely that there is some overlap between and within national cultures, but also that a multiplicity of responses to an advertising communication may emerge.

Teng and Laroche's (2006) international study investigated the effects of culturally laden appeals on the attitudes of consumers in North America and China. The authors found that across both cultures a contrast effect was observed. When a culturally congruent appeal and a strong argument were used in an advertisement, the response was more favourable when competing advertisements used culturally incongruent appeals and neutral arguments. Overall, Teng and Laroche's (2006) study concurred with Hofstede's (1980) findings in defining individualistic appeals as culturally congruent for North America, and collectivistic appeals to be culturally congruent for China. Teng and Laroche's (2006) study also points to the sustained cultural diversity between North America and some Asian nations. The complexities of cultural identity however, dictate that marketers should be wary of clustering nations in regions to gain standardization benefits.

Mueller's (1987) comparative study of Japanese and American print advertisements concurred with the differentiation between collectivist and individualistic oriented societies outlined by Hofstede (1980), and found many associated culture-specific differences. Mueller (1992) later extended the study to include Germany and also television campaigns, and found that message standardization is more prevalent for advertising campaigns across western markets than for those spanning both western and eastern markets. The author concluded that the developed western nations offer greater opportunities for standardization by sitting relatively close together on a sliding scale, but refrained from prescribing the adoption of a singular approach.

While western nations may reflect homogeneity economically and at the macro level of social organizations, there are notable cultural differences between the countries that were identified by Hofstede's (1980) study, and to which international marketers should pay heed before executing a fully standardized strategy.

Researchers in international advertising have woven multidisciplinary theories into their studies in order to more fully comprehend the cultural dimensions at play within the subject of analysis (Labarbera, Weingard, and Yorkston 1998). In a study of European firms, Fink, Neyer, and Kolling (2007) noted that although there were some shared cultural values between some national groups, there was a variance in the cultural standards that dictated the behavioural translation of those values. To address the need to understand the cross and joint effects of cultural values and standards, the authors added a third dimension of personality traits, drawn from the psychology literature; this suggests that the latter may highlight individual response variations compared to other members of the same cultural group.

The study by Javalgi, Cutler, and White (1994) on the use and frequency of status and quality appeals in print advertising in Japan, Taiwan, and South Korea suggested that a regional communication strategy may not be appropriate across all markets within a region, at least with regard to these specific countries in the Pacific basin. The use of status appeals was found to be similar but the use of quality appeals differed significantly, with Korea using the most quality appeals and Taiwan using the fewest. Similarly, Tai (1998) found that across four Chinese markets (Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore, and China), neither a fully standardized nor a fully differentiated strategy prevailed. This may also suggest that other dimensions come into play with regard to the brand traits, such as the industry, country

of origin, positioning, product maturity, etc. However, while there is evidence of cultural similarities at regional levels (within the Hofstede [1980] dimensions framework), there often exist socioeconomic differences within the geographic region that may equally impact consumer behaviours (Wiarda 2007; de Mooij 2011).

Despite the suggestion from the findings of Javalgi, Cutler, and White (1994), that firms should be wary of presumptions of regional cultural homogeneity, Tai and Pae (2002) noted an increasing trend by multinational firms in the reverse direction. Specifically, firms appear to adopt a regional approach with regard to their brand communications, especially in Asia (Tai 1998), so as to appeal to a group of markets with a consistent message and minimize the level of customization required. Tai and Pae (2002) also point to the fact that in rapidly developing markets such as China, consumers tend to exhibit more favourable attitudes towards foreign-sourced rather than highly localized advertising (excluding the issue of local language translations), for what are obviously not local brands/products. This may serve to add credibility to the 'foreign-ness' of the brand, and that it is from the original source rather than a local imitation.

Although the findings hint at universal aspirational values of life enhancement, Tai and Pae's (2002) study may arguably indicate an increasing level of 'cosmopolitanism' rather than a globally perceived viewpoint, as consumers become more exposed to international markets and products. Tai and Pae's (2002) findings additionally support the notion that consumers reject inconsistencies in localized versus globalized advertising that does not fulfill their expectations or understanding of the primary brand (Backhaus, Muehlefeld, and van Doorn 2001).

There is a large and broad-ranging body of research studies in this field, however, the conclusions indicate that different levels of cultural influences will affect interactions and levels of behaviour at different points in time, rendering the generalizability of various study findings difficult to convert into applicable models and tools. Although conceptually discussed in some detail by Leung et al. (2005), the authors concede that the issue of cultural convergence or divergence in the context of globalization warrants further investigation and recommend a multi-method approach in an effort to more fully probe the causal relationships.

2.2.5.2. The Influence of Culture on Advertising Standardization Decisions

Nelson and Paek (2007) conducted a multi-market study to explore the factors influencing advertising strategies and tactics in women's consumer magazines and argued that the level of standardization of global brands could be determined by the type of industry, by revealing some consistency of application between brands within the same industry.

However, even studies advocating a standardized approach across countries that reflect similar cultural and economic traits (Sriram and Pradeep 1991; Domzal and Kernan 1993) exhort that due care and attention be paid with respect to the extent of those similarities and in recognition of other differences that identify the uniqueness of those societies (Karade, Almurshidee, and Al-Olayan 2006; Rojas-Mendez, Davies, and Madran 2009). For example, although there are many shared similarities between the respective cultures of the U.S. and the UK, there are distinct differences between the advertising executions deployed, even for the same brands. This point to the more subtle distinctions between the two cultures, such as the responses to the hard sell versus the soft sell approach (Nevett 1992; Toncar 2001).

Research conducted by Nevett (1992) comparing the UK and the U.S., as two nations that possess various social and cultural similarities, revealed that there are significant differences in the presentation of the advertising content and creative approach. Nevett (1992) attributes this in part to the more subtle cultural differences between the two, exemplified by British use of self-deprecating humour and inherently British cultural references, such as eccentricity and the persistence of class divisions. At the same time, the author also highlights the variance in the evolution of television advertising that contributes to the more subtle style of UK advertisements – in the U.S. the television medium and television advertising arrived simultaneously, whereas in the UK the commercial channels arrived later and advertising was initially found to be intrusive (to this day, the original state-owned BBC national channel remains commercial-free in the UK).

Nevett's (1992) findings were supported by Caillat and Mueller's (1996) study of beer advertising across the two nations. The authors most notably observed differences in the rhetorical style used (the direct approach in the U.S. commercials versus a style of indirect speech applied in the UK commercials), the dominant cultural values portrayed (U.S. individualism/independence and modernity, versus British tradition/history and eccentricity), and the occasion for product usage derived from different cultural attitudes towards beer consumption (stemming from different histories, e.g., a period of prohibition and conservative approach in the U.S., versus a long tradition embodying beer drinking as a regular part of the daily ritual in the UK).

Multinational marketers have realized that even when an advertisement can be standardized because of similar expectations about products, cultural differences will make the process difficult, not least in terms of the acceptance or even comprehension of the

message being transmitted (Banerjee 1994). In contrast, the localized approach allows the use of many frames of reference, through varied message content, layout, symbols, and themes. Overall, the findings suggest that human wants and needs might be universal, but they must be addressed in specific ways that resonate at the local level.

Language is an important aspect of cultural identity (Craig and Douglas 2006) and constitutes a powerful tool in support of the brand's national identity, as observed in the frequent use of well-known French and English words in foreign texts. At the same time, it is a complex element to utilize effectively in advertising. The reader is not necessarily required to understand the foreign text, but should recognize the language and comprehend the symbolic connotations. For marketers seeking to utilize a standardized advertisement across multiple markets, the different languages, dialects and nuances, supplemented by the accompanying visual modes of communication (hand gesticulation, facial expressions), raise barriers that impede effective idiomatic translation and have implications for the standardization of appeals, especially when also trying to communicate the brand personality.

Similarly, even though humour may be perceived as the ideal route to convey the brand's personality, its use is extremely problematic in cross-cultural situations (Alden, Hoyer, and Lee 1993; Lee and Carter 2005), since its deep roots in language and culture render certain humour types 'untranslatable', and this is true regardless of whether humour is used as the main appeal or only at the execution level.

Given the diverse views regarding standardization versus adaptation of message appeals, a popular approach is to standardize the strategy but not the execution (Hite and Fraser 1988; Kanso 1992; Kanso and Nelson 2002). That is, marketers may develop a

universal campaign in terms of the appeal (e.g., focus on attributes or lifestyle aspirations, use of humour or expert endorsement), but modify the execution to ensure that the appropriate text and visual references are deployed to communicate the desired message. This accounts for the very real possibility of varying interpretations of the meaning of colours and symbols, compatibility with consumers' lifestyles and their environment, high levels of information content in low-context cultures, and other such factors (Kanso and Nelson 2002; de Mooij 2011).

2.2.5.3. The Reverse Effects of Advertising on Culture

The concepts of cultural borrowing, cultural pluralism and cultural adaptation have been much discussed in the literature (e.g., Smith 1990; Moriarty and Duncan 1991; Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999; Craig and Douglas 2006). Nevertheless, the potential role of marketers to act as drivers of cultural change through brand positioning and communication activities warrants further attention. In a comparative study of Japanese versus American advertisements, Mueller (1987) revealed some unexpected results regarding the group consensus appeals: contrary to extant theories of culture, the Japanese magazines were found to employ more individualistic appeals and the U.S. more group consensus appeals. Mueller (1987) attributes this to the fact that as economies interact ever more frequently, the use of appeals and marketing practices in general may have an impact on cultures that are open to the adoption of values from other cultures. Moreover, the magnitude of change is attributable to the degree of exposure to other cultures and will subsequently vary at the individual rather than national level, creating even wider diversity within a market.

The importance of an awareness of the cultural heritage of a sub-group within a nation-state and how, therefore, cultural differences may exist, was illustrated by So's

(2004) investigation of women's print advertising in Hong Kong and Australia. As a part of the British Empire until 1997 and its prolonged exposure to western influences, Hong Kong differs from China and this confounded some of the expectations of So's (2004) comparative study in its relatively high use of emotional appeals. This additionally supports the theory that the development stage of a market is also a critical factor in determining communications strategies (Chandy et al. 2001), as well as endorsing criticisms of the application of artificially-drawn national borders to define cultural groups, and drawing assumptions without an understanding of the history and cultural heritage of sub-groups within the nation-state boundaries (Gefen and Heart 2006; Morris-Suzuki 2008; Prime, Obadia, and Vida 2009). Furthermore, So's (2004) study lends support to the theory that cultures are themselves influenced by the appeals used in advertising and that cultural change can itself be directed (Deshpande, Farley, and Webster 1993; Ha, Karande, and Singhapakdi 2003).

Consumer culture theorists have also revealed how consumers are subtly invited to covet specific identity and lifestyle ideals through consistent communication messages over time (Ford, Mueller, and Taylor 2011). Arnould and Thompson (2005) describe the mosaic of sociohistoric influences and social dynamics that shape consumer experiences. The authors reflect on how consumer culture theory research has demonstrated that the lives of many consumers are constructed around multiple realities that inform individualized consumption patterns, and the critical role of the mass media in directing visions of consumer identity and lifestyle ideals. Deighton and Grayson (1995) illustrate how consumers may even be willingly complicit in their own seduction – challenging the

assumption that a natural alliance exists between consumers and consumer activists against the power wielded by large corporations.

Similarly, Smith (1990) posited that since national cultures are man-made rather than natural constructs, and implicitly timebound, there exists an opportunity for a proactive approach to directing the evolution of elements of national cultures over time. Both Smith (1990) and Appadurai (1990) acknowledge the power of the popular media as conduits in the communication of ideas, to influence consumers and a number of studies have recorded behavioural changes by the protagonists according to cross-cultural exposure (Deshpande, Farley, and Webster 1993; Tse, Francis, and Walls 1994; Das, Dharwadkar, and Brandes 2008). Cognizant of the inter-relationships between product brands and place associations, Holt (2003) maintains that the iconic brands may suffer incalculable damage upon significant shifts in national identities. It therefore behoves the marketing manager to try to shape rather than predict that change in the cultural values upon which the brand's communication traits are built.

This potentially poses tremendous mutual benefits for public policy makers and brand marketers to work together on the creation and maintenance of elements of their respective place and product brands.

2.2.6. Other Factors Influencing Strategic Decision-Making

In contrast to the other culturally-based studies outlined above, Okazaki, Mueller, and Taylor (2010) identified a notable degree of homogeneity in the advertising approach adopted for the culturally heterogeneous markets of Japan and the U.S. with regard to a soft-sell or hard-sell approach. The authors drew particular attention to the fact that there exist

multiple dimensions (including culture, brand, industry, etc.) that need to be incorporated in the standardization decision.

In their study of American and Japanese firms operating in the European Union (EU), Okazaki, Taylor and Doh (2007) found that firms which believe that members of the EU are converging were more likely to deploy a standardized advertising approach. In addition, the authors noted that the goal of building brand equity was a key factor determining the pursuit of a standardized strategy, as the desire to create a uniform brand image and appeal across multiple markets superseded notions of market convergence.

International advertising research has uncovered a multitude of factors that affect consumer response to a communication strategy, including product lifecycle stage, market maturity, industry sector, and country of origin (as outlined in Table 2.1). It is beholden to the marketer to uncover all the necessary information pertaining to the situation and define the strategic approach accordingly (Chandra, Griffith, and Ryans 2002; Craig and Douglas 2006).

Brand familiarity is essential for local acceptance and for implementation of the highest level of advertising standardization, especially as a well-known brand can partially offset the obstacles in introducing a new product in an immature market, as well as reducing the need to develop a whole new communications strategy (Wind 1986; Hite and Fraser 1988; Yin 1999). A survey of 150 U.S. multinationals demonstrated that firms with a well-known and accepted brand name are more likely to be successful with standardized advertising approaches than firms without such acceptance (Hite and Fraser 1988).

However, global advertising standardization makes sense only when a firm's international marketing strategy centres on the development of brands that are similarly

positioned in every market. Well-established brands have important advantages in advertising, as consumers pay more attention to, and better remember product information for, familiar brands compared to unfamiliar brands (Moorman 1990; MacInnis, Moorman, and Jaworski 1991; Kent and Allen 1994). More extensive processing of advertising information for familiar brands, in turn, can enhance memorability and reduce advertising interference.

Allen, Machleit, and Kleine (1992) found that advertising does not exert a strong influence on brand attitude for mature brands – although Yoo, Bang, and Kim (2009) stress the importance of consistency in repeated and long-running advertising campaigns to maintain the brand image. At the other end of the scale, a localized approach is more suitable to advertise less familiar brands in foreign markets. As consumers pay less attention to advertisements for such brands, execution styles must be more creative and tailored to local tastes. Therefore, brand familiarity is essential for local acceptance, and for implementing the highest level of advertising standardization (Tai and Pae 2002).

Lee and Carter (2005) suggest that positioning strategy, which includes the message styles and content for various international markets, may be adapted according to the lifecycle stages of the goods. Positioning tends to be informational in the introductory stages and becomes increasingly emotional as the product/service moves towards maturity. In later stages a consumer's awareness of the need and knowledge about the product are both well established, affording the marketer the opportunity to utilize lifestyle-oriented styles of communication to invoke the desired response from consumers, as well as create a platform for the introduction of new products from the same brand stable. That the same products can be found at different stages of their lifecycle across different markets, as multinational

companies expand their product portfolio across different regional locations, compounds the dilemma of the standardization decision.

Many other country specific factors are found to have implications on the choice as well as the potential effectiveness of the selected advertising appeal (Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Chandy et al. 2001; Craig and Douglas 2006). Studies exploring the different factors, however, often neglect to consider the extent to which the cultural evolution of the market is entwined with the influential power of these factors.

For instance, even legal constraints (Kelley and Turley 2004; Hoek, Gendall, and Calfee 2004; Cateora and Graham 2005; Nelson and Paek 2008) are subject to change over time to reflect the needs/values of the society at large. This has important implications on the choice of appeal for a product in a country as well as the feasibility of standardizing the message appeals used by international companies, even if many of the aforementioned criteria conducive to a standardized approach (market maturity, lifecycle stage, brand familiarity) are met.

2.2.7. International Advertising Research

A critical dilemma facing managers of global brands is how to treat the core brand message across multiple markets exhibiting diverse cultural traits, and at varying levels of market development. This has inspired researchers to try to provide solutions to the multiple challenges facing international marketers (Theodosiou and Leonidou 2003). In turn, this has given rise to considerable debate on whether, or to what degree, marketers should aim to standardize the presentation of their product portfolio across a diverse portfolio of markets.

This branch of study has generated a large body of cross-cultural advertising research that examines advertising appeals from various types of media campaigns, and draws conclusions based on the voluminous consumer response research. However, there is little understanding of the antecedent factors that drive the creation of the advertisements, in terms of executional components, by the advertisers.

2.2.7.1. The Scope of International Advertising Research

Research in this field has been especially prolific in the area of advertising communications, on the premise that this is the part of marketing to which most consumers are exposed and that advertising styles reflect the market trends and value systems derived from extensive market research by the corporate advertiser (e.g., Zandpour et al. 1994; Kanso and Nelson 2002; Zou 2005; Nelson and Paek 2007).

The proposition that message appeals and advertising strategies tailored to individual cultures are more effective is substantiated in the literature (Rutigliano 1986), despite the persuasive pull of cost efficiencies, brand control, and the exploitation of good ideas in the argument for a standardized approach (Kanso and Nelson 2006). The ensuing standardization versus adaptation debate has generated a plethora of research studies (e.g., Hite and Fraser 1988; James and Hill 1991; Kanso 1992; Samiee et al. 2003), but without yet reaching a common consensus (Ryans, Griffith, and White 2003; Taylor 2005).

Advocates of standardization in advertising suggest that the basic needs and desires of consumers everywhere are the same and they can therefore be persuaded with universal appeals (Fatt 1967; Levitt 1983). Indeed, some values have been identified as culturally universal within the context of specific product categories, most notably within the fragrance and cosmetics branches of the beauty industry that stress the importance of appearance

(Harris and Attour 2003; Oyedele, Minor, and Ghanem 2009). Accordingly, the advertising appeals that employ such values can be global in nature, notwithstanding minor variances at the execution level to conform to local sensibilities. For instance, the notion of improving one's appearance as propagated by the beauty industry may allude to conformity with the social group, or individual self-enhancement, depending on the specificities of the cultural environment.

The proponents of adaptation, on the other hand, argue that consumers differ from country to country and marketers must tailor their messages to specific cultures if they are to be successful (Mueller 1987). This is largely supported by the wide-ranging use of Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Zinkhan 1994; Okazaki and Mueller 2007), which highlights the influence of cultural differences between nations in forging their interpretation of message cues. These streams of research have focused on the reactive managing of diverse multi-cultural markets from the perspective of the company. Other streams of research have suggested that the expansion of brands across international markets is itself diluting cultural diversity, leading towards a more homogenized, or 'globalized' consumer.

A significant part of the investigations into international advertising focuses on the types of appeals deployed to communicate the core message (Javalgi, Cutler, and White 1994; Frazer, Sheehan, and Patti 2002). Defining the appeal construct has also been subject to debate when extending the classification schemes across culturally diverse markets. The field of advertising appeals exhibits a plethora of fragmented research studies due to the assorted definitions of variables being studied (Taylor 2005; Okazaki, Mueller, and Taylor 2010), as well as the fact that the researcher is additionally confronted with issues of culture, language and linguistic nuances in the interpretation of the advertising materials. The

inherent complexity in the definition of the construct of advertising appeals (as discussed in Section 2.2.3.) has motivated researchers to focus on comparative studies of the use of specific appeals across different international markets (e.g., Weinberger and Spotts 1989; Nevett 1992; Toncar 2001; So 2004; Teng and Laroche 2006).

However, studies have largely focused on observations of existing campaigns, or investigated the responses of consumers to the type of appeal as identified by the researcher, without cross-referencing between the sender and recipient of the advertising message (Harris and Attour 2003; Kanso and Nelson 2006). This researcher-based evaluation of the purpose of the advertisements implies a high degree of assumptions with regard to the marketer's rationale for deploying the specific appeal, and with which to assess the appropriateness of the audience response. The lack of studies examining the marketer's perspective, and identifying the factors that contribute towards the communication strategy decision, constitutes a significant gap in the field of international advertising research.

2.2.7.2. International Advertising Research Methodologies

As within many disciplines, professional bias plays a role in selection of the methodology deployed (Segalla, Fischer, and Sandner 2000; Letherby 2004), and while the subsequent limitations to the generalizability of the research findings are acknowledged, the contribution to theoretical development is derived from maximizing the output of the data gathered.

In order to minimize debate on the validity of the diverse findings generated by the resulting fragmentation in styles and construct definitions, scholars have repeatedly called for the selection of the 'best' methodology appropriate to the research question in hand rather than the automatic application of the personally or discipline-preferred option (Morgan and

Smircich 1980; Letherby 2004; Ponterotto 2005). However, the defence of preferred methodologies has subsequently centred the discussion on how ‘scientific’ the research method should be and divided researchers into quantitative versus qualitative camps (Carlson 2008; Kover 2008). Morgan and Smircich (1980) denounce the futility of the polarized debate and argue that while quantitative methods provide a useful snapshot of the social world at a point in time, they are inadequate in capturing the dynamics of an open-ended process such as social evolution.

Within the field of international advertising, two general methodological approaches are widely employed. The first is the “laboratory” type of study that exposes subjects to advertising stimuli (appeals) and then measures responses to them (Chandy et al. 2001; Jung and Kellaris 2004; Cotte, Coulter, and Moore 2005). Such studies are generally concerned with studying the effectiveness of specific appeals and the factors influencing the effectiveness of appeals. Moreover, this approach often engages student subjects who are already somewhat attuned to the concept/purpose of the research, which inevitably raises concerns on the generalizability of the findings through the artificial and, to a degree, forced nature of the response environment (LaTour and Pitts 1989; Dahl, Frankenburger, and Manchanda 2003).

The second methodological approach, which has proved the most popular (Samiee and Jeong 1994; Taylor 2005; Ford, Mueller, and Taylor 2011), involves the analysis of the advertising content of various media and has been extensively used to make comparisons of specific advertising appeals across product categories, geographical regions, cultures, gender, media channels, and so on (e.g., Holbrook and Lehmann 1980; Cutler and Javalgi 1993; Kelley and Turley 2004; Nelson and Paek 2007; Oyedele et al. 2009). This

methodology focuses on the message itself rather than on the advertiser or consumers by using a systematic and quantitative approach to analyze the information contained in the message (Kelley and Turley 2004; Marshall and Roberts 2008). The goal of the content analysis is to survey objectively and systematically a given set of communications, and to quantitatively represent it in such a manner that analysis of the data might lead to attitudinal or behavioural generalizations (Samiee and Jeong 1994).

The obvious shortcoming of this approach is the lack of reflection of the consumer's subjective experience with the advertisement (Abernethy and Franke 1996), which is derived from the consumer's response to the appeal tactic, and consequent lack of effectiveness predictability. Taylor (2005) argues that the field now requires more sophisticated and multi-method research designs in order to advance theoretical development from the platform of descriptive results created by the extensive use of content analysis methodologies. Craig and Douglas (2001; 2006) also outline the difficulties in identifying the unit of analysis in cross-cultural research, which is augmented by the increasing emergence of multi-cultural societies, noting that a multiplicity of cultural influences must be incorporated in the research design to establish generalizability of the findings.

The above methodological approaches have delivered a vast array of studies examining the various appeals that have been deployed and the cross-cultural comparisons of specific types of advertising appeals (examples are included in Table 2.3 above). However, investigation has largely focused on the perspective of the respondent and the potential behavioural ramifications of different advertising styles across multiple cultures, and neglected to explore the decision-making factors of practitioners that creates the

diversity of advertising approaches. Criticism has been directed at the lack of development of advertising theories that lend themselves to an instrumental application by marketing practitioners (Cornelissen and Lock 2002), which may partly be derived from the identified gap in academic-practitioner research in marketing and advertising research (Bartunek, Rynes, and Daft 2001; McKenzie et al. 2002; Tapp 2004; Nyilasy and Reid 2009).

In designing this study, some of the criticisms outlined above with regard to international advertising research have been taken on board. As a result, an inductive approach (described in detail in Chapter 3) has been adopted with which to analyze the managerial perspective on when, how, and to what extent place associations may be deployed in international branding strategies.

2.3. Place in International Brand Marketing

The final part of the literature review summarizes current research in the field of place-related marketing, with particular reference to its relationship with brand and product marketing. Places have been consistently used to reinforce elements of brand imagery over the years (Tungate 2007), and retain their relevance in the twenty-first century (Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, and Palihawadana 2011; Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic 2011a). This is in part due to the efforts of place marketers to maintain and reinforce differentiated place identities (Kavaratzis 2005; Iversen and Hem 2008; Hankinson 2010), and thus apply brand marketing tactics that may in turn complement the positioning desired by brand marketers.

2.3.1. Evolution of Academic Research

Research exploring the construct of place has captured the imagination of a wide variety of disciplines, investigating the different abstract and physical dimensions from varied perspectives. In international marketing, the primary focal areas of interest are from the integrated perspectives of humanistic geography and sociology, which identify physical places that are imbued with subjective meanings formed by cultural beliefs, as well as symbols of personal identity. The meanings attributed to specific places (countries, regions, cities, types of landscapes, such as urban/rural/coastal, and so on) are socially constructed by stakeholders and influence attitudes at the group and individual level (Kotler, Haider, and Rein 1993).

The effects of economic and cultural globalization have triggered increased competition between cities, regions, and countries to capture foreign investment, visitors and residents to the locations (Kavaratzis 2005). In addition to proactive marketing efforts by public policy makers, attitudes towards places are created and evolve over time, according to experiences, knowledge, and exposure to the respective places (Nagashima 1970), and also as a result of exposure to people associated with them (within or outside of the specific environment), products, and/or cultural symbols perceived to be representative of the place (Hannerz 1991).

While the detailed perceptions of places are highly individualized, there also exists a generalized collection of attributes that comprise the overall image of geographic places. From initial studies in the 1960s, research into the power of country images as extrinsic cues that contribute towards consumers' product evaluations (Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999; Kotler and Gertner 2002) has gathered pace over the past fifty years (Papadopoulos 2004).

Agrawal and Kamakura (1999) stress that country of origin is only one of many extrinsic and intrinsic cues that inform consumer product evaluations at the point of purchase, and there is empirical evidence pointing to other place-related moderating factors that influence the final purchase decision, such as ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma 1987; Lee, Hong, and Lee 2003) and animosity (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998), as well as the level of availability of comparable alternative products from the same or equally-renowned source places.

However, the majority of research studies exploring consumer responses to product-place associations confirm the importance of product origin perceptions in developing product evaluations, especially in the absence of broader product/brand information (Ahmed, d'Astous, and El Adraoui 1994; Al-Sulaiti and Baker 1998). Moreover, the activation of country stereotypes in product evaluations may occur at the subconscious level, rather than as part of a considered purchase decision-making process (Liu and Johnson 2005).

In recent years the interest in expanding the construct of 'country' images to other types of places has contributed to the evolution of place marketing research into the place branding stream (Kavaratzis 2005; Hanna and Rowley 2008; Zenker and Martin 2011). This has piqued the interest of scholars examining tourism and destination fields of study and largely developed in parallel to product marketing research streams. As the domain of product branding research deepened into investigations of brands as assets, so the domain of place branding gained impetus and branched out into spheres of destination branding (tourism) and nation branding (investment), capturing the interest of public policy makers in particular (Kavaratzis 2005; Hankinson 2010). Whereas the research into the effects of

product-country images (PCI) has concentrated primarily on the buyer's perspective, the field of place branding has drawn attention to the seller's perspective, in terms of examining how places may be marketed as brands (Iversen and Hem 2008; Stock 2009).

Although comparisons have been drawn with product branding, place branding presents a far more complex challenge. A product brand may embody multiple symbols to characterize its 'personality' (Aaker 1991) or provide a context in which to create an identity, but together these symbols compound to create an overall image with which the target audience can relate. Many place branding scholars have drawn upon Aaker's (1991, 1996) emphasis on the prerequisite for a successful brand to forge a close emotional relationship with the target consumer (Kavaratzis 2005). However, a place image constitutes a much broader structure of multiple layers that invoke different meanings in different contexts, due to the broad variety of potential buyers to whom it is trying to appeal, e.g., visitors, students, businesses, workers, investors, overseas importers, etc. (Braun, Eshuis, and Klijn 2014).

Product marketers may therefore select specific place names or visual symbols that connote more precisely the elements of the broader image with which the brand is intended to be associated. These may include, for example, the innovative and cutting-edge dynamics of Paris or London, rather than the more traditional and history-steeped dimensions of their respective nation-state cultures.

The parallels between product and place branding indicate that there is potentially a powerful, mutually beneficial relationship between product marketers, on the one hand, who draw upon the relevant elements of place images (within the context of their product industry or brand positioning) to add value/credibility to their brand image, and place

marketers, on the other, who may equally exploit the renowned and highly-regarded brand associations to add value to the place image (Anholt 2000; Gotsi, Lopez, and Andriopoulos 2011). However, as the field of place branding research is still relatively in its infancy (Iversen and Hem 2008), this domain is underexplored.

2.3.2. Globalization: The Impact on Identity and Attachment to Place

The environmental psychology literature emphasizes the positive, affective bonds between individuals and specific places that are developed over time as a result of evolutionary, sociocultural interactions (Griffiths 2005). The process of globalization generates a series of cultural flows through the conjoining of individual units of cultural norms and values (Appadurai 1990), that in part stimulate positive and also negative reactions through the enactment of identity reinforcement. Scholars have argued that self-identity is one of the critical output components directing the evolution of culture and is often manifested in material possessions (Belk 1988; Ravasi and Schultz 2006). Concern over the allegedly unstoppable forces of globalization highlights the threat posed by the importation of foreign cultural products towards diminishing local/national identities, and potentially stimulating conflict through the ensuing ‘cultural competition’ or ‘cultural imperialism’ led by dominant global brands (Schlesinger 1987; Robertson 1990; Smith 1990).

A number of the former colonies of developed nations have sought to reassert their unique identities, in order to respond to the perceived threat of cultural imperialism and to nurture a sense of attachment (rather than anomie) among their residents. Nations such as Canada and Australia, for example, have embedded the protection of their indigenous cultural heritage within their newly constructed constitutions, at the same time

acknowledging the socially heterogeneous reality within the defined national borders. Arantes (2007) highlights that while there exist institutions to bring nations together economically via international free trade agreements and so on, there are at the same time institutions charged with safeguarding cultural heritage to protect local rights and traditions, such as UNESCO, for example.

The multiple concepts of self illustrated by the multiple identities that exist in a multicultural society are further accentuated through immigration. Research has indicated that immigrants will conform with the wider cultural norms of the new host country through a process of acculturation, in order to assimilate with the lifestyle elements that stimulated the immigration in the first place. However, the need to maintain and re-assert the individual ethnic identity that is at the core of their original, and more deeply-rooted set of beliefs and values still remains. This may manifest itself in the possession of, or a demonstrated preference towards, products from the home nation that is counter to the general attitudes of the host nation (Mehta and Belk 1991; Cleveland and Chang 2009). Moreover, immigrants' cultural inheritance will continue to inform attitudes to and perceptions of other nations, until greater exposure to those nations serves to modify previously-held views. The evolution of these views will inevitably change at a different pace to those in the home nation as a result of the influences of the host nation.

2.3.3. Place Branding and Place-based Product Branding

Griffiths (2005) highlights the congruity between consumers' bonding relationships with both products and places, and posits that Belk's (1988) concept of the extended self may connect place, as well as material possessions, to self-identity. There is, therefore, a clear

synergy between place branding and product branding, in terms of creating a widely-understood image from the core features of the place to develop the brand equity that resonates at an emotional level with the intended audience. Zenker and Martin (2011) define a place brand as,

“a network of associations in the consumer’s mind based on the visual, verbal, and behavioural expression of a place, which is embodied through the aims, communication, values, and the general culture of the place’s stakeholders and the overall place design” (p. 33)

Therefore, according to this definition, a place brand comprises the perception of the place in the minds of the target audience(s), derived from a combination of the communicated expressions and the actual physics of the place. This is akin to how Fournier (1998) defined a brand as “simply a collection of perceptions held in the mind of the consumer” (1998: 345).

The multiple messages inherent in the development of a place brand, and the diversity of stakeholders in the subsequent image created, render the sustaining of the desired place brand imagery notoriously difficult to control – since this is forged through both primary and secondary communications, as well as all the activities and events pertaining to the place (Anholt 2009). However, as Hankinson (2004) argues, the consumer also plays a role as a co-producer of the place brand, which affords a powerful opportunity for product marketers able to tap into this emotional connection by means of the appropriate utilization of place associations.

Anholt (2005) highlights the power of branding as a means to forge a collective identity for the communities constituting a place, to attract the investors and visitors

necessary to sustain its development. The author equally warns of the complexity inherent in the branding of a multi-faceted structure that competes with other cities, regions, and nations to attract the attention of a diverse audience, made increasingly possible through globalization. Furthermore, Anholt (2005) posits that public policy makers should set the components of their respective place brands at the heart of public policy decisions, in the same way that corporations align their activities and core values with their brand identity to perpetuate a consistent image, and thus build trust and goodwill amongst the target audience. However, as with product brands, the development of a positive brand image that is sustainable over time (and can withstand occasional negative publicity) takes years to build and requires constant attention to maintain (Anholt 2000, 2005).

Many of the successful international brands also draw upon their origins to convey an image of reliability and trustworthiness (e.g., Lancôme Paris, Audi's "Vorsprung durch Technik" advertising campaign in non-German speaking countries). This presents a mutual opportunity for both international brand marketers and public policy makers, in the wake of increased external competition on both sides, to engage together in the development of imagery that supports both parties, rather than passively observe the other party's activities and hope that they both converge.

2.3.4. Place Associations and Products

As early as the eighteenth century, as producers sought to heighten memorability and differentiation from their competitors while enhancing the perceived value of their products, the evolution of the concept of branding extended from the use of manufacturer's names and symbols (logos) to wider associations, such as places of origin, famous people, animals, etc.

(Farquhar 1989; Tungate 2007). The early attempts to assign a place as a symbol of quality to reinforce the manufacturer's credibility (e.g., Scotch whisky) has been perpetuated throughout the twentieth century, and research confirms that consumers associate different countries with different degrees of quality, reliability, and performance for specific product categories (Agarwal and Sikri 1996; Mohamad et al. 2000; Phau and Prendergast 2000; Papadopoulos and Heslop 2002).

Han and Terpstra (1988) elaborate that consumers use two categories of information cues to evaluate products: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic cues such as taste, design, and performance usually cannot be evaluated before the use of a product. Extrinsic cues, such as price, brand name, and warranty, however, can be evaluated without any prior knowledge of the particular product, and serve to inform the completion of the purchasing decision-making process. Business customers (Ahmed, d'Astous, and El Adraoui 1994; Nes and Ghauri 1998), as well as consumers, use these cues to infer product quality and purchase value during their purchasing decision-making (Nebenzahl and Jaffe 1996; Agrawal and Kamakura 1999). The link between a product and its country of origin is one of these extrinsic cues (Han and Terpstra 1988; Ahmed, d'Astous, and El Adraoui 1994; Papadopoulos and Heslop 2003).

Country image is a combination of variables such as representative products, national characteristics, economic and political background, history, and tradition (Nagashima, 1970). This construct is generated through "mass communication, personal experience, and views of national opinion leaders" (Nagashima 1970: 68). An extensive body of research over the past forty years has illustrated that consumer-held perceptions of place/country images translate into consumer behaviour (Agrawal 1995; Papadopoulos 2004), especially in

the absence of other cues to differentiate between competing products and brands (Han and Terpstra 1988). Han (1990) maintained that the use of country images has a ‘halo effect’ on the brand that informs attitudes towards it, and that this strategic tool is especially prevalent in the presentation of image-led products, such as perfumes and clothing.

The emergent body of product-country image research (PCI) has often been referred to as the ‘made in’ tag on products. This “‘made in’ image is the picture, the reputation, [and] the stereotype that businessmen [sic] and consumers attach to products of a specific country” (Nagashima 1970: 68). Since the mid 1960’s over 1000 major works have been published on the subject, including more than 400 in a variety of prominent academic journals (Papadopoulos 2004). The majority of this research has demonstrated a strong positive relationship between product views and country views, and in fact the country view may inform other cues, such as price expectations, according to the declared country of manufacture (Papadopoulos and Heslop 2003).

The literature on PCI has also demonstrated that there is a considerable connection between the views of existing products and new products from a particular country. The association that consumers make to a country with respect to quality, reliability, and performance can have significant implication for product acceptance. Papadopoulos (2000) observed that “‘made in’ Germany or Japan can greatly enhance brand equity, especially for products that do not also have high-profile names like Mercedes or Toyota” (Papadopoulos 2000: 30).

Research conducted by Agarwal and Sikri (1996) found that the relevant well-known country image dimensions for a specific product category were transferred to and influenced evaluations of new products. The same study also revealed that when the similarities

between a well recognized existing product and a new product were high, the transference of beliefs to the new product was also high (Agarwal and Sikri 1996). This allows for similar products from the same country to benefit from the positive view of existing products. This can be leveraged by marketers to form connections between accepted, proven commodities and new, unknown ones.

However, this relationship is highly attribute-specific. For instance, technology may be evaluated differently to fashion for a specific country, and subsequently each of these dimensions may be evaluated differently across different criteria such as quality, performance, design, or value (Han and Terpstra 1988; Laroche et al. 2003). Throughout PCI research, many different dimensions have been used as evaluation criteria. However, the study by Mohamad et al. (2000) identified that the dimensions of innovativeness (technological/engineering advances), design (appearance, style), prestige (exclusivity), and workmanship (quality, reliability, durability) predominate.

The product-country image effects vis-à-vis developing countries are particularly influential and significant for product evaluation. Research has demonstrated that developed countries are evaluated more positively as countries of design than developing countries, and the more complex a product (computers, technology, etc.), the more important the country of design becomes (Ahmed, d'Astous, and El Adraoui 1994; Al-Sulaiti and Baker 1998). However, the opposite occurs for countries of assembly and manufacture, where developing countries are evaluated higher and commensurate expectations of price are created.

Considerable research has been conducted on the effect of country images on the reception of products in foreign markets, but the implications that country cues have on local markets are just as important. There is empirical evidence to support the notion that

consumers have a tendency to evaluate domestic products more positively when there is a comparative local product to the imported version (Okechuku 1994; Mohamed et al. 2005; Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008). Many consumers favour domestic products even when they are more expensive for reasons of nationalism, the belief in domestic superiority, or concerns with international servicing of products (Han and Terpstra 1988).

The consumer's preference for domestic goods can be explained partly by the concept of consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Consumer ethnocentrism is defined as the belief that purchasing imported products is simply wrong because "it hurts the domestic economy, causes loss of jobs, and is plainly unpatriotic" (Shimp and Sharma 1987: 280). However, the accentuation of domestic credentials is a complex area: for instance, a foreign marketer may want to highlight the domestic manufacturing/assembly elements of the products to gain an advantage over fully-imported competitors (Okechuku 1994; Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008), while domestic marketers may be resistant to push local goods for fear that they may harm exports (Baker and Ballington 2002). Moreover, the modification of places of origin may disrupt a globally-oriented brand communications strategy, if this is not carefully managed at the execution stage.

Studies have also revealed a number of other moderating factors that contribute to consumers' perceptions of the relationship between a product and its country of origin: knowledge of other products from the same country of origin (Agarwal and Sikri 1996); previously held views on the country of origin (Papadopoulos and Heslop 2002); familiarity with the place of origin and/or product brand (Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985; Han 1990). Papadopoulos (2000) also reflects that increased exposure will, over time, influence changes in consumers' views about a particular product and country: as consumers become

more familiar with the products and countries, their potentially inaccurate images will be replaced with more accurate ones.

Nevertheless, the appropriate application of place images constitutes a powerful strategic tool with which to reinforce the desired brand image (Baker and Ballington 2002): with the implicit prerequisite that the image conveyed by the relevant place symbols matches that of the desired brand image, and translates equally favourably across all the target markets. Han (1990) argues that country image may in fact play a more significant role than product attributes in determining consumer attitudes towards a brand ostensibly from that country, in that consumers create summary product constructs using country image as an index with which to make a decision in the face of either insufficient or excessive product information.

The effectiveness of a country image strategy relies, however, upon whether the associated country images are perceived equally around the world, which is not fully supported by the research. Marketers must also take into consideration other factors, such as country-specific animosity, that may moderate the impact of country-related brand values (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998), as well as probing a more explicit comprehension of the underlying factors that contribute towards the product evaluation, and that may also vary across cultures. The study of Indian consumer attitudes by Batra et al. (2000) revealed that positive responses for imported products were gained simply at the local or foreign level – consumers were motivated more by the lifestyles associated with the developed countries of origin, than by the associated technical prowess or intrinsic brand qualities.

2.3.5. Place Associations and Brands

The product's brand name is used as a major differentiating factor during product evaluation by consumers, as product features and qualities can be easily copied. Kotler and Gertner (2002) suggest that "even when differentiation based on product characteristics is possible; often consumers do not feel motivated or able to analyze them in adequate depth" (2002: 249). As such, the literature pertaining to advertising suggests that the brand name is among the most influential cues that consumers use to determine quality when more explicit information is unavailable (Aaker 1991).

Globalization has facilitated not only the worldwide dissemination of products, but also the capabilities to manufacture or assemble products on a localized basis to maximize cost benefits. The globally conscious consumer is usually aware that a product may be assembled from multiple sources, but presumes that it will embody the same values of quality and reliability inherent in the brand name, in order to maintain consumer brand loyalty (Johansson and Nebenzahl 1986; Samiee 1994). Thus, research studies have asserted that the use of country of brand origin rather than country of manufacture may constitute a better focal point for image communications (Han and Terpstra 1988; Okechuku 1994; Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic 2011b; Usunier 2011).

Consumers tend to associate themselves with a particular brand due to their self-concepts and, subsequently, the embedded brand characteristics are unlikely to change if the location of manufacture changes. For instance, the association with the country of origin of a luxury product brand can outweigh the negative views held towards less favourable manufacturing countries (Phau and Prendergast 2000).

A study by Han and Terpstra (1988), comparing the views held by consumers towards bi-national products, indicates that the country association of the brand is a very influential cue, and the value that it adds to the brand image should not be underestimated. This can be demonstrated by such brands as Toyota, which is recognized as being Japanese even though several of their models are built in the U.S., and General Electric, which is an American brand but many of their products are manufactured in Japan. It is therefore critical that marketers utilizing place associations to embellish the brand image select the appropriate place of origin, so as not to confuse the overall message communicated, and also to avoid any negative connotations associated with places connected to the product at a particular stage of the supply chain (Martin and Eroglu 1993; Okechuku 1994).

On the other hand, marketers must also be sensitive to the local context: for instance, in light of the recent economic crisis and its ramifications for the U.S. automobile industry, foreign brands such as BMW and Honda have accentuated their local U.S. manufacturing and assembly operations to stimulate a positive emotional response among the target audience, and reassure consumers that they are supporting local industry while benefitting from the German engineering expertise or Japanese efficiency and reliability, associated with the respective parent brands.

Similarly, foreign investors will often retain the core image elements of brands with strong country associations following a change in the country of ownership of the brand. For instance, Tata Motors (of India) has maintained a low profile since its acquisition of Jaguar and Land Rover cars, as there is no perceived benefit to the brand equity of these British brands by accentuating their Indian associations. In the case of BMW's acquisition of the Rolls Royce and Mini automobile brands, while the German manufacturer offers

benefits to both brands in terms of engineering technology and innovation, it has continued with the manufacture of the vehicles in the UK and retained the core imagery of these two quintessentially British brands; this appears to be a means of differentiation to competitors' luxury and small car brands, as well as to other products within the BMW automobile portfolio.

Han (1990) cautions that the use of brand or country imagery as a highly influential umbrella attribute to describe the quality of products is dependent on consumer familiarity with a specific country's products. When consumers are not familiar with the products of a particular country, they may remove that particular brand from a small set of alternatives during the purchasing decision. In contrast, Erickson, Johansson, and Chao (1984) argue that "there is little significant impact on consumer attitudes towards brands [by country image]" (p. 694) and, subsequently, that the country of origin affects only beliefs, but not attitudes towards products. Erickson, Johansson, and Chao (1984) purport that as consumers become more familiar with specific brands, they rely less on country image as an aid during the buying process. This implied connection makes Honda's reputation for reliability and ingenuity, and Japan's for precision and sophistication essentially indistinguishable.

On the whole, the majority of the literature confirms that the attributes of the brand transfer over to the country image and vice versa, although the degree to which the country image takes precedence over other cues is also subject to other factors (Okechuku 1994; Papadopoulos and Heslop 2003), such as, the life cycle stage or positioning of the product, and the country perceptions and/or brand awareness levels of the target country audience.

Research conducted by Nebenzahl and Jaffe (1996) concluded that "the perceived value of a product is a weighted average of its perceived brand and 'made in' country

values” (1996: 20). What is significant is that this combined value was shown to be potentially higher or lower when compared to the brand value on its own without country cues. The use of country image as a powerful asset to creating brand value was supported by Kleppe, Iversen, and Stensaker’s (2002) study of the Norwegian fish industry’s efforts to enter Asia. The authors found that using a country branding strategy over a traditional branding strategy can have significant benefits in the absence of other knowledge/awareness in the target market.

The additional dimension of country image associates consumer opinions about different countries to the product, and can have a reciprocal effect in enhancing consumer knowledge about the country of origin according to the acquired knowledge about the product/brand. Country image can thus influence an entire category of products, such as French wines or perfumes, or provide the brand for a specific product like Café de Colombia (Kotler and Gertner, 2002). Given that country images are complex multi-faceted constructs, in some product categories, place names at the sub-national level have been utilized to connote more specifically the country image element that is to be associated with the brand (Aaker 1991; Hanna and Rowley 2008). Examples include Munich and Bavaria for German beer and Paris for the French beauty and fashion industries.

In consideration of the debate around the effects of globalization and the potential for consumer homogeneity on a global level, scholars have recently challenged the relative importance of brand origin associations in consumer purchase decisions (Usunier 2006). Samiee, Shimp, and Sharma (2005) concluded that the high level of brand origin recognition inaccuracy uncovered in their study of American consumers undermines the degree of influence afforded to country of origin cues in the brand communications. These claims

have been refuted in the literature (e.g., Papadopoulos, el Banna, Murphy, and Rojas-Mendes 2012), and Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, and Palihawadana (2011), among others, have shown that it is the *associated origins* of the brand that influence the purchase decision irrespective of the brand's actual corporate-level ownership.

From a study of over 4000 international brands that engaged 544 consumers, Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic (2011a) maintain that correcting consumers' original perceptions of brand origins can actually contribute to changes in brand attitudes, and thus utilization of the appropriate brand origin associations can prove to be a powerful strategic marketing tool for practitioners.

These claims were supported by Balabanis and Diamantopoulos' (2011) investigation of the consumer electronics market in the UK. These authors also stressed that, as well as the potential negative effects of the misclassification of a brand's country of origin, consumers' inability to classify a brand to any country of origin (i.e., nonclassification) equally posed a threat to brand image evaluations and purchase intentions.

Despite challenges to the continued relevancy of place associations (Samiee, Shimp, and Sharma 2005; Samiee 2011; Usunier 2011), there is evidence to support the ongoing importance of brand origin associations as an integral component of product branding (Rosenbloom and Haefner 2009; Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, and Palihawadana 2011; Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic 2011a), especially in the processing of brand communications (Verlegh, Steenkamp, and Meulenberg 2005). The complementary imagery derived from associations with country of origin continue to be utilized by product marketers in worldwide brand communications, either directly in the brand name or indirectly through visual symbols and references, such as well-known landmarks (e.g., the

Eiffel Tower, the Statue of Liberty), or language (e.g., Cyrillic script for Russian vodka brands).

Research has indicated that consumers respond to visual representations of places, especially when supplemented by text information that consolidates or enhances previous knowledge/awareness (Decrop 2007). Hence, there is a mutual opportunity for regional public policy makers and product marketing practitioners to combine their efforts in support of brand image development, rather than simply riding on the back of the other's coattails. The challenge for advertisers is to identify the core visuals that resonate globally with the target audience and convey the intended message according to the specific context.

2.3.6. Place Associations in Advertising

It has been argued that country image will have decreasing significance as consumers become more familiar with products from that country (Johannson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985). However, Han (1990) counters that consumers create summary product constructs using country image as an index (as illustrated by general notions of the high quality and performance of German cars or Japanese electronics), and taken as a whole, subsequent research has shown that country image may even play a more significant role than product attributes in determining the consumer's attitude towards a brand from that country. More recent studies have explored how the multinational elements of many global brands are in fact used to positive effect, especially when the sum of the component parts is greater than the association with the product brand itself (Papadopoulos 2002). Studies in the PCI domain illustrate how cultural symbols of certain nations may in fact support the brand

communication message and thus, culture may be treated as a reinforcement rather than obstacle to business expansion.

It is, however, important to distinguish the subtle but important difference between an advertising campaign evoking country of origin imagery that is 'run domestically', and a 'patriotism-based' advertising campaign. While the first uses country cues from the country in which the advertisement is being run, the latter attempts to promote the product specifically from a 'buy domestically' perspective and focuses on consumer patriotic, nationalist, or ethnocentric feelings. For example, 'German engineering' is often associated with a high degree of precision and quality; if Volkswagen cars are advertised in Canada as 'German-engineered', the emphasis is on the quality aspect of the country of association; but if the same advertisement runs in Germany itself, the quality aspect may be taken for granted and the focus is more on the assumed (positive) emotional connection between the brand and the target audience.

This suggests that country associations of expertise in a particular industry or product can affect both local and international consumers, albeit in different ways. While positive consumer views toward domestic products, whether because of ethnocentrism or other factors, promote a preference for domestic products, the literature has indicated that this factor is less apparent in the growing, younger, and more educated population (Al-Sulaiti and Baker 1998; Vida and Fairhurst 1999) which, in the digital age, is arguably embracing a more cosmopolitan outlook (Cannon and Yaprak 2002).

2.4. Summary

The much-debated topics of globalization and culture pervade the three core themes central to this study, which are themselves interwoven with each other.

Since Levy's (1959) seminal paper highlighting the increasingly emotional, rather than functional, attachment consumers afford brands, the notion of brand equity (Aaker 1991, 1996) has gathered pace and stimulated empirical research to define the associated elements (e.g., Simon and Sullivan 1993; Morgan and Hunt 1994; Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel 2004). The concept of "brand personality" was embraced by practitioners in the field of marketing communications (Ogilvy 1983), as well as scholars who noted the multi-disciplinary reach across the social sciences and strategic management of this burgeoning field of study (Belk 1988; Douglas, Craig and Nijssen 2001).

The modern era of globalization added complexity to the polemic debate on the standardization versus adaptation of international brands (Ryans, Griffith, and White 2003), by challenging the concept of cultural groups existing within nation-state boundaries (Hannerz 1990; Morris-Suzuki 2008). This inspired a new stream of research into the existence of global consumer segments (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999; Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004; Douglas and Craig 2011), although scholars have also noted that the identified global segments may still be divergent at the micro level (Kjeldgaard and Askegaard 2006; de Mooij 2011).

Discussion on the impact of new technologies has added further layers to the study of international branding in highlighting the filtering of global brand values at the local level to align them with micro-cultural values (e.g., Eckhardt and Mahi 2004; Leung et al. 2005; Hollis 2011). Therefore, despite increased consumer exposure to other cultures, researchers

have cautioned that communicating the global brand image requires attention to the use of cultural symbols that may lose their meaning and relevance at the market level (Kates and Goh 2003; Akaka and Alden 2010).

The variations in information processing styles attributed to cultural differences (Verlegh, Steenkamp, and Meulenberg 2005; Ford, Mueller, and Taylor 2011) has ramifications for international advertising strategy (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999; Taylor and Johnson 2002). A plethora of cross-cultural research has investigated the application of advertising appeals across culturally-opposed markets (as presented in Table 2.3 in this chapter), focusing on specific appeal-type comparisons in specific industries, rather than a broad review of the various types of appeal used in the marketplace. Hence, concerns have also been raised as to the completeness of existing classification schemes within the field (Abernethy and Franke 1996; de Mooij 2011). Studies have also raised a note of caution in the use of cultural frameworks reliant on nation-state boundaries, such as Hofstede's (1980) dimensions (Okazaki and Mueller 2007; Morimer and Grierson 2010). It is suggested that other factors should be incorporated in the cross-cultural models that may have a moderating effect on consumer responses, such as differences in cultural heritage (So 2004; Arnould and Thompson 2005), or product lifecycle (Lee and Carter 2005), market maturity (Chandy et al. 2001).

Furthermore, focus of studies on the recipient of the advertising message, without cross-referencing between the sender and the recipient (Harris and Attour 2003; Kanso and Nelson 2006), draws assumptions with regard to the advertiser's rationale for deploying the appeal and, hence, the specificities of the intended message. This is a significant gap in the

field of international advertising research, from which the findings may also contribute to cross-cultural research and international strategic management research.

A number of the studies in the fields of international branding and international advertising have touched on the notion of places (countries, cities, or regions) playing a supporting role in the development and diffusion of brand images (Agrawal and Kamakura 1999). Investigation into the power of country images as extrinsic cues influencing consumers' product evaluations evolved into the product-country-image (PCI) stream of research that has gathered pace over the past decades (Papadopoulos 2004), and continues to attract scholarly attention (e.g., Liu and Johnson 2005; Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, and Palihawadana 2011).

This has in turn inspired the parallel stream of place branding research (Kavaratzis 2005; Zenker and Martin 2011), adopting many of the factors outlined above in product branding research and capturing the interest of public policy makers in the spheres of destination and nation branding (Hankinson 2010). Place marketers equally face the challenges of culture and the ramifications of globalization on the individuals attachment to and knowledge about different geographic places (Appadurai 1990; Cleveland and Chang 2009), coupled with the moderating effects of external environmental factors that may come into play at national levels (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998; Magnusson, Krishnan, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic 2014).

Scholars have noted the potential mutual benefits to be derived from the development of place brands (Kleppe, Iversen, and Stensaker 2002; Gotsi, Lopez, and Andriopoulos 2011), highlighting how manufacturers have assigned a place in their communications as a symbol of quality, to which consumers have positively responded

(Phau and Prendergast 2000; Papadopoulos and Heslop 2003; Tungate 2007). The recently-developed construct of nation brand personality (Rojas 2013) is particularly promising in this direction. Nevertheless, on the whole the domain of place branding research is still in its infancy (Iversen and Hem 2008) and underexplored.

Therefore, as described in the next chapter, this study is designed to address this gap by combining two parallel streams of research, place branding and product branding, by engaging practitioners from both sectors to investigate the core themes emerging from the review of the literature. Moreover, as the first-ever study to examine the use of place associations from the managerial perspective, a wide array of industry sectors and country markets are explored to identify patterns and specific areas to pursue in future research (discussed in the final chapter of this document).

CHAPTER 3. Research Objectives and Methodology

As described in Chapter 1, the overall goal of this study is to examine the role of place branding in international branding and international advertising from the perspective of managers. On account of the lack of past research from which to draw methodological guidance for the specific focal area of interest, to achieve this goal an inductive multi-method approach has been adopted.

As noted in the introduction, this consists of three main phases such that each of the first two helps to inform those that follow: a content analysis of magazine advertisements to examine how places are used in branding and advertising; in-depth interviews of managers to explore how and why they use "place" in marketing; and an international survey of marketers to investigate antecedent factors associated with their use of place cues and the nature and scope of such usage.

This chapter consists of three main sections, of which the first discusses the research objectives of the study, the second discusses certain key methodological considerations and the resulting overall approach to the research design, and the third details the study's methodology.

3.1. Research Objectives

As described in the literature review in Chapter 2, the globalization of business that has gathered pace since the 1960s has made international branding and advertising increasingly important, as marketing practitioners seek to gain competitive advantage for their brands in multiple markets. Over the past few decades, a plethora of empirical studies have

investigated the supporting role of country or place of origin in accentuating brand value and, in particular, the influence of this tool in consumer purchase decision-making (e.g., Han 1990; Al-Sulaiti and Baker 1998; Agrawal and Kamakura 1999; Laroche et al. 2005).

However, within the field of international marketing, the extant research has rarely examined strategic decision-making in brand communications from the practitioner perspective (Katsikeas, Robson, and Hulbert 2004; Wierenga 2011), especially in the context of 'place', which constitutes the focal point of this study. In other words, there is virtually no research on how and why managers make the decisions that they do when electing to standardize or adapt their international branding and/or advertising strategies in the place context, or when choosing a particular type of place-based appeal or message style and execution as opposed to other available approaches. In the field of international branding, there is evidence to support the preference in some countries of global brands over local, and an identified desire among practitioners to standardize their marketing approach across cultures; however, the positioning of global and local brands within a company's international brand architecture and how/why companies choose to optimize their brand origin's heritage is little understood.

Given current trends, such as the increasing integration of the global environment, the worldwide growth of affluent well-travelled consumers and increased ethnic diasporas, and the growth of the Internet and social media, it has been deemed important for companies to maintain "global visibility" (Lee and Carter 2005) in their cross-cultural communications, as well as to optimize the greater consumer awareness of the idiosyncratic strengths of individual nations. The impact of these trends on the choice of message styles and

presentation, and how/why companies choose to differentiate their communication executions across multiple markets, warrants further research attention.

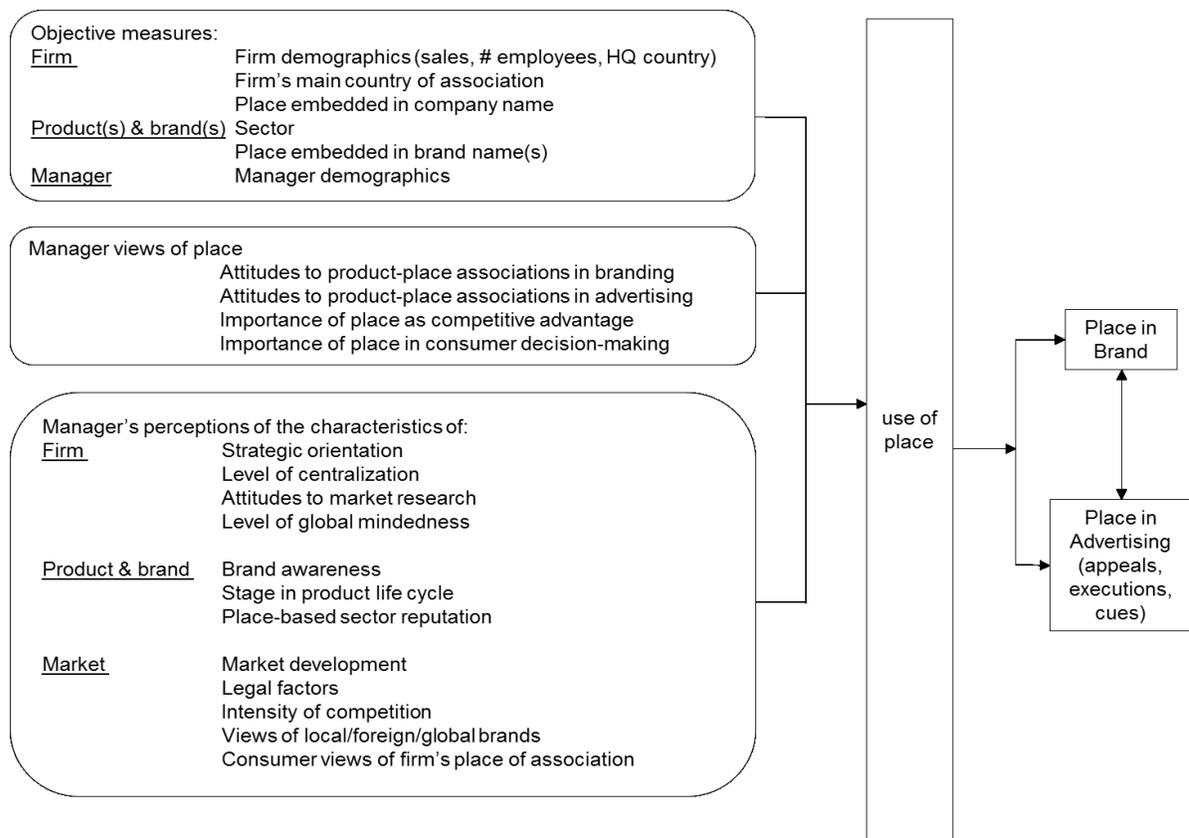
In light of the above, the focal area of analysis of this study is to examine how the construct of [geographic] place manifests itself in international branding and advertising, and to identify some of the antecedent factors that direct the way place associations are utilized by marketing managers. More specifically, the key objectives of this study are to uncover:

- the extent to which place associations form an integral part of brand strategies;
- the usage of verbal and visual place cues in advertising, and the level of differentiation according to whether the brand is local or foreign to the target audience;
- whether place cues play an important role in the brand strategy, and are therefore an integral feature of brand advertising, and whether this is in turn tied to the product industry, brand origin or target country;
- antecedent factors that influence strategic decision-making for global and local brand communications.

These key objectives are portrayed in Figure 3.1, which reflects the overall conceptualization of the study and its main components. The left side of the conceptual framework indicates the antecedent factors that may be related to the strategic decision to integrate place associations in the two areas that are the focal point of this study, namely, branding and advertising. In turn, these two focal points are portrayed on the right side of the framework. Since, as mentioned previously, research specifically in this area is virtually nonexistent, the framework was not intended to be tested as a complete model but as a conceptual guide for the design of the study and its main stages.

For the same reason, that is, the dearth of prior research in this field, the potential antecedent factors in Figure 3.1 were collated from studies in cogent areas that were examined in detail in the literature review (Chapter 2) and were subsequently finalized through the first two research phases mentioned at the beginning of this chapter (3). These are described in more detail in the next two chapters (4 and 5). They include a set of objective measures concerning the firm, its products and brands, and the managers interviewed in the survey of Phase 3; the managers' own views of the role and importance of place in branding and advertising; and the managers' perceptions of a variety of characteristics of the firm, its products and brand, and its markets.

Figure 3.1: Tentative Conceptual Model



3.2. Methodological Considerations and Approach to the Study

As described in the second part of the literature review (Chapter 2, Section 2.2.2), researchers in the field of international advertising have largely favoured quantitative methods in order to develop generalizations of their findings. However, Morgan and Smircich (1980) advocate a multi-method approach to empirical research that is designed according to the needs of the phenomena under scrutiny, rather than disciplinary preference, noting that methodologies also need to evolve to be able to capture the changing dimensions of study. In the field of international marketing research, multiple methods may be deployed in an effort to probe deeply enough to uncover the underlying factors moderating behaviours, as well as gathering a sufficient volume of data to generalize the output on a national or regional level. Craig and Douglas (2001) and Ford, Mueller, and Taylor (2011) highlight the value of qualitative methodologies in this domain for probing situational and contextual factors, and providing insight into cross-cultural variations.

Hurmerinta-Peltomaki and Nummela (2006) support the call for a mixed-method approach on the premise that the field of international business research “has a special character that calls for innovative methodological solutions” (2006: 453). Discussion on the evolution of the mixed methods approach has gathered pace as researchers seek to optimize new technologies to draw the benefits of both quantitative and qualitative methods within a single study (Buchanan and Bryman 2007; Cameron 2009; Fetters, Curry, and Creswell 2013; Venkatesh, Brown, and Bala 2013).

However, Carlson (2008) and Kover (2008) bemoan the fact that, despite the emergence of ever-more sophisticated techniques to support the multi-method approach, it would seem that researchers are still battling with the silo label of their methodology, rather

than focusing their attention on how best to integrate techniques and ensure the most appropriate sample according to the research objective. In other words, this view holds that the quality of the data is assigned equal importance to the quantity of data (Peter and Olson 1983; Perreault and Leigh 1989).

Cognizant of the rapidly changing environmental dynamics, Peter and Olson (1983) proposed that the research agenda be directed towards more creative and useful styles of research inquiry in order to create and develop hypotheses that can later be tested more practically, and made a plea for marketing experts to play a greater role in developing new methodologies. The authors contrasted the ‘scientific’ positivist approach with the ‘popular’ relativist approach, which they argued is more appropriate in the modern world context with its inherent complexities that constantly challenge the generalization of previously developed theories.

Peter and Olson (1983) maintained that there is room for a scientific approach to support the more qualitative approach which is recommended for those specific areas of marketing that are more heavily engaged in social interactions, although they conceded that there is still more work to be done in this area. Their proposition alludes to the inductive approach espoused by Glaser and Strauss (1967), who promoted the grounded theory technique of developing theories from the data, as a means to reduce the bias inherent in the traditional methods of utilizing data to validate hypotheses, and to broaden the perspective with which the phenomenon of interest is studied to enhance theory development (Miller and Fredericks 1999; Stern and Porr 2011).

The study by Patel (2007) provides a more recent empirical example of the approach advocated by Peter and Olson (1983) and Miller and Fredericks (1999). Patel (2007)

adopted an inductive qualitative approach in an effort to procure an in-depth understanding of the cultural dimensions influencing Indo-French alliances. In order to challenge the commonly-held proposition that the greater the degree of cultural similarity, the greater the success of an international business venture, Patel (2007) deployed a combination of ethnographic interviews and participation-observation as a means to collate the issues perceived by the players rather than prompt them with preconceived questions.

Although there is an argument for the recommendation of a more structured interview or questionnaire approach to minimize bias through questionnaire standardization, in Patel's (2007) study the selection of the less structured approach was intended to minimize the risk of cultural bias on behalf of the interviewers, whose line of questions can be influenced by their own cultural value set (Wagner and Gooding 1987).

In fact, Patel (2007) comments that during the study some managers did at times resort to national stereotyping in attempting to explain the differences between their French and Indian colleagues, while those managers with more exposure to the alliance partner (from spending time at the partner's premises) referred more frequently to the differences in the organizational cultures of the partners. While the propensity for wider generalization of these findings is limited by the size of the study, it affords a deeper understanding to the potential factors affecting international human relations that may not be presented through a quantitative survey, and offers important considerations for the design of this author's study.

Patel's (2007) observations also serve as a reminder that cross-cultural research is multi-faceted and that core assumptions may sometimes need to be probed more deeply to ensure that the right moderating factors are weighted appropriately.

3.2.1. Study Design

The design of this research is based in part on a study developed by the author's thesis supervisor, and for which the author has contributed to the development of the database of multimarket print advertisements in a research assistant capacity. The author's study draws on a part of the original database and is conceptualized to examine how place manifests itself in international branding and advertising, and specifically to identify some of the antecedent factors that influence the way/extent to which place cues are deployed by marketing managers. To address the identified research gaps, a multi-method approach was deemed imperative, in order to enrich the snapshots of current practices, as derived from quantitative analyses, with a thorough understanding of the factors influencing the practitioners' decision-making process, compiled from more in-depth qualitative probing.

Therefore, this study is divided into three phases, as detailed later in this chapter. In summary:

- Phase 1 comprises a quantitative analysis to examine the use of place associations in print advertisements across a range of North American and European markets. The intent is to analyze the brand, appeal, and execution data across four country databases to ascertain the degree to which place associations are utilized within brand advertising strategies, as well as identify patterns of divergence and convergence between the respective countries.
- Phase 2 implements an inductive approach, which seeks to explore factors contributing to the strategic decisions made by marketing practitioners in the deployment of place associations. Since there are no previous studies from which to draw, guidance is needed in order to construct a more wider-reaching survey that encapsulates all the

potential decision-making factors. This part of the study therefore comprises a series of in-depth interviews (developed according to the relevant methodological guidance) that relates to the themes identified in the content analysis completed in Phase 1. As with Phase 1, the findings from this phase are intended to contribute in their own right as well as to serve as input for the design of the next phase.

- Phase 3 comprises a cross-national survey that elaborates on the themes outlined above and investigates the critical antecedent factors that influence marketing managers' strategic decision-making choices. The survey instrument comprises a self-administered, structured questionnaire developed by drawing on the findings and methodological guidance from prior studies in the place branding and international management fields of research, complemented by the findings from the first two phases of the study.

3.2.2. Selection of Markets

The selection of markets included in the proposed study is derived partly from the existing study outlined in the previous section (3.1.1.), and partly from guidance drawn from the literature discussed in Chapter 2.

As observed in the literature, when selecting countries for comparative content analysis, often very diverse countries in terms of differing cultural, social, and language traits are incorporated in a study. This frequently results in severe differences in the comparative data, to which Onkvisit and Shaw (1999) counter-suggest that comparative research should be conducted on homogeneous regions. For instance, the authors suggest, the U.S. should be compared with Canada or the UK, but not Mexico or France. By limiting

the linguistic differences and attempting to maintain a similar cultural and economic demographic, the authors posit that further insight can be achieved in determining the potential effectiveness of advertising on a smaller, non-global yet international scale.

Nevertheless, countless studies in international marketing (and, more generally, international business) have made contributions by comparing dissimilar countries, and Wailes (1999) also cautions against too high a level of homogeneity being assumed for nations sharing a similar institutional heritage, such as the U.S. and Canada, or Australia and New Zealand. This author advises that due care attention should be taken that the assumptions embedded within the research study incorporate the differences within and between such nations, to ensure that they do not subsequently invalidate the insights gained. Overall, then, it would appear that each of the different perspectives on the country choice for comparative research has merits, and that what matters is that the selection be reasonable in the circumstances.

The databases of advertisements that formed the platform for Phase 1 of this study comprise two North American (U.S. and Canada) and two European (UK and Italy) countries that represent a relatively high degree of economic and cultural homogeneity and are reasonably comparable, while also providing sufficient differentiation to enrich the cross-country perspective. The in-depth interviews in Phase 2 incorporated a wide range of respondents, primarily in the English-speaking countries included in the content analysis for reasons of language at the probing stage. Similarly, the roll-out of the survey questionnaire in Phase 3 enlisted responses from a cross-section of companies to contrast the strategic processes in the largely homogeneous territories of Europe and North America, as well as subsidiary offices in Asia.

Since the target sample comprised marketing managers who are highly diffused across many industries, types of companies, and positions, a roll-out sampling technique based on key informants was used. To make the study feasible notwithstanding its broad international reach, and to enrich the depth and breadth of information collected, respondents who were known to the author and her supervisor, and who possess a broad international experience across a range of industry sectors and organizational structures, were selected for the Phase 2 interviews and as the starting points for the snowball sampling in Phase 3.

3.3. Research Methodology

This section details the methodology deployed in each of the three phases of the study, and outlines the analytical tools used upon completion of the data collection. The findings are then described and discussed in the subsequent chapters for each of the three phases of the study, since each phase in itself offers a significant contribution to the field of international advertising research.

3.3.1. Phase 1: Content Analysis of Print Advertisements

Although content analysis as a method has been criticised for providing description without prescription (Samiee and Jeong 1994; Lerman and Callow 2004), it remains one of the most popular methods of analysis within the field of international advertising research involving cross-national studies (Okazaki and Mueller 2007; de Mooij and Hofstede 2010). Its key benefit is that it provides quantitative comparative insight into current advertising practice across multiple markets.

Content analysis is most commonly applied using magazine advertising, since ads in this medium are relatively easier to collect, study, and code, they include both text and images, and they are generally more elaborate and/or less transient than those in other media (e.g., newspaper, radio, and/or social media advertising). For the purposes of this study, therefore, content analysis of an existing database of print advertisements from a range of comparative magazines provides a snapshot of the consistency and differentiation in the utilization of place associations across four markets, as described in detail in this section.

3.3.1.1. Content Analysis Method

To capture a consensus of the assorted communication styles deployed across multiple markets, content analysis is the most frequently used methodology within international advertising research (Abernethy and Franke 1996; Taylor 2005; Okazaki and Mueller 2007; Ford, Mueller, and Taylor 2011). One of the central ideas in content analysis is that a large number of words in a given text are classified into a smaller number of content categories (Weber 1990; Harwood and Garry 2003). Applied within the field of international advertising, this methodological approach comprises the analysis of the advertising content of a range of media and has facilitated comparisons of the ways in which brand messages are communicated across selected markets.

Content analysis methodology focuses on the message itself rather than on the advertiser or consumer respondents by using an objective, systematic approach to analyze the information contained in the message (Weber 1990; Abernethy and Franke 1996; Kelley and Turley 2004). The application of the content analysis technique has subsequently delivered a vast array of literature examining the various advertising appeals that have been

deployed across assorted media, and cross-cultural comparisons of the deployment of specific types of appeals.

As noted above, the extensive use of this methodology has been criticized in that the findings are descriptive rather than prescriptive. That is to say, content analysis can only provide a quantitative analysis of the content of advertising, and does not offer any insights into the effects of advertising content on consumers and society (Samiee and Jeong 1994; Lerman and Callow 2004). This limits the findings in terms of theory-building and marketing practice (Kover 2001). Therefore, in this study, the content analysis investigation constitutes one phase of a three-step study, with the derived observations forming the platform for further in-depth probing and analysis into the antecedent factors related to the use of specific advertising elements.

Given the usefulness and versatility of content analysis as a method, it is important to set standards and norms surrounding its use (Kassarjian 1977; Harwood and Garry 2003), so that the cumulative development of knowledge may occur in the field of study. The quality of the data in the content analysis approach is dependent on the use of a sound classification scheme wherein the information from an advertisement may be documented in a consistent manner (Weber 1990). The classification scheme deployed must involve several levels of classification starting with the broad categories like emotional, factual, rational or informational. The next step involves generating a list of clear, concise, and unambiguous definitions of the broad and subcategories of appeals to facilitate universal coding standards across the range of markets under investigation.

A number of scholars, such as Resnik and Stern (1977), Pollay (1983), and Shimp and Sharma (1987), have endeavoured to develop comprehensive classification schemes to

facilitate comparable and generalizable studies in advertising. While these have, in part, been adopted by researchers, it was found that they were incomplete for specific study needs and additional categories had to be added that were potentially unique to that study (Abernethy and Franke 1996; Albers-Miller and Gelb 1996; Al-Olayan and Karande 2000).

In the absence of a single universally approved classification scheme, especially in the case of international advertising appeals (Stern, Krugman and Resnik 1981; Ford, Mueller and Taylor 2011), it is beholden to the researcher to adapt existing schemes to design the classification listing that most effectively captures all the signals within the study. This is especially important in the case of studies comparing diverse nations with opposing cultural traits (de Mooij and Hofstede 2010). As a result, while sample sizes may be large and run in multiple waves, the generalizability of the findings across other markets outside the particular study is limited. On the other hand, it does serve to emphasize the diverse nature and complexity of international consumer markets.

Conducting content analysis research is a highly detailed, methodical process that is subject to a great deal of individual interpretation, thus the reliability and validity of the analysis output remain core issues to be addressed in the methodological process (Kassarjian 1977; Weber 1990; Harwood and Garry 2003). Print media are particularly difficult to compare since they can contain a great deal of information and utilize both written and visual cues. For instance, national celebrities, people wearing traditional dress, place-specific scenery or landmarks, and the use of a foreign language (whether in the text copy or as part of a photograph of the product/packaging) can all potentially support the desired brand association with places to be planted in the minds of the target audience.

Moreover, especially for cross-national studies, Craig and Douglas (2001) stress the importance of involving native representatives of the sample countries for interpretation of the advertising appeals used, and particularly for the recognition of symbols pertaining to local and foreign brands. In order to ensure reliability of the content analysis, therefore, two or more judges require training in the coding process for each country database, and the employment of judges who are national residents of the countries under investigation is recommended for a more accurate interpretation of the cultural and linguistic nuances (Scott 1994; Lerman and Callow 2004). This is especially pertinent when evaluating material from countries that share the same language but demonstrate distinct cultural identities, such as between the UK, Canada and the U.S. (Nevett 1992; Wailes 1999; Toncar 2001). The reliability of coding when more than one judge is involved can be measured in a variety of ways which range from simple metrics, such as the percentage of agreement between them, to more elaborate measures such as Scott's Pi, Cohen's Kappa, and Krippendorff's Alpha (Lombard, Snyder-Duch, and Bracken, 2002).

3.3.1.2. Database of Print Advertisements

The database examined in the first phase of this study contains 6,303 magazine advertisements from four countries (Canada, U.S., UK, and Italy). Four magazines were selected for each country, one each from the categories of business, news, fashion, and family/lifestyle publications, to ensure adequate representation of various types of advertisements addressed to different target markets. To minimize potential effects on advertising approaches from seasonal variations and/or major external events or market shifts, six issues from a 12-month period were used for each magazine. Table 3.1 details the specific magazines used, by category and country.

Table 3.1: Publication Sources of Print Advertisements for Content Analysis

Publication Type	Country of Publication	Magazine
Business	Canada	Canadian Business
	U.S.	Fortune
	UK	Management Today
	Italy	Il Mondo
News	Canada	Maclean's
	U.S.	Time
	UK	The Economist
	Italy	L'espresso
Fashion	Canada	Glow
	U.S.	Glamour
	UK	Vogue
	Italy	Flair
Lifestyle	Canada	Canadian Living
	U.S.	Family Circle
	UK	Woman & Home
	Italy	Donna Moderna

The database of advertisements was developed for different purposes by the author's supervisor and hence contained information that was beyond the scope of the present study. However, it also contains catalogued data on the extent to which verbal and visual place references appear in the corporate and brand names of the products being advertised, and the types of advertising appeals and executions used by local and international advertisers.

Having contributed in depth to the British and Italian parts of this database as a research assistant, the author is intimately familiar with its structure. Therefore, the relevant brand, appeal, and execution sections of the database were extracted from the original database and organized so as to develop a snapshot of the transnational use of place associations in brand advertising for the purpose of the present study.

3.3.1.3. Coding of the Use of Place

As described in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.4, a product's place association serves as an informational cue or heuristic in the buying decision-making process (Han and Terpstra 1988; Papadopoulos and Heslop 2003). Advertisers may incorporate place cues in the product's marketing communications by means of the appeal (the main reason presented in the message to stimulate a behavioural response by the consumer), the execution (how the message is presented to the target audience), or by association (the place image factors are inherent in the symbols or language used within the ad, for example).

In compiling the database for the content analysis study, the various extant classification schemes in the literature for both appeals (Resnik and Stern 1977; Pollay 1983) and execution styles (Kleppner et al. 1984) were examined for appropriateness (for print advertisements rather than other media channels) and also contemporariness some twenty years after those studies were published. Recognition of place cues – at the level of symbols commonly associated with specific places – was then added as its own category to produce a new execution style classification (PCI). This facilitates the recording of place associations in relation to other executional styles and appeals, which is the focal point of interest in this study.

Place cues that serve to reinforce elements of the product brand image in addition to the appeal/execution style were also counted. The original database notates in detail each place cue, that is the country, city, region, or reference to 'worldwide' or 'international' operations. However, for the purposes of this study, the cumulative numbers of place uses by brand were recorded in the database.

Moreover, several international brands either have embedded a place cue in the brand name itself or have a strong association to a specific country. Unlike other place cues, which may or may not be used by an advertiser, those that are part of a brand name are likely to appear in all advertisements for the brand (e.g., the word "British" appears in every "British Airways" ad), and may direct other parts of the execution, such as the use of national flag colours. Since the brand name is the key communication element for the brand itself (Moriarty, Mitchell, and Wells 2014), it is commonly used in content analysis and was also used in this study as an integral component of the brand imagery.

3.3.1.4. Content Analysis Process

As outlined in the previous discussion of the content analysis method (Section 3.2.1.1.), print advertising utilizes a wide range of both visual and verbal cues to develop brand place associations. Therefore, the content analysis was completed manually by multiple coders, rather than by automated computer-based techniques. To identify symbols recognizable to native readers of the magazines and capture linguistic nuances (Craig and Douglas 2001; Lerman and Callow 2004), as well as to avoid issues of cultural bias (Dossett 1988), the coders were selected so as to be native to the country(ies) whose advertisements they were asked to code or to have lived there for extended periods. All coders were extensively trained in the meaning of the classification categories and a review of what constituted the specific cues, and at the end of the process coders more familiar with the research background and techniques used in advertising reviewed the coding inputs.

In total, a minimum of two and up to five judges reviewed each country database. To address concerns of intercoder reliability with regard to the partially subjective coding of the advertising appeal (Kolbe and Burnett 1991; Lombard, Snyder-Duch and Bracken 2002;

Krippendorff 2004), detailed descriptions of each category were provided and discussed among all the coders, in addition to which primary coders used a descriptive line to summarize the rationale for the identified appeal. Duplicated advertisements were retained in the analysis to present a fuller picture of the relative level of exposure to place association cues.

Once the classification scheme for this study had been determined, two judges catalogued all the qualitative information within the database. Three additional judges were engaged in the process to increase agreeability levels for some of the quantitative data. An iterative process was used, in which the data was checked and rechecked by the various judges to ensure that technical mistakes in the form of human error were minimized. Final agreement of the few remaining differences within each classification was achieved by discussion among the judges. Scott's Pi, which is considered a conservative measure of intercoder agreement, was used as the coding reliability measure. The result was a level of agreeability between the judges in excess of 80% and a Scott's Pi of 82.2%, before final differences amongst the coders were identified and resolved.

For this study, the coded elements of interest comprised a counting of the place associations utilized within the advertisements (text, visual, and on packaged product shots), identification of global versus local brands, and the types of advertising appeals and executions used, in order to examine patterns of usage of place associations across and between the four sample countries. Multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVAs) then explored for differences between the sample countries as to whether, for instance, the usage of place-related symbols is specific to the product industry, to types of advertising appeal or execution, or to the country of origin versus a global image. In some cases, a brand

appearing across multiple markets within the study may be local to one of the markets, and this was noted accordingly when evaluating the variation in usage of place-related cues. The detailed findings are presented in Chapter 4.

3.3.1.5. Summary

From this first phase of the study, a summary of observations serves to uncover the extent to which place associations are being deployed across the four magazine types in each of the subject countries, and thus contributes to the development of classification schemes for advertising appeals and executions in international advertising research.

The conclusions drawn also take note of the variances in adaptation of advertisements for global brands and deployment of place cues between economically and culturally similar nations, according to the origin and destination countries. Therefore, Phase 1 provides the critical platform from which to launch Phases 2 and 3 by confirming that place associations are used extensively across a range of markets, publication styles, industry sectors, and both local and global brands, thus highlighting the need for investigation of the antecedent factors that drive this usage of place associations in international branding and advertising.

3.3.2. Phase 2: In-depth Interviews

A content analysis study provides comparative insights into the type and form of communications prevalent in the studied markets at a given time. The conclusions drawn presume that the advertisers have already completed the extensive local research that informs their decisions as to what appeals and execution styles to use, and the degree to which an international campaign can be standardized. While there is a plethora of ongoing

empirical research evaluating the various factors that influence the effectiveness of advertising from the consumer perspective (e.g., Hite and Fraser 1988; Kanso 1992; Samiee and Roth 1992; Yin 1999; Kanso and Nelson 2006), there is little understanding of the antecedent factors determining the creation of the advertisement.

The content analysis phase of the study provides a snapshot of the outcomes but does not provide any direct insight into the factors that influence managerial decision-making in marketing, which is deemed a significant gap in the current research field (Wierenga 2011), and therefore this is addressed in the survey phase of the study. However, since there is no existing study of the managerial perspective on the deployment of place associations in advertising from which to draw guidance, Phase 2 of this research comprises in-depth interviews, as part of an inductive approach to identifying the key antecedent factors. Hence, Phase 2 delivers three important contributions to the field of marketing research:

- It is a necessary step intended to flesh out the details from the Phase 1 content analysis study, in order to both understand the issues better and to help develop the survey questionnaire for Phase 3, which assesses the key influencing factors on the strategic use of place associations in the company's/brand's marketing communications;
- It is valuable in itself as the first in-depth qualitative investigation into managerial perspectives on the use of place associations in advertising;
- It adds to the development of the grounded theory research method.

3.3.2.1. Grounded Theory: An Inductive Approach

In light of the aforementioned lack of research in the field of place and international branding, a grounded theory approach has been adopted in this study in order to contribute to practitioner-oriented theory development. As a means of enquiry, grounded theory

constitutes an inductive approach to analyzing a phenomenon and is not restricted to any one discipline (Lawrence and Tar 2013). However, in comparison to other inductive-based methodologies, the advantage of the grounded theory approach lies in its potential to articulate a unique context and logic of discovery (Corbin and Strauss 1990; Miller and Fredericks 1999; Stern and Porr 2011).

The development of grounded theory is attributed to Glaser and Strauss (1967), who proposed that, rather than set out to prove preconceived hypotheses, social science researchers could actually generate theory from data themselves through the adoption of an inductivist approach (Miller and Fredericks 1999; Stern and Porr 2011). If different professionals explore a topic as researchers, the authors purported, their theoretical contributions will be equally beneficial, but dissimilar because they will have approached the entire research enterprise according to their unique interests and contexts.

Glaser and Strauss's (1967) concept of the grounded theory approach is founded on four key principles:

- the desire to understand a phenomenon that has so far received little or no in-depth research, or has not been fully examined from a particular perspective;
- the grounded theory approach strives to identify concepts and, eventually, weave them into a theoretical explanatory structure (rather than a descriptive narrative);
- the grounded theory approach requires conceptual sense-making to emerge while immersed in the data, to recognize previously unidentified issues facing participants;
- the grounded theory process encompasses an iterative technique of collection and analysis, to ensure capture of the relevant factors.

Grounded theory techniques promote the use of individual discretion to tailor aspects of the research approach, rather than adherence to strict methodological guidelines (Stern and Porr 2011). One aspect is the theoretical lens or interpretive framework. Wuest (1995) suggests that grounded theory allows for recognition of more than one perspective, and permits and elicits multiple voices because the grounded theorist attends to subjective interpretations, and as an analyst, does not impose preconceived notions, but rather adopts an open stance, and is always inquiring of the data: what's going on here?

In contrast to the deductive approach of taking a theory and imposing its suppositions on the data, an interpretive framework is merely a sensitizing tool to enhance the researcher's ability to know what he/she is looking *at* rather than looking *for*, by directing the gaze as to where to look and how to think about the data (Wuest 1995). However, scholars are equally at pains to emphasize that Glaser and Strauss (1967) did not rule out deductive thinking from grounded theory in their seminal paper, on the premise that any theories carried into the study are relevant and the subsequent data collection is rigorous (Miller and Fredericks 1999; Hood 2007; Nyilasy and Reid 2009).

The grounded theory approach has evolved in the decades since it was first conceptualized by Glaser and Strauss (1967) with the advent of new technologies to support application of the technique. However, the grounded theory methodology retains the four key principles outlined above at its core (Corbin and Strauss 1990; Miller and Fredericks 1999; Stern and Porr 2011).

3.3.2.2. Application of a Grounded Theory Approach

Given the lack of research into the marketing manager's perspective on the use of place associations in international brand advertising, the grounded theory approach as described

above is best suited to this thesis study's objective of uncovering some of the key factors that motivate the deployment of place cues across international markets.

The process for this study was designed to facilitate better understanding of the issues with which the practitioner must contend, and thus avoid missing critical factors in the wider-ranging survey phase. As suggested by Stern and Porr (2011), the interview phase was conducted to the point where the variation in influential factors is exhausted, and incoming data no longer supplied new material with which to construct the survey questionnaire.

3.3.2.3. Interview Sample

To understand how/why place marketing decisions are made and the factors that affect those decisions, it was important to speak with a cross-section (at the country level and industry sector level) of brand marketers and stakeholders in the development and reinforcement of place-based images and reputations. The intent was to generate data that in itself is of great value to the research field, as well as ensure that the development of the questionnaire for Phase 3 encapsulates the potential factors affecting strategic decision-making with regard to the use of place in international branding and advertising. Additionally, since the topic is of interest to place image managers (as described in the literature review - Chapter 2, Section 2.3), government representatives were also included in the interview phase, especially in those sectors that rely on place image within their marketing campaigns (e.g., agriculture, tourism, international trade).

Therefore, three different groups were identified at the qualitative in-depth interview phase to assist with the development of the quantitative survey questionnaire:

- private sector marketing managers from a range of industries, working in the B2B and B2C sectors, as well as for both local and foreign companies;
- advertising agencies charged with developing the advertising creatives for various brands;
- government agencies with a vested interest in the promotion of specific places, from both tourist visitor and international trade/FDI perspectives.

In line with Stern and Porr's (2011) recommendation, a total of 30 interviewees was targeted across the three groups to gather a comprehensive range of antecedent factors.

3.3.2.4. Interview Method

The targeted interviewees operate at middle/senior levels of management and, therefore, it is critical to optimize the limited time available for an in-depth discussion.

To capture the relevant factors to be incorporated in the Phase 3 questionnaire, a structured interview guide was developed by drawing on the relevant methodological guidance, and also observations from the content analysis in Phase 1, in terms of the core themes to pursue. The interview guide was modified slightly according to each of the three respondent groups, based on their differing focal areas of responsibility and potential input into the strategic decision-making process, in order to ensure relevancy and maximize the insights gathered. In line with the core principles of an inductive approach as outlined above, it was critical that the interviews were conducted in an open-ended manner to capture as many influential factors as possible. The interview guides are provided in Appendix A.

The interviews comprised three core question areas:

- Section A: background details of the respondent's roles and responsibilities, and the key intra-company organizational interactions (to put the responses in context);

- Section B: respondent's general attitudes towards the use of place associations;
- Section C: development of communications strategies within the respondent's organization and the degree to which place associations are used, including discussion of the factors that might influence that decision, as well as the estimated level of private sector/government interaction in the promotion of the [respondent's] industry and its association with a specific place.

In addition, cognizant of the pioneering status of this specific field of study and the fact that business respondents are usually unfamiliar with participation in academic research, an introductory preamble was prepared to describe the purpose and nature of the study, the key elements under investigation, the structure of the interview, and what was required from the interviewee, as well as a reaffirmation that the responses would remain anonymous (as confirmed through the Carleton University ethics clearance). The introduction to the study is included in Appendix A.

The detailed description of the respondents and the interviews is presented in Chapter 5.

3.3.3. Phase 3: Cross-National Managers Survey

Since part of the design of Phase 3 depended on the findings from Phase 2, the present discussion is limited to the overall approach used for the Phase 3 survey while details on the instrument development and sample selection are discussed later, as an introduction to the survey results, in Chapter 6.

The purpose of the survey was to elaborate on the findings from the first two phases and investigate the antecedent factors related to marketing managers' decision-making

choices with regard to the use of place associations in brand marketing communications.

This final phase comprised a self-administered, structured questionnaire developed by:

- incorporating the findings from the content analysis (Phase 1) and the in-depth interviews (Phase 2);
- drawing on prior studies that deal with the ‘place’ construct;
- drawing on relevant methodological guidance from previous studies of marketing managers and multinational companies.

3.3.3.1. Questionnaire Design

In constructing a questionnaire, it is essential to focus on the two key drivers of a research study and identify specifically what we want to know and whom we should ask (Bryman and Bell 2003). The focus of investigation in this case is to explore the key antecedent factors that influence the use of place associations in international branding and advertising. To define the contributing factors, therefore, it is important to understand the decision-making process within the organization, and how this is operationalized at the local market level. Hence, a survey of business/marketing managers was designed to explore the antecedent factors at the level of the company, the market and the consumer that influence the decisions on advertising strategy, specifically with regard to the deployment of place associations.

The critical areas investigated by means of the questionnaire include the extent to which:

- the use of place cues is determined by the corporate strategic orientation;
- the use of place cues is affected by the company’s country of origin and its reputation in the host country;

- the use of place cues is influenced by the manager's views/perceptions of the company's country of origin;
- the use of place cues is influenced by the manager's understanding of consumer views/perceptions of the country of origin and receptivity to PCI cues.

In order to structure the questions appropriately, it was necessary to explicitly define the key factors contributing to the decision-making process regarding the utilization of place cues in brand communications. Given the previously discussed lack of past research directly related to the objectives of this study, the questions were developed using three types of inputs.

Firstly, a large array of papers on related managerial themes, such as strategy, orientation and the market environment, were examined. These were provided by the author's supervisor and supplemented with additional research into the key topic areas. The approaches and findings of other advertising and marketing studies on cogent issues were used where possible to provide additional context and guidance for the design of the final survey questionnaire. Table 3.2 contains a list of studies that were used for this purpose and indicates their specific focal areas. Furthermore, the Scopus citation index (published online by Elsevier) confirmed that the scales developed by the below sources have also been successfully adapted in other studies in related areas.

Secondly, the insights from the PCI literature discussed in-depth in Chapter 2, Section 2.3, helped direct the framing of questions pertaining to the notions of country of origin and brand origin.

Table 3.2: Sources of Sample Questions for Managerial Survey

Question Area	Author	Paper
<i>Market Orientation</i>	Murtha, Lenway & Bagozzi (1998)	“Global mind-sets and cognitive shift in a complex multinational corporation”
	Govindarajan & Gupta (2001)	“The quest for global dominance: Transforming global presence into global competitive advantage”
	Nummela, Saarenketo & Puumalainen (2004)	“A global mindset: A prerequisite for successful internationalization”
	Levy et al. (2007)	“What we talk about when we talk about ‘global mindset’: Managerial cognition in multinational corporations”
<i>Local Market Environment</i>	Homburg, Grozdanovic & Klarmann (2007)	“Responsiveness to customers and competitors: The role of affective and cognitive organizational systems”
	Kabadayi, Eyuboglu & Thomas (2007)	“The performance implications of designing multiple channels to fit with strategy and environment”
	Homburg, Fuerst & Kuehnl (2012)	“Ensuring international competitiveness: A configurative approach to foreign marketing subsidiaries”
<i>Manager views/attitudes</i>	Huff & Alden (2000)	“A model of managerial response to sales promotions: a four-country analysis”
<i>Market / Customer Knowledge</i>	Shimp & Sharma (1987)	“Consumer ethnocentrism: Construction and validation of the CETSCALE”
	Luo, Slotegraaf & Pan (2006)	“Cross-functional ‘coopetition’: The simultaneous role of cooperation and competition within firms”
	Albaum et al. (2007)	“Differences in marketing managers’ decision making styles with the Asia-Pacific region”
	de Luca & Atuahene-Gima (2007)	“Market knowledge dimensions and cross-functional collaboration: examining the different routes to product innovation performance”
<i>Strategy</i>	Antia et al (2006)	“How does enforcement deter gray market incidence”

Thirdly, as described previously in this chapter, the findings from the first two phases of the study contributed significantly to the fine-tuning of the questions in consideration of the target respondents.

When constructing the questions for a survey, it is essential to keep in mind exactly to whom the question is directed. This is to ensure relevancy not only with the content of the questions, but also by styling the questions in the respondent's vernacular to encourage response (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Since both earlier studies and the Phase 2 interviews indicated that managers do not normally think of the 'place' construct in the way it is portrayed in the literature, but that they readily understand it and discuss it in detail if primed as to its meaning, frequency of appearance in advertising and branding, and relative importance generally, it was felt necessary to prompt them to think of 'place' in its appropriate branding and advertising context. As can be seen in Appendix B, this was done by explaining the nature of the construct in the invitation letter, the survey introductory remarks, and in the questionnaire itself (e.g., introduction to Section E. Marketing Communications Strategy).

While this detail is significant for the maximization of the responses in the domestic market, the potential issues of comprehension and alienation are exacerbated when the survey is conducted across international markets and cultural nuances come into play – even if the language is, to all intents and purposes, the same (e.g., British versus American English, Nevett 1992; Toncar 2001). A survey directed at multinational managers may include nationals from a country other than that of the corporate/subsidiary office. However, on the premise that the corporate operating language is English, it is presumed that organizational rather than national cultures will take precedence in the questionnaire

responses (Albaum et al. 2007). A series of demographic questions pertaining to the respondent's cultural origins and level of international experience was incorporated in the questionnaire in order to evaluate the influence of this dimension. Furthermore, since the questionnaire was intended to cover specific factors that are an integral part of the decision-making process, rather than individual attitudes and motivations, a factual rather than emotional response was anticipated.

3.3.3.2. Research Instrument

Having addressed the critical points of defining both the core research questions and the target respondent, the survey itself was executed by means of an online self-completion questionnaire. The specifics of the questionnaire are detailed as follows.

3.3.3.2.1. Structure

In consideration of the fact that the target respondent is an international business practitioner, time is obviously a precious and usually insufficient resource. Therefore, a web-based solution was adopted to distribute the questionnaire. The benefits of using this resource (vs. an email-based survey) include:

- **Speed:** Once the survey is created and its link is sent to the participants, responses are automatically stored in a database, so the data is received in real time. Additionally, the programming logic allows for easier data cleaning in order to save time in the organizing of the information collected.
- **Cost:** relatively low cost of conducting the survey on the internet - surveys only require a software account and invitations to be sent for the field work process.

- **Programming Logic:** When required, programming logic like skipping, branching, and extraction, can be used. Responses can be submitted directly (and received in real time) without additional need for respondents to send an email reply.
- **Presentation of the questions:** System offers flexibility in stylizing questions and is straightforward to use in terms of question creation and organization.

In addition, the critical design objectives for the questionnaire itself demanded that it is easy to follow (to aid completion) and easy to answer, with as few open questions as possible in order to minimize time spent, ensure focused answers to specific questions, and also to aid the coding process for the researcher to ensure comparative results. This requires balancing skills on the part of the researcher to be able to minimize potential respondent fatigue but maximize the data collected (Bryman and Bell 2003). As generally recommended in the literature, a Likert-type scale was used in this study for ease of completion.

3.3.3.2.2. Sampling

Since the respondents comprised marketing managers involved in the development of brand communication strategies, the target population is relatively small when compared with, say, a consumer demographic target. Moreover, the average response rates for surveys of business executives are notoriously low (Bryman and Bell 2003). However, studies have indicated that response rates can be notably increased when utilizing existing social relationships between the target respondent and the requester (Cycota and Harrison 2006). In light of this, a target sample size of 200 (minimum of 150) respondents was deemed sufficient for this premier study in the area, and a snowball sampling approach was adopted

using the professional and social networks of the researcher and her supervisor. The survey closed with 202 responses received.

In applying the snowball sampling technique, the first tier of respondents were asked to circulate the questionnaire among their own network, in order to effectively build up the number of usable responses to the survey (Goodman 1961). This method is especially appropriate when targeting small and hard to reach populations (Welch 1975; Sirpal 2011) and was considered to be the most efficient way to secure the required level of survey responses.

The snowballing technique has been criticised for a potential bias that may arise from the over- or under-sampling of a particular network group and the researcher's inability to screen all the respondents (Biernacki and Waldorf 1981; Handcock and Gile 2011). To minimize this risk, the first tier respondents comprised representatives from as diverse a range of companies and country markets as possible, whose professional networks were known to extend beyond their own industry sectors. In some cases, respondents indicated potential second tier participants, or raised questions to ensure the proposed participants' eligibility in the study. Further details were not sought, to preserve the promised anonymity of response (which was oftentimes a prerequisite for participation in the study and was assured to respondents, in line with the study's application for ethics clearance through Carleton University's Research Ethics Board).

For informants known to the researcher or her supervisor, an individually personalized email was distributed, customized according to the level of the relationship, and whether or not the respondent participated in the interview stage. The personalized emails to the first tier of respondents, which included an outline of the survey topic, the

online survey link, and confirmation of ethics clearance and anonymity assurance, were sent from the researcher's or supervisor's own accounts, rather than through the more anonymous account of the online survey host, to further encourage response. The online survey host delivers the responses in real-time, enabling the researcher to track participation (including when surveys have been started and then saved for later completion). As necessary, reminder follow-up messages were sent to maximize responses.

The population sample encompassed representatives primarily from European and North American organizations across multiple industries, including firms that do and those that do not utilize place associations. The international and business diversity represented among the 202 survey respondents is detailed in Chapter 6, along with a description of the key findings from the quantitative analysis of the key factors that influence managers' decision-making strategies with regard to the utilization of place associations in brand communications, including the factors identified in the qualitative Phase 2 of the study.

3.4. Research Hypotheses

The review of the literature in the cogent fields of interest, coupled with the findings from the first two phases of the study, led to ten research hypotheses to frame the analysis of the Phase 3 survey. The hypotheses are outlined here and the results presented in more detail in Chapter 6.

Empirical studies have shown that the manager's level of international experience and linguistic capabilities leads to a greater openness to other cultures (Bartlett and Ghoshal 2003; Levy et al. 2007; Barmeyer and Mayrhofer 2008). In this light, it may be hypothesized that the degree of a manager's international mindset is related to his/her company's strategic

orientation, and, thence, to how the role of 'place' is viewed in the context of marketing and brand communication strategies. Therefore, the first hypothesis is stated as follows:

H1: The greater the manager's international professional experience and multilingual capabilities, the more likely the company adopts a geocentric strategic orientation.

This also supports the premise that the respondents' own attitudes play a key role in the company's strategic decision-making (Kumar and Subramaniam 1997; Kefala 1998; Kyvik et al. 2013). Coupled with the fact that global-oriented brand managers may anchor their brand to a place associated with the industry sector or the local operation, the following two hypotheses were developed.

H2: The manager's international experience, coupled with the company's geocentric strategic orientation, contributes towards the manager's positive attitudes towards the use of place associations.

H3: The more positive the manager's attitudes towards the use of place associations, the more likely place cues are used in his/her company's marketing communications.

The Phase 2 interviewees emphasized the importance of relevancy between the product brand values and place brand image, which reinforces academic research propositions in this area (Baker and Ballington 2002; Papadopoulos 2002; Anholt 2005; Pharr 2005). Hence, it is hypothesized that:

H4: The use of place cues in marketing communications to support the brand image is related to the relevancy of the place brand image to the industry sector of the brand.

The literature indicated that the use of place associations as a brand heuristic can provide a competitive advantage in a cluttered market, and this was supported by similar comments among the Phase 2 interviewees, on the premise that the place brand values relate to the product brand values. Therefore, it is hypothesized:

H5: The greater the perceived level of competitive intensity, the greater the propensity to use place cues in marketing communications when the place brand values are relevant to the product brand values.

The application of an international strategic orientation implies responsiveness to the local market environment (Bartlett and Ghoshal 1987; Arora et al. 2004; Levy et al. 2007). To gain an understanding of consumer attitudes in the local market place towards international versus local brands, and implicitly, the strategic use of place associations beyond the legal requirement, questions were drawn from Shimp and Sharma's (1987) CETSCALE (described in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.4.). The 17-item model was originally created to assess the level of ethnocentrism among American consumers, but has subsequently been satisfactorily tested in various European and Asian studies (Sharma, Shimp, and Shin 1995). However, since this study is drawing upon manager's perceptions of their local market consumers and consumer attitudes constitutes only one of the potentially multiple antecedent factors influencing the use of place in marketing communications, the scale was reduced to six items in the survey.

Moreover, researchers across a range of international markets have recently argued for a more parsimonious CETSCALE model of between six to ten items, according to the different cross-cultural climates (Lindquist et al. 2001; Sepehr and Kaffashpoor 2012; Pentz, Terblanche and Boshoff 2013). Researchers also posit that the model should be used in

conjunction with other constructs to reflect the changing cultural environments since its inception in 1987 (Tsai, Lee and Song 2013). Given the ongoing debate on consumer attitudes toward foreign versus local brand, in terms of the implications for the use of place associations in marketing communications, it is hypothesized that:

H6: The greater the manager's perceived level of ethnocentrism among his/her consumers, the lower the propensity to use place cues in marketing communications.

H7: The higher the relationship between the place brand image and the product brand industry sector, the more the relevancy of the perceived level of consumer ethnocentrism diminishes.

During the Phase 2 interviews, the marketing practitioner community also reinforced the academic propositions that the product lifecycle stage and level of brand awareness can play a role in determining marketing communication elements (Lee and Carter 2005; Matthes, Schemer, and Wirth 2007). It has been argued that the greater the brand's maturity in the market, the greater its brand strength – i.e., its positioning is well-established – and, therefore, the less necessity there is for additional cues to evoke the brand image (Hong and Wyer 1990; Hsieh, Pan, and Setiono 2004). In other words, the age and strength of the brand is more instrumental in strategic decision-making in marketing communications than the age of the company. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H8: The greater the brand's strength in the market, the lower the propensity to use place cues in marketing communications.

The literature review in Chapter 2 highlighted the challenges to the notion that the use of place images retains its currency in the modern era of globalization. Other

studies have refuted this proposition, which is supported by the preliminary findings from the first two phases of this study, under specific conditions. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H9: When the place association is relevant to the product brand and its symbols well-known, place cues are integrated in the marketing communications strategy.

H10: When place associations are used to support the product brand image, multiple types of cues are used.

3.5. Summary

Given the lack of research in the examination of the use of PCI from the marketing manager's perspective, a multi-method inductive approach is critical to developing the platform from which to advance theory development in this area. Since each of the three phases described in this chapter are of value in their own right as new areas of exploration, the results are separated into three chapters.

Phase 1 deploys the tried and trusted method in international advertising research of content analysis to provide an objective overview of the scope and scale of the use of place associations in print advertising. The following Chapter 4 presents the results of the cross-cultural analysis and evaluates patterns of use relating to the country markets and the industry sectors within the database. There is a wealth of data therein, however, the key elements of interest to this study are extracted and evaluated to help direct the following phases of investigation. Therefore, in addition to the key areas of interest to international advertising research, such as appeals and executions, the next chapter examines the use of place cues in the ads.

The Phase 2 qualitative study is described in the subsequent Chapter 5 and provides the specific details of the sample outlined in this chapter. The results of the final Phase 3 follow in Chapter 6, which provides a summary of the survey instrument and tests the relationships between the use of place associations and the key antecedent factors uncovered during the qualitative phase. The research hypotheses described in Section 3.4 of this chapter are also discussed in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 4. Phase 1 Results: Content Analysis of Print Advertisements

As described in Chapter 3 (Section 3.3.3.), Phase 1 provides the critical platform from which to launch Phases 2 and 3. The core focus of this study phase is to examine the use of place associations in international brand communications: the analysis explores variances depending on the different target audiences (as defined by the four publication types), and also across the four country markets to assess the level of standardization deployed by international brands and, therefore, the generalizability of the findings.

There are three ways that the use of place can be incorporated in marketing communications:

- as the main advertising appeal (the main reason presented in the message to stimulate a behavioural response by the consumer);
- in the ad execution (how the message is presented to the target audience);
- or in support of the brand image values by association within the verbal or visual elements of the ad, for instance, through the use of recognized symbols.

This chapter's analysis of the findings of Phase 1 firstly provides a summary comparison of the key elements, i.e., the appeal and execution styles, of the print advertisements by publication types and by the focal subject country markets, in order to assess industry sector and/or nation-state cultural patterns between the publication styles and publication countries that may influence the use of place cues. This is followed by an evaluation of the observed use of place associations across the different publication types and markets.

4.1. Summary of Distribution of Ads by Publication Country

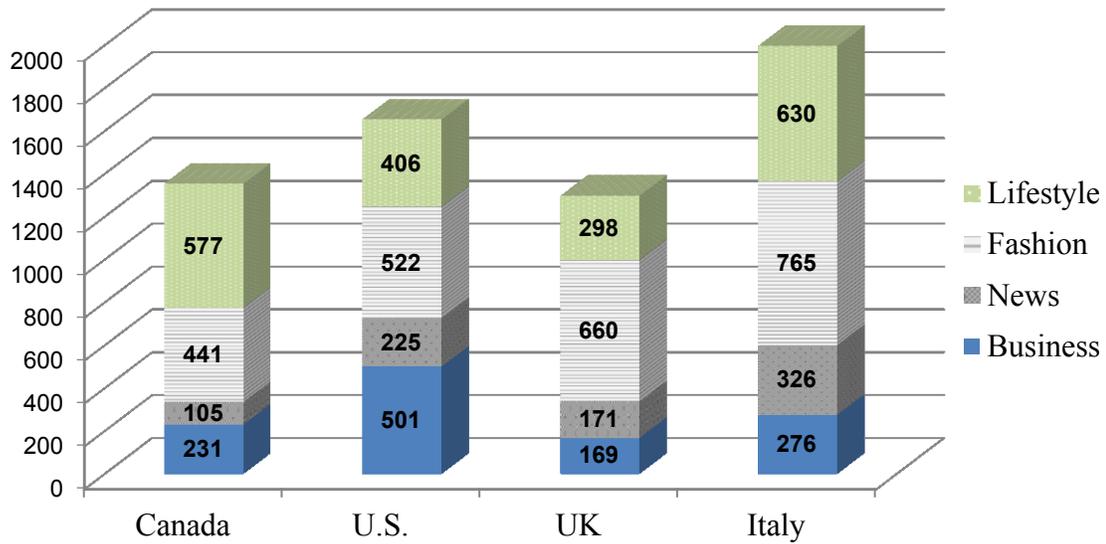
The distribution of the print ads by country and publication type is summarized in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Number of Print Ads by Publication Source

Country of Publication	Type	Magazine	Number of Advertisements	Total Number of Advertisements
Canada	Business	Canadian Business	231	1,354
Canada	News	Maclean's	105	
Canada	Fashion	Glow	441	
Canada	Lifestyle	Canadian Living	577	
U.S.	Business	Fortune	501	1,654
U.S.	News	Time	225	
U.S.	Fashion	Glamour	522	
U.S.	Lifestyle	Family Circle	406	
UK	Business	Management Today	169	1,298
UK	News	The Economist	171	
UK	Fashion	Vogue	660	
UK	Lifestyle	Woman & Home	298	
Italy	Business	Il Mondo	276	1,997
Italy	News	L'espres	326	
Italy	Fashion	Flair	765	
Italy	Lifestyle	Donna Moderna	630	
			TOTAL	6,303

In the Phase 1 content analysis a total of 6,303 print ads were recorded, as described in the previous chapter (Section 3.3.1.2.). The total number of print ads that were collected ranges from 1,298 ads in the UK to 1,997 in Italy, with a notable variation in ad placement across the four publication types, as illustrated in Figure 4.1. As might be anticipated intuitively, the relatively high volume of print advertisements in Italy (N = 1,997) is dominated by the Fashion/Lifestyle-oriented publications (70%), that is to say, the industry sectors for which Italy enjoys an especially strong reputation internationally.

Figure 4.1: Number of Print Ads by Magazine Type by Publication Country



Interestingly, some 30% of the U.S. advertisements (N = 1,654) are placed in the Business publication *Fortune* – this is proportionately higher than the number of ads placed in both the News and Business publications combined in each of the other three markets, and numerically higher than the total ads posted in these publication types combined in Canada and the UK. The cross-country variance by publication is not a key part of this analysis, since the objective of this study is to investigate what companies use in each market. However, this figure will be referenced in further discussion, as appropriate, to provide the context for other elements examined.

4.1.1. Industry Sectors

The variation in the distribution of ads between the four publication types across each of the four subject countries indicates a potential variation in the industries advertised, by the very nature of the different audiences targeted by the different magazine types.

As summarized in Table 4.2, the private commercial sector clearly dominates the advertising pages, and equally so across all four countries, followed (at great distance) by government advertisers. The latter comprise a mix of both domestic regional and foreign advertisers targeting tourist and investor audiences.

Table 4.2: Private/Public Sector by Country of Publication

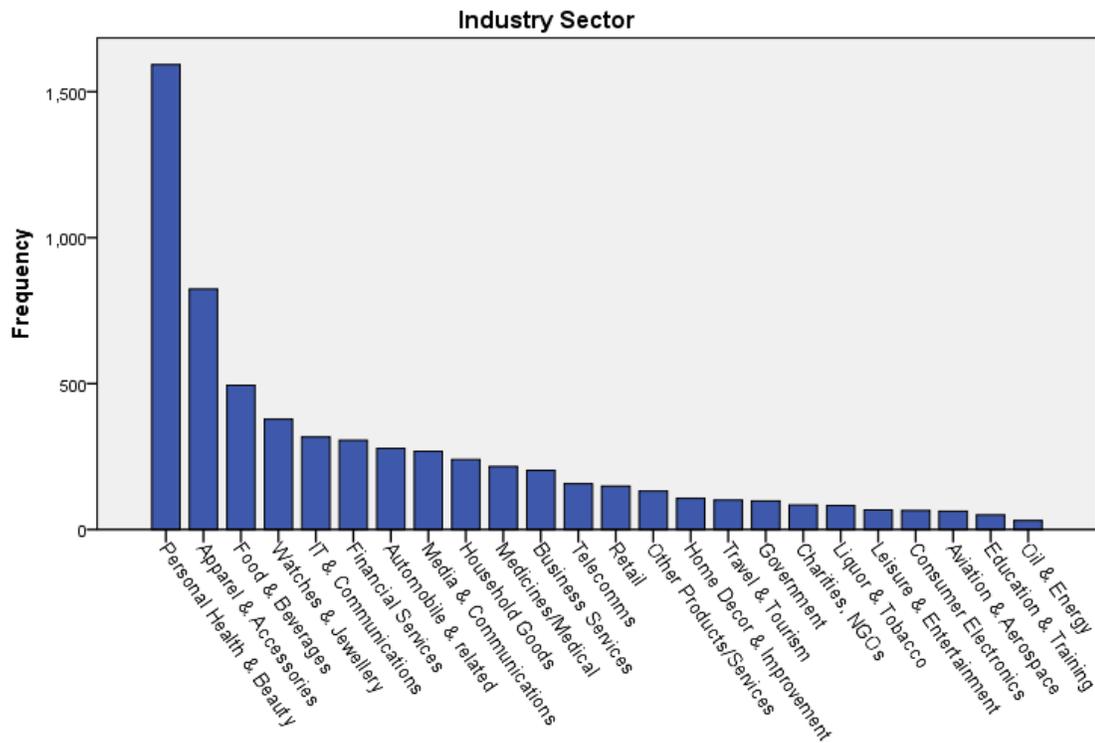
Sector	Canada		U.S.		UK		Italy		TOTAL	
Private	1,269	94%	1,594	96%	1,235	95%	1,923	96%	6,021	96%
Government	38	3%	21	1%	21	2%	45	2%	125	2%
Association	23	2%	9	<1%	15	1%	15	<1%	62	<1%
NGO/Charity	9	<1%	20	1%	13	1%	11	<1%	53	<1%
Education	15	1%	10	<1%	14	1%	3	<1%	42	<1%
TOTAL	1,354		1,654		1,298		1,997		6,303	

There is some advertising by official (mostly trade/industry) associations, NGO/registered charity organizations, and the education sector. The latter primarily advertised MBA and graduate level programs for executives, and thus predominantly featured in the Business and News publications, presented in Table 4.3 below. The education sector includes both public and private institutions, but is retained in this analysis as one separate sector since the number of private vs. public education institutions does not affect the overall findings.

Drawing upon guidance from the literature, official industry classifications and this study's database inter-coder agreement, 24 industry sectors were identified for evaluation purposes. All 24 sectors featured in each type of publication, but to varying degrees to reflect the different readership of each publication type.

Figure 4.2 shows that print advertising is dominated by the companies/brands in four sectors (number of ads in parentheses): Personal Health & Beauty (1,593), Apparel & Accessories (824), Food & Beverages (494), and Watches & Jewellery (378).

Figure 4.2: Number of Print Ads by Industry Sector



Over 80% of the ads in each sector appeared in the Fashion and Lifestyle publications, as shown in Table 4.3 below. The IT & Communications (317), Financial Services (306), and Automobile & related (278) sectors are also ranked within the overall top 10 industry sectors that are represented in this study’s print advertising database, due to their heavy presence in the Business and News publications, which carry proportionately heavy advertising in the U.S., as illustrated previously in Figure 4.1.

Table 4.3: Industry Sector by Type of Publication

	Business		News		Fashion		Lifestyle		Total
	N	%of sector	N	%of sector	N	%of sector	N	%of sector	N
Personal Health & Beauty	64	4%	58	4%	875	55%	596	37%	1,593
Apparel & Accessories	22	3%	57	7%	621	75%	124	15%	824
Food & Beverages	18	4%	32	6%	81	16%	363	73%	494
Watches & Jewellery	32	8%	48	13%	238	63%	60	16%	378
IT & Communications	191	60%	79	25%	27	9%	20	6%	317
Financial Services	166	54%	62	20%	30	10%	48	16%	306
Automobile & related	113	41%	74	27%	54	19%	37	13%	278
Media & Communications	70	26%	71	26%	45	17%	82	31%	268
Household Goods	14	6%	33	14%	34	14%	159	66%	240
Medicines/Medical	26	12%	15	7%	65	30%	110	51%	216
Business Services	143	70%	36	18%	13	6%	11	5%	203
Telecomms	72	46%	34	22%	34	22%	17	11%	157
Retail	7	5%	5	3%	67	45%	70	47%	149
Other Products/Services	22	17%	28	21%	78	59%	4	3%	132
Home Décor & Improvement	6	6%	10	9%	22	21%	69	64%	107
Travel & Tourism	37	37%	29	29%	18	18%	17	17%	101
Government	24	24%	40	41%	3	3%	31	32%	98
Charities, NGOs	19	23%	20	24%	16	19%	29	35%	84
Liquor & Tobacco	16	20%	16	20%	37	45%	13	16%	82
Leisure & Entertainment	16	24%	12	18%	6	9%	33	49%	67
Consumer Electronics	21	32%	21	32%	12	18%	11	17%	65
Aviation & Aerospace	28	44%	25	40%	9	14%	1	2%	63
Education & Training	33	66%	13	26%	2	4%	2	4%	50
Oil & Energy	17	55%	9	29%	1	3%	4	13%	31
	1,177	19%	827	13%	2,388	38%	1,911	30%	6,303

$\chi^2 = 3796.9, df = 69, \text{ significant at } p=0.05$

Legend: The table is ordered according to total ads/industry sector.

Bold: Top 5 industry sectors (each with >300 ads, >5% of total)

"% of sector": Adds to 100% horizontally by row (percent distribution of sector's ads by publication type)

In total, 68% of the print ads in the database appear in the Fashion (2,388) and Lifestyle (1,911) publications, so it can be expected that the types of industry sectors most appealing to the readership of these magazines will shape the breakdown by industry sector of the overall count of ads. Indeed, Table 4.3 not only highlights the varying

distribution of the sectors across the publication types, but also indicates some similarity between the Business and News publications versus the Fashion and Lifestyle publications with regard to the dominance of specific sectors within each pair of magazine types. This suggests that the type of publication may play a role in determining the use of executional elements, such as place.

Figure 4.1, above, illustrated the distribution of ads between the four publication types across the four focal countries, and therefore a similar distribution of ads by industry sector is anticipated when reviewing the number of ads by industry sector by country of publication, as shown in Table 4.4 below. In the context of this study, the cross-country analysis serves to indicate potential cultural variances to be incorporated in the interpretation of the general use of place association findings later in this chapter.

Focusing on the top ten sectors (78% of all ads), Table 4.4 reflects greater diversity between the four markets and particularly when comparing the pair of North American and the pair of European countries, i.e., the high volume of ads from the Apparel & Accessories sector (824, or 13% of total ads, ranked #2) is attributable to the sector's dominant presence in the Italian (498) and British (245) publications (90% of total sector), which supports the previous assumption on the proportionately higher total volume of ads in the Italian Fashion magazine, as was shown in Figure 4.1.

Table 4.4 details the top ten industry sectors across the four markets; the top five sectors in the U.S. and Italy are highlighted in bold; the top four sectors in Canada and the UK are highlighted in bold, since the 5th ranked sectors in these two markets (Canada = Retail; UK = Other Products/Services) contribute less than 6% in each country and only 2%

Table 4.4: Top Ten Industry Sectors by Country of Publication

Industry Sector	Canada		U.S.		UK		Italy		TOTAL	
	N	%of total								
Personal Health & Beauty	574	42%	371	22%	280	22%	368	18%	1,593	25.3%
Apparel & Accessories	8	1%	73	4%	245	19%	498	25%	824	13.1%
Food & Beverages	158	12%	162	10%	64	5%	110	6%	494	7.8%
Watches & Jewellery	5	<1%	29	2%	97	7%	247	12%	378	6.0%
IT & Communications	50	4%	135	8%	75	6%	57	3%	317	5.0%
Financial Services	46	3%	146	9%	36	3%	78	4%	306	4.9%
Automobile & related	60	4%	105	6%	44	3%	69	3%	278	4.4%
Media & Communications	49	4%	50	3%	47	4%	122	6%	268	4.3%
Household Goods	60	4%	37	2%	61	5%	82	4%	240	3.8%
Medicines/Medical	36	3%	112	7%	16	1%	52	3%	216	3.4%
Top 10 sectors	1,046	77%	1,220	74%	965	74%	1,683	84%	4,914	78%
Other (14 sectors)	308	23%	434	26%	333	26%	314	16%	1389	22%
TOTAL	1,354	100%	1,654	100%	1,298	100%	1,997	100%	6,303	100%

$\chi^2 = 1702.56, df = 69, significant at p=0.05$

Legend: The table is ordered according to total ads/industry sector.

Bold: Top 5 industry sectors (each with >300 ads, >5% of total)

"% of total": Adds to 100% vertically by column (percent distribution of sector's ads by country)

overall. The detailed breakdown of all 24 advertised sectors by country of publication is presented in Appendix C. One quarter of the ads (1,563) in the Phase 1 study comprise Personal Health & Beauty products, and deeper examination at the country level reveals that the two primary corporate advertisers across all four countries are L'Oréal (217 ads) and Procter & Gamble (390 ads), both highly active in the Personal Health & Beauty sector and with the latter also a major player in Food & Beverages and Household Goods through its multiple brands.

Further investigation of the multinational brands featured in the content analysis provides observational insights into the levels of standardization/adaptation deployed. Table

4.5 below draws attention to 26 companies advertising in all four countries – most of which place multiple entries (especially in the case of the two aforementioned prolific advertisers) and frequently use the same sub-brand across each market. The companies in Table 4.5 are organized by country or region of origin, and separated according to companies applying a standardized branding approach and companies adapting to the local market environment by use of the relevant local place association.

It is interesting to note, especially in the context of the present study which focuses on the role of 'place', that some of the major multinationals refer to their local subsidiary operations in the North American ads (e.g., IBM Canada; Nissan North America; Nestlé Canada) to highlight their localized positioning and deflect from their “foreign” status in the active market, in order to engage with the local consumer (Batra et al. 2000; Dmitrovic, Vida, and Reardon 2009).

This observation infers that the use of place may play a role when multinational companies chose to adopt a ‘glocal’ approach (Quelch 2003) and respond to local market environments, and/or perceived consumer preferences, i.e., a polycentric orientation blended with regiocentrism (Wind, Douglas, and Perlmutter 1973). For example, the BMW name stands alone in the UK and Italy, but is specified as BMW Canada and BMW North America respectively in Canada and the U.S..

Similarly, having undergone various modifications to its brand name during its 75-year history, Procter & Gamble’s international skincare brand “Olay” (previously also “Ulay” and “Oil of Ulay” in some countries) is still known as “Oil of Olaz” in Italy. However, as illustrated in Appendix D, the company retains the same visual brand graphics internationally across the full product line, demonstrating the ‘glocal’ approach described by

Table 4.5: Companies/Brands advertising across all four countries

Company	Company/Brand Name Presented:			
	Canada	USA	UK	Italy
U.S. Companies				
<i>standardized:</i>				
Coty Inc.	Calvin Klein	Calvin Klein	Calvin Klein	Calvin Klein
Coty Inc.	Rimmel London	Rimmel London	Rimmel London	Rimmel London
Disney	Disney	Disney	Disney	Disney
Elizabeth Arden	Elizabeth Arden	Elizabeth Arden	Elizabeth Arden	Elizabeth Arden
P&G	Gillette	Gillette	Gillette	Gillette
P&G	Max Factor	Max Factor	Max Factor	Max Factor
<i>local adaptation:</i>				
American Express	American Express	American Express	American Express Services Europe	American Express
Daimler-Chrysler	Daimler-Chrysler Canada	Chrysler	DaimlerChrysler	DaimlerChrysler
Hewlett-Packard	Hewlett-Packard Canada	Hewlett-Packard	Hewlett-Packard	HP
IBM	IBM Canada	IBM	IBM	IBM
Kellogg Company	Kellogg Canada	Kellogg	Kellogg's (4 sub-brands)	Kellogg's
P&G	Olay	Olay	Olay	Oil of Olaz
European Companies				
<i>standardized:</i>				
Bayer AG	Bayer	Bayer	Bayer	Bayer
Beiersdorf	Beiersdorf	Beiersdorf	Beiersdorf	Beiersdorf
Chanel	Chanel	Chanel	Chanel	Chanel
Dior	Dior	Dior	Dior	Dior
L'Oréal Group	Garnier	Garnier	Garnier	Garnier
L'Oréal Group	Lancôme Paris	Lancôme Paris	Lancôme Paris	Lancôme Paris
L'Oréal Group	L'Oréal Paris	L'Oréal Paris	L'Oréal Paris	L'Oréal Paris
Lufthansa	Lufthansa	Lufthansa	Lufthansa	Lufthansa
Unilever	Dove	Dove	Dove	Dove
Volkswagen	Volkswagen	Volkswagen	Volkswagen	Volkswagen
<i>local adaptation:</i>				
BMW AG	BMW Canada	BMW of North America	BMW	BMW
GlaxoSmithKline	GlaxoSmithKline	GlaxoSmithKline	GlaxoSmithKline	Aquafresh
L'Oréal Group	Maybelline Canada	Maybelline New York	Maybelline	Maybelline New York
Nestlé Group	Nestlé Canada	Nestlé	Nestlé	Nestlé
Reckitt Benckiser	Reckitt Benckiser (Canada)	Reckitt Benckiser	Dr. Scholl	Dr Scholl
Rolex	Rolex Canada	Rolex	Rolex	Rolex
Asian Companies				
<i>standardized:</i>				
Shiseido	Shiseido	Shiseido	Shiseido	Shiseido
<i>local adaptation:</i>				
Nissan Motor Co.	Nissan	Nissan North America	Nissan	Nissan
Sony	Sony of Canada	Sony Electronics	Sony Corporation, Japan	Sony
Kao Brands	John Frieda Professional Hair Care	John Frieda Professional Hair Care	John Frieda	Kanebo International

Quelch (2003) whereby companies adapt elements of their communication executions or sub-branding for global brands, in order for them to resonate more strongly with the local target consumer.

Table 4.6 illustrates 42 companies which advertise some of their brands in three out of the four focal countries. These companies also reveal a tendency to anchor themselves in their local market operations, especially in the North American markets, but not necessarily in a consistent manner across each market in which they operate (e.g., McDonald's and McDonald's Canada; Ricoh and Ricoh Canada; Honda, American Honda Motor, and Honda (UK); Samsung and Samsung Electronics America). Therefore, it is observed that the use of place in support of the brand/company image varies depending on the individual market environment, implying that there are antecedent factors affecting the decision to use place in individual marketing communications. These observations of country level diversity and congruity lend themselves to further discussion in the next two sections that review and compare the advertising appeals and executions used in the ads, as well as the country origins of the various brands.

4.1.2. Advertising Appeals and Executions

This section examines the use of advertising appeals (the main reason presented in the message to stimulate a behavioural response by the consumer) and advertising executions (how the message is presented to the target audience) by general industry sector and individual country. The full classification listings and the definitions of the appeals and executions used in the content analysis stage of the study are provided in Appendices E and

Table 4.6: Companies/Brands advertising in three out of the four countries

Company	Company/Brand Name Presented:			
	Canada	USA	UK	Italy
U.S. Companies				
<i>standardized:</i>				
Cisco Systems	Cisco Systems	Cisco Systems	Cisco Systems	--
Ford	Ford	Ford	Ford	--
Johnson & Johnson	Johnson & Johnson	Johnson & Johnson	Johnson & Johnson	--
Johnson & Johnson	Neutrogena	Neutrogena	Neutrogena	--
Johnson & Johnson	--	RoC	RoC	RoC
Kimberly-Clark	Kimberly-Clark Worldwide	Kimberly-Clark Worldwide	Kimberly-Clark Worldwide	--
Mattel	Mattel	Mattel	--	Mattel
Motorola	--	Motorola	Motorola	Motorola
P&G	Iams	Iams	Iams	--
P&G	Pantene	--	Pantene	Pantene
Estée Lauder Corp.	--	Estée Lauder	Estée Lauder	Estée Lauder
Ralph Lauren	--	Ralph Lauren	Ralph Lauren	Ralph Lauren
Tiffany & Co.	--	Tiffany & Co.	Tiffany & Co.	Tiffany & Co.
<i>local adaptation:</i>				
Citigroup	Citigroup	Citi	Citigroup Inc.	--
General Motors	General Motors Canada	General Motors	Chevrolet	--
Intercontinental Hotels	Intercontinental	Holiday Inn	--	Holiday Inn
KF Holdings	Kraft Canada	Kraft Foods	--	Kraft
McDonald's	McDonald's Canada	McDonald's	--	McDonald's
Xerox Corporation	Xerox Canada	Xerox	--	Xerox
Revlon Consumer	Revlon Consumer Products	Revlon Consumer Products	Revlon	--
Estée Lauder Corp.	--	Clinique Laboratories	Clinique	Clinique
European Companies				
<i>standardized:</i>				
British Airways	British Airways	British Airways	British Airways	--
Clarins Group	Clarins Paris	--	Clarins Paris	Clarins Paris
LVMH	Givenchy	--	Givenchy	Givenchy
LVMH	--	Tag Heuer	Tag Heuer	Tag Heuer
Miele	Miele	--	Miele	Miele
Nokia	--	Nokia	Nokia	Nokia
Philips	--	Philips	Philips	Philips
UBS	--	UBS	UBS	UBS
<i>local adaptation:</i>				
Allianz Group	Allianz Group	--	Allianz	Allianz
Giorgio Armani	--	Giorgio Armani	Giorgio Armani	Armani
Danone Groupe	--	Dannon	Danone	Danone
HSBC	HSBC Canada	HSBC	HSBC Bank plc	--
SAP AG	SAP AG	SAP AG	SAP AG, Germany	--
Porsche AG	Porsche Cars North America	Porsche Cars North	--	Porsche
Asian Companies				
<i>standardized:</i>				
Canon	Canon	Canon	Canon	--
Hyundai	Hyundai	Hyundai	--	Hyundai
Singapore Airlines	Singapore Airlines	Singapore Airlines	Singapore Airlines	--
Toyota Motor Corp.	Lexus	Lexus	Lexus	--
Toyota Motor Corp.	Toyota	Toyota	Toyota	--
<i>local adaptation:</i>				
Honda	Honda	American Honda Motor	Honda (UK)	--
Ricoh	Ricoh Canada	Ricoh	Ricoh	--
Sharp	Sharp	Sharp USA	Sharp	--
Samsung	Samsung Electronics Canada	Samsung Electronics	Samsung	--
Brother Industries	--	Brother Industries	Brother	Brother
Fujitsu	--	Fujitsu	Fujitsu Siemens Computers	Fujitsu Siemens
Mitsubishi Group	--	Mitsubishi Motors	Mitsubishi Motors	Mitsubishi
Seiko Epson Co.	--	Seiko	Seiko	Seiko Epson Co.

F. The total volume of print ads (6,303) in the database provides a wealth of information warranting further analysis for the general field of cross-cultural advertising research.

A summary review of the use of the various appeals and executions is provided to examine variances in communication styles depending on the different target audiences, and based on the company's market orientation, such as a tendency towards standardization or adaptation. The analysis in this section, however, is restricted to the critical focal areas for the first phase of this study in its role as the platform from which to launch the second and third phases. Table 4.7 summarizes the advertising appeals used for each of the four types of publications, with the Lifestyle (N = 878) and Benefits (N = 646) proving the most popular across the four types and ranking in the top five of each. The top six types of appeal overall (used more than 400 times) are skewed by the significantly higher volume of ads in the Fashion and Lifestyle publications (respectively 38% and 30% of the total). The variances in appeal types between the four publications reflect the different audiences targeted and, therefore, the different industry sectors advertising.

It may be intuitively expected that the rational Information (N = 488) appeal features heavily in the Business and News publications, and indeed ranks in the top five appeal types of both in first and third position respectively. Information is also a frequently chosen appeal type in the Fashion and Lifestyle publications, but its use is overshadowed by the more emotional types of appeal, such as Prestige, and Sex appeals.

Over 25 different types of execution are used in conjunction with the advertising appeals across the four publication types. Table 4.8 demonstrates, however, that 12 execution types predominate with a usage level of 200 or more ads. As observed in the

Table 4.7: Advertising Appeal by Type of Publication

Appeal Type	Business		News		Fashion		Lifestyle		Total	
	N	% of total	N	% of total	N	% of total	N	% of total	N	% of total
Lifestyle Benefit(s)	88	8%	126	15%	481	20%	183	10%	878	14%
Joy-Body Information	103	9%	57	7%	188	8%	298	16%	646	10%
Feature(s)	26	2%	13	2%	299	12%	175	9%	513	8%
Humour	177	15%	70	9%	132	6%	109	6%	488	8%
Prestige	99	8%	75	9%	98	4%	174	9%	446	7%
Quality	91	8%	62	8%	104	4%	161	8%	418	7%
Sex	60	5%	45	5%	213	9%	35	2%	353	6%
Econ/Price/Value	59	5%	46	5%	104	4%	126	7%	335	5%
Convenience	4	<1%	8	1%	244	10%	51	3%	307	5%
Tech-Expertise	69	6%	43	5%	45	2%	57	3%	214	3%
Caring	52	4%	40	5%	42	2%	73	4%	207	3%
Joy-Clothing	63	5%	53	6%	26	1%	50	3%	192	3%
Reliability	42	4%	17	2%	37	2%	72	4%	168	3%
Fear	6	<1%	6	<1%	96	4%	28	2%	136	2%
Joy-Health	51	4%	23	3%	34	1%	22	1%	130	2%
Altruism	37	3%	15	2%	22	<1%	40	2%	114	2%
Love	13	1%	13	2%	34	1%	52	3%	112	2%
Success	19	2%	31	4%	32	1%	28	2%	110	2%
Other	12	1%	6	<1%	50	2%	38	2%	106	2%
	53	5%	29	4%	12	<1%	10	<1%	104	2%
	53	<5%	49	6%	95	4%	129	7%	326	5%
Total Ads	1,177	100%	827	100%	2,388	100%	1,911	100%	6,303	100%
		19%		13%		38%		30%		100%

$\chi^2 = 1451.26, df = 84, \text{ significant at } p=0.05$

Legend: The table is ordered according to total usage.

Bold: Top 5 advertising appeals (each with >400 ads, >7% of total)

"% of total": Adds to 100% vertically by column (percent distribution of sector's ads by country)

Note: Detailed classification list and item definitions are provided in Appendix E

review of the appeal types used, the more cognitive styles of execution (e.g., Product-Demonstration, Straight-Sell, Product-Association) are used to a proportionately greater extent in the Business and News publications, in contrast to the emotional styles (e.g., Consumer-Image and Fantasy/Mood) deployed in the Fashion and Lifestyle magazines.

Table 4.8: Advertising Execution by Type of Publication

Execution	Business		News		Fashion		Lifestyle		Total	
	N	%of total	N	%of total	N	%of total	N	%of total	N	%of total
Product-Illustration	145	12%	168	20%	506	21%	366	19%	1185	19%
Consumer-Image	48	4%	68	8%	483	20%	189	10%	788	13%
Product-Association	176	15%	112	14%	156	7%	195	10%	639	10%
Straight-Sell	125	11%	73	9%	179	7%	105	5%	482	8%
Product-Demonstration	103	9%	38	5%	118	5%	129	7%	388	6%
Product-Prob/Sol	75	6%	42	5%	99	4%	167	9%	383	6%
Celebrity-Endorse	30	3%	41	5%	203	9%	101	5%	375	6%
Consumer-Vignettes	64	5%	30	4%	103	4%	136	7%	333	5%
PCI	88	7%	73	9%	59	2%	112	6%	332	5%
Consumer-Fantasy/Mood	23	2%	14	2%	180	8%	44	2%	261	4%
Straight-News/Info	73	6%	31	4%	56	2%	79	4%	239	4%
Product-Technology	31	3%	32	4%	57	2%	95	5%	215	3%
Product-Dramatization	42	4%	30	4%	39	2%	34	2%	145	2%
Endorse-Customer	51	4%	24	3%	9	<1%	4	<1%	88	1%
Product-Comparative	15	1%	5	<1%	18	<1%	28	1%	66	1%
Consumer-Storyline	13	1%	7	<1%	25	1%	21	1%	66	1%
Celebrity-General	8	<1%	9	1%	32	1%	14	<1%	63	1%
Consumer-Testimonial	19	2%	4	<1%	14	<1%	16	<1%	53	<1%
Product-Hero	17	1%	5	<1%	12	<1%	18	<1%	52	<1%
Spokesperson-Fictitious	8	<1%	4	<1%	9	<1%	18	<1%	39	<1%
Spokesperson-Employee	10	<1%	3	<1%	6	<1%	12	<1%	31	<1%
Endorse-Expert	5	<1%	4	<1%	5	<1%	7	<1%	21	<1%
Special Effects	2	<1%	3	<1%	6	<1%	9	<1%	20	<1%
Celebrity-Testimonial	1	<1%	3	<1%	6	<1%	9	<1%	19	<1%
Other	5	<1%	4	<1%	8	<1%	3	<1%	20	<1%
Total Ads	1,177	100%	827	100%	2,388	100%	1,911	100%	6,303	100%
		19%		13%		38%		30%		100%

$\chi^2 = 916.1, df = 81, significant at p=0.05$

Legend: The table is ordered according to total usage.

Bold: Top 5 advertising appeals (each with >380 ads, >6% of total)

Bold/Underlined: PCI as an execution style

"% of total": Adds to 100% vertically by column (percent distribution of sector's ads by country)

Note: Detailed classification list and item definitions are provided in Appendix F

The use of product-country image (PCI) as an execution tool is highlighted separately to emphasize the versatility of its usage to the different audiences across the four publication types. Notably, this tool features in the top five execution styles used in both the Business and News publications, and is ranked 9th overall (N = 332, 5%).

Reviewing advertising appeals across the four focal country markets of this content analysis study, Table 4.9 illustrates a number of between-market variances. As discussed previously (Chapter 3, 2.2.) the four subject countries in the database share a degree of economic homogeneity and, therefore, each market may be described as well-developed and mature, which in advertising terms points to a tendency towards emotional rather than rational types of advertising appeals (Chandy et al. 2001; Lee and Carter 2005). The appeal types used in each publication country in this study's database largely support this proposition, as observed by the predominant use of Lifestyle (14%) appeals. An emphasis on the benefits gained from using the advertised brand is also a popular appeal type across all of the markets, used in over 10% of cases.

However, despite the aforementioned level of economic homogeneity and the commonality of brands across the focal countries, as shown in Tables 4.4 and 4.5 above, there are notable divergences in the usage of other appeal types. This is suggested in the first figure in this section, Figure 4.1, by the unequal distribution of ads across the four publication types. In fact, some 26 different types of appeal (see detailed discussion on advertising appeals in Chapter 2, Section 2.2.3.) appear in total across the four publication types in each of the four markets, but the composition of the top five appeal types in each market varies outside of the two most popular appeals (Lifestyle, Benefits), which feature in 24% of the total ads (N = 1,524). This may be attributable in part to cultural differences,

Table 4.9: Advertising Appeal by Country of Publication

Appeal Type	Canada		U.S.		UK		Italy		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Lifestyle	145	11%	157	9%	233	18%	343	17%	878	14%
Benefit(s)	149	11%	145	9%	179	14%	173	9%	646	10%
Joy-Body	232	17%	146	9%	71	5%	64	3%	513	8%
Information	94	7%	157	9%	69	5%	168	8%	488	8%
Feature(s)	130	10%	112	7%	87	7%	117	6%	446	7%
Humour	109	8%	179	11%	66	5%	64	3%	418	7%
Prestige	17	1%	63	4%	164	13%	109	5%	353	6%
Quality	47	3%	87	5%	62	5%	141	7%	337	5%
Sex	37	3%	43	3%	70	5%	157	8%	307	5%
Econ/Price/Value	58	4%	91	6%	43	3%	22	1%	214	3%
Convenience	62	5%	60	4%	16	1%	69	3%	207	3%
Tech-Expertise	12	<1%	25	2%	67	5%	89	4%	193	3%
Caring	58	4%	49	3%	18	1%	43	2%	168	3%
Joy-Clothing	3	<1%	32	2%	26	2%	75	4%	136	2%
Reliability	16	1%	24	1%	14	1%	77	4%	131	2%
Fear	32	2%	58	4%	19	1%	5	<1%	114	2%
Joy-Health	32	2%	56	3%	6	<1%	18	<1%	112	2%
Altruism	29	2%	36	2%	17	1%	28	1%	110	2%
Love	17	1%	27	2%	16	1%	46	2%	106	2%
Success	17	1%	20	1%	30	2%	37	2%	104	2%
Variety	25	2%	30	2%	6	<1%	38	2%	99	2%
Availability	1	<1%	4	<1%	13	1%	48	2%	66	1%
Pride	17	1%	22	1%	3	<1%	18	<1%	60	<1%
Patriotism	5	<1%	18	1%	1	<1%	27	1%	51	<1%
Joy-Food	10	<1%	13	<1%	1	<1%	20	1%	44	<1%
Other	-	-	-	-	1	<1%	1	<1%	2	<2%
Total Ads	1,354	100%	1,654	100%	1,298	100%	1,997	100%	6,303	100%
		21%		26%		21%		32%		100%

$\chi^2 = 1184.56, df = 84, \text{ significant at } p=0.05$

Legend: The table is ordered according to total usage.

Bold: Top 5 advertising appeals (each with >440 ads, >7% of total)

"% of total": Adds to 100% vertically by column (percent distribution of appeal types by country)

for example, the importance of Prestige in the UK and Sex in Italy, versus the preferred use of Humour in the two North American markets (Rapaille 2006), as well as to the divergence in the advertiser industry sectors presented in the previous Section 1.1.

More surprisingly, and of particular interest to this study's exploration of the use of place associations, Table 4.9 reveals a higher use of patriotism in the Italian print ads compared to the other countries in the study. As an appeal, Patriotism serves as a motivator in the purchase of domestic products and services in preference to foreign, imported ones (Phau and Prendergast 2000; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004). While open expressions of patriotism are well-known attitudes attributed to the U.S., this is less well-known as a valued trait in Italy.

A more explicit illustration of the influence of culture on advertising styles can be found at the advertising execution level presented in Table 4.10. While the product is quite rightly the hero across the markets, and this may also be deployed to support the use of the Lifestyle appeal by illustrating the product's 'fit' in the depicted scenario, the execution types selected indicate a tendency towards the more emotionally-laden image building tactics.

However, cognizant of the low context cultural orientation (Hall 1976) of the U.S. market, Table 4.10 also demonstrates that advertisers are more likely to use explicit execution styles (e.g., Straight-Sell, Product-Demonstration, Consumer-Vignettes) in the U.S., compared to, say, in the higher context culture of Italy, where more subtle styles of Consumer-Image, Product-Association and Consumer-Fantasy/Mood are preferred by marketing managers and their associated advertising agencies.

Table 4.10: Advertising Execution by Country of Publication

Execution	Canada		U.S.		UK		Italy		Total	
	N	%of total	N	%of total	N	%of total	N	%of total	N	%of total
Product-Illustration	169	12%	177	11%	474	37%	365	18%	1,185	19%
Consumer-Image	202	15%	149	9%	50	4%	387	19%	788	13%
Product-Association	129	10%	131	8%	138	11%	241	12%	639	10%
Straight-Sell	115	8%	181	11%	126	10%	60	3%	482	8%
Product-Demonstration	130	10%	174	11%	52	4%	32	2%	388	6%
Product-Prob/Sol	65	5%	122	7%	89	7%	107	5%	383	6%
Celebrity-Endorse	82	6%	91	6%	70	5%	132	7%	375	6%
Consumer-Vignettes	114	8%	194	12%	17	1%	8	<1%	333	5%
<u>PCI</u>	<u>87</u>	<u>6%</u>	<u>101</u>	<u>6%</u>	<u>32</u>	<u>2%</u>	<u>112</u>	<u>6%</u>	<u>332</u>	<u>5%</u>
Consumer-Fantasy/Mood	12	<1%	19	1%	74	6%	156	8%	261	4%
Straight-News/Info	36	3%	39	2%	64	5%	100	5%	239	4%
Product-Technology	57	4%	34	2%	9	<1%	115	6%	215	3%
Product-Dramatization	17	1%	47	3%	34	3%	47	2%	145	2%
Endorse-Customer	16	1%	46	3%	21	2%	5	<1%	88	1%
Product-Comparative	16	1%	30	2%			20	1%	66	1%
Consumer-Storyline	16	1%	21	1%	18	1%	11	<1%	66	1%
Celebrity-General	24	2%	22	1%	5	<1%	12	<1%	63	1%
Consumer-Testimonial	22	2%	24	1%	2	<1%	5	<1%	53	<1%
Product-Hero	17	1%	12	<1%	7	<1%	17	<1%	53	<1%
Spokesperson-Fictitious	7	<1%	4	<1%			28	1%	39	<1%
Spokesperson-Employee	11	<1%	8	<1%	1	<1%	11	<1%	31	<1%
Endorse-Expert	1	<1%	7	<1%	10	1%	4	<1%	22	<1%
Special Effects	4	<1%	8	<1%		<1%	8	<1%	20	<1%
Celebrity-Testimonial	4	<1%	6	<1%	1	<1%	8	<1%	19	<1%
Endorse-Employee	1	<1%	5	<1%	3	<1%	3	<1%	12	<1%
Endorse-Complementary	-	-	2	<1%	1	<1%	3	<1%	6	<1%
Total Ads	1,354	100%	1,654	100%	1,298	100%	1,997	100%	6,303	100%
		21%		26%		21%		32%		100%

$\chi^2 = 1511.43, df = 81, significant at p=0.05$

Legend: The table is ordered according to total usage.

Bold: Top 5 advertising executions (each with >380 ads, >6% of total)

Bold/Underlined: PCI as an execution style

"% of total": Adds to 100% vertically by column (percent distribution of execution types by country)

4.1.3. Use of Product-Country Image (PCI) as an Execution Tool

Table 4.11 highlights specifically the use of PCI as a primary execution style across all four markets – this is separate to the general use of place associations as a strategic contributor to brand image building, which is discussed in more detail later in Section 2 of this chapter.

The literature review (Chapter 2, Section 2.2.3) describes how the use of a place association (country, city, or region) reinforces the brand's values when supported by the reputation of that place relevant to the industry sector (Al-Sulaiti and Baker 1998; Pappu, Quester, and Cooksey 2007; Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, and Palihawadana 2011). So, for example, whatever the designer brand origin of the advertised watches (e.g., the French Breguet and Cartier brands, the U.S. Tiffany brand), a reference to the “Swiss-made” quality credentials of their advertised timepieces is incorporated in the ad (visible in the product shot and often cited in the text).

As also observed in this study's database, in the Food & Beverage sector the use of a place association can play a critical role in reinforcing the product's local sourcing (and therefore its freshness and adherence to locally-recognized quality standards) or authenticity for specialty dishes, such as Japanese sauces or Italian pasta products. In this content analysis, the use of PCI as an execution tool is identified when the origin of the brand takes centre-stage as the means of communicating the core brand message.

In this study, there is a notable level of diversity between the markets in terms of the use of this executional style that cannot be ascribed to a North American versus European divide: of the total 332 ads, Italy leads the use of PCI as an executional tool (112 ads, 34%), whereas only 10% of PCI executions are observed in the UK publications (32 ads),

compared to the remaining 56% of executions split between the U.S. (101 ads, 30%) and Canada (87 ads, 26%).

In fact, PCI is the sixth most popular execution style used in the Italian publications, and is ranked within the top ten execution styles used in both the North American publications.

Table 4.11: Use of PCI Execution by Country of Publication

Execution	Canada		U.S.		UK		Italy		Total N
	N	% of style	N	% of style	N	% of style	N	% of style	
Product-Illustration	169	14%	177	15%	474	40%	365	31%	1185
Consumer-Image	202	26%	149	19%	50	6%	387	49%	788
Product-Association	129	20%	131	21%	138	22%	241	38%	639
Straight-Sell	115	24%	181	38%	126	26%	60	12%	482
Product-Demonstration	130	34%	174	45%	52	13%	32	8%	388
Product-Prob/Sol	65	17%	122	32%	89	23%	107	28%	383
Celebrity-Endorse	82	22%	91	24%	70	19%	132	35%	375
Consumer-Vignettes	114	34%	194	58%	17	5%	8	2%	333
<u>PCI</u>	<u>87</u>	<u>26%</u>	<u>101</u>	<u>30%</u>	<u>32</u>	<u>10%</u>	<u>112</u>	<u>34%</u>	<u>332</u>
Consumer-Fantasy/Mood	12	5%	19	7%	74	28%	156	60%	261
Other Execution styles	249	22%	315	28%	176	15%	397	35%	1137
Total # of Ads	1,354		1,654		1,298		1,997		6,303

$\chi^2 = 1511.43, df = 81, significant at p=0.05$

Legend: The table shows the top ten execution styles, ordered according to total usage.

Bold/Underlined: PCI as an execution style

"% of style": Adds to 100% horizontally by column (distribution of execution styles by country)

There is further diversity noted when the use of PCI executions is examined by industry sector within each country of publication. Although one might intuitively expect PCI to be the primary executional style for the Travel & Tourism sector, as well as for the Government sector, whose 'product' is often centred on place location, Table 4.12 highlights that a brand's place association may also play a role in delivering the core message of the

products/brands in other sectors. While it has been argued that the use of place images to support the brand image is not constricted by any one industry sector, the variations observed between the markets suggest that the local consumers' perceptions of the place image may have a moderating effect on the decision to leverage the respective place associations in the product/brand advertising.

Table 4.12: Use of PCI Execution by Industry Sector by Country of Publication

Industry Sector	Canada		U.S.		UK		Italy		TOTAL	
	N	% of total	N	% of total	N	% of total	N	% of total	N	% of total
Government	18	21%	8	8%	13	41%	10	9%	49	15%
Food & Beverages	6	7%	11	11%	3	9%	12	11%	32	10%
Travel & Tourism	3	3%	3	3%	1	3%	20	18%	27	8%
Financial Services	9	10%	12	12%	2	6%	3	3%	26	8%
Personal Health & Beauty	11	13%	5	5%	1	3%	8	7%	25	8%
Media & Communications	7	8%	6	6%	1	3%	7	6%	21	6%
Apparel & Accessories	-	-	5	5%	-	-	14	13%	19	6%
Automobile & related	8	9%	7	7%	-	-	2	2%	17	5%
Watches & Jewellery	-	-	10	10%	3	9%	3	3%	16	5%
Liquor & Tobacco	1	1%	8	8%	-	-	2	2%	11	3%
Other Sectors	24	28%	26	26%	8	25%	31	28%	89	27%
TOTAL	87	100%	101	100%	32	100%	112	100%	332	100%

Legend: The table is ordered according to total usage.

Bold: Top 5 sectors using PCI execution style

"% of total": Adds to 100% vertically by column (percent distribution of sector's ads by country)

In the North American markets, PCI executions serve to emphasize the local connections of the banks and institutions offering financial services to connote their ability to serve the specific needs of the local market. In Italy, this 'localness' is of particular importance in the country's renowned Apparel & Accessories sector, which ranks higher

than the Government sector in the use of PCI executions. In contrast, 41% (N = 13) of the ads using PCI executions in the UK publications comprise regional and international Government agencies (which also contributes to the diversity of countries represented in the UK publications, discussed later in this chapter).

While a review of the PCI execution style by industry sector does not reflect a consistent pattern across the markets, the analysis of PCI executions by advertising appeal type, shown in Table 4.13, further demonstrates the versatility of the PCI execution in combination with different appeal types. It also brings to the fore additional elements that warrant highlighting.

Table 4.13: Use of PCI Execution by Advertising Appeal by Country of Publication

Appeal Type	Canada		U.S.		UK		Italy		TOTAL	
	N	% of total	N	% of total	N	% of total	N	% of total	N	% of total
Lifestyle	29	33%	14	14%	4	11%	11	10%	58	18%
Information	15	17%	13	13%	6	19%	11	10%	45	14%
Patriotism	5	6%	16	16%	-	-	13	12%	34	10%
Quality	4	5%	7	7%	3	9%	17	15%	31	9%
Benefit(s)	5	6%	3	3%	5	16%	7	6%	20	6%
Prestige	-	-	12	12%	2	6%	5	4%	19	6%
Humour	6	7%	9	5%	1	3%	3	3%	19	6%
Feature(s)	6	7%	1	1%	2	6%	7	6%	16	5%
Pride	2	2%	1	1%	2	6%	4	4%	9	3%
Variety	1	1%	2	2%	1	3%	4	4%	8	2%
Other Appeal Styles	20	23%	23	23%	6	19%	37	33%	86	26%
TOTAL	87	100%	101	100%	32	100%	112	100%	332	100%

Legend: The table is ordered according to total usage.

Bold: Top 5 advertising appeals where PCI is the execution style

"% of total": Adds to 100% vertically by column (percent distribution of sector's ads by country)

In North America especially, PCI plays a key role in anchoring the aspirational Lifestyle appeal, and also as a support to the Information appeal. Moreover, the combination of the PCI execution with both appeal types is not confined to one specific industry sector, as indicated by the diversity illustrated previously in Table 4.8 and observed in the database.

With reference to the cultural differences identified earlier in Table 4.9, it is noteworthy that PCI is used in conjunction with the Sex appeal featured in the U.S. publications by Italian (Dolce & Gabbana) and French (Dior) perfume brands, utilizing the credentials of their associated country reputations to reinforce the appropriate use of this appeal and underscore the brand origins. This is not required so explicitly in the domestic Italian advertising, with Italian advertisers demonstrating the heaviest usage of the Sex appeal among the four subject countries, but not in conjunction with their relatively high use of PCI as an execution tool.

The overview of the use of PCI by advertising appeals presented in Table 4.13 also accentuates the use of the Patriotism appeal in Italy and the U.S. (discussed previously), which is far less frequently used by advertisers in Canada and the UK. Although not widely anticipated as a valued trait in Italy, the importance of stimulating a sense of local pride can be derived from the relatively high use of PCI as an execution tool, in conjunction with the domination of local brands featured across the Italian publications, discussed in the next section.

4.1.4. Use of Brand Country of Origin Associations

At this point it should be clarified that the following analysis of the print advertisements refers to the recognized country of origin of the brands themselves, rather than the associated registered country of ownership in cases where the brand has over time been acquired by (or merged with) a holding or investment company, such as Compagnie Financière Richemont S.A. (owner of luxury brands such as the French Cartier, Swiss Baume & Mercier, and German Montblanc). Frequently in such cases, the brand identity retains its associations with the original brand place of origin rather than that of the parent owning company.

For example, the automotive brands Jaguar and Land Rover retain their British identity in the face of the consumer, despite current ownership by Tata Motors of India; Gucci and Bulgari are distinctly Italian fashion and luxury goods brands under the umbrella of the French multinational PPR/Kering; the American apparel brands Donna Karan New York (DKNY) and Marc Jacobs are marketed separately to the French brands owned by their French parent company LVMH Moët Hennessy•Louis Vuitton, as are the parent company's Swiss watch brand Tag Heuer and Scotch whisky brand Glenmorangie.

A review of the country of origins of the brands advertised in the respective country publications, as summarized below in Table 4.14, reveals the dominance of domestic brands in both the U.S. (73%) and Italy (63%). Although British brands dominate within the UK publications (33%), overall a much greater diversity of international brands can be observed in the UK database, with some 38 countries represented in total (compared to 30 in Italy, 25 in the U.S., and 16 in Canada); this information is detailed in Appendix G.

There are significant differences within and between the four markets pertaining to the country of origin of the brands featured. Most notably, within the definition of brand origin as described above, 73% (N = 1,213) of ads in the U.S. publications are American brands and 63% (N = 1,251) of the ads in the Italian publications comprise domestic

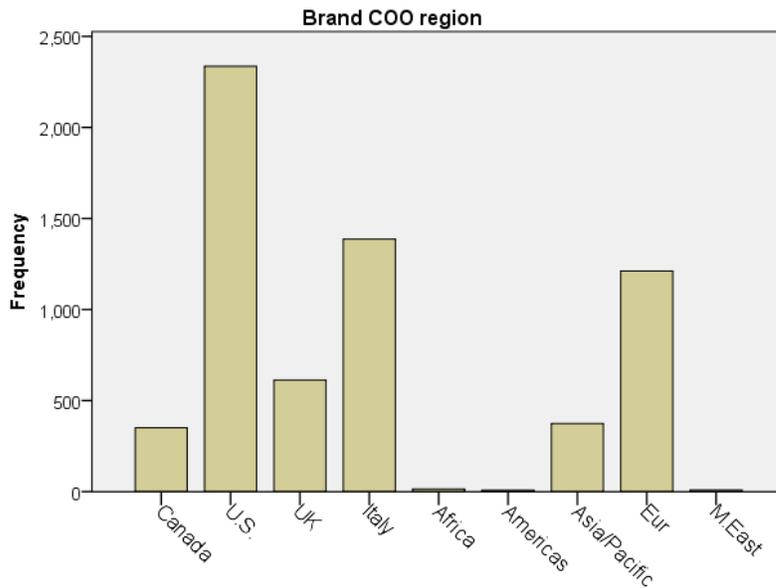
Table 4.14: Brand Country of Origin Distribution by Country of Publication

Publication Brand Origin	Canada	U.S.	UK	Italy
Canada	24.2%	1.1%	<1%	<1%
U.S.	50.6%	73.3%	19%	9.6%
UK	3.8%	4.7%	32.7%	2.8%
Italy	<1%	<1%	9.6%	62.6%
$\chi^2 = 1002.33, df = 3, significant at p=0.05$				

brands/companies. This contrasts with only one third (N = 425) of the ads in the UK publications and one quarter (N = 327) of the ads in the Canadian publications representing domestic company brands. The high percentage of ‘local’ brands featured in Italian publications may be attributable to the high number of small businesses active in the country’s world-renowned fashion and beauty industry that contributed to the proportionately larger volume of ads appearing in the country’s Fashion and Lifestyle publications (shown earlier in Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.3 highlights the country of origin of the various brands, grouped by the four focal countries and the continental regions of the remainder. As indicated in the previous analyses, U.S. and Italian brands predominate overall, followed by other European brands (excluding the separately counted Italian and British brands) due to the proliferation of brands from the French L’Oréal Group. The notable volume of British and Canadian brands

Figure 4.3: Number of Ads by Brand Country of Origin Region



is largely attributable to their appearance in their domestic publication titles rather than across the four country markets

.Bearing in mind the variances in the number of ads by country market (from 1,298 ads in the UK to 1,997 ads in Italy) and in the distribution of ads across the four publication types in each market (shown earlier in Figure 4.1), a summary of the mean distribution of the advertised brands at the primary local brand versus foreign brand level was first reviewed across the publication types, before investigating more deeply at the brand origin level.

As shown in Table 4.15, the variance between local and foreign brands across the four publication types is fairly even: the mean variance between the Business and Fashion publications is statistically significant, but this may be skewed by the high percentage of local Italian brands appearing in the relatively high volume of ads in the Fashion

Table 4.15: Comparative Local/Foreign Brand Country of Origin by Publication Type

Variable	Business	News	Fashion	Lifestyle	Inter-magazine assessments
Local	1.7 ^a	1.9 ^{ab}	2.1^b	1.9 ^a	FS > LS=NW > BS
Foreign	2.3^a	2.1 ^{ab}	1.9 ^b	2.1 ^a	BS > NW=LS > FS

Legend: BS=business, NW=news, FS=fashion, LS=lifestyle

Except for means sharing the same superscript within each row, all differences are significant at alpha level 0.005

publications in Italy, combined with the country's dominance in the two industry sectors that contribute 43% of the ads in the advertising-heavy Italian publications (Figure 4.1).

Drilling down further into the country of origin of the remaining brands in each publication country, a notable contrast can be observed between the two European countries versus the two North American countries with regard to the variety of brand origins. Table 4.16 below summarizes the number of ads from each of the four focal markets in their respective publications, as well as the distribution of ads from other regions and the total number of countries represented across the four publication types in each country market.

Compared to their North American counterparts, there is a greater number of countries featured in the Italian and UK publications, although these are predominantly from each other's and other European (and especially EU-member) countries, as might be anticipated from geographic proximity and the greater intra-country opportunities afforded by economic union. A similar proportion of ads (4-8%) appear from the Asia-Pacific region in both countries, primarily represented by global Asian brands such as Nissan, Sony, Shiseido, Toyota, Samsung, Honda, and Hyundai that appear across the four focal country markets.

Table 4.16: Brand Country of Origin by Region by Country of Publication

Canada			U.S.			UK			Italy		
Canada	328	24%	Canada	18	1%	Canada	3	<1%	Canada	3	<1%
U.S.	685	51%	U.S.	1213	73%	U.S.	245	19%	U.S.	192	10%
UK	52	4%	UK	78	5%	UK	425	33%	UK	55	3%
Italy	1	<1%	Italy	11	<1%	Italy	124	10%	Italy	1251	63%
Europe	198	15%	Europe	191	12%	Europe	414	32%	Europe	411	21%
Asia-Pacific	87	6%	Asia-Pacific	136	8%	Asia-Pacific	75	6%	Asia-Pacific	76	4%
Africa	0	0%	Africa	3	<1%	Africa	5	<1%	Africa	6	<1%
Americas	3	<1%	Americas	2	<1%	Americas	3	<1%	Americas	0	0%
Middle East	0	0%	Middle East	2	<1%	Middle East	4	<1%	Middle East	3	<1%
<u>Total # of countries:</u>			<u>Total # of countries:</u>			<u>Total # of countries:</u>			<u>Total # of countries:</u>		
<u>16</u>			<u>25</u>			<u>38</u>			<u>30</u>		

Tables 4.5 and 4.6 indicated that these global brands adapt elements of their marketing communications strategy – in this case, the use of place – depending on differing local market environments. This is an important consideration when discussing the use of place in international marketing communications based only on the observation count in a content analysis study.

There is notably less diversity of international brands in the two North American markets, where three-quarters of the advertisements comprise U.S. and Canadian brands in both cases, followed by European brands. Although there is a higher volume of Asia-Pacific brands in the North American publications, this still only constitutes less than 10% of the brands represented at regional country level.

In the Canadian publications, only one quarter of the ads comprise Canadian brands, with just over one half of the ads supplied by U.S. brands, reflecting the overwhelming size of the firms from Canada’s neighbour and the close relationship between the two – emphasizing Canada’s strong international trading relationship with the U.S., which has

been the destination for 75% of Canadian exports and the source of 64% of Canadian imports over the past six years (Statistics Canada, CANSIM, table 228-0058). While it is not surprising that Canadian brands barely feature in the European publications (less than 1%), a higher percentage of Canadian brands might be expected to appear in the domestic publications; however, this study is restricted to four specific print publications and does not examine other media channels to which the Canadian brands may afford more weight for their marketing communications.

Both European and North American publications reveal a level of cultural homogeneity in terms of the paucity of Asian brands featured in the print advertising across all publication types. Overall, U.S. brands contribute over one third of the ads across the four country markets, as highlighted in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Brand Country of Origin by Region – Total All Publications

TOTAL ALL PUBLICATIONS		
Canada	352	6%
U.S.	2335	37%
UK	610	10%
Italy	1387	22%
Africa	14	<1%
Americas	8	<1%
Asia	374	6%
Europe	1214	19%
Middle East	9	<1%
<u>Total # of countries represented: 46</u>		

In each country's case, domestic brands advertise a large proportion of the products across the different sectors – American brands clearly dominate in Canada (51%), reflecting the close geographic and cultural proximity between the two markets and Canada's easy

access to the high volume and range of brands from its much larger neighbour. The detailed breakdown of the advertised brands' country of origin by country of publication can be found in Appendix G.

With respect to the specific countries of origin of the advertised brands, Table 4.18 highlights the top ten countries represented in each market and demonstrates the dominance of French and American brands internationally. As described previously (Section 4.1.1.), the two primary advertisers across the four countries are L'Oréal (France) and Procter & Gamble (U.S.), both highly active in the Personal Health & Beauty industry sector and with the latter also competing in the Food & Beverages and Household Goods sectors.

L'Oréal's specialization in the beauty sector facilitates its use of the company name as the umbrella brand for a range of product sub-brands, through which it also adds the 'Paris' suffix to reinforce its association with the city's (and nation's) reputed expertise in beauty and fashion – a strategy that it repeats across key acquired brands, such as Lancôme Paris, and the use of French in the sub-brand names and advertising of its Cacharel and Garnier brands.

Table 4.18: Top Ten Brand Country Origins by Country of Publication

Canada			U.S.			UK			Italy		
U.S.	685	51%	U.S.	1213	73%	UK	425	33%	Italy	1251	63%
Canada	328	24%	Japan	110	7%	U.S.	245	19%	France	218	11%
France	92	7%	UK	78	5%	France	222	17%	U.S.	192	10%
Japan	70	5%	France	68	4%	Italy	124	10%	Switz.	79	4%
Switz.	54	4%	Germany	53	3%	Germany	74	6%	Germany	75	4%
UK	52	4%	Switz.	41	3%	Japan	57	4%	Japan	57	3%
Germany	47	4%	Canada	18	1%	Switz.	39	3%	UK	55	3%
S.Korea	7	<1%	S.Korea	18	1%	Neth.	20	2%	Neth.	10	<1%
Sweden	5	<1%	Neth.	12	<1%	Denmark	10	<1%	Spain	9	<1%
Australia	3	<1%	Italy	11	<1%	Sweden	9	<1%	Taiwan	9	<1%

Given Procter & Gamble's range of products spanning multiple industry sectors (through a vigorous new product development process and brand acquisitions), the company's advertising communications centre on the needs of the individual brands and uses a wide range of appeals and executions accordingly. The company's brands retain their original names across as many countries as possible and are not anchored to a specific country of origin, rather a tendency to allude to a global appeal and sense of cosmopolitanism.

4.2. Use of Place Associations

This section of the content analysis examines the use of place cues in the advertisements across the same categories of the industry sectors, advertising appeals and executions, and country origins of the featured brands across four publication types in the four focal markets.

Section 4.1.3. analysed the use of place images (PCI) at the primary execution level and found that there is consistent usage of this tool across the markets, as well as across industry sectors and in conjunction with various appeals. Therefore, further investigation into the more subtle use of place associations is warranted in this first phase of the study, to assess the extent to which place associations are actually used to contribute to overall brand image building, and whether this is confined to specific industry sectors, publication types, general appeal/execution styles in communicating the core brand message, and whether or not the brand is advertising in its home market affects usage.

The detailed database (described in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.3.1.) comprises a comprehensive account of specifically which countries are referenced at different points in each of the 6,303 ads, and where in the ad the references appear (e.g., in the headline, in the

main body of the text, in the fine print). However, for the purposes of this study the detailed descriptions were reduced to a numeric count of:

- how many place cues were incorporated in the text, i.e., city, region or country names pertaining to the brand's heritage or operations, including "worldwide" and "international" references;
- how many place cues were incorporated in the visual graphics – by means of well-known symbolic representations of a place, such as the Eiffel Tower, the Taj Mahal, or the Union Jack flag, or models/celebrities associated with a specific place (e.g., the British supermodel Kate Moss is the face and voice of Rimmel's "London Look" campaign);
- how many place cues were incorporated in product shots (e.g., the "Swiss-made" reference on watchfaces, as discussed previously).

The counting of the number of place cues used in the ads to associate the brand with a place, especially with regard to usage in the visual elements of the ad, highlights the importance of at least one of the judges in the content analysis process being native to the publication country (Craig and Douglas 2001; Lerman and Callow 2004), in terms of the understanding of the fine cultural nuances that anchor the brand to a specific place, and recognition of various symbols (including nationally well-known celebrities or landmarks) that communicate a distinctive message to the intended audience.

The use of a place reference in the brand name (e.g., Lancôme Paris, Rimmel London) was recorded separately, along with the number of times the place-related brand name appears in the text and the visuals (product shot). The brand name is obviously required to feature in the ad and all communication vehicles, but nonetheless is utilized to

emphasize and remind the audience of the brand’s association with a specific place and is, therefore, an integral component of the branding communications strategy – again, either relating to the brand’s heritage and using the general reputation of the place to support the brand’s value offering, or as a means to indicate the localized credentials of its operations (e.g., Sony of Canada; Porsche Cars North America). Hence, this element is noted separately in the following analysis tables.

Table 4.19 summarizes the total number of place association cues used across the different locations in the ads described above. In this study’s database, over 17,000 place cues are used in print advertising – an average of 2.7 place cues per ad in the different text, visual and/or product shot formats. This is in addition to 1,463 (23%) cases where place references constitute an integral part of the advertised brand’s name and are in many cases repeated in the body of the text or in the visual graphics.

Table 4.19: Total Number of Place Cues Used in Ads

Use of Place	All Publications	
in text	11,719	68%
in visual	1,718	10%
in product shot	3,835	22%
<u>Total number of cues</u>	<u>17,272</u>	
Mean number of cues/ad	2.7	
Place in brand name	1,463	
- total brand name appearances in text/visual	5,456	
<u>Total Number of Place Cues/ad</u>	<u>22,728</u>	
<u>Total Mean Number of Place Cues/ad</u>	3.6	

In total, there are 22,728 place references used (mean = 3.6). Notably, 68% of the “supplementary” place cues (i.e., those not incorporated within the brand/company name) are located in the ad’s text, suggesting a more explicit association with the place than is provided through the use of related visual symbols.

In order to assess the levels of usage at the company/brand level, the count by brand was measured using four levels: none, low (1-3 cues), medium (4-9 cues), or high (10 or more cues). As presented in Table 4.20, over half of the ads contain at least one place reference, albeit at different levels of usage (this is examined further at the country level later in this chapter).

Table 4.20: Usage Level of Place Cues in Print Ads

Place Cue Use/Ad	All Publications	
none	2,506	40%
low (1-3 cues)	2,349	37%
medium (4-9 cues)	1,023	16%
high (>10 cues)	425	7%
<u>Total # of ads</u>	<u>6,303</u>	<u>100%</u>

Overall, the 17,272 place cues incorporated in the advertising execution were distributed across 60% of the advertisements, with nearly one quarter of the ads using four or more cues in their brand campaigns across the three format types (text, visual, product shot).

In 1,463 cases the brand name itself incorporates a place reference. Table 4.21 below reveals that in 61% of cases (N = 892), additional place cues are used in the text and/or the visual graphics of the print ads to supplement the brand’s place-related positioning, nearly half of which use more than four additional cues (N = 383).

Table 4.21: Use of Place Cues in conjunction with Place in Brand Name

Use of Place Cues/Name	All Publications	
<u>Place in Brand Name</u>	<u>1,463</u>	100%
+ No cue	571	39%
+ low (1-3)	509	35%
+ medium (4-9)	245	17%
+ high (>10)	138	9%
<u>Total # of ads: 6,303</u>		

If the use of place in the brand name and the brand name's appearances in the ad is counted as a place cue in addition to the text, visual, and product shot references described previously, the 571 ads (no additional place cues) highlighted in Table 4.21 may be added to the total number of ads using place associations in their overall branding communications.

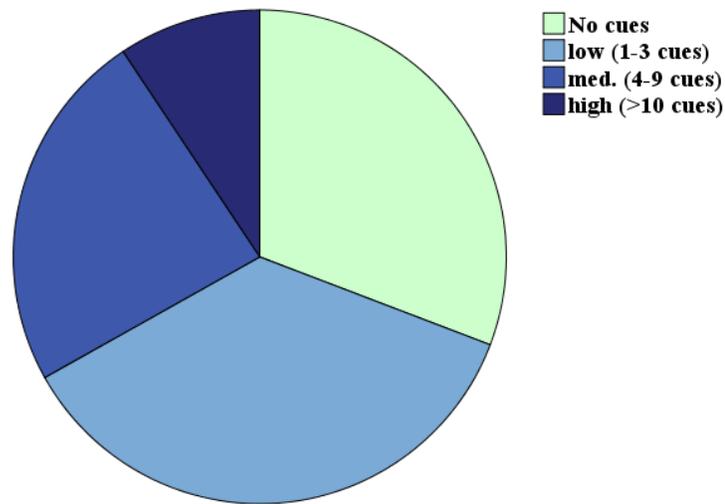
To capture the overall use of place cues across all the ads in the database, the number of place references by means of the company brand name is added to the supplementary place references, and the low, medium, and high usage levels are adjusted accordingly in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Usage Level of All Place Cues in Ads (adjusted)

Usage of Place Cues/Ad	All Publications	
none	1,941	31%
low (1-3 cues)	2,274	36%
medium (4-9 cues)	1,498	24%
high (>10 cues)	590	9%
<u>Total # of ads</u>	<u>6,303</u>	<u>100%</u>

In total, the number of ads featuring some type of place association reference, by means of an integral component of the brand name and/or additional place cues in the execution, increases to 4,368 (70%). Moreover, a third of the ads in the four-country database (2,088) display more than four cues across the various text and visual formats, as illustrated in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4: Usage Level of All Place Cues per Ad



Therefore, the content analysis confirms that there exists a broad usage of place cues in international print advertising. Given the broad cross-section of publication types and industry sectors incorporated within the database, the use of place cues (N = 22,728, mean = 3.6) is examined at the magazine type and industry sector levels and then at the country level, to explore any particular patterns of usage of place associations in marketing communications.

4.2.1. Use of Place Associations by Magazine Type and Industry Sector

Table 4.23 shows that the greater volume of total place cues appears in the Fashion (7,143) and Lifestyle (6,585) publications compared with the Business (5,080) and News (3,920) types of publications, both at the ad execution level and as an integral part of the brand name.

Table 4.23: Use of Place Cues in Ads by Publication Type

Use of Place	Business N=1,177		News N=827		Fashion N=2,388		Lifestyle N=1,911	
in Text	3,044	68%	2,358	74%	3,397	65%	2,920	59%
in Visual	392	10%	375	12%	556	11%	395	8%
in Product Shot	489	22%	464	15%	1,276	24%	1,606	33%
<u>Total number of Place Cues</u>	<u>3,925</u>		<u>3,197</u>		<u>5,229</u>		<u>4,921</u>	
Mean number of Cues/Ad	3.3		3.9		2.2		2.6	
Place in brand name	315		213		534		401	
- total place brand name appearances in text/visual	1,155		723		1,914		1,664	
<u>Total Number of Place Cues</u>	<u>5,080</u>		<u>3,920</u>		<u>7,143</u>		<u>6,585</u>	
<u>Total Mean Number of Cues/Ad</u>	4.3		4.7		3.0		3.5	

Interestingly, the usage of place cues is proportionately higher in the News (mean = 4.7) and Business (mean = 4.3) publications on account of the lower volume of ads appearing in these two publication types (N = 827 and N = 1,177 respectively), when compared to the Lifestyle (N = 1,911, mean = 3.5) and Fashion (N = 2,388, mean = 3.0) publications. This can partly be attributed to the variation in industry sectors advertised in the respective publications.

The MANOVA test of the total usage of place cues among the four publication types suggests that the publications can be paired into Business/News and Fashion/Lifestyle: the variance between the two pairs of publications is statistically significant, as illustrated in Table 4.24 (and was previously noted at the brand origin level in Table 4.15). While the pairings are clearly visible at the Total Use of Place Associations and Total All Place Cues (incl. Place in Name) levels, the application of the place association does vary at the Text, Visual, and Product Shot levels, indicating other factors moderating the execution of the place tool.

Table 4.24: Comparative Use of Place Cues by Publication Type

Variable	Business	News	Fashion	Lifestyle	Inter-magazine assessments
Place in Name	0.3 ^a	0.3 ^{a b}	0.2 ^{a b}	0.2 ^b	BS=NW > FS=LS
in Text	2.6 ^a	2.9 ^a	1.4 ^b	1.5 ^b	NW > BS > LS > FS
in Visual	0.3	0.5	0.2 ^a	0.2 ^a	NW > BS > FS=LS
in Product Shot	0.4 ^a	0.6 ^{a b}	0.5 ^a	0.8 ^b	LS > NW > FS > BS
<u>Total Place Cues</u>	<u>3.3</u> ^a	<u>3.9</u> ^a	<u>2.2</u> ^b	<u>2.6</u> ^b	NW > BS > LS > FS
<u>Total All Place Cues</u>	<u>4.3</u> ^a	<u>4.7</u> ^a	<u>3.0</u> ^b	<u>3.4</u> ^b	NW > BS > LS > FS

Legend: BS=business, NW=news, FS=fashion, LS=lifestyle

Except for means sharing the same superscript within each row, all differences are significant at alpha level 0.005

As discussed in Section 4.1.1 of this chapter, the industry sectors are distributed across the publication types according to their relative appeal to the different readership profiles, and so, variations in the use of place cues by industry sector might be anticipated. The observations of the use of place cues by industry sector in Table 4.25 further demonstrate the diversity of the use of place associations in marketing communications.

The industry sectors are ranked according to the number of ads placed in total across the four different publication types in all four markets.

As might be anticipated, over 70% of the 22,728 place cues used appear in the ads representing the top ten industry sectors, which is attributable to the sheer volume of ads published by the firms in these sectors – especially in the Personal Health & Beauty and Apparel & Accessories sectors that are so prolific in the Italian and British publications.

Examination of the mean number of place cues used per ad, shown in the end column of Table 4.25, highlights that there is a greater propensity to incorporate a place reference in the company/brand name, as well as to use multiple place cues in the ad executions, among some of the sectors that advertise to a considerably lower extent (e.g., Government, Aviation & Aerospace).

Table 4.25 reveals that the least advertised sectors use a higher rate of place cues, with 12 out of the 24 sectors scoring above a mean of 4.0 place cues per ad: most notably, the Government sector (mean = 9.5), Travel and Tourism (mean = 7.7), Aviation and Aerospace (mean = 7.1), Education & Training (mean = 6.4), and Charities/NGOs (mean = 6.4). These industry sectors primarily advertise in the Business and News publications and so contribute to the relatively high mean scores recorded in these publications. However, the lower volume of ads featured in these publications (owing to the more specialized and therefore smaller audience, compared to Fashion and Lifestyle publications) explains their low volume ranking in terms of advertised industry sectors.

Among the top ten sectors, only the Financial Services (mean = 4.8) and Media & Communications (mean = 4.8) sectors used place cues above the mean rate (mean = 3.6).

Table 4.25: Use of Place Cues in Ads by Industry Sector

	Place in Name		Use of Place-based Name		Use of General Place Cues				Total All Place Cues		
	N	%of total	N	Mean	in text	in visual	prod. Shot	TOTAL	N	%of total	Mean
Personal Health & Beauty	435	27%	1830	4.2	1619	199	1770	3588	5418	24%	3.4
Apparel & Accessories	78	9%	151	1.9	1471	194	336	2001	2152	9%	2.6
Food & Beverages	138	28%	644	4.7	578	83	371	1032	1676	7%	3.4
Watches & Jewellery	43	11%	129	3.0	825	97	154	1076	1205	5%	3.2
IT & Communications	64	20%	257	4.0	646	68	54	768	1025	5%	3.2
Financial Services	118	39%	418	3.5	869	92	85	1046	1464	6%	4.8
Automobile & related	77	28%	304	4.0	463	111	52	626	930	4%	3.4
Media & Communications	50	19%	211	4.2	657	188	226	1071	1282	6%	4.8
Household Goods	22	9%	85	3.9	271	40	62	373	458	2%	1.9
Medicines/Medical	32	15%	136	4.3	241	27	52	320	456	2%	2.1
Business Services	31	15%	116	3.7	499	90	40	629	745	3%	3.7
Telecomms	26	17%	95	3.7	444	62	62	568	663	3%	4.2
Retail	23	15%	76	3.3	208	52	108	368	444	2%	3.0
Other Prods/Servs	29	22%	84	2.9	370	95	16	481	565	2%	4.3
Home Décor & Improvement	7	7%	30	4.3	156	13	19	188	218	1%	2.0
Travel & Tourism	40	40%	156	3.9	577	22	26	625	781	3%	7.7
Government	76	78%	198	2.6	554	104	74	732	930	4%	9.5
Charities, NGOs	36	43%	122	3.4	242	25	150	417	539	2%	6.4
Liquor & Tobacco	33	40%	93	2.8	155	17	60	232	325	1%	4.0
Leisure & Entertainment	15	22%	44	2.9	121	31	63	215	259	1%	3.9
Consumer Electronics	14	22%	61	4.4	155	18	39	212	273	1%	4.2
Aviation & Aerospace	41	65%	95	2.3	276	64	13	353	448	2%	7.1
Education & Training	28	56%	97	3.5	205	17	3	225	322	1%	6.4
Oil & Energy	7	23%	24	3.4	117	9	0	126	150	1%	4.8
Total	1463	23%	5456	3.7	11,719	1718	3835	17,272	22,728	100%	3.6

These two sectors advertise predominantly in the Business and News publications, which lends weight to the earlier proposition that there are distinct differences between the Business/News and Fashion/Lifestyle publication pairings. The high volume of assorted place cues in the Personal Health & Beauty sector is largely attributable to the proliferation of the L'Oréal Group of brands and their assertions of their French heritage, specifically the Parisian association with fashion and beauty (e.g., L'Oréal Paris, Lancôme Paris). It may equally be noted that place cues have a role to play across all industry sectors in support of branding communications.

4.2.2. Use of Place Associations by Country Market

A review of the use of place associations among the four focal country markets examines the volume of place associations used by application type and in relation to the total number of ads across the four publication types.

Table 4.26 reveals the variation between the North American and European markets: although there is a greater volume of ads in the Italian publications (32% of total ads), the mean use of place cues per ads is 4.1, which is close to the UK mean of 4.2, both notably greater than the mean use of place cues in the Canadian (mean = 3.7) and U.S. publications (mean = 2.5).

This variation between the two pairs of country markets is reaffirmed in Table 4.27, which summarizes the usage levels of place associations (excluding place references in the company/brand name), based on the coded levels of none (no cues), low (1-3 cues), medium (4-9 cues), or high (10 or more cues). Notably, over half of the Canadian (53%) and U.S. (62%) ads do not incorporate a supplementary place association to reinforce/support the

brand image, in contrast to the prolific usage in the European publications, where the majority of ads use at least one place cue and over 30% of the ads in the UK and Italian publications feature more than four place cues to support the company/brand image.

Table 4.26: Use of Place Cues in Ads by Country of Publication

Use of Place	Canada	U.S.	UK	Italy	TOTAL
in Text	1,529 58%	1,714 69%	3,603 77%	4,873 65%	11,719 68%
in Visual	230 9%	363 15%	473 10%	652 9%	1,718 10%
in Product Shot	878 33%	397 16%	582 12%	1,978 26%	3,835 22%
<u>Total number of Place Cues</u>	<u>2,637</u>	<u>2,474</u>	<u>4,658</u>	<u>7,503</u>	<u>17,272</u>
Mean number of Cues/Ad	2.0	1.5	3.6	3.8	2.7
Place in brand name	528	421	307	207	<u>1,463</u>
- total brand name appearances in text/visual	2,372	1,610	729	745	<u>5,456</u>
<u>Total Number of Place Cues</u>	<u>5,009</u>	<u>4,084</u>	<u>5,387</u>	<u>8,248</u>	<u>22,728</u>
<u>Total mean number of cues/ad</u>	<u>3.7</u>	<u>2.5</u>	<u>4.2</u>	<u>4.1</u>	<u>3.6</u>

However, this is not to undermine the role of place associations outside of the European region since, as illustrated previously in Table 4.26, there is a greater preference for integrating a place reference in the brand name in the North American publications. In Canada especially, the brand name-specific place reference is repeated several times through the text, visual, and pack shot elements of the ad.

Table 4.27: Usage Level of Place Cues in Ads by Country of Publication

Usage level	Canada		U.S.		UK		Italy		TOTAL	
none	714	53%	1,022	62%	261	20%	509	25%	2,506	40%
low (1-3)	433	32%	444	27%	644	50%	828	41%	2,349	37%
med (4-9)	155	11%	137	8%	273	21%	460	23%	1,025	16%
high (>10)	52	4%	51	3%	120	9%	200	10%	423	7%
Total	1,354		1,654		1,298		1,997		6,303	

But, as a further point of contrast between the two regions, Table 4.28 demonstrates that when a brand name does incorporate a place reference in the European ads, it is repeated more frequently within the ad. This implies that the use of a place reference within a brand name plays more of an instrumental and assertive role in the brand's communication strategy in those specific cases.

Table 4.28: Use of Place Cues and Place in Brand Name by Country of Publication

Use of Place	Canada		U.S.		UK		Italy		TOTAL	
<u>Place in Name</u>	<u>528</u>	<u>39%</u>	<u>421</u>	<u>25%</u>	<u>307</u>	<u>24%</u>	<u>207</u>	<u>10%</u>	<u>1,463</u>	<u>100%</u>
+ No cue	257	49%	250	59%	39	13%	25	12%	571	39%
+ low (1-3)	177	34%	114	27%	139	45%	79	38%	509	35%
+ med (4-9)	59	11%	43	10%	84	27%	59	29%	245	17%
+ high (>10)	35	7%	14	3%	45	15%	44	21%	138	9%

As demonstrated in the industry sector analysis, when the use of place cues by means of the company/brand name is incorporated within the overall count of place association references, it can be confirmed that more than two-thirds of advertisers use some form of place association as a complement to their brand image-building marketing communications, summarized in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29: Usage Level of All Place Cues in Ads by Country of Publication

Usage level (adjusted)	Canada		U.S.		UK		Italy		TOTAL	
none	457	34%	772	47%	222	17%	484	24%	1,935	31%
low (1-3)	383	28%	506	31%	602	46%	789	40%	2,280	36%
med (4-9)	394	29%	280	17%	328	25%	496	25%	1,498	24%
high (>10)	120	9%	96	6%	146	11%	228	11%	590	9%
Total # of Ads	1,354		1,654		1,298		1,997		6,303	
<u>Mean # of cues/ad</u>	<u>3.7</u>		<u>2.5</u>		<u>4.2</u>		<u>4.1</u>		<u>3.6</u>	

Although the U.S. publications reveal a relatively lower usage of place cues (mean = 2.5), which may be partly attributed to the high proportion of local brands (73%) featured and implicitly negates the need to stress the place association, 53% of the U.S. ads and 66% of the Canadian ads incorporate a place reference, either within the brand/company name or as a supplementary heuristic to aid product/brand evaluations (Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999). Over 75% of the European ads feature one or more place cues (11% using more than 10 cues per ad) with an average usage rate of 4.2 and 4.1 respectively across the British and Italian publications.

Analysis of variance tests were conducted to assess the validity of the pairwise relationships suggested in the country-wise review of the data. Table 4.30 indicates that while a place reference is more likely to be used within the brand name in the North American markets, place cues to support the brand image are more widely used within the European print advertising executions, especially in the text and visual parts of the ad.

The use of place cues in the product shot deviates somewhat from this assumption, however, the actual mean differences between the markets (rounded to one decimal place) is insufficient to draw key conclusions (between 0.2 and 0.7).

Table 4.30: Comparative Use of Place Cues in Ads by Country of Publication

Variable	Canada	U.S.	UK	Italy	Inter-country assessments
Place in Name	0.4	0.3 ^a	0.2 ^a	0.1	CA > US > UK > IT
in Text	1.1 ^a	1.0 ^a	2.8^b	2.4 ^b	UK > IT > CA > US
in Visual	0.2 ^a	0.2 ^a	0.4^b	0.3 ^b	UK > IT > CA=US
in Product Shot	0.7^a	0.2 ^b	0.4 ^{a,b}	0.3	CA > UK > IT > US
<u>Total Place Cues</u>	<u>2.0^a</u>	<u>1.5^a</u>	<u>3.6^b</u>	<u>3.8^b</u>	IT > UK > CA > US
<u>Total All Place Cues</u>	<u>3.7^a</u>	<u>2.5^{a,b,c}</u>	<u>4.2^b</u>	<u>4.1^c</u>	UK > IT > CA > US

Legend: CA = Canada, US = U.S., IT = Italy, UK = UK

Except for means sharing the same superscript within each row, all differences are significant at alpha level 0.005

The analysis reinforces the suggested pairings of the North American and the European publications overall, however, variations within the two pairs are also visible. In some cases, there are no significant differences between the UK and U.S., which may be partly attributable to the sharing of international brands that pursue a similar executional strategy across culturally homogeneous markets, acknowledging a shared cultural heritage. In other cases, the UK print advertising executions are more synonymous with their Italian counterparts (differences are statistically insignificant), reflecting a shared European orientation.

4.2.3. Use of Place Associations by Advertising Appeals and Executions

The use of place cues in relation to advertising appeals was also reviewed to assess the existence of specific criteria facilitating the use of place cues in advertising: Table 4.31 lists the appeals in order of popularity across all four country markets and publication types.

Table 4.31: Usage Level of Place Cues in Ads by Advertising Appeal

Adv. Appeal	Place Cues Usage level									
	No cues		low (1-3 cues)		medium (4-9 cues)		high (>10 cues)		Total	
Lifestyle	308	35%	379	43%	134	15%	57	6%	878	100%
Benefit(s)	264	41%	236	37%	101	16%	45	7%	646	100%
Joy-Body	267	52%	172	34%	52	10%	22	4%	513	100%
Information	151	31%	176	36%	106	22%	55	11%	488	100%
Feature(s)	196	44%	150	34%	75	17%	25	6%	446	100%
Humour	222	53%	132	32%	56	13%	8	2%	418	100%
Prestige	98	28%	147	42%	73	21%	35	10%	353	100%
Quality	123	37%	129	39%	58	17%	25	7%	335	100%
Sex	136	44%	117	38%	43	14%	11	4%	307	100%
Econ/Price/Value	81	38%	75	35%	46	21%	12	6%	214	100%
Convenience	86	42%	72	35%	32	15%	17	8%	207	100%
Tech-Expertise	38	20%	83	43%	43	22%	28	15%	192	100%
Caring	97	58%	54	32%	10	6%	7	4%	168	100%
Joy-Clothing	56	41%	52	38%	24	18%	4	3%	136	100%
Reliability	32	25%	68	52%	24	18%	6	5%	130	100%
Fear	70	61%	25	22%	14	12%	5	4%	114	100%
Joy-Health	71	63%	34	30%	6	5%	1	1%	112	100%
Altruism	28	25%	44	40%	23	21%	15	14%	110	100%
Love	49	46%	40	38%	11	10%	6	6%	106	100%
Success	21	20%	47	45%	22	21%	14	13%	104	100%
Other	112	34%	117	36%	70	21%	27	8%	326	100%
Total	2,506	40%	2,349	37%	1,023	16%	425	7%	6,303	100%

$\chi^2 = 403.09, df = 84, \text{significant at } p=0.05$

Overall, it can be observed that a place cue may be used in conjunction with an appeal style in the majority of cases, reaffirming that the use of place cues is not confined to specific types of advertising appeals.

To illustrate this, Table 4.32 ranks the advertising appeal types by total usage of cues (none, low, medium, and high) in ads, displaying the appeals where place cues appeared in more than 100 ads. The diversity of brands and industry sectors advertising across the four country markets and publication types requires an equally broad range of advertising styles

to break through the clutter of communication noise within each category, thus indicating the variation in usage of place cues within a particular advertising appeal type.

Table 4.32: Ranking of Advertising Appeals by Usage Level of Place Cues in Ads

Adv. Appeal	Place Cues Usage level								Total Usage	
	No cues		low (1-3 cues)		medium (4-9 cues)		high (>10 cues)			
Lifestyle	308	35%	379	43%	134	15%	57	6%	570	65%
Benefit(s)	264	41%	236	37%	101	16%	45	7%	382	59%
Information	151	31%	176	36%	106	22%	55	11%	337	69%
Prestige	98	28%	147	42%	73	21%	35	10%	255	72%
Feature(s)	196	44%	150	34%	75	17%	25	6%	250	56%
Joy-Body	267	52%	172	34%	52	10%	22	4%	246	48%
Quality	123	37%	129	39%	58	17%	25	7%	212	63%
Humour	222	53%	132	32%	56	13%	8	2%	196	47%
Sex	136	44%	117	38%	43	14%	11	4%	171	56%
Tech-Expertise	38	20%	83	43%	43	22%	28	15%	154	80%
Econ/Price/Value	81	38%	75	35%	46	21%	12	6%	133	62%
Convenience	86	42%	72	35%	32	15%	17	8%	121	58%
Other (16 types)	536	41%	481	37%	204	16%	85	7%	770	59%
Total	2,506	40%	2,349	37%	1,023	16%	425	7%	3,797	60%
$\chi^2 = 403.09, df = 84, \text{significant at } p=0.05$										

Re-ordering the appeal types according to place cue usage does not dramatically change the ranking order of the appeals, reflecting the versatility of this tool to underscore the brand message and connote elements of competitive differentiation. Even in cases where a place association is not an integral feature of the appeal type (e.g., Joy-Body and Humour), depending on the specific positioning of the individual brand, a place cue may appear once or more than ten times in the ad.

The proposition that place cues can serve as a useful heuristic across a range of advertising styles and brands is reinforced in Table 4.33, which details the usage level of place cues by execution types (executions using place cues in more than 100 cases are

presented). Again, while place cues may not serve as a critical component in more complex execution styles such as Consumer-Vignettes (no place cues used in 62% of cases, N = 207), they may still have a role to play in this execution style, depending on the brand positioning, its relevant place association and the perceptions of the target audience.

Table 4.33: Ranking of Advertising Executions by Usage Level of Place Cues in Ads

Adv. Execution	Place Cues Usage level									
	No cues		low (1-3 cues)		medium (4-9 cues)		high (>10 cues)		Total Usage	
Product-Illustration	414	35%	484	41%	212	18%	75	6%	771	65%
Consumer-Image	372	47%	299	38%	92	12%	26	3%	417	53%
Product-Association	238	37%	260	41%	106	17%	35	5%	401	63%
Straight-Sell	197	41%	188	39%	75	16%	22	5%	285	59%
PCI	57	17%	88	27%	105	32%	82	25%	275	83%
Celebrity-Endorse	135	36%	149	40%	62	17%	29	8%	240	64%
Product-Prob/Sol	171	45%	133	35%	57	15%	22	6%	212	55%
Product-Demonstration	192	49%	140	36%	47	12%	9	2%	196	51%
Straight-News/Info	60	25%	82	34%	65	27%	32	13%	179	75%
Consumer-Fantasy/Mood	98	38%	110	42%	38	15%	15	6%	163	62%
Product-Technology	85	39%	71	33%	39	18%	21	10%	131	61%
Consumer-Vignettes	207	62%	85	26%	28	8%	13	4%	126	38%
Other (14 types)	280	41%	260	38%	97	14%	44	6%	401	59%
Total	2,506	40%	2,349	37%	1,023	16%	425	7%	3,797	60%
$\chi^2 = 551.93, df = 75, \text{significant at } p=0.05$										

4.3. Summary of Key Findings

Using the content analysis methodology in Phase 1 of this study has provided evidence that place references (in the form of countries, cities, or regions) are heavily used even in the current 'globalized' advertising environment. Moreover, the analysis underscores the versatility of place as a supporting tool in the communication of brand images to different audiences, across country markets and industry sectors.

A high level of diversity has been noted between the individual country markets within this study, resulting in statistically significant differences that reduce the generalizability of suggested country pairings in advertising approaches, especially when segmenting the data into industry sector groups. In fact, the review of the print ads across all four markets does reveal that many global brands will adopt a *glocal* approach (Quelch 2003) in some markets by adapting the specifics of their communication executions or sub-branding to the local market environment.

Although initiated as a platform for the following phases of this study's investigation from the managerial perspective, the content analysis contributes in itself to the field of international advertising research. Notably, the findings underscore the proposition that the use of place images is not confined to place marketers seeking to motivate a visit or investment response, in fact the use of place associations to complement the desired company or brand image values is widespread across industry sectors and country markets. Therefore, the inclusion of PCI in advertising classification schemes warrants further exploration. PCI, through its multitudinal manifestations, is a versatile tool that is used not only to add value through the brand's design or manufacturing origins, but also may infer a global presence or localized operation, depending on the facets of trust and credibility that resonate with the target audience to motivate the desired response.

Additionally, interesting insights were uncovered for cross-cultural research. The observations supported previous research that highlighted the differences between the UK and the U.S., despite a common cultural heritage (Nevett 1992; Toncar 2001), reflecting more similarities among the two European versus the two North American markets. On the other hand, some general patterns were also noted, implying that Italy is not the 'odd'

market among the four by reason of its different cultural heritage. In addition, this study suggests that traditional notions of cultural traits warrant further investigation as to how they have evolved in the modern globalized world (as discussed in Chapter 2), particularly considering the impact of the European Union on its member states, and the implications of this for the consumer audience.

While the content analysis confirms the broad use of place as a brand heuristic, the descriptive rather than prescriptive nature of the methodology does not provide specific insights into the antecedent factors prompting the use of place cues. However, the Phase 1 analysis does reveal that usage is not restricted by industry sectors, geography, or cultures.

Therefore, the Phase 2 in-depth interviews are a critical stage in the understanding of executives' attitudes toward the use of place associations in their brand communications strategies, and uncovering some of the key factors that influence the decision whether and to what extent place cues may be used, which can then be quantitatively evaluated in the Phase 3 survey. Moreover, the next stages of the study are required to incorporate a broad range of participants, in order to validate the key findings at this exploratory stage of research in the field of PCI and international branding from the managers' perspective.

CHAPTER 5. Phase 2: In-depth Interviews – Results

Phase 1 has verified that place cues are used to a broad extent within international print advertising, across a range of industry sectors and country markets. However, the content analysis does not explain why marketing managers choose to adopt them within their brand communications strategy. Since there is very little extant research on the use of place from the manager's perspective, a grounded theory approach has been adopted to identify the critical influencing factors, described in Chapter 3 (Section 3.3.2.1.).

Hence, this phase of the study makes a number of contributions to international marketing research, both in its role to guide Phase 3 of this study, and as a study in itself.

That is, Phase 2:

- identifies specific decision-making factors to be quantitatively tested in the Phase 3 survey;
- provides unique insights into managerial perspectives on the use of place images to support product brand image creation;
- adds to the development of grounded theory.

5.1. Sample Description

To understand how/why place marketing decisions are made and the factors that affect those decisions, it was important to speak with a cross-section of brand marketers and also stakeholders in the development and reinforcement of place-based images and reputations. Therefore, as noted in the Chapter 3 methodology section, three different groups were

identified at the qualitative in-depth interview phase as key stakeholders in the use of place in marketing communications, namely:

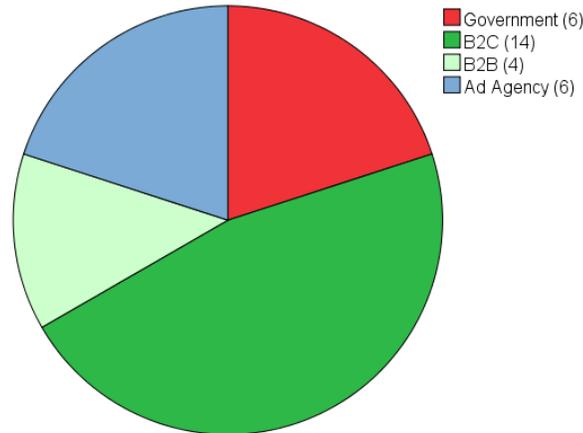
- private sector marketing managers from a range of industries, across both B2B and B2C sectors;
- advertising agencies charged with developing the advertising creatives for various brands;
- government agencies with a vested interest in the promotion of specific places.

As described in Chapter 3, the interview phase was conducted to the point where the variation in influential factors was exhausted, and incoming data no longer supplied new material (Corbin and Strauss 1990; Stern and Poor 2011). Hence, a total of 30 interviews was considered sufficient to ensure that the key factors were captured, in order to provide a platform for further investigation into this untapped area of study, as well as to aid development of the Phase 3 survey questionnaire.

The participant list was compiled from the author's existing network of private and public sector contacts, as well as that of her supervisor. Figure 5.1 below shows the breakdown of the 30 participants interviewed within the categories described above.

The Phase 1 content analysis indicates that the use of place associations in brand advertising is not confined to specific industry sectors or country origins. Therefore, the in-depth interviews in Phase 2 incorporated a wide range of respondents, who possess a broad international experience across English-speaking countries and organizations. To enrich the depth and breadth of information collected, the interviewees were of various nationalities. In some cases the respondents were representing their home country to different overseas markets, either within the home country or while located in a different host country (which

Figure 5.1: Number of Interviewees by Sector



was often the case among government respondents). In other cases, respondents were located in their home country and representing the interests of a foreign company. This is described in more detail later in the respondent category sections of this chapter. Notably, there were no variations in the responses attributable to nationality differences.

The business participants were drawn from multiple industry sectors (identified in line with the nomenclature described in the Phase 1 content analysis) to capture as representative a sample as possible of the sectors featured in the print advertising analysis. As detailed in Table 5.1, in addition to the eight government interviewees, there were six interviewees from the Media & Communications sector (advertising agencies providing creative and strategic input for product brand clients), and 16 interviewees from the private sector, covering both B2B and B2C businesses across eight industry sectors.

The selected interviewees operate at middle/senior levels of management and, therefore, it was critical to optimize the limited time available for an in-depth discussion. Confirmation of the interview times was agreed via email and in most cases a preliminary introduction to the general research topics was provided, which also helped to pique interest in the study itself. However, care was taken to not provide too much information or specific

Table 5.1: Interview Sources by Industry Sector

Industry	# of Participants	Percent
Government	8	27
Education & Training	1	3
Personal Health & Beauty	3	10
Food & Beverages	6	20
Liquor & Tobacco	2	7
Household Goods	1	3
Financial Services	1	3
IT & Communications	1	3
Business Services	1	3
Media & Communications	6	20
Total	30	100

questions at this stage, in order to avoid concerns of researcher bias by leading pre-prepared answers.

The interviews were conducted using a variety of face-to-face, Skype, and telephone methods of contact. The total duration of each interview was between 60 to 85 minutes. In all cases notes were taken during the interview, as well as points/comments that were added later during conversation, to capture the key points of emphasis and to ensure full comprehension of items raised during the interview discussion. In two-thirds of cases, recording of the interviews was also permitted, and these were later transcribed to supplement the notes taken.

5.2. Key Inputs

A wealth of viewpoints and insights was gathered through the interview process, with some notably common themes running through all three of the interview participant categories. This section is organized by the three respondent categories for which separate interview

guides were prepared. Each category is sub-divided into the primary topic areas in the interview guides, as described in Chapter 3 and provided in Appendix A, in order to understand the context of the individual's work environment, general approaches and attitudes toward brand image building in the context of the use of place associations, and attitudes toward private and public sector interactions in this area. The key findings are aggregated below with the pertinent quotations from the respondents.

5.2.1. Government Sector Participants

Participants were drawn from critical areas of government that have a vested interest in the reputations of the places they represent, i.e., tourism and international trade. The majority of interviews were conducted in Canada and included interviewees from both national agencies and from foreign embassies/consulates, which are charged with attracting Canadian interest in their home countries as well as expanding/protecting the interests of their home country nationals in the host country. Despite the potentially diverse perspectives of the individual interviewees, there was a high degree of consensus among the interview responses, especially with regard to the value of place associations in marketing communications and the importance of “getting it right” vis-à-vis the target audience.

The academic literature highlights how the marketing of place images has gained a foothold as a separate discipline in the broader field of marketing communications and mirrors traditional product marketing processes. Indeed, the government sector interviewees in this study revealed themselves to be highly attuned to the requirements (and potential pitfalls) of brand marketing, and their comments and approaches echoed many of those of the private sector respondents discussed later in this chapter. Since the establishment and

nurturing of place reputations is generally understood to be primarily under the guardianship of the government sector, it was interesting to capture directly their attitudes towards the development and application of place-based imagery.

5.2.1.1. Organizational Structure and Approach

The interview participants all spoke of the need to adopt a modernized approach – drawing from observations of successful product brand marketing in the private sector and citing role model brands – and the need for a shift from the shackles of government bureaucracy to a more responsive capability facilitating the adaptation of the core messages to the target audience. The foreign embassies/consulates are empowered with a degree of local autonomy within an overarching centralized strategic framework steered by the home country ministry:

“You can say it’s fairly centralized in terms of decision-making, with a little bit of local tactical input”

“... in countries like this one [Canada], for example, which is so big, the reality that you have on the East Coast is not the same as the reality we have on the West Coast, and the community we have here is very different to the one we have, for example, in Quebec.”

“It’s an interesting balance between that we’re relatively independent in some ways, in that they expect me to say what the priorities are here and what we should be doing, but that said, there are obviously overarching goals... as a result we operate to a degree as a network, so it’s a bit of a hybrid.”

Centrally-based place marketers also identified the need for a degree of outward flexibility with the guidelines issued to local (domestic regional and overseas) partner

agencies. While also undergoing a period of internal change/transition, this is considered critical to sustaining the overall country image relevant to the target audiences in the host countries, i.e., provide general guidelines and parameters, rather than strict instructions/executional rules:

“We can’t do our job in marketing without an integrated and working relationship with what’s going on in our global [communications] teams, so whether they are at our headquarters or are actually executing for us.”

“We have to help our people understand [our] brand affinity and personality, and not worry about a checklist of must-have-this – rather a filter of criteria that’s helpful.”

This is regardless of whether the country has a rich history of tradition and heritage on which to build (e.g., the UK) or is a relatively new country in terms of still in the process of establishing its distinctive reputation and core values globally (e.g., Canada). An acute awareness of the challenges in both cases was expressed: either through the need to emphasize different/new aspects of the traditional reputation in the case of the former, or through the need to determine and communicate the elements of the desired reputation/image in the case of the latter.

For instance, the UK and Turkey enjoy a sumptuous history of tradition and unique customs that plays a critical role in attracting tourist visitors, but are both at the same time seeking to strengthen their modernist and innovative credentials for the trade and investment communities. Similarly, Colombia's place image, and place reality, is dual: One the one hand, it is one of the world’s most ecologically diverse countries, with a rapidly developing economy (Medellin was named the 2013 "Innovative City of the Year" by a U.S. panel

including *The Wall Street Journal*) and a particularly strong reputation for fine coffee; on the other hand, the country is battling to extricate itself from its equally strong reputation in the illegal drugs trade (one of the most notorious drug barons of recent times was located in Medellin).

In the case of Canada, for example, it is a matter of defining the key elements that add value to the Canada brand, and are sustainable in so far as they offer points of differentiation to similar countries vying for the same audience and are relevant to that particular audience:

“Initially it was, ‘well, does this place, Canada, have anything to offer?’”

“We work very hard with our partners to raise up ‘experience’, because Canada competes on some levels, but we certainly wouldn’t compete on convincing Brazilians that you should shop in Toronto and not in New York. It’s still important to them but we have to differentiate something else, try to appeal to their travel motivators.”

5.2.1.2. Developing the Country Brand Image

The complexity of managing the country brand was underscored by the acknowledgement of the widely differing needs of the various government sectors in appealing to their respective audiences, especially at the national country level where the reputation is multi-layered and it is difficult to separate the different strands that make up the whole. The national place marketers perceive their role to be one of creating an umbrella brand that encapsulates the key defining elements, as a means to support the individual regional brands rather than dictate to them:

“We view it as creating an overall base that provincial initiatives can then leverage.”

At the local city or province level, the government agency may focus on specific aspects of its local assets to accentuate its unique strengths within the framework of the national country brand, and are subsequently more selective in their deployment of the brand symbols and tools provided. For example, Nova Scotia has been highly successful in exporting its blueberries to Japan:

“I’m sure that the Nova Scotia place brand means a lot more in terms of marketing that product to the Japanese than if we put a Canada maple leaf on it.”

As marketers, those charged with developing/enhancing the place image at the country level, are focused on the creation of a strong brand positioning that is:

- a) meaningful,
- b) credible/believable,
- c) able to withstand any transgressions that may add a negative perception.

This is in recognition of the fact that consumers are less likely to act on tentative positive perceptions in the absence of any firm knowledge or understanding about the product/brand, so it is important to cement the imagery in recognizable foundations:

“If consumers have a very limited knowledge of the strengths of the food system, when something negative does happen those positive perceptions are more susceptible to erosion.”

“Then you take just a few of those high profile things, like the beef crisis, and it smashes years’ worth of positive things [that you’ve been building].”

Central to this philosophy is a sensitivity towards when and where the developed image symbols should be deployed, i.e., according to relevancy for the specific product sector or target audience – differentiating between the domestic and overseas market segments according to the circumstances and knowledge base relating to the place.

“We could have the Canada brand and the Foodland Ontario brand co-existing, recognizing that if consumers see Ontario tomatoes they’d probably buy those, but if there’s a situation where there are Canadian tomatoes and Mexican tomatoes we want consumers to be able to easily identify and find the Canadian tomatoes, help them choose them.”

“This is coffee from Nariño, for example, and you try to sell it to the Colombian population living abroad, it will go a different way than if you tried to sell it to the Canadian population, or to the U.S. population, because they don’t know what Nariño is! And maybe they don’t know that that coffee is the best, so, they don’t want that, they just say give me Colombian coffee! Even though Nariño is there, but the brand, the place, is not known. It has no meaning.”

Equally, there is a sensitivity towards how that audience is approached in order to maximize the effect of the appeal in achieving the desired respondent behaviour, i.e., how to ensure that the message is resonating with its audience:

“If we are talking to you it’s you as a traveller; so traveller to traveller, and not government marketing entity to you as a tourist – which is a huge difference.”

To determine the key elements that constitute the place brand construct, the participants stressed the need for research to not only validate preconceived notions of what was ‘understood’ from the country name and associated symbols, but also to determine the

key factors that were important to the target audience in the respective product sectors. Moreover, the research is repeated for different markets, in recognition of the cultural variations in perceptions and motivational triggers:

“Certainly research was important. I think for food products, there was a well-founded notion that there was some good basis there [for use of Canada], and it was a matter of figuring out how it could work – how this place could work, specifically, what were the points that you wanted to focus on. So then you had to do the research to bring out that consumers demand a lot of things in their food.”

Notably, the marketing of places is perceived by the public sector marketers to be as competitive as that of private sector products and services. It is important that place marketers recognize precisely with whom they are competing when reaching out to the respective target audiences, not only to pinpoint their competitive advantage, but also to draw upon the observed ideas to stimulate their own imagination:

“French guys are usually more interested in protecting their brands and they want to show that products are from France. And here, they have an excellent country image campaign, the country brand is great – it’s absolutely great, it’s an example to me. But if, for example, we see a telephone or if I see a Cisco telephone, you don’t know if it was made in the U.S., or in Canada, or in China.”

“I love what Portland is doing and they are associating attributes – personality attributes that people like – to their place.”

5.2.1.3. Use of Place Associations

The use of place references is obviously central to the tools deployed by the government agency participants, who admitted to a strong bias in attributing the power of place

associations to product sectors outside of their own primary interest areas of tourism and international trade.

However, to fulfill their broader government roles of supporting home country businesses, the participants are acutely aware of when it is appropriate to deploy which symbols/attributes, i.e., when the use of place adds value to the brand/product (in the instances of a niche product that the company is trying to differentiate as such, e.g., Canadian-French cheese), and when anonymity is a more suitable option (e.g., when a locally-produced equivalent is available). This is deemed an essential piece of knowledge that can only be drawn from market-specific research – to highlight unexpected variances, as well as confirm preconceived notions:

“The only market that we have done research where it might not serve to be an advantage would be in the American market. In that case, Canadian and U.S. products are similar in many respects in terms of what the respective countries produce. And in many instances, in the absence of having clear country of origin information American consumers would likely assume that a Canadian product might be an American product. That would not create any disadvantages for the product... particularly if that product is commonly produced in the United States.”

Market-specific research is also critical to ensure that the meanings to be attached to the associated place resonate with the target consumer (such as the previously cited example of Nova Scotia blueberries in Japan, that may not be a relevant association in other countries), and that the symbols deployed communicate the intended values:

“The place must be famous for something, it must be globally known for something. And then if the product is well-defined, if you relate it well, then it

would make sense to help people make an assumption about that product. Otherwise, it's not going to have a true meaning of the association between the place and the product. It's important that people also recognize the symbol and what it means.”

This also suggests that, with so many elements from which to choose at the country level, the country brand marketer should focus on the core internationally-recognized strengths, rather than try to fundamentally shift long-established weak/negative perceptions. For instance, while British food may have substantially improved, its inherited notions of poor quality and blandness do not warrant the efforts of driving more positive associations to rebut its notoriety, so, “let's stick to the stuff we are known to be good at, and emphasize that.”

Although the national country place marketers would like to invite the whole world to see what they have to offer, it was revealed in several cases that priority markets are often designated to more accurately target their efforts at the early stages of image-building. This facilitates a more thorough research foundation from which to develop finely-tuned campaigns for maximum efficacy:

“I think if you get it right, you reinforce the perception of your own brand, or your product or your service, with the same characteristics of place that are often in people's minds... but if you're going to do it, you not only have to know your product, but you have to know how people perceive the place that you're associating with.”

In running a campaign across multiple markets, this may manifest itself in multiple executions of the central strategy to be effective across all the target markets. The

specificities of the executions are reliant on the detailed research that reaffirms the buyer's motivational triggers, and constitute part of a long-term strategy to encourage/educate consumers on what to look for in the various products:

“In terms of advertising the brand, domestically we use the tagline ‘Eat Canadian’, and internationally we use the tagline ‘Quality is our Nature’ – this is a double-play on quality as the nature of our people and also as a clean and pristine land, so it’s meant to leverage the existing positive perceptions that consumers have about Canada and Canadians.”

It was lamented that Canada does not have the “constant barrage of cultural icons that outreach through Hollywood that America has”, and hence, very few globally-recognized symbols. Subsequently, this requires the relevant associations to be created through careful phrasing and the strategic use of co-branding agreements with selected foreign partners. This serves to emphasize the use of a foreign country’s ingredients and thus reinforce its credentials as a reliable and high-quality producer.

“For us it’s highly advantageous because you have a reputable manufacturer who is highlighting the fact that they are using [our] soy beans, which we think leads the consumer to think that [our country] must have really good soy beans if this manufacturer, which we respect, is going all this way to highlight this source.”

This also requires creativity on the part of the marketers to develop a multitude of executional tools that resonate with multicultural audiences. The government agency participants were quick to point out that they are required to stretch tight budgets across a range of activities and in response to a variety of stakeholders. Therefore, it is critical that they maximize the opportunities presented by global events that showcase the country’s

credentials all at once to enormous worldwide audiences, such as the opening ceremonies of the Olympic Games or the FIFA World Cup:

“The London Olympics was obviously a fantastic showcase to boost that image of innovation and creativity. And I think the sense of national pride that the whole thing stimulated is also a confidence booster for British companies to go overseas, and use that association.”

To reinforce the underlying images, the government agencies continue to use visually strong familiar cues, such as the Canadian maple leaf, a Turkish bazaar scene, British castles and the Houses of Parliament, etc., while at the same time trying to build new associations connected to more modern-day values and abstract themes, such as human rights, hospitality/friendliness, innovation and cutting-edge technology.

5.2.1.4. Public/Private Sector Interaction on Use of Place

In terms of interaction between the public and private sector, the government agency participants reflected that the private sector is generally more cautious in connecting itself with a country brand that may have associations not 100% in line with the individual company’s core value set. Thus, a degree of sensitivity is required to encourage the private sector companies to support and participate in the country branding process:

“From our perspective, the country/place is key. But from a company perspective, I don’t think it’s so important... it’s a co-brand, it’s meant to complement the existing company brand. Certainly if I were talking to a company, I would tell them to focus on their brand, on the company’s identity first, and then look to using the [national] identity to help build on that.”

Despite the breadth of scope of a country level brand, various aspects may not be relevant to a specific industry sector and therefore, the country brand image may confuse rather than add any value to the company brand image.

On the other hand, the perceived country brand images may not yet be entrenched in the minds of the specific market audience:

“I don’t think companies can associate with place until place has shifted, until the place has branded itself well.”

“I think there are opportunities for companies to use those reputations as a kind of springboard for their business development. But it does depend on the industry, the business you are in, as to the value that reputation offers, if any. And also, it is important to know what that reputation is in the country you are operating in – the elements that you think are ‘obvious’ and well-known, may not be in that market.”

Some disappointment was expressed that there is not a higher degree of interaction between the public and private sectors in this area, which possibly derived from a lack of trust or willingness within the private sector to share what they consider to be proprietary information, or the perception that they would be required to fund the project:

“It would be great, yes, it is important. But you have to be careful because when you do that people think that they will have to put money for something, a kind of project or something, so they tend to be distant.”

Concern was also raised that among the private sector companies there is actually a lack of understanding of the types of value-added support the public sector agencies could provide for their business:

“We focus on the B2B side and have a very specific role... but we can direct companies to related events and keep them informed of networking opportunities, for example. We have made significant steps [in a short time] to rebuild our domestic brand awareness.”

Cognizant of the marketing expertise of the private sector companies and buoyed by their own efforts and findings pertaining to the power of place associations as a complement to certain product brands, the government sector participants noted that the defined imagery created from their research was not necessarily appropriate for all companies. Since companies active in the same sector are potentially also in competition with each other, they are, therefore, reluctant to participate in the place association image-building process:

“So, even though we might want to, it might not help them, so we wouldn’t. I think that there is more that we could do on using private sector excellence to help us, but I think that we’ve got to be very smart about when we do it and how we do it.”

In addition, the private sector is also arguably more cautious about potential negative associations that could be indirectly detrimental to their own image-building efforts:

“The one that I heard the most from industry people was their concern that they themselves had a brand and that if they started using this place association they might get associated with inferior companies or exporters... there were some disreputable Canadian exporters, people who [could] give Canada a bad name. So that was one area where some Canadian industry people were a little bit suspicious of using place or being associated with a kind of generic Canada brand, if you will. Because you have to take the whole bundle.”

5.2.2. Private Sector Business Participants

As described at the beginning of this chapter and summarized in Table 5.1, within the private sector, marketing managers were interviewed from a range of industries, including the Personal Health & Beauty and Food & Beverage (F&B) sectors that featured so prominently in the Phase 1 print advertising database, as well as both B2B and B2C oriented businesses.

Moreover, a mix of company sizes, domestic/international companies, and headquarters/local subsidiary managers, were also represented in the interview panel. This inevitably yielded a variety of comments with regard to levels of headquarters-local market coordination, and instruction versus general direction, however, there remained some common prevailing themes with regard to the use and value of place associations in brand communications.

5.2.2.1. Organizational Structure and Approach

The smaller companies enjoy the benefits of flexibility, adaptability and speed of decision-making afforded by their short hierarchical structure. Among the larger companies, there are distinctive differences between those working at the headquarters or different regional branches of a large home country organization, and those based in the overseas subsidiary of a multinational organization.

For domestic/home country organizations, there was a greater sense of interaction and shared responsibility between the regional offices, in part drawn from the shared business and cultural understanding of the local market:

“In terms of decision-making, we have a ‘team voice’ and we can go online to give our ideas to headquarters about what we want to do, and we usually get a reply to whether it’s a good idea or not, or whatever it is.”

Among the multinational organizations, the strategic orientation of the company plays a key role in its approach to the various subsidiary offices, covering the range of E.P.R.G. styles first purported by Wind, Douglas and Perlmutter (1973):

“It is actually quite separate between domestic and international.”

“We do interact at the corporate levels, when we share resources or advocate for capital or whatever, but in terms of businesses and marketing strategies, each division tends to work on its own.”

Managers with a broad experience of multinational organizations noted the evolutionary changes that some companies attempt as they expand internationally:

“I would say it’s regional, trying to become more globally coordinated.”

“Decision-making is becoming centralized..., but it is still very much decentralized when it comes to the portfolio of products and brands.”

Although in some cases, participants commented that the desired changes failed to take effect in some subsidiaries, even when home country managers were deployed to the host country – whether in an effort to understand better the local market, or to enforce centralized strategies:

“When I got there we had a local mindset – I don’t think that changed, simply because of the differences between the European markets – the Headquarters’ markets – and ours. I think [they] wanted us to be more global, I just don’t think we had the capacity to do it.”

The more ethnocentric approach inevitably created tensions as far as the host country subsidiary was concerned, so that efforts tended to focus on internal rather than external rivalries, and consumer research was used to direct the head office in the local market needs, as much as to develop local marketing actions:

“There was a tension there, in terms of what they were trying to accomplish and what we felt we needed to accomplish, so it was kind of how do we moderate or mediate that tension, how do we hold them off, to a degree, and not go all the way.”

The variations in strategic orientation are not specific to industry sectors, nor reliant on the age of the industry or brands. One participant described working for two long-established European companies in the same sector that deployed significantly different strategies, which was partly attributed to cultural differences between the two (parent company) home countries. Environmental differences between markets and market regions were also suggested as reasons for divergent approaches:

“In North America, at least in Canada, there aren’t a lot of big players, whereas in Europe, where the parent company is, I suspect they are much more competitive and obviously they had to deal with a lot of countries.”

However, sometimes it was simply felt that a regiocentric approach was more appropriate:

“You really need to have a different strategy for different markets.”

5.2.2.2. Developing the Product Brand Image

As professional marketers (and as consumers), all the participants voiced positive opinions on the use of place associations as brand development aids, with caveats of relevancy pertaining to the product brand, the place brand and the target market audience. While some

participants had used some form of place association as an integral component of brand-building, others confessed to not having given it much thought (within their professional roles), but still felt that it offered a potentially powerful tool in support of – rather than leading – brand image development:

“The very first thing is the ‘free ride’ – you don’t have to do everything from scratch, you can benefit from the existing image.”

“I think the product point for me is that the place association is kind of a means to an end: I don’t think that people necessarily buy something because it comes from somewhere, but it adds up to ‘it gives me this’, or ‘it gives me some signal of this’, usually some higher order benefit – emotional benefit.”

“I think there is a great relevancy to it, providing it’s appropriately used and people get why they’re doing it.”

The challenges in international marketing expressed in the standardization versus adaptation debate were alluded to by the business managers’ references to the dilemma of retaining the core brand values while appealing to culturally diverse consumers:

“You might want to keep as many elements as consistent as possible to the core of who you are... so I think that that is something you wouldn’t change, but what you might do is in the way you communicate it.”

“You have to understand first of all exactly what your brand means to people. For example, we do a lot of work around our brand essence, kind of the brand purpose, what it is that people think of... we really understand the perspective, and kind of the brand limit – you have to understand the limits to where the brand can go.”

Equally important is the reputation of the place, the extent to which the core elements and symbols are recognized by the target audience, and whether that imagery complements the desired product brand imagery and core values:

“It does depend on the brand, the product and what that reputation is for the association.”

“It depends on how the country is marketed as well, and if it has a good reputation.”

While the symbols may be recognized by the target audience and the country connection established, the business managers believe that local market research is still essential to ensure that the associated values are also understood by the target audience, in order to optimize the effectiveness of the place association as a communications tool:

“A lot of Canadian companies use the maple leaf, which most people around the world, I am sure, knows that it means Canadian, but it depends what that actually means – so what people think of Canada and Canadian products.”

“So I think it’s the interaction between those two things: what are we trying to sell, who are we trying to get to buy it, and does it work for the audience and does it work on this product... So if it didn’t that would negatively impact it and you would obviously shy away from it; but if you thought it made sense, then you would do it.”

As discussed in the literature review and also highlighted by the government sector interview participants, a place brand – at the country or city level – is a complex and multi-dimensional construct. Within the private business sector, participants revealed that in some cases their customers were motivated simply to “support local businesses”, or that their B2B company strengths lay more in the fact that they were a local operation designed to meet

local needs, supported by a large multinational, and that this (accentuating the local operation and know-how) is more relevant than the specific company country of origin.

Conversely, in other cases the fact that the organization is “foreign” constitutes a useful selling point, despite the additional workload that may entail:

“Sometimes it’s enough that you are ‘foreign’, or different, so it can be kind of a bit exotic in a way and people might just be interested to try... But that means you have to do a lot more work to first explain about the culture and what it means, so that could be too much work for some companies to worry about.”

Interestingly, the managers suggested that the use of a place association might constitute a point of differentiation in the absence of any other clear-cut features in a highly competitive market place, and also made references to some of the factors that have emerged in other studies (discussed in the literature review, Chapter 2). With regard to competitors (Okechuku 1994), the place association can serve either as a point of differentiation or a valuable point of reference to immediately presume specified credentials:

“If a competitor is using their place origins, we may need to reinforce the strength of our origins to counter that.”

“And also, what are your competitors doing? If, for instance (I’m thinking about Japanese cars), your competitor might be building that image for you, so you can jump on top of that and say we’re just going to ride that wave.”

“One situation might be where you have an entrenched local player, and you might choose to emphasize your different origin, or more of a local origin, or something like that, to offset the price advantage that some of these local guys might have. So that could be one effective way to use that, I think.”

Another factor for consideration is the product lifecycle stage (Lee and Carter 2005): a mature product brand may be inextricably linked with a place and have actually played a role in creating the place brand reputation. In the case of a new product, the established place reputation may assist in accelerating the new product's brand image credentials – intertwined with the brand marketer's dilemma of product brand versus category development costs and benefits. Again, the managers recognized both perspectives and reiterated the situation-specific nature of the strategic decision:

“It may be more implicit because the company is well-established as it has been around for so long.”

“What it allows the marketer to do is take advantage of preconceptions, of ideas, of almost heuristics that people have and just use them to your own purposes. So if there is an established notion of what [the place] is, and what [it] represents, if you can co-opt that, if you can adapt that for your own purposes, I think it saves you having to build the brand if there is a brand identity or brand essence out there already. The idea's there, so why not take advantage of it.”

“I think it also depends on where you are at in the product lifecycle. If you're just starting out, it could benefit you and might make your name, or you might be building the category – we always used to worry about am I building the category or am I doing branding for our product.”

5.2.2.3. Use of Place Associations

These general attitudes towards the use of place associations in marketing communications lead to a consensus on their selected application, under specific circumstances. While there is still mileage in the use of the traditional “Made In” statement, it was concluded that this is

“very situation-specific” according to the reputation of the specific place in relation to the brand/product. Some companies “blatantly” or “proudly” emphasize the association with the country of origin, especially if the whole concept, design and manufacturing are from the same source, and that association has a relevancy and offers a point of difference for the target audience:

“Everywhere you looked there was a Union Jack. It was very much playing on the fact that it was British-made, and harking back to a bygone era when British manufacturing was amongst the best in the world. With the British resurgence of the Olympics and this national pride – they were playing quite heavily on that, it is their key point: British materials, British made, British manufactured.”

In other cases, the reference to the source country may constitute more of a short-term tactical approach to offset any potential negative elements emerging from country-product-specific transgressions (Magnusson, Krishnan, Westjohn and Zdravkovic 2014), rather than a strategic component of the brand image:

“We’ve recently discontinued some lines that actually were sourced from China. What we’re doing is really playing up the American connection. So, American-sourced and American-made, as a way of reassurance really.”

Mindful of this, a degree of caution was also expressed concerning the forced application of every element related to the country brand perceptions (as highlighted by government sector place marketers):

“When you have a brand you’re very protective about the way it’s communicated and you might not want to be lumped into a generalization.”

“The issue is that you carry good and bad things [about the place] at the same time.”

Additionally, marketers are wary of overuse of specific associations negating the potential benefits and just “adding to the noise” rather than building a powerful link:

“There was recently the Olympics, so we connected with that, but that was the same for a lot of other companies who were also doing a lot of advertising and using that event. And maybe that’s an example where place is not so useful, because everybody is using it, so there is no special meaning for your company/product.”

When marketing products across international regions, significant differences were highlighted pertaining to the knowledge base around certain product sectors. That may relate to the development of that sector in the specific market, rather than the development of the country market per se. For example, within the wine industry, Canadian and U.S. consumers do not share the knowledge base of the French consumer, which has been passed down through the centuries:

“One of the hardest things here in British Columbia with the French labels is that they don’t say what’s in it... in North America we really need everything to be spelled out: where it’s from, what the grape is.”

For marketers (retaining the example of the wine industry), it is important to determine when to use which place origin information, and when it should remain in the background, on a ‘need-to-know’ basis only:

“People want wine from the Okanagan [in BC], so when you try to sell wine that’s made on Vancouver Island in the Okanagan, people go “what is this?! We want to buy our local product” – they make that association. And the Okanagan has made

such a good job of marketing themselves that, even in British Columbia... people question then the quality of something that's not made in the Okanagan.”

“Nobody thinks about ‘hey, I want to buy U.S. wine’ – they don’t call it that, they call it California, they call it Oregon, they call it Washington...”

The place association used is not tied (or restricted) to the “Made In” location – especially in the modern era of outsourcing production to multiple markets – but to the place with which the brand can claim association and that best suits the desired brand positioning. For instance, an Austrian owned wineglass manufacturer can proudly state “Made in Germany” on the packaging to support manufacturing reliability, but in the brand marketing communications it highlights the association with prestigious wine-making regions to support the individual product credentials:

“Their vision, if you will, is to have everybody drinking out of their glasses, having the right glass for the right grape, but it’s more wine-focused. In the Napa Valley, over in the U.S., every winemaker uses their glasses, so they’ll spend a lot of time saying “we’re working with the Napa Valley...”, rather than the fact that it’s made in Germany. I guess they are using place, but more the place that is relevant to them rather than their origin: so as soon as you’re thinking Napa, you’re thinking wine.”

This is especially important in the case of the Austrian company cited above when it is competing with one of the French major glassware manufacturers, whose home country associations (referenced through the use of French names or symbols, such as the Eiffel Tower) directly imply the requisite expertise that they can utilize worldwide, without necessarily an explicit reference to specific wine-making regions of France.

For some multinationals, marketers face the dilemma of managing local/regional brands (with the inherent adaptation flexibility requirement that implies) within an overarching global strategy. In addition, this may be linked to corporate support and is consequently an important consideration in local strategy development:

“For the different brands it varies, because we don’t actually have too many global brands as such. But we do have global brand propositions, we do have global brand essences. So, the essence of a brand has to be maintained, but the whole communication idea and the campaign idea might be very different from region to region, and their overall objectives might be quite different too.”

However, the choice of place according to very specific local needs can sometimes be a point of conflict between the headquarters and the overseas subsidiary operation at the point of marketing communications execution:

“We both thought place was important, we just thought different places were.”

Overall, the use of place associations is deemed to be prolific at primary and secondary levels of a brand communications strategy, applied at differing degrees according to the specific environment or opportunity that arises:

“You can usually see it at trade shows, for example, where up to 1500 can attend: some companies will participate in their respective [national or state] pavilion to save money and promote themselves on the back of their place origin, going full-on with flags and different symbols of their home place.”

When used at the secondary level, and in harmony with the other branding elements, the specific use of a place association becomes more of a subtle reinforcement of the brand message rather than a “hard-sell.” Notably, a number of the participants became more

conscious of the widespread use of place associations during the interview discussion than they had previously conceived existed outside of government and tourism sectors (as marketers or as consumers):

“If you talk about luxury products in France, it’s a bit like everybody could do that, so it’s less specific, but you know the more we talk about it, the more I realize that many brands do it.”

Individual private sector marketers highlighted the flexibility of place as a powerful communications tool, particularly when the product actually has valid associations with a range of countries and the marketer can select which one to emphasize according to the perceptions of the local target audience:

“It can actually change your whole mix, it will move the cursor along the line between Indian and French, depending on the [target] country. I think it’s a smart thing to do.”

However, it was widely emphasized that the place association should be used selectively to maximize its effectiveness:

“We mostly promote ourselves as Canadian, but to different degrees. It depends on the type of transaction and the level of the U.S. relationship – and it will be different in different areas of the U.S., with the mixed personalities there.”

A similar note of caution was expressed on the deployment of symbols, such as the Canadian maple leaf, the Eiffel Tower, or the Taj Mahal, to connote specific country brand values or to create a particular atmosphere for the ad and so reinforce other elements of the product brand image.

Managers frequently underscored that this relied on the underlying premise that those connotations resonate with the target audience:

“It’s got to be both a symbol that’s associated with that country, and something that’s synonymous with that product – joined together is quite a powerful visual message, but one isolated from the other probably won’t do very much, it would end up confusing the consumer rather than telling them a story.”

“I am actually using the Eiffel Tower – as a symbol of a glamorous and glittering place. And in a previous execution it was not actually there, but we wanted people to think it was a place like Place Vendôme, which is a famous place in Paris that is very chic and elegant.”

For consumer goods, in cases where the “Made In” statement is inappropriate (or too complex), a foreign language is sometimes used to infer notions of a global brand, with the local language used for information purposes and to comply with local regulations:

“We also put the English – or the Western – characters along with it on the packaging [in China], we insert it here and there, so rather than go out and say ‘designed in the U.S.’ or wherever it is, we might just imply it by the use of English. So, just subtly communicate that it’s actually a multinational brand.”

In the B2B sector especially, the local factor can be important: to support the notion that the company is “serving the local community”, or to nurture the requisite levels of trust in cross-cultural customer relationships:

“In Kuala Lumpur, in Malaysia, we had to work with local partners to avoid being seen as a foreign company, it had to be local. It’s a similar situation in Montreal,

you have to work with Quebecois teams – they think coming from Ontario you’re kind of ‘foreign’.”

However, the application of the relevant place association is at the discretion of the manager, who determines whether or not it adds value to the marketing communications (i.e., delivery of the core message), dependent on the consumer and/or the business customer – and according to “their experience of working with other companies from your country”.

5.2.2.4. Public/Private Sector Interaction on Use of Place

Responses to the questions on public and private sector interactions on the use of place were mixed. In some cases, marketers commented that government activities had in fact provided complementary items for their communications toolbox that they could deploy without further modification or explanation:

“The maple leaf logo developed by the federal government has become a symbol of trustworthiness for Canadian companies. In our case, in the B2B environment, it takes a minimum of one year to develop a good relationship and that reputation of being “good people to work with”, so when appropriate, we will utilize that stylized logo of the maple leaf as our ID of trustworthiness.”

“We do not have to spend too much time to promote Vancouver, because the government is already promoting it – that’s why they developed the Imagine Canada brand and are trying to promote that brand, for education in Canada as a whole.”

Again, a wariness was expressed with regard to potential brand transgressions:

“We work with government institutions and we can use that as part of our credentials. But you have to be careful how you use it – for instance, Industry

Canada was a strength in the business world, until some bad stuff came out... so in those sort of situations you want distance yourself from that – that’s where we use our experience on what to promote and what to... not hide, but not highlight.”

Others remarked that they were not averse to using government-devised tools, even if it was promoting at the broader industry level from which they could get a halo effect, but they would want to selectively cherry-pick the application of specific items that they believed supported their specific product brand strategy:

“We might ride on the back of the general reputation that they promote, but only if it makes sense for us and for the client.”

“If they were doing something that we could use, that would help our business and create attention, we would use it, but I don’t know of anything.”

At the other end of the spectrum, some participants maintained that the public and private sectors were diametrically opposed operationally, and they could not envisage a constructive working relationship in this area due to differing objectives, however positive the intentions:

“Based on my experience of working with government institutions, I think they work at a different pace to the private sector! They are very bureaucratic and there are different levels you have to go through to get decisions, so I’m not sure they could actually work well together.”

The cited experiences of interaction with government agencies repeated the concerns that although the public sector was helping them to build the category and the private companies would benefit from that general category growth, they could not quantify the benefits to their own brands relative to the costs incurred in the process:

“So what we would have to do is change our packaging, have certain packaging runs and things like that, which cost us a bit of money and the packaging would look different, but it did promote the product and so we all kind of, as dairy producers, participated in that.”

“In general, it totally makes sense, but it’s very tough because it’s so territorial... At the end of the day everyone would have benefited because the government was involved. But it was really tough because there were so many opinions, and ‘what’s in it for me?’”

This was also coupled with concerns about working directly with competitors:

“They wanted to build the category and we wanted to build the brand, so there was a little bit of antagonism there – like, why should we spend our money to build the category? We’re competing!”

While there is a consensus among marketing managers that there are benefits to be gained from a coordinated public and private sector interaction on country/city brand building, it is considered more relevant to specific industries or countries where the brand itself is less developed and there is no strong universal knowledge base:

“I think there are opportunities for more interaction between governments and companies. Especially say, among lesser-known countries that haven’t penetrated a certain market.”

“I don’t get the sense that there’s a lot of cooperation between governments and business in terms of marketing, except for in certain types of product groups – particularly domestic agriculture. I think they tend to work together pretty well, you know, wine-growing regions, dairy producing regions, beef...”

Overall, despite the general acknowledgement that it has potential, most of the participants were somewhat reserved when it comes to their own company's involvement in the process:

“I think if government and companies got together, it could be quite powerful. But then you also think, do I trust that?”

“As the world gets more integrated and the knowledge of people and places and cultures increases everywhere, I think it can become a more powerful tool – and especially since the authorities responsible for a place are starting to promote themselves more actively, I think it makes the case stronger for brands and companies to try to leverage those connections a little bit more.”

5.2.3. Advertising Agency Participants

The participants from the advertising agency sector comprised representatives from small domestic agencies, as well as from two of the largest multinational marketing communications agencies. Both sets of agencies are experienced in working with public and private sector clients with different levels of product brand maturity. While the larger multinationals obviously enjoy a larger range of clients from which to develop their breadth of expertise, they are experienced in working with local as well as international product brands, so cognizant of the varying levels of strategic and budgetary constraints, as well as diverse organizational cultures.

5.2.3.1. Organizational Structure and Approach

Although the different sizes of agencies have different resources and hierarchical structures, all voiced the same priority of serving their clients and hence, the need to organize their support activities in line with the client's requirements:

“Each client structure would be slightly different, depending on what their needs might be... I think we line up very much like our clients line up.”

“If they just want to work with a smaller group of senior people, then we would work directly with them because there's a lot less layers.”

“It is important, as a global company with global clients, that we have a local office in every place where our clients have a local subsidiary.”

The levels of service, in terms of providing strategic direction or simply executing predetermined activities, are dictated by the product brand client, although the agencies would provide additional input as appropriate based on prior (individual or agency) experience in a particular industry or market sector. A critical element for this service-oriented industry sector is building the agency-client relationship, which facilitates a greater level of agency input in the process as factors of trust and reliability increase:

“I would ‘suggest’, but really it is up to the person who pays me! But if I thought it was a good idea, I would absolutely suggest it to them, depending on who it is, what they are trying to accomplish and how.”

The large multinational organizations are able to draw upon cross-national resources – oftentimes a prerequisite – to manage international brands and maintain the core product brand image, while utilizing executional elements that resonate with the local audience. This also requires diplomacy skills in managing any potential tensions between the local

market and central head office, and equally, an understanding of the agency's ultimate role as advisor (rather than director) for the company's (i.e., the brand owner's) communications strategy:

“So I had a central responsibility and was privy to both the global and the local details from the client and agency perspectives, a kind of liaison role between local and global operations.”

“The big clients usually have a very clear strategic vision of their brand and what they want to achieve, the agency's role is in helping them to execute that strategy, using our expertise and experience.”

On the other hand, the smaller companies remain more focused on domestic brands (at regional/provincial and national levels) and use their deep-seated knowledge of the local marketplace in conjunction with their creative expertise, to develop the brand marketing communications materials and activities, which is indeed their unique selling proposition.

5.2.3.2. Developing the Product Brand Image

The existing status of the product brand – whether a new launch, well-established, or in need of revitalization – is a key determinant in setting the communications strategy and action plan. This in turn influences the communications vehicle(s) used and the core components of the message:

“Because that product has become so iconic, we often tried to leverage that.”

“If there's a new product, then we do try to associate with the old iconic product that everybody knows.”

The advertising agency participants stressed that clients are responsive to adapting the executional elements according to prevailing environmental conditions (especially

competitive forces), hence, the necessity to implement changes is a combination of agency recommendation and corporate decision, based on market research.

The rise of globalization and the emergence of the digital age also offers up new potential for communications execution strategies:

“I think the Internet has changed so much, because you can try to be as local as you want, but you can be seen or known of throughout the world, by the very virtue of having a website on the Internet. It has no borders. You can also reach an audience around the world at any given time, thanks to the Internet. So it can actually reinforce the need to mention (or not) your place, relevant to the industry.”

However, the inherent global nature of modern day communications does not negate the need to refer to local market specialists when necessary – one of the advantages of having a global operation and presence, as cited by the multinational agencies:

“We work here with the client locally, but our assignment is to build the brand around the world and we would involve our other international offices for local adaptation, local input/insight into their local market.”

5.2.3.3. Use of Place Associations

The agency executives reaffirmed the business sector participants’ positive comments pertaining to the selective use of places in communications strategies, according to the specific market environment of the product brand and the associated reputation of the place to which they can lay a claim. It was remarked that many brands have “little functional differentiation” in today’s cluttered markets, and so the use of place can add value, if the place reputation underscores the brand message:

“If place would help you to differentiate, then by all means [I would recommend it].
And of course, that is assuming that your place has a goodwill reputation.”

This of course fundamentally relies on the image or reputation of the place in association with the product brand, and importantly, the saliency of that reputation with the local target audience, which might require a slightly different approach in different markets:

“Canada is viewed as a great country and a country that produces great quality of work, but that’s just how Canada is perceived in Saudi Arabia. So any product that comes from Canada and is marketed in a way that is Canadian sounds great, and makes a lot of money because it is very expensive and people view it as a luxury product. The same thing with France...”

Cognizant of their role in brand strategy development, the advertising agency participants added that it is important to double-check the connection between the country brand and the product brand image in each case, before combining the elements in the execution:

“Are they positioned in a way, in the consumer’s mind, that they do specialize in that particular area of whatever they are selling? Then it offers great value, if not then it really won’t work.”

The advertising agency participants also emphasized the need to be aware of local market trends and perceptions to determine when it was appropriate to highlight or to avoid country associations. This might relate to competitor activities within the industry or even intra-country political relations. If the brand has not already embedded its association with the desired values proffered by the country brand (to the exclusion of other country brand

dimensions), it is more susceptible to the negative influences of country brand transgressions, however unrelated they might be to the product brand's industry sector.

For instance, at the time when the Waterman pen company planned to use the connotations of style and design associated with their Paris base in their revitalized brand strategy, the French government became embroiled in a massive worldwide protest movement as a result of its South Pacific nuclear testing program. This inadvertently levied a degree of notoriety to French brands for a while. The Waterman company was therefore advised (through intensive research) to develop associations with the very specific and more subtle Parisian dimensions related to their core attributes of style and design, such as haute couture, rather than incorporate a blatant proclamation of their French origin.

The advertising agencies are acutely aware of their role as advisors, not only in proposing how to overcome potential negative influences by association as indicated in the previous example, but also by ensuring that their communication ideas are integral to the overarching brand strategy defined by the client:

“The ‘global’ never feels ‘local’, so it is always a challenge in international advertising to maintain the global spirit, or essence of the brand and communicate that to local consumers. Also keeping in mind that you have to pass it by the corporate HQ, who have to be convinced that the core brand message is still there.”

Since their profession encompasses attention to detail, the advertising agency participants cited numerous examples of successful campaigns founded on tapping into place associations that complemented the core product brand values, and offered a visible point of competitive differentiation:

“Obviously what works well is when the place of origin is a shorthand for associations that you want to connect yourself with the brand... because the automotive buyer associates German engineering with great precision, great automotive acumen... so in that case, the place of origin works very well to connote a difference between the Japanese automotive manufacturers or U.S. automotive manufacturers.”

The power of the place association to strike an emotional chord with the target audience was recognized by the advertising agency participants, illustrated by the long-standing success of the Harley Davidson (U.S.) and Ducati (Italy) brands in the motorcycle industry. Neither brand is renowned for its engineering or technological acumen, but both tap into respective senses of the ‘Americana’ free spirit and Italian flair/design that resonate deeply with their customers. Importantly, every element of their brand communications serves to reinforce the core values by engaging the customer in the whole ‘brand experience’, as illustrated by a member of the Ducati club:

“They have a fan experience in Italy every year.. and it’s a week of immersing yourself in the brand right in Italy near their factory, and you can tour the factory... and so you always feel like you are part of something bigger.”

One of the most interesting examples cited several times (including by the government sector respondents in acknowledging where sometimes the private sector company can add value to the country brand image) is that of the Roots brand. The Canadian apparel brand has enjoyed a fast-paced brand growth (and an increasingly international presence) due to its strategic and irrevocable association with Canada and the Canadian outdoors, manifested in the use of the country’s national symbol, the beaver, in its

own logo. Admiration for Roots was particularly afforded by one of the advertising agency respondents in relation to the fact that the company was founded by two Americans who developed a strong personal attachment to the beauty of the Canadian wilderness:

“And they did it as well, or better than any other Canadian brand... they tapped into it. And so it created real local pride: wow, we really stand for something. And internationally when they’re selling the brand, whether it’s in New York or other cities around the world, people think of Canada very much in that way, so it kind of taps into their feeling about it.”

Additionally, an important distinction was made between the use of place to connote imagery associations and its use to connote quality. For example, in the food industry when local sourcing and the adherence to recognized processing standards are arguably critical influencers on consumer decision-making. In other cases, it may more simply be a matter of encouraging the consumer to buy the local product rather than imported equivalents, since the product category does not lend itself to the individual brand’s country of origin imagery/reputation.

5.2.3.4. Public/Private Sector Interaction on Use of Place

The scope of the client accounts of the advertising agency participants in this phase of the study spans both the public and private sectors, thereby affording observations from both perspectives:

“I can see governments piggybacking on what companies are doing, where the companies are large and international, and I can see companies piggybacking on what governments are doing, if the governments are bigger, or if the government’s efforts are bigger.”

For new companies or newly emerging countries seeking to shake off a previously-held reputation and shift attitudes, the government resources and commitment to the project are welcomed. For example, in emulating the moves Japan made to change its image post-World War II, China is aiming to change perceptions about the quality of its products by moving from the “Made In China” label to the “Born In China” concept to accentuate its new “cultural revolution of entrepreneurialism, design, capitalism and innovation.” Similar to the way that Apple uses “created in California / made in China” labelling on its packaging to reassure customers away from the negative implications of poor/imperfect products.

All the respondents are fully aware of the length of time (and commitment) required to create a strong brand image, which may be superseded by management changes at the top – whether politically at ministerial levels, or at the board level of a private sector company. However, if consistently applied across the marketing communications, it was agreed that the place association can be a powerful marketing tool for the appropriate product brand.

For instance, as described by an advertising agency respondent, the government of Egypt has successfully created a brand image as the self-styled “Mother of the World” founded on its rich and long-standing cultural heritage. This has proved effective in the Arab region through its consistency of application (of the slogan and associated symbols) across the tourism and multiple business sectors for many years, to the degree that its reputation in those sectors is anticipated to survive the current political turmoil enveloping the country.

Conversely, there are also opportunities for the public sector to draw ideas from and play more of a supporting role for high-profile private sector companies that are inextricably, and successfully, linked with their origins, such as Tim Hortons, Roots,

Hudson Bay Company, L'Oréal Paris, Burberry of London, Jack Daniels Tennessee whiskey, etc.

For certain industries, advantages were identified in attaining a level of public and private sector cooperation – particularly food and, to a lesser extent, alcohol (such as French champagne, or Caribbean rum) – and the inherent opportunities to ride on waves of positive publicity (e.g., through local or national events, as mentioned by both business and government sector participants). However, limitations were also expressed given the dichotomous branding objectives of the two sectors and the protective nature of marketing managers towards their own brands, as emphasized by the business sector participants in this phase of the study.

5.3. Summary of Key Findings

This first-ever qualitative exploration of practitioner views on the use of place in marketing communications provides a valuable contribution to theory development in this field, as well as providing direction for the third phase of this study. A key finding with regard to developing the Phase 3 questionnaire related to the terminology of the place construct, reinforcing Brennan's (2004) concerns on the academic-practitioner gap: to prompt discussion on the use of place associations, it was critical to contextualize and provide current examples of the use of place in marketing communications. This is an important consideration for the next phase of this study, as well as for future research into managerial perspectives, to engage practitioner participants and optimize survey responses.

Interestingly, when interviewees comprehended the range of place associations incorporated in the concept under investigation (e.g., countries, cities, regions, or visual

imagery, such as national symbols, colours, and well-known landmarks), considerable discussion ensued, incorporating actual and observed examples of the use of place. The debates centred on the appropriateness of its use depending on the brand positioning and local market awareness of the associated place images. In some cases respondents even expressed a personal interest in applying elements of the construct in their own brand communications that they had not previously considered.

Overall, the participants were in agreement on the potential value of integrating a place association within a brand's marketing strategy, at least at the execution level, with the caveat that the adopted place should be a "good fit" with the core attributes and values of the brand and so reinforce, not distract, from the essence of the brand.

From the interview phase, 14 key factors were identified as potential influencers on the decision to use a place association within the brand's marketing communications, as summarized in Table 5.2. There was almost universal agreement on the top five factors across the three participant sectors (Government, Business, Advertising Agency), highlighting that the first priority is the brand (product or country) positioning, coupled with the target customer's perceptions of the associated place and its relevancy to the industry sector.

The government sector participants inevitably endorsed the power of their own efforts to promote country-level values that other companies could integrate within their individual brand communications, acknowledging that not all the elements promoted are appropriate for every product brand.

Table 5.2: Key Factors Influencing Use of Place Associations

Factors	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Brand Positioning	30	1.00	0.00
Consumer Perception of COO	30	1.00	0.00
Local Consumer Research	29	0.97	0.18
Product Positioning	29	0.97	0.18
Reputation of COO to Industry	29	0.97	0.18
Consumer Attitudes to COO	25	0.83	0.38
Product is Local	25	0.83	0.38
Host Country Relationship to COO	23	0.77	0.43
Competitor Use of COO	19	0.63	0.49
Legal Factors	19	0.63	0.49
Government Marketing of COO	15	0.50	0.51
Competitive Intensity	13	0.43	0.50
Product Maturity	10	0.33	0.48
Economic or Political factors	8	0.27	0.45

While the private sector business and advertising agency participants recognize mutual benefits that could be derived from cooperation in the development of place brands, they consider that the opportunities are industry/market-specific and are more cautious with regard to how such an alliance could be operationalized. Their main concerns derive from potential risks of sharing information with competitors, and unwanted elements of the place brand image transferring to the product brand image.

Table 5.3 presents the key factors by the three respondent sectors, and reaffirms the overall consensus across the three groups, in terms of ranking of importance. As well as reinforcing elements observed in the Phase 1 content analysis and discussed in the literature review, the Phase 2 in-depth interviews have inductively identified some of the key factors that influence the decision whether and how to use place associations in the company's brand communications strategy.

Table 5.3: Key Factors Influencing Use of Place Associations – by Sector

Factors	Business Managers (N=16)	Advertising Agencies (N=6)	Govt. Agencies (N=8)
Brand Positioning	16	6	8
Consumer Perception of COO	16	6	8
Local Consumer Research	15	6	8
Product Positioning	15	6	8
Reputation of COO to Industry	15	6	8
Consumer Attitudes to COO	12	6	7
Product is Local	15	5	5
Host Country Relationship to COO	11	5	7
Competitor Use of COO	11	3	5
Legal Factors	10	5	4
Government Marketing of COO	6	1	8
Competitive Intensity	4	5	4
Product Maturity	5	3	2
Economic or Political factors	3	1	4

To test the above factors quantitatively in the Phase 3 survey, guidance was drawn from strategic management and marketing studies on cogent issues (described in Chapter 3, Table 3.2) to design the final questionnaire. Additionally, particular care was taken in formulating the questions and providing explanatory notes, in light of one of the key findings from this in-depth interview phase of the study.

CHAPTER 6. Phase 3: Cross-National Marketing Managers Survey - Results

This chapter presents the results for Phase 3 of the study, which comprised an online survey of business executives across a range of country markets. This chapter consists of four main sections:

- The first section presents a summary of the survey instrument;
- The second section, in recognition of the exploratory nature of this study, provides a detailed descriptive analysis of the respondent, company and market characteristics, as well as managers' attitudes toward and use of place associations, and the research hypotheses are introduced;
- The third section presents results for different association tests and regression analyses, centring on the antecedent factors to the use of place in marketing communications;
- The chapter is concluded with a discussion of the main findings.

6.1. Survey Instrument

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 3, the focus of Phase 3 was to quantitatively investigate the antecedent factors related to marketing managers' decisions to use place associations in brand marketing communications. This phase was approached by incorporating the findings from the first two phases of the study with the relevant methodological guidance from previous studies in the cogent areas. The specifics of the survey instrument used are detailed in this section.

As described in Chapter 3, a structured questionnaire was used for the survey and is reproduced in Appendix B. The questionnaire was administered online and was hosted by a Canada-based company, FluidSurveys, for ease of application as well as to help maintain respondent anonymity and protect data privacy. Daily tracking of the progress of the survey enabled monitoring of the responses to ensure no technical problems emerged. The instrument permitted participants to save their responses and return later to the study, thus reducing the time pressure on completion in cognizance of business executives' time limitations. The average completion time was 20-30 minutes.

Respondents' country locations were recorded to verify the international nature of the study, and are shown in the map in Appendix H, which was downloaded from the host site. Coupled with the application of the snowball sampling mechanism described in Chapter 3, precise response rate details cannot be presented. However, a response rate of over 65% from the managers contacted directly was estimated, as a result of the targeted requests for participation and follow-up reminders. (Note: As in all cases of broad snowball-based online distribution of research instruments, calculating a response rate is not possible since both the size of the sampling frame, as well as the extent to which posted messages are actually noticed by their intended recipients, are beyond the researcher's control. Therefore, the important sampling statistic in cases like this is the final response achieved.)

As described in Chapter 3, the questionnaire included 113 five-point Likert-type questions and a set of demographic questions about the respondent and his/her organization. As described in the method chapter, the questionnaire was developed on the basis of surveys of marketers on other managerial themes, the PCI literature, and the findings from the Phase 1 content analysis and the in-depth interviews in Phase 2 of this study.

6.2. Descriptive Analysis

Given the exploratory nature of this study, large emphasis is put on the descriptive analysis to assess levels of importance of the identified factors. The first two parts of the descriptive analysis evaluate the demographic variables included in the questionnaire in order to profile the respondents, as well as the background origins of the organizations represented in the survey. The 202 responses collected revealed a diverse range of managers in terms of nationality, international experience, location, and corporate service, which is discussed at the respondent and company levels in this section.

The third section of the descriptive analysis summarizes current actual use of place associations by the respondents' organizations, within the company/brand name, as well as within communications strategies and executions.

6.2.1. Respondent Characteristics

Section A of the research instrument collected background demographic data on the respondents, their locations and company structures. From a range of management levels and company sizes, the various job titles/descriptions provided by the respondents were collated into the levels of CEO, General Management, Marketing/Brand/Sales Management, collectively referred to as "Marketing" management, and Customer Service Management for analysis purposes, with the original titles retained in the database. The sample distribution by respondent position is presented in Table 6.1.

The majority of respondents were in marketing management positions (55%, N = 111) and all indicated involvement in the company's marketing communications strategy planning at the corporate headquarters (51%) or regional/subsidiary level of the organization,

Table 6.1: Respondents' Position in Company

Respondent	N	%
CEO	22	10.9
General management	56	27.7
Marketing/Brand/Sales management	111	55.0
Customer service management	13	6.4
<u>Total</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>100</u>

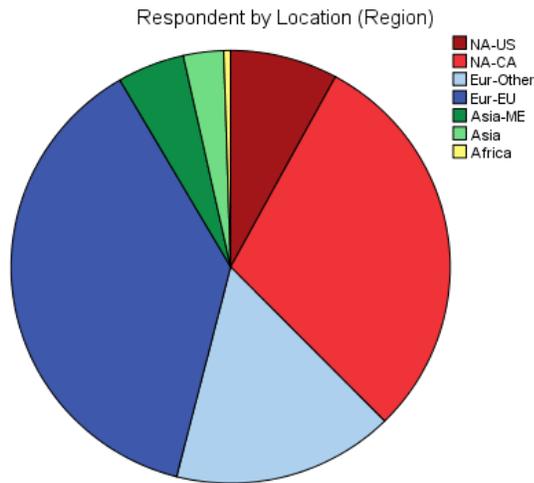
And at varying levels of seniority.

The respondents were drawn from 30 countries around the world, mainly located in European and North American markets, as illustrated in the collated regional distribution shown in Figure 6.1. For data analysis purposes, the European region in the database is divided into the EU member countries (Eur-EU) and the non-EU countries (Eur-Other, such as, Switzerland, Norway, and Serbia) within the geographic continent. However, for the general discussion both sub-regions are grouped together as 'Europe' unless indicated otherwise.

Over one-third of the respondents are located in North America (Canada and the U.S.) and 54% in Europe, with the remainder being located across Asia, Africa and the Middle East. The cross-section of countries represented in the survey range from the giants of India and China, to small country markets with populations of less than ten million (such as Bulgaria and Norway), and at different stages of economic development. The majority of respondents (55%) are based in the developed countries of North America and Europe, with representation also from the newly emerging European markets (such as Romania and Hungary) and developing markets (such as Kosovo and Moldova).

However, not all the respondents are native to the work location country, as demonstrated in Table 6.2, which reveals the geographic diversity (by region) of the respondents with regard to their work location, their own home country of origin, and the

Figure 6.1: Distribution of Respondents by Location (Region)



parent company's country of origin. In total, 51 countries are represented across the three classification types, providing a rich cross-national sample in line with the study's theme and objectives.

The range of international experience and exposure of the respondents suggests a leaning towards a 'global mindset', which infers an openness to different cultures and an ability to adapt their global thinking to the local market context (Bartlett and Ghoshal 1987; Arora et al. 2004; Levy et al. 2007). This is an important attribute in the context of this study, since the Phase 2 interview participants stressed that the use of place associations required a comprehension of and willingness to adapt to the local market environment in terms of applying the appropriate symbols/references. The relatively high proportion of European respondents indicates an international orientation, given the close geographic proximity of the European countries and centuries of international business experience when

Table 6.2: Respondents by Work Location, Home Country, Parent Company Origin (Region)

Respondent	Work Location		Home Country		Parent Company	
		%		%		%
NA-CA	60	29.7	50	24.8	45	22.3
NA-US*	16 ^a	7.9	16 ^b	7.9	51	25.2
Eur-EU	76	37.6	83	41.1	76	37.6
Eur-Other**	33	16.3	34	16.8	19	9.4
Asia-ME	10	5.0	9	4.5	7	3.5
Asia-Pacific	6	3.0	5	2.5	3	1.5
Africa	1	0.5	2	1.0	1	0.5
Americas			3	1.5		
<u>Total</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>100</u>

* The 16 U.S. nationals^b are not exactly the same 16 respondents located in the U.S.^a, the matching number is coincidental

** Includes non-EU countries, such as Norway, Serbia, Switzerland

compared to their North American counterparts (Kefalas 1998; Arora et al. 2004).

However, it is important to verify this with regard to the survey respondents.

To assess the level of international orientation of the individual respondents, the demographic section of the questionnaire collected information on the number and type of foreign languages spoken, and in how many countries the respondent has worked. The data revealed that English is the native language of just under half of the respondents (47%). The majority of managers in the survey (87%) speak at least one foreign language and 52% speak two or more foreign languages – primarily other European languages, as intimated by the high level of respondents from that region (54% are based in European locations and 58% are native Europeans).

Kumar and Subramaniam (1997) argue that breadth of experience is an important factor in enabling the strategic decision-maker to manage complex and unfamiliar situations. In terms of international exposure, 43% of the respondents have spent less than four years in

their current location and, supporting the high propensity of foreign languages spoken, 65% of managers have worked in at least one other country outside their own. Overall, as shown in Table 6.3, more than one half of all respondents have worked in two to four countries, and, importantly, one quarter have worked in more than five different countries.

Table 6.3: Number of Countries in which Respondent has worked

No. of Countries worked in:	N	%
1	71	35.1
2-4	106	52.5
5 or more	25	12.4
<u>Total</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>100</u>

Moreover, a review of the number of years the respondents have worked for their current company and the number of years they have worked at their current location also points to a relatively high level of internationalization among this group of managers. In summary, Table 6.4 reveals that 22% of the managers with less than ten years at the current location have worked in other locations for the same company.

To further assess the level of internationalization, the number of years the respondent has served the company was cross tabulated with the number of countries in which they have worked and the number of languages spoken. The analysis demonstrates that over 60% of respondents at all lengths of company service have worked in more than one country and speak multiple languages, as presented in Table 6.5 and Table 6.6 respectively, which is arguably an indicator of an international or global orientation (Nummela, Saarenketo, and Puumalainen 2004; Arora et al. 2004; Levy et al. 2007; Zucchella, Palamara, and Denicolai 2007).

Table 6.4: Number of Years with Company and at Location

			No. of years with company				
			< 2	2-4	5-10	>10	<u>Total</u>
No. of years at location	< 2	N	21	6	2	1	30
		% within location	70%	20%	7%	3%	100%
		% within company	100%	12%	3%	2%	15%
	2-4	N		43	8	7	58
		% within location		74%	14%	12%	100%
		% within company		88%	13%	10%	29%
	5-10	N			54	10	64
		% within location			84%	16%	100%
		% within company			84%	15%	32%
	>10	N				50	50
		% within location				100%	100%
		% within company				74%	25%
Total	<u>N</u>		21	49	64	68	202
	% within location		10%	24%	32%	34%	100%

Legend

Bold: Respondents who have worked in more than one location for their current company.

Table 6.5: Number of Years with Company and Number of Countries Worked In

			# of years with company				
			<2	2-4	5-10	>10	<u>Total</u>
# countries worked in	1	N	8	19	25	19	71
		% within # countries	11.3%	26.8%	35.2%	26.8%	100%
		% within # of years	38.1%	38.8%	39.1%	27.9%	35.1%
		% of Total	4.0%	9.4%	12.4%	9.4%	35.1%
	2-4	N	9	21	34	42	106
		% within # countries	8.5%	19.8%	32.1%	39.6%	100%
		% within # of years	42.9 %	42.9%	53.1%	61.8%	52.5%
		% of Total	4.5%	10.4%	16.8%	20.8%	52.5%
	>5	N	4	9	5	7	25
		% within # countries	16.0%	36.0%	20.0%	28.0%	100%
		% within # of years	19.0%	18.4%	7.8%	10.3%	12.4%
		% of Total	2.0%	4.5%	2.5%	3.5%	12.4%
Total	<u>N</u>		21	49	64	68	202

Table 6.6: Number of Years with Company and Number of Foreign Languages Spoken

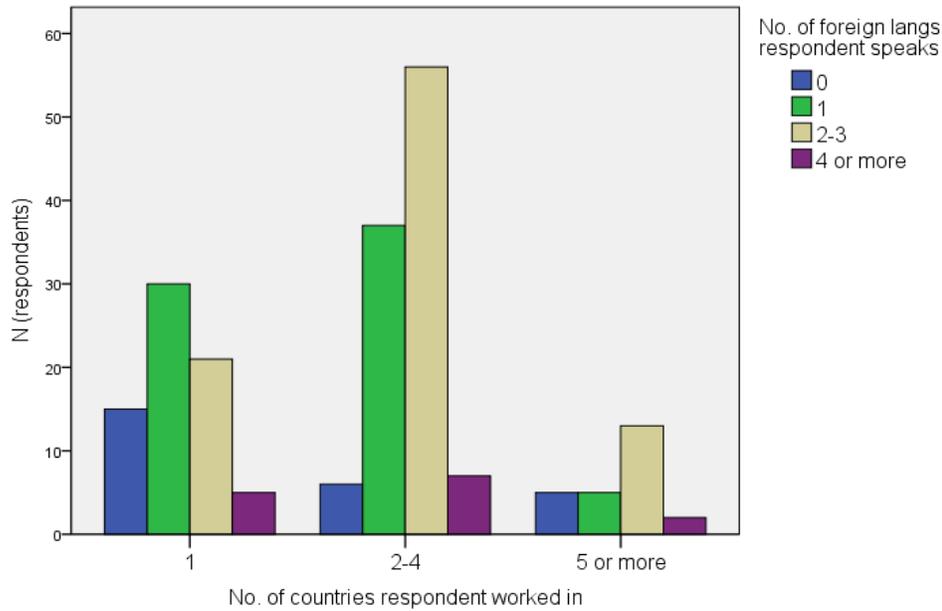
		# of years with company				<u>Total</u>	
		<2	2-4	5-10	>10		
# foreign langs. Spoken	None	N	3	5	7	11	<u>26</u>
		% within #for. langs	11.5%	19.2%	26.9%	42.3%	<u>100%</u>
		% within # of years	14.3%	10.2%	10.9%	16.2%	<u>12.9%</u>
		% of Total	1.5%	2.5%	3.5%	5.4%	<u>12.9%</u>
	1	N	4	18	25	25	<u>72</u>
		% within #for. langs	5.6%	25.0%	34.7%	34.7%	<u>100%</u>
		% within # of years	19.0%	36.7%	39.1%	36.8%	<u>35.6%</u>
		% of Total	2.0%	8.9%	12.4%	12.4%	<u>35.6%</u>
	2-3	N	13	24	25	28	<u>90</u>
		% within #for. langs	14.4%	26.7%	27.8%	31.1%	<u>100%</u>
		% within # of years	61.9%	49.0%	39.1%	41.2%	<u>44.6%</u>
		% of Total	6.4%	11.9%	12.4%	13.9%	<u>44.6%</u>
>4	N	1	2	7	4	<u>14</u>	
	% within #for. langs	7.1%	14.3%	50.0%	28.6%	<u>100%</u>	
	% within # of years	4.8%	4.1%	10.9%	5.9%	<u>6.9%</u>	
	% of Total	0.5%	1.0%	3.5%	2.0%	<u>6.9%</u>	
<u>Total</u>		N	<u>21</u>	<u>49</u>	<u>64</u>	<u>68</u>	<u>202</u>

However, Pearson's chi-square tests indicate that there is no significant relationship between the number of years' service to the company and the number of countries in which the respondents have worked in (χ^2 7.37, df 6), or the number of languages spoken (χ^2 7.49, df 9).

Figure 6.2 also illustrates that the number of foreign languages spoken is not directly related to the number of countries that the respondent has worked in. This may be partly attributable to the number of English-language countries and corporations represented in the survey, but it does also suggest a high level of international orientation among the individual respondents.

This assumption is further consolidated by the summary Table 6.7, which categorizes the respondent in terms of his/her current work location country, his/her native country, and

Figure 6.2: Number of Countries Worked In and Number of Foreign Languages Spoken



the home country of the parent company (CHQ). Of the 202 respondents, 74% (N = 149) are based in their home country location, more than half of whom (N = 86) are native to the same country as the parent company and located at the company head office or a local branch, with the remaining 63 managers working for a foreign-owned company.

Table 6.7: Summary of Respondents by Work Location, Home Country, Parent Company

Respondent	N	%
native at CHQ/local branch	86	42.6
native working for foreign company	63	31.2
foreigner working at CHQ	20	9.9
expat from CHQ	12	5.9
expat foreigner	21	10.4
<u>Total</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>100</u>

With regard to the 53 (26%) respondents working in a foreign location: in 10% of cases (N = 20), the company is employing a foreigner in its home country, whereas in a further 6% of cases (N = 12), the company has deployed a parent company national to one of its overseas' locations. The remaining 10% (N = 21) of the respondents are third party expatriates (i.e., foreign to the location country of the subsidiary and to the parent company's country of origin).

This indicates the multi-cultural diversity of the individual survey respondents, as well as the international nature of many of the companies. Table 6.7 highlights that 43% (N = 86) of the total respondents are working in their own home country for a local company, however, as observed in the previous tables, the majority of respondents speak multiple languages and have worked in more than one country.

The above findings are important with regard to the first hypothesis presented in Chapter 3, Section 3.4, which posited that the degree of a manager's international mindset is related to his/her company's strategic orientation. In summary, it can be assumed that the majority of individual respondents possess an international orientation as a result of their own professional experience, linguistic capabilities and, hence, perceived openness to other cultures (Bartlett and Ghoshal 2003; Levy et al. 2007; Barmeyer and Mayrhofer 2008).

It has also been argued that managers' own attitudes play a key role in the company's strategic decision-making (Kumar and Subramaniam 1997; Kefala 1998; Kyvik et al. 2013). Therefore, the respondents' attitudes towards the use of place associations recorded in this survey are a valid component in enhancing our understanding of the role of place in marketing communications. Considering also the fact that the global brands observed in the Phase 1 content analysis often anchor their brand to a place associated with the industry

sector or the local operation, the second and third hypotheses posited that a geocentric orientation is related to a manager's positive attitudes toward the use of place associations (H2), and thence the more likely place cues are used in his/her company's marketing communications (H3).

6.2.2. Company Characteristics

The company characteristics were collated from the first two sections of the questionnaire. Demographic questions in Section A collected general information on the size, location and scope of the company's operations. Section B captured the manager's perceptions of the company's strategic orientation through a series of questions on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree). The descriptive analysis of the key company characteristics follows, which gives rise to the next set of hypotheses.

As shown in Table 6.8, more than half of the respondents (51%) are located at the company headquarters, which range from small companies with only one office to large multinational organizations, and span countries of different sizes.

Similarly, at a regional headquarters office (19% of respondents, N = 38), managers may be responsible for a region such as Europe on behalf of a large U.S. multinational organization, or responsible for a province within the same country (e.g., Canada). At the local subsidiary office level, respondents were also dispersed across a range of different countries – in terms of population size (statistics sourced from the CIA World Factbook) and development.

Intuitively, it may be anticipated that central (CHQ) and regional headquarters (RHQ) operations of large multinational organizations are located in the larger countries

Table 6.8: Company Status

Respondent Location	N	%
Corporate Headquarters	103	51
Regional Headquarters	38	19
Local Subsidiary Office	61	30
<u>Total</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>100</u>

(defined by population size). However, Table 6.9 demonstrates that operational structures are not defined by country size, but possibly other economic/political/legal factors. For example, the Swiss group Nestlé has a regional headquarters in the much larger country of the U.S., and conversely, large U.S. multinationals (e.g., Procter & Gamble) often locate a regional European headquarters in the small nation of Switzerland.

Table 6.9: Respondent Location – Country Size and Company Status

Respondent Location			CHQ	RHQ	Local Subsidiary	Total
Country Size:						
Large	N		33	9	11	<u>53</u>
Pop. >60m	<i>% within country size</i>		62%	17%	21%	<u>100%</u>
	<i>% within HQ/Subsid.</i>		32%	24%	18%	<u>26%</u>
	<i>% of Total</i>		16%	5%	5%	<u>26%</u>
Medium	N		55	19	29	<u>103</u>
Pop. 10-59m	<i>% within country size</i>		53%	18%	28%	<u>100%</u>
	<i>% within HQ/Subsid.</i>		53%	50%	48%	<u>51%</u>
	<i>% of Total</i>		27%	9%	14%	<u>51%</u>
Small	N		15	10	21	<u>46</u>
Pop. <10m	<i>% within country size</i>		33%	22%	46%	<u>100%</u>
	<i>% within HQ/Subsid.</i>		15%	26%	34%	<u>23%</u>
	<i>% of Total</i>		7%	5%	10%	<u>23%</u>
<u>Total</u>	N		<u>103</u>	<u>38</u>	<u>61</u>	<u>202</u>
	<i>% within country size</i>		51%	19%	30%	<u>100%</u>
	<i>% within HQ/Subsid.</i>		100%	100%	100%	<u>100%</u>
	<i>% of Total</i>		51%	19%	30%	<u>100%</u>

The parent companies of all the respondents are distributed across the globe, shown below in Table 6.10. As indicated previously in the comparison Table 6.2, the parent companies predominantly originate from North America and Europe, deploying both their own nationals and locally-recruited managers in the overseas operations, implying a strategic market orientation (Gebhardt, Carpenter, and Sherry 2006) from the company perspective.

Table 6.10: Parent Company Home Country (by Region)

Parent Company	N	%
NA-CA	45	22.3
NA-US	51	25.2
Eur-EU	76	37.6
Eur-Other*	19	9.4
Asia-ME	7	3.5
Asia-Pacific	3	1.5
Africa	1	0.5
<u>Total</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>100</u>

While mostly located in developed countries (76%, N = 154), Table 6.11 shows that the parent companies represented in the survey also span a range of country sizes. International business theories posit that the size of the firm's home country plays a role in the level of its internationalization (Wiarda 2007; Yunker 2010). However, that level of analysis is beyond the scope of this study and reference will only be made to the home country size in relation to the use of place associations (if significant).

Additionally, it was noted that the majority of companies represented in the survey were first established in the 20th century (40% in the post-WWII period). However, 21% are relatively new companies founded since 2000, in contrast to some 16% of companies that

Table 6.11: Parent Company Home Country Size (Population)

Parent Company Home Country	N	%
Population Size: Large (>60m)	90	44.6
Medium (10-59m)	78	38.6
Small (<10m)	34	16.8
<u>Total</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>100</u>

have been in business for over 100 years – dating back as far as 1786. The question was also posed as to when the companies began international operations, however, on account of the relatively low response rate to this question, the data collected is not included in this analysis.

Furthermore, assumptions cannot be made with regard to the number of years of operation that may denote international expansion, given the heightened accessibility to overseas markets for new and emerging companies in the modern era of globalization, as discussed in Chapter 2, and the changing geopolitical structure that has opened up new market opportunities at a faster pace than was enjoyed by the older and long-established companies. The literature review in Chapter 2 and the previous discussions in this study’s preceding phases did not indicate that this would have specific implications for the focal area of this research.

As revealed during the Phase 2 interviews, the level of centralization in an organization’s strategic orientation may override the local managers perceptions on the value of place associations in the local market. Consequently, the manager’s general attitudes toward the concept may not correlate with the actual use of place cues. Overall, Table 6.12 indicates that this survey comprised a mix of respondents from companies that are perceived to operate a highly centralized and controlling structure by providing

“complete sets of rules” (mean = 3.5) and requiring “small matters to be referred” (mean = 3.0), and those that permit a degree of local flexibility and adaptation by only providing general strategic direction (mean = 3.5).

Many companies engage in the deployment of corporate managers to the local subsidiary or regional offices (mean = 3.3), and while this may be considered a means of internationalization from the company perspective, from the host country’s viewpoint this can be perceived as a means of centralized control or interference in the local market organization (as intimated in some of the Phase 2 interviews).

Table 6.12: Level of Centralization

Corporate Management:	Mean	SD	Variance
- provides general strategy only	3.5	1.2	1.4
- requires small matters to be referred	3.0	1.2	1.4
- provides complete sets of rules	3.5	1.2	1.3
- deploys managers to local subsidiary offices	3.3	1.4	1.9

As discussed in Chapter 5 (the Phase 2 in-depth interviews), varying levels of centralization can be largely a matter of organizational culture and not related specifically to company size. It may also evolve over time depending on the business experience and/or the market needs pertaining to changing environmental factors, which suggests that the level of company centralization in this study will not play a role in the use of place cues in communications strategies (discussed further in Section 6.3 of this chapter).

The Phase 1 content analysis highlighted the breadth of industry sectors utilizing place cues in product advertising across different markets. To contextualize the use of place associations by the survey respondents, information was collected with regard to the industry sectors of the companies involved. In line with the inductive nature of this

preliminary study in the field, respondents were asked to provide the name of their product sector, rather than to check the closest option in a pre-prepared list. As presented in Table 6.13, the range of industry sectors listed by the respondents were then coded into four categories (Consumer, Services, Technology, and Resources), with one exception where the description could not be confidently assigned to one of the categories – given the relatively small scale of the survey (N = 202), it was decided to separate this singular unattributable response.

Table 6.13: Company Industry by Category

Industry Category	N	%
Consumer	64	31.7
Services	82	40.6
Technology	44	21.8
Resources	11	5.4
Not known	1	0.5
<u>Total</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>100</u>

The four categories comprise a range of industry sectors:

- Consumer: includes the Food & Beverage, Apparel, Household, and sub-sectors of Personal Health & Beauty that were recorded as prolific advertisers in the Phase 1 content analysis;
- Services: includes sectors such as Finance, Education, Retail and Hospitality;
- Technology: includes Automotive, Transportation and IT sectors;
- Resources: comprises companies active in Agriculture, Mining and Energy sectors.

Across the four categories, 39% (N = 78) of companies target B2C customers, 22% (N = 45) are B2B focussed, and 39% (N = 79) operate in both consumer and business

market segments. This diversity of sectors has important implications for the use of place associations uncovered in this phase of the study, bearing in mind the emphasis on the relevancy between the product brand values and place brand image expounded in academic research (e.g., Baker and Ballington 2002; Papadopoulos 2002; Anholt 2005; Pharr 2005), which was also accentuated by the Phase 2 interviewees (Chapter 5). Hence, this was encapsulated in the fourth hypothesis described in Chapter 3, Section 3.4.

6.2.3. Market Characteristics

The review of the respondent characteristics earlier in this chapter suggests that the survey data includes a diverse range of country markets. Sections C and D of the survey instrument uncovered key factors of the local market environment of interest to this study, by measuring managers' perceptions of the competitive nature of the marketplace and local consumer attitudes, as well as the status of the brand in the local market. Items were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree).

As presented in Table 6.14, the respondents agreed that there are many strong competitors in their markets, yielding a high number and range of products available.

Table 6.14: Local Market Environment

The local market environment is characterized by:	Mean	SD	Variance
- relatively strong competitors	4.0	1.0	1.0
- high number of products	3.8	1.2	1.4
- many competitors	3.7	1.2	1.4
- product variety	3.7	1.3	1.6
- strict regulations on COO label	3.5	1.4	1.8
- customer preferences change frequently	3.0	1.1	1.1
- difficult to predict customer preference changes	2.8	0.9	0.8
- easy for competitors to establish strong positions	2.4	1.1	1.2

As a result of the perceived highly competitive nature of their markets, the managers did not consider that it is easy for new competitors to establish strong positions. This may also partly relate to the perception that customer preferences tend to change frequently, although customer preference changes can, to an extent, be predicted. In a situation of perceived competitive intensity, the use of place associations as a brand heuristic can provide a competitive advantage, and this was supported by similar comments among the Phase 2 interviewees, on the premise that the place brand values relate to the product brand values. Therefore, this was captured in the fifth hypothesis to examine further.

Notably, respondents reported strict regulations (mean = 3.5) on country of origin (COO) labelling in the local market. This certainly impacts the use of place references on packaging, but may not translate into a brand communications requirement. Therefore, the survey investigated the managers' attitudes towards the use of place associations and, more specifically, where place cues were applied in the respondent's marketing communications strategy (discussed in the next section of this chapter).

The application of an international strategic orientation implies responsiveness to the local market environment (Bartlett and Ghoshal 1987; Arora et al. 2004; Levy et al. 2007). As described in Chapter 3, questions were drawn from Shimp and Sharma's (1987) CETSCALE to gain an understanding of consumer attitudes in the local market place towards international versus local brands, and implicitly, the strategic use of place associations beyond the legal requirement. Since this study is drawing upon manager's perceptions of their local market consumers and consumer attitudes constitutes only one of the potentially multiple antecedent factors influencing the use of place in marketing communications, the original 17-item scale was reduced to six items in the survey.

Table 6.15 indicates that there is not a significant level of ethnocentrism among target audiences that might influence the use of place associations (as presented in H6 and H7, in Chapter 3). Responses to perceptions of the target customer's attitudes to foreign products varied across the five-point scale, resulting in mean scores on the ethnocentrism scale at around the mid-point (composite aggregate mean = 2.9).

Table 6.15: Perceived Level of Consumer Ethnocentrism

Our target customer:	Mean	SD	Variance
- tends to prefer domestic products	3.2	1.1	1.3
- thinks buying foreign products hurts local businesses	3.0	1.0	1.0
- rates foreign products favourably	2.9	1.1	1.2
- believes in importing only goods unavailable locally	2.8	1.1	1.3
- normally buys a lot of foreign products	2.8	1.2	1.4
- thinks there should be tighter import restrictions	2.6	1.0	0.9

Although there exists a perceived preference for domestic products (mean = 3.2), this does not imply a leaning toward ethnocentrism since consumers are not strongly averse to buying foreign products (mean = 2.8) and do not demonstrate strong concerns regarding imports (mean = 2.6). This also suggests that the relevancy of the place brand reputation to the industry sector plays a greater role in determining its appropriate association with the brand, as endorsed by the Phase 2 interviewees. An additional factor affecting product marketing communications is the brand's current reputation and position in the marketplace. As reported in Section D of the survey, the brand's represented in this study are well-established (mean = 4.1), and generally enjoy a strong local reputation (mean = 4.2) and market leadership position (mean = 3.9).

During the Phase 2 interviews, the marketing practitioner community also reinforced the academic propositions that the product lifecycle stage and level of brand awareness can play a role in determining marketing communication elements (Lee and Carter 2005; Matthes, Schemer, and Wirth 2007). It has been argued that the greater the brand's maturity in the market, the greater its brand strength – i.e., its positioning is well-established – and, therefore, the less necessity there is for additional cues to evoke the brand image (Hong and Wyer 1990; Hsieh, Pan, and Setiono 2004). In other words, the age and strength of the brand is more instrumental in strategic decision-making in marketing communications than the age of the company, and this is related to the propensity to use place cues, as captured in H8.

6.2.4. Managers' Use of Place Associations

Sections E and F posed questions specifically on the actual use of place associations. Respondents were first asked whether the company name and/or the brand name included a reference to a place (e.g., Singapore Airlines, Bank of America, Bombay Sapphire) or a suggestion to a place (e.g., “Emporio Armani” connotes “Italian” without stating “Italy”, as the “Maple Leaf” is widely recognized as a heuristic for “Canadian”).

Over one third of the companies in the survey incorporate a reference to a place in the company name and 28% include a suggestion to a place in the company name. Similarly, two-thirds of the companies surveyed incorporate a reference or a suggestion to a place name in their brand names, although the preference is for a more subtle suggestion to a place, as summarized in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16: Place in Company Name or Brand Name

Place Reference in:-	N	%
Company Name:		
- incl. place	71	35.1
- incl. suggestion to place	56	27.7
- no place/suggestion	75	37.1
<u>Total</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>100</u>
Brand Name:		
- incl. place	59	29.2
- incl. suggestion to place	72	35.6
- no place/suggestion	130	35.1
<u>Total</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>100</u>

On the scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree), the respondents indicated that the main focus in their communications strategy is on product quality (mean = 4.4), which, along with product features (mean = 4.2) and brand image (mean = 4.4), appear to be seen as the key factors. The use of associated place images was seen as a useful element in helping to deliver the core message (mean = 3.0), and communicating a price advantage over the competition is considered a lower priority in the product brand strategy (mean = 2.5).

This is supported by general attitudes toward the use of place associations (discussed further in the next section of this chapter), which revealed a consensus that it is appropriate for certain types of products (mean = 4.4), especially when the place reputation is close to the brand values (mean = 4.4) and offers a competitive advantage (mean = 4.4).

The literature review in Chapter 2 highlighted the challenges to the notion that the use of place images retains its currency in the modern era of globalization. To evaluate the current use of place associations in marketing communications, respondents were asked to

indicate the level of usage on a scale of 1-5 pertaining to strength (1 = Very Weak, 5 = Very Strong), frequency (1 = Very Infrequent, 5 = Very Frequent), prominence in the communications (1 = Very Subtle, 5 = Very Prominent), and whether usage constitutes a component of the positioning strategy (1 = Not a Component, 5 = A [Strategic] Component). Table 6.17 confirms that there is usage of place associations among the survey participants, with mean scores of 3.1–3.3, covering each point in the scale across the 202 cases.

Table 6.17: Use of Place Associations in Marketing Communications

Use of PA in MarComs:	Mean	SD
- Strong	3.3	1.5
- Frequent	3.2	1.5
- Prominent	3.1	1.4
- Strategic component	3.2	1.5

In the Phase 1 content analysis, nine points in the print ad were identified where a place cue may be used. Phase 3 survey respondents were asked to check all the items used to depict a place association in their marketing communications – in line with the findings from Phase 2, examples of each type were provided to ensure comprehension.

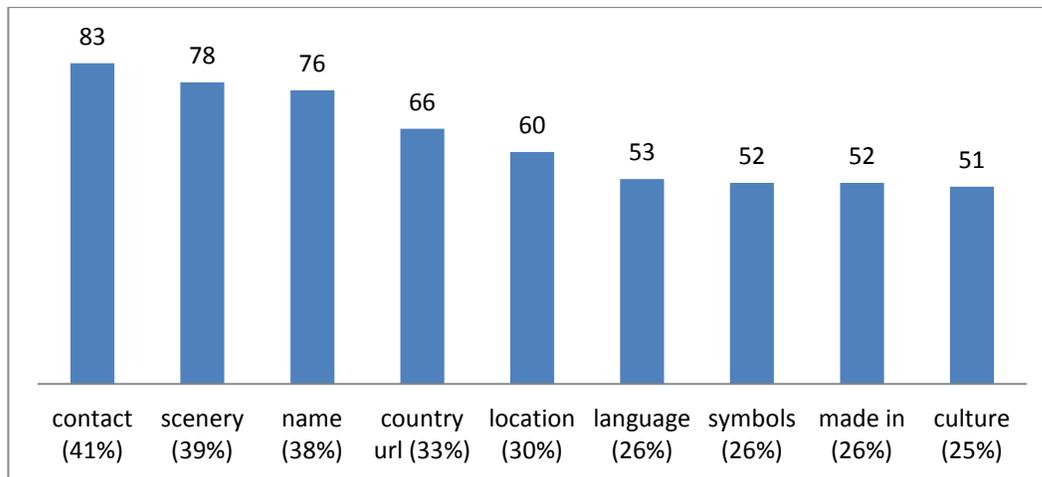
The reported levels of usage of any or several of the nine different types of place cues were coded into three categories: none, light usage (1-3 cues), and heavy usage (4-9 cues). As reported in Table 6.18, only 19% (N = 39) of respondents stated that they do not use any type of place cue in their marketing communications. Just under half of the managers (44%, N = 89) claim to use one to three of the listed types of place cues, while 37% (N = 74) claim to make use of a broad array of tools to highlight the place association with their company/brand.

Table 6.18: Number of Place Cues Used

Level of Use:	N	%
no cues	39	19.3
light usage (1-3 cues)	89	44.1
heavy usage (4-9 cues)	74	36.6
<u>Total</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>100</u>

Figure 6.3 illustrates the use of multiple cues within a brand communications strategy. The below figure demonstrates that, as well as the place references featured in the company and/or brand name and company contact details, a range of place cues are used to depict the company/brand’s association with a place, whether to a specific country or city, or as a means of accentuating a global brand or local operation.

Figure 6.3: Types of Place Cues Used in Marketing Communications



Place references are most used in the contact details (e.g., locations of a company’s retail outlets, or sales office). The use of identifiable scenery as a visual reinforcement of the place association also features frequently in marketing communications. In the modern era

of globalization, the “Made In” reference is perhaps more complex, although it may retain relevancy in certain contexts as previously described (e.g., German engineering, Canadian blueberries) and is used by one quarter of the respondents in their communications.

Cultural indications (e.g., foreign celebrities, food, clothing) and symbols (e.g., national flags, animals) are similarly difficult to transfer across multicultural markets, but also reflect usefulness when the relevant symbols are widely recognized and understood by the target audience, and one quarter of the respondents using place cues include relevant cultural references in their communications toolbox. To reinforce the earlier discussion in this document, a location reference proves to be popular among the survey respondents, whereby the local or global/worldwide credentials of a brand may be accentuated.

Further to the observations of the Phase 1 content analysis and discussions during the Phase 2 in-depth interviews, the preliminary findings from the Phase 3 quantitative survey indicate that the use of place associations still has a role to play in international product brand marketing communications, across a range of country markets and industry sectors. As long as the place association is relevant and its symbols well-known (H9), a range of cues may be used to reinforce the association (H10).

To summarize the general usage of place associations, the respondents were then asked to what extent 'place' is used – relating to the brand and to the company – within the marketing, positioning, advertising, appeal and execution strategies. The response rate was slightly lower for this question (which may be partly attributable to the fact that it was located in the final section of the survey), however, the 95% response rate validates the data as an overview of the use of place associations.

In support of the above rankings, respondents stated that the use of place cues does have a role to play in both the brand's and the company's marketing communications strategy, especially in the positioning strategy, presented in Table 6.19 below.

Table 6.19: Use of Place Associations in Marketing Communications Strategy

Place used in	Mean*	SD
Brand:		
- marketing strategy	3.07	1.5
- positioning strategy	3.24	1.5
- advertising strategy	3.01	1.5
- appeal strategy	3.18	1.4
- execution strategy	3.18	1.4
Company:		
- marketing strategy	3.20	1.5
- positioning strategy	3.32	1.4
- advertising strategy	3.05	1.5
- appeal strategy	3.11	1.4
- execution strategy	3.20	1.4

*Mean score is shown at 2 decimal places to display variances more clearly

Respondents subsequently indicated where the associated place reference appears in advertising executions, i.e., in the headline, the main body of the text (copy), in the visual graphics (art), in the campaign slogan, and/or in the fine print of the communication piece, and how frequently the place reference is used, on a scale from 1 (Rarely/Not at all) to 5 (Frequently/Always).

The mean scores for each execution position shown in Table 6.20 reveal that, among the responding companies, place cues are primarily used in the copy and, to a lesser extent, in the visual graphics, as well as in the fine print, where a corresponding address or local url (rather than the generic “.com”) may appear.

Table 6.20: Use of Place Associations in Marketing Communications Execution Position

<i>Place used in</i>	Mean*	SD
Brand:		
- headlines	2.66	1.5
- copy	3.14	1.5
- art	2.97	1.5
- slogans	2.66	1.5
- fine print	3.04	1.5
Company:		
- headlines	2.73	1.5
- copy	3.16	1.4
- art	2.89	1.5
- slogans	2.62	1.4
- fine print	3.07	1.4

*Mean score is shown at 2 decimal places to display variances

6.3. Analysis of Antecedent Factors

This section discusses the key antecedent factors that have an influence on strategic decision-making with regard to the use of place associations in brand marketing communications. The first part describes the composite variables compiled from the survey items, which are summarized in Appendix K.

The second part discusses the tests of associations as the preliminary examination of the potential antecedent factors in strategic marketing communications decision-making pertaining to the use of place.

6.3.1. Factors Affecting Management Decision-Making on the Use of Place Associations

The Phase 2 interviews revealed some key factors that can influence the manager's decision to use place associations in the company's marketing communications (first presented in Chapter 5). This section describes the core constructs generated for assessing the potential

relationships with regard to the manager’s perceptions of the characteristics of the firm, the market, and the product/brand.

The items were quantitatively tested in the survey (using the Likert-type five-point scale), through which the respondents endorsed the critical factors identified by the interviewees, as reflected in the mean scores presented in Table 6.21.

Table 6.21: Factors Influencing the Use of Place Associations

Factors:	Mean	SD	Variance
Consumer perceptions of place	4.0	1.2	1.4
COO reputation is relevant to industry	4.0	1.2	1.4
Brand positioning	3.9	1.2	1.3
Consumer attitudes to foreign v. local brands	3.7	1.2	1.3
Relationship between host country and brand COO	3.7	1.1	1.3
Local consumer research	3.6	1.2	1.4
Extent of competitor use of COO	3.2	1.1	1.3
Government promotion of place	3.2	1.3	1.6

Notably, the importance of the local consumer’s perceptions of the associated place (mean = 4.0), the relevance of the place image to the product sector (mean = 4.0), and the product brand’s positioning (mean = 3.9) were indicated most strongly as influencing factors on the strategic marketing decision to use place cues.

In order to enhance understanding of the antecedent factors contributing to the decision to use place associations in marketing communications, respondents were asked a series of questions pertaining to the firm’s strategic orientation and market environment. As described in Chapter 3, due to the lack of empirical study from the manager’s perspective with regard to strategic decision-making on the use of place associations in marketing communications, brand-new scales had to be developed for most sections of the

questionnaire. This was done by combining items from other studies on cogent issues, such as market orientation and strategy, (outlined in Table 3.2 in Chapter 3), as well as integrating the findings from the Phase 2 in-depth interviews (described in Chapter 5).

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) using principal components analysis (PCA) was executed to reduce the number of items to a more manageable number of factors for evaluation, particularly given the relatively low sample size. The initial components were extracted based on Kaiser's (1960) criterion of eigenvalues of 1.00 (scores of 0.99 were also evaluated to avoid the hazards of an arbitrary cut-off point) and reviewed on Cattell's (1966) scree plot test. The minimum cut-off point for the factor loading was set at 0.4, considering the exploratory status of this study (Nunnally 1978; Hulland, Chow, and Lam 1996), and an oblique rotation was conducted to further evaluate item loadings and generate confidence in the outcomes (Fabrigar et al. 1999; Costello and Osborne 2005). The component items were tested for reliability and explanation of the variance. The reliability measure for the composite factor is Cronbach's alpha, applying the minimum threshold of 0.7 (Nunnally 1978) to accept the new variable (α scores are noted in each table).

Details of the number of factors generated and the factor loadings are provided for each new variable in the next section. The sources for the question items are detailed in Appendix J.

6.3.1.1. Managers' Perceptions of the Characteristics of the Firm

6.3.1.1.1. Strategic Orientation

In terms of the general strategic orientation of the firms, on a scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) managers tended to agree that, while companies may

implement more of a geocentric than a polycentric approach, their company has a “strong national identity, associated with its origins and headquarters”, as shown in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22: General Strategic Orientation

Respondent's Organization:	Mean	SD
Geocentric	3.3	1.5
Polycentric	2.6	1.3
Strong National Identity	3.5	1.4

This also supports the earlier proposition that the place image of the parent company supersedes the image of the respondent’s alternative location/home country. Within the E.P.R.G. framework (Wind, Douglas, and Perlmutter 1973) this may suggest an ethnocentric strategic approach, however, a series of questions evaluated the degree to which the firm responds to the local market/customer needs, i.e., its strong national identity may not preclude local market responsiveness.

Indeed, as reported in Table 6.23, one of the primary strategic objectives stated by the respondents is the company’s “focus on delivering customer needs” (mean = 4.2). Investing in the brand image (mean = 4.1) is perceived to be of key importance among the represented companies, which mostly enjoy a high degree of expertise in product positioning (mean = 3.9). This priority is supported, albeit to a lesser extent, by the declared flexibility (mean = 3.8) and speed of the company’s response rate to the local market needs (mean = 3.8).

Initially, a set of questions on centralization (itemized earlier in Table 6.12) were also incorporated in the factor analysis, however, these yielded low reliability levels (< 0.5)

Table 6.23: Strategic Orientation – Factor Items

My Company:	Mean	SD	Variance
- focuses on delivering customer needs	4.2	0.8	0.7
- invests in brand image	4.1	1.0	1.1
- has expertise in product positioning	3.9	1.0	1.1
- always responds quickly	3.8	1.0	1.0
- adapts existing products	3.8	1.0	0.9
- spends mgmt time planning international operations	3.4	1.3	1.7
- is a leader in industry for new markets	3.4	1.2	1.3

and were removed. Researchers have argued that the dissemination of information and dispersion of power are key attributes for an international company (Gebhardt, Carpenter, and Sherry 2006; Challagalla, Murtha, and Jaworski 2014), therefore, further analysis was conducted separately on the centralization items. However, analysis of variance tests found no significant relationships between the perceived level of centralized corporate management and the usage level of place cues, the degree to which they are used, nor the priority areas of focus in the communications strategy (e.g., product features, product quality, etc.) as discussed previously in Section 6.2 of this chapter.

Therefore, the construct of market strategic orientation (MSO) comprises six items, presented in Table 6.24. Two groups of questions explored the company’s strategic orientation in terms of responsiveness to local market and customer needs and implementation. The MSO factor loadings explain 43% of the variance, and have a reliability level above the 0.7 threshold ($\alpha = 0.76$).

Table 6.24: Market Strategic Orientation (MSO) – factor loadings

My Company:	MSO
- focus on delivering customer needs	0.74
- invests in brand image	0.66
- expertise in prod positioning	0.73
- always responds quickly	0.70
- adapts existing products	0.60
- is a leader in industry for new markets	0.58
Explained Variance (%):	43.1
Cronbach's α :	0.76

6.3.1.1.2. Attitudes to Research

Items pertaining to attitudes towards market research as a component of marketing strategy within the firm were excluded from the strategic orientation construct, as a result of low reliability ($\alpha < 0.7$). Mindful of the emphasis afforded to this instrument within the Phase 2 interviews and the high importance indicated by the Phase 3 survey responses mean scores presented in Table 6.25, a separate construct was explored.

Table 6.25: Attitudes to Market Research – Factor Items

Items:	Mean	SD	Variance
- put a high value on data	4.1	0.9	0.7
- regularly analyze customer information	3.9	1.0	1.1
- regularly analyze competitor information	3.8	1.1	1.3
- spend on good information	3.6	1.1	1.1
- regular information sharing between HQ/subsidiaries	3.5	1.3	1.7

Survey respondents put a high value on the availability of good market data (mean = 4.1) and spend what they must to get good information (mean = 3.6). The collected market information on both customers and competitors is reportedly analyzed regularly and

systematically within the company, and shared between the headquarters and subsidiary offices, as appropriate.

The five items in Table 6.25 generated a composite construct on the use of market research above the reliability threshold (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.76$) and factor loadings above 0.5, shown in Table 6.26, explaining 51.5% of the variance. Therefore, this construct is retained as a separate item relating to the manager's perspective on the company's strategic market orientation and to ascertain whether it has a role to play in strategic decision making on the use of place associations in marketing communications.

Table 6.26: Attitudes to Market Research (AMR) - Factor Loadings

Items	AMR
- put a high value on data	0.53
- regularly analyze customer information	0.86
- regularly analyze competitor information	0.76
- spend on good information	0.76
- regular information sharing between HQ/subsidiaries	0.63
Explained Variance (%):	51.5
Cronbach's α :	0.76

6.3.1.2. Manager's Perceptions of the Characteristics of the Market

Given that the local market environment plays a critical role in the implementation of the company's marketing strategy, the manager's perceptions of the characteristics of the local market environment was examined in terms of competitor activity and the perceived consumer perspective (especially related to place images/reputations).

6.3.1.2.1. Intensity of Competition

The developed nature of the participants' markets suggests a high level of competitive activity, which Roth (1995) purported could override positive product attributes derived from country of origin associations. To assess the potential influence of this factor on the decision to use place cues, information was gathered on the number and relative strength of competitors, market accessibility for new competitors, and the range of products available in the market.

As reported in Table 6.27, the majority of respondents maintain that their local markets are very competitive, especially in terms of the strength of competitors, although it is not easy for new competitors to enter the market in all cases (mean = 2.4). Existing regulations on country of origin labelling was also noted, which implies a minimum level of 'Made In' information but does not prescribe the use of other emotional-oriented cues highlighted previously in Figure 6.3.

Table 6.27: Competitive Intensity – Factor Items

Local Market Environment:	Mean	SD	Variance
- relatively strong competitors	4.0	1.0	1.0
- high number of products	3.7	1.2	1.4
- high product variety	3.7	1.3	1.6
- many competitors	3.7	1.2	1.4
- strict regulations on COO label	3.5	1.4	1.8
- easy for competitors to enter	2.4	1.1	1.2

Five items generated one component to measure the influence of competitive intensity at a high reliability level (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.8$) and with high factor loadings,

explaining 56% of the variance, presented in Table 6.28. The item ‘easy for competitors to enter’ did not contribute reliably to the measure and was removed.

Table 6.28: Competitive Intensity (CI) – Factor Loadings

Local Market Environment:	CI
- relatively strong competitors	0.58
- high number of products	0.83
- high product variety	0.84
- many competitors	0.80
- strict regulations on COO label	0.61
Explained Variance (%):	55.9
Cronbach’s α :	0.80

6.3.1.2.2. Consumer Attitudes

As described in Section 6.2.3. of this chapter, to gain an understanding of consumer attitudes in the local market place towards international versus local brands, questions were drawn from Shimp and Sharma’s (1987) CETSCALE (described in Chapter 2, Section 2.3.4.). However, since this study is drawing upon manager’s perceptions of their local market consumers and consumer attitudes is only one of the potentially multiple antecedent factors influencing the use of place in marketing communications, the 17-item scale was reduced to six items in the survey. This is supported by recent studies extolling the validity of a more parsimonious CETSCALE model of between six to ten items (Lindquist et al. 2001; Sepehr and Kaffashpoor 2012; Pentz, Terblanche, and Boshoff 2013; Tsai, Lee, and Song 2013).

Perceptions of the target customer’s attitudes to foreign products varied across the scale, resulting in mean scores on the ethnocentrism scale at around the mid-point (composite aggregate mean = 2.9), presented previously in Table 6.15. This partly reflects the diversity of country markets in the survey, and also points to the relevancy of the product

country of origin, or associated place, as a moderating factor (discussed in more detail later in this chapter).

The six CETSCALE items generated two components, as summarized in Table 6.29, with high factor loadings above 0.66 in the first component to explain 43% of the variance. Overall, the respondents do not perceive their consumers to be ethnocentric. The two items relating to foreign goods (consumers buy foreign products and rate them favourably) rather than local brands crossloaded higher on the second component and so were retained for analysis.

Table 6.29: Consumer Attitudes to International Brands – Factor Loadings

Items	CET	GEO
- tends to prefer domestic products	0.75	
- thinks buying foreign products hurts local business	0.66	
- thinks there should be tighter import restrictions	0.73	
- believes in importing only goods unavailable locally	0.70	
- normally buys a lot of foreign products		0.68
- rates foreign products favourably		0.74
Explained Variance (%):	43.2	26.6
Cumulative Variance (%):		69.8
Cronbach's α :	0.76	0.79

Legend: CET = ethnocentric (prefers local goods);
GEO = global (open to foreign goods)

6.3.1.3. Manager's Perceptions of the Characteristics of the Product/Brand

The local market environment has been emphasized as a key determinant in strategic marketing communications' decisions. This section assesses measures of the product brand's positioning in the local market – in terms of brand strength and the relevancy of the associated place.

6.3.1.3.1. Brand Strength

The literature indicates that the product lifecycle stage and level of brand awareness can play a role in determining marketing communication elements (Lee and Carter 2005; Matthes, Schemer, and Wirth 2007), positing that the greater the brand's maturity in the market, i.e., well-known positioning, the less necessity for additional cues to evoke the brand image (Hong and Wyer 1990; Hsieh, Pan, and Setiono 2004). This was endorsed by the marketing practitioner community during the Phase 2 interviews, who commented that the product brand's maturity and reputation potentially reduces the necessity to furnish the message communication with place associations, as this is "already known".

To evaluate these assumptions quantitatively, four questions were posed in the survey to assess the brand strength pertaining to its maturity in the market (or is a relatively new arrival) and reputation/market leadership position. Table 6.30 illustrates that the majority of brands in the quantitative survey of this study are already well-established in their local markets, with a strong reputation and leadership position.

Table 6.30: Brand Strength – Factor Items

My brand:	Mean	SD	Variance
- has a strong reputation	4.2	0.9	0.9
- is well-established in the local market	4.1	1.0	1.0
- is considered a market leader	3.9	1.1	1.2
- is not new to the local market	3.9	1.3	1.6

Table 6.31 shows that the four items generated a composite construct of brand strength (in the local market), posting a high reliability ($\alpha = 0.84$) and high factor loadings between 0.73 and 0.90, explaining 68% of the variance.

Table 6.31: Brand Strength (BStr) – Factor Loadings

My brand:	BStr
- has a strong reputation	0.90
- is well-established in the local market	0.86
- is considered a market leader	0.81
- is not new to the local market	0.73
Explained Variance (%):	68.2
Cronbach's α :	0.84

6.3.1.3.2. Place-based Sector Reputation

One of the key caveats identified by the Phase 2 interviewees to ensuring the effectiveness of the use of place was the relevancy of the associated place to the brand's industry sector. Studies have also reflected on the power generated by associating a place with a brand to reinforce shared core values (Han 1989; Al-Sulaiti and Baker 1998; Zeugner-Roth, Diamantopoulos, and Montesinos 2008). The subsequent benefits to the brand image are grounded on the premise that those values are understood by the consumer (Roth and Romeo 1992; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004) and that the selected place does not serve to confuse or have negative connotations in the minds of the target customer (Hong and Wyer 1989; Chao 2001; Magnusson et al. 2014).

To contextualize the relevancy of the associated place, a series of questions sought to uncover the appropriateness of applying place associations (PA) in the firm's marketing communications, with respect to its perceived importance in the sector, potential impact on sales and competitor's use of country of origin (COO) executions in the sector. Table 6.32 reveals that, overall, the sectors represented in the survey were not perceived to have a strong country association that would contribute to the brand sales.

Table 6.32: Place-based Sector Reputation – Factor Items

Items	Mean	SD	Variance
- Use of PA is relevant in our sector	3.5	1.3	1.8
- Use of COO in brand has no impact on sales	3.3	1.3	1.7
- Use of PA is quite common among competitors	2.9	1.3	1.7
- Our competitors tend to emphasize their COO	2.8	1.4	1.8
- Our industry sector is associated with a country	2.8	1.5	2.1

Legend: PA = Place Association; COO = Country of Origin

However, there was a notable variation in the individual responses and the use of place associations is considered relevant to some sectors (mean = 3.5). The place cue used could refer to the localization of the company’s operations rather than the country of origin of the brand, as was highlighted in both the Phase 1 and Phase 2 stages of the study, hence, this factor warrants further exploration as to the extent of its relationship to the decision to use place cues.

In the survey analysis, the respondents’ location countries were coded according to the level of perceived product country image (PCI) measured in previous studies (e.g., Papadopoulos et al 2000; Laroche et al 2005), as a gauge to the potential influencing power of the local country’s reputation on consumer purchase decision-making. Since nearly half of the respondents are based in their home country and working for a local company (as discussed previously in this chapter), the country’s reputation may affect the use of place associations in those cases, regardless of the individual respondent’s general attitude.

Interestingly, although respondents from the U.S., Italy, and France are included in the survey, only one quarter of the countries represented (N = 51) are perceived to have a strong association with specific product attributes (e.g., German engineering, Italian style, French fashion and beauty). The majority of respondents (62%) are located in countries

considered to have a weak image in relation to supporting product brands, such as Canada and Poland, shown in Table 6.33.

Table 6.33: Respondent Location by Region – Level of PCI

Country Region	Respondent Location		Strong Reputation		Med./Weak Reputation	
		%		%		%
NA-CA	60	29.7			60	39.7
NA-US**	16	7.9	16	31.4		
Eur-EU	76	37.6	30	58.8	46	30.5
Eur-Other*	33	16.3	4	7.8	29	19.2
Asia-ME	10	5.0	1	2.0	9	6.0
Asia	6	3.0			6	4.0
Africa	1	0.5			1	0.8
Total	202	100	51	100	151	100

The relatively weak reputation of the respondent's location country suggests that the place association of the parent company/brand may play a greater role in the decision to use place cues in marketing communications (Cavusgil, Zou and Naidu 1993). While the perceived country images (PCI) of some of the respondents' locations may be relatively weak, 52% (N = 105) of the parent companies originate from countries with strong product-related reputations, summarized in Table 6.34.

Table 6.34: Parent Company Home Country Reputation as a Producer

CHQ Country Reputation	N	%
Strong	105	52.0
Medium	24	11.9
Low	73	36.1
Total	202	100

To measure this, the composite factor presented in Table 6.35 was derived from five items pertaining to the perceived relevance of place associations for the respondent's brand. The items posted a high reliability ($\alpha = 0.84$) and factor loadings between 0.64 and 0.81, explaining 55% of the variance. While a relationship may be inferred between the use of place associations and this construct, the nature of this preliminary study does not differentiate the specifics of the association, e.g., a localized operation, manufacturing location or brand heritage connection.

Table 6.35: Place-based Sector Reputation (PSR) – Factor Loadings

In my opinion:	PSR
Use of PA is relevant in our sector	0.77
Use of COO in brand has no impact on sales	0.64
Use of PA is quite common among competitors	0.81
Our competitors tend to emphasize their COO	0.73
Our industry sector is associated with a country	0.74
Explained Variance (%):	54.6
Cronbach's α :	0.84

Legend: PA = Place Associations; COO = Country of Origin

3.1.4. Managers' Attitudes to the Use of Place in Marketing Communications

As discussed in the literature review (Chapter 2) and reinforced by the interviewees in Phase 2 of this study, the strength of product-country images is usually derived from specific industry sectors. Therefore, the associated strong country image of the parent company may not be appropriate for use by the survey respondents whose industry sector is not a beneficiary of the specificities of the positive reputation traits.

The level of usage findings presented in the previous section of this chapter, indicated that managers' attitudes towards the use of place are positive, although specific

criteria were identified that determine when it is appropriate to incorporate a place association in the marketing communications strategy and, implicitly, when it does not add value to the image-building process. Two sets of questions determined the respondents' general attitudes toward the use of place associations and usage in relation to their specific brands.

6.3.1.4.1. General Attitudes to the Use of Place

In terms of general usage, respondents overwhelmingly agreed that place associations are appropriate for certain, though of course not all, types of products. There was also a consensus that place cues should be used under specific conditions, such as when the place association is relevant (in terms of shared values), resonates meaningfully with the consumer, and offers a competitive advantage. Table 6.36 reveals the high mean scores across each of the items on the five-point Likert-type scale used (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree). As the below table shows, the survey results provide quantitative support of the key criteria identified by the Phase 2 interview participants.

Table 6.36: General Attitudes toward the Use of Place Associations

Use of Place Associations (in general):	Mean	SD	Variance
- when place reputation close to brand values	4.4	0.8	0.6
- appropriate for certain types of products	4.4	0.9	0.8
- when PA offers competitive advantage	4.4	0.8	0.7
- when place reputation is well understood	4.4	0.7	0.4
- when it relates brand to consumer likes/dislikes	4.2	0.9	0.7
- offers additional information on product quality	4.2	0.9	0.8
- when place symbols are recognized	4.2	0.8	0.6
- enhances value of brand	4.2	0.9	0.9
- offers competitive advantage	3.8	0.9	0.9

Following the procedure outlined above, PCA generated one component from nine of the 13 items in the questionnaire to explain 46% of the variance. The Cronbach's alpha of 0.84 exceeds the 0.7 reliability threshold for the construct of managers' General Attitudes to Place (GAP) detailed in Table 6.37, which incorporates the positive values attributed to the use of place under the appropriate conditions.

Table 6.37: General Attitudes to Place (GAP) – Factor Loadings

Items:	GAP
- appropriate for certain types of products	0.71
- offers competitive advantage	0.73
- enhances value of brand	0.82
- offers additional information on product quality	0.73
- when place reputation is close to brand values	0.65
- when place reputation is well understood	0.65
- when place symbols recognized	0.54
- when PA offers competitive advantage	0.58
Explained Variance (%):	44.2
Cronbach's α :	0.84

6.3.1.4.2. Brand-Related Attitudes to the Use of Place

Development and maintenance of the brand image is deemed a priority area of focus in the firm's marketing communications strategy (mean = 4.1). The majority of respondents consider the use of place associations to be an important component of the brand strategy (mean = 3.1), albeit depending on the relevancy of the heuristic to the brand (discussed later in this section).

With regard to their specific brands, respondents largely agreed that place associations can serve as an effective marketing tool to support brand image building (mean = 4.0), as well as other elements of the positioning and marketing mix strategy (mean = 3.6

for each item), outlined in the following Table 6.38. Additionally, the use of place is considered a useful differentiation tool to reinforce brand equity (through, for instance, increasing brand loyalty, mean = 3.6, or motivating brand switching, mean = 3.6) and help achieve market share objectives (mean = 3.5), as reflected in the mean scores below.

Table 6.38: Brand-Related Attitudes toward the Use of Place Associations

Use of Place Associations (ref. my brand):-	Mean	SD	Variance
- for enhancing brand image	4.0	1.2	1.3
- for providing competitive advantage	3.7	1.2	1.4
- is effective/necessary	3.6	1.2	1.7
- for increasing brand loyalty	3.6	1.2	1.5
- to support the execution	3.6	1.1	1.2
- enhances brand positioning	3.6	1.2	1.3
- for motivating brand switching	3.6	1.2	1.4
- to support the appeal	3.6	1.2	1.3
- for increasing market share	3.5	1.2	1.4
- means of differentiation	3.5	1.2	1.6
- depends on consumer place image	3.5	1.2	1.4
- is a powerful tool	3.4	1.3	1.6

This supports the previous proposition that the relevancy of the place brand reputation is a pivotal element in the decision to incorporate place associations in the product brand marketing communications, notwithstanding the other identified criteria that may moderate the decision.

Eleven items loaded highly onto the composite variable, significantly surpassing the reliability threshold with a Cronbach's alpha score of 0.95 and explaining 66.6% of the variance, as shown in Table 6.39. The new construct 'Brand-Related Attitudes to Place' (BAP) incorporates the items that render the use of place associations a powerful and integral tool in the brand communications strategy.

Table 6.39: Brand-Related Attitudes to Place (BAP) – Factor Loadings

Items:	BAP
- for increasing brand loyalty	0.85
- for enhancing brand image	0.87
- for motivating brand switching	0.84
- for increasing market share	0.82
- for providing competitive advantage	0.86
- to support the appeal	0.82
- to support the execution	0.82
- is a powerful tool	0.86
- enhances brand positioning	0.81
- is effective/necessary	0.70
- means of differentiation	0.71
Explained Variance (%):	66.6
Cronbach's α :	0.95

6.3.2. Tests of Associations and Regressions

To assess the discussed relationships between both the Phase 2 identified factors and the constructs drawn from the Phase 3 survey on the use of place associations, analyses of variance and stepwise regressions were conducted, as recommended for the preliminary and exploratory nature of this study (Hulland, Chow, and Lam 1996) to evaluate the research hypotheses described above (and outlined in Chapter 3, Section 4).

The findings discussed in the following sections focus, firstly, on the correlations between the factors and usage of place cues; and secondly on the relationships between the key antecedent factors and the different levels of usage in marketing communications.

6.3.2.1. Respondent Demographic Antecedent Factors

The review of the respondent characteristics in the first section of this chapter revealed a breadth of international experience, as defined by the number of countries worked in and number of foreign languages spoken (shown previously in Tables 6.5 and 6.6). Some

respondents have also worked in more than one location for the parent company (illustrated in Table 6.4).

The respondent demographic indicators were tested against each item in the Market Strategic Orientation (MSO) construct to verify whether the number of countries worked in and number of languages spoken is significantly correlated with the company's strategic orientation. As demonstrated in Table 6.40, the correlations were not significant in all instances except one, where a statistically significant relationship was observed between the number of countries that a respondent has worked in and the company's tendency towards a geocentric approach. This supports the proposition in the literature that managers with international experience are most likely employed in global-oriented companies, although this is not strongly correlated with foreign language competency. However, given the international profile of the companies and respondents described in Section 6.2 of this chapter, Table 6.40 indicates that the manager's international expertise is not correlated with the company's market orientation capabilities.

Table 6.40: Demographic/Strategic Orientation Characteristics -Pearson's Correlation Matrix

My Company:	Respondent	
	# of Countries	Speaks Foreign Languages
- delivers customer needs	0.02	0.07
- invests in brand image	-0.04	-0.01
- has expertise in product positioning	-0.02	-0.04
- always responds quickly	-0.03	-0.01
- adapts existing products	-0.15	0.09
- is a leader in industry for new markets	0.06	0.01
- is geocentric	-0.21*	-0.11

*Pearson's Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

As revealed earlier in Table 6.22, just over half of the respondents (N = 105) perceive that their organization adopts more of a geocentric than a polycentric strategic approach. Further analysis of the respondent demographic indicators indicates that there is a significant relationship ($p < 0.01$) between the number of countries that the manager has worked in and the company's perceived geocentric orientation.

These findings respond to the research hypotheses presented earlier in this chapter. Table 6.41 partially supports H1 and confirms that the manager's international experience correlates with a geocentric-oriented organization. The number of foreign languages spoken was removed from the model as the relationship is not significant ($p > 0.05$). Additionally, no significant relationship was found when examining whether the respondent was native to the location or the company headquarters, or an expatriate.

Table 6.41: Demographic/Strategic Orientation Characteristics - ANOVA

Model^a	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	18.77	1	18.77	9.11	.003 ^b
Residual	412.32	200	2.06		
Total	431.09	201			

Legend:

a Dependent Variable: Company = Geocentric

b Predictors: (Constant), Number of countries respondent worked in

The second hypothesis posited that the combination of the internationally-focused manager and the firm's geocentric strategic orientation would contribute to positive attitudes on the value of using place associations in marketing communications. While the respondents generally acknowledged the value of using place associations, in terms of accentuating the brand image and offering a competitive advantage for certain types of

products, this is not significantly correlated with the geocentric orientation of the company, as shown in Table 6.42. However, a significant relationship is noted in cases where the company has a strong national identity.

Table 6.42: Attitudes towards Use of Place Associations – Pearson’s Correlation Matrix

Pearson Correlation	Geo-centric	Nat'l ID	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. for certain types of products	0.02	0.02												
2. offers competitive advantage	0.06	0.21*	0.48*											
3. enhances value of brand	0.09	0.17	0.56*	0.71*										
4. offers additional info on prod. quality	0.13	0.09	0.51*	0.68*	0.72*									
5. for increasing brand loyalty	0.18	0.17	0.28*	0.56*	0.47*	0.40*								
6. for enhancing brand image	0.13	0.16	0.21*	0.46*	0.44*	0.37*	0.80*							
7. for motivating brand switching	0.13	0.16	0.20*	0.45*	0.35*	0.40*	0.72*	0.72*						
8. for increasing market share	0.15	0.11	0.13	0.44*	0.30*	0.27*	0.73*	0.69*	0.82*					
9. for providing competitive advantage	0.18	0.15	0.26*	0.49*	0.43*	0.39*	0.71*	0.75*	0.72*	0.74*				
10. is an effective tool	0.16	0.12	0.24*	0.46*	0.49*	0.42*	0.56*	0.57*	0.46*	0.42*	0.56*			
11. is a powerful tool	0.14	0.24*	0.18	0.50*	0.44*	0.35*	0.70*	0.70*	0.64*	0.62*	0.71*	0.67*		
12. enhances brand positioning	0.08	0.28*	0.13	0.43*	0.38*	0.33*	0.62*	0.68*	0.57*	0.52*	0.60*	0.62*	0.84*	
13. means of differentiation	0.01	0.22*	0.15	0.46*	0.35*	0.36*	0.58*	0.59*	0.53*	0.47*	0.50*	0.48*	0.63*	0.71*

Legend: * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

This is reaffirmed by assessing the relationship between the company’s strategic orientation (geocentric or polycentric) and whether it has a strong national identity, on the use of place associations in marketing communications. Almost 60% of respondents (N = 116) believe that their company “sees itself as having a national identity, associated with its origin and headquarters”. Specifically, the above regression analysis indicates a significant relationship ($p < 0.01$) between the strength of a company’s national identity and the use of place associations as an effective and powerful tool that provides a means of differentiation, and subsequently, offers a competitive advantage.

Table 6.43 illustrates that the relationship between a geocentric or a polycentric orientation and the use of place associations (PA) is not significant. However, when companies are perceived to have a strong national identity, there exists a significant correlation with the number of types of place association used (according to none, light, or heavy usage presented in Table 6.18), as well as how they are used (in terms of strength, frequency, prominence, and as a strategic component).

Table 6.43: General Strategic Orientation - Pearson's Correlation Matrix

General Strategic Orientation:	Number of types of PA	<u>Use of PA in MarComs</u>			
		strong	frequent	prominent	strategic component
- Geocentric	0.08	0.11	0.12	0.14	0.01
- Polycentric	0.02	-0.01	-0.09	-0.10	-0.05
- National Identity	0.21 *	0.30 *	0.34 *	0.39 *	0.31 *

Legend: * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

As previously described in Section 6.2.4, there is a strong consensus on the value of place associations as a brand-building component of marketing communications, when used in the appropriate circumstances. H3 posited that the more positive the manager's attitudes toward the use of place associations, the more likely place cues are used in the communications strategy. Respondents indicated that they focus primarily on the product quality (mean = 4.4) and features (mean = 4.2), as well as the brand image (mean = 4.1) in their marketing communications. However, just over half indicated a focus on place associations (mean = 3.1) – which is aligned with the previously observed strength of the parent company's home country reputation (vs. the location country) and the respondents' claims of a strong national identity associated with their brands.

The positive values itemized in Table 6.42 correlate strongly when the use of place associations constitutes a key focal area of the marketing communications strategy: most notably with regard to its potential as a powerful tool and to enhance brand positioning, as summarized in the ANOVA Table 6.44.

Table 6.44: Strategic Use of Place Associations (PA) in Marketing Communications - ANOVA

Model^a	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	123.266	1	123.266	103.58	.000 ^b
Residual	223.729	188	1.19		
Total	346.995	189			
2 Regression	127.987	2	63.993	54.64	.000 ^c
Residual	219.008	187	1.171		
Total	346.995	189			

a Dependent Variable: MarComs - focus more on place associations

b Predictors: (Constant), Use of PA is a powerful tool

c Predictors: (Constant), Use of PA is a powerful tool, Use of PA enhances brand positioning

Moreover, in examining when place associations may be used within the communications strategy, it was found that the application of place associations is more likely used as a tool to support the advertising execution, when the associated place symbols are recognized, and to support the appeal, as shown in Table 6.45.

Table 6.45: Focal Use of Place Association in Marketing Communications Strategy - ANOVA

Model ^a		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	82.868	1	82.868	59.16	.000 ^b
	Residual	254.936	182	1.401		
	Total	337.804	183			
2	Regression	98.241	2	49.12	37.11	.000 ^c
	Residual	239.563	181	1.324		
	Total	337.804	183			
3	Regression	106.749	3	35.583	27.72	.000 ^d
	Residual	231.055	180	1.284		
	Total	337.804	183			

a Dependent Variable: MarComs - focus more on place associations

b Predictors: (Constant), Use of PA - to support the execution

c Predictors: (Constant), Use of PA - to support the execution, - when place symbols recognized

d Predictors: (Constant), Use of PA - to support the execution, - when place symbols recognized, - to support the appeal

6.3.2.2. Company/Market Antecedent Factors

As discussed in Chapter 5, the Phase 2 in-depth interviews identified eight antecedent factors relating to the use of place associations in marketing communications.

The individual factors also resonated with the survey respondents (mean = 3.2-4.0 across all items on the five-point scale). The Pearson's Correlation Matrix presented in Table 6.46 indicates the significant relationship between each of the factors, particularly highlighting the importance of the consumer perceptions of the associated place and the relevancy of its reputation to the industry sector.

It is also observed that consumer attitudes towards foreign versus local brands are significantly related to the relationship between the host country and the brand's country of origin, which in turn is related to consumer perceptions of the place.

Table 6.46: Factors identified in Phase 2 - Pearson's Correlation Matrix

Pearson Correlations*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. brand positioning							
2. consumer perceptions of place	0.55						
3. relationship between host and COO	0.46	0.55					
4. COO reputation is relevant to industry	0.47	0.67	0.53				
5. local consumer research	0.37	0.53	0.38	0.49			
6. extent of competitor use of COO	0.30	0.54	0.40	0.57	0.51		
7. consumer attitudes to foreign v. local brands	0.33	0.56	0.61	0.47	0.44	0.33	
8. government promotion of place	0.27	0.36	0.55	0.53	0.22	0.40	0.35

Legend:

Bold: Correlations > 0.5

Bold and Underlined: Correlations > 0.6

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed) for all factors

The individual factors correlated significantly with the usage and number of types of place associations (presented in Figure 6.3), as illustrated in Table 6.47. In addition, the Phase 2 factors were tested against the use of place associations in marketing communications, in terms of strength of use, frequency, prominence, and whether its use constitutes a strategic component.

Table 6.47: Phase 2 Factors and Use of Place - Pearson's Correlation Matrix

Phase 2 Antecedent Factors:	Place Cues Usage	# of PA types	Use of PA in MarComs			
			strong	frequent	prominent	strategic component
- consumer perceptions of place	0.49*	0.54*	0.45*	0.48*	0.36*	0.44*
- brand positioning	0.39*	0.51*	0.47*	0.49*	0.38*	0.46*
- COO reputation is relevant to	0.32*	0.44*	0.38*	0.40*	0.34*	0.40*
- relationship between host and	0.41*	0.43*	0.35*	0.34*	0.33*	0.37*
- local consumer research	0.30*	0.38*	0.24*	0.25*	0.26*	0.27*
- extent of competitor use of COO	0.36*	0.36*	0.27*	0.24*	0.28*	0.23*
- consumer attitudes to foreign v. local brands	0.28*	0.29*	0.20	0.19	0.12	0.20
- government promotion of place	0.18	0.24*	0.27*	0.22	0.27*	0.24*

Legend: * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

While all factors display a significant relationship with the use of place in marketing communications, a regression analysis was conducted to identify the key elements pertaining to the decision to use place associations in marketing communications. The regression analysis indicates that consumer perceptions of place ($\beta = 0.54$, $p < 0.01$) and the brand's positioning ($\beta = 0.51$, $p < 0.01$) are key factors in determining the number of types of place association used ($\beta = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$), as well as the extent of its usage according to the four dimensions outlined in Table 6.47, especially frequency ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$). The relevancy of the country of origin's reputation to the industry sector is entwined with its usage and a significant relationship is also noted between this factor and its application as a strategic component of marketing communications ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$).

To verify these initial findings, regression analysis was conducted on the composite factors described in Section 6.3.1. of this chapter, which complement the above factors drawn from Phase 2 of the study. Table 6.48 underscores the importance of the manager's attitudes toward the use of place associations (especially in relation to its value for the brand). In response to H4, the below table also highlights a significant relationship between the use of place in marketing communications and the relevancy of the place-based reputation to the industry sector (PSR).

The results in Table 6.48 suggest that Competitive Intensity (CI) is not correlated with the use of place associations. However, there is a relationship between CI and PSR which partially supports the proposition in H5 that high competitive intensity increases the propensity to use place in marketing communications, when the place brand values are relevant to the product sector.

Table 6.48: Composite Factors - Pearson's Correlation Matrix

Pearson Correlations		Use of PA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Place-based Sector Reputation	0.41*								
2 Brand-related Attitudes to use of PA	0.37*	0.65*							
3 General Attitudes to use of PA	0.22*	0.40*	0.39*						
4 Brand Strength	-0.04	-0.05	0.12	-0.03					
5 Attitudes to Market Research	0.20	0.15	0.15	0.19	0.27*				
6 Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.11	0.16	0.14	0.03	-0.08	-0.09			
7 Market Strategic Orientation	0.06	0.02	0.14	0.16	0.28*	0.67*	0.68*		
8 Competitive Intensity	0.12	0.26*	0.17	0.32*	0.03	0.45*	0.41*	-0.16	

Legend: * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

Overall, respondents indicated that their markets are competitive and a high relationship was noted between CI and Consumer Ethnocentrism (CET). However, the relationship between CET and the use of place associations is not significant. Therefore, H6 and H7 are not supported in that perceived levels of CET are not observed to be key factors regarding the use of place.

Empirical studies have posited that the greater the brand's maturity in the market, the lower the need to use additional cues to reinforce the brand image (Hong and Wyer 1990; Hsieh, Pan, and Setiono 2004), which was summarized in H8. The Phase 2 interviewees did not consider this to be a key factor in the decision to use place cues, arguing that brands continue to reinforce the attributes that have served them well. The Phase 3 respondents reinforce this view and indicate that the relationship between Brand Strength and the use of place associations is not significant. Therefore, H8 is not supported.

To further validate the above results and assess the remaining two hypotheses relating to the deployment of place cues, the eight factors were regressed on the number of

and types of usage in marketing communications. The results are presented in Table 6.49 – the Pearson’s correlation to Use of Place Cues is repeated from Table 6.48 for reference.

Table 6.49 highlights the importance of the manager’s general attitudes toward the use of place associations, and especially when usage relates positively to the brand (e.g., enhances brand positioning, its image, and offers a competitive advantage as a means of differentiation). The place-based reputation of the industry sector is also highly correlated to the usage dimensions, reaffirming the findings pertaining to the Phase 2 in-depth interview factors.

The findings also support H9 and H10, in that when the associated place brand reputation is relevant to the brand to support the brand image, the use of place is integrated in the product brand strategy and multiple cues are used to communicate the desired image.

Table 6.49: Composite Factors and the Use of Place – Pearson’s Correlation Matrix

Composite Factors:	Use of Place Cues	# of PA types	Use of PA in MarComs			
			strong	frequent	prominent	strategic component
- Brand-related Attitudes to Place	0.37*	0.61*	0.73*	0.73*	0.65*	0.68*
- General Attitudes to Place	0.22*	0.32*	0.34*	0.37*	0.36*	0.35*
- Place-based Sector Reputation	0.41*	0.57*	0.64*	0.66*	0.61*	0.62*
- Market Strategic Orientation	0.06	0.14	0.12	0.09	0.08	0.13
- Attitudes to Market Research	0.20	0.16	0.12	0.09	0.11	0.12
- Competitive Intensity	0.12	0.14	0.10	0.15	0.15	0.11
- Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.11	0.08	0.17	0.12	0.19	0.17
- Brand Strength	-0.04	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.05

Legend: * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

The remainder of this analysis will focus on the relationship between the brand image and the place brand image, since these factors correlate highly with the level of use of place associations.

The regression analysis indicates that the manager’s general attitudes toward the use of place associations are factors in the frequency of use ($\beta = 0.37$, $p < 0.01$). However, as indicated in the ANOVA Table 6.50, manager’s attitudes toward usage in relation to the brand play a significant role in the strength of use ($\beta = 0.73$, $p < 0.01$), frequency ($\beta = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$), and in determining the number of types of place cues used ($\beta = 0.25$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 6.50: Composite Factor – Brand-Related Attitudes to Place Associations (ANOVA)

Model^a	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	97.50	1	97.50	205.37	0.00 ^b
Residual	84.03	177	0.47		
Total	181.53	178			
2 Regression	104.23	2	52.11	118.65	0.00 ^c
Residual	77.30	176	0.44		
Total	181.53	178			
3 Regression	106.13	3	35.38	82.11	0.00 ^d
Residual	75.40	175	0.43		
Total	181.53	178			

a Dependent Variable: Brand-related attitudes to PA

b Predictors: (Constant), Use of PA in MarComs – strong

c Predictors: (Constant), Use of PA in MarComs - strong, - # of types used

d Predictors: (Constant), Use of PA in MarComs - strong, - frequent, - # of types used

As noted previously, the relevancy of the country of origin’s reputation to the industry sector is a key factor in the decision to use place cues. Table 6.51 demonstrates that the relationship is significant especially in relation to the frequency ($\beta = 0.66$, $p < 0.01$) and number of types of place cues used ($\beta = 0.25$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 6.51: Composite Factor – Place-based Sector Reputation (ANOVA)

Model ^a		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	83.55	1	83.55	145.11	0.00 ^b
	Residual	110.55	192	0.57		
	Total	194.10	193			
2	Regression	90.22	2	45.11	82.94	0.00 ^c
	Residual	103.88	191	0.54		
	Total	194.10	193			

a Dependent Variable: Place-based Sector Reputation

b Predictors: (Constant), Use of PA in MarComs - frequent

c Predictors: (Constant), Use of PA in MarComs - frequent, - # of types used

To capture further insights into the strategic implementation of the use of place associations in marketing communications, further analysis explored the correlation between the antecedent factors and the strategic use of place associations at the brand and company level, as discussed in the previous section of this chapter (mean scores presented in Table 6.19).

Table 6.52 below shows that there is a relationship at the brand level between the strategic use of place cues in marketing communications, including positioning, and the manager's attitudes towards the use of place associations (> 0.33), especially in relation to their perceived value to the brand (> 0.63). The relevancy of the place reputation to the sector is also indicated to be a significant factor (> 0.53). Furthermore, the correlations are significant at the company level across the five strategic indicators.

Table 6.52: Antecedent Factors for Strategic Use of PA – Pearson’s Correlation Matrix

Use of PA in MarComs:	Brand-related Attitudes	General Attitudes	Place-based Sector Reputation
<u>Brand:</u>			
- marketing strategy	0.67 *	0.44 *	0.60 *
- positioning strategy	0.63 *	0.36 *	0.53 *
- advertising strategy	0.63 *	0.42 *	0.59 *
- appeal strategy	0.65 *	0.39 *	0.57 *
- execution strategy	0.65 *	0.33 *	0.54 *
<u>Company:</u>			
- marketing strategy	0.57 *	0.47 *	0.58 *
- positioning strategy	0.56 *	0.43 *	0.50 *
- advertising strategy	0.57 *	0.43 *	0.56 *
- appeal strategy	0.55 *	0.41 *	0.50 *
- execution strategy	0.57 *	0.34 *	0.51 *

Legend: * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

The three primary antecedent factors are significantly correlated with the use of place cues within the executional elements of advertisements, at both the brand and company level as illustrated in Table 6.53. Interestingly, at the company level, the relevancy of the place reputation to the industry sector plays a keener role than Brand-Related or General Attitudes.

Similar results were derived from running the same tests on the eight factors identified in the Phase 2 interviews, although the correlation indicators are not as high as for the composite constructs above. Again, consumer perceptions of the place reputation proved to have a significant relationship with the varying types of strategic use of place associations.

Table 6.53: Antecedent Factors for Application of PA – Pearson’s Correlation Matrix

Use of Place in:	Brand-related Attitudes	General Attitudes	Place-based sector rep.
<u>Brand:</u>			
- headlines	0.62 *	0.34 *	0.59 *
- copy	0.63 *	0.44 *	0.60 *
- art	0.59 *	0.44 *	0.59 *
- slogans	0.59 *	0.31 *	0.56 *
- fine print	0.50 *	0.35 *	0.48 *
<u>Company:</u>			
- headlines	0.46 *	0.30*	0.54 *
- copy	0.51 *	0.44 *	0.54 *
- art	0.51 *	0.47 *	0.54 *
- slogans	0.47 *	0.30 *	0.53 *
- fine print	0.38 *	0.31 *	0.43 *

Legend: * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

The results of all ten research hypotheses described above is summarized in Table 6.54 below, followed by a summary of the key outcomes from the Phase 3 survey. The implications of the findings of this first exploratory study encompassing the managerial perspective on the use of place associations in marketing communications are discussed in the final Chapter 7.

Table 6.54: Summary of Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses		Result
H1	The greater the manager's international professional experience and multilingual capabilities, the more likely the company adopts a geocentric strategic orientation.	partially supported
H2	The manager's international experience, coupled with the company's geocentric strategic orientation, contributes towards the manager's positive attitudes towards the use of place associations.	partially supported
H3	The more positive the manager's attitudes towards the use of place associations, the more likely place cues are used in his/her company's marketing communications.	supported
H4	The use of place cues in marketing communications to support the brand image is related to the relevancy of the place brand image to the industry sector of the brand.	supported
H5	The greater the perceived level of competitive intensity, the greater the propensity to use place cues in marketing communications when the place brand values are relevant to the product brand values.	partially supported
H6	The greater the manager's perceived level of ethnocentrism among his/her consumers, the lower the propensity to use place cues in marketing communications.	not supported
H7	The higher the relationship between the place brand image and the product brand industry sector, the more the relevancy of the perceived level of consumer ethnocentrism diminishes	not supported
H8	The greater the brand's strength in the market, the lower the propensity to use place cues in marketing communications..	not supported
H9	When the place association is relevant to the product brand and its symbols well-known, place cues are integrated in the marketing communications strategy.	supported
H10	When place associations are used to support the product brand image, multiple types of cues are used	supported

6.4. Summary of Key Findings

The findings from the survey indicate that place brands have a substantive role to play in supporting the development and maintenance of product brand images, as well as identify some of the key factors that influence managers' decision-making strategies with regard to the utilization of place associations in brand communications.

Following on from the Phase 2 in-depth interview discussions, the 202 survey respondents reinforced the viewpoint that place associations can serve as a valuable heuristic in the development and maintenance of the product brand image, under the appropriate conditions. In general, marketing practitioners support the notion that the use of a place association can be an effective tool for enhancing the brand value by providing additional information on product quality, and can offer a competitive advantage as a means of differentiation.

This is, however, dependent on the relevancy of the place reputation to the product industry sector. It also requires that reputation to be well understood by the target audience and the associated place symbols to be recognizable and connected to the brand's core values. When those prerequisites are met, marketing practitioners integrate various types of place cues in advertising executions to support various brand marketing objectives (such as, to increase market share, enhance positioning, motivate brand switching).

This element is also supported by the predominance of a perceived strong national identity among the companies represented in the survey and the observation that the parent company home countries generally enjoy a positive PCI. Arguably, the scope of this survey encompassed internationally-oriented practitioners and so the international strategic

orientation of the firm is a less critical influencing factor in strategic decision-making in this area.

While factors such as the level of competitive intensity and competitor use of place associations, as well as consumer attitudes toward foreign versus local brands, have been found to be influential factors in the decision-making process in other areas of strategic management, significant relationships between these factors and the use of place cues in marketing communications were not found in this study. Similarly, acknowledgement by marketing practitioners of the potential power of government-supported promotion of place brands was also noted during the second phase of this study, however, this was not revealed to be an influencing factor among the survey respondents, which alludes to the note of caution expressed by the Phase 2 interviewees.

The Phase 3 survey quantitatively supported the key findings of the Phase 2 in-depth interviews, and indicates that the use of place brand images in association with the product brand remains a useful component in the marketing communications toolbox. From a methodology perspective, this study also supports the grounded theory approach as a means to direct the investigation in untapped areas: the inductive approach in Phase 2 was instrumental in constructing the Phase 3 questionnaire by directing the content of the questions, and ensuring that the terminology was appropriate to the practitioner respondents (i.e., the construct of 'place' was understood) to facilitate completion.

By combining the Phase 2 findings with other studies on cogent issues, the Phase 3 survey facilitated the development of new constructs on identified antecedent factors pertaining to the use of place associations in brand marketing communications. Thus, the exploratory nature of this study provides an opening to the key areas of interest that warrant

further investigation on an expanded scale, which is discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

The final Chapter 7 provides a summary of this study's contribution to the field of international marketing research and suggests future research directions to enhance the preliminary findings.

CHAPTER 7. Research Benefits, Limitations and Conclusions

The overall goal of this study was to enrich marketing theory by exploring the role of place brands in international branding and international advertising from the perspective of managers, rather than the consumer perspective that preoccupies much of the current literature in both fields. Specifically, this study examined how the construct of [geographic] place manifests itself in international branding and advertising, identifying some of the antecedent factors that direct the way place associations are utilized by marketing managers.

As the first ever study in the field from a managerial perspective, this exploratory study contributes in a number of ways to international branding and advertising research, for both product and place marketers. This final chapter summarizes the key research benefits including theoretical contributions and managerial implications, takes note of the limitations of this study as a platform for future research streams, and then concludes with a summary of the preliminary findings.

7.1. Research Benefits and Contributions

7.1.1. *Theoretical Contributions*

Chapters 1 and 2 highlighted the wealth of investigation in the fields of international product branding and advertising, focusing on their point of intersection through the lens of place image. Research specifically in place marketing has gathered pace over the past few decades (Papadopoulos 2004; Hankinson 2010), and scholars have noted a growing interest in the construct of place branding that is comparable to that of product branding (Kavaratzis

2005; Zenker and Martin 2011). Each research stream benefits from the advances gained in the other, and the initial findings from this first ever study to bridge the two sectors indicates that this area warrants further investigation. Furthermore, given the lack of theoretical development in the sphere of place image and branding as yet, the striking parallels between the two sectors (derived from Phase 2 of this study in particular) suggest that the application of product branding theories warrants further exploration.

The findings from Phase 2 and Phase 3 indicate that managers consider the use of place associations to be a useful tool in the creation and reinforcement of the brand image. The factors identified as influencers in the decision whether and to what extent to deploy place cues in marketing communications are congruent with Aaker's (1991; 1996) concept of brand equity management. In line with the author's definition, this study indicates that place associations may also be classified as components of the perceptual (brand awareness, perceived quality, associations) and behavioural (brand loyalty) dimensions that forge brand equity, and warrant consideration for inclusion and further investigation within this theoretical framework.

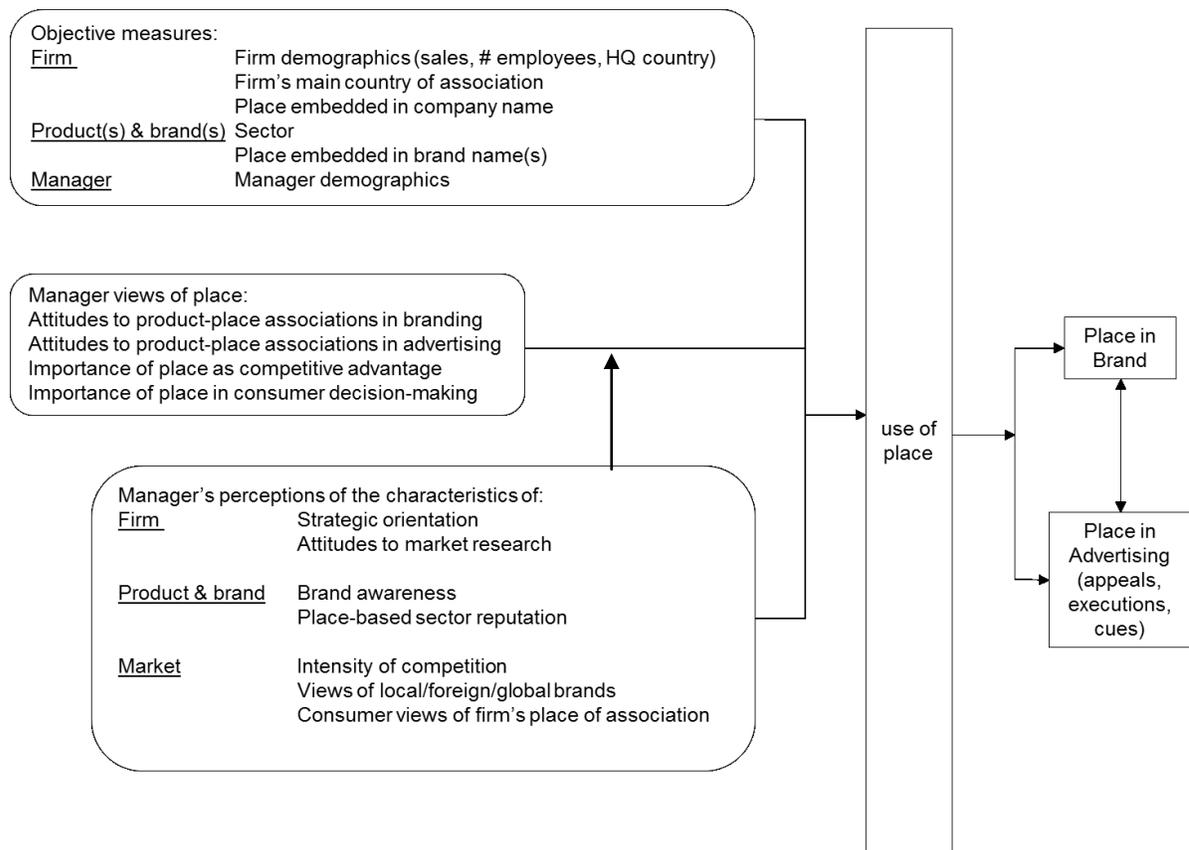
The notions of trust and reliability are inherent to the construct of brand loyalty, which is at the heart of brand management, and therefore the findings of this study demonstrate the role of the place construct in, for example, the creation of a brand image to support brand positioning objectives and the reinforcement of core brand values. The latter point reflects the practitioner concurrence with Means-End-Chain theory (Gutman 1982), which purports that the benefits of a product's attributes are ultimately linked to consumer end values (as defined by Rokeach 1973), and which also resonates with the consumer audience (Rodrigo, Khan and McLeay 2013).

All three phases of this study indicated a strong sensitivity towards the local market environment, whether or not the brand has a global, regional, or local reach. Theory development in the field of international marketing management has identified distinctive approaches that marketers may select, e.g., within the EPRG framework defined by Wind, Douglas and Perlmutter (1973) or the GCCP framework put forth by Alden, Steenkamp and Batra (1999). However, this study suggests a Contingency Theory approach is favoured by practitioners, i.e., the optimal strategy is contingent upon the external environment. This study contributes to the development of a Contingency Theoretical perspective specifically in the field of product and place marketing, by highlighting that the use of place associations is a powerful tool when the associated place is relevant to the industry sector and when those place attributes are understood by the target consumer.

The tentative conceptual model (Figure 3.1) presented in Chapter 3, identifying the key factors to be explored in this study, was derived from a multitude of studies in the areas of product branding discussed above that each lend themselves to consideration as influencers on the decision to use place association cues in marketing communications. A common unifying theme is the building of brand equity to satisfy the ultimate goal of advertising, i.e., sales, deploying tools that are relevant to the local target audience. From the Phase 3 survey findings presented in Chapter 6, the original model may be modified as shown in Figure 7.1. Specifically, the antecedent factors in the section “Manager’s perceptions of the characteristics of:” (on the left side of the model framework) that did *not* correlate significantly with the manager’s use of place associations have been *removed*, i.e., “Level of centralization”, “Level of global mindedness”, “Stage in product lifecycle”, “Market development”, and “Legal factors”.

One of the key findings of the survey is that the effectiveness of the use of place associations, for objectives such as competitive advantage and consumer purchase decision-making, is dependent on the relevancy of the place to the product industry and the resonance of its reputation with the target consumer. Therefore, the revised conceptual model in Figure 7.1 indicates the potential moderating effect of the perceived characteristics of the firm, product and brand, and local market, on the manager’s actual use of place in marketing communications.

Figure 7.1: Revised Conceptual Model



From a methodological perspective, the study offers a contribution to the development of the grounded theory approach as a tool with which to pursue new avenues of research, and subsequently new theory development (Miller and Fredericks 1999; Stern and Poor 2011). Moreover, the adoption of a grounded theory approach to investigate the managerial perspective provides two additional ancillary benefits – it addresses a largely untapped area of study, and it also serves to help reduce the suggested academic-practitioner gap discussed in Chapter 1 (Tapp 2004; Nyilasy and Reid 2007; de Gregorio and Cheng 2009) by engaging practitioners in the research process.

7.1.2. Empirical Contributions

A large volume of empirical research has affirmed the power of country images as contributors towards consumers' product evaluations (e.g., Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999; Kotler and Gertner 2002; Hollis 2008; Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic 2011a), and continuing studies in the field underscore its ongoing validity. However, there is as yet no body of work that has examined the antecedent factors that influence the marketing practitioner's decision to incorporate the relevant images in the brand communication strategies. By means of a multi-method approach, this study reaffirms the relevancy of this research stream in a globalized world, and offers preliminary insights into the perceived added value of place cues from the perspective of users, which is of interest not only to academic researchers in this burgeoning field, but also of significant interest to public policy makers who have a vested interest in the reinforcement of specific place images.

This study uses international advertising as the vehicle with which to explore the connection between place brands and product brands. Despite the widely recognized value

of consumer perceptions of place images in brand marketing, there is a lack of research examining the actual utilization of place associations in brand communications across multiple industry sectors and audiences, especially in the international arena where perceptions may vary. The cross-national comparative content analysis in Phase 1 thereby also contributes to this field of study.

In examining a very large number of print ads from four economically similar countries, the findings revealed that while similarities exist between the UK and the two North American markets, perhaps as a result of a shared Anglo-Saxon cultural heritage, there also exist similarities between the UK and Italy, which may be partly attributable to their shared European cultural heritage as well as their membership in the EU. This contributes to the field of cross-cultural research with regard to the posited evolution of consumer behaviour as a result of cross-cultural exposure (Mueller 1987; Deshpande, Farley, and Webster 1993; Craig and Douglas 2006; Das, Dharwadkar, and Brandes 2008). Moreover, Phase 1 also highlighted the discovery of unexpected traits, such as the high use of the Patriotism appeal in Italy compared to the U.S., adding weight to the call for the use of a broader mix of cultural frameworks in international studies (Craig and Douglas 2006; de Mooij 2013).

Although scholars acknowledge the need to customize the classification scheme of advertising appeals according to the idiosyncrasies of the industry/market(s) under investigation (Albers-Miller and Gelb 1996), many studies have adopted the scheme developed by Pollay (1983) as the basis on which to make minor modifications to suit the individual study. Based on the findings from the first phase of this study, it is proposed that the use of place should also be considered for inclusion in the core classification schemes for

international advertising research. The number of ads using PCI as an execution tool was relatively small within the enormous scale of the database, but in light of the breadth of usage uncovered in the content analysis, and further supported in the practitioner survey, this warrants further attention. In particular, this part of the study highlighted the multitude of ways that place cues may appear in ads, as a complement to the core appeal and execution styles. This was also reinforced in the Phase 3 survey.

An interesting strand in this area relates to the ongoing standardization/adaptation debate, since it was observed in Phase 1 that global brands may adapt their use of place cues according to the local environment, e.g., some foreign brands in Canada accentuate their local operation rather than the associated brand country of origin (BMW Canada, Rolex Canada). This supports Quelch's (2003) proposition that the successful global brands incorporate a degree of local sensitivity in their worldwide brand strategies, and in turn, casts doubt on the notion of the singular global consumer (Levitt 1983; Yunker 2010).

Therefore, the findings from this study present a substantial platform for further theory development through the merger of the pertinent fields of product branding and place branding, as well as contributing to the growing field of international advertising research. There are multiple practitioner stakeholders (brand managers, advertising agencies, place image managers, etc.) who could benefit from advances in these areas (Gotsi, Lopez, and Andriopoulos 2011). This study illustrates that there is substantial interest from the practitioner side in this field and offers support in advancing the investigation into the field through the development of the pertinent constructs in Phase 3.

7.1.3. Managerial Implications

In the modern era of globalization, brand marketers are faced with the challenge of creating a consistent and effective brand image that is not only differentiated from its competitors, but also understood by and appealing to consumers from diverse cultural backgrounds (Aaker 1991, 1996; Craig and Douglas 2006). This exploratory examination of the factors that influence the application of widely recognized symbols, such as familiar place associations, along with input from place image managers, is of notable benefit to both users and non-users of place associations in the enhancement/development of product brand images. Recent studies investigating the consumer perspective have reiterated that place associations continue to play a role in consumer purchase decisions in support of the key theories outlined above (e.g., Magnusson, Westjohn and Zdravkovic 2011b; Rodrigo, Khan and McLeay 2013), and thus justify continued application in marketing communications.

Place marketers in the public sector are faced with a similar challenge, whether that entails attracting investors or leisure visitors to a country, region, or city (Braun, Eshuis, and Klijn 2014). The promotional strategies and tactics deployed largely mirror those utilized by product marketers, as was reiterated by the Phase 2 government interviewees (Chapter 5) who were cognizant of nurturing their place images as products, and thus adopting classical product marketing approaches.

This suggests that there are mutual benefits to be gained by both groups of marketing practitioners with a vested interest in the development of a particular place. A valuable insight from Phase 2 is the expressed interest of both sectors in the use of place associations. The participants also intimated an interest in a greater interaction on the development and promotion of the place brand, while outlining the caveats that restrict the involvement of the

private sector (e.g., risk of sharing proprietary information with competitors, taking on the “whole bundle” of place-related images). Therefore, it is key that place marketers, buoyed by the interest of product marketers in place ‘brands’, are equally sensitive to the needs/wants of product marketers, as their customers, in order to engage in mutually beneficial activities for long term sustainability.

Equally, it is in the interests of product marketers to engage with place marketers to access their focused understanding of and attention to the development of the place brand to appeal to multiple customer segments, e.g., investors, tourists.

7.2. Limitations and Future Research Directions

The lack of research in the area of place-related product branding and, therefore, lack of previous studies from which to draw upon, highlight that this is to some extent an exploratory study. However, insights can also be gained from the process in terms of expanding the scale of such a study to support further theory development.

Any study covering an ‘international’ field of investigation is inevitably limited by the number of markets covered within the study. This study focuses on four markets in the Phase 1 content analysis as representatives of ostensibly similar cultures from the regions of North America and Europe, in order to identify the antecedent factors influencing the application of place associations as an integral part of branding strategy, while minimizing the input of culture. Further extension of this part of the study should incorporate markets from diverse cultures to contrast with the first study, in order to offer wider generalization possibilities.

The balance of the cultural makeup of the Phase 3 survey respondents served to broaden cross-cultural considerations, but was limited by its sample size of 202. The diversity of national and organizational cultures, as well as industry sectors, represented in the survey illustrate the wide-ranging enhancement opportunities of the place association heuristic, however, further in-depth probing of the various organizations and sectors on a larger scale would enrich the findings of this study. For instance, in contrast to the broad diffuse range of participants captured in this study, it is suggested that future research drills down further through a country-specific and/or comparative survey, such as a study of U.S. managers, a study of Italian managers, a study of Italian vs. U.S. managers, etc..

The first phase of the study uses the vehicle of print advertising to affirm the use of place associations in advertising. Phase 1 comprised a huge sample, but adopted a systematic approach, drawing guidance from the literature on the content analysis methodology and, importantly, input from experts in the respective nations/cultures involved. While the preliminary findings were reinforced by the later survey of marketing management practitioners and the selected specialty print publications continue to thrive, the accelerated emergence of digital communication tools warrants further exploration to examine the applicability of this study's findings across other advertising platforms, such as TV, the Internet, etc.

The grounded theory approach to Phase 2 proved invaluable to formulating the survey instrument, but it also provided first-hand insights into the PCI topic from the managerial perspective, and thus is of value in itself. This would be further enriched by conducting qualitative research with larger samples and more wide-ranging questions on the broader topic, mining some of the topics derived from the Phase 3 quantitative study. In

addition, the focus of the study could centre on one, rather than all three of the management groups incorporated in this study.

Similarly, Phase 3 engaged a cross-section of industry sector and country participants. While this served to illustrate that the use of place associations in product brand marketing is relevant across multiple industry sectors and cultures, this field of research would benefit from industry- and/or country-specific investigations with bigger samples to enrich the findings of this exploratory study. As was noted in Phase 2, attitudes toward the use of place cues are not defined by industry sectors, since differing approaches were recalled by practitioners who had worked for multiple companies within the same sector.

To enhance a strand of the standardization/adaptation debate, in-depth studies may also compare local and global brands within the same industry across different market environments to examine the variances in strategic approaches. In addition, an examination of specific multinational organizations that embrace the ‘glocal’ approach, as illustrated in the Phase 1 content analysis, warrants further attention to understand the antecedent factors triggering the divergent international brand strategies.

7.3. Conclusion

Place matters.

Despite certain continuing, albeit random, challenges to the continued relevancy of the role of place images in brand marketing pending the emergence of the global consumer (Samiee, Shimp and Sharma 2005; Samiee 2011; Usunier 2011), there is substantial evidence to suggest that the field of place branding and PCI remains a pertinent sphere of investigation (Hollis 2008; Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, and Palihawadana

2011; Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic 2011a; Rodrigo, Khan and McLeay 2013). Indeed, the evolution of place marketing into place branding constitutes a relatively recent area of research that has captured the attention of product brand marketers as well as place image managers (Anholt 2005; Hankinson 2010).

This study offers a significant contribution to the field of international marketing by bringing together two connected areas of research that have largely been studied in parallel. Moreover, it provides a preliminary foray into the views of product brand marketers with respect to the use of country brand associations. All three phases of the study reflect the continued and wide-ranging interest in this topic from a marketing management perspective and thus reinforce the call for further investigation into this untapped field. Furthermore, a multi-method quantitative and qualitative approach to the study was critical in providing a platform for theory development in this area to open up the key research streams to be pursued (outlined earlier in this chapter).

The Phase 2 interviews in particular revealed a high level of engagement in the consideration and usage of place associations as a means of reaching consumers. The adoption of a grounded theory approach proved invaluable in drawing out the key factors affecting the decision to incorporate place cues in branding communications. Interestingly, the discussions also highlighted the complexities of strategic decision-making in the arena of international brand marketing and advertising. The accelerated diffusion of information driven by globalization has increased the challenges facing the product brand marketer with regard to the local marketplace environment, in terms of both competitors and the consumer.

Furthermore, managers also indicated that some of the challenges emerge from within the multinational organization, especially when attitudes toward the perceived

relevancy of associated place differ between the corporate headquarters and the foreign subsidiary, highlighted by incidences of when local market research was used to fight internal rather than external battles on strategic direction. Hence, the reputation of the associated place in the minds of the local consumer emerged as a pivotal factor in the decision-making process with regard to the use of place cues in marketing communications. Understanding the consumer remains the core strategic focus of modern marketing systems.

As well as new insights and considerations drawn from the qualitative phase, a critical finding to enable the quantitative evaluation of the topics was the use of the appropriate terminology. Once the interviewee understood the place construct and the scope of its use, a broad discussion ensued and practitioners reflected on its application at both a professional marketing and personal consumption level, providing anecdotal examples that also proved useful to ensure comprehension in the quantitative instrument. Notably, some managers were inspired to consider future deployment of place cues to reinforce their branding efforts and ‘maximize’ a product attribute.

As described in Chapters 3 and 5, Phase 2 included three categories of interviewees. While this entailed some differing perspectives, there was a general consensus on the potential value of place associations – under the right conditions. Discussions with the advertising agency executives confirmed their roles as advisors who, at the end of the day, are required to execute the strategies defined by their clients. However, that does not exclude recommendations that the client may not have previously considered, given the diversity of sectors and markets with which the advertising agencies interact, which in some cases includes both product and place marketers. The latter group also revealed the challenges of marketing their specific place (at country, regional and city levels) to a wide

array of audiences. There are strong parallels with the approaches of product marketers in that they are cognizant of the various cultures to whom they are trying to appeal, which consequently requires classical marketing segmentation and differentiation in their strategic marketing planning. Since the reputation of the home country may vary and not all of the associated symbols be recognized, many of the place marketers admitted to prioritizing their efforts to specific segments in order to effectively manage their budgets. While both sets of marketers expressed an interest in cooperation and recognized the mutual benefits to be gained, there is a greater note of caution on the product marketing side, as described in Chapter 5. However, this poses an interesting area of further investigation to explore the areas of overlap that may also be of interest to public policy makers.

In addition, the Phase 2 sample was a useful platform from which to launch the snowball sampling to reach (and surpass) the targeted 200 survey responses. Given the notoriously low response rates for surveys among business executives (Bryman and Bell 2003), utilizing existing social networks (Cycota and Harrison 2006) proved invaluable in achieving the target number, also partly attributable to the heightened interest in the topic area among the interview respondents, which they subsequently transmitted across their own networks.

While there are limitations to the findings from Phase 3 due to its exploratory nature, as outlined above, it does provide valuable insights to direct further investigation in this exciting area. It is interesting to note that a high percentage of marketers (81% in the survey) use some form of place cue in their marketing communications, whether or not a place is identified or inferred in the brand name. Furthermore, multiple cues are used to reinforce the brand image, with a third of the respondents using more than four cues. As a result of

the survey, new constructs have been developed with which to probe more deeply into the antecedent factors influencing strategic decision-making regarding the use of place associations in marketing communications. This has important managerial implications for both product marketers and place marketers seeking points of differentiation and the creation of the product or place brand image. Overall, a strong tendency towards a ‘glocal’ approach (Quelch 2003) was observed, with managers very conscious of their local market environment and the relevancy to the target consumer of the place associated with the brand.

Moreover, this study also endeavours to detract the doubters mentioned in Chapter 1 by illustrating the continued relevancy of place image as a complementary component to brand image, not only through the examination of an enormous database of over 6,300 print ads, but also by engaging the various stakeholders in the mutual development of place and brand images to probe more deeply into the factors that influence strategic decision-making in this field.

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Appendix A: Phase 2 Interview Guides

Three versions of the interview guide were used, one each for respondents from government, advertiser firms (marketing or brand managers), and advertising agencies. They all followed the same pattern, and were essentially the same in all respects except:

- The two private sector guides were identical except for minor wording changes to reflect the differences between the two types of participants, in that the advertiser questions referred to the respondents' own brands whereas those for agencies referred to the brands of their clients.
- The government guide differed from the two private sector ones (advertisers and agencies) in terms of (i) minor or substantive wording modifications in question A2 and all questions in section C (especially C9), to fit the government environment, and (ii) including questions C10, C11, and C12, which did not appear in the private sector versions.

The three guides are shown in the following pages.

Appendix A: Phase 2 Interview Guide – Cover Page

In-depth Interview Guide: Government

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS STUDY GROUP

General Objectives

1. Insights into strategic and tactical decision-making with regard to the use of “place” in branding and marketing communications by public organizations.
2. Identify some of the key factors that influence the decision on the type of place symbols and references used in marketing communications (e.g., nature of the product, market, or competition, organizational structure, manager’s views, government policy), and generally explore views about the use of place in brand communication.
3. Identify any interactions with the private sector with regard to place promotion.

Italics indicate potential variations to the interview according to the specific situation.

Introduction

(modify according to pre-interview discussions, relationship with respondent, etc.).

- Thanks so much for taking time out of your busy schedule to participate in this study.
- My name is Jill Reid. I am a Ph.D. student at the Sprott School of Business at Carleton University, and before that I was a branding executive at Gillette in Britain, Poland, and other countries.
- I am working on a study for my doctoral thesis, under the supervision of Dr. Nicolas Papadopoulos, Chancellor’s Professor at the Sprott School of Business. The study focuses on the images of places, such as cities, regions, or countries, and their use as a tool to create/support the brand image in advertising communications.
- The place with which a brand is associated, such as a country or city, is often part of the brand name (e.g. Air Canada, Credit Suisse, Maybelline New York). Place associations also appear in advertising, where they may be embedded in the brand name, as in these examples, or be part of the advertising copy (*show examples*), or art, as in the case of visual symbols that are recognized worldwide (e.g. the Eiffel Tower, Niagara Falls, Vancouver harbour).
- There is a lot of research about place images in marketing, but it is focused on what consumers think about it. There is virtually no research on why managers do or don’t use place associations in branding and advertising, nor on the relationship between place marketers and product marketers who use place associations, and that’s what my research is about.
- At this stage of the study, what I need is help from experts such as yourself in understanding how/why place marketing decisions are made and the factors that affect them. Apart from its own value, this phase of the study will help me to develop the questionnaire for a survey that we’ll do in the fall (*if it’s ok with you, I’d like to include you in that sample too*).

Would it be ok if I record this meeting? This will enable me to focus on your answers instead of scribbling notes, and it’ll help me to retain more information. Your replies will be strictly confidential, as is stated in this “ethics” form from the university, and all results will be reported only in aggregate form.

Before we start, let me say once again that I appreciate your help and the time you’re giving me. We hope to make a major contribution to understanding how and why place images work, and your contribution through this interview is invaluable. I will be glad to provide you with an executive summary of the results as soon as they are available.



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Appendix A-i: Phase 2 Interview Guide for Managers in Government Organizations

A. Background Questions

1. To begin, please tell me a bit about your work, your title, and your job responsibilities, so I can place your answers in context.
2. And what about your organization – please tell me a bit about its key functional role, especially concerning the interaction with other departments, level of strategic decision-making autonomy, and the culture of the department.

B. General managerial attitudes towards use of place

1. Many companies make references to geographic places in their advertising, or even incorporate them in brand names, and that's not just in tourism place promotion. This happens in many industries, for example in cosmetics (L'Oréal or Lancôme "Paris", Rimmel London), cars (Volkswagen's "Das Auto"), drinks (e.g., Glenlivet Scotch Whisky), or Tommy Hilfiger (American flag colours in the logo on all its garments). Many times, the company doesn't even need to mention a name specifically – e.g., brands like Kodak or Lexus which deliberately stayed away from place identifiers, but Armani chose to retain its identity and everyone knows it's Italian.
 - a. *Do you think there's any benefit or value from using such place associations?*
 - b. *What would you say is the value of using such place associations?*
2. And what would you say might be some reasons, some criteria, which might make the use of place associations in branding and advertising...
... appropriate or not appropriate... relevant or not relevant... effective or not effective... ?
3. There are many different ways to incorporate "place" in branding and advertising – what do you think about them, and which do you think might be appropriate for what purpose/product/market?
4. As far as you are aware, is there any kind of interaction between what governments do to promote places as producers of goods, or as destinations for tourism or investment, and what companies do?

C. How places are promoted by respondent's organization

1. How is place promotion strategy developed [in your organization]?
2. With regard to promotion in your organization, what are the main appeals, execution styles, or cues that are used to endorse brand images, beyond the specific attributes of the sectors, products, or places being promoted? (e.g., berries promoted as "good" vs. "from Saskatchewan).
3. How are place associations used by your organization in brand/sector communications?
4. Can you give some examples of the type of place symbols used in your marketing communications?
5. How integral would you say the use of place associations is in your organization's promotion strategies – e.g., is place promotion seen as very important, less important, not important at all...?
6. How do you/does your company arrive at the decision to use/not use place associations?

7. How do you decide to use “place” for some products and target markets but not for others? What factors influence such decisions?
8. Does this influence how they [place cues] are used? Does it vary by market?
9. What would you say are the key factors that influence that decision?
(*check/probe any of the following mentioned by interviewee, add factors as appropriate*)
 - ___ *target audience (investors, visitors, tourists)*
 - ___ *perceived reputation of country/city/region*
 - ___ *perceived reputation of relevant industries/private companies*
 - ___ *perceived level of awareness of the country/city/region*
 - ___ *perceived level of knowledge about the country/city/region*
 - ___ *use of country/city/region references by well-known private companies*
 - ___ *competitive intensity (vs. other places)*
 - ___ *local, national, or international campaign*
 - ___ *economic / political factors*
 - ___ *host country relationship with home country*
 - ___ *sector/industry positioning*
 - ___ *sector/industry maturity*
 - ___ *level of marketing of country/city/region by private firms*
 - ___ *legal/regulatory factors*
10. Under what circumstances might the application of place references/symbols be modified in a particular campaign?
11. Do you work with/refer to local companies in the private sector to build the place image?
12. Would you encourage, or not, greater involvement of private sector companies with the public sector organizations in promoting their place of origin?
13. Does any other branch/level of government actively promote the same place/sector as yours?

Terminating the interview:

Thanks again so much for taking the time for this interview.

Is there anything important that I missed? Do you have any questions for me?

Appendix A-ii: Phase 2 Interview Guide for Marketing/Brand Managers in Advertiser Firms

A. Background Questions

1. To begin, please tell me a bit about your work, your title, and your job responsibilities, so I can place your answers in context.
2. And what about your organization – please tell me a bit about its main products, the types of work you do for them, and the culture of the company.

B. General managerial attitudes towards use of place

1. Many companies make references to geographic places in their advertising, or even incorporate them in brand names, and that's not just in tourism place promotion. This happens in many industries, for example in cosmetics (L'Oréal or Lancôme "Paris", Rimmel London), cars (Volkswagen's "Das Auto"), drinks (e.g., Glenlivet Scotch Whisky), or Tommy Hilfiger (American flag colours in the logo on all its garments). Many times, the company doesn't even need to mention a name specifically – e.g., brands like Kodak or Lexus which deliberately stayed away from place identifiers, but Armani chose to retain its identity and everyone knows it's Italian.
 - a. *Do you think there's any benefit or value from using such place associations?*
 - b. *What would you say is the value of using such place associations?*
2. And what would you say might be some reasons, some criteria, which might make the use of place associations in branding and advertising... .. appropriate or not appropriate... relevant or not relevant... effective or not effective... ?
3. There are many different ways to incorporate "place" in branding and advertising – what do you think about them, and which do you think might be appropriate for what purpose/product/market?
4. Do you think there is any kind of interaction between what governments do to promote places as producers of goods, or as destinations for tourism or investment, and what companies do?

C. Use of "place" by respondent's organization

1. How is product advertising strategy developed [in your organization]?
2. With regard to your product advertising, what are the main appeals, execution styles, or cues that are used to endorse the brand image, beyond the specific attributes of your products?
3. Does your organization use place associations in its brand/product communications?
4. Can you give some examples of how place references are used in your marketing communications?
5. How integral would you say the use of place associations is in your firm's branding and/or advertising strategy – are they seen as very important, less important, not important at all... ?
6. How do you/does your company arrive at the decision to use/not use place associations?
7. How do you decide to use "place" for some products and target markets but not for others? What factors influence such decisions?
8. Does this influence how they [place cues] are used? Does it vary by market?

9. What would you say are the key factors that influence that decision?
(check/probe any of the following mentioned by interviewee, add factors as appropriate)
- brand/company positioning*
 - consumer perceptions of country/city*
 - consumer attitudes towards foreign brands*
 - host country relationship with product's/brand's country of origin*
 - brand/product is local*
 - competitive intensity*
 - competitor use of country of origin*
 - perceived reputation of the place origin (relevant to industry sector)*
 - economic / political factors*
 - product positioning*
 - product maturity*
 - level of government marketing of country/city of origin*
 - legal/regulatory factors*
10. Does any level of government in your case actively promote your industry?

Terminating the interview

Thanks again so much for taking the time for this interview.

Is there anything important that I missed? Do you have any questions for me?

Appendix A-iii: Phase 2 Interview Guide for Managers in Advertising Agencies

A. Background Questions

1. To begin, please tell me a bit about your work, your title, and your job responsibilities, so I can place your answers in context.
2. And what about your agency – please tell me a bit about its main clients, the types of work you do for them, and the culture of the company.

B. General managerial attitudes towards use of place

1. Many companies make references to geographic places in their advertising, or even incorporate them in brand names, and that's not just in tourism place promotion. This happens in many industries, for example in cosmetics (L'Oréal or Lancôme "Paris", Rimmel London), cars (Volkswagen's "Das Auto"), drinks (e.g., Glenlivet Scotch Whisky), or Tommy Hilfiger (American flag colours in the logo on all its garments). Many times, the company doesn't even need to mention a name specifically – e.g., brands like Kodak or Lexus which deliberately stayed away from place identifiers, but Armani chose to retain its identity and everyone knows it's Italian.
 - a. *Do you think there's any benefit or value from using such place associations?*
 - b. *What would you say is the value of using such place associations?*
2. And what would you say might be some reasons, some criteria, which might make the use of place associations in branding and advertising... , ... appropriate or not appropriate..., relevant or not relevant..., effective or not effective... ?
3. There are many different ways to incorporate "place" in branding and advertising – what do you think about them, and which do you think might be appropriate for what purpose/product/market?
4. Do you think there is any kind of interaction between what governments do to promote places as producers of goods, or as destinations for tourism or investment, and what companies do?

C. Use of "place" by respondent's organization

1. How is product advertising strategy developed with the client?
2. What are, and how do you identify, the main cues used to endorse/create brand images, beyond the specific product attributes?
3. Does your agency recommend the use of place associations in brand/product communications?
4. From your work, can you give some examples of how/when place references are used?
5. Among your clients, how integral would you say the use of place associations is within a branding and/or advertising strategy – are they seen as very important, less important, not important at all... ?
6. How do you/does your agency arrive at the decision to use/not use place associations?
7. How do you decide to use "place" for some brands and target markets but not for others? What factors influence such decisions?
8. Does this influence how they [place cues] are used? Does it vary by market?

9. What would you say are the key factors that influence that decision?
(check/probe any of the following mentioned by interviewee, add factors as appropriate)
- brand/company positioning*
 - consumer perceptions of country/city*
 - consumer attitudes towards foreign brands*
 - host country relationship with product's/brand's country of origin*
 - brand/product is local*
 - competitive intensity*
 - competitor use of country of origin*
 - perceived reputation of the place origin (relevant to industry sector)*
 - economic / political factors*
 - product positioning*
 - product maturity*
 - level of government marketing of country/city of origin*
 - legal/regulatory factors*
10. Does any level of government actively promote any of the industries with which you are involved?

Terminating the interview

Thanks again so much for taking the time for this interview.

Is there anything important that I missed? Do you have any questions for me?

Appendix B: Online Survey Questionnaire

Cover page:

INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS STUDY GROUP

Managers' Views on the Use of Place in Branding and Marketing Communications

"Places" have been important in peoples' lives since the beginning of time; we live and work in them, travel to them, read about them or see them in movies – and we dislike some and like others and their products. In our time of globalization, when technically almost any product can be made almost anywhere, marketers use "place images" increasingly to add brand value; places often are part of strongly-promoted company or brand names (e.g., *American Airlines*, *Credit Suisse*, *Royal Bank of Scotland*, *Kimberley-Clark Worldwide*); many times are part of a brand's appeal or execution strategy (e.g., patriotic appeals to attract domestic consumers, use of Sweden's flag colors by IKEA or Italy's by pasta producers, kangaroos in Australian products); and many times are the whole purpose of an ad (e.g., in tourism or ads to attract investors).

Our study is unique because, while there is a lot of research on how consumers view the products of various countries, there is no research on what business executives such as yourself think about it all. In an earlier phase of our research, we analyzed the content of about 6,000 full-page magazine ads from 4 countries and found that about 80% of all ads contain at least one "place cue" – and that place-based executions are the seventh-most-popular execution style. What is not known, and therefore what our study focuses on, is what marketers think about whether, when, how, or under what circumstances might place images be used to enhance product branding communications.

Your cooperation in completing the survey is crucial to the success of the study, which needs a representative sample of knowledgeable executives in the marketing community. *If you feel that the questionnaire should be answered by someone else in your firm who deals more directly with brand communications decisions, please do not hesitate to pass the survey link on to him or her.*

Knowing the heavy demands on your time, **we deeply appreciate your help in this project.** As noted in the cover email, the questionnaire takes only 15'-25' to complete, the study has been cleared by Carleton's Research Ethics Board, and your replies will be strictly anonymous.

When the study is complete *I will be happy to provide you with an executive summary of the findings.* If you would like to receive the summary, or if you have any questions or comments, please do not hesitate to contact either of us as indicated below. **Thank you so much for your cooperation.**

Sincerely,

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A. Background Information

In this section, please enter a response in the space provided, or check the appropriate box:

1. Please tell us a few things about the company where you work.

Where are you located?

Country: _____

City: _____

The Corporate HQ

A Regional HQ

A Local
Subsidiary

Is the place where you work:

2. If your company is the Corporate HQ, please go to Question 3 on the next page.

If your company is a Regional HQ or Local Subsidiary:

Year of founding: _____

Main Activity: _____

Is your main business:

Consumer Oriented

B2B

Both

Please indicate your company's:

Employment (number)

Total Sales - in million US\$, or

- specify other currency:

Total Sales - in million US\$, or

- specify other currency:

B. Strategic Orientation

This section assesses the different strategic approaches that companies take to manage and expand their business. From your perspective, please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by clicking on the response that most closely reflects your opinion, from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree):

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
My company ...					
• always responds quickly to requests and needs from its markets	<input type="radio"/>				
• is not very flexible in responding to local conditions	<input type="radio"/>				
• adapts existing products to local market needs whenever possible	<input type="radio"/>				
• uses the same ads globally instead of adapting them to local markets	<input type="radio"/>				
• is a leader in our industry in terms of discovering and pursuing emerging market opportunities in all corners of the world	<input type="radio"/>				
• sees itself as having a universal, global identity, rather than being associated with any one or more countries	<input type="radio"/>				
• sees itself as a company with many homes (one in each market where it operates), rather than as one with a global or national identity	<input type="radio"/>				
• sees itself as having a national identity, associated with its origin and headquarters	<input type="radio"/>				
• spends a lot of management time in planning international operations	<input type="radio"/>				
Our corporate management ...					
• provides complete sets of rules and procedures for activities in specific markets	<input type="radio"/>				
• asks that even small matters have to be referred to them for a final decision	<input type="radio"/>				
• deploys one or more employee(s) to local subsidiaries to manage/coordinate local market activities	<input type="radio"/>				
• provides the overall strategy, but the managers responsible for a particular market make their own local marketing and advertising decisions	<input type="radio"/>				

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
When it comes to implementing our marketing strategy ...					
• I spend what I must to get good market information	<input type="radio"/>				
• I think that market information is basically useful only to verify what one already knows	<input type="radio"/>				
• I put a very high value on the availability of market information	<input type="radio"/>				
• my company invests a lot of effort in building a brand image among customers	<input type="radio"/>				
• we try hard to understand and deliver on customers' current and potential needs	<input type="radio"/>				
• we have a lot of expertise in positioning new or repositioning existing products/services	<input type="radio"/>				

C. Characteristics of the Local Market Environment

This section assesses the unique environment of the different markets in which companies operate. Please tell us about the environment of the market in which you are currently working by indicating your agreement with each of the following statements. As before, just click on the response that most closely reflects your opinion, from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree):

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
In our local market ...					
• the number of products/brands sold is very high	<input type="radio"/>				
• there is a lot of variety in products for sale	<input type="radio"/>				
• there are strict regulations about a product's country of origin on packaging and/or on the product itself	<input type="radio"/>				
• the number of competitors is very large	<input type="radio"/>				
• our competitors are relatively strong	<input type="radio"/>				
• it is relatively easy for new competitors to establish a strong competitive position quickly	<input type="radio"/>				
• customer preferences and expectations about product features change frequently	<input type="radio"/>				
• it is difficult to predict changes in customer preferences and expectations about product features	<input type="radio"/>				
My perception is that, in our market, our target customer ...					
• normally buys a lot of foreign products	<input type="radio"/>				
• rates foreign products very favorably	<input type="radio"/>				
• tends to prefer domestic products over foreign ones	<input type="radio"/>				
• feels that only those products that are unavailable domestically should be imported	<input type="radio"/>				
• thinks that purchasing foreign-made products hurts domestic businesses and causes unemployment	<input type="radio"/>				
• thinks there should be tighter restrictions on the importation of foreign products	<input type="radio"/>				

D. Product Marketing Strategy

Please tell us about the marketing strategy for the product/brand that you manage, again by clicking on the response that most closely reflects your opinion, from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree):

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
Concerning specifically my brand, instead of the company as a whole, ...					
• my brand is considered a market leader in its category	<input type="radio"/>				
• my brand has a strong reputation in this market	<input type="radio"/>				
• we systematically and regularly gather and analyze information about our competitors	<input type="radio"/>				
• we systematically and regularly gather and analyze information about our customers/consumers	<input type="radio"/>				
• we regularly conduct information sharing meetings between the head office and the international subsidiaries	<input type="radio"/>				
• the sector in which my brand belongs is strongly associated with a country (e.g., fashion with Italy, consumer electronics with Japan)	<input type="radio"/>				
• other competitors in our sector tend to emphasize their brands' place association (e.g., L'Oréal Paris, "German-engineered" VW)	<input type="radio"/>				
• the country with which our product is associated does not enjoy a good reputation internationally	<input type="radio"/>				
• we tend to disassociate ourselves from our brand's country association and emphasize other elements instead	<input type="radio"/>				
• emphasizing our brand's country of association will not have an impact on our sales, either positively or negatively	<input type="radio"/>				
• our target consumers don't care about which place a brand is associated with	<input type="radio"/>				
• my brand is well-established in the local market	<input type="radio"/>				
• my brand is relatively new to the local market	<input type="radio"/>				

E. Marketing Communications Strategy

To effectively communicate their brands' images, marketers can choose from a range of appeals and executions in their positioning and advertising strategy, such as humor, sex, place association, fear, problem-solution, lifestyle, celebrity endorsement, and so on. As described in the cover page to this questionnaire, many advertisers use some kind of "place" association in presenting their message.

This approach takes many forms, such as, for example:

- a representative image (e.g. the Eiffel Tower for *Paris*)
- national flag colors (e.g. red, white, and green for pasta and other *Italian* food products)
- reference to the brand's global presence (e.g. Kimberley-Clark *Worldwide*, KPMG *International*, Hyatt ads listing *all the countries* where Hyatt hotels can be found)
- direct 'Made In' or similar statement on the product packshot (e.g. "*Geneva*" on the face-plate of a *Swiss* watch, *Scottish* tartan on *Highland* Spring water)
- iconic image from daily life tying the brand to its values and/or target consumer (e.g. *Scottish* pastoral images in ads for Glenlivet or Glenfiddich *scotch whisky*; a typical *American* farm scene representing "down-home values")
- a slogan that infers, or explicitly refers to, a place association (e.g. HSBC "the *world's local bank*", "100% *Colombian* Coffee")
- internationally-recognized national symbols to reinforce the desired association (e.g. kangaroo on *Australian* wine)

Would you kindly tell us, first, if your company's corporate or brand names include a place or a suggestion to a place?

Just check "Yes" or "No" in each case:

	Yes	No
Our company's <i>corporate name</i> includes a <i>place</i> (e.g., Singapore Airlines, Bank of America)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Our company's <i>corporate name</i> include a <i>suggestion</i> to a place (e.g., "Emporio Armani" is "Italian" without saying "Italy")	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
One or more of my company's <i>brands</i> include a <i>place</i> (e.g., Bombay Sapphire, Canada Dry)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
One or more of my company's <i>brands</i> include a <i>suggestion</i> to a place (e.g., "Maple Leaf" is "Canadian" without saying "Canada")	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Next, we are interested to know your thoughts on place associations and how they may be used in your company's marketing strategy. As before, just check the response that most closely reflects your opinion, from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree):

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
In our marketing communications, we focus more on _____ than other elements:					
• our product's features	<input type="radio"/>				
• our product's quality	<input type="radio"/>				
• building brand image	<input type="radio"/>				
• images of the place with which the sector, and our brand, is associated	<input type="radio"/>				
• our price advantage over the competition	<input type="radio"/>				
In my opinion, the use of a place association in a marketing strategy:					
• is appropriate for certain types of products	<input type="radio"/>				
• is quite common amongst our competitors	<input type="radio"/>				
• is appropriate for all types of products	<input type="radio"/>				
• does not make sense for any type of product	<input type="radio"/>				
• offers a point of competitive advantage	<input type="radio"/>				
• can enhance the value of the brand in the minds of consumers	<input type="radio"/>				
• suggests to consumers additional information about the quality of the product, to help with their purchase decisions	<input type="radio"/>				
In my opinion, place associations should be used:					
• when the reputation of the place is closely associated with the values of the brand	<input type="radio"/>				
• when the reputation of the place is generally understood by all the target consumers	<input type="radio"/>				
• when the symbols of the place are recognized by most consumers	<input type="radio"/>				
• when the place association offers a competitive advantage versus other players in the same industry	<input type="radio"/>				
• when the use of place can help relate a brand to consumer likes/dislikes	<input type="radio"/>				
• it is better to use more general international phrases and symbols (such as 'worldwide', 'global', or the EU flag) than to tie the brand to a specific place	<input type="radio"/>				

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5
For the brand I manage, making a place association can be useful for achieving the following objectives:					
• increasing brand loyalty	<input type="radio"/>				
• enhancing brand image	<input type="radio"/>				
• motivating consumers to switch brands	<input type="radio"/>				
• increasing market share	<input type="radio"/>				
• providing a competitive advantage	<input type="radio"/>				
• to support our "appeal", that is, the main reason we present in the message for convincing the consumer to buy	<input type="radio"/>				
• to support or enhance our "execution" approach, that is, how we present the message	<input type="radio"/>				

For the brand I manage, the use of a place association in my communications strategy:					
• is ineffective and unnecessary	<input type="radio"/>				
• is a powerful tool	<input type="radio"/>				
• enhances our brand positioning	<input type="radio"/>				
• is not relevant in our industry sector	<input type="radio"/>				
• is a means of differentiation from our competitors	<input type="radio"/>				
• depends on the image of the place with our local consumers	<input type="radio"/>				

For the brand you manage, to what extent would the following factors influence your decision to use a place association in your communications strategy?

In this section, please click on the response that most closely reflects your opinion in the below scale, from 1 (Rarely or Not at All) to 5 (Frequently or A Lot):

	Rarely / Not At All			Frequently/ A Lot	
	1	2	3	4	5
• international brand/company positioning	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
• local consumer perceptions of the country/city associated with my brand	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
• local consumer attitudes towards foreign versus local brands	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
• the relationship between the target country and the company's/brand's country of association	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
• if the government or other agencies of the place of association promote it generally or for specific sectors (e.g. "Swiss Timing", "Italian Leather Institute")	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
• well-known reputation of the country/city of origin is relevant to the industry sector (e.g. French perfume, Belgian beer)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
• the extent to which competitors use country/city of association	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
• local consumer research	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

F. Use of Place Associations in Marketing Communications

Please tell us about the use of place associations in the marketing communications of the product/brand that you manage as indicated below.

The use of a place association in our marketing communications is:

Please move the slider accordingly between points 1 to 5 on each of the below scales.

Very strong	<input type="text"/>	Very weak
Very frequent	<input type="text"/>	Very infrequent
Very prominent	<input type="text"/>	Very subtle
A component of our positioning strategy	<input type="text"/>	Not a component of our positioning strategy

Which of the following place cues does your company use in advertising to depict the association of your products/services with a country, region or city? (Check all that apply)

- Brand names with a geographical location within the name of the brand itself (e.g. Rimmel London)
- Foreign language content, such as French words with accents in English-language advertisements (e.g. Lancôme)
- Cultural indications through foreign celebrities, food, or clothing (e.g. models in Lederhosen used to advertise German beer in Britain)
- Slogans with location connotation, such as VW's "Das Auto", or jam "Made with 100% Canadian blueberries"
- Natural scenery or pictures of a city or town that can be readily identified with a particular place (e.g. Swiss Alps, American barn on a prairie, Taj Mahal, Statue of Liberty)
- Flags, animals and/or other national symbols that are internationally recognized (e.g. New Zealand kiwi bird, Scotsman wearing a tartan kilt)
- Packshots or other product photos that include a "Made in" reference or state a place name (e.g. 'Swiss made' on watches)
- Choice of a country specific URL (e.g., .de for Germany or .ca for Canada) instead of universal ones (e.g., .com or .biz)
- Contact information about the locations of a company's retail outlets (e.g. "Tiffany: New York, Milan, Paris, Tokyo"), sales office, or headquarters

Finally, for this last summary section, please answer these two questions separately for (a) your brand, and (b) your company overall, that is, when you consider any or all of your company's brands. As before, click on the response that most closely reflects your opinion, from 1 (Rarely or Not at all) to 5 (Frequently or Always):

	<u>My Brand</u>					<u>My Company</u>				
	Rarely or Not at all		Frequently or Always			Rarely or Not at all		Frequently or Always		
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
We use "place" as part of our:										
Marketing strategy	<input type="radio"/>									
Positioning strategy	<input type="radio"/>									
Advertising strategy	<input type="radio"/>									
Appeal strategy	<input type="radio"/>									
Execution strategy	<input type="radio"/>									
We use place cues in our ads':										
Headlines	<input type="radio"/>									
Body text (copy)	<input type="radio"/>									
Illustrations (art)	<input type="radio"/>									
Slogans	<input type="radio"/>									
"Fine print" (e.g., the copyright or disclaimer text includes reference to a place)	<input type="radio"/>									

Appendix C: Industry Sector by Country of Publication

Industry Sector	Canada		USA		UK		Italy		TOTAL	
Personal Health & Beauty	574	42%	371	22%	280	22%	368	18%	1593	25.3%
Apparel & Accessories	8	1%	73	4%	245	19%	498	25%	824	13.1%
Food & Beverages	159	12%	163	10%	64	5%	110	6%	496	7.9%
Watches & Jewellery	5	0%	29	2%	97	7%	247	12%	378	6.0%
IT & Communications	50	4%	135	8%	75	6%	57	3%	317	5.0%
Financial Services	46	3%	146	9%	36	3%	78	4%	306	4.9%
Automobile & related	60	4%	105	6%	44	3%	69	3%	278	4.4%
Media & Communications	49	4%	50	3%	47	4%	122	6%	268	4.3%
Household Goods	60	4%	37	2%	61	5%	82	4%	240	3.8%
Medicines/Medical	36	3%	112	7%	16	1%	52	3%	216	3.4%
Business Services	38	3%	64	4%	67	5%	34	2%	203	3.2%
Telecoms	34	3%	67	4%	12	1%	44	2%	157	2.5%
Retail	56	4%	53	3%	32	2%	8	0%	149	2.4%
Other Prods/Servs	1	0%	29	2%	83	6%	19	1%	132	2.1%
Home Décor & Improvement	26	2%	22	1%	20	2%	39	2%	107	1.7%
Travel & Tourism	14	1%	27	2%	19	1%	41	2%	101	1.6%
Government	33	2%	18	1%	21	2%	24	1%	96	1.5%
Charities, NGOs	24	2%	32	2%	8	1%	20	1%	84	1.3%
Liquor & Tobacco	6	0%	42	3%	14	1%	20	1%	82	1.3%
Leisure & Entertainment	22	2%	17	1%	5	0%	23	1%	67	1.1%
Consumer Electronics	22	2%	21	1%	9	1%	13	1%	65	1.0%
Aviation & Aerospace	8	1%	20	1%	23	2%	12	1%	63	1.0%
Education & Training	22	2%	9	1%	14	1%	5	0%	50	0.8%
Oil & Energy	1	0%	12	1%	6	0%	12	1%	31	0.5%
TOTAL	1,354		1,654		1,298		1,997		6,303	

Legend:

Bold: Top five industry sectors in each country's publications

Appendix D: Procter & Gamble's Ulay/Olaz brand

Italy: "Olaz" brand



UK/North America: "Olay" brand



Appendix E: Advertising Appeals

As described in Chapter 4, Pollay's (1983) classification scheme for advertising appeals has been found to be incomplete for cross-cultural advertising studies (Albers-Miller and Gelb 1996). Therefore, an alternative classification scheme, shown below, was developed as part of a broader research project by the author's supervisor using the aforementioned papers and other studies in this area (e.g., Kleppner 1984; Kotler and Turner 1989; Belch, Belch, and Guolla 2005; Lamb et al. 2006). The scheme was first presented in a master's thesis (Dziedzic 2007) under the supervision of Dr. Papadopoulos, and was slightly adapted for presentation here.

Appeal	Description (Note: As commonly used in marketing, "product" includes any offering)
Altruism	Invokes an unselfish concern for the needs or interests of others by an association to the product or service
Availability	Focuses on the ease of accessibility or usability on demand by the consumer
Benefit	Details the benefit of a particular product or service for the buyer /user
Caring	Invokes feelings of affection and compassion
Convenience	Focuses on saving a consumer time, effort, or frustration
Econ/Price/Value	Focuses on monetary worth of the product or service
Fear	Invokes feelings of perceived risk or danger, real or not
Feature	Details qualities or characteristic parts of a product
Humour	Invokes feelings of amusement
Information	Offers details, data, specific knowledge about the product or service
Joy-Body	Invokes feelings of happiness associated with the physical body or vanity
Joy-Clothing	Invokes feelings of happiness associated with apparel and attire
Joy-Food	Invokes feelings of happiness associated with food and related items
Joy-Health	Invokes feelings of happiness associated with physical, mental, and social well-being
Lifestyle	Focuses on associating with a consumer's AIO (activities, interests, and opinions)
Love	Invokes feelings of non-sexual love and devotion
Patriotism	Invokes feelings of love, support, and willingness to sacrifice one's self for one's country
Prestige	Focuses on success, social honour, and social influence
Pride	Invokes feelings of self-respect and personal worth
Sex	Invokes feelings resulting from the urge to satisfy sexual impulses
Success	Focuses on a state of prosperity or fame
Quality	Focuses on the degree or grade of excellence or worth
Reliability	Focuses on the consistency of results
Technical expertise	Focuses on technical knowledge and experience
Variety	Focuses on the variability and range of a product

Appendix F: Advertising Executions

As described above in Appendix E, the process for cataloguing the advertising execution styles was developed by drawing upon extant literature in the field to compile the appropriate range of styles for the original research project. The classification scheme was first presented in a master's thesis (Dziedzic 2007) under the supervision of Dr. Papadopoulos, and was slightly adapted for presentation here.

Execution Style	Description (Note: As commonly used in marketing, "product" includes any offering)
Celebrity-Endorse	Formal and explicit approval or support by a widely known person who may or may not have actually used the product
Celebrity-General	The inclusion of a widely known person in a non-endorsement, non-testimonial manner
Celebrity-Testimonial	A statement affirming the value of a product by a widely known person who has actually used the product
Consumer-Fantasy/Mood	Association to a fictional, imaginative, or idealistic psychological state
Consumer-Image	Associates a product with an iconic mental representation
Consumer-Storyline	A plot or story associated with a product and directly involving a consumer
Consumer-Testimonial	A statement affirming the value of a product by an actual user
Consumer-Vignette	A situational depiction involving a consumer enjoying the product
Endorse-Complementary	Approval or support of a product, which enhances or augments its quality or value
Endorse-Customer	Formal and explicit approval or support of a product by a user
Endorse-Employee	Formal and explicit approval or support by an employee of the company being advertised
Endorse-Expert	Formal and explicit approval or support by an expert pertaining to the subject matter associated with the product
PCI	Close country association to the product or service in an effort to enhance its value or quality
Product-Association	The real or fictional correlation of a product with another state, action, or event
Product-Comparative	The direct comparison of a product with one of its competitors
Product-Demonstration	Direct demonstration of the features, advantages, or benefits of a product without specific reference to any competitors
Product-Dramatization	A plot or storyline associated with a product, which focuses on portraying its usefulness using a staged instead of actual situation
Product-Hero	The depiction of a product possessing abilities or character far greater than typically associated with such products
Product-Illustration	The presentation of information through dialogue or depiction
Product-Problem/Solution	The depiction of a specific problem and its solution by the product

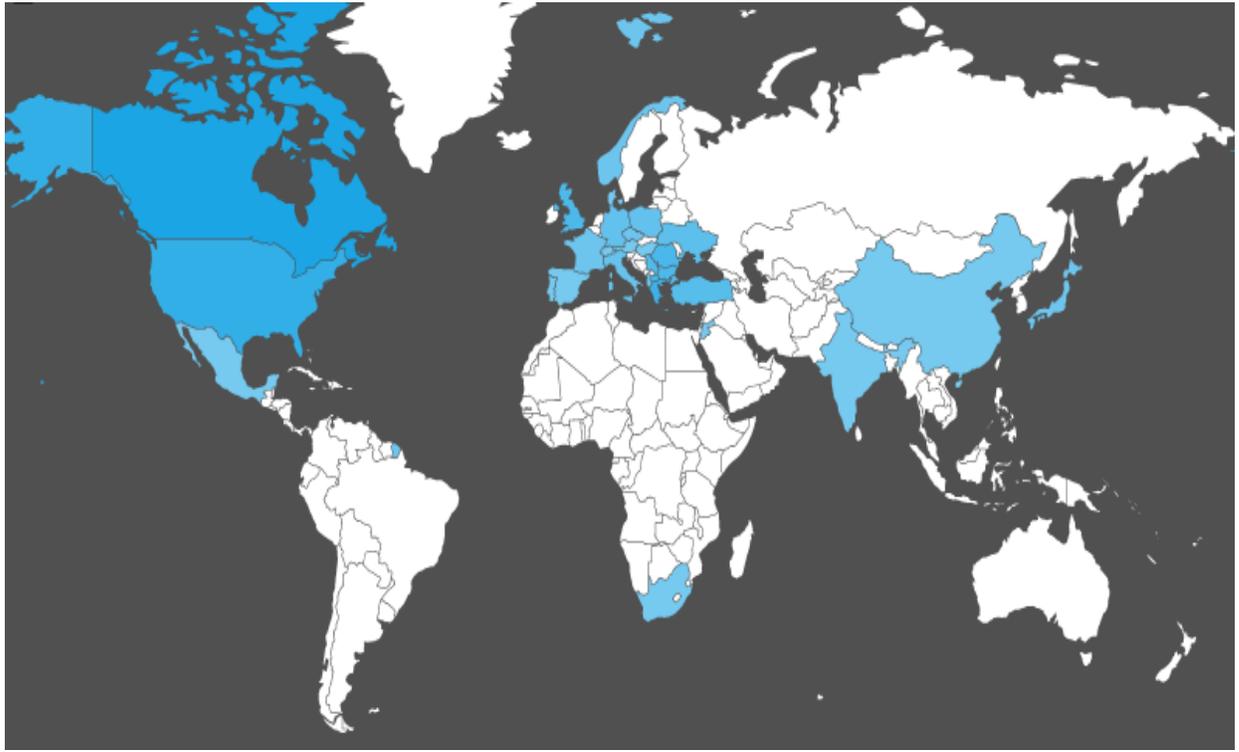
Appendix G: Brand Country of Origin by Country of Publication

Brand Country of Origin	Canada		USA		UK		Italy		TOTAL	
Australia	3	0.2%	-	-	2	0.2%	-	-	5	0.1%
Austria	-	-	-	-	7	0.5%	4	0.2%	11	0.2%
Belgium	-	-	1	0.1%	4	0.3%	3	0.2%	8	0.1%
Canada	328	24.2%	18	1.1%	3	0.2%	3	0.2%	352	5.6%
China	3	0.2%	1	0.1%	-	-	2	0.1%	6	0.1%
Denmark	-	-	2	0.1%	10	0.8%	-	-	12	0.2%
France	92	6.8%	68	4.1%	222	17.1%	218	10.9%	600	9.5%
Germany	47	3.5%	53	3.2%	74	5.7%	75	3.8%	249	4.0%
Great Britain	52	3.8%	78	4.7%	425	32.7%	55	2.8%	610	9.7%
Italy	1	0.1%	11	0.7%	124	9.6%	1251	62.6%	1387	22.0%
Japan	70	5.2%	110	6.7%	57	4.4%	57	2.9%	294	4.7%
Netherlands	-	-	12	0.7%	20	1.5%	10	0.5%	42	0.7%
Norway	-	-	-	-	5	0.4%	3	0.2%	8	0.1%
Russia	-	-	5	0.3%	1	0.1%	-	-	6	0.1%
Singapore	1	0.1%	5	0.3%	3	0.2%	1	0.1%	10	0.2%
South Africa	-	-	3	0.2%	5	0.4%	6	0.3%	14	0.2%
South Korea	7	0.5%	18	1.1%	6	0.5%	5	0.3%	36	0.6%
Spain	-	-	1	0.1%	7	0.5%	9	0.5%	17	0.3%
Sweden	5	0.4%	5	0.3%	9	0.7%	3	0.2%	22	0.3%
Switzerland	54	4.0%	41	2.5%	39	3.0%	79	4.0%	213	3.4%
Taiwan	3	0.2%	-	-	1	0.1%	9	0.5%	13	0.2%
USA	685	50.6%	1213	73.3%	245	18.9%	192	9.6%	2335	37.0%
Total # of advertisements	1354		1298		1354		1997		6303	
# of countries featured	16		25		38		30		46	
Countries/ Regions appearing < 5 times	Bermuda; Mexico	Cuba; Dubai; Finland; Ireland; Israel; Mexico; Thailand	Asia; Brazil; Czech; Dubai; EU; Finland; Georgia; Greece; Hong Kong; Indonesia; Ireland; Israel; Jamaica; Macedonia; Portugal; Qatar; Turkey	Czech; Dubai; EU; Ireland; Jordan; Malaysia; Malta; Monaco; New Zealand; Portugal; Qatar						

Legend:

Bold: Top five industry sectors in each country's publications

Appendix H: Map of Survey Respondents Country Locations



Appendix J: Sources of Survey Question Items

Questions are reproduced here in the original format and organized by subject area. The place-related questions were compiled from general guidance in the PCI literature, insights gained from Phase 2 of this study, and previous studies by the author's supervisor.

Strategic Orientation:

Murtha, T.P., Lenway, S.A., and Bagozzi, R.P. (1998). Global mind-sets and cognitive shift in a complex multinational corporation. *Strategic Management Journal* 19(2), 97–114

As the company globalizes, I believe that the country operations most familiar to me will:

- Respond quickly to countries' requests and needs
- Have flexibility to respond to local conditions.
- Adapt existing products to local markets

Govindarajan, V., and Gupta, A.K. (2001). *The Quest for Global Dominance: Transforming Global Presence into Global Competitive Advantage*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

My company's international orientation is exhibited by the following:

- My company is a leader (rather than a laggard) in my industry in terms of discovering and pursuing emerging market opportunities in all corners of the world
- I perceive my company to possess a universal identity and as a company with many homes, rather than a company with a strong national identity (*separated into three separate questions*)

Nummela, N., Saarenketo, S., and Puumalainen, K. (2004). A global mindset – a prerequisite for successful internationalization? *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 21(1), 51-64

Factor structure of the global mindset:

- The company's management uses a lot of time for planning international operations

Centralization

Kabadayi, S., Eyuboglu, N., and Thomas, G.P. (2007). The performance implications of designing multiple channels to fit with strategy and environment. *Journal of Marketing*, 71(4), 195–211

Centralization (seven-point scale: “strongly disagree/strongly agree”):

- In our distribution organization, even small matters have to be referred to us for a final decision

Homburg, C., Fuerst, A., and Kuehnl, C. (2012). Ensuring international competitiveness: A configurative approach to foreign marketing subsidiaries. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 40, 290–312

Coordination mechanisms:

- Our headquarters provide us with a catalog of rules and procedures (e.g., manuals, handbooks) for local market activities
- To manage/coordinate local market activities, headquarters deploy one or more employee/s to our local subsidiary for a certain period of time

Company's Local Market Environment

De Luca, L.M., and Atuahene-Gima, K. (2007). Market Knowledge Dimensions and Cross-Functional Collaboration: Examining the Different Routes to Product Innovation Performance. *Journal of Marketing*, 71(1), 95–112

Market uncertainty:

- Customer needs and product preferences changed quite rapidly
- It was difficult to predict changes in customer needs and preferences

Homburg, C., Grozdanovic, M., and Klarmann, M. (2007). Responsiveness to customers and competitors: The role of affective and cognitive organizational systems. *Journal of Marketing*, 71(3), 18–38

Competitive intensity:

- Our competitors are relatively strong

Ease of market entry:

- The likelihood of a new competitor being able to establish a strong competitive position in the market within a short span of time is high

Kabadayi, S., Eyuboglu, N., and Thomas, G.P. (2007). The performance implications of designing multiple channels to fit with strategy and environment. *Journal of Marketing*, 71(4), 195–211

Environmental complexity (seven-point scale: “strongly disagree / strongly agree”):

- The number of products/brands sold in our market is very high
- There is a lot of variety in products for sale
- The number of companies competing in our market is very high

Environmental dynamism: Predictability of changes (seven-point scale: “highly unpredictable / highly predictable”):

- Changes in customer preferences and expectations about product features

Local Market Orientation

Albaum, G., Herche, J., Yu, J., Evangelista, F., Murphy, B., and Poon, P. (2007). Differences in marketing managers' decision making styles within the Asia-Pacific region: Implications for strategic alliances. *Journal of Global Management*, 21(1), 63-78

Information valuation:

- I spend what I must to get good market information
- I put a very high value on the availability of market information

Information using:

- Market information is basically useful to verify only what one already knows

Luo, X., Slotegraaf, R.J., and Pan, X. (2006). Cross-functional ‘coopetition’: the simultaneous role of cooperation and competition within firms. *Journal of Marketing*, 70(2), 67–80

Regarding market knowledge, compared to other companies in my industry, my company has a strong position in terms of the expertise in:

- Refining and repositioning existing product/service
- Building brand image among customers

Consumer Ethnocentrism

Shimp, T.A., and Sharma, S. (1987) Consumer ethnocentrism: construction and validation of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24(3), 280-289

- [American] products, first, last, and foremost
- [American] people should always buy [American-made] products instead of imports
- There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity
- It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts [Americans] out of jobs
- [Americans] should not buy foreign products, because this hurts [American] business and causes unemployment
- Curbs should be put on all imports

Homburg, C., Fuerst, A., and Kuehnl, C. (2012). Ensuring international competitiveness: A configurative approach to foreign marketing subsidiaries. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 40, 290–312 (adapted from Shimp and Sharma 1987)

To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements? (from 1=“strongly disagree” to 7=“strongly agree”)

- tend to prefer domestic products over foreign products/services.
- think that foreign products should be subject to significant import duties.
- think that buying foreign products hurts the economy of their home country

Product Strategy

Antia, K.D., Bergen, M.E., Dutta, S., and Fisher, R.J. (2006). How does enforcement deter gray market incidence. *Journal of Marketing*, 70(1), 92–106

Premium positioning:

- Our company is considered a market leader in this category
- Our products have a strong reputation in this market

Homburg, C., Grozdanovic, M., and Klarmann, M. (2007). Responsiveness to customers and competitors: The role of affective and cognitive organizational systems. *Journal of Marketing*, 71(3), 18–38

Customer (competitor) orientation of information generation/analysis/storage:

- We systematically and constantly gather information about our customers (competitors)
- We systematically and regularly analyze information about our customers (competitors)
- We regularly and systematically store and update information about our customers/competitors in the corresponding information systems

Managers' Views/Attitudes

Huff, L.C., and Alden, D.L. (2000). A model of managerial response to sales promotions: a four-country analysis. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 13(3), 7–28

For the brand you manage, how would you rate _____ for achieving the following objectives:

- Motivating customers to switch brands
- Increasing market share
- Increasing brand loyalty
- Enhancing brand image

Using _____ to promote my brand is, or would be:

- | | |
|---------------|-----------|
| ▪ Ineffective | Effective |
| ▪ Unnecessary | Necessary |

Appendix K: Constructs – Measurement Scales

This summary of the scales presented in Chapter 6 includes sources of the items (in parentheses), factor loadings, and Cronbach's alpha scores. The place-related questions were compiled from general guidance in the PCI literature, insights gained from Phase 2 of this study, and previous studies by the author's supervisor.

Items	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's alpha
Market Strategic Orientation (MSO) (Murtha, Lenway, and Bagozzi 1998; Luo, Slotegraaf, and Pan 2006) - focus on delivering customer needs - invests in brand image - expertise in prod positioning - always responds quickly - adapts existing products - is a leader in industry for new markets	 0.74 0.66 0.73 0.70 0.60 0.58	0.76
Attitudes to Market Research (AMR) (Albaum et al. 2007; Homburg, Grozdanovic, and Klarmann 2007) - put a high value on data - regularly analyze customer information - regularly analyze competitor information - spend on good information - regular information sharing between HQ/subsidiaries	 0.53 0.86 0.76 0.76 0.63	0.76
Competitive Intensity (CI) (Homburg, Grozdanovic, and Klarmann 2007; Kabadayi, Eyuboglu, and Thomas 2007) - relatively strong competitors - high number of products - high product variety - many competitors - strict regulations on COO label	 0.58 0.83 0.84 0.80 0.61	0.80
Consumer Attitudes to International Brands – CET (Shimp and Sharma 1987; Homburg, Fuerst, and Kuehnl 2012) - tends to prefer domestic products - thinks buying foreign products hurts local business - thinks there should be tighter import restrictions - believes in importing only goods unavailable locally	 0.75 0.66 0.73 0.70	0.76
Consumer Attitudes to International Brands – GEO (Shimp and Sharma 1987; Homburg, Fuerst, and Kuehnl 2012) - normally buys a lot of foreign products - rates foreign products favourably	 0.68 0.74	0.79

Factor	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's alpha
Brand Strength (BStr) (Antia et al. 2006) - has a strong reputation - is well-established in the local market - is considered a market leader - is not new to the local market	 0.90 0.86 0.81 0.73	0.84
Place-based Sector Reputation (PSR) - Use of PA is relevant in our sector - Use of COO in brand has no impact on sales - Use of PA is quite common among competitors - Our competitors tend to emphasize their COO - Our industry sector is associated with a country	 0.77 0.64 0.81 0.73 0.74	0.84
General Attitudes to Place (GAP) - appropriate for certain types of products - offers competitive advantage - enhances value of brand - offers additional information on product quality - when place reputation is close to brand values - when place reputation is well understood - when place symbols recognized - when PA offers competitive advantage	 0.71 0.73 0.82 0.73 0.65 0.65 0.54 0.58	0.84
Brand-related Attitudes to Place (BAP) (Huff and Alden 2000) - for increasing brand loyalty - for enhancing brand image - for motivating brand switching - for increasing market share - for providing competitive advantage - to support the appeal - to support the execution - is a powerful tool - enhances brand positioning - is effective/necessary - means of differentiation	 0.85 0.87 0.84 0.82 0.86 0.82 0.82 0.86 0.81 0.70 0.71	0.95