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**A LONGITUDINAL EXAMINATION
OF PRODUCT-COUNTRY IMAGES OF CANADA**

by

MIRIAM B. MEHRKENS, B. Comm. (Honours)

A thesis submitted to
the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
in partial fulfilment of
the requirements for the degree of
Master of Management Studies

School of Business
Carleton University
Ottawa, Ontario
October 13, 2000

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Co-Supervisor

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October 13, 2000

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine changes between the late 1980's and the late 1990's in the American, British, French, and German consumers' product-country images of Canada and to compare changes in the Europeans' images to changes in their product-country images of the United States. All images of Canada and its people improved while not all images of the United States improved. Not all images of Canadian products improved, while all images of American products improved. Canadian products were rated poorly on the Market Presence and Behaviour scales. Cross-national differences in images were found. Further, age, travel and, to a certain extent, education were associated with the images held. Images of a country were associated with the beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of a country's products and with the behavioural orientations towards them. Implications for various decisionmakers in business and government are discussed.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank Professors Louise Heslop and Nick Papadopoulos. Without their support and encouragement this thesis would not have been possible. I would also like to express my appreciation to everyone in the School of Business, especially Jean Blair and Bernie Rawlings, who were always very supportive and helpful. Finally, I would like to thank my parents, Ingrid and Gerd, my Aunt Brigitte, my cousin Esther, my friends and all those who supported me along the way. Thank you all!!!

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1. INTRODUCTION

As international borders become more transparent, the Canadian marketplace finds itself inundated with foreign products. This signals to Canadian firms that they can no longer rely on the domestic market. In order to compete, Canadian businesses themselves are intensifying international marketing efforts.

Export-oriented firms must understand foreign consumers' images of Canada, its people and its products before planning successful marketing strategies. Such images are referred to as product-country images and have been found to influence component elements of product purchase decisions.

Product-country images are also of interest to other than consumer markets. Such images may influence a consumer's willingness to visit a country or a business decision maker's international investment decisions. Therefore, an understanding of such images is essential not only for Canadian businesses wishing to export but also for Canadian federal and provincial governments in their efforts to attract foreign investment, to promote travel to their regions, and to promote the success of local businesses abroad.

This study examines the changes in the American, British, French, and German consumers' images of Canada, its people and its products between the late 1980's and late 1990's. The examination of these product-country images involves measuring

consumers' beliefs and feelings, two parts of an image, as well as behavioural orientations. Beliefs, feelings and behavioural orientations are the three components of attitudes. As such, an awareness of attitudes and attitude changes will help in the understanding of product-country images and their changes. The literature on attitudes and attitude changes has, therefore, been drawn upon.

The United States was used as a comparator to Canada of changes in images held by European consumers. Therefore, this study also briefly examines changes in the British, French, and German consumers' images of the United States, its people and its products between the two time periods.

The United States is the chief export destination for Canadian goods, and has remained so over the last ten years. In 1988 approximately 70% of total Canadian exports were destined for the U.S. market (International Monetary Fund 1995). By 1996 this percentage had increased to approximately 80% (International Monetary Fund 1997). The importance of the American market to Canadian exports was the reason for its choice as one of the countries whose consumers' product-country images were examined.

The European Union is Canada's second largest market in terms of exports. This has remained the same over the last ten years, but in 1988 approximately 8% of total Canadian exports were destined for the European Union (International Monetary Fund 1995), while by 1996 the percentage had fallen to approximately 5% (International

Monetary Fund 1997). With the population of the European Union exceeding that of the United States (Colombo 1997), Canadian companies face an export market that might prove as successful as that of the United States.

As three of the European Union's largest countries, in terms of population, Britain, France, and Germany (Colombo 1997) represent three of the key markets for Canadian exporters. Therefore, these countries were chosen as respondent countries for which Canadian product-country images were examined.

By examining the Canadian product-country images held by four different groups of nationals, this study was able to investigate the image consistency among the consumers in these different countries, thereby contributing to the scarce knowledge on cross-national differences in product-country images.

To determine if images held vary across different demographic consumer segments, this study examines the data for significant demographic correlates.

The data used in this research was collected as part of two larger cross-national studies of product-country images by Papadopoulos, Heslop, and associates.

To conclude, the main purpose of this study was to determine if, in absolute terms and relative to the U.S., American, British, French, and German consumer images of Canada,

its people and its products have changed between the late 1980's and late 1990's. From this point on, the images of a country and its people will be referred to as the images of the country, when appropriate, in order to avoid repetition.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Images – Their Purpose and Formation

In order to give meaning to the world around them, consumers perceive their environment by collecting and processing information from it (Sommers et al. 1992). As the information is processed, it becomes knowledge that is organized and stored in long-term memory for later use in decision making. Engel et al. (1995) suggested that the knowledge is organized in the form of an associative network of concepts in long-term memory.

The associative network theory proposes that memory is made up of a series of “nodes” and “links” (Engel et al. 1995). The “nodes” represent “concepts,” and the “links” are the associations between these nodes. These memory structures are brand- or object-based rather than product attribute-based. So, a brand or object is a core node and the other nodes are associated with this through links. The other nodes represent all the concepts associated with the core node. These other nodes, or concepts, can be considered the information associated with the core node, which is the object in question when examining images and attitudes. The information associated with an object can be its physical properties and attributes as well as associated benefits and feelings (Engel et al. 1995). Therefore, a “concept” can represent any of these things. The links between the nodes form the beliefs held by the consumer towards the object around which the

associative network forms (Engel et al. 1995). These beliefs will differ in strength, depending on the association between the two nodes. The holistic view of the network of concepts associated with an object, or the core node, makes up an image. An image is “a concept or impression, created in the minds of the public, of a particular person, institution, product, etc.” (Burchfield 1996, pg. 379).

The objectives of image analysis are: (1) to determine all of the concepts associated with an object, (2) to determine the relative importance of these various concepts in forming an image, and (3) to assess the strength of the associations between the different concepts and the object. This study examines the last of these three objectives, with the objects being Canada as one and Canadian products as another. In doing so, the links between the nodes, i.e., the beliefs associated with the core nodes, have been measured. Therefore, the task was to measure a consumer’s beliefs about the physical properties and the attributes of the object in question. The benefits and feelings associated with the object were also measured. As two of the components of attitudes, beliefs and feelings can be considered the attitude-relevant images in the context of this study. Therefore, the study of attitudes and attitude change is helpful for an understanding of consumer images and their changes.

The first section of the following literature review will focus on the examination of the theory related to attitudes and attitude change. The second section will examine product-country images.

2.2 Attitudes and Attitude Change

What is an Attitude?

An attitude has been variously defined as:

“A learned predisposition to respond to an object or class of objects in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way.” (Sommers et al. 1992)

An “evaluative reaction toward an object, person, institution, or event.”
(Matlin 1992)

“An overall evaluation that can range from extremely positive to extremely negative.” (Engel et al. 1995)

“A predisposition to act in a certain way towards an object or experience. It includes cognitive, behavioural, and affective components.” (Alcock et al. 1997)

These are only a few examples of how an attitude has been defined. As McGuire (1985) pointed out, hundreds of definitions of an attitude exist. In fact, Fishbein and Ajzen (1972 in McGuire 1985) reported finding 500 different operational definitions of attitudes. They also found that “in 70 percent of the 200 studies in which attitude was defined in more than one way, different results were obtained depending on which definition was used” (Fishbein and Ajzen 1972 in McGuire 1985, pg. 239). As McGuire (1985) pointed out, despite theoretical differences in analytical conceptual definitions of an attitude, a widely shared working definition of an attitude does exist. He said that “in most empirical

studies specific attitudes are defined at least implicitly as responses that locate ‘objects of thought’ on ‘dimensions of judgement’ ” (McGuire 1985, pg. 239). These “objects of thought” are the core nodes in the associative network in memory and the “dimensions of judgement” are the other nodes associated with the core node. The working definition of an attitude, however, fails to provide a thorough understanding of what it is. Therefore, details as to what an attitude may be considered are discussed by referring to the first four definitions of attitudes provided in this section.

Attitudes form towards objects, classes of objects, persons, countries, institutions, events and experiences. They are holistic evaluations of an attitude object, ranging from extremely positive to extremely negative. This indicates two things: firstly, attitudes are made up of various components, that, when taken together, form an overall attitude; secondly, these attitudes include an individual’s liking or disliking of the attitude object.

Attitudes can be learned and remain in long-term memory for future use. They help provide “clarity and structure when people are confronted with the blooming, buzzing confusion of the world because they quite simply summarize the basic goodness versus badness of objects, and therefore imply what a person’s approach versus avoidance tendencies should be with regard to those objects” (Zanna and Jamieson 1989, pg. 2).

Attitude Components

Attitudes consist of three components: cognitive, affective and conative (Engel et al. 1995; Alcock et al. 1997). The cognitive component reflects a consumer's knowledge and beliefs about an attitude object. The affective component reflects a consumer's feelings or emotions related to the attitude object. The conative, or behavioural intention, component reflects the associated actions. According to this model, an individual's beliefs, feelings and behavioural intentions are interconnected (Alcock et al. 1997).

Zanna and Rempel (1988) suggested a different view of attitude structure. According to their theory, an attitude is distinct from its components. The cognitive and affective components are seen as determinants of an attitude. Sometimes attitudes will be based on beliefs, while in other instances, they will be based on feelings and emotions. It is also possible that beliefs *and* feelings contribute to the formation of an attitude. This view implies that "a person can have more than one attitude towards the same object" (Alcock et al. 1997). One attitude may be based on beliefs while another, different one is based on feelings.

Zanna and Rempel's (1988) theory differs from the more traditional tripartite model of attitude structure in that behavioural intention, the conative component, is not seen as influencing attitudes. Rather, attitudes will determine behavioural intentions. Finally, behavioural intentions are seen as directly influencing behaviour. In summary, according

to Zanna and Rempel (1988), the cognitive and affective components, either together or separately, form attitudes, which influence behavioural intentions which, in turn, influence behaviour.

The principle of cognitive consistency proposes that individuals want to be consistent in their beliefs and actions (Alcock et al. 1997). Therefore, when there is an inconsistency between strongly held beliefs and/or feelings and related behaviours, then an unpleasant motivational state, known as cognitive dissonance, will result (Matlin 1992; Alcock et al. 1997). Efforts to reduce this dissonance will be made by changing behaviours to make them more consistent with attitudes, or modifying the dissonant cognition, or determining the cognition to be irrelevant (rationalizing it), or supporting the behaviour by adding new consonant cognitions, or downgrading the importance of the dissonant cognition (Alcock et al. 1997).

If an attitude is not strongly held, then self-perception theory, rather than cognitive dissonance theory, may be relevant (Matlin 1992). This theory suggests that individuals are not driven by some need from within to be consistent. Rather, they observe their own behaviour and from this, form their attitudes (Matlin 1992). So behaviours toward the object will lead to beliefs and feelings consistent with the behaviour.

In conclusion, both the theories of cognitive dissonance and self-perception support the principle of cognitive consistency. The former suggests that this consistency results from

efforts to reduce any unpleasant internal motivational state, while the latter suggests that such consistency comes from the development of one's attitudes by examining one's behaviours.

Properties of Attitudes

Attitudes have several properties. Engel et al. (1995) proposed that they were:

(1) valence, (2) extremity, (3) persistence, (4) confidence, and (5) resistance.

(1) Valence suggests that attitudes can be positive, negative, or neutral (Engel et al. 1995). However, Sommers et al. (1992) did not believe that attitudes can be neutral, only favourable or unfavourable.

(2) Extremity, also thought of as intensity, indicates that attitudes can vary in their degree of favourability. Attitudes can range from extremely positive/favourable to extremely negative/unfavourable.

(3) Persistence deals with the resistance to erosion of attitudes with the passage of time.

(4) Confidence points to the fact that individuals may not always be certain that the attitude they hold is correct. Attitudes are held with differing degrees of confidence.

Attitudes based on direct experience are more likely to be held with greater confidence than those derived from indirect experience (Engel et al. 1995).

(5) Resistance suggests that some attitudes are very resistant to change, whereas others are not. Sommers et al. (1992) suggested that the longer an attitude is held, the more resistant to change it becomes. Strong attitudes are also less likely to change (Sommers et al. 1992; Alcock et al. 1997). Krosnick and Abelson (1992 in Alcock et al. 1997) suggested that strong attitudes are extreme, intense, maintained with considerable certainty, perceived as important and supported by knowledge. Krosnick (1989 in Alcock et al. 1997) suggested further that such attitudes are more accessible, i.e. more easily remembered, than weak attitudes. Therefore, the more accessible an attitude is the more resistant to change it becomes. In sum, attitudes that are extreme, intense, maintained with considerable certainty, perceived as important and supported by knowledge become strong attitudes that are more accessible at future dates and also more resistant to change.

Sommers et al. (1992) provided some additional properties of attitudes not mentioned by Engel et al. (1995) but suggested by the definitions of attitudes. According to these, attitudes have an object. They can be general or specific, abstract or concrete. Attitudes can be learned, either through direct or indirect experiences. Finally, Sommers et al. (1992) submitted that attitudes are frequently generalized. This leads to stereotyping, which is discussed in the section on product-country images.

In summary, attitudes form towards objects. They can be learned and based on their direct and/or indirect experiences consumers form positive, negative, or possibly neutral attitudes that vary in their degree of extremity. If held with considerable confidence, consumers' attitudes become more resistant to change and are likely to persist over time. To deal with being bombarded with information from the environment, consumers may generalize held attitudes, leading to stereotyping.

Multiattribute Attitude Models

In examining the attitudes of an individual, it is essential not only to understand the overall attitudes, but also the bases for the attitudes. In the 1960s and 1970s researchers frequently based their analyses of attitudes on the examination of the cognitive (belief) component (Fishbein and Middlestadt 1995). Multiattribute attitude models were used. These models have several common features. Firstly, they view attitudes as being dependent on an individual's beliefs about the attributes or characteristics of an attitude object. These attribute beliefs are the links in the associative network in long-term memory. As such, multiattribute attitude models attempt to determine the beliefs individuals hold toward the attributes of an attitude object. These models also consider the attribute's level of importance to the individual in their evaluation of attitudes.

Several formulations of the multiattribute attitude model exist. Fishbein formulated one such model (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Ajzen and Fishbein 1980). Symbolically, the model states:

$$A_o = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i e_i$$

where

A_o = attitude toward the object,

b_i = the strength of the belief that the object has attribute i ,

e_i = the evaluation (goodness/badness) of attribute i , and

n = the number of salient attributes.

This implies that an attitude is the “summed set of beliefs about the object’s attributes weighted by the evaluation of these attributes” (Blackwell et al. 2001, pg. 291).

The ideal-point model, presented in Blackwell et al. (2001), is another multiattribute attitude model. Symbolically it is:

$$A_b = \sum_{i=1}^n W_i |I_i - X_i|$$

where

A_b = attitude toward the brand,

W_i = the importance of attribute i ,

I_i = the “ideal” performance on attribute i ,

X_i = the belief about the brand’s actual performance on attribute i , and

n = the number of salient attributes.

Although Blackwell et al. (2001) described the model in terms of an evaluation of a brand, the model can be used to determine attitudes towards any number of objects.

This model is different from Fishbein's model in that it accounts for an individual's beliefs about an "ideal" object along with how the actual object rates compared to this. Generally, the Fishbein and ideal-point models measure beliefs in very different manners (Blackwell et al. 2001). Nevertheless, such multiattribute attitude models all attempt to accomplish the same task, determining a consumer's attitudes based on his/her beliefs about the attributes of the attitude object.

Fishbein and Middlestadt (1995) reported that in the 1980s researchers started to move away from the use of multiattribute attitude models in trying to understand how attitudes form and change. This group of researchers argued that the formation of attitudes was based on nonbelief components rather than belief ones. The cognitive component was no longer viewed as key in determining an individual's attitude. Rather, the affective component was viewed as the basis for attitude formation and change. Fishbein and Middlestadt (1995, 1997) argued that such affective-based attitude formation and change theories were based on the use of inappropriate attitudinal predictors. They suggested that an assessment of an individual's belief structure is necessary for a proper understanding of the influence of the nonbelief-based component on attitude formation and change. This argument suggests that in order to fully understand the formation and change of attitudes, it is necessary to examine an individual's beliefs *and* feelings. Edwards (1990), Priester

and Fleming (1997), Miniard and Barone (1997), Schwarz (1997), and Haugtvedt (1997) are among those who support such an idea of a dual processing model of attitude formation and change. Therefore, cognitive beliefs, as well as feelings about the object, in combination form attitudes.

The Formation of Attitudes

There are numerous factors which may influence the formation of attitudes. As suggested by Zanna and Rempel's (1988) theory on the structure of attitudes, beliefs and/or feelings can form an attitude. Knowing this, it is important to understand the contribution that the influencing factor has on the various components of attitude structure. As Edwards (1990) pointed out, "the relative contribution of affect and cognition to an attitude's formation may be associated with particular motivational pressures" (pg. 203).

Attitude formation is a process that begins very early in life. Although historically theorists have discounted the role of genetics in the formation of attitudes, recently researchers have suggested that attitudes do in fact have some genetic basis (e.g. McGuire 1985; Lykken et al. 1993 in Petty et al. 1997; Tesser 1993 in Petty et al. 1997). Petty et al. (1997) suggested, however, that there are several limitations to the research that has been conducted on the role of genetics in the formation of attitudes. Therefore, the results of such studies need to be considered with caution.

Physiological factors have also been found to influence attitude formation. McGuire (1985) indicated that “transitory physiological fluctuations associated with aging, illness, or body chemistry may also affect attitudes” (pg. 253).

Experience, be it direct or indirect, has traditionally been considered one of the key ways by which attitudes form (Petty et al. 1997). Single significant experiences with an object have been found to have a significant influence on the formation of attitudes (McGuire 1985). Mere exposure, with some rare exceptions, has also been found to influence the formation of attitudes. Mere exposure research has suggested that “exposure results in monotonically increasing liking for the object, even when occurring to exhaustive lengths, in a negative context, under low-recognition conditions, and with stimuli only partially similar” (McGuire 1985, pg. 255). Interpersonal contact among strangers has also been found to influence the formation of attitudes (McGuire 1985). Such contact allows a consumer to increase familiarity with another individual’s attitudes, thereby potentially influencing the formation of one’s own attitudes. Through such direct and indirect experiences, consumers learn and form their attitudes (Sommers et al. 1992).

Family and reference groups are social “institutions” that may play a role in the formation of attitudes (McGuire 1985; Sommers et al. 1992). Public institutions and the mass media may also influence the process of attitude formation (McGuire 1985).

Various factors from the environment may influence attitude formation. Since individuals are constantly bombarded with information from the environment, they learn to selectively recognize this information. This is known as selective attention (Sommers et al. 1992). In some cases, the new information influences the formation of new attitudes, while in other cases it influences currently held attitudes and brings about attitude change. In other situations, consumers ignore the information, and their attitudes are not affected. Frequently consumers will ignore information that is not consistent with their attitudes and will only allow information that is consistent with their currently held attitudes into their mind sets. Consumers may also distort information that is inconsistent with their attitudes, as is suggested by the process of selective distortion (Sommers et al. 1992).

An individual may form attitudes based on observation of personal behaviours (Bem 1972 in Matlin 1992). In other words, an individual's actions may help him/her form attitudes towards the action object.

Positive emotions can influence cognitive processes (Isen 1987 in Matlin 1992). When an individual is in a positive mood, s/he is more likely to detect subtle or unusual relationships between the various attributes of an attitude, resulting in the formation of more complex attitude structures.

Predicting Consumer Behaviour

Attitudes and behavioural intentions do not always predict actual behaviour (Sommers et al. 1992; Alcock et al. 1997). In fact, “attitudes often have less an influence on behaviour than we might expect” (Matlin 1992, pg. 569). There are numerous factors that can influence this process. Engel et al. (1995) suggested several of these. They are the effect of time interval, social influences on behaviour, volitional control, the role of direct experience, and attitude accessibility.

Attitudes and behavioural intentions will be better predictors of actual behaviour when the measurement of the attitudes and behavioural intentions occurs close to the time of action. If too much time elapses between assessment and action, then the likelihood of the attitudes and actions matching will decrease. It is possible that attitudes will change over time (Engel et al. 1995). Therefore, the narrower the gap in time between assessment of attitudes and behavioural intentions and the actual behaviour, the greater the likelihood that the first two will predict the second. Unexpected circumstances and situational influences may help explain time-related differences in attitudes and behaviour (Sommers et al. 1992; Engel et al. 1995). Lack of money or unavailability of a product or service are examples of such influencers. When the stimulus situation is ideal, however, attitudes will be better predictors of behaviour (Kleinke 1984 in Matlin 1992).

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, 1980) proposed the theory of reasoned action. According to this, “behaviour is sometimes affected by pressures from the social environment more than by personal attitudes” (Engel et al. 1995, pg. 386). Social influences can sometimes be very strong and result in an action that does not match an individual’s own attitudes. The theory of reasoned action shows that, in some situations, attitudes will influence behavioural intentions which, in turn, influence behaviour. In other cases, the subjective norm, also known as the perceived social influence, will influence behavioural intentions which then influence behaviour. In yet other circumstances, both attitudes and subjective norms will influence behavioural intention.

The third influence suggested by Engel et al. (1995) is volitional control which “represents the degree to which a behaviour can be performed at will” (pg. 388).

Individuals have volitional control over some things but not others. Ajzen’s theory of planned behaviour incorporates this influence into the link between attitudes, behavioural intentions and actual behaviours. Under this theory, perceived behavioural control (“a person’s belief about how easy it would be to perform the behaviour” – Engel et al. 1995, pg. 389), subjective norms and attitudes can individually or jointly influence behavioural intention which then influences actual behaviour. Accordingly, when an individual believes s/he will not be able to perform an action for some reason, s/he will not form a strong related behavioural intention. Even when an individual intends to perform a certain action, this may not always be possible if the action is not under his/her volitional

control. As such, Ajzen's theory suggests that perceived behavioural control can directly predict actual behaviour.

The link between attitudes and behaviour is influenced by direct experience with the attitude object. Attitudes formed based on direct experience are held with greater confidence and, therefore, will be better predictors of behaviour (Engel et al. 1995). Also, when an individual knows a lot about the attitude object, the related attitude will likely be a better predictor of behaviour (Matlin 1992).

Accessibility will also influence the link between attitudes and behaviour. Engel et al. (1995) suggested that accessibility represents "the likelihood that information can be retrieved from memory" (pg. 390). Therefore, the more likely that the information can be retrieved from memory, the more likely it is that the attitudes retrieved will be good predictors of action.

The term "behavioural intentions" seems to suggest that consumer's intentions will necessarily lead to action which, as was seen, does not always happen. It is, therefore, perhaps more useful to replace the term behavioural intentions with that of behavioural orientations. This term more closely reflects the reality that action will not always occur. Rather than necessarily intending on performing an action, consumers will have the orientation to act in a certain manner.

As Papadopoulos (1993) suggested, although attitudes may not lead an individual to immediate action, the importance of attitudes in consumer decision making should not be discounted. Attitudes may be referenced for decisions in some future period, thereby influencing action. Furthermore, one's attitudes may not affect one's own actions but may be communicated to and, as a result, influence another individual's actions.

Attitude Change

The structures of attitudes tend to be stable, and once attitudes have been formed, they usually endure (Sommers et al. 1992). However, numerous studies have shown that attitudes can change over time (e.g. Nagashima 1970, 1977; Dornoff, Tankersley and White 1974; Hampton 1983; Darling and Wood 1990). As Yavas and Alpay (1986 in Darling and Wood 1990) pointed out, "stereotypical attitudes, although enduring, can change over time."

Certain *types* of attitudes are more difficult to change than others. They are considered high in resistance. Abelson (1988 in Matlin 1992) found that individuals exhibiting high-conviction in their attitudes also showed greater stability in those attitudes than individuals low in conviction.

Attitudes based on affect alone will be more difficult to change than the ones based on cognitive dimensions alone (Edwards 1990; Zajonc 1980 in Edwards 1990), because they

will be expressed with greater confidence or conviction. Zajonc (1980 in Edwards 1990) explained why affect-based attitudes are expressed with greater conviction. He said that “affective reactions are experienced as valid” (Zajonc 1980 in Edwards 1990, pg. 213). As he explained it, this simply means that attitudes based on gut feelings (affect) are trusted more than those based on objective data (cognitions). These affect-based attitudes are considered self-referential and, consequently, any information that contradicts the held attitude will be viewed “as a challenge to the self” (Zajonc 1980 in Edwards 1990, pg. 213). A consumer will, therefore, be highly motivated to defend such attitudes against any realization that his/her gut feelings are incorrect, thereby protecting one’s self-esteem.

Sherif and Cantril (1947 in Alcock et al. 1997) and Johnson and Eagly (1989 in Alcock et al. 1997) showed that when attitudes are perceived as important and become reflective of an individual’s values and self-definition, then they are less susceptible to change. As suggested previously, when attitudes are supported by direct experience and concrete, irrefutable knowledge, they are less likely to change. Furthermore, attitudes that are more easily remembered (accessible) are more stable. Hodges and Wilson (1993) showed that individuals with accessible attitudes were more likely to base these attitudes on important thoughts about the attitude object, rather than on temporarily important thoughts. This means that individuals with accessible attitudes will draw on the same information in memory when forming their attitudes at any given point in time, thereby making this information, i.e. these thoughts, important. When attitudes are not accessible, however,

an individual will not always draw on the same information in memory to form their attitudes, thereby making the thoughts used only temporarily important. Since accessible attitudes draw on the same information or thoughts in memory, these attitudes are more likely to remain stable over time.

Understanding How Attitudes Change

At any particular point in time, an individual holds a series of attitudes that are either cognitively based, affectively based, or both cognitively and affectively based. Knowing exactly how an attitude is structured will help determine any changes that occur over time. This is done by comparing the structures of the attitudes at different points in time.

With the passage of time, new information may be learned by a consumer, thereby changing his/her attitudes. This means that the beliefs and/or feelings associated with an attitude may have changed. If the overall beliefs have changed, then it may mean that the number of attributes (i.e. the nodes known as “concepts” in the associative network of memory) of the attitude object considered in the formation of an attitude have increased or decreased and new beliefs have formed. Such a change in overall beliefs may also be the result of increases or decreases in the strength of associations between the attitude object and the attributes. The feelings and emotions associated with an attitude object may have also increased or decreased to bring about an overall change in the attitudes. It may also be possible that an individual’s beliefs change by a certain amount in one

direction and his/her feelings change by the same amount in the other direction, thereby resulting in no overall change in the attitude held. This shows that overall attitude change is a function of changes in its components and structure.

Factors Affecting Attitude Change

A number of factors exist that can influence attitude change. As Eagly and Chaiken (1993 in Konty and Dunham 1997) pointed out, attitudes change as a result of “the processing of new experiences that lead to the assessment that an attitude is incorrect, the accumulation of attitude-inconsistent information, the motivation to hold correct attitudes, the effect of a changed attitude on prior attitudes that are evaluatively linked, and the social influence that significant others hold over an individual with regard to social norms” (pg. 180).

Attitude change may result because of experience. If an individual’s attitudes are based on indirect experience and then they experience an attitude object directly, their attitudes may change.

As pointed out by Konty and Dunham (1997), consumers may also deem their attitudes to be incorrect if they come to realize that they or their components do not match those of the social group with which they associate. The influence of the social norm motivates

the individual to change attitudes or their components to be consistent with the “in” views.

In recent years, the role of the mass media in bringing about attitude change through persuasion has become a topic of considerable discussion. Persuasion is a means of getting individuals to agree with a certain view by appealing to them through rational and/or emotional means. Edwards (1990) and Millar and Millar (1990) discussed the different roles of rational and emotional appeals and which worked better depending on how attitudes were structured and on what basis they were formed. Edwards (1990) suggested that affect-based attitudes are influenced more by affective/emotional means of communication than by cognitive/rational means of communication, while cognition-based attitudes change equally when affective/emotional means or cognitive/rational means of communication are used. Millar and Millar (1990), however, found that cognitive/rational means of communication were more effective than affective/emotional means of communication in changing affect-based attitudes. The significance of the topic of persuasion to researchers in the area of attitudes and attitude change is further exhibited by the reference to the topic in numerous general papers and texts on attitudes and attitude change (e.g. McGuire 1985; Matlin 1992; Petty et al. 1997; Alcock et al. 1997).

The success of persuasive communication efforts in permanently affecting attitudes is a function of the degree to which individuals process the information (in the

communication). According to the Elaboration Likelihood Model, there are two “routes” to persuasion (Alcock et al. 1997), the central and the peripheral.

Individuals are more likely to use the central route when they have the motivation, opportunity, and ability to think about the message. Under the central route, an individual is persuaded because s/he has been stimulated to consider the issues in some detail, i.e. to elaborate on what is presented, and is convinced by the cognitive arguments in the communication. Under such conditions, the attitude change is likely to endure.

Consumers use the peripheral route to persuasion when they are not motivated to elaborate on the arguments presented in the communications or when the communication message is deemed too difficult to understand. Instead they use simple schemata or rules to assess the arguments presented (Chaiken 1980, 1987 in Alcock et al. 1997). These can include “the attractiveness of the source or perceptions about how the majority of the audience is responding to the message” (Alcock et al. 1997, pg. 104). The result of the use of the peripheral route by consumers is that the attitude change is often not permanent. The attitude change that may result will only last as long as the relevant cues are present and obvious (Alcock et al. 1997).

Attitudes, Attitude Change and Consumer Behaviour

A comprehensive model of a consumer's decision-making process has been described by Engel et al. (1995). This model suggests that a consumer's decision-making process is influenced by individual differences, environmental influences, and psychological processes. Attitudes are one of the individual differences, and attitude change is one of the psychological processes in that attitude changes reflect basic psychological influences. As such, attitudes and attitude change can have a direct influence on a consumer's decision-making process and on his/her ultimate behaviour.

Due to the existence of a link between attitudes and images, an image can be seen to have an indirect effect on a consumer's decision-making process and, therefore, on the actions taken by the consumer. Images and attitudes both have belief and feeling components and are, therefore, linked. To further understand the link, it needs to be understood that a consumer's images will form before his/her attitudes do. As Burchfield (1996) said, an image is an impression, created in a person's mind, of a particular object. As the definitions of attitudes provided earlier suggest, attitudes are evaluations of objects or, according to McGuire (1985), "responses that locate 'objects of thought' on 'dimensions of judgement' " (pg. 239). So, first consumers combine their beliefs and feelings about an object in memory to create an impression of that object. This is the image of the object. Then consumers build on their image by evaluating the object, giving direction and strength to the original image. This evaluation also involves a "response," which is the

behavioural orientation. This evaluation of and response to an image object is the attitude towards the object.

Knowing that images lead to attitudes explains how such images can have an indirect effect on a consumer's decision-making process and, therefore, on the consumer's behaviour. Images influence consumer behaviour through attitudes. However, images and attitudes do not always precede consumer behaviour. As described previously, behaviour can sometimes lead to the formation of images and attitudes. In some instances existing images and attitudes may not influence a consumer's behaviour, as was described earlier.

There are numerous types of images that a consumer holds. One of these is the image of a country and its products, known as product-country images. As an image that has the potential to indirectly influence a consumer's actions through his/her attitudes or be influenced by his/her behaviours, it is necessary to examine exactly what a product-country image is. This will be done in the following section.

2.3 Product-Country Images

The image an individual holds of a country and its products is known as a product-country image. This concept is sometimes referred to as a country-of-origin image. Product-country images are used by individuals to "reinforce, create, and bias initial perceptions of products" (Johansson 1993, pg. 78). As suggested by the consumer

decision-making model (Engel et al. 1995), such images influence an individual's evaluation of a product and his/her willingness to purchase it. As such, the country-of-origin of a product represents one of the extrinsic product cues used by consumers in their evaluation of a product (Papadopoulos 1993).

The importance of product-country images to an individual's evaluation of a product and his/her purchase intention has been the subject of some debate (Lim, Darley and Summers 1994). Some researchers (e.g. Erickson, Johansson and Chao 1984; Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka 1985) have found that the effects of product-country images on product evaluations are small and/or not statistically significant. Others (e.g. Nagashima 1977) have established that the product-country image effects are significant. Lim, Darley and Summers (1994) suggested that such differences in the effects of product-country images may result from variations in the types of presentation formats used, the products investigated, and the kinds of dependent measures employed.

In their study, Lim, Darley and Summers (1994) examined the effects of product-country images on various dependent variables. These included buyers' evaluations of perceived quality, product evaluations other than quality, affect, and purchase intention. They found that country-of-origin had the most impact on these dependent variables when it was the only product cue used. It had less of an impact on the dependent variables in multi-cue situations. Nevertheless, in multi-cue situations where the country-of-origin was displayed as part of a formal list of attributes to be considered (explicit multiple cues

format), the country-of-origin information had a greater impact on the dependent variables than when it was embedded in the print advertising (implicit multiple cues format). Lim, Darley and Summers (1994) also found that country-of-origin had the greatest impact on perceived product quality, followed by product evaluations other than quality. Purchase intentions were found to be the least influenced of the dependent variables by the country-of-origin cue. These results show that differences in the effects of product-country image exist and may result from variations in the types of presentation formats used, the products investigated, and the kinds of dependent measures used. Despite differences in effect size, product-country images are considered by many researchers (e.g. Bilkey and Nes 1982; Papadopoulos 1993) to be one of the extrinsic product cues that may be used by consumers in their evaluations of products.

Some of the researchers and practitioners that have discounted the influence of product-country image on an individual's product evaluation and purchase intention have done so because they have confused the concept with the more simplistic one implied by the use of the term "made-in." These researchers and practitioners equate the concept of product-country image with that of made-in labels alone. They believe that the product-country image concept consists only of the use of a made-in label affixed to consumer products, an oversimplified conceptualization. If the marketer feels that a product-country image can aid in marketing the product, cues of its country-of-origin may be embedded not only in the made-in label but also directly or indirectly in the brand name or producer's

company name, in the packaging of the product, in the related promotions and in the advertising copy or symbols.

The product-country image concept suggests that a relationship exists between the image of a country-of-origin of a product and the image of the product, and that such images influence a consumer's purchasing behaviour. The product-country image concept does not mean that "products" represent goods and services only. As Papadopoulos (1993) suggested, "products" also include countries as destinations for tourism and locations for foreign investment.

Understanding the Measurement of Product-Country Images

To understand product-country images, it is first necessary to understand the parts of the product-country image concept in order to determine the different images that need to be measured.

Product-country images are made up of two image parts, the images of a country and its people and the images of products from that country. Most researchers studying product-country images focus on the images of products made in a country (e.g. Nagashima 1970, 1977; Banister and Saunders 1978; Cattin, Jolibert and Lohnes 1982; Han 1989). When such researchers do consider country image, they often describe and measure it based on

the products of the country being examined, as pointed out by Li, Fu and Murray (1997). In essence, they are still examining product images and not country images.

Wang and Lamb (1980, 1983) were among the first group of researchers to break away from such a practice. They determined that foreign environmental factors have an influence on a consumer's evaluation of a foreign product. Therefore, in examining the contribution of country image to the image of a country's products, they measured country image in terms of economic, political, and cultural dimensions rather than in terms of products from the country. One drawback to the study was that it only examined the images of an American sample population, thereby limiting the generalizability of the findings.

Papadopoulos and Heslop were among the few groups of researchers who chose not to focus simply on the images of products made in a country when studying product-country images. In their first multi-country study (1985-1987), they examined the images of five countries, their people and their products that were held by consumers from eight countries. In doing this, they suggested that not only a consumer's image of a country but also his/her image of a country's people would influence the consumer's image of products from the country. Like Wang and Lamb (1980, 1983), Papadopoulos and Heslop measured country images on other dimensions in addition to those associated with products from the country. Specifically, they discovered three dimensions in the country and people images measured: belief, affect, and link (Heslop and Papadopoulos 1993).

The variables making up the belief dimension were found to be: “managing the economy well,” “technically advanced,” and “industriousness.” The affect dimension consisted of: “role in world politics,” “taste,” “trustworthiness,” and “likeability.” The link dimension included: “more investment” and “closer ties.” In addition to examining images of the country itself and its people, Papadopoulos and Heslop examined consumer’s images of the products from these countries. They discovered four dimensions in the product images measured: product integrity, price/value, market presence, and response (Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy 1990). The variables making up the product integrity dimension were: “technically advanced,” “innovative,” “workmanship,” “quality,” “reliability,” “performance,” and “service.” “Inexpensive” and “reasonable price” made up the price/value dimension. The market presence dimension was comprised of: “model/size choice,” “recognizable brands,” “advertising level,” and “easy to find.” The response dimension included: “know,” “buy,” “proud,” and “satisfied.”

Martin and Eroglu (1993 in Li, Fu and Murray 1997) pointed out fairly recently again the need to examine country images within the product-country image framework by making the object of the image a country, rather than a product. Their research suggested that country image has three dimensions: political, economic and technological. These are very similar to those suggested by Wang and Lamb (1980, 1983). Li, Fu and Murray (1997) used the dimensions found as important by Martin and Eroglu in 1993 in their study. They examined the country images of Chinese respondents, their product images

and the link between these two parts of product-country image. They discovered that the Chinese consumers had different images of the United States, Japan, and China and different images of products from these countries. They also found that the country image dimensions proposed by Martin and Eroglu in 1993 provided different insights into a consumers' image of a country than had country images based on product attributes been used.

There have been a few groups of researchers who have examined consumers' images of countries without examining the impact of these images on the images of products from such countries (e.g. Wish, Deutsch and Biener 1970; Forgas and O'Driscoll 1984). Wish, Deutsch and Biener (1970) found that "political alignment and ideology," "economic development," "geography and population," and "culture and race" of a country would influence a consumer's country image. It was found that economic development was more important for individuals from developed countries, whereas political alignment was more important for individuals from underdeveloped countries. Forgas and O'Driscoll (1984) discovered three dimensions used by consumers in forming their country images. These were called: "European/non-European," "communism/capitalism," and "development." Forgas and O'Driscoll (1984) found, however, that the consumers from the two countries sampled did not define these dimensions similarly and the relative use of the different dimensions varied.

A thorough product-country image study requires the examination of the images of a country's products *and* the images of the country itself and its people. Such a study would also show the existence of a relationship between the parts of a product-country image. Han (1989), Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993), and Li, Fu and Murray (1997) are some of the researchers who have theorized about the existence of a relationship between the images of a country's products and the images of the country itself. Han (1989) suggested the possibility that individuals use halo and summary constructs in forming their product-country images. The halo construct suggests that when a consumer is unfamiliar with a country's products, the image of the country will be used to judge the product's attributes, thereby influencing the image of the product. The summary construct suggests that when an individual is familiar with a country's products but not with the country itself, the individual's beliefs about the product attributes will be summarized to create a country image that is associated with other products. In considering the significance of such relationships, it needs to be remembered that in conducting his research, Han (1989) considered country image to be based on the products of a country. This explains why Han believed that country image was to be measured as an individual's belief about the ability of a country to produce a particular product. This does not reflect the true country image as was described above. In addition to this, Han made an assumption about the respondents' knowledge of a country's products, rather than obtaining such information directly from the respondents. Despite these limitations, many researchers have found Han's theory intuitively appealing.

From their eight country study of product-country images conducted a little over ten years ago, Papadopoulos and Heslop found that the data suggested the existence of a relationship between country images and product images. Li, Fu and Murray's (1997) theorization about the existence of a relationship between the images of a country's products and the images of the country itself led them to test the relationship between product images and country images. They found that a consumer's product image would help him/her form a related country image when little was known about the country, supporting Han's (1989) summary construct. Han's halo construct was, however, not supported outright. Li, Fu and Murray (1997) found that a consumer's country image could influence the country's product image but the relationship was moderated by the consumer's familiarity with the country in question. They found that when an individual was more familiar with a country, the effects of country image on product image would be stronger.

An understanding of an individual's product-country images involves the measurement of his/her beliefs, feelings, and behavioural orientations towards a country and its people, as well as to its products. Of these three components of attitudes, numerous researchers have focussed on the beliefs in trying to understand the images of a country and its products and have ignored the other components. This practice may stem from the use of Fishbein's multiattribute attitude model to understand attitudes and, therefore, images.

As Li and Dant (1997) pointed out, many product-country image studies focus on the measurement of an individual's beliefs about the quality of a foreign product. Some of these studies examine general quality dimensions, such as workmanship, while others measure product-specific attributes (Li and Dant 1997). A common set of measurements of quality does not, however, appear to be used. Li and Dant (1997) argued that a common set of measurements of quality is needed for theory building and generalization across product-country image studies. They determined that, with a few minor adjustments, Garvin's taxonomy (1984 in Li and Dant 1997) provides a comprehensive set of measurements of product quality. According to Garvin, beliefs about product quality should be assessed using the following dimensions: performance, serviceability, reliability, durability, aesthetics, conformance of product design and operating characteristics to pre-determined standards, features, and image. Each of these dimensions reflects not just the quality dimensions used by other product-country image researchers but also several other areas that had been "overlooked" or "under-studied" in previous studies (Li and Dant 1997).

Although having a common set of dimensions to examine an individual's beliefs about a product's quality could prove quite useful to product-country image researchers, images of a country and its people and its products are not just made up of beliefs about the quality of the product in question. First of all, such a notion ignores the fact that product-country images are made up of images of a country's products *and* images of the country itself. Secondly, when speaking of images of products, researchers may want to examine

beliefs other than of quality. Thirdly, in the context of product images, consumer beliefs *and* their feelings *and* their behavioural orientations should be measured to determine the attitude-relevant images (beliefs and feelings) and behavioural orientations of the individual. Examining all three components is essential since, as Edwards (1990) pointed out, attitudes and, therefore, images do not form from beliefs alone.

Other researchers, such as Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993) and Lim, Darley and Summers (1994), have measured aspects of an individual's beliefs, feelings and behavioural orientations to determine a consumer's product-country images.

Under the direction of a group of researchers at Carleton University, the IKON Research Group developed a comprehensive product-country image model. The model suggests that product-country images are made up of two image parts, namely the images of products from a particular country and the images of the country and its people.

Furthermore, the model shows that each of the image parts is made up of beliefs, feelings and behavioural orientations. It must be noted that the measurements of product beliefs capture all of the dimensions proposed by Garvin (1984 in Li and Dant 1997) and Li and Dant (1997). The model reflects the idea that in order to understand the product and country images, the beliefs, feelings and behavioural orientations towards the image objects need to be determined.

Factors Influencing the Formation of Product-Country Images

In the previous section on attitudes and attitude change, several factors influencing the formation of attitudes were discussed. The formation of a consumer's image towards a country and its products will be influenced by these very factors because of the shared components of attitudes and images, i.e., beliefs and feelings. Nevertheless, there are several factors that influence the formation of product-country attitudes and images that require mentioning.

Product-country images may be formed through the education process, reports in the news media (Perry 1990), travel experiences (Papadopoulos and Heslop 1986), interaction with other individuals who have their own views about countries and who may have traveled to or lived in foreign countries, as well as through personal experiences with products from foreign countries. Stereotyping may also influence the formation of product-country images.

Perry (1990) found that news media can have an influence on the formation of country attitudes. He stated that the use of news media generally leads to greater knowledge and more favourable attitudes towards a country. Specifically, a reciprocal, indirectly causal relationship was found to exist between increased consumption of news media and more favourable attitudes towards the countries discussed in the news media, with enhanced knowledge as a mediator. Perry (1990) suggested this is so because the more world news

a person consumes, the more likely the coverage will give a balanced description of a country. Therefore, the more an individual consumes news media, the more likely positive attitudes will form towards a country.

Images of a country may also form as a result of travel. Papadopoulos and Heslop (1986) did not find that general product evaluations were directly related to travel. On the other hand, product-specific preferences held by consumers were determined to be significantly different between people who had or had not been to the product's origin country. Sometimes the effects were positive and sometimes they were negative.

In forming images of a country and its products, a consumer filters through and combines information from the environment. Since more information is thrust on society every day, consumers need to find a way to organize the information so that they do not experience information overload while forming their images. Stereotyping helps this organization and filtering process.

Matlin (1992) defined a stereotype as "a structured set of beliefs about the way a group of people think and act" (pg. 588). Alcock et al. (1997) described it as "the perception of a group based on overgeneralized characteristics" (pg. 144). These definitions point to the fact that an individual only allows certain pieces of information into his/her cognitive set when forming an image to prevent information overload. However, this selection process can result in an overgeneralized image, i.e. a stereotype. As Matlin (1992) pointed out,

such stereotypes guide the way consumers cognitively process information. As the “number and scope of observations increases, the stereotype will move closer to ‘objective reality’” (Papadopoulos 1993, pg. 6). For example, travel to a country allows one to directly experience it and, if appropriate, to reassess the country and its products, perhaps resulting in the existing stereotype moving closer to “objective reality.” In other words, travel helps reduce the difference between “perceived reality” and “intrinsic reality,” as found by Papadopoulos and Heslop (1986).

Product-Country Image Correlates

Research has shown that a number of demographic correlates can moderate an individual's product-country image.

Numerous researchers have examined demographic differences in consumer product and country evaluations (e.g. Schooler 1971; Dornoff, Tankersley and White 1974; Forgas and O'Driscoll 1984; Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka 1985; Heslop, Liefeld and Wall 1988; Wall, Liefeld and Heslop 1989; Heslop, Liefeld, Wall and Papadopoulos 1993; Liefeld, Heslop, and Wall 1994). The demographics most frequently examined have been gender, age, education, occupation, and income.

Heslop and Wall (1985, 1986) and Wall, Heslop and Hofstra (1988) considered the impact of gender on country-of-origin images in some detail. From their studies they

found that overall product-country ratings differed depending on sex. They also found that, when forming such images, men and women referred to different types of consumer items. Schooler (1971) also found gender differences. He found that women rated foreign products significantly higher than men. Dornoff, Tankersley and White (1974) and Li, Fu and Murray (1997), however, did not find gender differences in country and product ratings.

Such debate also exists when it comes to other demographics. Although Forgas and O'Driscoll (1984) found a strong relationship between demographic variables and nation perception style; others found little or no impact. Some researchers, such as Schooler (1971), found that younger people were more likely to evaluate foreign products more favourably than older people. However, Tongberg (1972 in Bilkey and Nes 1982), found the exact opposite.

From the various studies having examined demographic impacts, it appears that no conclusive judgements can be made as to whether men or women, or younger or older individuals, for example, consistently view foreign products more favourably.

Multi-Country Research

Multi-country product-country image research has not received as much attention as some other areas of interest in the product-country image field. Nevertheless, several

significant studies have been undertaken. As Bilkey and Nes (1982) pointed out, the research has shown that consumers from different countries evaluate products from other countries differently.

Cattin, Jolibert and Lohnes (1982) conducted a multi-country study of the product-country images of five countries held by industrial buyers in two countries. Their study was different from most other multi-country product-country image studies in that they did not focus on consumers' images. Although some similarities were found in the product-country images of the respondents from the two countries, a number of differences were also detected. American and French industrial buyers both rated the 'made in West Germany' concept most favourably of the five made-in concepts measured. They rated the 'made in France' and 'made in England' concepts least favourably of all the made-in concepts examined. This, however, is where the similarities in evaluation ended. For example, although the 'made in West Germany' concept was rated most favourably of all the made-in concepts examined, the French purchasing managers did not view the concept as favourably as the American purchasing managers did. A difference in the degree of favourableness of the 'made in England' concept was also detected. 'Made in England' was perceived as more favourable by the French respondents than by the American respondents.

Papadopoulos and Heslop's first multi-country study (1985-1987) examined consumer images by measuring beliefs, feelings and behavioural orientations of consumers from

eight countries towards five countries, their people and their products. They found that only Japanese products were generally rated equally highly overall and for most attributes by the consumers of the eight countries. Otherwise, differences were found in the images of countries and their products on the various attributes by the various nationals. Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993) determined, however, that despite differences across the cultures in evaluations of the various countries and their products, four product and three country dimensions were used by all the consumers, as was described previously. These dimensions represent the most important features used by consumers in their evaluations of different countries and their products.

Ahmed and d'Astous (1993) also examined product-country images across multiple countries. They found that differences between countries in product-country images do exist. However, this study, as others in the field, was not as extensive as the one conducted by Papadopoulos and Heslop.

Home Country Images

The previous sections have dealt with product-country images when the product is of foreign source. However, domestic product consumption may also be affected by perceptions of the home country. Bilkey and Nes (1982) pointed out that consumers tend to evaluate products from their own country relatively more favourably than foreigners do. This may reflect the tendency for consumers to be patriotic. Nagashima (1970), Wall

and Heslop (1986), and Han (1988) found that consumers tend to evaluate domestic products more favourably than imported products, displaying patriotic tendencies. In fact, Wall and Heslop (1986) found that almost half of those Canadians surveyed reported a willingness to pay more for domestic products if the quality were equal to that of imports. As Han (1988) found, however, patriotism appears to be product specific, and a consumer's attitude towards home country products does not necessarily influence their purchase decisions.

Bannister and Saunders (1978), Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983), and Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993) pointed out that not all domestic products are favoured and domestic products are not favoured by all consumers. In fact, consumers often state preferences for foreign over domestic products. Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993) found that only the Germans and the French exhibited patriotic tendencies. The nationalistic tendencies of the French were also found to exist by Baumgartner and Jolibert (1977).

When consumers indicate patriotic tendencies, it is often the case that the main benefits for buying domestic are non-personal. The strength of nationalism of the people involved, the level of industrialization and market development of the home country, and the perceived economic vulnerability faced by the home country are all considered to be factors that influence a consumer's decision to buy domestic (Papadopoulos, Heslop and Bamossy 1990; Heslop and Papadopoulos 1993). These factors compete against each other in a consumer's mind. Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993) suggested that when

nationalism is strong, the level of industrialization high, the level of market development low, and the economy vulnerable, then consumers are more likely to buy domestic products. When these conditions are not met, however, consumers are just as likely to buy foreign goods.

Product-Country Image Change

Although considerable research has been done in the area of attitude and, therefore, image change in the field of social psychology, very little research exists with regards to changes in product-country images. Nagashima (1970, 1977), Dornoff, Tankersley and White (1974), Darling and Wood (1990) and Szamosi (1995) are some of the few researchers who have conducted research into the changes in product-country images. Their research demonstrates that consumer attitudes and, therefore, images can change over time.

Nagashima (1970, 1977), through the use of replicated research, found that attitudes of Japanese businessmen towards American products changed between 1967 and 1975. The overall views of American and British products had declined, but views of German and domestic products had improved. The image of products from France, however, had not changed much.

Dornoff, Tankersley and White (1974) conducted a study of American consumers' perceptions of imports from France, Germany, and Japan. They based the development of their questionnaire on one used by Reiersen (1967). The results of the study were then compared to those found by Reiersen. Doing so suggested that the perceptions of imports had changed. In 1967 Reiersen found that American products were ranked first and Japanese products last in all product classes. Seven years later, Dornoff, Tankersley and White (1974) found that foreign products had become more competitive with American products in terms of quality. In some product classes foreign products were even rated as superior to American products.

Darling and Wood (1990) conducted a longitudinal study that examined the images of a sample of Finnish consumers concerning Japanese and American products, marketing practices and purchase preferences of products from those countries. They studied these issues in 1975, 1980, and 1985. This is a unique element of their study since very few of the longitudinal studies that exist examine changes between more than two time periods.

Darling and Wood concluded that perceptions do change over time. They found that the Finnish viewed Japanese products less favourably than American products in 1975 and 1980. Between 1980 and 1985, however, these perceptions changed substantially. By 1985 American products were viewed less favourably than Japanese products. Overall, views of Japanese products were found to be more favourable than American products by 1985. The marketing practices of the Japanese were viewed consistently more favourably

than the American marketing practices by the Finnish at all three time periods. It should be mentioned that the views of the American marketing practices also improved over the ten years. The effect was simply not as strong as that for the Japanese. As for purchase preferences, it was found that the Finnish liked the Japanese and American products equally in 1975. In 1980, U.S. products were preferred, but by 1985 Japanese products were preferred. In summary, the researchers found that perceptions of American products and marketing practices had improved over the ten year span. However, the perceptions of Japanese products and marketing practices had improved by a greater amount.

The above three studies all focused on changes in images of foreign *products*. Szamosi (1995), on the other hand, examined changes in Canadians' images of East European products *and* countries. Despite the short time frame (1990-1992) for examining such changes, Szamosi found that Canadians' images of East European countries had improved. The images of East European products did not, however, change.

Numerous factors can affect changes in product-country images. Some of these include consumption of news media, exposure to communication media and travel to a country. The effects of these factors may be on an individual level or on a global level. In other words, some of these factors may only influence an individual's images while others may influence the sample's images. Consumption of news media and exposure to communication media have the potential of changing images on a global level. This is because such forms of communication speak to the general public and a relatively large

number of consumers in the respondent country are reached by such efforts. Therefore, if any major event occurs in a country or a company produces a general communication campaign, then the effects of such events bringing about attitude and image change are more likely to be global. Travel, on the other hand, is considered to be an image change factor that impacts the individual. Because the general population has not visited the particular country, this implies that the change effect cannot be a global one.

For any factor that has the potential of changing a consumer's images, it needs to be determined what the factor will affect, the individual or the population. This is important because in understanding the general populations' images and any changes in these images that may occur, one must give more weight to factors affecting global changes.

Perry (1990) found that the coverage of certain negative events, such as natural disasters leads to audience sympathy. Such coverage may help bring about attitude change towards foreign nations and their products.

Potential attitude change is dependent on the fact that countries actually receive coverage in the news media. Where coverage occurs and attracts consumers' attention, attitudes may change if enough attitude-inconsistent information is taken into the cognitive set.

The effects of various communication media on attitudes towards a country's products were discussed by Reiersen (1967). Exposure through promotion or communication

efforts was found to help bring about attitude change towards a foreign country's products. It was discovered that consumers exposed to certain types of communication media (e.g. films, periodical advertising, publications and merchandise displays) had significantly different foreign product images than those who had not been exposed to such media. Reiersen points out, however, that if the attitude toward the foreign country's product is strongly held, the consumer may not be open to new ideas. If the attitude is not strongly held, then it was found that the consumer's attitude could be made significantly more favourable even by slight exposure to promotional devices.

Summary

A product-country image is the image a consumer has of a product based on his/her image of its country of origin. Product-country images are one of the extrinsic cues consumers may use in their evaluation of products. To gain an understanding of these images, it is necessary to measure the beliefs, feelings and behavioural orientations of consumers towards a country and its people *and* its products. It is also necessary to examine how a consumer's product and country images relate.

In forming their images of a country, its people and its products, a consumer may be influenced by a number of factors. Stereotyping is one such factor. It allows the individual to overgeneralize his/her images in an attempt to deal with excessive amounts of information in the environment. Other factors that influence the formation of product-

country images are, for example, the influence of social groups, exposure to news media and personal experiences with a country and its products. These factors may also influence changes in these images. Knowing that attitudes are dynamic should indicate to business people operating in an international environment that it is necessary to keep track of changes in consumers' images. Business people also have to be aware of the fact that cross-national research in the area of product-country images has shown that images of countries and their products are not consistent across different groups of nationals.

3. BACKGROUND

The main goal of this study was to examine changes in Canadian product-country images between the late 1980's and late 1990's by American, British, French, and German respondents, and to compare changes in the European respondents' images of Canada and its products with changes in their images of the United States and its products. As discussed, measurement of attitude-relevant images (beliefs and feelings) and behavioural orientations were utilized.

This study is based on two multi-country studies conducted by Papadopoulos, Heslop, and colleagues in the late 1980's and late 1990's. Findings on the Canadian and American product-country images in the first study period have been published. Therefore, a review of these findings is necessary to provide a preliminary understanding of Canadian and American product-country images in the late 1980's. This is provided in the first section, below.

The second section briefly examines some of the developments in economic and political relations between Canada and the United States and Canada and Europe between the late 1980's and late 1990's, specifically between 1987 and 1997. These two years were chosen since these are the ones in which the data used in this study were collected. Understanding these developments may be useful in explaining why Canadian

product-country images and attitudes held by the respondent groups changed between the two time periods.

3.1 Canadian and American Product-Country Images in the Late 1980's

The original multi-country study of product-country images (e.g. Papadopoulos, Heslop, Graby and Avlonitis 1986, 1987; Papadopoulos et al. 1987a; Papadopoulos and Heslop 1989; Papadopoulos, Heslop and Bamossy 1990, 1994) was the first work on foreign images of Canada. The *overall* image of Canadian products was found to be fairly positive. However, when foreigners *ranked* Canadian products relative to the other industrialized countries' products examined, Canadian products did not fair all that well, receiving low ratings on most of the dimensions ("product integrity," "price/value," "market presence," and "response") relative to the other countries' products. The products were ranked last on "product integrity," alone or in a tie with British and/or American products, by the Americans, British, French, and Germans. However, British, French, and German consumers rated Canadian products higher than American and/or Swedish products and equally with domestic products on the "price/value" dimension. The Americans rated Canadian products significantly higher than domestic, Swedish, and British goods on this dimension. This indicates that foreign consumers viewed Canadian products as inexpensive, but of lesser quality, relative to the other countries rated.

The exposure of Canadian goods abroad has not been substantial. Canadian products are ranked higher than or equal to products from Sweden and Great Britain, but significantly lower than those from the United States and Japan, on “market presence” and “response.”

Interestingly, although Canada was not *ranked* highly on some dimensions, its rating *scores* (absolute mean values on the scales) were relatively stronger. On “product integrity,” for instance, the scores were not as low as the rankings would suggest and were, in fact, higher on this dimension than on the other three dimensions. The British, French, and German consumers, however, were found to give uniformly “average” ratings to Canadian goods on almost all the variables examined. For the summary variables, the American consumers generally gave higher mean ratings to domestic and/or Japanese products than to Canadian goods.

When examining the images of Canada, more favourable images became apparent. When respondents were asked about their desire for their home country to have stronger economic and other ties with each of five countries including Canada, Canada scored well and significantly higher than other countries. On the scale “likeable/not likeable people,” Canada was ranked first or second in most cases, sometimes tying with the respondent’s home country. Germany, however, ranked Canadians as fourth, out of five, on trustworthiness, with the Americans being rated lowest on this scale. Despite this low *ranking*, the *scores* on this scale were higher.

On technological advancement, economic strength, and global political role, Canada did not *rank* well. In all, however, Canada was viewed quite positively by the foreigners, especially when compared with their product rankings.

It is interesting to note that despite knowing very little about Canadian products, the foreigners still gave fairly high mean scores to Canadian products. The halo effect may explain this phenomenon.

Despite several differences among the foreign consumers' images of Canada and its products, consistency across the countries in the dimensions used to form images was very strong.

In summary, although Canadian products did not rank well relative to the other industrialized countries examined, Canadian product's absolute mean scores on the dimensions examined were around the mid-point of the seven-point scale. The overall images of Canada were found to be quite positive. The people were seen to be industrious, likeable, and trustworthy.

In comparison, the British, French, and German consumers *ranked* the American products as third of the five countries' products overall. Japanese products were ranked as first by the British. The French and the Germans ranked their own country's products as first, perhaps reflecting stronger patriotism or nationalism, and the Japanese products as

second. The position of American products reflects the findings of Nagashima (1970, 1977) and Darling and Wood (1990), that the images of American products had fallen relative to images of Japanese products among a variety of consumers.

Examining some of the product dimensions, it was found that on the “product integrity” dimension, the British and French viewed their products as equal to American products. The Germans, however, gave the same low rating to the American products on “product integrity” as they gave to the Canadian products. On the “price/value” dimension the British viewed the American products as being equal to their own. The French and the Germans, however, rated the American products as last on this dimension. The American products were rated as very close to domestic goods on “market presence” by the British and the Germans, but not by the French. As for the “response” dimension, the British and the Germans ranked American products as third. They were more likely to buy products from the home country or Japan than from the United States. The French ranked the U.S. and Japan as equal after the home country on the “response” dimensions.

In all, American products were highly regarded by the French. The French were positive about the reliability, quality, and performance of American products, yet they were less proud to own these goods than the British. In general, however, the British viewed American products less positively.

Although the research published by Papadopoulos, Heslop, and colleagues describes the findings on the images of Canadian products *and* on Canada, concerning the U.S. it focused on the images of products and not on the country. Aside from suggesting that the Germans view the Americans as less trustworthy than the Canadians, ranking them fifth out five on this dimension, little else was provided in the published works on images of the United States.

3.2 Recent Events in Canadian Relations with the United States and Europe

Canada's political and economic ties with the United States have been quite strong for some time and appear to have strengthened even more over the period 1987-1997. The signing of the Free Trade Agreement (FTA) between Canada and the United States in 1989 was the first step in strengthening these relations, followed by the signing of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) by Canada, the United States, and Mexico in 1994. Among other things, these treaties allowed for the easier flow of goods between the countries involved and may have resulted in Canada sending an ever increasing percentage of its total exports to the United States (see Appendix A). With more goods entering the American market from Canada, American consumers may have experienced greater exposure to Canada, its people and its products than they had previously. The increased exports to the United States may have resulted in increased knowledge of Canadian products on the part of the American consumers. The impact of the increase in exports on product-country images must, however, be considered in the

context of the types of goods exported. As shown in Appendix B, the types of goods exported to the United States did not change substantially between 1987 and 1997.

Canada appears to have exported a mix of natural resources and industrial, commercial, and consumer products, either parts thereof or finished products, to the United States. The amount of industrial, commercial, and consumer products exported in 1997 has increased slightly in comparison to natural resources. With most of the Canadian exports not easily recognizable in the consumer market, American consumers' knowledge of Canadian products may not have improved.

Canadian travel to the United States and American travel to Canada are other factors that may have had the potential to influence changes in American consumers' Canadian product-country images. Over the period 1987-1996, travel by Canadians to the United States, staying one or more nights, increased by 24.9% (see Appendix C). In 1996, trips to the United States, staying one or more nights, accounted for 80.6% of all trips taken by Canadians (see Appendix C), making the United States Canadians' favourite travel destination. Exposure by Americans to these Canadian visitors may have influenced them to become more interested in Canada and pay more attention to Canadian products, thereby influencing their images of Canada and its products.

Travel by Americans to Canada may also have influenced changes in Canadian product-country images. As shown in Appendix D, however, the number of Americans visiting Canada for one or more nights did not change much between 1987 and 1996. Without

greater exposure to Canada and its products through travel to the country, any changes that were found to have occurred in American consumers' images will have to be explained by factors other than travel to Canada.

From a political perspective, Canada's opposition to the application of the American Helms-Burton Act to territories outside of the United States may have influenced American consumers' images of Canada negatively. With Canada not willing to stand behind the United States in their refusal to do business with Cuba, American consumers' may have begun to view Canadians as disloyal and/or not trustworthy.

Canadian relations with the European Union are not as well established as those with the United States. The formal relationship that does exist between Canada and the European Union is based on the 1976 Framework Agreement, the 1990 Transatlantic Declaration, to build more political and cultural links, and the Program for Co-operation in Higher Education and Training, involving Canadian and European universities.

Canada and the EU hold annual summits to build stronger links and solve problems that may exist between them. The December 1997 summit was, however, basically ignored by the media on both sides of the Atlantic, while the Conference on a Global Ban on Landmines, held in Ottawa also in December 1997, received considerable media attention. Canada's role in the banning of landmines may have had a positive effect on the respondent groups' images of Canada. Specifically, there may have been

improvements in the respondent groups' beliefs about Canada's role in world politics as well as in their feelings about how likeable and trustworthy Canadians are. Canada's role in the banning of landmines may also have resulted in increased desires of the respondent groups to have closer ties with Canada.

However, media attention on Canada – EU relations arises often from conflicts such as the Canadian-Spanish “Fish War” in March 1995 or such disputes as the treatment of lumber, fur and animal welfare, growth hormones in beef, genetically altered canola, the appellation of wines, etc., possibly resulting in less positive images of Canada and in less desires for ties with the country.

The specific Canadian product-country images held by German consumers may have been influenced by the fact that after the end of the Cold War in 1989, the Canadian military presence in Germany and throughout Europe was no longer needed. Canadian military bases were closed in the early 1990's, resulting in less exposure of Germans to Canadians. Therefore, the stereotyped images that may have been held may have remained intact.

British, French, and German consumers' Canadian product-country images may have also been positively influenced by Canada joining forces with the European Union on a number of contentious issues, most recently with respect to the US Helms-Burton Act and by Canada's role as a peace keeping force in the former Yugoslavia. Specifically, the

European respondent groups' beliefs about Canada's role in world politics may have been positively affected.

Exports to the three European countries being examined may have had an influence on their consumers' images of Canada and its products. Looking first at the case of the United Kingdom, this market is Canada's third largest export destination after the United States and Japan (International Monetary Fund 1995, 1997). The United Kingdom has maintained this position over the period 1987-1997 (International Monetary Fund 1995, 1997). Interestingly, however, the total exports in millions of US dollars to the United Kingdom from Canada decreased by 2.8% between 1988 and 1996 (see Appendix A), potentially affecting their knowledge of Canadian products.

In 1988, France was Canada's eighth largest trading partner and by 1996 it had become Canada's seventh largest trading partner (International Monetary Fund 1995, 1997). Total exports in millions of US dollars to France increased by 23% between 1988 and 1996 (see Appendix A). This may have resulted in improvements in their knowledge of Canadian products.

Germany was Canada's fifth largest trading partner in 1988 and its fourth largest trading partner in 1996 (International Monetary Fund 1995, 1997). Canadian exports to Germany increased by 53.1% between 1988 and 1996 (see Appendix A), potentially resulting in increased knowledge of Canadian products on the part of the German consumers.

As suggested previously, the impact of changes in exports on product-country images must be considered in the context of the types of goods exported. Canadian exports to the United Kingdom, France, and Germany appear to be very similar in nature (see Appendices E, F, and G, respectively). In 1987, the focus was on the export of natural resources. By 1997, however, Canada exported more industrial and commercial products (parts and finished products) than in 1987. Interestingly, nuclear reactors were one of the top three Canadian exports to the United Kingdom, France, Germany, *and* the United States in 1997. Despite this increase in exports of industrial and commercial products, most of the products being exported were still natural resources. Since these exports are not highly visible in the consumer market, European respondent groups' knowledge of Canadian products may not have improved.

Travel to Germany, France, and Great Britain by Canadians and travel by residents of these countries to Canada may have influenced their images of Canada and its products as suggested previously. It is, therefore, necessary to examine changes in these figures. Travel by Canadians to the United Kingdom, France, and Germany combined increased more between 1987 and 1996 than travel to the United States (see Appendix C). Nevertheless, the United States is still the favourite travel destination for Canadians.

Trips by the British, French, and Germans to Canada increased steadily and substantially between 1987 and 1996 (see Appendix D). The largest percentage increase in trips to Canada was by the French, followed by the Germans and then the British. Nevertheless,

of all the non-residents entering Canada, more British came to visit Canada over the years 1987-1997 than French and Germans. In relation to the populations of these three countries, however, relatively few are travelling to Canada.

In addition to events that have taken place between the countries studied and Canada, other events in which Canada has played a role over the years 1987-1997 may have influenced the consumers' product-country images of Canada. These events would include Canada's participation in the 1990 Gulf War and the Quebec separation issue. All such events are more likely to have been covered in international news media, thereby potentially influencing foreign consumers' images of Canada and its products.

4. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

This study examines the changes in Canadian product-country images between the late 1980's and late 1990's by American, British, French, and German respondents. It also compares the changes in the European respondents' images of Canada and its products with the changes in their images of the United States and its products. Measurement of consumers' beliefs, feelings, and behavioural orientations has been utilized. The following objectives and hypotheses have been determined.

4.1 Primary Objectives and Related Hypotheses

The first objective was to determine if the images of Canada and its products had changed between the late 1980's and late 1990's (longitudinal analysis). This involved individually examining whether changes had occurred in the American, British, French, and German images between the two studies. The related hypotheses are:

H_{1A}: The images held by the Americans of Canada will not have changed.

H_{1B}: The images held by the Americans of Canadian products will not have changed.

H_{2A}: The images held by the British of Canada will not have changed.

H_{2B}: The images held by the British of Canadian products will not have changed.

H_{3A}: The images held by the French of Canada will not have changed.

H_{3B}: The images held by the French of Canadian products will not have changed.

H_{4A}: The images held by the Germans of Canada will not have changed.

H_{4B}: The images held by the Germans of Canadian products will not have changed.

Since the changes in Canadian product-country images by the Europeans were compared to the changes in the Europeans' product-country images of the United States, the second objective was to determine if the images of the United States and its products had changed between the late 1980's and late 1990's. This involved individually examining whether changes had occurred in the British, French, and German images between the two time periods. The related hypotheses are as follows:

H_{5A}: The images held by the British of the United States will not have changed.

H_{5B}: The images held by the British of American products will not have changed.

H_{6A}: The images held by the French of the United States will not have changed.

H_{6B}: The images held by the French of American products will not have changed.

H_{7A}: The images held by the Germans of the United States will not have changed.

H_{7B}: The images held by the Germans of American products will not have changed.

Having determined whether or not changes in the Europeans' images of Canada and its products and changes in their images of the United States and its products had occurred, it was then necessary to compare the changes in the images between the two countries.

This was the third objective and was done through simple descriptive methods.

Therefore, there are no related hypotheses.

4.2 Secondary Objectives and Related Hypotheses – Second Study Only

The first secondary objective was to determine if a pattern of cross-national differences exists in the Canadian product-country images held by the American, British, French, and German respondents in the late 1990's. The related hypotheses are:

H_{8A}: There will be no differences in the American, British, French, and German images of Canada.

H_{8B}: There will be no differences in the American, British, French, and German images of Canadian products.

The second secondary objective was to determine if a pattern of cross-national differences exists in the American product-country images based on the images of the British, French, and German respondents in the late 1990's. The related hypotheses are:

H_{9A}: There will be no differences in the British, French, and German images of the United States.

H_{9B}: There will be no differences in the British, French, and German images of American products.

The third secondary objective was to investigate the demographic correlates of images of Canada and its products, as well as to determine the association between travel and these images. The related hypothesis is:

H₁₀: There will be no differences in the ratings of Canada and its products across American, British, French, and German respondents of different gender, age, education, income and travel experience.

The fourth secondary objective was to investigate the demographic correlates of images of the United States and its products, as well as to determine the association between travel and these images. The related hypothesis is:

H₁₁: There will be no differences in the ratings of the United States and its products across British, French, and German respondents of different gender, age, education, income and travel experience.

The fifth, and final, secondary objective was to determine the association between the country and product images for each of Canada and the United States. The related hypotheses are as follows:

H_{12A}: Images of Canadian products will not be related to images of the country itself.

H_{12B}: Images of American products will not be related to images of the country itself.

5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The data used in this research were collected as part of two larger multi-country, multi-sample studies of product-country images conducted by Papadopoulos, Heslop, and associates between 1985 and 1987 (study one) and between 1997 and 1998 (study two). A total of eight databases from these studies were used in this research, four from the first and four from the second study. The data contained in these databases is based on the information gathered from the fieldwork through the use of *ex post facto* surveys, which investigated the images of consumers towards five countries and their products and their behavioural orientations.

5.1 The Research Instrument

The research instruments used in the studies were self-administered questionnaires. The questionnaires used in the first study were the same for all the countries sampled, with translations where necessary. In translating the surveys, back-translation was used to ensure that the questions asked truly represented what had been intended.

The first study's questionnaire contained four main sections. One of these made use of twenty-one seven-point semantic differential scales that were intended to assess consumers' images of and behavioural orientations towards products from each of the following countries: the United States, Japan, Sweden, Canada, and the respondents'

home country. When conducting the survey in the United States, Great Britain was the fifth country whose products were assessed. A second section used eleven semantic differential scales to assess consumers' images and behavioural orientations concerning aspects of the countries whose products were being assessed. In order to prevent bias and respondent fatigue due to the large number of semantic differential scales used, Papadopoulos and Heslop implemented three rotations. First of all, the semantic differential anchor points were randomly assigned to the left and right sides of the scales. Secondly, the ordering of the semantic differential scales was different between the various origin countries. Finally, the questionnaires were divided into five subgroups and within each group the order of the countries presented was different.

One section of the first study asked respondents demographic and travel pattern questions. In this section respondents were also asked to list the first four products that came to mind when a particular country name was seen. This was intended to determine a respondents' "evoked set" of products.

The questionnaire used in the second study was very similar to that used in the first. All respondents in this second study received the same survey. Translations, using the technique of back-translation, were performed where necessary. Despite this, a discrepancy was discovered in the French survey. The variable "aligned with Canada/United States" was translated incorrectly and a word whose meaning is closer to "similar" was used. This, however, does not pose a problem in terms of interpretation of

the findings on this scale, since Canada and the United States, the countries whose images are examined here, are both aligned with and similar to France.

The survey used in the second study contained five main sections. As with the previous study, there were sections that assessed consumers images and behavioural orientations towards the United States, Japan, Sweden, Canada, and the respondent's home country and their products. As with the previous study, when the survey was distributed in the United States, Great Britain was the fifth country assessed. A total of twenty semantic differential scales were used for the product assessments, and sixteen scales for each of the countries. The differences in the number of scales used in the first and second studies resulted from experience gained through additional research between the studies. It was determined, through factor analysis, that some of the original scales could be replaced with new ones that did a better job of assessing a consumer's images and behavioural orientations. Most of the scales used are, however, the same as those used in the original study. Tables 5.01 and 5.02 compare the product and country scales used in the first and second studies.

The questionnaire used in the second study, like the one used for the first, contained a section asking several demographic and travel habit questions. Both studies asked questions on the respondents' gender, age, education, and income. The categories of response choices used in the two studies did, however, differ for age, education, and income. A question on the number of trips taken by the respondent outside the

Table 5.01
A Comparison of the Product Scales Used in the First and Second
Product-Country Image Studies

Product Scale Variable Name	Study	
	First	Second
Workmanship	X	X
Reliability	X	X
Innovative	X	X
Technically Advanced	X	X
Quality	X	X
After Sales Service	X	X
Value for the Money	X	X
Expensive	X	X
Easy to Find	X	X
Variety	X	X
Recognizable Brand Names	X	X
Know a Lot	X	X
Satisfied	X	X
Proud to Own	X	X
Normally Buy a Lot	X	X
Appearance/Performance	X	
Advertising Level	X	
For the Upper Class	X	
For Younger People	X	
Luxury Items	X	
Believable Promotion	X	
Attractive Appearance		X
Overall		X
Have What I Like To Buy		X
For People Like Me		X
Willing to Buy		X
Total:	21	20
Common:	15	

Table 5.02
A Comparison of the Country Scales Used in the First and Second
Product-Country Image Studies

Country Scale Variable Name	Study	
	First	Second
Technologically Advanced	X	X
Admirable Role in World Politics	X	X
Refined Taste	X	X
Trustworthy	X	X
Likeable	X	X
Hardworking	X	X
Closer Ties	X	X
More Investment	X	X
Managing Economy Successfully	X	
Consumer vs. Industrial Goods	X	
Agricultural vs. Manufactured Goods	X	
Rich		X
Politically Stable		X
Ideal Country		X
Know a Lot		X
Educated		X
Aligned With Canada/U.S.		X
More Imports		X
Like to Visit		X
Total:	11	16
Common:	8	

country within the year and one on whether Canada, the United States, Japan, and Sweden (for British, French, and German respondents; for American respondents the U.S. was replaced by Great Britain) had ever been visited, were asked. The format used for these two questions remained the same in the two studies. As before, another section in the second questionnaire asked respondents to list the first four products that came to mind when a particular country name was seen.

5.2 Data Collection

The drop-off/pick-up technique was used in the distribution of all the surveys in both time periods. This involves leaving a questionnaire with a respondent in their home and picking it up at a later time. This is an efficient and effective means of survey distribution which eliminates interviewing bias but results in high response rates.

5.3 The Sample

The data used in this study were collected in Seattle, Washington for the United States, Glasgow, Scotland for Great Britain, and Paris for France (both periods), and Koblenz and Muenster for Germany (first and second studies respectively).

In both studies, systematic area sampling was used in each city. Specifically, city blocks were randomly chosen and individual households were selected in a systematic random manner. The houses chosen were approached and if the individual at home agreed to fill out a questionnaire, it was left with them and later picked up by the interviewer. Only one exception existed in the sampling method used. In Seattle in the second study, surveys were collected partly from households but also in some workplace locations to supplement a small portion of the sample.

Using these techniques resulted in the collection of 265 usable questionnaires from the United States, 243 from Great Britain, 287 from France, and 308 from Germany for the first study. The response rate averaged 75%. For the second study, 338 usable questionnaires were collected from the United States, 303 from Great Britain, 301 from France, and 294 from Germany. The response rates were as follows: Seattle, United States – 55%; Glasgow, Great Britain – 58%; Paris, France – 75%; and Muenster, Germany – 60%.

5.4 Pre-Analytic Process

Before beginning the statistical analyses, individual country data sets from each time period were checked for accuracy and consistency. Following this, the individual country files for each time period were combined, renaming variables in the first study to match the second for comparability. These combined (first and second studies) files were used for the analyses of changes in the product-country images of Canada and the United States.

The handling of missing values in the databases also needed to be considered before the analyses could begin. As Stevens (1996) said, “there is no simple solution for this problem” (pg. 32). Researchers in this field (e.g. Dowdles 1997) have often dealt with missing data by setting a maximum acceptable percentage limit (frequently between 10 and 20%) on the number of responses that can be missing for a particular respondent. If

more responses are missing than the set percent, then the case is deleted from the analysis. If less are missing, then, where necessary (e.g. principal components analysis requires this but calculation of the means does not), the mean of the sample for the scale set is substituted for the missing value.

In this study, it was decided that a similar technique would be used. Rather than setting the percentage of missing values as a percent of *all* the respondent's answers related to this study, the percentage was set relative to the analysis in question. In other words, when foreign images of Canadian or American products were being examined, then the percentage of missing values related only to the variables associated with product images. When foreign images of Canada or the United States were being examined, then the percentage of missing values related only to the variables associated with country images. When changes in foreign images of Canada or its products, or of the United States or its products, were being examined, then the percentage of missing values related only to the product or country variables common to both studies. So, when more than 20% of an individual's responses on variables relating to a particular analysis were missing, then that case was dropped for that analysis. A higher percentage was chosen since the total number of variables to which the percentage applies is much smaller than if the percentage had been applied to all the variables used in the study.

The benefit of making the percentage relative to the analysis in question is that a consumer may, for example, know a lot about a country but very little about the country's

products, yet the information about this consumer's image of the country would not be lost simply because of lack of knowledge of the country's products. If the percentage of missing values was, however, based on all the variables being examined in all the analyses, then cases as described above would be deleted from all the analyses. The danger in this is that valuable information about a consumer's image of a country, for example, may be lost.

In applying the 20% rule as described above, it was determined that for the data collected in the first study if *more than 4* (20% of 21 product scales) product scales were missing for a respondent, then the case was deleted from the analysis of images of products, be they Canadian or American. If *4 or less* product scales were missing, then the mean of the sample for the scale set was substituted for the missing value, where necessary. It was also determined that if *more than 2* (20% of 11 country scales) country scales were missing for a respondent, then the case was deleted from the analysis of images of the country, be it Canada or the United States. If *2 or less* country scales were missing, then the mean of the sample for the scale set was substituted for the missing value, where necessary.

For the data gathered in the second study, the same "break-point" (4 - but this time this was 20% of 20 product scales, not 21) was used as in the first for determining which cases to delete when product scales were those being examined. The "break-point" for the analysis of a country in the second study did, however, differ from the one used in the

first. If *more than 3* (20% of 16 country scales) country scales were missing for a respondent, then the case was deleted from the analysis of images of the country. If *3 or less* country scales were missing, then the mean of the sample for the scale set was substituted for the missing value, where necessary.

When the analysis in question was changes in foreigners' images of Canada and its products, or of the United States and its products, between the first and second studies, then again different "break-points" were used to determine which cases to delete from the analysis. The reason for this is that in examining changes in images, only the variables common to both periods were used in the analysis. Therefore, a reduced number of variables were to be considered and these variables may not contain the ones that had missing values in the previous analyses. These cases should then not be deleted from the analysis of changes simply because in the previous analyses they contained too many missing values. The "break-points" determined were 3 (20% of 15 product scales) for product scales and 2 (20% of 8 country scales) for country scales.

Use of the deletion of cases that do not meet a certain percentage cut-off for missing values results in reductions to the total number of usable questionnaires for related analyses. Please see Appendix H for a listing of the adjusted number of usable questionnaires.

5.5 Data Analysis Procedures

The analyses began with the use of frequencies to examine the demographics and travel habits of the eight samples used in this study. Following this, means were determined for the sums of scale items for the product and country evaluations. In calculating these means, adjustments in the specific scale items used were made. This was done because slightly different scale items were used in the different study periods. Therefore, means for the product and country evaluations were determined by combining the scales in a number of ways. Firstly, the means were calculated using all the scale items. Then means using only the scales that were consistent between the two studies (see Tables 5.01 and 5.02 above) were determined and a comparison of the means was carried out. This involved looking for significant differences in the means of scales, using paired-samples t-tests, to determine if the differences in variables used over the two periods caused differences in evaluations. Once the differences and their impact on this study were examined, descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations were used to examine the respondent groups' product-country images of Canada in the late 1990's.

In the initial stages of the analysis, principal components analysis was also performed. This was used to determine the underlying dimensions used by consumers in forming their images and behavioural orientations towards foreign products and the actual foreign countries.

In conducting the longitudinal and cross-national research, use was made of multivariate statistics. MANOVA was used to analyze the longitudinal changes and the differences between and among respondent countries in their images of foreign countries and their products. If a significant overall F was found in a MANOVA analysis, individual scale differences were examined. Lim, Darley, and Summers (1994) suggest using such techniques when multiple dependent variables are highly intercorrelated, as is the case in this study.

In analyzing the demographic correlates of product-country images and the association between travel and product-country images, use was made of MANOVA and ANOVA. Correlation coefficients for combinations of the country and product dimensions were used to examine the association between country images and product images.

In conducting these analyses, an overall level of significance (α) of .05 was used. The risk of making a type I error with this alpha level is considered small (Stevens 1996). As Stevens (1996) pointed out, most researchers set α equal to .05 or .01.

In setting the alpha level, Stevens (1996) suggests that the power of a statistical test needs to be considered since the power decreases as the alpha level decreases. However, when the sample size is large, as it is in this study, power *generally* is not a concern (Stevens 1996).

Use of $\alpha = .05$ is appropriate when conducting a single statistical test. When multiple statistical tests are run at such an alpha level, however, the Bonferroni Inequality shows that control over the type I error might easily be lost (Stevens 1996). Running multiple tests at the same alpha level as a single statistical test could produce a large number of significant results that could be expected purely by chance, yet are not significant at all. To deal with this problem, it was decided to raise the overall alpha to .15 when multiple tests were run and then to divide this by the number of tests being conducted, as suggested is necessary by the Bonferroni Inequality. Although this overall alpha level (.15) increases the chances of making a type I error, it also increases the power of the tests when the *overall* α is divided by the number of tests being conducted. As was mentioned previously, power is *generally* not a concern when sample size is large. Even if the sample size is large, however, when multiple tests are conducted the power of the test does need to be considered. For example, if there are a large number of tests being conducted, then the power can decrease drastically if a tight alpha level is used. Increasing the alpha level, as was done here, helps improve the power while still maintaining a reasonable alpha level that will not allow the chances of type I errors occurring to get out of control.

6. FINDINGS

This chapter details the analyses undertaken to explore the data used in this study and presents the findings. It includes five sections:

1. Demographics and travel habits of each sample
2. Product and country image descriptive statistics
3. The dimensions of the product and country images
4. Longitudinal comparison of the product and country images of Canada and the United States (Primary Objectives – H_{1A} to H_{7B})
5. i) Cross-national comparison of the product and country images of Canada and the United States,
ii) Demographic and travel correlates of the product and country images of Canada and the United States, and
iii) Association between the product and country images for Canada and the United States
(Secondary Objectives – H_{8A} to H_{12B}).

From this point on, Great Britain, France, and Germany will be referred to collectively as Europe, when appropriate, in order to avoid repetition.

6.1 Sample Demographics and Travel Habits

This section describes the demographic characteristics and travel habits of the samples. For gender and age, the samples are compared to the demographic characteristics of the country. As for education and household income, comparison to country population statistics was not possible due to the unavailability of consistently reported comparable published data.

Gender

A breakdown of the eight samples by gender is provided in Table 6.01. Overall an almost equal proportion of men and women were sampled in both time periods, with few exceptions. There were more females than males in the first British sample. There were, however, more males than females in both the first and second German samples. With these exceptions, the almost equal proportion of men and women sampled suggests that the product-country images and behavioural orientations of both groups were well represented in the findings of this study.

Age

Table 6.02 shows the division of the eight samples by age. The data shows that, on the whole, the samples taken in both study periods in the United States, Great Britain,

Table 6.01
Breakdown of the Samples by Gender

UNITED STATES	1st Study			2nd Study		
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*
Male	133	50.2	48.6	168	49.7	48.8
Female	128	48.3	51.4	169	50.0	51.2
No Response	4	1.5	N/A	1	.3	N/A
Total	265	100.0	100.0	338	100.0	100.0
GREAT BRITAIN	1st Study			2nd Study		
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*
Male	104	42.8	48.7	149	49.2	48.9
Female	137	56.4	51.3	151	49.8	51.1
No Response	2	.8	N/A	3	1.0	N/A
Total	243	100.0	100.0	303	100.0	100.0
FRANCE	1st Study			2nd Study		
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*
Male	143	49.8	49.0	153	50.8	48.7
Female	143	49.8	51.0	148	49.2	51.3
No Response	1	.4	N/A	0	0.0	N/A
Total	287	100.0	100.0	301	100.0	100.0
GERMANY	1st Study			2nd Study		
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*
Male	179	58.1	47.8	157	53.4	48.2
Female	129	41.9	52.2	135	45.9	51.8
No Response	0	0.0	N/A	2	.7	N/A
Total	308	100.0	100.0	294	100.0	100.0

* Source of 1st Study Population Percentages: United Nations (1985)

Source of 2nd Study Population Percentages: United Nations (1995)

France, and Germany were young in age. Generally the majority of the respondents in the samples were between the ages of 20 and 34. Relative to the population, the percentage of respondents in this age group were overrepresented. The second largest group of respondents in the samples were in the middle age group (35 and 49). In the first study, the samples in this age group were either fairly representative of the population percentages or just slightly over. In the second study, they were in some cases close to the

Table 6.02
Breakdown of the Samples by Age

UNITED STATES						
	1st Study			2nd Study		
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*
Less than 20 Years	3	1.1	—	17	5.0	—
20 – 34 Years	148	55.9	38.0	185	54.7	33.0
35 – 49 Years	65	24.5	24.4	94	27.8	30.8
50 – 64 Years	39	14.7	20.9	34	10.1	18.2
65 Years or More	7	2.7	16.7	8	2.4	18.0
No Response	3	1.1	N/A	0	0.0	N/A
Total	265	100.0	100.0	338	100.0	100.0
GREAT BRITAIN						
	1st Study			2nd Study		
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*
Less than 20 Years	8	3.3	—	8	2.7	—
20 – 34 Years	105	43.2	30.1	94	31.0	31.5
35 – 49 Years	74	30.5	25.3	105	34.7	26.8
50 – 64 Years	41	16.8	23.4	61	20.1	20.5
65 Years or More	15	6.2	21.2	34	11.2	21.2
No Response	0	0.0	N/A	1	.3	N/A
Total	243	100.0	100.0	303	100.0	100.0
FRANCE						
	1st Study			2nd Study		
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*
Less than 20 Years	16	5.6	—	30	10.0	—
20 – 29 Years	125	43.5	22.0	150	49.8	20.6
30 – 39 Years	74	25.8	20.9	65	21.6	20.4
40 – 49 Years	33	11.5	15.6	31	10.3	18.7
50 – 59 Years	25	8.7	16.3	25	8.3	13.4
60 Years or More	14	4.9	25.2	0	0.0	26.9
No Response	0	0.0	N/A	0	0.0	N/A
Total	287	100.0	100.0	301	100.0	100.0
GERMANY						
	1st Study			2nd Study		
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Population %*
Less than 20 Years	33	10.7	—	15	5.1	—
20 – 34 Years	97	31.5	29.7	187	63.6	31.3
35 – 49 Years	98	31.8	28.1	43	14.6	25.6
50 – 64 Years	69	22.4	22.1	36	12.2	24.1
65 Years or More	11	3.6	20.1	11	3.8	19.0
No Response	0	0.0	N/A	2	.7	N/A
Total	308	100.0	100.0	294	100.0	100.0

* Source of 1st Study Population Percentages: United Nations (1985)

Source of 2nd Study Population Percentages: United Nations (1995)

Note: The population percentages have been adjusted and exclude those less than 20 years to reflect a sample population over 18 years. The small mismatch does not have a serious effect because only a small percentage of respondents were 18 or 19 years of age.

Note: The original eleven age groups used in the first study (less than 20, 20-24, 25-29, 30-34, 35-39, 40-44, 45-49, 50-54, 55-59, 60-64, and 65 or more) were collapsed to make comparison to the second study data easier.

population percentages, while in other cases they were below or above these percentages. The older respondents (50 and older) were, however, generally underrepresented in the samples. It should also be noted that few of the respondents in the samples were less than 20, because the survey required respondents to be a minimum age of 18 years.

Although the samples are generally not representative of the populations in terms of age, such samples are useful for the purposes of this study since these consumers are those that can be expected to eventually influence the images and behavioural orientations of all consumers.

Education

The categorization by education of the eight samples is provided in Table 6.03. Generally speaking, the samples taken in both studies were well educated. Most respondents had either partially or completely finished some form of post secondary education. The only exception was for the first German sample. Although a large percentage of the respondents had partially or completely finished some form of post secondary education, a slightly larger percentage of respondents had only partially or fully completed high school.

Table 6.03
Breakdown of the Samples by Education

UNITED STATES			UNITED STATES		
1 st Study			2 nd Study		
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Up to High School	24	9.0	Some High School	6	1.8
Some College/University	86	32.5	High School Graduate	10	3.0
College/University Degree	152	57.4	Some College/University	123	36.4
No Response	3	1.1	College/University Graduate	182	53.8
			Other	16	4.7
			No Response	1	.3
Total	265	100.0	Total	338	100.0
GREAT BRITAIN			GREAT BRITAIN		
1 st Study			2 nd Study		
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Up to High School	101	41.6	Some High School	41	13.5
Some College/University	66	27.2	High School Graduate	32	10.6
College/University Degree	74	30.4	Some College/University	56	18.5
No Response	2	.8	College/University Graduate	150	49.5
			Other	19	6.3
			No Response	5	1.6
Total	243	100.0	Total	303	100.0
FRANCE			FRANCE		
1 st Study			2 nd Study		
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Up to High School	19	6.6	Some High School	44	14.6
Some College/University	77	26.8	High School Graduate	34	11.3
College/University Degree	189	65.9	Some College/University	56	18.6
No Response	2	.7	College/University Graduate	150	49.8
			Other	17	5.7
			No Response	0	0.0
Total	287	100.0	Total	301	100.0
GERMANY			GERMANY		
1 st Study			2 nd Study		
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Up to High School	162	52.6	Some High School	45	15.3
Some College/University	68	22.1	High School Graduate	63	21.4
College/University Degree	78	25.3	Some College/University	105	35.7
No Response	0	0.0	College/University Graduate	71	24.2
			Other	7	2.4
			No Response	3	1.0
Total	308	100.0	Total	294	100.0

Household Income

The household incomes of the eight samples are shown in Table 6.04. The income categories used in the second study were redrawn from those used in the first to include more upper income categories because of rising incomes and the observation by Heslop and Papadopoulos that across the eight countries sampled in the first time period a high proportion of the respondents were in the highest income categories.

The data in Table 6.04 shows that a mix of household incomes was represented in the samples. In the first study, the German sample contained a good mix of respondents in the various income groups. The British sample, however, fell into the lower income groups, the French into the middle and the American sample into the upper income groups. In the second study, the American sample contained a good mix of respondents in the various income groups. The majority of the French and German respondents were in the lower income groups, while the majority of the British respondents were in the middle income groups.

Travel Habits

Tables 6.05 and 6.06 show the division of the eight samples by their travel to Canada and the United States. The majority of the European respondents said they had never traveled

Table 6.04
Breakdown of the Samples by Household Income

UNITED STATES	1st Study		UNITED STATES	2nd Study	
Value Label (US Dollars per Year)	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Value Label (US Dollars per Year)	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Less than 10,000	9	3.4	Up to 29,999	66	19.5
10,000 to 19,999	21	7.9	30,000 to 49,999	68	20.1
20,000 to 29,999	39	14.7	50,000 to 69,999	82	24.3
30,000 to 39,999	59	22.3	70,000 to 89,999	39	11.6
40,000 or More	129	48.7	90,000 and Over	63	18.6
No Response	8	3.0	No Response	20	5.9
Total	265	100.0	Total	338	100.0
GREAT BRITAIN	1st Study		GREAT BRITAIN	2nd Study	
Value Label (Pounds per Year)	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Value Label (Pounds per Year)	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Less than 5,000	48	19.8	Less than 10,000	49	16.2
5,000 – 9,999	71	29.2	10,000 to 19,999	64	21.1
10,000 – 14,999	44	18.1	20,000 to 29,999	61	20.1
15,000 – 19,999	36	14.8	30,000 to 49,999	79	26.1
20,000 or More	34	14.0	50,000 or More	31	10.2
No Response	10	4.1	No Response	19	6.3
Total	243	100.0	Total	303	100.0
FRANCE	1st Study		FRANCE	2nd Study	
Value Label (Dollars per Year)	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Value Label (Francs per Year)	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Less than 10,000	20	7.0	Less than 140,000	67	22.3
10,000 to 19,999	86	29.9	140,000 to 249,999	107	35.5
20,000 to 29,999	59	20.6	250,000 to 359,999	58	19.3
30,000 to 39,999	56	19.5	360,000 to 469,999	23	7.6
40,000 or More	47	16.4	470,000 or More	37	12.3
No Response	19	6.6	No Response	9	3.0
Total	287	100.0	Total	301	100.0
GERMANY	1st Study		GERMANY	2nd Study	
Value Label (DM per Month)	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Value Label (DM per Month)	Sample Frequency	Sample %
2,000 or Less	73	23.7	2,000 or Less	142	48.3
2,001 to 3,500	86	27.9	2,001 to 3,000	57	19.4
3,501 to 5,000	66	21.4	3,001 to 4,000	26	8.8
Over 5,000	83	27.0	4,001 to 5,000	18	6.1
No Response	0	0.0	5,001 or More	35	11.9
			No Response	16	5.5
Total	308	100.0	Total	294	100.0

Table 6.05
Breakdown of the Samples by Travel (To Canada)

UNITED STATES	1st Study		2nd Study	
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Yes	250	94.3	291	86.1
No	15	5.7	47	13.9
No Response	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	265	100.0	338	100.0
GREAT BRITAIN	1st Study		2nd Study	
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Yes	67	27.6	90	29.7
No	167	68.7	212	70.0
No Response	9	3.7	1	.3
Total	243	100.0	303	100.0
FRANCE	1st Study		2nd Study	
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Yes	27	9.4	83	27.6
No	249	86.8	218	72.4
No Response	11	3.8	0	0.0
Total	287	100.0	301	100.0
GERMANY	1st Study		2nd Study	
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Yes	44	14.3	49	16.7
No	205	66.6	244	83.0
No Response	59	19.1	1	0.3
Total	308	100.0	294	100.0

to Canada, which is reflected in the related travel statistics (Appendix D). The majority of the Americans, on the other hand, said they had. This, however, is not in line with the travel statistics. Although most of the visitors to Canada were from the United States (Appendix D), relative to the American population, few Americans have visited Canada. So, the American samples appear to have traveled more to Canada than the population.

Table 6.06
Breakdown of the Samples by Travel (To USA)

GREAT BRITAIN	1st Study		2nd Study	
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Yes	89	36.6	153	50.5
No	150	61.7	149	49.2
No Response	4	1.7	1	0.3
Total	243	100.0	303	100.0
FRANCE	1st Study		2nd Study	
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Yes	76	26.5	178	59.1
No	204	71.1	123	40.9
No Response	7	2.4	0	0.0
Total	287	100.0	301	100.0
GERMANY	1st Study		2nd Study	
Value Label	Sample Frequency	Sample %	Sample Frequency	Sample %
Yes	78	25.3	114	38.8
No	176	57.2	179	60.9
No Response	54	17.5	1	0.3
Total	308	100.0	294	100.0

In terms of travel to the United States, the majority of the British and French respondents sampled in the first study said they had not been to the United States, whereas in the second study slightly more than half of the British respondents and more than half of the French respondents said they had. The majority of the German respondents in both study periods said they had never visited the United States.

Summary & Conclusion

It was found that across all samples taken, generally speaking, the respondents were divided approximately evenly between males and females, were young in age, well

educated, and varied in terms of income. The majority of the respondents had not visited Canada, while more had visited the United States. Although not fully representative of the populations, the samples are useful for the purposes of this study as they represent those consumers who will be the opinion leaders in society and as such can be expected to have a considerable influence on the images and behavioural orientations of all consumers.

6.2 Product and Country Images

Rationalization of Scale Selection

As a starting point for the analysis of changes in the product-country images of Canada, it was necessary to examine the descriptive statistic data for the product-country images of Canada in the two time periods. Since the product-country images of Canada in the late 1980's were already described in Section 3.1, only the product-country images of Canada in the late 1990's are presented in this section. Before doing so, it had to be determined which scales, the common or whole sets, would be used. Both studies had a common set of scales, but they also had a number of scales that differed. These additional scales may have had differing influences on the respondents' ratings of the common scales in both study periods and as such would have the potential to influence the product-country images. This would result in differences in the product-country images that were not attributable to time-based changes in the images but rather to changes in the scales used

and the context-based effects of this. It was, therefore, necessary to determine the impact that the additional scales might have had. This involved comparing the means of the common scales to the means of all the scales in the two time periods. Since American and European images of Canada and its products, along with the Europeans' images of the United States and its products, were examined in this study, a comparison of the means of the common scales and all the scales in both time periods had to be run on each of the relevant sets of scales. Use was made of the paired-samples t-test. Table 6.07 shows the means and standard deviations of the common scales and all the scales in the first study used in the various analyses along with the 2-tail significance of the related paired-samples t-test. The results show that in 7 of the 14 pairwise comparisons, statistically significant differences were found when testing at a significance level of .05. When testing using a more stringent level of significance of .01, 6 of the 14 pairwise comparisons were still found to be statistically significantly different.

Table 6.08 shows the means and standard deviations of the common scales and all the scales in the second study used in the various analyses along with the 2-tail significance of the related paired-samples t-test. The results of these pairwise comparisons show that in 8 of the 14 tests statistically different means were detected when testing at a significance level of .05. When testing at a significance level of .01, statistical significance was still found in 7 of the 14 tests.

Table 6.07
Comparison of Common Scales and All Scales in First Study – Means (Standard Deviations) Used In and Results of Paired-Samples T-tests

Analysis	Mean (Std. Dev.) of Common Scales	Mean (Std. Dev.) of All Scales	Absolute Difference	2-tail Sig.
Canada				
American Images of Canada	4.79 (0.87)	4.53 (0.71)	.26	.000
British Images of Canada	4.71 (0.89)	4.52 (0.77)	.19	.000
French Images of Canada	4.84 (0.69)	4.61 (0.57)	.23	.000
German Images of Canada	4.64 (0.64)	4.40 (0.55)	.24	.000
American Images of Canadian Products	4.05 (0.60)	4.03 (0.50)	.02	.046
British Images of Canadian Products	3.97 (0.76)	3.97 (0.64)	.00	.847
French Images of Canadian Products	3.83 (0.44)	3.83 (0.38)	.00	.920
German Images of Canadian Products	3.82 (0.54)	3.87 (0.41)	.05	.225
United States				
British Images of the U.S.	4.08 (1.17)	4.16 (0.99)	.08	.001
French Images of the U.S.	5.09 (0.73)	5.06 (0.62)	.03	.459
German Images of the U.S.	4.62 (1.02)	4.65 (0.79)	.03	.150
British Images of American Products	4.67 (0.87)	4.53 (0.70)	.14	.000
French Images of American Products	4.83 (0.70)	4.76 (0.58)	.07	.161
German Images of American Products	4.56 (0.73)	4.51 (0.57)	.05	.354

Note: Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Looking at the analyses where significant differences were found between the mean of the common scales and the mean of all the scales, no patterns in the significant differences became apparent. Overall, about half of the paired-samples t-tests were found to be statistically significant. Since these means are one measure of the image of a country or of its products, the statistical significance suggests that the image as determined by the common scales is statistically different from the image as determined by all the scales. Considering the number of significant differences found, it would

Table 6.08
Comparison of Common Scales and All Scales in Second Study – Means (Standard Deviations) Used In and Results of Paired-Samples T-tests

Analysis	Mean (Std. Dev.) of Common Scales	Mean (Std. Dev.) of All Scales	Absolute Difference	2-tail Sig.
Canada				
American Images of Canada	4.98 (0.84)	5.05 (0.77)	.07	.000
British Images of Canada	5.25 (0.80)	5.24 (0.72)	.01	.771
French Images of Canada	5.29 (0.71)	5.19 (0.63)	.10	.000
German Images of Canada	4.72 (0.65)	4.71 (0.60)	.01	.605
American Images of Canadian Products	4.07 (0.73)	4.20 (0.71)	.13	.000
British Images of Canadian Products	3.89 (0.65)	4.10 (0.63)	.21	.000
French Images of Canadian Products	4.04 (0.63)	4.21 (0.63)	.17	.000
German Images of Canadian Products	3.81 (0.59)	3.98 (0.56)	.17	.000
United States				
British Images of the U.S.	4.84 (0.97)	4.94 (0.87)	.10	.106
French Images of the U.S.	4.92 (0.81)	4.84 (0.77)	.08	.182
German Images of the U.S.	4.77 (0.81)	4.86 (0.75)	.09	.033
British Images of American Products	5.03 (0.86)	5.07 (0.87)	.04	.000
French Images of American Products	5.14 (0.71)	5.12 (0.73)	.02	.076
German Images of American Products	4.78 (0.70)	4.79 (0.73)	.01	.674

Note: Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

appear that the additional scales may have had an effect on the overall product-country image measure. The differences in the scale set means may be due to the influence of the non-common scales on the common scales or perhaps simply to differences in the means of the non-common scales as compared to the means of the common scales.

Before determining the implications of the above finding, the issue of practical significance had to be considered. The paired-samples t-test used to determine this

statistical significance is a very powerful test and is sensitive to *very* small differences in means with large samples. Although these mean differences may be deemed statistically significant, they may not be deemed practically significant. For example, on the seven point scales used in this study, a scale difference of less than one-quarter of a scale point (0.25) might be considered managerially unimportant. With this criterion in mind, only one of the statistically significant differences was deemed to be managerially important (American images of Canada in the first study). Moreover, previously published research on the earlier data set found that within sample comparisons between countries evaluated of less than 0.2 scale points were not statistically significantly different. Re-examining the means determined to be statistically different in Table 6.07 and Table 6.08 shows that the findings of the paired-samples t-tests are not practically significant. Absolute differences larger than 0.20 were found only in four instances. All the other mean differences were too small to be considered important. From a practical standpoint then, the additional scales were judged to have had only a marginal effect on the product-country images. Therefore, any changes in the product-country images found can generally be accepted to be attributable to time-based changes in the images.

The choice of either common or entire sets of scales in the analysis was driven mainly by the study objectives. In examining the product-country images of Canada in the late 1990's on a descriptive level, use was made of all the scales. This was expected to be most useful since the additional scales would help in fully understanding the respondents' product-country images of Canada.

In conducting the longitudinal examination of product-country images of Canada and the United States, use was made of the common scales. This was necessary since the statistical technique used (MANOVA) requires comparable scales in the two periods. All scales were, however, used in the remaining analyses since these analyses were only conducted on the data from the second study and doing so would provide a more detailed understanding of the product-country images in the late 1990's.

Product-Country Images of Canada in the Late 1990's

Having determined when the common and whole sets of scales should be used, the focus turns to the descriptive examination of the respondent groups' product-country images of Canada in the late 1990's. Tables 6.09 and 6.10 show the country and product mean scores and the related standard deviations used in this examination.

The American images of Canada were quite positive. The Americans believed they are fairly knowledgeable about Canada, as shown by the rating on the scale "know a lot" (4.4). They also believed that Canada is technologically advanced (4.7), rich (4.7), and plays an admirable role in world politics (4.7). Even higher ratings were given on the scales "educated" (5.0) and "politically stable" (5.4).

Favourable ratings were given by the Americans on the scales "refined taste" (4.6) and "hardworking" (4.7) and even higher ratings were given on the scales "trustworthy" (5.4)

Table 6.09
Images of Canada: Means (Standard Deviations)

Scale	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Technologically Advanced	4.7* (1.2)	5.2 (1.3)	5.6 (1.2)	4.7 (1.2)
Admirable Role in World Politics	4.7 (1.4)	4.6 (1.5)	4.6 (1.4)	3.7 (1.3)
Refined Taste	4.6 (1.2)	4.6 (1.3)	4.1 (1.4)	4.3 (1.0)
Trustworthy	5.4 (1.3)	5.8 (1.2)	5.8 (1.5)	5.2 (1.3)
Likeable	5.2 (1.5)	5.5 (1.3)	5.7 (1.3)	5.0 (1.3)
Hardworking	4.7 (1.3)	5.1 (1.3)	5.5 (1.1)	4.7 (1.1)
Closer Ties	5.4 (1.3)	5.4 (1.3)	5.7 (1.2)	5.1 (1.1)
More Investment	5.2 (1.3)	5.7 (1.3)	5.4 (1.3)	5.1 (1.3)
Rich	4.7 (1.1)	5.5 (1.1)	6.0 (1.1)	5.0 (1.1)
Politically Stable	5.4 (1.3)	5.8 (1.3)	6.0 (1.3)	5.6 (1.3)
Ideal Country	4.8 (1.2)	5.3 (1.3)	5.0 (1.3)	4.9 (1.2)
Know a Lot	4.4 (1.6)	3.2 (1.9)	2.5 (1.8)	2.7 (1.5)
Educated	5.0 (1.1)	5.3 (1.1)	5.6 (1.1)	4.8 (1.1)
Aligned With Canada	5.7 (1.2)	5.3 (1.4)	4.1 (1.7)	3.8 (1.3)
More Imports	5.3 (1.3)	5.4 (1.4)	5.1 (1.4)	4.9 (1.2)
Like to Visit	5.8 (1.7)	6.1 (1.5)	6.4 (1.2)	5.9 (1.6)
Mean (Std. Dev.) of All Scales	5.05 (0.77)	5.24 (0.72)	5.19 (0.63)	4.71 (0.60)

* Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Table 6.10
Images of Canadian Products: Means (Standard Deviations)

Scale	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Workmanship	4.8* (1.1)	5.0 (1.1)	5.1 (1.1)	5.0 (1.1)
Reliability	4.7 (1.2)	5.1 (1.2)	5.2 (1.2)	4.8 (1.3)
Innovative	3.9 (1.3)	4.1 (1.2)	4.7 (1.3)	4.4 (1.1)
Technically Advanced	4.0 (1.2)	4.4 (1.4)	4.6 (1.1)	4.3 (1.2)
Quality	4.8 (1.1)	5.2 (1.1)	5.2 (1.1)	5.1 (1.1)
After Sales Service	4.3 (1.0)	4.6 (1.1)	4.7 (1.1)	4.3 (1.1)
Value for the Money	4.4 (1.0)	4.3 (1.0)	4.4 (0.9)	4.2 (0.9)
Expensive	4.1 (1.1)	4.3 (1.1)	4.1 (1.1)	4.2 (0.9)
Easy to Find	3.7 (1.7)	2.2 (1.5)	2.8 (1.6)	2.7 (1.6)
Variety	3.7 (1.5)	3.1 (1.5)	3.4 (1.4)	3.2 (1.5)
Recognizable Brand Names	3.5 (1.6)	3.0 (1.7)	3.2 (1.7)	2.7 (1.5)
Know a Lot	3.1 (1.7)	1.8 (1.3)	2.4 (1.6)	2.1 (1.5)
Satisfied	4.6 (1.1)	4.7 (1.2)	4.6 (1.1)	4.4 (0.9)
Proud to Own	4.6 (1.4)	4.7 (1.3)	4.3 (1.2)	3.6 (1.4)
Normally Buy a Lot	2.9 (1.5)	1.7 (1.1)	1.9 (1.4)	2.0 (1.5)
Attractive Appearance	4.4 (1.1)	4.6 (1.1)	4.5 (1.2)	4.2 (1.2)
Overall	4.6 (1.1)	4.8 (1.2)	5.0 (1.2)	4.6 (1.1)
Have What I Like To Buy	4.1 (1.3)	3.8 (1.3)	4.1 (1.2)	3.8 (1.1)
For People Like Me	4.6 (1.2)	4.7 (1.3)	4.5 (1.2)	4.4 (1.1)
Willing to Buy	5.3 (1.4)	5.7 (1.3)	5.5 (1.4)	5.3 (1.5)
Mean (Std. Dev.) of All Scales	4.20 (0.71)	4.10 (0.63)	4.21 (0.63)	3.98 (0.56)

* Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

and “likeable” (5.2). Americans also felt that the United States is highly aligned with Canada (5.7) and they were very interested in visiting Canada (5.8).

Americans believed that Canada is an ideal country (4.8) and they showed great interest in developing closer ties with Canada (5.4). They were also very interested in more investment (5.2) and more imports (5.3) from Canada.

American images of Canadian products were positive, although not as positive as their images of Canada, with several means above the midpoint. Americans believed that Canadian products are good in terms of workmanship (4.8), reliability (4.7), and quality (4.8). They also had somewhat positive beliefs about the after sales service (4.3) and appearance (4.4) of Canadian products. Americans, however, gave lower ratings on the scales “innovative” (3.9) and “technically advanced” (4.0). Americans gave favourable ratings on the scale “overall” (4.6). The above mentioned scales all measure the beliefs and feelings about product integrity, suggesting that the Americans had reasonably positive beliefs and feelings about the product integrity of Canadian products. The Americans also believed that Canadian products are not very expensive (4.1) and are a fairly good value for the money (4.4).

The Americans believed that the market presence of Canadian products is limited, as shown by the low ratings on the scales “easy to find” (3.7), “variety” (3.7), and “recognizable brand names” (3.5). Their behavioural orientations towards Canadian

products, as measured by the ratings on the following scales, were more positive. They were satisfied with (4.6) and proud to own (4.6) Canadian products and felt that these products are for people like them (4.6). Interestingly, Americans gave a lower rating on the scale “have what I like to buy” (4.1) but a much higher rating on the scale “willing to buy” (5.3). With regards to experiences, the ratings given on the scales “know a lot” (3.1) and “normally buy a lot” (2.9) were much lower than the ratings given on all the other product scales.

It is interesting to note that although the Americans believed Canadian products do not have a strong market presence and they do not know a lot about them and do not normally buy them, they still had positive beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products.

The British images of Canada were very positive with all means above the midpoint except for the scale “know a lot” (3.2). They gave a favourable rating on the scale “admirable role in world politics” (4.6) and even higher ratings on the scales “technologically advanced” (5.2), “rich” (5.5), “politically stable” (5.8), and “educated” (5.3).

The British respondents felt that Canadians are very trustworthy (5.8), likeable (5.5), and hardworking (5.1), yet relatively not as refined in taste (4.6). They also felt that Great Britain is very much aligned with Canada (5.3) and they were very interested in visiting

the country (6.1). The British believed that Canada is an ideal country (5.3) and they were also found to desire closer ties with (5.4) and more investment (5.7) and imports (5.4) from Canada.

The British images of Canadian products were positive but not as positive as their images of Canada, with several means above the midpoint. The British had very positive beliefs about the workmanship (5.0), reliability (5.1), and quality (5.2) of Canadian products. They believed that the after sales service (4.6) of Canadian products is good and that Canadian products are attractive in appearance (4.6). However, lower ratings were given on the scales “innovative” (4.1) and “technically advanced” (4.4). Nevertheless, British respondents had positive feelings about Canadian products overall (4.8). The above mentioned scales all measure the beliefs and feelings about product integrity, suggesting that the British had positive beliefs and feelings about the product integrity of Canadian products. The British felt Canadian products are a fairly good value for the money (4.3) and that they are not exceptionally expensive (4.3).

The British ratings on the scales “easy to find” (2.2), “variety” (3.1), and “recognizable brand names” (3.0), measuring the beliefs about the market presence of Canadian products, were very poor. Nevertheless, they generally had positive behavioural orientations towards Canadian products, as measured by the ratings on the following scales. Favourable ratings were given on the scales “satisfied” (4.7), “proud to own” (4.7), “for people like me” (4.7), and “willing to buy” (5.7). On the scale “have what I

like to buy,” however, a lower rating (3.8) was given. The ratings on the scales “know a lot” (1.8) and “normally buy a lot” (1.7), measuring the behaviour of the British towards Canadian products, were extremely low.

Although the British believed Canadian products do not have a strong market presence and they do not know a lot about them and do not normally buy them, they still had positive beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products.

The French images of Canada were very positive with all means above the midpoint, except for the scale “know a lot” (2.5). A favourable rating was given on the scale “admirable role in world politics” (4.6), but much higher ratings were given on the scales “technologically advanced” (5.6), “rich” (6.0), “politically stable” (6.0), and “educated” (5.6). Furthermore, the French felt that Canadians are trustworthy (5.8), likeable (5.7), and hardworking (5.5) but much less refined in taste (4.1). They also felt that France is not highly aligned with Canada (4.1) but they were very interested in visiting the country (6.4). On the scale “ideal country,” the French rated Canada highly (5.0). Furthermore, they desired closer ties with (5.7) and more investment (5.4) and imports (5.1) from Canada.

French images of Canadian products were positive, with several means above the midpoint, although not as positive as their images of Canada. The French had very positive beliefs about the workmanship (5.1), reliability (5.2), and quality (5.2) of

Canadian products. They also generally had positive beliefs about the after sales service (4.7), attractive appearance (4.5), innovativeness (4.7), and technical advancement (4.6) of Canadian products. Canadian products rated highly on the scale “overall” (5.0). As measures of the beliefs and feelings about the product integrity, the ratings on the above scales suggest that French beliefs and feelings about the product integrity of Canadian products were very positive. The French also believed that Canadian products are a fairly good value for the money (4.4) and are not overly expensive (4.1).

Poor ratings were given by the French on the scales “easy to find” (2.8), “variety” (3.4), and “recognizable brand names” (3.2). These scales measure the respondents’ market presence beliefs, suggesting that they believed the market presence of Canadian products was limited.

French respondents were found to be satisfied with Canadian products (4.6) but less proud to own them (4.3). While the rating on the scale “have what I like to buy” was mediocre (4.1), the rating on the scale “for people like me” was more favourable (4.5) and much higher on the scale “willing to buy” (5.5). As measures of a respondents’ behavioural orientations, the ratings on these scales suggest that the French generally had positive behavioural orientations towards Canadian products. Their behaviour towards Canadian products, on the other hand, was very poor, as shown by the ratings on the scales “know a lot” (2.4) and “normally buy a lot” (1.9).

Although the French believed Canadian products do not have a strong market presence and they do not know a lot about them and do not normally buy them, they still had positive beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products.

The German images of Canada were positive, with most of the means above the midpoint. Only on the scales “know a lot” (2.7), “admirable role in world politics” (3.7), and “aligned with Canada” (3.8) were generally poor ratings below the midpoint given. Nevertheless, the Germans believed that Canada is fairly technologically advanced (4.7), rich (5.0), and politically stable (5.6) and that the people are educated (4.8). They felt Canadians are trustworthier (5.2), likeable (5.0), and hardworking (4.7) than refined in taste (4.3). The Germans also showed a strong interest in visiting the country (5.9). They believed that Canada is an ideal country (4.9) and they desired more imports (4.9) and investment from (5.1) and closer ties with (5.1) Canada.

The German images of Canadian products were less positive than their images of the country, with some means above the midpoint. The Germans believed the workmanship (5.0) and reliability (4.8) of Canadian products to be good and the quality to be slightly better (5.1). The ratings on the scales “innovative” (4.4), “technically advanced” (4.3), “after sales service” (4.3), and “attractive appearance” (4.2) were, however, lower. The Germans gave Canadian products a fairly good rating on the scale “overall” (4.6). These above mentioned scales, as measures of the product integrity of a country’s products, and the ratings given suggest that, generally, the German beliefs and feelings about the

product integrity of Canadian products were positive. The Germans believed that Canadian products are a fairly good value for the money (4.2) and are not very expensive (4.2).

As measures of the market presence of a country's products, the ratings on the scales "easy to find" (2.7), "variety" (3.2), and "recognizable brand names" (2.7) were all poor, signifying that the Germans believed the market presence of Canadian products is limited. The Germans' behavioural orientations, as measured by the ratings on the following scales, were somewhat more positive. The German respondents felt that they are fairly satisfied with Canadian products (4.4), but are not proud to own them (3.6). They also felt that Canadian products do not have what they like to buy (3.8). On the scale "for people like me," however, a higher rating was given (4.4). Finally, on the scale "willing to buy," a much more favourable rating was given (5.3). The ratings given on two scales concerning experiences, "know a lot" (2.1) and "normally buy a lot" (2.0), were, however, very poor.

Despite the fact that the Germans believed Canadian products do not have a strong market presence and they do not know a lot about them and do not normally buy them, they still had positive beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products.

Summary

The American and European beliefs and feelings about Canada and, therefore, their images of Canada were all very positive in the late 1990's, as were their behavioural orientations towards Canada. The overall images of Canadian products were also generally positive, but less so than the images of the country. The respondents had generally positive beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products. Their behavioural orientations towards Canadian products were also generally found to be positive. However, their beliefs about the market presence of Canadian products and their behaviour towards them were very poor.

6.3 Underlying Dimensions of Product-Country Images

As Stevens (1996) suggested, in studies where a series of variables/scales are used to measure some construct, in this case respondents' product-country images and their behavioural orientations, it is found that a large number of simple correlations exist among the scales. Each scale is not measuring a different dimension (component). Rather, groups of scales are used to measure a smaller set of underlying dimensions. Knowing what the underlying dimensions of product-country images are, helps in understanding consumers' thought structures concerning product-country images. In addition, the generation of such composite variables can be useful for input into further data analysis procedures. In this study, the composite variables generated were used to

reduce the number of scales considered when examining the association between country images and product images, the fifth secondary objective.

Principal components analysis (PCA), as a variable reduction scheme, was the empirical approach utilized to determine how the variables/scales clustered together. PCA was run on the American, British, French, and German images of Canadian products and of Canada in the late 1990's. The Kaiser criterion was used to determine which components to retain. Accordingly, only components with eigenvalues greater than one were retained. In order to interpret the individual components, Stevens (1996) suggested that for studies such as this one, where the sample size is close to 300 on average, a factor loading of .30 or higher be used for statistical significance to be achieved. Stevens (1996) also suggested that for the factor loading to be practically significant it needs to be .40 or greater. Since other product-country image researchers (e.g. Bennett 1991; Heslop and Papadopoulos 1993; Szamosi 1995) used this loading of .40 or higher to interpret the individual components, it was decided that the same would be done in this study. In order to increase the interpretability of the factors, varimax rotation was used. With this rotation, "each factor tends to load high on a smaller number of variables and low or very low on the other variables" (Stevens 1996, pg. 368).

PCA was not run on the product-country images in the late 1980's since this was already done by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993), the results of which were discussed previously. These researchers examined all of their data sets (eight respondent countries

rating five countries each) using PCA. They looked for patterns in the use of the product and country image scales across the different countries. From this they designated the underlying dimensions of product-country images as outlined in section 2.3 under the heading “Understanding the Measurement of Product-Country Images.” The findings of Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993) were used as a benchmark in designating the underlying dimensions of product-country images in the late 1990’s.

The results of PCA on the respondent groups’ images of Canadian products in the late 1990’s are shown in Table 6.11. Between five and six significant components of product images emerged for each country. Despite some respondent country differences in the underlying dimensions, it was advantageous to examine the data for patterns in the use of the product image scales across the different countries, as done by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993). Across the respondent countries there appeared to be a Product Integrity / Value, a Market Presence, a Behavioural Orientation, and a Behaviour dimension in use in the formation of product images and behavioural orientations. To understand how these dimensions were designated, an examination of how the product image scales loaded together follows. The dimensions were named based on what the groupings of scales appeared to signify and on the names given to the underlying dimensions of product-country images in first study by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993).

In comparing across the respondent countries, it was found that the scales “workmanship,” “reliability,” “quality,” and “overall” always loaded together, suggesting

Table 6.11
Principal Components Analysis of Product Scales (Canada)

Factor	United States		Great Britain		France		Germany	
1	Workmanship	.773	Workmanship	.803	Workmanship	.759	Easy to Find	.671
	Reliability	.673	Reliability	.749	Reliability	.763	Know	.868
	Innovative	.436	Quality	.792	Quality	.746	Value	.497
	Quality	.818	Service	.658	Like Buy	.620	Brand	.774
	Service	.661	Attractive	.462	Overall	.476	Variety	.554
	Attractive	.576	Expensive	.516			Normally Buy	.861
	Value	.597	Overall	.559			Willing to Buy	-.409
	Overall	.533						
	Satisfied	.414						
	(6.4 ^a / 31.9% ^b)		(5.6 / 28.2%)		(5.4 / 27.0%)		(4.4 / 22.2%)	
2	Easy to Find	.481	Willing to Buy	.759	Easy to Find	.614	Workmanship	.696
	Know	.737	Proud	.681	Know	.743	Reliability	.694
	Brand	.778	For Me	.690	Brand	.700	Quality	.809
	Variety	.733	Overall	.435	Variety	.592	Value	.528
	Normally Buy	.799	Satisfied	.509	Normally Buy	.755	Willing to Buy	.435
							Overall	.764
							Satisfied	.407
	(2.1 / 10.7%)		(2.2 / 10.8%)		(2.3 / 11.3%)		(3.6 / 17.8%)	
3	Easy to Find	.561	Attractive	.565	Attractive	.466	Attractive	.503
	Like Buy	.614	Value	.512	Willing to Buy	.643	Like Buy	.427
	For Me	.709	Brand	.564	Proud	.669	Proud	.755
	Satisfied	.618	Variety	.557	For Me	.707	For Me	.670
					Overall	.502	Satisfied	.467
	(1.3 / 6.6%)		(1.4 / 7.1%)		Satisfied	.669	(1.4 / 6.8%)	
4	Willing to Buy	.845	Easy to Find	.671	Innovative	.742	Service	.602
	Proud	.793	Know	.715	Attractive	.460	Tech Advan	.730
	Overall	.458	Normally Buy	.744	Value	.620	Variety	.420
	(1.2 / 5.9%)		(1.2 / 5.8%)		(1.2 / 5.8%)		(1.2 / 6.2%)	
5	Tech Advan	.444	Like Buy	.759	Service	.416	Innovative	.534
	Expensive	-.712	Tech Advan	.642	Tech Advan	.811	Expensive	.725
	(1.1 / 5.4%)		(1.1 / 5.3%)		(1.1 / 5.4%)		(1.1 / 5.6%)	
6					Expensive	.918		
					(1.1 / 5.3%)			
cum (%) ^c	60.5%		57.3%		62.2%		58.6%	

^a Eigenvalue^b Percentage of Variance Explained^c Cumulative Percentage of Variance Explained

a dimension that could be called Product Integrity. The scales “after sales service” and “attractive appearance” may also be considered part of the Product Integrity dimension since both load twice with the other Product Integrity scales.

In addition to the above mentioned scales loading together, “value for the money” loads twice with these Product Integrity scales. As shown by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993), this scale was initially thought to be part of a Price/Value dimension. Reviewing Table 6.11, however, it is clear that no such distinct dimension exists. The scales making up this previously designated dimension, “expensive” and “value for the money,” never load together. Expensive did not load with other scales in any consistent way, therefore, it was decided not to include it in any of the summary dimensions. The loading pattern of “value for the money,” however, led to the conclusion that this scale should be included in the Product Integrity dimension. Placing “value for the money” under the Product Integrity dimension led to a change in the name of the dimension to Product Integrity / Value.

Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993) placed the scales “technically advanced” and “innovative” under the Product Integrity dimension. From the PCA output shown in Table 6.11, however, no clear loading pattern exists for these two scales. In fact, in the case of Great Britain, “innovative” did not load at the .40 level. Since it was not clear how respondents used these scales, it was decided that neither would be included in the designated dimensions.

In comparing across the respondent countries for the product scales, it was found that “variety” and “recognizable brand names” always loaded together. “Easy to find” also loaded with “variety” and “recognizable brand names” in three instances. These three scales represent a dimension that has been named Market Presence.

Finally, on the product side, the scales making up the Response dimension described by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993) and the new scales included in the second study expanding on this dimension, need to be considered. From the PCA output in Table 6.11 it appears that not one Response dimension exists, but two. One reflects a consumer's behavioural orientation and another reflects the consumer's actual behaviour.

In all four cases, "for people like me" and "satisfied" loaded together. In three cases (Britain, France, and Germany), "proud to own" loaded with "for people like me" and "satisfied." In two cases (Britain and France), "willing to buy" loaded with "for people like me," "satisfied," and "proud to own." In another case (Germany), "have what I like to buy" loaded with "for people like me," "satisfied," and "proud to own." In the case of the United States, "have what I like to buy" also loaded with "for people like me" and "satisfied," while "willing to buy" and "proud to own" loaded in a separate factor. In overview, the variety of interrelated loading patterns among the scales "satisfied," "proud to own," "have what I like to buy," "for people like me," and "willing to buy" led to the decision to link them in one dimension called Behavioural Orientation.

The scales "know a lot" and "normally buy a lot" were found to be part of the Response dimension, along with "proud to own" and "satisfied," by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993). The results of the PCA on the American and European images of Canadian products in the late 1990's, however, showed that "know a lot" and "normally buy a lot" never loaded with "proud to own," "satisfied" or any of the new "Response" scales

included in the second study. Rather the two scales loaded together in all four cases but on different factors than the other “Response” scales. In three of these instances, “know a lot” and “normally buy a lot” loaded with the Market Presence dimension. This suggests that a consumer’s purchase behaviour is heavily influenced by the “presence” of the product in the market. So, if products from a country cannot easily be found in the market, either because, for example, few are available or because they are unrecognizable, then consumers are not going to buy these products. Also, if consumers are buying a product, they know it and the brand and they can find it. Despite the loading of “know a lot” and “normally buy a lot” with the Market Presence dimension, intuitive logic and historical research led to the conclusion that “know a lot” and “normally buy a lot” should form a separate dimension from Market Presence that was named Behaviour. The scales in this dimension suggest that actual purchase behaviour is also directly influenced by the level of knowledge of a country’s products.

The division of the Response dimension, as defined by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993), into a Behavioural Orientation and a Behaviour dimension reflects the discrepancy between intention and actual behaviour, as described in section 2.2 under the heading “Predicting Consumer Behaviour.” The Behavioural Orientation dimension may suggest that a consumer is “willing to buy” a country’s products and is “proud to own” them, but their actual behaviour will be influenced more by the separate Behaviour dimension and, as shown, by the Market Presence of a product, and not by their Behavioural Orientation.

In summary, examination of the manner in which the various product scales loaded together, resulted in the designation of the following underlying dimensions of product images:

PRODUCT DIMENSIONS

Product Integrity / Value

Workmanship
Reliability
Quality
After Sales Service
Attractive Appearance
Overall
Value for the Money

Market Presence

Easy to Find
Variety
Recognizable Brand Names

Behavioural Orientation

Satisfied
Proud to Own
Have What I Like to Buy
For People Like Me
Willing to Buy

Behaviour

Know a Lot
Normally Buy a Lot

The results of PCA on the American, British, French, and German images of Canada in the late 1990's are shown in Table 6.12. Three to five significant components of country images emerged for each country. Despite some respondent country differences in the underlying dimensions, it was beneficial to examine the data for patterns in the use of the country image scales across the different countries. Doing so showed that respondents in all countries appeared to use a Belief, an Affect, and a Link dimension in the formation of these images and behavioural orientations, as was the case in the first study. In order to understand how these dimensions were designated, an examination of how the country image scales loaded together follows. As mentioned previously, the dimensions were named based on what the groupings of scales appeared to signify and on the names given

Table 6.12
Principal Components Analysis of Country Scales (Canada)

Factor	United States		Great Britain		France		Germany	
1	Stable	.418	Taste	.534	Role	.438	Stable	.449
	Role	.598	Ties	.786	Rich	.751	Rich	.745
	Rich	.755	Educated	.503	Tech Advan	.839	Tech Advan	.772
	Tech Advan	.783	Ideal	.603	Educated	.651	Educated	.632
	Taste	.682	Investment	.732	Hardworking	.560		
	Educated	.740	Imports	.733				
	Ideal	.527						
	(5.7 ^a / 35.5% ^b)		(5.0 / 31.1%)		(4.1 / 25.6%)		(4.1 / 25.6%)	
2	Ties	.583	Rich	.824	Role	.409	Ties	.474
	Alignment	.530	Tech Advan	.795	Ties	.642	Investment	.823
	Ideal	.484	Taste	.407	Ideal	.537	Imports	.837
	Investment	.883	Educated	.611	Investment	.772		
	Imports	.859			Imports	.745		
	(1.8 / 11.0%)		(1.6 / 9.8%)		(1.7 / 10.8%)		(1.6 / 9.7%)	
3	Know	.561	Trustworthy	.653	Trustworthy	.673	Trustworthy	.471
	Trustworthy	.634	Hardworking	.673	Hardworking	.457	Hardworking	.823
	Hardworking	.733	Likeable	.726	Likeable	.739	Likeable	.746
	Likeable	.744			Visit	.570		
	Visit	.598						
	(1.4 / 8.7%)		(1.2 / 7.3%)		(1.3 / 8.4%)		(1.4 / 8.9%)	
4			Stable	.772	Taste	.738	Trustworthy	.580
			Role	.583	Alignment	.836	Alignment	-.488
							Ideal	.420
							Visit	.673
			(1.1 / 6.7%)		(1.1 / 7.0%)		(1.2 / 7.4%)	
5			Know	.624	Know	.808	Know	.682
			Visit	.672	Stable	-.613	Role	.711
			(1.0 / 6.3%)		(1.1 / 6.6%)		(1.0 / 6.5%)	
cum (%) ^c	55.2%		61.3%		58.4%		58.1%	

^a Eigenvalue^b Percentage of Variance Explained^c Cumulative Percentage of Variance Explained

to the underlying dimensions of product-country images in the first study by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993).

It was found that in comparing across the respondent countries the scales

“technologically advanced,” “rich,” and “educated” always loaded together. “Politically

stable” also loaded with “technologically advanced,” “rich,” and “educated” twice. These

scales measure a consumer's beliefs about a country's industrial development. It was, therefore, decided to name the summary dimension, Belief. It should be noted that in addition to the mentioned scales, "admirable role in world politics" loads on the Belief dimension. This scale was, however, found to be part of the Affect dimension by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993). Nevertheless, the loadings indicate that this scale loads most frequently with the scales of the Belief dimension.

The scales "trustworthy," "hardworking," and "likeable" always loaded together. "Like to visit" also loaded with "trustworthy," "hardworking," and "likeable" on two occasions (France and the United States). From these findings it was decided that "trustworthy," "likeable," "hardworking," and "like to visit" would be combined in a dimension that could be called Affect.

Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993) suggested that "refined taste" was one of the scales making up the Affect dimension. For the country images in the late 1990's, consumers' use of this scale was not as clear as in the late 1980's. The scale showed no clear loading pattern and was, therefore, not included in any of the dimensions.

"Closer ties," "more investment," and "more imports" were always found to load together at the .40 level or higher. On three occasions, "ideal country" also loaded with these scales, suggesting that the more consumers' view the country in question as "ideal," the

more likely they are to desire some relationship with this country. The dimension that describes these scales was named Link.

Two scales that were included in the second study but not in the first study, “aligned with Canada” and “know a lot,” were found not to have clear loading patterns. It was decided that since it was unclear how consumers used such scales, they would not be included in any of the dimensions.

In summary, examination of the manner in which the various country scales loaded together, resulted in the designation of the following underlying dimensions of country images:

COUNTRY DIMENSIONS

Belief

Technologically Advanced
Rich
Politically Stable
Educated
Admirable Role in World Politics

Affect

Trustworthy
Likeable
Hardworking
Like to Visit

Link

Closer Ties
More Investment
More Imports
Ideal Country

In addition to running the principal components analysis on the American, British, French, and German images of Canadian products and of Canada in the late 1990's, it was run on the British, French, and German images of American products and of the United States in the late 1990's. The output of these analyses are shown in Appendix I. The same basic loading pattern was found to exist with regards to the image of the United States as was found for Canada. It was, therefore, concluded that one common set of

dimensions underlie all respondent groups' images of a country's products and of a country.

6.4 Primary Objectives – Product-Country Image Changes

This section examines the changes in the product-country images of Canada between the late 1980's and late 1990's, and compares the changes in the European respondents' images of Canada with those of the United States. To conduct the longitudinal analyses, MANOVA was used where year was the between-subjects factor. If the multivariate F-test proved significant, then univariate F-tests were used as the post hoc procedure to determine which scales were contributing to the overall difference. The decision rule for the overall multivariate test was to reject the null hypothesis if the level of significance (α) was less than .05 for the observed F value. For the univariate follow-up tests on changes in country images, scales with $\alpha < .019$ (.15/8 scales) for the observed F value were considered to have a significant influence on the overall multivariate difference. In the case of changes in product images, on the univariate level, scales with $\alpha < .01$ (.15/15 scales) for the observed F value were considered to have a significant influence on the overall multivariate difference.

Changes in the Product-Country Images of Canada

This subsection explores the changes in the American and European images of Canada and its products between the late 1980's and late 1990's.

Hypothesis 1A

The images held by the Americans of Canada will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the Americans' images of Canada in the two time periods are shown in Table 6.13. The overall multivariate analysis was significant at $\alpha < .001$.

The null hypothesis was, therefore, rejected. The Americans' *overall* images of Canada improved, as shown by the ratings on the "Mean of Common Scales," with only two scales contributing to this difference. The Americans' beliefs about the technological advancement of Canada and its role in world politics improved.

Hypothesis 1B

The images held by the Americans of Canadian products will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the Americans' images of Canadian products in the two time periods are shown in Table 6.14. The overall multivariate analysis was significant at $\alpha < .001$. Accordingly, the null hypothesis was rejected. Although the *overall* rating

Table 6.13
Output of MANOVA of Changes in American Images of Canada and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.79	4.98	5.46	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1st Study*	Mean in 2nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	4.2	4.7	26.49	.000
Admirable Role in World Politics	4.2	4.7	22.68	.000
Refined Taste	4.5	4.6	1.67	.196
Trustworthy	5.2	5.4	3.07	.080
Likeable	5.2	5.2	0.02	.891
Hardworking	4.7	4.7	0.00	.966
Closer Ties	5.4	5.4	0.26	.612
More Investment	5.1	5.2	1.49	.223

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

improved, the means were very close, and only one scale was different, i.e., the

“workmanship” scale was 4.8 in the second study versus 4.3 in the first.

In conclusion, the Americans’ overall product-country images of Canada improved slightly despite the unchanged low ratings on the market presence and behaviour scales. However, despite the increased relations between the two countries and the increased exports to the United States over the time period studied, ratings on fewer scales improved than expected.

Table 6.14
Output of MANOVA of Changes in American Images of Canadian Products
and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1 st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2 nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.05	4.07	4.67	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1 st Study*	Mean in 2 nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	4.3	4.8	28.28	.000
Reliability	4.8	4.7	2.57	.109
Innovative	3.9	3.9	0.00	.970
Technically Advanced	4.1	4.0	1.20	.274
Quality	4.7	4.8	1.66	.198
After Sales Service	4.2	4.3	2.37	.124
Value for the Money	4.3	4.4	0.89	.347
Expensive	4.3	4.1	4.36	.037
Easy to Find	3.8	3.7	0.37	.543
Variety	3.8	3.7	0.44	.508
Recognizable Brand Names	3.8	3.5	5.19	.023
Know a Lot	3.0	3.1	0.16	.689
Satisfied	4.5	4.6	0.01	.941
Proud to Own	4.6	4.6	0.08	.783
Normally Buy a Lot	2.7	2.9	1.34	.248

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Hypothesis 2A

The images held by the British of Canada will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the British images of Canada in the two time periods are shown in Table 6.15. The null hypothesis was rejected because the overall multivariate analysis was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The *overall* mean was much higher in the recent study. All of the scales but “hardworking” were found to have an influence on the change. The ratings on these significant scales were all much higher in the second study by .4 to .8 scale points. Canada’s role in the banning of landmines and their joining forces

with the European Union on a number of contentious issues over the study period may have contributed to the improvement in the British beliefs about Canada's role in world politics and in their feelings about how trustworthy and likeable Canadians are. Further, these events may have contributed to the increase in desire of the British to have closer ties with Canada.

Table 6.15
Output of MANOVA of Changes in British Images of Canada and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1 st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2 nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.71	5.25	11.32	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1 st Study*	Mean in 2 nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	4.6	5.2	22.78	.000
Admirable Role in World Politics	3.9	4.6	21.36	.000
Refined Taste	4.2	4.6	9.98	.002
Trustworthy	5.1	5.8	36.44	.000
Likeable	4.9	5.5	21.54	.000
Hardworking	5.0	5.1	1.28	.258
Closer Ties	5.0	5.4	9.10	.003
More Investment	4.9	5.7	35.62	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Hypothesis 2B

The images held by the British of Canadian products will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the British images of Canadian products in the two study periods are shown in Table 6.16. The overall multivariate analysis was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The null hypothesis was, therefore, rejected. *Overall* the rating declined slightly from a below the midpoint rating in the first study.

Table 6.16
Output of MANOVA of Changes in British Images of Canadian Products
and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1 st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2 nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	3.97	3.89	6.76	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1 st Study*	Mean in 2 nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	4.6	5.0	14.15	.000
Reliability	4.8	5.1	5.22	.023
Innovative	4.1	4.1	0.28	.595
Technically Advanced	4.5	4.4	0.85	.356
Quality	4.7	5.2	14.66	.000
After Sales Service	4.5	4.6	0.68	.411
Value for the Money	4.2	4.3	0.95	.331
Expensive	4.5	4.3	1.56	.212
Easy to Find	3.0	2.2	24.74	.000
Variety	3.8	3.1	18.46	.000
Recognizable Brand Names	3.2	3.0	0.94	.332
Know a Lot	2.4	1.8	17.62	.000
Satisfied	4.4	4.7	6.02	.014
Proud to Own	4.6	4.7	0.73	.393
Normally Buy a Lot	2.2	1.7	22.61	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Several scales contributed to this overall multivariate difference. The ratings on the Market Presence scales “easy to find” and “variety,” and the Behaviour scales “know a lot” and “normally buy a lot” were even lower in the second study. Perhaps their behaviour was less positive because of their less positive beliefs about the market presence of Canadian products. Interestingly, although the *overall* British rating of Canadian products declined, the ratings on two of the Product Integrity/Value scales, “workmanship” and “quality,” improved considerably.

Hypothesis 3A

The images held by the French of Canada will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the French images of Canada in the two time periods are shown in Table 6.17. The overall multivariate analysis was significant at the $\alpha < .001$.

Consequently, the null hypothesis was rejected. The *overall* image improved substantially. All but two scales, “trustworthy” and “closer ties,” were found to be contributing significantly to the overall changes and all of the ratings on these scales were more positive in the second study by .4 to .7 scale points. Canada’s role in the banning of landmines and their joining forces with the European Union on a number of contentious issues over the study period may have contributed to the improvement in the French beliefs about Canada’s role in world politics and in their feelings about how likeable Canadians are.

Table 6.17
Output of MANOVA of Changes in French Images of Canada and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1 st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2 nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.84	5.29	12.29	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1 st Study*	Mean in 2 nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	4.9	5.6	47.44	.000
Admirable Role in World Politics	4.1	4.6	14.20	.000
Refined Taste	3.7	4.1	13.98	.000
Trustworthy	5.6	5.8	2.65	.104
Likeable	5.3	5.7	15.42	.000
Hardworking	4.8	5.5	51.06	.000
Closer Ties	5.5	5.7	2.69	.101
More Investment	4.8	5.4	21.14	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Hypothesis 3B

The images held by the French of Canadian products will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the French images of Canadian products in the two time periods are shown in Table 6.18. The null hypothesis was rejected because the overall multivariate analysis was significant at the $\alpha < .001$. The *overall* rating had improved from under the midpoint to just above the midpoint.

Table 6.18
Output of MANOVA of Changes in French Images of Canadian Products
and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1 st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2 nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	3.83	4.04	12.05	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1 st Study*	Mean in 2 nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	4.4	5.1	47.35	.000
Reliability	4.6	5.2	36.23	.000
Innovative	4.1	4.7	22.19	.000
Technically Advanced	4.5	4.6	0.20	.654
Quality	4.7	5.2	28.41	.000
After Sales Service	4.0	4.7	66.50	.000
Value for the Money	4.0	4.4	19.91	.000
Expensive	4.3	4.1	3.68	.056
Easy to Find	2.6	2.8	1.56	.212
Variety	3.9	3.4	17.05	.000
Recognizable Brand Names	3.4	3.2	1.25	.264
Know a Lot	2.2	2.4	3.31	.070
Satisfied	4.2	4.6	27.13	.000
Proud to Own	4.4	4.3	0.40	.526
Normally Buy a Lot	2.1	1.9	1.01	.316

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Eight of the fifteen scales had a significant influence on the changes. The French ratings on the Product Integrity/Value scales “workmanship,” “reliability,” “quality,”

“innovative,” “after sales service,” and “value for the money” were much more positive. However, the scale “variety,” belonging to the Market Presence dimension, was significantly lower. The final scale contributing significantly to the overall changes was “satisfied,” which improved by 0.4. In conclusion, the French images of Canada and its products improved despite the overall decline in the beliefs about the market presence of Canadian products.

Hypothesis 4A

The images held by the Germans of Canada will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the Germans’ images of Canada in the two time periods are shown in Table 6.19. The overall multivariate analysis was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The null hypothesis was, therefore, rejected. The German images of Canada improved slightly. Of all respondent groups, the Germans’ images of Canada improved the least and they gave the lowest *overall* ratings of all the respondents in both study periods.

Four scales were significant. Only the rating on the scale “more investment” was considerably higher, by .7 scale points, in the second study, while the ratings on the scales “technologically advanced” and “refined taste” were marginally higher. The rating on “admirable role in world politics” was, on the other hand, lower by .3 scale points.

Table 6.19
Output of MANOVA of Changes in German Images of Canada and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1 st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2 nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.64	4.72	8.29	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1 st Study*	Mean in 2 nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	4.5	4.7	6.14	.014
Admirable Role in World Politics	4.0	3.7	5.70	.017
Refined Taste	4.0	4.3	5.67	.018
Trustworthy	5.1	5.2	0.62	.430
Likeable	5.1	5.0	0.95	.330
Hardworking	4.8	4.7	1.56	.212
Closer Ties	5.3	5.1	2.08	.150
More Investment	4.4	5.1	35.08	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Hypothesis 4B

The images held by the Germans of Canadian products will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the German images of Canadian products in the two time periods are shown in Table 6.20. The null hypothesis was rejected because the overall multivariate analysis proved significant at $\alpha < .001$. The *overall* rating declined slightly. The Germans gave the lowest *overall* ratings of all the respondents to Canadian products in both study periods.

Six of the fifteen scales contributed to the changes, but not all scales were rated lower in the second study. Ratings on two scales that belong to the Product Integrity / Value dimension, "reliability" and "quality," improved. The rating on one of the Behaviour scales, "normally buy a lot," also improved.

Table 6.20
Output of MANOVA of Changes in German Images of Canadian Products
and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1 st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2 nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	3.82	3.81	7.52	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1 st Study*	Mean in 2 nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	4.7	5.0	5.91	.015
Reliability	4.5	4.8	13.81	.000
Innovative	4.3	4.4	0.11	.738
Technically Advanced	4.6	4.3	8.47	.004
Quality	4.8	5.1	12.66	.000
After Sales Service	4.2	4.3	0.91	.340
Value for the Money	4.1	4.2	1.50	.221
Expensive	4.4	4.2	9.45	.002
Easy to Find	3.0	2.7	5.29	.022
Variety	3.5	3.2	5.31	.022
Recognizable Brand Names	3.3	2.7	23.20	.000
Know a Lot	2.0	2.1	0.07	.797
Satisfied	4.2	4.4	5.62	.018
Proud to Own	3.8	3.6	5.22	.023
Normally Buy a Lot	1.7	2.0	6.90	.009

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Lower ratings were given in the second study on the scales “technically advanced” and “expensive.” This was also the case for “recognizable brand names,” one of the Market Presence scales. In conclusion, the Germans’ images of Canada improved slightly but their images of Canadian products declined slightly.

Summary of the Changes in the Product-Country Images of Canada

American and European images of Canada were even more positive in the second study than in the first. The beliefs and feelings making up this image and the related

behavioural orientations for all respondent countries were more positive, with the exception of the Germans' beliefs about Canada's role in world politics. The images of Canadian products did not, however, all improve. Although the American and French images improved, the British and German images declined slightly. Across the respondent groups, however, the beliefs about the product integrity of Canadian products generally improved while those of the market presence and behaviour generally declined.

Changes in the Product-Country Images of the United States

This subsection explores the changes in the Europeans' images of the United States and its products between the late 1980's and late 1990's.

Hypothesis 5A

The images held by the British of the United States will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the British images of the United States in the two time periods are shown in Table 6.21. The overall multivariate analysis was significant at the $\alpha < .001$. The null hypothesis was, therefore, rejected. The *overall* mean was substantially higher in the recent study.

Six of the eight scales influenced the changes. All of the ratings on these scales, which included Belief, Affect, and Link scales, were much more favourable in the second study

Table 6.21
Output of MANOVA of Changes in British Images of the United States
and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1 st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2 nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.08	4.84	22.36	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1 st Study*	Mean in 2 nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	6.1	5.9	2.61	.107
Admirable Role in World Politics	3.5	4.9	76.52	.000
Refined Taste	3.3	3.9	12.16	.001
Trustworthy	3.9	4.6	19.25	.000
Likeable	3.1	4.4	70.07	.000
Hardworking	4.8	4.6	1.30	.255
Closer Ties	4.0	5.0	35.60	.000
More Investment	3.9	5.4	71.45	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

by .6 to 1.5 scale points. Only the rating on the scale “refined taste” remained under the midpoint (3.9). The ratings on “admirable role in world politics,” “trustworthy,” “likeable,” “closer ties,” and “more investment” were, however, either slightly or substantially above the midpoint in the second study, unlike those in the first that were at or below the midpoint.

Hypothesis 5B

The images held by the British of American products will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the British images of American products in the two time periods are shown in Table 6.22. The null hypothesis was rejected because the overall

multivariate analysis was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The British images of American products improved.

Table 6.22
Output of MANOVA of Changes in British Images of American Products
and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1 st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2 nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.67	5.03	12.23	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1 st Study*	Mean in 2 nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	4.1	5.1	57.74	.000
Reliability	4.6	5.0	10.59	.001
Innovative	5.6	5.1	10.32	.001
Technically Advanced	5.9	5.6	10.79	.001
Quality	4.7	5.1	6.41	.012
After Sales Service	4.5	5.1	17.04	.000
Value for the Money	4.3	4.9	22.19	.000
Expensive	4.8	4.3	14.81	.000
Easy to Find	4.7	5.3	13.49	.000
Variety	5.6	5.7	0.42	.519
Recognizable Brand Names	5.1	5.7	16.97	.000
Know a Lot	3.7	4.5	21.85	.000
Satisfied	4.6	5.0	11.61	.001
Proud to Own	4.5	4.8	3.17	.075
Normally Buy a Lot	3.2	4.2	43.19	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Only three scales did not contribute to the change. The British ratings on the Product Integrity scales “workmanship,” “reliability,” and “after sales service” were, however, even higher in the second time period whereas the ratings on “innovative” and “technically advanced” had declined but were still very favourable. Their beliefs and feelings about the price and value of American products were more positive.

The ratings on two of the Market Presence scales, “easy to find” and “recognizable brand names,” were even higher in the late 1990’s. The rating on the Behavioural Orientation scale “satisfied” was also higher, as were the ratings on the Behaviour scales “know a lot” and “normally buy a lot.”

In conclusion, the British images of the United States improved substantially. This may be explained by the fact that Britain and the United States had improved their political ties and were following similar economic policies. Their images of American products also improved.

Hypothesis 6A

The images held by the French of the United States will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the French images of the United States in the two time periods are shown in Table 6.23. The overall multivariate analysis was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The null hypothesis was, therefore, rejected. The *overall* mean declined slightly. Only four scales contributed to the overall changes. The French beliefs about the role of the Americans in world politics were less positive in the late 1990’s but still very positive. Similarly, they gave lower but still favourable ratings on the scales “trustworthy” and “closer ties.” Nevertheless, in the second study the French gave a higher rating on the scale “more investment.”

Table 6.23
Output of MANOVA of Changes in French Images of the United States
and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1 st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2 nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	5.09	4.92	8.71	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1 st Study*	Mean in 2 nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	6.5	6.4	2.60	.108
Admirable Role in World Politics	6.4	5.9	23.20	.000
Refined Taste	2.7	2.5	1.83	.177
Trustworthy	5.4	4.9	15.15	.000
Likeable	5.1	4.9	3.19	.075
Hardworking	5.2	5.1	0.32	.570
Closer Ties	5.2	4.9	7.08	.008
More Investment	4.3	4.8	11.72	.001

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Hypothesis 6B

The images held by the French of American products will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the French images of American products in the two time periods are shown in Table 6.24. The null hypothesis was rejected because the overall multivariate analysis proved significant at $\alpha < .001$. The images improved, as shown by the higher *overall* mean in the second study. The French also gave the highest *overall* ratings of all the respondents in both study periods.

Ten of the fifteen scales contributed to the changes. The ratings on the Product Integrity scales “workmanship,” “quality,” and “after sales service” were higher in the recent study

Table 6.24
Output of MANOVA of Changes in French Images of American Products
and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1 st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2 nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.83	5.14	20.46	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1 st Study*	Mean in 2 nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	4.5	4.9	11.05	.001
Reliability	5.2	5.2	0.10	.757
Innovative	5.4	5.2	4.61	.032
Technically Advanced	6.0	5.7	8.78	.003
Quality	4.8	5.2	13.03	.000
After Sales Service	4.5	4.9	11.93	.001
Value for the Money	3.8	4.9	88.31	.000
Expensive	5.1	4.1	71.45	.000
Easy to Find	4.9	5.8	47.70	.000
Variety	5.3	5.8	14.85	.000
Recognizable Brand Names	5.6	5.8	6.29	.012
Know a Lot	4.5	5.6	93.24	.000
Satisfied	5.1	5.1	0.07	.796
Proud to Own	4.4	4.2	2.92	.088
Normally Buy a Lot	3.6	4.7	64.17	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

but the ratings on the scale “technically advanced” declined slightly. The French beliefs and feelings about the price and value of American products improved substantially.

The ratings on two of the Market Presence dimensions, “easy to find” and “variety,” were much higher in the second study. Similarly, the ratings on the Behaviour scales “know a lot” and “normally buy a lot” increased substantially. Interestingly, the rating on “normally buy a lot” was below the midpoint (3.6) in the first study but above it (4.7) in the second study. In conclusion, the French images of the United States declined slightly while their images of American products improved.

Hypothesis 7A

The images held by the Germans of the United States will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the German images of the United States in the two study periods are shown in Table 6.25. The overall multivariate analysis was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The null hypothesis was, therefore, rejected. The images improved, as shown by the higher *overall* mean in the second study. Only two scales contributed to this difference. The rating on the scale “more investment” was substantially higher (5.0) in the second study than in the first (3.8). The rating on “technologically advanced” was, however, somewhat lower, but still very positive.

Table 6.25
Output of MANOVA of Changes in German Images of the United States
and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.62	4.77	21.00	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1st Study*	Mean in 2nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	6.3	5.7	40.74	.000
Admirable Role in World Politics	5.1	5.4	4.67	.031
Refined Taste	3.5	3.3	1.85	.175
Trustworthy	4.4	4.5	0.41	.520
Likeable	4.6	4.7	0.57	.451
Hardworking	4.3	4.5	2.01	.156
Closer Ties	4.9	5.0	0.93	.336
More Investment	3.8	5.0	75.98	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Hypothesis 7B

The images held by the Germans of American products will not have changed.

The results of MANOVA on the German images of American products in the two time periods are shown in Table 6.26. The null hypothesis was rejected because the overall multivariate analysis was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The *overall* mean was higher in the recent study.

Table 6.26
Output of MANOVA of Changes in German Images of American Products
and the Related Means

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Mean of Common Scales (1 st Study)*	Mean of Common Scales (2 nd Study)*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.56	4.78	22.60	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	Mean in 1 st Study*	Mean in 2 nd Study*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	4.5	4.5	1.13	.288
Reliability	4.5	4.5	0.04	.845
Innovative	5.9	5.2	46.42	.000
Technically Advanced	5.9	5.1	44.68	.000
Quality	4.6	4.8	4.51	.034
After Sales Service	4.1	4.6	29.83	.000
Value for the Money	3.9	4.6	62.12	.000
Expensive	4.8	4.1	50.65	.000
Easy to Find	5.0	5.4	13.23	.000
Variety	5.3	5.6	6.75	.010
Recognizable Brand Names	4.9	5.7	31.39	.000
Know a Lot	3.9	4.7	28.49	.000
Satisfied	4.4	4.8	18.99	.000
Proud to Own	3.8	3.8	0.02	.896
Normally Buy a Lot	3.0	4.3	85.27	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Eleven of the fifteen scales influenced the overall changes. On two of the Product

Integrity scales, "innovative" and "technically advanced," lower but still very favourable

ratings were given in the late 1990's. However, the Germans' beliefs about the after sales service improved. Their beliefs and feelings about the price and value of American products were also more positive.

On the scales measuring Market Presence, "easy to find," "variety," and "recognizable brand names," even higher ratings were given in the second study than in the first. Ratings on the Behaviour scales "know a lot" and "normally buy a lot" increased substantially between the study periods from ratings below to ratings above the midpoint. "Satisfied" was the last scale contributing to the overall changes. A higher rating was given in the second study. In conclusion, the German images of the United States improved slightly, driven by the substantially higher rating on the scale "more investment" and the images of American products also improved.

Summary of the Changes in the Product-Country Images of the United States

British and German images of the United States improved between the two studies while the French images of the United States declined slightly. All European respondents' images of American products improved. Although some of the respondents' beliefs and feelings about the product integrity of American products improved, some also declined. Respondents, on the other hand, had even more positive beliefs about the market presence of American products in the second study. Furthermore, their behaviour towards American products was also more positive.

A Comparison of the Changes in the European Product-Country Images of Canada and the United States

In this subsection the changes in the Europeans' images of Canada are compared to the changes in their images of the United States. A summary of the differences in the product-country images of Canada and the United States between the two study periods is shown in Table 6.27.

Table 6.27
Comparison of Longitudinal Differences in Product-Country Images of Canada and the United States

	USA	Britain		France		Germany	
Country Scale	Can.	Can.	USA	Can.	USA	Can.	USA
Technologically Advanced	0.5	0.6	-0.2	0.7	-0.1	0.2	-0.6
Admirable Role in World Politics	0.5	0.7	1.4	0.5	-0.5	-0.3	0.3
Refined Taste	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.4	-0.2	0.3	-0.2
Trustworthy	0.2	0.7	0.7	0.2	-0.5	0.1	0.1
Likeable	0.0	0.6	1.3	0.4	-0.2	-0.1	0.1
Hardworking	0.0	0.1	-0.2	0.7	0.1	-0.1	0.2
Closer Ties	0.0	0.4	1.0	0.2	-0.3	-0.2	0.1
More Investment	0.1	0.8	1.5	0.6	0.5	0.7	1.2
Product Scale							
Workmanship	0.5	0.4	1.0	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.0
Reliability	-0.1	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.0	0.3	0.0
Innovative	0.0	0.0	-0.5	0.6	-0.2	0.1	-0.7
Technically Advanced	-0.1	-0.1	-0.3	0.1	-0.3	-0.3	-0.8
Quality	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2
After Sales Service	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.1	0.5
Value for the Money	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	1.1	0.1	0.7
Expensive	-0.2	-0.2	-0.5	-0.2	-1.0	-0.2	-0.7
Easy to Find	-0.1	-0.8	0.6	0.2	0.9	-0.3	0.4
Variety	-0.1	-0.7	0.1	-0.5	0.5	-0.3	0.3
Recognizable Brand Names	-0.3	-0.2	0.6	-0.2	0.2	-0.5	0.8
Know a Lot	0.1	-0.6	0.8	0.2	1.1	0.1	0.8
Satisfied	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.0	0.2	0.4
Proud to Own	0.0	0.1	0.3	-0.1	-0.2	-0.2	0.0
Normally Buy a Lot	0.2	-0.5	1.0	-0.2	1.1	0.3	1.3

Note: Significant Differences (Country Scales: $\alpha < .019$; Product Scales: $\alpha < .01$) are **BOLDED**

Changes in the British Product-Country Images of Canada vs. the United States

The British images of both Canada and the United States became more positive over the period studied. Their images of the United States, however, improved much more than their images of Canada. Nevertheless, the British gave higher overall ratings to Canada in both study years. On the univariate level, almost all of the same scales were affecting changes in the British images of Canada as were affecting changes in the images of the United States.

Over the period studied, the British images of Canadian products declined slightly, while those of American products improved considerably. In both studies, the British gave higher overall ratings to American products than to Canadian products.

The British beliefs about the product integrity of Canadian products improved while those of American products improved for some of the scales and declined for others. Regarding price and value, their beliefs and feelings about Canadian products had not changed significantly but their views of American products had improved. The British thought American products were better value in both studies. However, in terms of the expensiveness of the products, in the first study American products were seen as more expensive but by the late 1990's American and Canadian products were believed to be equally expensive.

Over the study period, the British beliefs about the market presence of Canadian products declined further, while those of American products improved. In both study periods, American products received much more favourable ratings than Canadian products on the Market Presence scales. The behaviour of the British towards Canadian products was less positive in the more recent study, while the behaviour towards American products was more positive. In both years, the British were more likely to know a lot more about and normally buy a lot more American than Canadian products.

In conclusion, although the British images of Canada improved, the drastic improvement in the British images of the United States suggests that the gap between these images is narrowing. This may suggest that Canada is losing its historical advantage as Britain's economic and political ties with the United States became stronger. In terms of the British images of Canadian products, although a slight decline was found, Canadian products held their ground and, in fact, became more positive with regards to product integrity but lost ground with regards to market presence.

Changes in the French Product-Country Images of Canada vs. the United States

The French images of Canada improved over the study period, while their images of the United States declined slightly. The French beliefs about the technological advancement of Canada were more positive in the newer study but remained unchanged for the United States. However, the French believed that the United States is more technologically

advanced than Canada in both time periods. The French beliefs about Canada's role in world politics had improved while those of the United States had declined. Nevertheless, the French believed that the United States has a more admirable role in world politics than Canada in both time periods.

The French feelings with regards to the refined taste of Americans had not changed, but their feelings had improved with regards to the refined taste of Canadians. In terms of trustworthiness of Canadians, the French feelings had not changed, while their feelings towards Americans had become less positive. On the scales "likeable" and "hardworking," the French views improved towards Canadians while their views towards Americans remained unchanged.

The French desire for closer ties with Canada did not change, while their desire for closer ties with the United States declined. In both years, the French desired closer ties with Canada than with the United States. The French also desired more investment from Canada than from the United States in both study periods, despite increases in the ratings on these scales for both Canada and the United States.

Although the French images of Canadian products improved, their images of American products improved more. In both study periods, the French had more positive images of American products than of Canadian products. The French beliefs about the product integrity of Canadian and American products were generally more positive in the new

study. Only on the scale “technically advanced” was a lower rating found for the image of American products. The French feelings about the value for the money of Canadian and American products improved. Although the Canadian products were felt to be of greater value for the money than American products in the first study, the reverse was true in the new study. In terms of expensiveness, Canadian products were believed not to have changed while American products were believed to have become less expensive. Although American products were believed to be more expensive than Canadian products in the earlier study, in the new study American and Canadian products were believed to be equally expensive.

Generally speaking, in the second study the beliefs about the market presence of Canadian products were less positive, while the beliefs about the market presence of American products were more positive. The French rating of Canadian products on the scale “satisfied,” one of the Behavioural Orientation scales, was more positive in the second study, while the rating for American products remained unchanged. The behaviour of the French towards Canadian products did not change, while their behaviour towards American products improved. In both study periods, the French were more likely to know a lot more about and normally buy a lot more American than Canadian products.

In conclusion, by the late 1990’s the French images of Canada had improved and were more positive than the images of the United States, the reverse of the findings in the

earlier study. The French images of Canadian products improved but their images of American products improved more.

Changes in the German Product-Country Images of Canada vs. the United States

Although the German images of Canada improved, their images of the United States improved more. In the first study, the Germans had a more positive image of Canada than of the United States, while the reverse was true in the second study.

The Germans' beliefs about the technological advancement of Canada improved, while their beliefs about the technological advancement of the United States declined.

Nevertheless, the Germans believed that the United States is more technologically advanced than Canada in both periods. Their beliefs about Canada's role in world politics declined, while their related beliefs about the United States had not changed. However, the Germans believed that the United States has a more admirable role in world politics than Canada in both study periods. The feelings of the Germans concerning the taste of the Canadians had improved while their feelings about the taste of Americans had not changed, but in both time periods the Germans gave higher ratings to the Canadians than to the Americans. On the scale "more investment," ratings for both Canada and the United States improved. Nevertheless, the Germans desired more investment from Canada than from the United States in both time periods.

The German images of American products improved, whereas their images of Canadian products declined. In both study periods, the Germans gave higher overall ratings to American products than to Canadian products. The Germans' beliefs about the product integrity of Canadian and American products were more positive in the second study when looking at some scales and less positive when looking others. In the second study, the Germans gave Canada higher ratings on the scale "reliability," while the ratings remained unchanged for American products. Although their beliefs about the reliability of Canadian and American products were equally positive in the late 1980's, by the late 1990's they gave Canadian products higher ratings. The beliefs about the innovativeness of Canadian products had not changed, but their beliefs about the innovativeness of American products had declined but were still rated higher than Canadian products in both years. In terms of technical advancement, Canadian and American products were rated less positively in the second study, but Germans rated American products higher than Canadian products in both years. Although no statistically significant difference was detected in the ratings for American products on the scale "quality," higher ratings were given to Canadian products in the second study than in the first. Interestingly, the Germans' beliefs about the quality of Canadian products were more positive than their beliefs about American products in both periods. In terms of after sales service, the Germans' ratings of Canadian products had not changed, while the rating given to American products improved. Although the Germans' beliefs concerning the after sales service of Canadian products were slightly more positive than the Germans' beliefs about American products in the late 1980's, by the late 1990's the reverse was true.

The ratings given by the Germans to Canadian products on the scale “value for the money” had not changed, but higher ratings were given to American products. Although the Germans’ feelings about the value for the money of Canadian products were more positive than their feelings about American products in the late 1980’s, by the late 1990’s the reverse was true. In terms of expensiveness, the Germans gave lower ratings to Canadian and American products in the second study. Although they rated American products as more expensive than Canadian products in the late 1980’s, by the late 1990’s the reverse was true.

Generally speaking, the Germans’ beliefs about the market presence of Canadian products declined, while their beliefs about the market presence of American products improved. The Germans’ ratings of Canadian products on the Behavioural Orientation scale “satisfied” did not change but their ratings of American products improved. In both time periods, the Germans were more satisfied with American products than with Canadian products. The behaviour of the Germans towards Canadian and American products was more positive in the late 1990’s. The ratings of Canadian products on the scale “know a lot” remained unchanged, while their ratings of American products improved. On the scale “normally buy a lot,” Germans gave higher ratings to Canadian and American products in both time periods. Nevertheless, they were more likely to normally buy a lot of American products than Canadian products in both study periods.

In conclusion, although the German images of Canada improved, they did not improve as much as the images of the United States. German images of Canadian products declined, while their images of American products improved, showing that Canadian products continued to lose ground relative to American products.

Summary

Between the first and second studies, all respondent groups' images of Canada became more positive. This was not the case for the images of the United States. The images of Canadian products, on the other hand, did not do as well. Only the French images of Canadian products improved, whereas all respondent groups' images of American products improved. Interestingly, despite the overall decline in the overall images of Canadian products, the respondents generally had more positive beliefs about the product integrity of Canadian products in the late 1990's. Their beliefs about the product integrity of American products were, however, found to be more positive when looking at some scales and less positive when looking at some other scales. Despite the more positive beliefs about the product integrity of Canadian products, the respondents' beliefs about the market presence of these products and their behaviour towards them were even less positive in the late 1990's than they were in the late 1980's. The opposite, however, was true for American products. Finally, in terms of behavioural orientation, respondents' beliefs and feelings towards Canadian products generally appear not to have changed, but

did remain fairly positive. All European respondents' behavioural orientations towards American products were, on the other hand, more positive in the late 1990's.

6.5 Secondary Objectives

This section is divided into three subsections, each examining a different set of secondary objectives. In the first subsection a cross-national comparison of the product-country images of Canada and the United States can be found. In the second subsection an analysis of the demographic and travel correlates of product-country images of Canada and the United States can be found. Finally, in the third subsection the association between the country and product images of Canada and the United States is examined. Only the data gathered in the late 1990's was used for these analyses.

Cross-National Differences

The objective of this subsection was to determine whether or not differences existed in the American and European product-country images of Canada and in the European product-country images of the United States. The examination of cross-national differences in the product-country images of Canada involved an overall comparison of all four groups of respondents using MANOVA. In the case of the product-country images of the United States, the examination involved an overall comparison of the three European respondent groups using MANOVA. If significant differences were found in

the overall four group comparisons for the product-country images of Canada, then all six multivariate pairwise comparisons were run: Britain vs. France, Britain vs. Germany, Britain vs. United States, France vs. Germany, France vs. United States, and Germany vs. United States. If significant differences were discovered in the overall three group comparisons for the product-country images of the United States, then three multivariate pairwise comparisons were run: Britain vs. France, Britain vs. Germany, and France vs. Germany. These pairwise comparisons were necessary to determine which pairs of countries differed significantly on the set of scales. MANOVA was used for the multivariate pairwise comparisons. If significance was determined for a multivariate pairwise comparison, then univariate F-tests were used to determine which of the scales were contributing to the significant multivariate pairwise difference.

The decision rule for the overall multivariate tests was to reject the null hypothesis if the level of significance (α) was less than .05 for the observed F value. For the multivariate pairwise comparisons following the significant overall multivariate tests of the differences in the product-country images of Canada, α was set equal to .025 (.15/6 pairwise tests). For the multivariate pairwise comparisons following the significant overall multivariate tests of the differences in the product-country images of the United States, α was set equal to .05 (.15/3 pairwise tests). In order to determine which scales were contributing to the significant multivariate pairwise differences in the images of Canada and the United States, α was set equal to .009 (.15/16 scales). To determine

which scales were contributing to the significant multivariate pairwise differences in the images of Canadian and American products, α was set equal to .008 (.15/20 scales).

Hypothesis 8A

There will be no differences in the American, British, French, and German images of Canada.

The results of MANOVA on the American, British, French, and German images of Canada are shown in Table 6.28. The overall multivariate test was significant at $\alpha < .001$ and the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 6.28
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canada -
Overall Four Country Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Approximate F	Significance of F
Wilks	22.41	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	35.98	.000
Admirable Role in World Politics	29.62	.000
Refined Taste	12.87	.000
Trustworthy	14.01	.000
Likeable	18.31	.000
Hardworking	31.61	.000
Closer Ties	11.06	.000
More Investment	11.80	.000
Rich	73.41	.000
Politically Stable	9.84	.000
Ideal Country	10.34	.000
Know a Lot	81.15	.000
Educated	28.69	.000
Aligned With Canada	119.87	.000
More Imports	7.85	.000
Like to Visit	12.06	.000

The results of MANOVA on the pairwise comparison, Britain vs. France, are shown in Table 6.29. The multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. As shown by the “Mean of All Scales” in Table 6.29, the British had slightly more positive images of Canada than the French.

Table 6.29
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canada -
Britain vs. France Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	British Mean of All Scales*	French Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	5.24	5.19	18.17	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	British Mean*	French Mean*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	5.2	5.6	21.44	.000
Admirable Role in World Politics	4.6	4.6	.00	.987
Refined Taste	4.6	4.1	21.98	.000
Trustworthy	5.8	5.8	.19	.664
Likeable	5.5	5.7	4.77	.029
Hardworking	5.1	5.5	10.36	.001
Closer Ties	5.4	5.7	10.21	.001
More Investment	5.7	5.4	10.90	.001
Rich	5.5	5.9	27.01	.000
Politically Stable	5.8	6.0	2.59	.108
Ideal Country	5.3	5.0	11.93	.001
Know a Lot	3.2	2.5	23.76	.000
Educated	5.3	5.6	14.34	.000
Aligned With Canada	5.3	4.1	83.67	.000
More Imports	5.4	5.1	7.46	.006
Like to Visit	6.1	6.5	12.93	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

The results of the univariate F-tests show that all but four of the scales were contributing to the significant multivariate pairwise difference. The British believed they know a lot more than the French about Canada and they had more positive feelings about how refined the taste of Canadians is. They also felt that they are much more aligned with Canada. This might be explained by the close and ongoing historical ties between Great

Britain and Canada whereas those with France were earlier in history. Finally, the British had more positive beliefs than the French about Canada being an ideal country. They also desired more investment and imports from Canada.

The French, on the other hand, had more positive beliefs than the British about the technological advancement of Canada and about how rich, hardworking and educated Canadians are. Furthermore, they were more likely to want to visit Canada. Interestingly, although the British desired more investment and imports from Canada, the French desired closer ties with Canada.

The results of the second pairwise comparison, Britain vs. Germany, are shown in Table 6.30. The multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The British had much more positive images of Canada than the Germans. On the univariate level, all but three of the scales were significant. The British had more positive beliefs, feelings, and behavioural orientations than the Germans towards Canada. The rating given by the British on one scale, "aligned with Canada," should be noted since it was 1.5 scale points higher than the rating given by the Germans. This might be explained by the close historical ties between Great Britain and Canada.

The results of the third pairwise comparison, Britain vs. United States, are shown in Table 6.31. The multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The British had more positive images of Canada than the Americans. Eleven of the sixteen scales were

Table 6.30
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canada -
Britain vs. Germany Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	British Mean of All Scales*	German Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	5.24	4.71	13.60	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	British Mean*	German Mean*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	5.2	4.7	14.73	.000
Admirable Role in World Politics	4.6	3.7	50.17	.000
Refined Taste	4.6	4.3	11.56	.001
Trustworthy	5.8	5.2	32.03	.000
Likeable	5.5	5.0	25.07	.000
Hardworking	5.1	4.7	21.57	.000
Closer Ties	5.4	5.1	6.57	.011
More Investment	5.7	5.1	30.91	.000
Rich	5.5	5.0	24.81	.000
Politically Stable	5.8	5.6	4.07	.044
Ideal Country	5.3	4.9	16.64	.000
Know a Lot	3.2	2.7	15.72	.000
Educated	5.3	4.8	23.25	.000
Aligned With Canada	5.3	3.8	166.06	.000
More Imports	5.4	4.9	20.24	.000
Like to Visit	6.1	5.9	1.47	.226

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

significant and in all but two cases, the British had more positive beliefs, feelings, and behavioural orientations than the Americans. The Americans believed they know a lot more about Canada and felt they are more aligned with Canada. This is likely due to the proximity of the two countries and to the fact that Canada has closer economic and political ties with the United States, first through the FTA and now the NAFTA.

The results of the fourth paired comparison, France vs. Germany, are shown in Table 6.32. The multivariate paired comparison was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The French had a much more positive image of Canada than the Germans. On the univariate level, in all ten

Table 6.31
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canada -
Britain vs. United States Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	British Mean of All Scales*	American Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	5.24	5.05	18.79	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	British Mean*	American Mean*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	5.2	4.7	17.60	.000
Admirable Role in World Politics	4.6	4.7	1.18	.277
Refined Taste	4.6	4.6	.03	.867
Trustworthy	5.8	5.4	20.39	.000
Likeable	5.5	5.2	7.55	.006
Hardworking	5.1	4.7	20.94	.000
Closer Ties	5.4	5.4	.15	.698
More Investment	5.7	5.3	21.89	.000
Rich	5.5	4.7	75.25	.000
Politically Stable	5.8	5.4	11.39	.001
Ideal Country	5.3	4.8	28.52	.000
Know a Lot	3.2	4.4	71.00	.000
Educated	5.3	5.0	7.62	.006
Aligned With Canada	5.3	5.7	15.12	.000
More Imports	5.4	5.3	1.41	.236
Like to Visit	6.1	5.8	5.00	.026

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

of the sixteen scales that were significant, the French gave more positive ratings than the Germans. These scales included a mix of belief, feeling, and behavioural orientation scales.

The results of the fifth multivariate pairwise test, France vs. United States, are shown in Table 6.33. This multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The French had a slightly more positive image of Canada than the Americans. Twelve of the sixteen scales were significant and in all but three cases, the French had more positive beliefs, feelings, and behavioural orientations than the Americans.

Table 6.32
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canada -
France vs. Germany Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	French Mean of All Scales*	German Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	5.19	4.71	16.56	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	French Mean*	German Mean*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	5.6	4.7	80.55	.000
Admirable Role in World Politics	4.6	3.7	53.82	.000
Refined Taste	4.1	4.3	3.23	.073
Trustworthy	5.8	5.2	20.67	.000
Likeable	5.7	5.0	52.51	.000
Hardworking	5.5	4.7	74.21	.000
Closer Ties	5.7	5.1	35.20	.000
More Investment	5.4	5.1	5.31	.022
Rich	5.9	5.0	98.74	.000
Politically Stable	6.0	5.6	12.99	.000
Ideal Country	5.0	4.9	.41	.522
Know a Lot	2.5	2.7	1.53	.216
Educated	5.6	4.8	78.87	.000
Aligned With Canada	4.1	3.8	3.84	.050
More Imports	5.1	4.9	2.84	.092
Like to Visit	6.5	5.9	23.21	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

The Americans had more positive feelings than the French about the refined taste of Canadians. Furthermore, they believed they know a lot more about Canada and they felt they are much more aligned with Canada. This may, as before, be explained by the proximity of the two countries and by the fact that the United States has much closer ties with Canada, politically and economically.

The results of the sixth multivariate pairwise test, Germany vs. United States, are shown in Table 6.34. The multivariate paired comparison was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The

Table 6.33
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canada -
France vs. United States Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	French Mean of All Scales*	American Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	5.19	5.05	46.25	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	French Mean*	American Mean*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	5.6	4.7	87.72	.000
Admirable Role in World Politics	4.6	4.7	1.31	.252
Refined Taste	4.1	4.6	24.82	.000
Trustworthy	5.8	5.4	12.80	.000
Likeable	5.7	5.2	23.28	.000
Hardworking	5.5	4.7	69.97	.000
Closer Ties	5.7	5.4	8.35	.004
More Investment	5.4	5.3	1.49	.222
Rich	5.9	4.7	191.56	.000
Politically Stable	6.0	5.4	25.29	.000
Ideal Country	5.0	4.8	3.01	.083
Know a Lot	2.5	4.4	194.17	.000
Educated	5.6	5.0	47.28	.000
Aligned With Canada	4.1	5.7	175.68	.000
More Imports	5.1	5.3	3.17	.075
Like to Visit	6.5	5.8	35.85	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

American image was more positive than the German image of Canada. Seven of the sixteen scales were significant and in all but one case, the Americans had more positive beliefs, feelings, and behavioural orientations than the Germans towards Canada. This smaller number of scales contributing to the difference, relative to the number of scales contributing to the other differences described, suggests that there were more similarities in the German and American images of Canada than there were in any of the other paired comparisons described.

The more positive ratings given by the Americans than the Germans on the scales

“know a lot” and “aligned with Canada” should be noted since the Americans also gave higher ratings than the British and the French on these scales. As before, this is likely explained by the proximity of Canada and the United States and by the close relationship of the two countries.

Table 6.34
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canada -
Germany vs. United States Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	German Mean of All Scales*	American Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.71	5.05	34.57	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	German Mean*	American Mean*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	4.7	4.7	.10	.758
Admirable Role in World Politics	3.7	4.7	81.03	.000
Refined Taste	4.3	4.6	12.83	.000
Trustworthy	5.2	5.4	1.56	.212
Likeable	5.0	5.2	3.71	.055
Hardworking	4.7	4.7	.00	.998
Closer Ties	5.1	5.4	9.16	.003
More Investment	5.1	5.3	1.47	.227
Rich	5.0	4.7	11.24	.001
Politically Stable	5.6	5.4	1.59	.207
Ideal Country	4.9	4.8	1.12	.291
Know a Lot	2.7	4.4	183.54	.000
Educated	4.8	5.0	5.28	.022
Aligned With Canada	3.8	5.7	322.14	.000
More Imports	4.9	5.3	13.54	.000
Like to Visit	5.9	5.8	.92	.338

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Hypothesis 8B

There will be no differences in the American, British, French, and German images of Canadian products.

The results of MANOVA on the American, British, French, and German images of Canadian products are shown in Table 6.35. The overall multivariate test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The null hypothesis was, therefore, rejected.

Table 6.35
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canadian Products -
Overall Four Country Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Approximate F	Significance of F
Wilks	9.36	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	3.67	.012
Reliability	10.80	.000
Innovative	20.31	.000
Technically Advanced	12.55	.000
Quality	7.18	.000
After Sales Service	9.15	.000
Value for the Money	1.31	.269
Expensive	3.32	.019
Easy to Find	40.44	.000
Variety	8.79	.000
Recognizable Brand Names	11.12	.000
Know a Lot	37.58	.000
Satisfied	3.57	.014
Proud to Own	37.37	.000
Normally Buy a Lot	44.55	.000
Attractive Appearance	6.16	.000
Overall	7.44	.000
Have What I Like to Buy	5.84	.001
For People Like Me	3.11	.026
Willing to Buy	4.84	.002

The results of the first paired comparison, Britain vs. France, are shown in Table 6.36.

This multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The French had a slightly more positive image of Canadian products than the British. On the univariate level, only six of the twenty scales were significant and in all but one case, the French had more positive beliefs, feelings, and behavioural orientations than the British. This small

number of significant scales suggests that the British and French images of Canadian products were similar in most respects.

Table 6.36
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canadian Products -
Britain vs. France Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	British Mean of All Scales*	French Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.10	4.21	5.99	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	British Mean*	French Mean*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	5.0	5.1	.21	.649
Reliability	5.0	5.2	1.20	.275
Innovative	4.1	4.7	24.49	.000
Technically Advanced	4.4	4.6	4.40	.036
Quality	5.1	5.2	.10	.750
After Sales Service	4.6	4.7	1.82	.178
Value for the Money	4.3	4.4	.12	.734
Expensive	4.3	4.1	6.16	.013
Easy to Find	2.2	2.8	14.42	.000
Variety	3.2	3.4	4.05	.045
Recognizable Brand Names	3.0	3.2	1.05	.307
Know a Lot	1.8	2.4	27.45	.000
Satisfied	4.7	4.6	.13	.714
Proud to Own	4.7	4.3	11.69	.001
Normally Buy a Lot	1.7	1.9	7.79	.005
Attractive Appearance	4.6	4.5	1.27	.260
Overall	4.7	5.0	6.00	.015
Have What I Like to Buy	3.8	4.2	12.41	.000
For People Like Me	4.7	4.5	1.90	.169
Willing to Buy	5.7	5.4	5.60	.018

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

The results of the second multivariate pairwise test, Britain vs. Germany, are shown in Table 6.37. The multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The British had a slightly more positive image of Canadian products than the Germans. Nine of the twenty scales were significant and in all but two cases, the British had more positive beliefs, feelings, and behavioural orientations than the Germans towards Canadian products.

Table 6.37
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canadian Products -
Britain vs. Germany Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	British Mean of All Scales*	German Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.10	3.98	9.38	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	British Mean*	German Mean*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	5.0	4.9	.83	.361
Reliability	5.0	4.9	2.92	.088
Innovative	4.1	4.4	6.02	.014
Technically Advanced	4.4	4.3	.22	.638
Quality	5.1	5.1	.24	.624
After Sales Service	4.6	4.3	8.43	.004
Value for the Money	4.3	4.2	2.23	.136
Expensive	4.3	4.1	4.74	.030
Easy to Find	2.2	2.7	11.58	.001
Variety	3.2	3.2	.36	.549
Recognizable Brand Names	3.0	2.7	7.00	.008
Know a Lot	1.8	2.0	4.20	.041
Satisfied	4.7	4.4	9.82	.002
Proud to Own	4.7	3.6	88.98	.000
Normally Buy a Lot	1.7	2.0	11.28	.001
Attractive Appearance	4.6	4.2	18.53	.000
Overall	4.7	4.6	1.13	.288
Have What I Like to Buy	3.8	3.8	.29	.590
For People Like Me	4.7	4.4	9.36	.002
Willing to Buy	5.7	5.4	7.98	.005

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

The results of the third multivariate pairwise test, Britain vs. United States, are shown in Table 6.38. The multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The Americans had a slightly more positive image of Canadian products than the British.

Twelve of the twenty scales were significant. The Americans believed it is much easier to find Canadian products in their market than did the British. The Americans also had more positive beliefs than the British about the variety of Canadian products and the

recognizability of Canadian brand names. These three scales make up the Market

Presence dimension. Since the United States is Canada's largest trading partner, more Canadian products were available in the American market than in the British, making them easier to find. In line with the above, the Americans' ratings on the scales "know a lot" and "normally buy a lot," the two Behaviour scales, were higher. The Americans were also more likely to believe that Canadian products had what they liked to buy.

Table 6.38
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canadian Products -
Britain vs. United States Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	British Mean of All Scales*	American Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.10	4.20	14.77	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	British Mean*	American Mean*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	5.0	4.8	6.66	.010
Reliability	5.0	4.6	17.94	.000
Innovative	4.1	3.9	5.05	.025
Technically Advanced	4.4	4.0	13.20	.000
Quality	5.1	4.8	14.33	.000
After Sales Service	4.6	4.3	8.17	.004
Value for the Money	4.3	4.3	.00	.970
Expensive	4.3	4.1	7.37	.007
Easy to Find	2.2	3.7	109.79	.000
Variety	3.2	3.7	22.02	.000
Recognizable Brand Names	3.0	3.5	9.22	.003
Know a Lot	1.8	3.1	101.88	.000
Satisfied	4.7	4.6	1.47	.226
Proud to Own	4.7	4.6	1.26	.263
Normally Buy a Lot	1.7	2.9	124.66	.000
Attractive Appearance	4.6	4.4	4.76	.029
Overall	4.7	4.6	3.52	.061
Have What I Like to Buy	3.8	4.1	7.15	.008
For People Like Me	4.7	4.6	.92	.337
Willing to Buy	5.7	5.3	13.69	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

On the other hand, the British had more positive beliefs than the Americans on the Product Integrity scales “reliability,” “technically advanced,” “quality,” and “after sales service.” The British did, however, believe that Canadian products are more expensive but they were more willing than the Americans to buy them.

The results of the fourth multivariate pairwise test, France vs. Germany, are shown in Table 6.39. The multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The French had a more positive image than the Germans of Canadian products. Ten of the twenty scales were significant. The ratings given by the French on these scales were all higher than those given by the Germans. These scales included a mix of belief, feeling, and behavioural orientation scales.

The results of the fifth multivariate pairwise test, France vs. United States, are shown in Table 6.40. The multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The French had a slightly more positive image of Canadian products than the Americans.

Eleven of the twenty scales were significant. The French had more positive beliefs than the Americans about the product integrity of Canadian products. On the scale “overall,” the French gave more positive ratings than the Americans. Furthermore, they believed the workmanship, reliability, innovativeness, technical advancement, quality, and after sales service of Canadian products is better. The Americans, on the other hand, had more positive beliefs about the market presence of Canadian products. They believed it is

Table 6.39
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canadian Products -
France vs. Germany Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	French Mean of All Scales*	German Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.21	3.98	5.12	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	French Mean*	German Mean*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	5.1	4.9	1.84	.175
Reliability	5.2	4.9	7.39	.007
Innovative	4.7	4.4	6.69	.010
Technically Advanced	4.6	4.3	7.41	.007
Quality	5.2	5.1	.62	.431
After Sales Service	4.7	4.3	17.79	.000
Value for the Money	4.4	4.2	3.62	.058
Expensive	4.1	4.1	.22	.639
Easy to Find	2.8	2.7	.08	.775
Variety	3.4	3.2	1.86	.173
Recognizable Brand Names	3.2	2.7	13.95	.000
Know a Lot	2.4	2.0	8.19	.004
Satisfied	4.6	4.4	7.75	.006
Proud to Own	4.3	3.6	46.09	.000
Normally Buy a Lot	1.9	2.0	.37	.541
Attractive Appearance	4.5	4.2	8.85	.003
Overall	5.0	4.6	12.05	.001
Have What I Like to Buy	4.2	3.8	9.82	.002
For People Like Me	4.5	4.4	3.06	.081
Willing to Buy	5.4	5.4	.29	.592

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

easier to find Canadian products in their market than did the French. They also believed that the variety of Canadian products is larger than did the French. These differences may be explained by Canada's trading relationship with the United States. In line with the above, the Americans' behaviour, as measured by the ratings on the scales "know a lot" and "normally buy a lot," was greater than that of the French.

Table 6.40
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canadian Products -
France vs. United States Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	French Mean of All Scales*	American Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.21	4.20	12.33	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	French Mean*	American Mean*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	5.1	4.8	9.36	.002
Reliability	5.2	4.6	28.19	.000
Innovative	4.7	3.9	50.26	.000
Technically Advanced	4.6	4.0	40.12	.000
Quality	5.2	4.8	16.34	.000
After Sales Service	4.7	4.3	18.32	.000
Value for the Money	4.4	4.3	.10	.753
Expensive	4.1	4.1	.01	.910
Easy to Find	2.8	3.7	44.43	.000
Variety	3.4	3.7	7.19	.008
Recognizable Brand Names	3.2	3.5	3.97	.047
Know a Lot	2.4	3.1	20.72	.000
Satisfied	4.6	4.6	.70	.404
Proud to Own	4.3	4.6	5.06	.025
Normally Buy a Lot	1.9	2.9	59.93	.000
Attractive Appearance	4.5	4.4	.86	.355
Overall	5.0	4.6	20.67	.000
Have What I Like to Buy	4.2	4.1	.70	.402
For People Like Me	4.5	4.6	.19	.663
Willing to Buy	5.4	5.3	1.47	.226

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

The results of the sixth multivariate pairwise test, Germany vs. United States, are shown in Table 6.41. The multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The Americans had a more positive image of Canadian products than the Germans.

Nine of the twenty scales were significant. The Americans had more positive beliefs than the Germans about the market presence of Canadian products. They believed it is much easier to find Canadian products in their market than did the Germans. The Americans

Table 6.41
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of Canadian Products -
Germany vs. United States Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	German Mean of All Scales*	American Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	3.98	4.20	10.36	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	German Mean*	American Mean*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	4.9	4.8	2.41	.121
Reliability	4.9	4.6	5.06	.025
Innovative	4.4	3.9	21.38	.000
Technically Advanced	4.3	4.0	10.38	.001
Quality	5.1	4.8	9.93	.002
After Sales Service	4.3	4.3	.07	.788
Value for the Money	4.2	4.3	2.53	.112
Expensive	4.1	4.1	.37	.541
Easy to Find	2.7	3.7	45.01	.000
Variety	3.2	3.7	15.77	.000
Recognizable Brand Names	2.7	3.5	34.97	.000
Know a Lot	2.0	3.1	53.04	.000
Satisfied	4.4	4.6	4.14	.042
Proud to Own	3.6	4.6	71.58	.000
Normally Buy a Lot	2.0	2.9	45.35	.000
Attractive Appearance	4.2	4.4	5.10	.024
Overall	4.6	4.6	.47	.493
Have What I Like to Buy	3.8	4.1	4.88	.028
For People Like Me	4.4	4.6	4.69	.031
Willing to Buy	5.4	5.3	.36	.546

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

also had more positive beliefs about the variety of Canadian products and the recognizability of Canadian brand names. These differences may be explained by Canada's trading relationship with the United States. In line with the above, the Americans' behaviour was more positive than that of the Germans. The Americans believed they know a lot more about and are much more likely to normally buy Canadian products than the Germans. The last scale on which the Americans gave more positive ratings than the Germans was "proud to own."

The Germans did, however, have more positive beliefs than the Americans about the product integrity of Canadian products. They believed that the innovativeness, technical advancement, and quality of Canadian products are better.

Hypothesis 9A

There will be no differences in the British, French, and German images of the United States.

The results of MANOVA on the British, French, and German images of the United States are shown in Table 6.42. The overall multivariate test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The null hypothesis was, therefore, rejected.

The results of the first multivariate pairwise test, Britain vs. France, are shown in Table 6.43. The multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The British had a slightly more positive image of the United States than the French.

Thirteen of the sixteen scales were significant. The British believed they know a lot more than the French about the United States. They also had much more positive feelings than the French about the refined taste of Americans and they felt they are much more aligned with the United States. The British also desired more investment and more imports from the United States than the French did.

Table 6.42
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of the United States –
Overall Three Country Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	37.65	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	24.67	.000
Admirable Role in World Politics	21.23	.000
Refined Taste	52.14	.000
Trustworthy	6.19	.002
Likeable	8.21	.000
Hardworking	22.87	.000
Closer Ties	1.04	.354
More Investment	8.61	.000
Rich	48.80	.000
Politically Stable	6.48	.002
Ideal Country	5.73	.003
Know a Lot	13.31	.000
Educated	24.81	.000
Aligned With the U.S.	366.15	.000
More Imports	4.17	.016
Like to Visit	6.67	.001

The French, on the other hand, had more positive beliefs than the British about how technologically advanced, politically stable, and rich the United States is. Further, the French believed that the United States has a more admirable role in world politics than the British believed. The French also had more positive feelings than the British about how trustworthy, likeable, and hardworking the Americans are. Finally, the French were more likely than the British to want to visit the United States.

The results of the second multivariate pairwise test, Britain vs. Germany, are shown in Table 6.44. The multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The British had a slightly more positive image of the United States than the Germans. On the univariate

Table 6.43
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of the United States -
Britain vs. France Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	British Mean of All Scales*	French Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.94	4.84	56.12	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	British Mean*	French Mean*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	5.9	6.4	24.85	.000
Admirable Role in World Politics	5.0	5.9	39.10	.000
Refined Taste	3.9	2.5	102.48	.000
Trustworthy	4.6	4.9	6.78	.009
Likeable	4.4	4.9	14.61	.000
Hardworking	4.6	5.1	20.48	.000
Closer Ties	5.0	4.8	.67	.415
More Investment	5.4	4.8	15.90	.000
Rich	5.5	6.1	33.99	.000
Politically Stable	5.4	5.8	10.50	.001
Ideal Country	4.1	4.0	.41	.521
Know a Lot	5.1	4.4	23.71	.000
Educated	4.5	4.8	4.99	.026
Aligned With the U.S.	5.4	2.8	514.52	.000
More Imports	4.6	4.2	7.13	.008
Like to Visit	5.6	6.1	13.23	.000

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

level, only four of the sixteen scales were significant and in all but one case, the British had more positive beliefs and feelings than the Germans. This small number of significant scales suggests that the British and German images of the United States were similar in most respects.

The results of the third multivariate pairwise test, France vs. Germany, are shown in Table 6.45. The multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The Germans had a slightly more positive image of the United States than the French.

Table 6.44
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of the United States -
Britain vs. Germany Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	British Mean of All Scales*	German Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.94	4.86	7.88	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	British Mean*	German Mean*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	5.9	5.8	3.31	.069
Admirable Role in World Politics	5.0	5.4	8.17	.004
Refined Taste	3.9	3.3	17.52	.000
Trustworthy	4.6	4.5	.43	.512
Likeable	4.4	4.7	5.79	.016
Hardworking	4.6	4.5	3.33	.068
Closer Ties	5.0	5.0	.37	.543
More Investment	5.4	5.1	5.03	.025
Rich	5.5	5.1	15.07	.000
Politically Stable	5.4	5.4	.17	.678
Ideal Country	4.1	4.4	6.55	.011
Know a Lot	5.1	4.9	3.76	.053
Educated	4.5	4.0	22.75	.000
Aligned With the U.S.	5.4	5.5	.06	.799
More Imports	4.6	4.5	.71	.398
Like to Visit	5.6	5.9	2.53	.112

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Eleven of the sixteen scales were significant. The Germans believed they know more than the French about the United States. They had more positive feelings than the French about how refined the taste of Americans is and they also felt much more aligned with the United States. Furthermore, the Germans had more positive beliefs than the French about how ideal a country the United States is.

The French, on the other hand, had more positive beliefs than the Germans about how technologically advanced, politically stable, rich, and educated the United States is. The French also believed that the Americans' role in world politics is more admirable than the

Table 6.45
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of the United States -
France vs. Germany Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	French Mean of All Scales*	German Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	4.84	4.86	59.49	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	French Mean*	German Mean*	F	Significance of F
Technologically Advanced	6.4	5.8	51.18	.000
Admirable Role in World Politics	5.9	5.4	13.96	.000
Refined Taste	2.5	3.3	36.28	.000
Trustworthy	4.9	4.5	11.23	.001
Likeable	4.9	4.7	2.78	.096
Hardworking	5.1	4.5	48.28	.000
Closer Ties	4.8	5.0	2.11	.147
More Investment	4.8	5.1	3.84	.051
Rich	6.1	5.1	104.62	.000
Politically Stable	5.8	5.4	8.86	.003
Ideal Country	4.0	4.4	11.01	.001
Know a Lot	4.4	4.9	9.96	.002
Educated	4.8	4.0	47.71	.000
Aligned With the U.S.	2.8	5.5	553.05	.000
More Imports	4.2	4.5	4.09	.044
Like to Visit	6.1	5.9	4.31	.038

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

Germans believed it to be. Finally, the French felt Americans are trustworthier and more hardworking than did the Germans.

Hypothesis 9B

There will be no differences in the British, French, and German images of American products.

The results of MANOVA on the British, French, and German images of American products in 1997 are shown in Table 6.46. The overall multivariate test was significant at $\alpha < .001$ and the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 6.46
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of American Products -
Overall Three Country Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	7.79	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	12.40	.000
Reliability	23.13	.000
Innovative	.25	.779
Technically Advanced	15.13	.000
Quality	7.41	.001
After Sales Service	5.15	.006
Value for the Money	4.29	.014
Expensive	2.99	.051
Easy to Find	6.03	.003
Variety	1.34	.261
Recognizable Brand Names	1.23	.293
Know a Lot	47.07	.000
Satisfied	2.64	.072
Proud to Own	36.89	.000
Normally Buy a Lot	6.86	.001
Attractive Appearance	11.27	.000
Overall	10.67	.000
Have What I Like to Buy	6.44	.002
For People Like Me	5.49	.004
Willing to Buy	6.08	.002

The results of the first multivariate pairwise test, Britain vs. France, are shown in Table 6.47. The multivariate pairwise test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The French had a slightly more positive image of American products than the British.

Table 6.47
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of American Products -
Britain vs. France Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	British Mean of All Scales*	French Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	5.07	5.12	9.69	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	British Mean*	French Mean*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	5.1	4.9	2.92	.088
Reliability	5.0	5.2	2.23	.136
Innovative	5.1	5.2	.28	.597
Technically Advanced	5.6	5.7	2.25	.134
Quality	5.0	5.2	1.74	.188
After Sales Service	5.0	4.9	1.05	.306
Value for the Money	4.9	4.9	.03	.854
Expensive	4.3	4.1	2.83	.093
Easy to Find	5.3	5.8	10.94	.001
Variety	5.7	5.8	.55	.460
Recognizable Brand Names	5.7	5.8	1.35	.246
Know a Lot	4.5	5.6	80.46	.000
Satisfied	5.0	5.1	.38	.539
Proud to Own	4.8	4.2	26.25	.000
Normally Buy a Lot	4.2	4.7	10.91	.001
Attractive Appearance	5.2	5.2	.22	.641
Overall	5.2	5.4	3.10	.079
Have What I Like to Buy	4.9	4.9	.05	.820
For People Like Me	4.9	4.6	7.51	.006
Willing to Buy	5.7	5.3	9.66	.002

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

On the univariate level, only six of the twenty scales were significant. This small number of significant scales suggests that the British and French images of American products were similar in most respects. The French, however, believed American products are easier to find than the British. The French ratings on the Behaviour scales “know a lot” and “normally buy a lot” were higher than the British ratings.

The British, on the other hand, had a better behavioural orientation than the French.

They gave higher ratings than the French on the scales “proud to own,” “for people like me,” and “willing to buy.”

The results of the second multivariate pairwise test, Britain vs. Germany, are shown in Table 6.48. The test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The British images of American products were more positive than those of the Germans. On the univariate level, in all ten of the twenty scales that were significant, the British gave more positive ratings than the Germans. These scales included a mix of belief, feeling, and behavioural orientation scales.

The results of the third multivariate pairwise test, France vs. Germany, are shown in Table 6.49. The test was significant at $\alpha < .001$. The French had a more positive image of American products than the Germans. On the univariate level, in all eleven of the twenty scales that were significant, the French gave more positive ratings than the Germans. These scales included a mix of belief, feeling, and behavioural orientation scales.

Summary

Cross-national differences in the product-country images of Canada and the United States were found. The American, British, French, and German images of Canada and its

Table 6.48
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of American Products -
Britain vs. Germany Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	British Mean of All Scales*	German Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	5.07	4.79	6.25	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	British Mean*	German Mean*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	5.1	4.6	24.67	.000
Reliability	5.0	4.5	24.31	.000
Innovative	5.1	5.2	.44	.507
Technically Advanced	5.6	5.1	12.99	.000
Quality	5.0	4.8	5.94	.015
After Sales Service	5.0	4.6	10.54	.001
Value for the Money	4.9	4.6	6.08	.014
Expensive	4.3	4.1	5.94	.015
Easy to Find	5.3	5.5	.76	.382
Variety	5.7	5.6	.74	.390
Recognizable Brand Names	5.7	5.7	.11	.741
Know a Lot	4.5	4.7	1.06	.303
Satisfied	5.0	4.8	2.68	.102
Proud to Own	4.8	3.8	67.64	.000
Normally Buy a Lot	4.2	4.3	.10	.750
Attractive Appearance	5.2	4.7	14.99	.000
Overall	5.2	4.9	7.27	.007
Have What I Like to Buy	4.9	4.5	10.55	.001
For People Like Me	4.9	4.6	8.03	.005
Willing to Buy	5.7	5.3	8.84	.003

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

products were all different as were the European images of the United States and its products.

Overall, ratings of Canada were given in descending order by the British, French, American, and German respondents. Ratings of the United States showed the British highest, but the Germans higher than the French. Canadian products were rated highest

Table 6.49
A Cross-National Evaluation of the Images of American Products -
France vs. Germany Paired Comparison: Output of MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

Test	French Mean of All Scales*	German Mean of All Scales*	Exact F	Significance of F
Wilks	5.12	4.79	7.86	.000

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	French Mean*	German Mean*	F	Significance of F
Workmanship	4.9	4.6	10.17	.002
Reliability	5.2	4.5	44.06	.000
Innovative	5.2	5.2	.01	.903
Technically Advanced	5.7	5.1	29.97	.000
Quality	5.2	4.8	15.26	.000
After Sales Service	4.9	4.6	4.49	.035
Value for the Money	4.9	4.6	7.42	.007
Expensive	4.1	4.1	.38	.537
Easy to Find	5.8	5.5	6.84	.009
Variety	5.8	5.6	2.95	.086
Recognizable Brand Names	5.8	5.7	2.36	.125
Know a Lot	5.6	4.7	67.69	.000
Satisfied	5.1	4.8	5.28	.022
Proud to Own	4.2	3.8	13.01	.000
Normally Buy a Lot	4.7	4.3	9.43	.002
Attractive Appearance	5.2	4.7	19.02	.000
Overall	5.4	4.9	23.03	.000
Have What I Like to Buy	4.9	4.5	9.76	.002
For People Like Me	4.6	4.6	.02	.900
Willing to Buy	5.3	5.3	.01	.940

*Range of Scores: 1 (low) to 7 (high)

Significant Significance of F's and Higher Means are **BOLDED**

by the French, followed by the Americans, British, and Germans. Ratings of American products followed this order for the European respondents.

Demographic and Travel Correlates of Product-Country Images

The objective of this subsection was to determine whether differences in the respondents' gender, age, education, income, and travel to the country whose image was examined

were related to their product-country images of Canada and the United States.

Demographic and travel correlates of product-country images were analyzed for each respondent country using MANOVA. If the multivariate F-test was significant, then univariate F-tests were used to determine which of the scales were significant. The MANOVAs involving gender and travel were two group MANOVAs (see Tables 6.01, 6.05, and 6.06 in Section 6.1 for a breakdown). The MANOVAs involving age, education, and income were, however, all five group MANOVAs (see Tables 6.02 to 6.04 in Section 6.1 for a breakdown). This suggests that some further statistical means was needed to explain which groups differed significantly on the scales contributing to the overall difference. One-Way ANOVAs with Scheffé post hoc comparisons were run on each of the scales that were found, through the univariate F-tests, to be significant in order to determine which of the groups differed significantly.

For the overall multivariate tests, the level of significance (α) was set equal to .05. In order to determine which scales were contributing to the significant multivariate differences in country images, α was set equal to .009 (.15/16 scales). To determine which scales were contributing to the significant multivariate differences in product images, α was set equal to .008 (.15/20 scales). For the Scheffé post hoc comparisons to the One-Way ANOVAs, α was set equal to .05.

Hypothesis 10

There will be no differences in the ratings of Canada and its products across American, British, French, and German respondents of different gender, age, education, income and travel experience.

Gender

The MANOVA results for gender relationships to the images of Canada are shown in Table 6.50. Significant differences were found for all respondent groups but Germany. In the case of the United States, the only scale contributing to the overall multivariate difference was “like to visit” with females giving a higher rating on this scale (6.1) than males (5.5). For Great Britain no individual scale differences were found. In the case of France, the only scale contributing to the overall multivariate difference was “know a lot” with French males giving a higher rating (2.8) than females (2.2).

The MANOVA results for gender relationships to the images of Canadian products are shown in Table 6.51. Fewer significant differences were detected in the male and female images of Canadian products than in the images of Canada. The only overall multivariate test that was significant was that for Great Britain and the only scale contributing to this overall difference was “for people like me.” Females gave a higher rating on this scale (4.9) than males (4.5). In conclusion, very few gender based differences in the product-country images of Canada were found.

Table 6.50
The Association Between Gender and Images of Canada: Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Exact F (Significance of F)	1.72 (.042)	2.00 (.013)	1.73 (.041)	1.60 (.068)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values			
	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Technologically Advanced	1.33	2.66	6.78	1.54
Admirable Role in World Politics	.09	1.02	2.27	.47
Refined Taste	2.58	4.46	2.34	.00
Trustworthy	3.49	1.40	.17	.11
Likeable	.39	.25	.23	4.04
Hardworking	2.91	.00	.14	.17
Closer Ties	.12	1.82	.49	.23
More Investment	1.61	.65	.06	.98
Rich	.00	3.02	1.99	8.11
Politically Stable	.03	.78	.12	.44
Ideal Country	.22	.39	.00	.08
Know a Lot	.09	.87	* 8.16	.35
Educated	.26	.60	.49	.91
Aligned With Canada	.02	.01	2.08	3.78
More Imports	1.68	5.70	1.19	.64
Like to Visit	^ 10.60	3.23	2.68	2.72

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

* Higher Rating By Male

^ Higher Rating By Female

Age

The MANOVA results for age relationships to the images of Canada are shown in Table 6.52. Significant differences were found for all of the respondent groups. The Scheffé post hoc comparisons following the One-Way ANOVAs on the significant scales for all significant groups are shown in Appendix J.

In the case of the United States, older respondents (50-64), believed they know more about Canada and felt Canadians are more trustworthy than younger Americans (under

Table 6.51
The Association Between Gender and Images of Canadian Products:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Exact F (Significance of F)	1.43 (.107)	2.18 (.003)	.85 (.646)	.97 (.499)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values			
	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Workmanship	.67	3.98	.40	.00
Reliability	5.29	1.30	1.36	3.15
Innovative	.03	2.52	.54	.02
Technically Advanced	.45	2.25	.03	.91
Quality	2.08	1.93	.66	.73
After Sales Service	.39	1.81	.16	.28
Value for the Money	.62	.74	.08	.39
Expensive	.00	.31	.08	.00
Easy to Find	.01	2.21	1.69	.67
Variety	.07	.96	.01	.07
Recognizable Brand Names	3.55	.61	.00	.64
Know a Lot	4.29	.01	3.04	2.27
Satisfied	.34	.42	.31	.57
Proud to Own	2.66	.63	.68	3.23
Normally Buy a Lot	8.76	3.60	1.53	1.57
Attractive Appearance	2.04	.08	.74	.71
Overall	.15	1.33	.52	.02
Have What I Like to Buy	1.44	.21	3.59	1.15
For People Like Me	4.45	^ 7.96	.01	.17
Willing to Buy	.18	1.74	1.23	.01

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

* Higher Rating By Male

^ Higher Rating By Female

34). Older respondents (over 65), also desired closer ties with Canada than younger Americans (under 20).

In the case of Great Britain, seven of the sixteen scales contributed to the overall multivariate difference. Middle-aged respondents (35-49) had less positive beliefs about Canada's role in world politics than those over 49 years. Younger respondents (20-34)

Table 6.52
The Association Between Age and Images of Canada: Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Approximate F (Wilks)	1.72	1.80	1.33	1.85
(Significance of F)	(.000)	(.000)	(.046)	(.000)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values			
	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Technologically Advanced	1.33	1.60	5.04	1.08
Admirable Role in World Politics	3.31	5.97	.90	1.62
Refined Taste	1.38	2.21	.85	2.65
Trustworthy	6.36	1.66	.25	2.51
Likeable	2.59	2.18	.96	1.25
Hardworking	3.33	3.88	2.34	1.10
Closer Ties	5.13	5.30	.45	.86
More Investment	1.07	4.97	1.13	2.55
Rich	.33	.36	2.64	2.72
Politically Stable	2.04	.33	3.45	6.04
Ideal Country	1.59	5.57	1.60	1.52
Know a Lot	5.32	1.92	1.10	.55
Educated	1.52	2.46	1.64	3.07
Aligned With Canada	2.40	4.99	1.27	4.02
More Imports	2.68	4.54	1.40	4.38
Like to Visit	2.68	2.17	2.97	1.46

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

had less positive beliefs about Canada's role in world politics than older respondents (65 or older). On the remaining significant scales, older respondents (65 or older), also had more positive feelings and desires for a link with Canada than younger respondents.

The French respondents between the ages 20 and 49 all had more positive beliefs about the technological advancement of Canada and those between the ages of 30 and 49 also had more positive beliefs about the political stability of Canada than the youngest respondents.

German respondents between the ages of 20 and 34 and 50 and 64 had more positive beliefs about the political stability of Canada than those less than 20 years. Although “aligned with Canada” was found to be contributing to the overall multivariate difference, no two groups differed significantly. In the case of “more imports,” German respondents between the ages of 20 and 34 were more likely than those between 50 and 64 years to desire more imports from Canada.

The MANOVA results for age relationships to the images of Canadian products are shown in Table 6.53. Fewer significant differences were found in the different age groups’ images of Canadian products than in the images of Canada. Respondent age differences were related to the American and German images of Canadian products. The Scheffé post hoc comparisons following the One-Way ANOVAs on the significant scales for all significant groups are shown in Appendix K.

Older American respondents (65 and older) had more positive beliefs about Canadian products regarding workmanship than all other age groups. They also had more positive beliefs regarding innovativeness than those between 50 and 64 years and concerning the quality and overall satisfaction with Canadian products, these respondents had more positive beliefs and feelings than those between 20 and 49 years.

In the case of Germany, older respondents (65 and older) believed Canadian brand names are more recognizable than did younger respondents (20-34). Respondents who were less

Table 6.53
The Association Between Age and Images of Canadian Products:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Approximate F (Wilks)	1.89	1.07	.89	1.57
(Significance of F)	(.000)	(.315)	(.749)	(.002)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values			
	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Workmanship	8.06	2.72	.77	1.52
Reliability	2.55	1.55	2.31	2.66
Innovative	4.33	.46	1.52	1.45
Technically Advanced	3.03	2.80	2.35	.29
Quality	3.72	1.25	.46	.43
After Sales Service	.45	.46	.52	1.01
Value for the Money	.57	2.70	1.35	1.53
Expensive	2.19	.77	2.45	.44
Easy to Find	2.47	.63	.36	3.01
Variety	1.71	1.23	.47	2.08
Recognizable Brand Names	.10	1.98	.79	4.79
Know a Lot	.16	1.37	1.18	4.65
Satisfied	5.23	1.46	.58	.42
Proud to Own	2.57	1.79	.35	1.42
Normally Buy a Lot	.42	.53	.29	7.44
Attractive Appearance	.93	1.52	1.35	1.58
Overall	1.26	1.69	1.20	1.85
Have What I Like to Buy	2.19	1.65	1.40	1.74
For People Like Me	.82	.74	2.48	1.61
Willing to Buy	2.75	1.72	1.67	3.66

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

than 20 years believed they know more about Canadian products than those between the ages of 20 and 34. The respondents between 20 and 34 years were also found to be less likely to normally buy Canadian products than those who were less than 20 years or 65 or older. Respondents less than 20 years were also more likely than those between the ages of 35 and 49 to normally buy Canadian products. The respondents between 20 and 34 years were more willing to buy Canadian products than those between 50 and 64 years.

In conclusion, age based differences in the images of Canada were found. Older respondents generally had more positive images than younger respondents. Age based differences in the images of Canadian products were also found, but they were not as strong as those found for the images of the country. In the case of the United States, older respondents had more positive images of Canadian products than younger respondents. In the case of Germany, however, younger respondents generally had more positive images than older respondents.

Education

The MANOVA results for education relationships to the images of Canada are shown in Table 6.54. Significant differences were found for the European respondents only. The Scheffé post hoc comparisons following the One-Way ANOVAs on the significant scales for all significant groups are shown in Appendix L.

In the case of Great Britain, the scales “technologically advanced,” “closer ties,” “more investment,” “know a lot,” and “more imports,” mostly associational scales, contributed to the overall multivariate difference. Generally, those respondents with lesser education had more positive beliefs, feelings and desires for association than their more educated counterparts. In the case of France, the scales “technologically advanced,” “know a lot,” and “like to visit” contributed to the overall multivariate difference. Those respondents with higher education had more positive beliefs and feelings than those with lesser

Table 6.54
The Association Between Education and Images of Canada: Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Approximate F (Wilks) (Significance of F)	1.12 (.247)	1.50 (.008)	1.73 (.000)	1.37 (.032)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values			
	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Technologically Advanced	.67	3.50	4.65	.69
Admirable Role in World Politics	2.13	1.25	1.68	2.59
Refined Taste	1.53	1.65	.51	1.01
Trustworthy	1.74	2.87	2.81	1.17
Likeable	3.11	2.30	2.73	.77
Hardworking	1.76	.83	1.28	2.96
Closer Ties	1.33	4.42	2.97	1.03
More Investment	1.84	4.22	1.62	3.47
Rich	2.67	.98	3.22	1.55
Politically Stable	2.86	2.08	1.52	1.37
Ideal Country	2.41	2.88	.94	.26
Know a Lot	1.06	3.44	3.91	1.13
Educated	.46	2.21	1.35	1.90
Aligned With Canada	1.88	2.54	1.08	2.44
More Imports	1.58	4.21	1.70	1.60
Like to Visit	1.73	.73	3.79	1.33

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

education. In the case of Germany, the only scale contributing to the overall multivariate difference was “more investment” but no two groups differed significantly.

The MANOVA results for education relationships to the images of Canadian products are shown in Table 6.55. Fewer significant differences were detected in the different education groups’ images of Canadian products than in the images of Canada.

Respondent education differences were only found to be related to the Americans’ images of Canadian products. However, no individual scale differences were found.

Table 6.55
The Association Between Education and Images of Canadian Products:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Approximate F (Wilks)	1.46	1.06	1.22	1.20
(Significance of F)	(.006)	(.337)	(.097)	(.115)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values			
	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Workmanship	.78	.76	1.31	1.44
Reliability	.75	.75	3.39	.19
Innovative	2.34	1.44	.39	2.76
Technically Advanced	.72	1.13	1.11	.29
Quality	.80	3.28	.68	1.08
After Sales Service	1.10	1.08	.78	.77
Value for the Money	.30	1.16	.37	.25
Expensive	1.77	.65	1.32	.24
Easy to Find	2.55	2.49	.65	3.06
Variety	1.67	.17	1.96	1.77
Recognizable Brand Names	2.85	1.13	1.26	3.06
Know a Lot	.32	1.91	.27	3.65
Satisfied	.14	2.64	.82	.10
Proud to Own	.67	2.97	.95	.12
Normally Buy a Lot	1.24	.25	.81	8.92
Attractive Appearance	.41	3.79	1.80	2.01
Overall	.33	.68	.63	.74
Have What I Like to Buy	.53	.93	.62	.34
For People Like Me	1.71	.49	1.79	.69
Willing to Buy	1.39	.26	3.87	2.58

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

In conclusion, education based differences were found in the Europeans' images of Canada. In the case of Great Britain, the less educated generally had more positive images than the more educated while in the case of France the reverse was true. Education based differences in the images of Canadian products were not found.

Income

The MANOVA results for income relationships to the images of Canada are shown in Table 6.56. The only multivariate test that was significant was that for Germany. On the univariate level, it was determined that the only scale contributing to this overall difference was “refined taste.” The Scheffé post hoc comparisons following the One-Way ANOVA on this scale (please see Appendix M for the related output) show that German respondents with average household incomes (3001-4000 DM/month) had more positive feelings than those with average-high household incomes (4001-5000 DM/month) about the refined taste of Canadians.

Table 6.56
The Association Between Income and Images of Canada: Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Approximate F (Wilks) (Significance of F)	1.17 (.177)	1.15 (.196)	1.29 (.068)	1.47 (.011)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values			
	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Technologically Advanced	1.60	.85	3.38	1.57
Admirable Role in World Politics	.25	1.61	1.76	2.06
Refined Taste	.41	2.50	.21	3.51
Trustworthy	.82	1.31	1.28	.82
Likeable	1.72	5.22	1.23	.99
Hardworking	1.04	.32	1.92	1.80
Closer Ties	1.66	4.71	.78	.51
More Investment	2.10	3.06	.25	.66
Rich	1.14	.67	2.50	2.03
Politically Stable	1.69	.76	1.49	1.97
Ideal Country	.46	4.06	1.68	.14
Know a Lot	.68	.44	2.85	1.81
Educated	.46	1.05	5.26	.65
Aligned With Canada	.18	.73	1.11	1.82
More Imports	1.31	1.93	.71	.63
Like to Visit	1.28	2.51	1.35	1.59

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

The MANOVA results for income relationships to the images of Canadian products are shown in Table 6.57. The only multivariate test that was significant was that for Great Britain but no individual significant scale differences were found. In conclusion, almost no income based differences were found in the product-country images of Canada.

Table 6.57
The Association Between Income and Images of Canadian Products:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Approximate F (Wilks)	.90	1.41	1.09	.90
(Significance of F)	(.721)	(.012)	(.291)	(.713)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values			
	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Workmanship	2.32	1.55	.43	.86
Reliability	1.04	1.69	2.13	.37
Innovative	1.91	2.28	.82	1.10
Technically Advanced	1.55	1.38	2.66	2.05
Quality	1.13	2.77	.47	.62
After Sales Service	.32	1.56	.45	.55
Value for the Money	1.33	1.47	.43	1.70
Expensive	.18	1.64	.67	.98
Easy to Find	.59	1.50	.60	1.28
Variety	.68	1.26	1.70	.44
Recognizable Brand Names	.35	2.75	2.41	1.11
Know a Lot	.74	.72	1.84	1.87
Satisfied	.29	3.29	.36	1.05
Proud to Own	1.70	1.53	.41	.10
Normally Buy a Lot	.44	1.37	.98	1.80
Attractive Appearance	1.19	2.08	1.63	.78
Overall	1.32	1.71	.45	1.09
Have What I Like to Buy	.23	1.32	.98	.44
For People Like Me	1.26	.69	.99	1.00
Willing to Buy	.71	.76	.56	1.44

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

Travel to Canada

The MANOVA results for travel relationships to the images of Canada are shown in Table 6.58. Significant differences were detected in the Europeans' images only. For all three countries, there was a significant difference between travelers to Canada and nontravelers in the "know a lot" scale. Also, for Britain those who had traveled to Canada felt closer alignment, desired more imports from and closer ties with Canada, and were more interested in visiting again.

Table 6.58
The Association Between Travel to Canada and Images of Canada:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Exact F (Significance of F)	1.23 (.245)	4.82 (.000)	9.80 (.000)	2.48 (.002)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values			
	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Technologically Advanced	.68	.09	.18	1.92
Admirable Role in World Politics	.00	.51	.98	2.65
Refined Taste	3.20	1.82	.01	.02
Trustworthy	1.77	.99	.06	1.64
Likeable	.72	3.57	2.47	.01
Hardworking	7.12	2.81	2.70	2.68
Closer Ties	.35	7.84	1.38	2.99
More Investment	1.68	2.08	.98	.71
Rich	1.07	.57	.08	.27
Politically Stable	.06	.69	.55	.14
Ideal Country	.00	6.43	.01	.25
Know a Lot	2.99	57.13	129.67	20.18
Educated	.00	.74	.80	.01
Aligned With Canada	.94	9.09	.56	.36
More Imports	.80	11.13	1.89	.45
Like to Visit	4.02	15.19	1.86	1.81

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

The MANOVA results for travel relationships to the images of Canadian products are shown in Table 6.59. Significant differences were detected in the French and German images.

Table 6.59
The Association Between Travel to Canada and Images of Canadian Products:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Exact F (Significance of F)	1.05 (.408)	1.40 (.120)	3.28 (.000)	2.25 (.002)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values			
	United States	Great Britain	France	Germany
Workmanship	.00	.21	2.01	1.20
Reliability	.16	.00	4.36	.08
Innovative	.48	3.50	.59	.09
Technically Advanced	.07	.02	.10	.99
Quality	.37	.85	2.38	.00
After Sales Service	.04	1.38	5.99	.01
Value for the Money	.35	.36	14.32	7.23
Expensive	.01	.75	1.63	10.52
Easy to Find	.24	.16	3.47	4.47
Variety	3.54	.11	16.66	.10
Recognizable Brand Names	.45	1.42	22.13	.44
Know a Lot	1.12	13.90	45.69	13.13
Satisfied	.80	2.69	4.36	10.71
Proud to Own	.13	3.28	.67	.29
Normally Buy a Lot	1.54	8.88	9.84	3.53
Attractive Appearance	.90	.94	2.23	5.88
Overall	.98	2.73	5.21	.23
Have What I Like to Buy	.21	1.90	3.64	3.18
For People Like Me	.50	.11	.03	1.25
Willing to Buy	2.06	1.90	.73	.05

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

The French respondents who had traveled to Canada felt that Canadian products are a better value for the money and had more positive beliefs about the variety of Canadian products and the recognizability of Canadian brand names in their market. They also believed that they know more about and would normally buy Canadian products.

The German respondents who had traveled to Canada felt that Canadian products are a better value for the money and they believed that they are less expensive than the respondents who had never traveled to Canada. They also believed they know more about Canadian products and are more satisfied with them.

In conclusion, travel was found to be associated with the Europeans' images of Canada. It was, however, only associated with the French and German images of Canadian products. Both the images of Canada and of Canadian products were more positive when the respondents had traveled to Canada.

Hypothesis 11

There will be no differences in the ratings of the United States and its products across British, French, and German respondents of different gender, age, education, income and travel experience.

Gender

The MANOVA results for gender relationships to the images of the United States are shown in Table 6.60. Significant differences were only found for the French and German respondents. However, no individual scale differences were found for either of the respondent groups.

Table 6.60
The Association Between Gender and Images of the United States:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	Great Britain	France	Germany
Exact F	1.44	2.11	2.38
(Significance of F)	(.121)	(.008)	(.003)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values		
	Great Britain	France	Germany
Technologically Advanced	2.27	1.44	2.28
Admirable Role in World Politics	1.03	.37	.87
Refined Taste	5.84	.03	.06
Trustworthy	3.95	1.08	2.44
Likeable	.15	3.97	.74
Hardworking	.13	.72	.98
Closer Ties	2.99	.22	.04
More Investment	.15	1.06	6.80
Rich	1.36	2.11	4.58
Politically Stable	1.54	1.27	2.21
Ideal Country	.39	3.07	.03
Know a Lot	1.73	3.94	1.85
Educated	.01	1.36	1.56
Aligned With Canada	1.16	1.10	3.45
More Imports	5.52	.02	2.81
Like to Visit	1.59	.65	.12

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

The MANOVA results for gender relationships to the images of American products are shown in Table 6.61. The only overall multivariate test that was significant was that for Germany. German males gave a higher rating (4.2) than females (3.9) on the scale “expensive.” German males also gave a higher rating (4.9) than females (4.4) on the scale “know a lot.” In conclusion, almost no gender based differences in the product-country images of the United States were found.

Table 6.61
The Association Between Gender and Images of American Products:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	Great Britain	France	Germany
Exact F (Significance of F)	.98 (.488)	.74 (.779)	1.63 (.046)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values		
	Great Britain	France	Germany
Workmanship	.01	.02	.03
Reliability	.28	.19	1.65
Innovative	.46	.00	.13
Technically Advanced	.05	2.02	1.72
Quality	.26	.15	2.02
After Sales Service	.00	.00	1.73
Value for the Money	1.12	.51	.38
Expensive	1.42	3.19	* 7.14
Easy to Find	.24	1.85	.23
Variety	.00	.02	.01
Recognizable Brand Names	.06	1.19	.12
Know a Lot	2.06	.04	* 7.30
Satisfied	.60	1.21	3.14
Proud to Own	.00	.01	1.83
Normally Buy a Lot	.99	.35	1.58
Attractive Appearance	2.18	.01	1.41
Overall	.50	1.01	.23
Have What I Like to Buy	.71	1.90	.09
For People Like Me	1.13	.25	.57
Willing to Buy	.73	.30	.77

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

* Higher Rating By Male

^ Higher Rating By Female

Age

The MANOVA results for age relationships to the images of the United States are shown in Table 6.62. Significant differences were found for all of the respondent groups examined. The Scheffé post hoc comparisons following the One-Way ANOVAs on the significant scales for all significant groups are shown in Appendix N.

Table 6.62
The Association Between Age and Images of the United States:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	Great Britain	France	Germany
Approximate F (Wilks)	2.07	1.44	1.61
(Significance of F)	(.000)	(.016)	(.002)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values		
	Great Britain	France	Germany
Technologically Advanced	3.16	1.00	2.28
Admirable Role in World Politics	5.26	.56	.48
Refined Taste	3.35	3.05	3.05
Trustworthy	6.27	2.48	.26
Likeable	3.63	2.95	1.16
Hardworking	6.88	2.05	2.47
Closer Ties	3.10	.55	.38
More Investment	1.59	1.07	2.63
Rich	1.48	1.25	2.01
Politically Stable	1.45	1.59	.79
Ideal Country	8.40	2.74	.81
Know a Lot	4.79	2.25	5.08
Educated	6.12	1.31	1.00
Aligned With Canada	2.62	2.88	2.18
More Imports	.71	1.75	2.32
Like to Visit	.34	1.41	1.58

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

British respondents who were less than 20 years or between the ages of 35 and 64 all had more positive beliefs about the role in world politics of the United States than those respondents between 20 and 34 years. Respondents who were 50 years or older felt that Americans are trustworthier and hardworking than those between 20 and 34 years and respondents between 50 and 64 years felt that Americans are more likeable than those between 20 and 34 years. All respondents 35 years and older had more positive beliefs about how ideal a country the United States is and how educated Americans are than those respondents in the 20 to 34 age group. Despite the generally more positive beliefs, feelings and behavioural orientations of the older respondents relative to the younger

ones, the younger respondents between 20 and 49 years believed they know more about the United States than the older respondents (65 and older). For France no individual scale differences were found. In the case of Germany, younger respondents (20-34) believed they know more about the United States than older respondents (65 and older).

The MANOVA results for age relationships to the images of American products are shown in Table 6.63. Significant differences were found for all of the respondent groups. The Scheffé post hoc comparisons following the One-Way ANOVAs on the significant scales for all significant groups are shown in Appendix O.

In the case of Great Britain, the scales that contributed to the overall multivariate difference were the Market Presence and Behaviour scales. Respondents between the ages of 20 and 34 believed that American products are easier to find and they are more likely to normally buy them than those 35 years and older. Younger respondents (20-34) also believed that the variety of American products and the recognizability of American brand names is better than what the middle-aged respondents (35-49) believed. In terms of “know a lot,” respondents 49 years and younger believed they know more about American products than older respondents (65 or older). Respondents in the 20 to 34 age group also believed they know more about American products than those in the 50 to 64 age group.

Table 6.63
The Association Between Age and Images of American Products:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	Great Britain	France	Germany
Approximate F (Wilks) (Significance of F)	1.61 (.001)	1.30 (.044)	1.53 (.002)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values		
	Great Britain	France	Germany
Workmanship	.75	1.44	.44
Reliability	1.22	.19	.67
Innovative	1.55	.33	3.55
Technically Advanced	.55	.73	1.49
Quality	.32	.83	.50
After Sales Service	1.54	.51	2.49
Value for the Money	.56	1.49	1.97
Expensive	1.54	1.23	1.66
Easy to Find	6.29	2.33	5.05
Variety	3.49	2.72	7.33
Recognizable Brand Names	3.64	1.96	4.92
Know a Lot	8.16	3.76	3.73
Satisfied	.39	.62	1.79
Proud to Own	2.09	2.58	1.12
Normally Buy a Lot	8.72	6.33	5.93
Attractive Appearance	1.15	1.63	1.69
Overall	.75	.42	2.48
Have What I Like to Buy	1.76	.40	2.95
For People Like Me	.82	.53	3.34
Willing to Buy	1.26	1.28	3.74

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

In the case of France, the scales that contributed to the overall multivariate difference were the Behaviour scales. Younger respondents (29 or younger) believed they know more about American products and were more likely to normally buy these products than older respondents (50-59). The youngest respondents (less than 20) were also more likely to normally buy American products than the middle-aged respondents (40-49).

In the case of Germany, the significant scales were mainly the Market Presence and Behaviour scales as well as a few Product Integrity and Behavioural Orientation scales. The Scheffé post hoc comparisons following the One-Way ANOVA on the scales “easy to find” and “willing to buy” showed that no two groups were significantly different. On the scales “innovative,” “variety,” “recognizable brand names,” “know a lot,” and “normally buy a lot,” younger respondents (20-34) had more positive beliefs than slightly older respondents (35-49).

In conclusion, age based differences in the images of the United States were found. In the case of Great Britain, older respondents generally had more positive images than younger respondents while in the case of Germany, younger respondents had more positive images than older respondents. Age based differences in the images of American products were also found. All younger European respondents had more positive images than slightly older respondents.

Education

The MANOVA results for education relationships to the images of the United States are shown in Table 6.64. Significant differences were found for all of the respondent groups. The Scheffé post hoc comparisons following the One-Way ANOVAs on the significant scales for all significant groups are shown in Appendix P.

Table 6.64
The Association Between Education and Images of the United States:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	Great Britain	France	Germany
Approximate F (Wilks)	1.50	1.54	1.52
(Significance of F)	(.008)	(.005)	(.006)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values		
	Great Britain	France	Germany
Technologically Advanced	.51	.92	2.93
Admirable Role in World Politics	1.60	1.48	.83
Refined Taste	3.06	.82	3.20
Trustworthy	.69	2.20	.60
Likeable	2.60	.46	1.45
Hardworking	.82	2.35	1.03
Closer Ties	.72	1.36	.54
More Investment	.53	1.96	4.03
Rich	.20	1.88	1.88
Politically Stable	1.07	1.90	.69
Ideal Country	.56	.46	2.03
Know a Lot	6.82	3.69	4.19
Educated	.39	2.45	1.68
Aligned With Canada	1.84	2.84	.50
More Imports	.53	.52	.30
Like to Visit	1.65	.92	3.31

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

For all three countries, there was a significant difference in the different education groups' ratings on the scale "know a lot." Respondents with higher levels of education believed they know more about the United States than those with lower levels of education. Also, for Germany, respondents who had completed higher levels of education were more likely to desire more investment from the United States than those who had only lower levels of education.

The MANOVA results for education relationships to the images of American products are shown in Table 6.65. Significant differences were found for Great Britain and France.

The Scheffé post hoc comparisons following the One-Way ANOVAs on the significant scales for all significant groups are shown in Appendix Q.

Table 6.65
The Association Between Education and Images of American Products:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	Great Britain	France	Germany
Approximate F (Wilks) (Significance of F)	1.54 (.002)	1.93 (.000)	1.17 (.160)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values		
	Great Britain	France	Germany
Workmanship	.67	2.42	.16
Reliability	.65	1.02	2.65
Innovative	.84	.88	3.59
Technically Advanced	1.12	.95	.71
Quality	2.11	1.43	.74
After Sales Service	1.15	4.69	.09
Value for the Money	.06	2.79	.82
Expensive	4.08	3.23	.43
Easy to Find	2.58	6.30	3.38
Variety	.82	1.79	4.55
Recognizable Brand Names	2.39	3.21	4.08
Know a Lot	5.11	3.55	1.44
Satisfied	1.23	1.64	.44
Proud to Own	2.20	.85	.50
Normally Buy a Lot	3.92	1.24	1.66
Attractive Appearance	2.01	.74	1.13
Overall	1.09	1.04	1.42
Have What I Like to Buy	1.01	3.01	1.11
For People Like Me	1.00	1.20	1.16
Willing to Buy	.89	1.86	3.47

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

In the case of Great Britain, the scales contributing to the overall multivariate difference were “expensive,” “know a lot,” and “normally buy a lot.” The more educated respondents gave higher ratings on all three scales than those with lower levels of education.

In the case of France, the scales contributing to the overall multivariate difference were “after sales service,” “easy to find,” and “know a lot.” On the scale “know a lot,” the Scheffé post hoc comparisons show that no two groups differed. Those French respondents with higher levels of education gave more favourable ratings than those with lower levels of education on the remaining two scales.

In conclusion, education based differences in the images of the United States were found. Respondents with higher levels of education had more positive images than those with lower levels of education. Some education based differences in the images of American products were also found. Both the British and French respondents with higher levels of education had more positive images than those with lower levels of education.

Income

The MANOVA results for income relationships to the images of the United States are shown in Table 6.66. The only multivariate test that was significant was that for France and only the scale “educated” contributed to this overall multivariate difference. The Scheffé post hoc comparisons following the One-Way ANOVA on this scale (please see Appendix R for the related output) show that the French respondents in the middle income range had more positive beliefs about the education level of the Americans than those in the lower or higher income ranges.

Table 6.66
The Association Between Income and Images of the United States:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	Great Britain	France	Germany
Approximate F (Wilks)	1.09	1.60	1.29
(Significance of F)	(.306)	(.002)	(.068)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values		
	Great Britain	France	Germany
Technologically Advanced	.63	.61	.30
Admirable Role in World Politics	1.85	2.58	.65
Refined Taste	.12	3.04	1.94
Trustworthy	3.20	1.53	.72
Likeable	.34	.67	2.41
Hardworking	1.14	1.26	.87
Closer Ties	3.05	2.14	.97
More Investment	1.93	1.39	.13
Rich	.60	.41	1.30
Politically Stable	.56	.42	1.73
Ideal Country	1.48	2.67	1.72
Know a Lot	1.59	2.45	1.36
Educated	1.91	4.94	.57
Aligned With Canada	.10	2.97	.51
More Imports	1.39	.21	1.64
Like to Visit	.88	.21	.58

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

The MANOVA results for income relationships to the images of American products are shown in Table 6.67. None of the multivariate tests were significant. In conclusion, almost no income based differences in the product-country images of the United States were found.

Travel to the United States

The MANOVA results for travel relationships to the images of the United States are shown in Table 6.68. Significant differences were found in the Europeans' images.

Table 6.67
The Association Between Income and Images of American Products:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	Great Britain	France	Germany
Approximate F (Wilks)	.99	1.08	1.01
(Significance of F)	(.513)	(.297)	(.465)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values		
	Great Britain	France	Germany
Workmanship	.29	2.86	1.12
Reliability	.55	1.11	.13
Innovative	.22	1.91	2.29
Technically Advanced	1.82	1.21	.36
Quality	.14	1.86	.57
After Sales Service	.21	1.79	.93
Value for the Money	.73	.60	.36
Expensive	.79	.56	.66
Easy to Find	.57	3.50	1.62
Variety	.69	1.31	1.17
Recognizable Brand Names	1.11	.84	1.72
Know a Lot	1.42	1.67	1.68
Satisfied	.29	.53	1.66
Proud to Own	1.41	.61	2.71
Normally Buy a Lot	.93	1.41	3.86
Attractive Appearance	.37	1.48	1.97
Overall	1.41	1.59	.64
Have What I Like to Buy	3.00	.07	1.73
For People Like Me	1.16	.71	2.48
Willing to Buy	2.62	.11	.77

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

British respondents who had traveled to the United States gave more favourable ratings than those who had not on the scales “closer ties,” “more investment,” “know a lot,” and “like to visit.” French respondents who had traveled to the United States gave higher ratings than those who had not on the scales “trustworthy,” “likeable,” “hardworking,” “closer ties,” “more investment,” “ideal country,” “know a lot,” “educated,” and “more imports.” German respondents who had traveled to the United States gave higher ratings than those who had not on the scales “admirable role in world politics,” “trustworthy,”

“likeable,” “hardworking,” “more investment,” “ideal country,” “know a lot,” and “like to visit.”

Table 6.68
The Association Between Travel to the USA and Images of the USA:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	Great Britain	France	Germany
Exact F	2.98	11.46	3.67
(Significance of F)	(.000)	(.000)	(.000)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values		
	Great Britain	France	Germany
Technologically Advanced	.07	.28	2.05
Admirable Role in World Politics	.69	.24	7.10
Refined Taste	.07	.58	.00
Trustworthy	5.70	29.31	9.88
Likeable	5.29	21.29	19.80
Hardworking	1.37	8.42	12.13
Closer Ties	8.54	13.76	5.65
More Investment	7.29	10.71	7.78
Rich	.03	1.18	.09
Politically Stable	1.13	2.51	2.32
Ideal Country	3.61	34.88	9.21
Know a Lot	20.64	147.25	35.18
Educated	.38	9.61	.06
Aligned With Canada	4.99	.94	.51
More Imports	2.04	7.02	3.82
Like to Visit	10.09	3.50	8.67

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

The MANOVA results for travel relationships to the images of American products are shown in Table 6.69. Significant differences were found in the French and German images. French respondents who had traveled to the United States gave more favourable ratings than those who had not on the scales “workmanship,” “reliability,” “quality,” “after sales service,” “normally buy a lot,” “attractive appearance,” “overall,” and “willing to buy.” German respondents who had traveled to the United States gave higher ratings than those who had not on the scales “after sales service,” “value for the money,”

“variety,” “know a lot,” “satisfied,” “normally buy a lot,” “have what I like to buy,” and “willing to buy.”

Table 6.69
The Association Between Travel to the USA and Images of American Products:
Output of Overall MANOVA

Multivariate Test of Significance

	Great Britain	France	Germany
Exact F (Significance of F)	1.43 (.108)	1.92 (.011)	2.63 (.000)

Univariate F-Tests

Scale	F-Values		
	Great Britain	France	Germany
Workmanship	.07	11.23	.40
Reliability	1.30	8.99	1.07
Innovative	.09	5.54	.75
Technically Advanced	.42	1.01	.41
Quality	.07	12.88	1.77
After Sales Service	.07	12.83	12.01
Value for the Money	2.97	5.37	10.29
Expensive	.96	4.69	.16
Easy to Find	.68	.00	4.03
Variety	2.58	.28	9.45
Recognizable Brand Names	4.42	1.12	6.17
Know a Lot	11.38	2.22	17.15
Satisfied	2.40	1.46	13.15
Proud to Own	6.72	6.05	1.11
Normally Buy a Lot	2.92	9.60	13.80
Attractive Appearance	1.66	8.43	6.03
Overall	.72	8.41	5.67
Have What I Like to Buy	5.06	5.12	8.93
For People Like Me	2.68	6.79	6.09
Willing to Buy	2.73	9.31	16.83

Note: Significant F-Values are **BOLDED**

In conclusion, travel was found to be associated with the Europeans' images of the United States. It was, however, only associated with the French and German images of American products. Both the images of the United States and of its products were more positive when the respondents had traveled to the United States.

Summary

A summary of the findings of the demographic and travel correlates analyses is provided in Table 6.70.

Table 6.70
Summary of Demographic and Travel Correlates

	Images of Canada				Images of the United States		
	American	British	French	German	British	French	German
Gender	-Sig. Overall -1 Sig. Scale -Female Rating Higher	-Sig. Overall -No Sig. Scales	-Sig. Overall -1 Sig. Scale -Male Rating Higher	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall	-Sig. Overall -No Sig. Scales	-Sig. Overall -No Sig. Scales
Age	-Sig. Overall -3 Sig. Scales -Older More +ve	-Sig. Overall -7 Sig. Scales -Older More +ve	-Sig. Overall -2 Sig. Scales -Older More +ve	-Sig. Overall -3 Sig. Scales -Once Older More +ve & Once Younger More +ve	-Sig. Overall -7 Sig. Scales -Generally Older More +ve	-Sig. Overall -No Sig. Scales	-Sig. Overall -1 Sig. Scale -Younger More +ve
Education	-Not Sig. Overall	-Sig. Overall -5 Sig. Scales -Generally Less Educated More +ve	-Sig. Overall -3 Sig. Scales -More Educated More +ve	-Sig. Overall -1 Sig. Scale But No Two Groups Differed	-Sig. Overall -1 Sig. Scale -More Educated More +ve	-Sig. Overall -1 Sig. Scale -More Educated More +ve	-Sig. Overall -2 Sig. Scales -More Educated More +ve
Household Income	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall	-Sig. Overall -1 Sig. Scale -Lower Income More +ve	-Not Sig. Overall	-Sig. Overall -1 Sig. Scale -Mixed Results	-Not Sig. Overall
Travel to Can./US	-Not Sig. Overall	-Sig. Overall -5 Sig. Scales -Travelers More +ve	-Sig. Overall -1 Sig. Scale -Travelers More +ve	-Sig. Overall -1 Sig. Scale -Travelers More +ve	-Sig. Overall -4 Sig. Scales -Travelers More +ve	-Sig. Overall -9 Sig. Scales -Travelers More +ve	-Sig. Overall -8 Sig. Scales -Travelers More +ve
	Images of Canadian Products				Images of American Products		
	American	British	French	German	British	French	German
Gender	-Not Sig. Overall	-Sig. Overall -1 Sig. Scale -Female Rating Higher	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall	-Sig. Overall -2 Sig. Scales -Male Rating Higher
Age	-Sig. Overall -4 Sig. Scales -Older More +ve	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall	-Sig. Overall -4 Sig. Scales -Generally Younger More +ve	-Sig. Overall -5 Sig. Scales -Younger More +ve	-Sig. Overall -2 Sig. Scales -Younger More +ve	-Sig. Overall -7 Sig. Scales -Younger More +ve
Education	-Sig. Overall -No Sig. Scales	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall	-Sig. Overall -3 Sig. Scales -More Educated More +ve	-Sig. Overall -3 Sig. Scales -More Educated More +ve	-Not Sig. Overall
Household Income	-Not Sig. Overall	-Sig. Overall -No Sig. Scales	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall
Travel to Can./US	-Not Sig. Overall	-Not Sig. Overall	-Sig. Overall -5 Sig. Scales -Travelers More +ve	-Sig. Overall -4 Sig. Scales -Travelers More +ve	-Not Sig. Overall	-Sig. Overall -8 Sig. Scales -Travelers More +ve	-Sig. Overall -8 Sig. Scales -Travelers More +ve

Examining the demographic and travel correlates of all respondents' product-country images of Canada and the United States, it was found that gender and income were not related to the product-country images. Age, on the other hand, was generally found to be related to the product-country images of both countries. Although older respondents usually had more positive images of Canada and the United States than younger respondents, the reverse was true for the images of Canadian and American products.

Education based differences in the European images of Canada and the United States were found. Those with higher levels of education had more positive images than the less educated respondents. Education based differences in the images of Canadian and American products were, however, generally not found.

Travel based differences were also found in the European images of Canada and the United States. Such differences were also found in the French and German images of Canadian and American products. Those respondents who had traveled, had more positive images than those who had not.

The Association Between Country Images and Product Images

The objective of this subsection was to examine the association between the images of Canada and Canadian products and the association between the images of the United States and American products. The analyses of the associations were run individually for

each respondent country. Use was made of Pearson correlation coefficients. The coefficients were determined for the combinations of the three country and four product dimensions determined in Section 6.3. The level of significance (α) was set equal to .013 (.15/12 between correlations per analysis).

Hypothesis 12A

Images of Canadian products will not be related to images of the country itself.

The correlation coefficients determined for the combinations of the dimensions underlying American product-country images of Canada are shown in Table 6.71. Significant positive and high correlations were found between all three country dimensions and Product Integrity / Value as well as between the three country dimensions and Behavioural Orientation. So, Americans' images of Canada were associated with their beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products as well as with their behavioural orientation towards Canadian products. The strongest association was between Affect and Behavioural Orientation.

Table 6.71
The Association Between American Images of Canada and Its Products:
Correlation Coefficients

Product Dimensions	Country Dimensions		
	Belief	Affect	Link
Product Integrity / Value	.42	.36	.31
Market Presence	.12	.06	-.05
Behavioural Orientation	.29	.44	.30
Behaviour	.10	.02	-.02

Note: Significant Correlation Coefficients are **BOLDED**

The correlation coefficients determined for the combinations of the dimensions underlying British product-country images of Canada are shown in Table 6.72. The three country dimensions were significantly, positively, and highly correlated with the Product Integrity / Value dimension as well as with the Behavioural Orientation dimension. There were also significant positive correlations between Affect and Behaviour and between Link and Behaviour, but they were not as strong as the other correlations. The strongest of all the associations was between Link and Behavioural Orientation.

Table 6.72
The Association Between British Images of Canada and Its Products:
Correlation Coefficients

Product Dimensions	Country Dimensions		
	Belief	Affect	Link
Product Integrity / Value	.32	.32	.33
Market Presence	.12	.11	.14
Behavioural Orientation	.30	.41	.47
Behaviour	.09	.21	.22

Note: Significant Correlation Coefficients are **BOLDED**

So, the British images of Canada were associated with their beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products as well as with their behavioural orientation towards Canadian products. Further, their feelings about and their desired link with Canada were associated with their behaviour towards Canadian products.

The correlation coefficients determined for the combinations of the dimensions underlying French product-country images of Canada are shown in Table 6.73. Significant positive and high correlations were found between all three country dimensions and Product Integrity / Value as well as between the three country

dimensions and Behavioural Orientation. So, the French images of Canada were related to their beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products as well as to their behavioural orientations towards Canadian products. The strongest association was between Link and Behavioural Orientation.

Table 6.73
The Association Between French Images of Canada and Its Products:
Correlation Coefficients

Product Dimensions	Country Dimensions		
	Belief	Affect	Link
Product Integrity / Value	.33	.29	.36
Market Presence	-.01	.05	.13
Behavioural Orientation	.20	.31	.42
Behaviour	-.06	-.07	.07

Note: Significant Correlation Coefficients are **BOLDED**

The correlation coefficients determined for the combinations of the dimensions underlying German product-country images of Canada are shown in Table 6.74. The three country dimensions were significantly, positively, and highly correlated with the Product Integrity / Value dimension. Significant correlations were also found between the dimensions Belief-Market Presence and Affect-Market Presence. It should be noted that the Affect-Market Presence association was a lot stronger than the Belief-Market Presence association. Interestingly, the direction of the relationships between Belief and Market Presence and between Affect and Market Presence were negative ones. Significant positive correlations were found between Affect and Behavioural Orientation and between Link and Behavioural Orientation, with the latter being much stronger than that former. Finally, the three country dimensions were significantly correlated with the Behaviour dimension. Interestingly, the directions of the relationships between these

dimensions were all negative. It should be noted that the relationships between Belief and Behaviour and between Link and Behaviour were not as strong as the relationship between Affect and Behaviour. It should also be mentioned that the association between Affect and Behaviour was the strongest of all the associations.

Table 6.74
The Association Between German Images of Canada and Its Products:
Correlation Coefficients

Product Dimensions	Country Dimensions		
	Belief	Affect	Link
Product Integrity / Value	.23	.28	.31
Market Presence	-.17	-.35	-.10
Behavioural Orientation	.11	.16	.33
Behaviour	-.16	-.41	-.21

Note: Significant Correlation Coefficients are **BOLDED**

The significant correlations indicate that there was a positive association between the Germans' images of Canada and their beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products. There were also associations, although negative ones, between their beliefs and feelings about Canada and their beliefs about the presence of Canadian products in the German market. Further, there were positive associations between the Germans' feelings about Canada and their behavioural orientations towards Canadian products as well as between their desire to be linked with Canada and their behavioural orientation towards Canadian products. Finally, there were negative associations between the Germans' images of Canada and their behaviour towards Canadian products.

All of the above analyses show that there is a relationship between the images of Canada and the images of Canadian products. The null hypothesis, H_{12A} , was, therefore, rejected.

Hypothesis 12B

Images of American products will not be related to images of the country itself.

The correlation coefficients determined for the combinations of the dimensions underlying British product-country images of the United States are shown in Table 6.75. The three country dimensions were significantly, positively, and highly correlated with the Product Integrity / Value dimension as well as with the Behavioural Orientation dimension. A significant positive correlation was also found between the Affect and Market Presence dimensions. This correlation was, however, not as strong as the others. The strongest association of all the associations was between Link and Behavioural Orientation.

Table 6.75
The Association Between British Images of the United States and Its Products:
Correlation Coefficients

Product Dimensions	Country Dimensions		
	Belief	Affect	Link
Product Integrity / Value	.41	.41	.46
Market Presence	.06	.15	.08
Behavioural Orientation	.29	.37	.48
Behaviour	.06	.12	.12

Note: Significant Correlation Coefficients are **BOLDED**

So, the British images of the United States were related to their beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of American products as well as to their behavioural

orientation towards these products. Further, there was an association between their feelings about the United States and their beliefs about the presence of American products in the British market.

The correlation coefficients determined for the combinations of the dimensions underlying French product-country images of the United States are shown in Table 6.76. The three country dimensions were significantly, positively, and highly correlated with the Product Integrity / Value dimension as well as with the Behavioural Orientation dimension. A significant positive correlation was also found between the Belief and Market Presence dimensions. However, this correlation was not very strong. Finally, the three country dimensions were significantly and positively correlated with the Behaviour dimension. Although the correlation between Link and Behaviour was strong, the correlations between Belief and Behaviour and between Affect and Behaviour were not that strong. The strongest of all the associations was between Link and Behavioural Orientation.

Table 6.76
The Association Between French Images of the United States and Its Products:
Correlation Coefficients

Product Dimensions	Country Dimensions		
	Belief	Affect	Link
Product Integrity / Value	.37	.42	.48
Market Presence	.19	.09	.12
Behavioural Orientation	.33	.44	.51
Behaviour	.19	.17	.36

Note: Significant Correlation Coefficients are **BOLDED**

The significant correlations indicate that the French images of the United States were associated with their beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of American products as well as with their behavioural orientation and their behaviour towards these products. Further, their beliefs about the United States were associated with their beliefs about the market presence of American products in the French market.

The correlation coefficients determined for the combinations of the dimensions underlying German product-country images of the United States are shown in Table 6.77. The three country dimensions were significantly, positively, and highly correlated with the Product Integrity / Value, Behavioural Orientation, and Behaviour dimensions. Significant positive correlations were also found between the dimensions Belief-Market Presence and Affect-Market Presence. It should be noted, however, that the correlation between Affect and Market Presence was not that strong and weaker than all the other significant correlations. The strongest of all the associations was between Link and Behavioural Orientation.

Table 6.77
The Association Between German Images of the United States and Its Products:
Correlation Coefficients

Product Dimensions	Country Dimensions		
	Belief	Affect	Link
Product Integrity / Value	.37	.38	.38
Market Presence	.25	.19	.14
Behavioural Orientation	.26	.41	.44
Behaviour	.29	.27	.39

Note: Significant Correlation Coefficients are **BOLDED**

The significant correlations indicate that there was an association between the Germans' images of the United States and their beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of American products as well as with their behavioural orientation and behaviour towards these products. Further, their beliefs and feelings about the United States were associated with their beliefs about the presence of American products in the German market.

The above analyses show that there is a relationship between the images of the United States and the images of American products. The null hypothesis, H_{12B} , was, therefore, rejected.

Summary

Relationships were found between the images of Canada and the images of Canadian products as well as between the images of the United States and the images of American products. The respondents' images of a country, in this case Canada and the United States, were associated with their beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of the country's products and with their behavioural orientations towards products from that country. Associations were also found between the country images and the beliefs about the market presence and the behaviours of the respondents. However, these associations were not as frequently found across all of the analyses as the previously mentioned ones and were, therefore, not considered as important in understanding the

associations between country images and product images as the before mentioned associations.

7. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This chapter provides a summary and discussion of the findings of this study.

7.1 Sample Demographics and Travel Habits

The samples used in this study were generally half male and half female, young in age, and well educated, with a mix of incomes. Most of the respondents had not visited Canada, while more had visited the United States. Although the samples are not fully representative of the populations of the countries studied, they are useful for the purposes of this study since these consumers are the opinion leaders who can be expected to eventually influence the images and behavioural orientations of all consumers in a society.

7.2 Product and Country Images

The American and European product-country images of Canada in the late 1990's were described in Section 6.2. The respondent groups generally had very positive images of Canada. Their beliefs and feelings making up this image and the related behavioural orientations were generally also positive or very positive. The only country scale on which all European respondents gave poor ratings was "know a lot." It is interesting to

note that the images of Canada were generally very positive despite the poor knowledge of the respondents about the country.

The American and European images of Canadian products were generally positive, but not as positive as their images of the country. To understand this, it was necessary to look at the respondents' evaluations of the components of this image. The respondent groups generally had positive or very positive beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products and positive behavioural orientations towards them. In fact, all respondents gave very favourable ratings on the scale "willing to buy." When it came to the market presence of Canadian products, all of the respondent groups believed that it was very poor. This may have been the case because the overwhelming majority of products exported to the respondent countries have been natural resources or products that are destined to become part of larger products and, therefore, were not among the products consumers saw and recognized in the marketplace (see Appendices B, E, F, and G). As a result of the poor beliefs about the market presence of Canadian products, the behaviour of the respondent groups towards Canadian products, through the ratings on the scales "know a lot" and "normally buy a lot," was very poor. In conclusion, the images of Canadian products were not very positive not because of poor beliefs and feelings about the products themselves, but rather because of poor beliefs about the market presence of these products and the resulting poor behaviours of the respondent groups.

Sommers et al. (1992) and Petty et al. (1997) suggested that attitudes and, therefore, images can be learned either through direct or indirect experiences. The respondent groups' product-country images of Canada and their related behavioural orientations and, therefore, their attitudes towards Canada and its products, generally appear not to have been learned through direct experiences. The only exception might be for the Americans' attitudes towards Canada. This may be the case since these respondents gave positive and much higher ratings than the European respondents on the country scale "know a lot." They also had traveled to Canada much more than all the other respondents. Most of the European respondents, on the other hand, had not traveled to Canada and the mean ratings on the knowledge scale were low. Furthermore, all respondent groups' attitudes towards Canadian products may also be seen not to have formed through direct experiences, since all gave poor ratings on the product scales "know a lot" and "normally buy a lot," and also on the Market Presence dimension scales.

It is more likely that the respondents' product-country images of Canada, related behavioural orientations and, therefore, their attitudes towards Canada and its products were formed through indirect experiences. As McGuire (1985) suggested, public institutions and the mass media may influence attitude formation.

The importance of the formation of these attitudes and images through either direct or indirect experiences lies in the impact that this has on the attitude-behaviour link. As Engel et al. (1995) suggested, attitudes formed based on direct experiences are held with

greater confidence and, therefore, will be better predictors of behaviour. This suggests that the respondents groups' product-country images of Canada and their related behavioural orientations and, therefore, their attitudes towards Canada and its products may not be good predictors of their actual behaviour. It should also be noted that Matlin (1992) suggested that when an individual knows a lot about the attitude object, the related attitude will likely be a better predictor of behaviour. As pointed out previously, the respondent groups' knowledge of Canada and its products was generally poor. According to Matlin (1992) then, the attitudes towards Canada and its products may again not be strong predictors of actual behaviour towards the country and its products.

7.3 Underlying Dimensions of Product-Country Images

Through principal components analysis it was found that the scales used in this study clustered to form four product and three country dimensions. Product Integrity / Value, Market Presence, Behavioural Orientation, and Behaviour were the designated underlying dimensions of product images. Belief, Affect, and Link were the designated underlying dimensions of country images. Similar dimensions were found by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993), suggesting that the dimensions appear to be stable over time.

Sommers et al. (1992), Matlin (1992), and Alcock et al. (1997) suggested that attitudes and behavioural intentions/orientations do not always predict actual behaviour. This is an interesting observation in the context of the findings of the principal components

analysis. As described, two of the dimensions underlying product images are Behavioural Orientation and Behaviour. The findings by the three above mentioned groups of researchers may help explain the separation of intention/orientation and actual behaviour. Furthermore, the findings of the principal components analysis showed that the Behaviour and Market Presence dimensions were heavily linked. This suggests that the actual behaviour of the respondent groups towards Canadian and American products was based more on the presence of the products in the market than on the behavioural orientations. So, in the case of Canada, the actual purchase behaviour, as measured by the ratings on the scale “normally buy a lot,” was poor since these respondents also believed that the presence of Canadian products in the marketplace was poor. Interestingly, Sommers et al. (1992) and Engel et al. (1995) suggested that such unavailability of products was a situational influence that would result in differences in attitudes and, therefore, images, and behaviours. Although the respondents images and behavioural orientations were positive and they were, for example, willing to buy Canadian products, their actual behaviours were dictated more by the situational influences, i.e. the market presence, than by their behavioural orientations.

7.4 Changes in the Product-Country Images of Canada

In examining the changes in the American and European product-country images of Canada between the late 1980's and late 1990's, for comparison purposes the changes in the European product-country images of the United States were also examined. The

results of the analyses show that all of the images changed, which resulted in the rejection of hypotheses H_{1A} through H_{7B} .

All respondent groups' images of Canada improved from already positive images in the late 1980's. The British images of Canada improved the most, followed by the French, the Americans and, finally, the Germans, whose images improved the least.

Interestingly, from a comparison perspective, only two of the respondent groups' images of the United States improved, the British and the German. However, while the British images of the United States improved drastically, the German images improved only slightly. The considerably more positive British images in the second study might be explained by the fact that Britain's economic and political ties with the United States became stronger over the study period. As one of the factors affecting attitude change, and, therefore, image change, mass media may also have played a role in the drastic improvement in the British images of the United States. As Perry (1990) stated, the use of news media generally leads to greater knowledge and more favourable attitudes towards a country.

The French images of the United States, on the other hand, declined slightly. Considering the changes in the images of the United States and the fact that in the late 1990's the British and French had more positive images of Canada than of the United States, while only the Germans had more positive images of the United States than of Canada, it

appears that generally speaking Canada has an advantage over the United States in terms of images of the country. This advantage may manifest itself, for example, in the ability of Canada to be able to attract more investment and more tourism than the United States from the European countries studied, if properly targeted.

Not only did the overall image of Canada improve for all respondent countries, but the beliefs and feelings making up this image and the related behavioural orientations were more positive in the second study, with the exception of the Germans' beliefs about Canada's role in world politics.

When it comes to the product images, Canada did not fare as well. Only the American and French images of Canadian products improved, with the French images improving much more than the American images. The British and German images of Canadian products, on the other hand, declined, the former more than the latter. The European images of American products did, however, all improve, with the British images improving the most and the German images improving the least. Furthermore, the European images of American products were all more positive than their images of Canadian products in the second study. However, all European respondents gave lower ratings to American products on the scales "innovative" and "technically advanced" in the second study. This may suggest that Europeans believe that they are catching up to the American lead in these areas, and the gap between the innovativeness and technical advancement of the United States and the European countries studied is narrowing.

Although the changes in the images of Canadian products relative to the changes in the American products makes the picture look bleak for Canadian products, it is necessary to look at the changes in the respondents' evaluations of the components of this image in order to get a full understanding. Doing this, it becomes apparent that the beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products had generally all improved. The behavioural orientations of the different respondent groups towards Canadian products generally appear not to have changed, but did remain positive. However, the beliefs about the market presence of Canadian products and the behaviour of the different respondent groups towards Canadian products generally appear to have declined. This is a rather interesting finding, considering that the exports generally increased (see Appendix A), with the exception of exports to Great Britain. The decline in the beliefs about the market presence of Canadian products is likely explained by the fact that many of the products exported are still natural resources or products that are destined to become part of a larger product and, therefore, were not among the products consumers saw or recognized in the marketplace (see Appendices B, E, F, and G).

Considering the above and the actual images of Canadian products in the late 1990's, it appears that the problem with the images of Canadian products lies neither in the beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products nor in the behavioural orientations towards these products, but in the beliefs about the market presence of Canadian products and the associated behaviour of the respondents.

As has been stated previously, very little research exists in the area of product-country image change. The results of existing research have shown that product-country images can change over time. The finding of this study, that all of the respondents' product-country images of Canada and the United States had changed, provides additional proof of the possibility of product-country image change to this area of research.

It is noteworthy that the changes in the product-country images of Canada and the United States involved changes in both the beliefs and feelings making up these images and changes in the related behavioural orientations, as measured by the changes in the ratings on the scales measuring each of these concepts. The changes suggest that product-country images have both belief and feeling components, rather than just a belief or feeling component. Had the product-country images been either entirely belief based or feeling based, it would likely have been found that only the beliefs or feelings had changed, whichever led to the formation of the images in the first place. This conclusion is supported by the work of Edwards (1990), Fishbein and Middlestadt (1995, 1997), Priester and Fleming (1997), Miniard and Barone (1997), Schwarz (1997), and Haugtvedt (1997), all of whom suggest the existence of a dual processing model of attitude formation and change.

Edwards (1990) and Zajonc (1980 in Edwards 1990) found that attitudes based on feelings alone would be more difficult to change than the ones based on belief dimensions alone. This study as well as the other longitudinal research studies examined

in the product-country image field show that product-country images do indeed change over time. Since all these studies found changes, it is unlikely that product-country images could be based on feelings alone. Furthermore, the previous finding that both beliefs and feelings about Canada and its products as well as about the United States and its products have changed, suggests that the related images are not based on feelings alone.

The attitude and attitude change literature suggests that certain types of attitudes, and, therefore, images, those considered high in resistance, are more difficult to change than others. Sommers et al. (1992) and Alcock et al. (1997) suggested that strong attitudes are less likely to change. Such strong attitudes are extreme, intense, maintained with considerable certainty, perceived as important, supported by knowledge, and are more accessible, i.e. more easily remembered than weak attitudes (Krosnick 1989 in Alcock et al. 1997).

As shown in this study and in other longitudinal studies, product-country images can and do change over time. Knowing that strong attitudes are less likely to change, suggests that product-country images and the related behavioural orientations are not as extreme or intense and are not maintained with as much certainty as strong attitudes. Further, they may not be perceived as important as strong attitudes and may not be supported by as much knowledge as strong attitudes. Finally, product-country images and the behavioural orientations may not be as accessible in memory as stronger attitudes. The accessibility of

attitudes influences the attitude-behaviour link (Engel et al. 1995). The more likely that the information can be retrieved from memory, the more likely it is that the attitudes retrieved will be good predictors of behaviour. Since product-country images and the related behavioural orientations are not very strong attitudes and are, therefore, not as accessible as stronger attitudes, it can be seen that the positive product-country images and the related positive behavioural orientations may not be good predictors of actual behaviour. It should be remembered, however, that attitudes in general and, therefore, images and behavioural orientations do not always predict actual behaviour (Sommers et al. 1992; Alcock et al. 1997, Matlin 1992). This is not to say that the importance of attitudes and images in consumer decision making be discounted. After all, they influence consumers' decision-making processes (Engel et al. 1995). Furthermore, Papadopoulos (1993) suggested that although attitudes may not lead an individual to immediate action, they may be referenced for future decisions. These attitudes may also be communicated to other individuals and may influence their actions.

7.5 Cross-National Differences

As has been pointed out previously, the area of research examining cross-national differences in product-country images has not received as much attention as some other areas of interest in the product-country image field. Those studies that do exist tend to suggest that cross-national differences do exist in product-country images. This study provides additional support to these findings.

The objective of the cross-national analysis was to determine whether differences existed in the American and European product-country images of Canada and in the European product-country images of the United States. Differences were detected in all of the respondent groups' product-country images of Canada and the United States. The hypotheses H_{8A} through H_{9B} were, therefore, rejected.

The results of the analyses show that the British had the most positive images of Canada, followed by the French and the Americans, while the Germans had the least positive images. As for the images of the United States, the British, again, had the most positive images, followed by the Germans, while the French had the least positive images.

The analyses also showed that the French had the most positive images of Canadian products, followed by the Americans and the British, while the Germans had the least positive images. Interestingly, the French also had the most positive images of American products followed by the British and, again, the Germans had the least positive images.

Although the Americans did not have the most positive overall images of Canada of all the respondents, they believed they know more about Canada and they felt they are more aligned with the country than any of the other respondent groups. This is likely due to the proximity of the two countries and to the fact that Canada has closer economic and political ties with the United States than with the European countries. Although the Americans did not have the most positive images of Canadian products of all the

respondents, they had more positive beliefs about the market presence of these products than any of the European respondents. This may be explained by the fact that Canada exports a lot more to the United States than it does to the European countries. In line with this, Americans had more positive behaviours towards Canadian products than the Europeans. The Americans did, however, also have less positive beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products than the Europeans.

7.6 Demographic and Travel Correlates of Product-Country Images

The analyses of the demographic and travel correlates of product-country images had mixed results. Overall, gender was found not to be related to the product-country images of Canada and the United States. These findings are supported by the work of Dornoff, Tankersley and White (1974) and Li, Fu and Murray (1997). Income was also generally not found to be related to the product-country images of Canada and the United States.

On the other hand, age based differences in the images of Canada and the United States were found. Older respondents generally had more positive images of Canada and the United States than younger respondents. Age was also generally found to be related to the images of Canadian and American products. The difference here was that younger respondents generally had more positive images of Canadian and American products than older respondents.

The results of the analyses on the association between education and product-country images were not as clear as those on age. Education based differences in the European images of Canada and the United States were found. European respondents who were more educated generally had more positive images of Canada and the United States than those who were less educated. Education based differences in the images of Canadian and American products were generally not found. More research on this demographic correlate is needed before it can be clearly stated that it is related to product-country images.

Travel to Canada and the United States was found to be related to the European product-country images of Canada and the United States. However, American respondents' travel to Canada was not found to be related to their product-country images of Canada. Travel was more likely to be related to the Europeans' images of the countries than of their products. Travel to Canada and the United States, respectively, were found to be positively associated with the European respondents' images of Canada and the United States. Those who had visited the country believed they know more about the country than those who had not. In the case of the images of Canadian and American products, only travel by the French and Germans resulted in more positive product images. Those French and German respondents who had travelled to Canada and the United States generally believed they know more about and were more likely to normally buy their products than those who had not travelled to the country. Engel et al. (1995) suggested that attitudes based on direct experience are better predictors of behaviour, providing

support for this finding. Since travel to a country will likely expose consumers to products from that country, it can be considered one form of direct experience. As McGuire (1985) suggested, mere exposure can result in an increasing liking for the object. If the new product attitudes and, therefore, images are based on direct experience, as compared to the previously held product attitudes based on indirect experience, then these attitudes will, according to Engel et al. (1995), be better predictors of behaviour. Since respondents who had traveled believed they know more about and were more likely to normally buy products from the country to which they had traveled than those respondents who had not traveled, it might be suggested that these attitudes based on direct experience may result in increased levels of behaviour since they increase the travellers' confidence in their buying decisions.

7.7 The Association Between Country Images and Product Images

Significant associations were found between the images of Canada and the images of Canadian products as well as between the images of the United States and the images of American products. Specifically, it was found that respondent images of Canada as well as their images of the United States were associated with their beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of products from those countries and with their behavioural orientations towards these products. Although some of the analyses showed significant associations between the images of the countries examined (Canada and the United States) and the beliefs about the market presence of products from these countries

as well as between the images of these countries and the behaviours towards their products, these associations were not found in all of the analyses. For this reason, these associations were not deemed as important to this study as the country image-product integrity / value and country image-behavioural orientation associations. Similar significant associations were found by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993).

The strong associations between the images of Canada and the beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products and the behavioural orientations towards them may help explain why respondents had positive beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products and positive behavioural orientations towards them while believing that Canadian products did not have a strong market presence and believing that they did not know a lot about them and did not normally buy a lot of them. The positive images of Canada appear to be associated with the positive beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products and the positive behavioural orientations towards these products.

8. IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study will prove useful to Canadian businesses involved in the export market and to Canadian federal and provincial governments as well as to marketing researchers.

8.1 Implications for Canadian Businesses

The Canadian market is filled with products from companies around the world. This represents the market reality for Canadian businesses – intense competition. No longer can these firms rely on the domestic market for survival and expansion of profits.

Consequently, many businesses are finding it necessary to become involved in the export market. The results of this study show excellent export opportunities for Canadian consumer goods companies to the United States, Great Britain, France, and Germany.

This study indicates that consumers from these countries would welcome more imports from Canada and show a definite willingness to buy Canadian products. Companies that are already involved in exporting primarily to the United States may wish to apply these findings and expand their exporting efforts to the British, French, and German markets.

Although this study examined the product-country images of consumers and, therefore, is relevant mostly to Canadian consumer goods companies, the findings may also be useful to Canadian industrial markets. It may be argued that industrial buyers are similar to

consumers since they are consumers for their own personal needs and they are also consumers for the companies for which they work. Since the country of origin cue is used in their personal purchasing decisions, it may be argued that these same images influence their purchasing decisions while at work, i.e. industrial purchases. After all, if consumers have a product-country image in mind that would influence personal purchase decisions, it seems unlikely that they would simply set these images aside and would not allow them to influence their purchasing decisions for work. Furthermore, research has shown that product-country images affect the behaviour of industrial buyers (e.g. Johansson et al. 1994; Ahmed and d'Astous 1995).

This study examines the changes in the American, British, French, and German images of Canada and its products between the late 1980's and late 1990's in comparison to the changes in the European images of the United States and its products. Canadian businesses already exporting to these markets or those companies wishing to export will find it useful to understand such images and their changes. The country of origin cue is one of the many cues consumers use in making product choices. Understanding consumers' product-country images and changes in them is, therefore, useful in deciding whether or not to focus on the country of origin cue or on other cues, such as brand name or price.

This study has shown that the respondent groups' images of Canada improved from already positive images in the first study. It has also been shown that the beliefs and feelings about the product integrity and value of Canadian products were even more

positive in the second study and that the behavioural orientations of the respondents were quite positive. Furthermore, it was shown that the positive images of Canada were associated with the positive beliefs, feelings and behavioural orientations towards Canadian products. This implies for businesses that country of origin is a useful cue when it comes to promoting Canadian products in the United States, Great Britain, France, and Germany. The respondents in these countries felt that Canadians are very trustworthy, likeable, and hardworking. From the associations between country images and product images it was found that such positive feelings result in positive beliefs about the workmanship, reliability, and quality of Canadian products. Canadian businesses may wish to build on these positive beliefs and feelings in promoting their products.

Canadian businesses, however, have to ensure that their products are clearly recognizable as Canadian in order to benefit from these advantages. Furthermore, they have to aggressively pursue the improvement of the market presence of their products so that they are easily available to the consumers who show a noticeable willingness to buy Canadian products. Canadian businesses also need to move away from primarily exporting natural resources and/or component products and have to continue to develop more quality consumer brand name products and to promote those aggressively abroad in order to improve their position in the marketplace, where they face stiff competition from American products that are easily recognizable and readily available.

As described previously, product-country images and the related behavioural orientations were found not to be strong attitudes. In line with this, it was found that these attitudes

may not be easily accessible in memory. This suggests that the link between product-country attitudes and the related behaviour may be weak. With this in mind, Canadian businesses should not focus on the country-of-origin cue alone when promoting their products. This is not to say that the country-of-origin cue is not useful for Canadian companies but simply that other cues should be used in the promotions in conjunction with the country-of-origin cue, should the product-country attitudes not be accessible in memory. At the same time, Canadian businesses need to find ways to cue the product-country images and attitudes in order to benefit from the positive images of Canada and the related positive beliefs about the product integrity and value of Canadian products and the positive behavioural orientations towards these products.

The finding that product-country images and attitudes are not very strong attitudes and are, therefore, not very resistant to change, suggests that Canadian businesses need to ensure that they always know what their consumers' product-country images are, should they choose to use the country-of-origin cue in their promotions. They should also try to change the images to make them more positive.

8.2 Implications for the Canadian Government

The Canadian governments at both levels, federal and provincial, will find the results of this study useful. As has been pointed out in the previous section, excellent export opportunities exist for Canadian businesses. Canadian governments need to recognize these potential opportunities, and they need to work with businesses to make them aware

of these opportunities and to encourage and support exporting efforts. Furthermore, they need to work with Canadian businesses to encourage the development and/or expansion of consumer and industrial products with recognizable brand names and the movement beyond a focus on the export of natural resources and component products. The Canadian federal government should promote the success of those companies that are already leaders in their non-resource based fields, such as Nortel, Bombardier, JDS Fitel, and Corel, among others, to ensure that the consumers and industrial buyers in the United States, Great Britain, France, and Germany recognize these products as Canadian. The consumers' beliefs about the innovativeness and technological advancement of Canadian products may improve if they are aware that Canadian companies do indeed produce products that are innovative and technically advanced.

International trade shows and other promotional vehicles can be used by Canadian provincial and federal governments to help raise awareness of Canada and Canadian products abroad. Furthermore, the Canadian federal government has to continue to develop international trade agreements with countries such as those examined in this study to ensure that easy access into the markets of those countries for Canadian products remains.

Although this study focuses on consumers, Papadopoulos et al. (1997) suggested that product-country images also affect the behaviour of foreign investors. The improvement between the late 1980's and late 1990's in the already positive images of Canada, therefore, presents a tremendous opportunity for the Canadian government with regards

to attracting foreign investment. The Canadian government should promote Canada as an excellent choice for foreign investors by focusing on some of the very positive beliefs and feelings about the country and by adjusting its policies to encourage foreign investment. They should promote the ideas that Canada is politically stable, that Canadians are well educated and hardworking as well as trustworthy and likeable, since it was found that respondents had very positive beliefs and feelings about these elements of images of Canada.

This study has also shown that the European respondents' product-country images of Canada were positively related to travel to Canada. It was discovered that these respondents showed a great interest in visiting Canada, as did the Americans. These two findings combined suggest that the Canadian federal and provincial governments should work on increasing travel and tourism to Canada, not only for direct foreign dollar inflows and the increased success of these industries, but also for their potential spillover to the export market growth.

The improvements in the images of Canada between the two study periods may indicate that the Canadian governments' efforts to promote Canada have worked, but further research into the effects of their promotion efforts is needed.

8.3 Implications for Marketing Research

Market researchers will find this study useful on several fronts. Firstly, little research exists on the product-country images of Canada. This study, therefore, adds knowledge to this underdeveloped field. Secondly, the finding that a common set of dimensions underlies the product-country images of respondents from different countries builds on similar findings by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993).

Longitudinal research has received little attention in the product-country image field. This study examines the changes in the product-country images of Canada between the late 1980's and late 1990's and compares these changes to the changes in the product-country image of the United States over the same time period. The findings that product-country images can and do change over time provide support for similar findings in the field, thereby contributing to the limited knowledge in this area.

The finding that the product-country images of Canada have changed and that such attitudes are not that strong and are, therefore, more susceptible to change suggests the need to continue to track such changes to give Canadian businesses and the Canadian government a tool to adjust their marketing efforts to meet the changing realities of a global marketplace.

Further research is required to determine how Canada compares to countries other than the United States in terms of product-country images. Although Canada did well relative

to the United States, the need for further comparative research stems from the findings by Heslop and Papadopoulos in their earlier study that although Canadian products rated well, they did not rank well compared to products from other highly industrialized countries such as Japan and Sweden.

It would be beneficial for market researchers to engage in a study of Japan's rise to global success. Determining exactly how Japan succeeded in changing global images of its products from extremely negative to extremely positive may reveal a detailed approach for Canada to learn from and to adapt to Canadian needs in order to build such a position for itself in the global marketplace.

In this study cross-national differences in the product-country images of Canada and the United States were examined. Differences were detected in the product-country images of all the respondent groups. This provides support for similar findings in the product-country image field, thereby building on the little research that exists.

The demographic correlates analysis has shown the need to conduct further research in this area to understand the correlates of product-country images more.

In its analysis of the association between country images and product images, this study has established the existence of the association between country images and product images. This supports similar findings by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993).

This study examined consumers' product-country images. As stated previously, the findings of this study may be useful not only to the Canadian consumer goods markets but also to the Canadian industrial markets. Market researchers should examine consumers' product-country images of Canada relative to industrial buyers' product-country images of Canada to determine the exact nature of the similarity in the images.

Finally, the finding that product-country images are not very strong attitudes and that these attitudes may not be accessible suggests the need to examine the accessibility of these attitudes in detail. This is essential since it was determined that attitudes that are not easily accessible in memory are also not good predictors of behaviour.

9. RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

This study is what is considered a single cue study, meaning that when evaluating a country's products the only cue used by the respondent is the country-of-origin. It has been suggested that such studies necessarily prove the existence of the country-of-origin cue. As a result, a number of researchers have chosen to use multi-cue designs instead. What needs to be noted, however, is that in choosing to use a single cue or multi-cue design, the researcher considers the choice in the context of the objectives of the study. As Papadopoulos (1993) pointed out, single cue designs are appropriate when researchers are comparing images of various nations (e.g. Darling and Wood 1990). Since this was done in this study, the use of a single cue design was justified.

In past product-country image research some researchers have used "global" product evaluations (asked respondents to rate "products from country X" generally) while others have used "product-specific" evaluations. Proponents of each of these evaluation techniques have argued the value, or lack thereof, of the two methods. The questionnaires utilized to develop the databases in this study made use of "global" product evaluations. It has been argued that such evaluations are inappropriate because images vary across product categories. Papadopoulos (1993) suggests that the debate between the two views can be settled by reference to what and how consumers "think about it all" (pg. 21). In other words, even though brands, companies, product categories, and countries have distinct origin images, reflecting in differences in product-specific and

global product evaluations, these images are related through the summary and halo constructs, for example. Therefore, despite differences in images at the product-specific and global levels, product evaluations on both levels can be utilized by researchers since they are interrelated and provide different insights into a consumer's product images.

This study is additionally limited by the fact that the field work conducted in the United States, Great Britain, and France in the first study took place in the same cities as the second study but did not use the same sample. Furthermore, the distribution of surveys in Germany in the two study periods took place in different cities, though close in proximity. Person specific changes could, therefore, not be determined. Only population or "global" image changes could be examined. The problem with this may be that individual consumers studied in the second period may have held different images than individual consumers studied in the first period. Such differences may then be considered changes in images when in fact they are simply differences in images. While sample irregularities may always prevent proper population estimation, results of the use of such sampling procedures seem to be generally in line with other studies in similar populations and are better than non-consumer samples. Therefore, such a technique proves useful and sufficient in determining changes in images.

National samples were not used in either of the studies. Such sampling techniques are very expensive and were, therefore, considered unfeasible. For this reason, they are not used frequently. National samples were also not deemed as necessary since the urban

consumer was viewed to be more familiar with foreign products, therefore, making them more suitable respondents.

One further limitation existed. The samples used in both studies were not fully representative of the populations. They were generally younger and better educated. What needs to be considered, however, is that such consumers are the opinion leaders who can be expected to eventually influence the images and behavioural orientations of all consumers, making such samples useful for the purposes of this study.

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APPENDIX A

Canada's Exports to the USA, France, Germany, and the United Kingdom (1988-1996)

	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
TOTAL EXPORTS (millions US \$)	117,105	121,832	127,629	127,163	134,435	145,178	165,376	192,197	201,633
% Change from 1988		4.0%	9.0%	8.6%	14.8%	24.0%	41.2%	64.1%	72.2%
USA									
(millions US \$)	81,962	85,305	95,388	95,574	103,860	114,448	133,112	152,896	164,761
% of Total Exports	70.0%	70.0%	74.7%	75.2%	77.3%	78.8%	80.5%	79.6%	81.7%
% Change from 1988		4.1%	16.4%	16.6%	26.7%	39.6%	62.4%	86.5%	101.0%
France									
(millions US \$)	987	1,113	1,095	1,181	1,142	922	881	1,284	1,214
% of Total Exports	0.8%	0.9%	0.9%	0.9%	0.8%	0.6%	0.5%	0.7%	0.6%
% Change from 1988		12.8%	10.9%	19.7%	15.7%	-6.6%	-10.7%	30.1%	23.0%
Germany									
(millions US \$)	1,505	1,580	1,956	2,050	1,851	1,816	1,518	2,276	2,304
% of Total Exports	1.3%	1.3%	1.5%	1.6%	1.4%	1.3%	0.9%	1.2%	1.1%
% Change from 1988		5.0%	30.0%	36.2%	23.0%	20.7%	0.9%	51.2%	53.1%
United Kingdom									
(millions US \$)	2,881	2,984	2,912	2,601	2,508	2,180	2,208	2,667	2,800
% of Total Exports	2.5%	2.4%	2.3%	2.0%	1.9%	1.5%	1.3%	1.4%	1.4%
% Change from 1988		3.6%	1.1%	-9.7%	-12.9%	-24.3%	-23.4%	-7.4%	-2.8%

Sources: International Monetary Fund (1995, 1997)

APPENDIX B

A Comparison of the Top Ten Canadian Exports to the United States in 1987 and 1997

	United States 1987	United States 1997
1	Passenger autos and chassis	Vehicles o/t railw/tramw roll-stock, pts & accessories
2	Motor vehicle parts, except engines	Mineral fuels, oils & product of their distillation; etc
3	Trucks, truck tractors and chassis	Nuclear reactors, boilers, mechanical appliances, engin.
4	Newsprint paper	Wood and articles of wood; wood charcoal
5	Crude petroleum	Electrical mchy equip. parts thereof; sound recorder etc.
6	Lumber, softwood	Paper & paperboard; art of paper pulp, paper/paperboard
7	Natural gas	Plastics and articles thereof
8	Wood pulp and similar pulp	Aluminum and articles thereof
9	Aluminum, including alloys	Furniture; bedding, mattress, matt. support, cushion etc.
10	Petroleum and coal products	Aircraft, spacecraft, and parts thereof

Sources: Statistics Canada (1987, 1997)

APPENDIX C

Trips of Canadian Residents to USA and Other Countries, Staying One or More Nights (1987-1996)

		1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Total person trips (in thousands)		14,900	16,500	18,322	20,415	21,937	21,701	20,561	18,344	18,206	18,973
% Change from 1987			10.7%	23.0%	37.0%	47.2%	45.6%	38.0%	23.1%	22.2%	27.3%
Destination:											
USA											
(in thousands)		12,253	13,700	15,325	17,262	19,113	18,598	17,293	14,970	14,663	15,301
% of Total Trips		82.2%	83.0%	83.6%	84.6%	87.1%	85.7%	84.1%	81.6%	80.5%	80.6%
% Change from 1987			11.8%	25.1%	40.9%	56.0%	51.8%	41.1%	22.2%	19.7%	24.9%
Other											
(in thousands)		2,647	2,800	2,997	3,153	2,824	3,103	3,268	3,374	3,543	3,672
% of Total Trips		17.8%	17.0%	16.4%	15.4%	12.9%	14.3%	15.9%	18.4%	19.5%	19.4%
% Change from 1987			5.8%	13.2%	19.1%	6.7%	17.2%	23.5%	27.5%	33.8%	38.7%
(incl. France, Germany & UK)											
France											
(in thousands)		304									424
% of Total Trips		2.0%									2.2%
% Change from 1987											39.5%
Germany											
(in thousands)		196									236
% of Total Trips		1.3%									1.2%
% Change from 1987											20.4%
United Kingdom											
(in thousands)		602									737
% of Total Trips		4.0%									3.9%
% Change from 1987											22.4%

Source: Statistics Canada (1996)

APPENDIX D

Trips of Non-Residents Entering Canada and Staying One or More Nights (1987-1996)

		1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Total person trips	(in thousands)	14,975	15,485	15,111	15,210	14,912	14,741	15,105	15,972	16,932	17,285
	% Change from 1987		3.4%	0.9%	1.6%	-0.4%	-1.6%	0.9%	6.7%	13.1%	15.4%
Residents of:											
USA	(in thousands)	12,714	12,760	12,179	12,259	12,004	11,822	12,024	12,538	13,004	12,912
	% of Total	84.9%	82.4%	80.6%	80.6%	80.5%	80.2%	79.6%	78.5%	76.8%	74.7%
	% Change from 1987		0.4%	-4.2%	-3.6%	-5.6%	-7.0%	-5.4%	-1.4%	2.3%	1.6%
France	(in thousands)	195	232	242	259	313	310	363	415	423	467
	% of Total	1.3%	1.5%	1.6%	1.7%	2.1%	2.1%	2.4%	2.6%	2.5%	2.7%
	% Change from 1987		19.0%	24.1%	32.8%	60.5%	59.0%	86.2%	112.8%	116.9%	139.5%
Germany	(in thousands)	240	263	257	259	268	295	332	367	423	449
	% of Total	1.6%	1.7%	1.7%	1.7%	1.8%	2.0%	2.2%	2.3%	2.5%	2.6%
	% Change from 1987		9.6%	7.1%	7.9%	11.7%	22.9%	38.3%	52.9%	76.3%	87.1%
United Kingdom	(in thousands)	434	526	559	548	537	531	559	575	643	691
	% of Total	2.9%	3.4%	3.7%	3.6%	3.6%	3.6%	3.7%	3.6%	3.8%	4.0%
	% Change from 1987		21.2%	28.8%	26.3%	23.7%	22.4%	28.8%	32.5%	48.2%	59.2%
Other	(in thousands)	1,393	1,703	1,874	1,886	1,789	1,784	1,828	2,076	2,438	2,766
	% of Total	9.3%	11.0%	12.4%	12.4%	12.0%	12.1%	12.1%	13.0%	14.4%	16.0%
	% Change from 1987		22.3%	34.5%	35.4%	28.4%	28.1%	31.2%	49.0%	75.0%	98.6%

Source: Statistics Canada (1996)

APPENDIX E

A Comparison of the Top Ten Canadian Exports to the United Kingdom in 1987 and 1997

	United Kingdom 1987	United Kingdom 1997
1	Lumber, softwood	Nuclear reactors, boilers, mechanical appliances, engin.
2	Wood pulp and similar pulp	Nickel and articles thereof
3	Nickel in ores, concentrates & scrap	Electrical mchy equip. parts thereof; sound recorder etc.
4	Iron ores and concentrates	Paper & paperboard; art of paper pulp, paper/paperboard
5	Newsprint paper	Ores, slag and ash
6	Precious metals in ores, conc. & scrap	Wood and articles of wood; wood charcoal
7	Fish, canned	Pulp of wood/of other fibrous cellulosic mat.; recovered
8	Copper and alloys	Copper and articles thereof
9	Oth. Telecommunication & rel. equip.	Aircraft, spacecraft, and parts thereof
10	Wheat	Special transaction - trade

Sources: Statistics Canada (1987, 1997)

APPENDIX F

A Comparison of the Top Ten Canadian Exports to France in 1987 and 1997

	France 1987	France 1997
1	Wood pulp and similar pulp	Nuclear reactors, boilers, mechanical appliances, engin.
2	Other inorganic chemicals	Pulp of wood/of other fibrous cellulosic mat.; recovered
3	Aircraft, engines & parts	Special transaction - trade
4	Lumber, softwood	Aircraft, spacecraft, and parts thereof.
5	Iron ores and concentrates	Ores, slag and ash
6	Other crude non-metallic minerals	Paper & paperboard; art of paper pulp, paper/paperboard
7	Fish, whole or dressed, fresh or froz.	Electrical mchy equip. parts thereof; sound recorder etc.
8	Oth. telecommunication & rel. equip.	Optical, photo, cine, meas, checking, precision, etc.
9	Other fishery foods and feeds	Wood and articles of wood; wood charcoal
10	Coal & oth. crude bitumin. substances	Copper and articles thereof

Sources: Statistics Canada (1987, 1997)

APPENDIX G

A Comparison of the Top Ten Canadian Exports to Germany in 1987 and 1997

	Germany (West) 1987	Germany 1997
1	Wood pulp and similar pulp	Pulp of wood/of other fibrous cellulosic mat.; recovered
2	Newsprint paper	Nuclear reactors, boilers, mechanical appliances,engin.
3	Iron ores and concentrates	Ores, slag and ash
4	Other end products	Wood and articles of wood; wood charcoal
5	Flaxseed	Paper & paperboard; art of paper pulp, paper/paperboard
6	Lumber, softwood	Special transaction - trade
7	Other crude non-metallic minerals	Natural/cultural pearls, prec. stones & metals, coin etc.
8	Other inorganic chemicals	Electrical mchey equip. parts thereof; sound recorder etc.
9	Motor vehicle parts, except engines	Vehicles o/t railw/tramw roll-stock, pts & accessories
10	Precious metals in ores, conc. & scrap	Inorgn chem; compds of prec met, radioact elements etc.

Sources: Statistics Canada (1987, 1997)

APPENDIX H**Adjusted Survey Totals**

Analysis - First Study			Total Number of Respondents Before Adjustment	Number of Cases Where Missing Values Exceeds 20% Limit	Number of Respondents After Adjustment Made	Percentage of Respondents Remaining
Sample	Origin	Scale				
Britain	Canada	Products	243	12	231	95.1
		Country	243	5	238	97.9
	USA	Products	243	4	239	98.4
		Country	243	3	240	98.8
France	Canada	Products	287	23	264	92.0
		Country	287	17	270	94.1
	USA	Products	287	5	282	98.3
		Country	287	4	283	98.6
Germany	Canada	Products	308	56	252	81.8
		Country	308	25	283	91.9
	USA	Products	308	15	293	95.1
		Country	308	10	298	96.8
USA	Canada	Products	265	4	261	98.5
		Country	265	2	263	99.2

Analysis - Second Study			Total Number of Respondents Before Adjustment	Number of Cases Where Missing Values Exceeds 20% Limit	Number of Respondents After Adjustment Made	Percentage of Respondents Remaining
Sample	Origin	Scale				
Britain	Canada	Products	303	19	284	93.7
		Country	303	9	294	97.0
	USA	Products	303	9	294	97.0
		Country	303	5	298	98.3
France	Canada	Products	301	10	291	96.7
		Country	301	4	297	98.7
	USA	Products	301	2	299	99.3
		Country	301	3	298	99.0
Germany	Canada	Products	294	42	252	85.7
		Country	294	10	284	96.6
	USA	Products	294	7	287	97.6
		Country	294	7	287	97.6
USA	Canada	Products	338	22	316	93.5
		Country	338	1	337	99.7

Analysis: 1 st - 2 nd Study Changes			Total Number of Respondents Before Adjustment	Number of Cases Where Missing Values Exceeds 20% Limit	Number of Respondents After Adjustment Made	Percentage of Respondents Remaining
Sample	Origin	Scale				
Britain	Canada	Products	546	31	515	94.3
		Country	546	12	534	97.8
	USA	Products	546	13	533	97.6
		Country	546	7	539	98.7
France	Canada	Products	588	33	555	94.4
		Country	588	20	568	96.6
	USA	Products	588	6	582	99.0
		Country	588	7	581	98.8
Germany	Canada	Products	602	97	505	83.9
		Country	602	35	567	94.2
	USA	Products	602	25	577	95.8
		Country	602	16	586	97.3
USA	Canada	Products	603	26	577	95.7
		Country	603	3	600	99.5

APPENDIX I

Principal Components Analysis

United States (Product Scales)

Factor	Great Britain		France		Germany	
1	Workmanship	.829	Attractive	.490	Easy to Find	.710
	Reliability	.801	Know	.500	Know	.648
	Innovative	.643	Like Buy	.619	Brand	.752
	Quality	.804	Normally Buy	.678	Variety	.773
	Service	.633	Willing to Buy	.681	Normally Buy	.447
	Attractive	.499	Proud	.698		
	Value	.468	For Me	.595		
	Like Buy	.484	Overall	.440		
	Tech Advan	.678	Satisfied	.645		
	Overall	.572				
	Satisfied	.475				
	(7.5 ^a / 37.8% ^b)		(6.1 / 30.5%)		(6.4 / 32.2%)	
2	Easy to Find	.775	Workmanship	.766	Innovative	.497
	Know	.727	Reliability	.698	Quality	.495
	Like Buy	.425	Innovative	.654	Service	.750
	Brand	.694	Quality	.835	Attractive	.492
	Variety	.717	Service	.618	Value	.670
	Normally Buy	.721	Tech Advan	.457	Like Buy	.557
			Overall	.510		
	(2.1 / 10.5%)		(1.9 / 9.4%)		(1.9 / 9.5%)	
3	Value	.458	Easy to Find	.735	Like Buy	.518
	Willing to Buy	.803	Know	.569	Normally Buy	.567
	Proud	.803	Brand	.783	Willing to Buy	.480
	For Me	.645	Variety	.728	Proud	.793
	Overall	.449			For Me	.755
	Satisfied	.443			Satisfied	.525
	(1.4 / 7.1%)		(1.6 / 7.8%)		(1.4 / 7.2%)	
4	Expensive	.880	Value	.604	Workmanship	.661
			Expensive	-.818	Reliability	.775
					Quality	.631
					Overall	.406
					Satisfied	.405
	(1.1 / 5.4%)		(1.3 / 6.5%)		(1.3 / 6.5%)	
5					Tech Advan	.705
					Expensive	-.749
					(1.0 / 5.1%)	
cum (%) ^c	60.7%		54.3%		60.5%	

^a Eigenvalue^b Percentage of Variance Explained^c Cumulative Percentage of Variance Explained

United States (Country Scales)

Factor	Great Britain		France		Germany	
1	Role	.473	Know	.422	Stable	.607
	Taste	.556	Trustworthy	.673	Role	.462
	Ties	.766	Educated	.610	Rich	.716
	Ideal	.599	Hardworking	.683	Tech Advan	.744
	Investment	.740	Likeable	.682	Alignment	.582
	Imports	.787	Ideal	.457		
	(5.1 ^a / 32.0% ^b)		(4.3 / 26.7%)		(4.7 / 29.5%)	
2	Stable	.646	Ties	.743	Trustworthy	.691
	Role	.517	Ideal	.579	Hardworking	.532
	Rich	.763	Investment	.780	Likeable	.722
	Tech Advan	.802	Imports	.809	Ideal	.524
	Educated	.586			Visit	.489
	Alignment	.420				
	(1.8 / 11.2%)		(1.9 / 11.9%)		(1.7 / 10.4%)	
3	Trustworthy	.680	Stable	.614	Ties	.713
	Educated	.404	Role	.474	Investment	.782
	Hardworking	.761	Rich	.828	Imports	.827
	Likeable	.796	Tech Advan	.819		
	Ideal	.485				
	(1.3 / 8.5%)		(1.4 / 8.7%)		(1.3 / 8.5%)	
4	Know	.819	Role	.410	Know	-.487
	Visit	.487	Taste	.705	Taste	.683
			Alignment	.733	Educated	.664
					Ideal	.482
	(1.1 / 7.1%)		(1.1 / 7.2%)		(1.1 / 7.0%)	
cum (%) ^c	58.8%		54.4%		55.4%	

^a Eigenvalue^b Percentage of Variance Explained^c Cumulative Percentage of Variance Explained

APPENDIX J

**The Association Between Age and Images of Canada:
Output of Scheffé Post Hoc Comparisons on Significant Scales**

			Mean for Each Age Group				
Scale	F Ratio	F Prob.	1	2	3	4	5
United States							
Trustworthy	5.52	.000	4.8a	5.2a	5.5ab	6.1b	6.3ab
Closer Ties	4.04	.003	4.8a	5.3ab	5.6ab	5.7ab	6.5b
Know a Lot	5.93	.000	3.8a	4.2a	4.6ab	5.4b	5.4ab
Great Britain							
Role in Politics	6.61	.000	3.6abc	4.5ab	4.2a	5.0bc	5.5c
Hardworking	3.96	.004	5.5ab	4.9ab	4.9a	5.5ab	5.7b
Closer Ties	4.86	.001	4.8ab	5.4ab	5.1a	5.6ab	6.1b
Investment	4.88	.001	4.3a	5.8ab	5.5a	5.9ab	6.3b
Ideal Country	5.42	.000	4.5ab	5.4ab	5.1a	5.4ab	6.2b
Aligned	5.06	.001	4.5ab	5.1a	5.1a	5.6ab	6.0b
More Imports	4.81	.001	4.4ab	5.2a	5.2a	5.6ab	6.3b
France							
Tech. Advan.	4.66	.001	4.8a	5.7b	5.8b	5.7b	5.4ab
Politically Stable	3.49	.008	5.3a	5.9ab	6.2b	6.3b	6.2ab
Germany							
Politically Stable	6.37	.000	4.5a	5.8b	5.3ab	5.7b	4.5ab
Aligned	3.65	.006	3.7a	3.7a	4.3a	3.8a	5.3a
More Imports	5.11	.001	4.4ab	5.1a	4.7ab	4.2b	4.6ab

Note: Means with same letters within a row are not statistically significantly different.

APPENDIX K

The Association Between Age and Images of Canadian Products: Output of Scheffé Post Hoc Comparisons on Significant Scales

			Mean for Each Age Group				
Scale	F Ratio	F Prob.	1	2	3	4	5
United States							
Workmanship	9.29	.000	5.0a	4.7a	4.7a	5.2a	6.8b
Innovative	4.15	.003	4.3ab	4.0ab	3.9ab	3.2a	5.0b
Quality	4.41	.002	4.8ab	4.7a	4.7a	5.2ab	6.1b
Satisfied	6.58	.000	4.8ab	4.4a	4.6a	4.9ab	6.1b
Germany							
Brand Names	5.16	.001	3.3ab	2.4a	3.2ab	3.0ab	4.3b
Know a Lot	4.70	.001	3.5a	1.9b	2.1ab	2.6ab	3.4ab
Normally Buy	7.40	.000	3.6a	1.8b	2.1bc	2.6abc	3.6ac
Willing to Buy	3.92	.004	4.5ab	5.5a	5.3ab	4.6b	4.6ab

Note: Means with same letters within a row are not statistically significantly different.

APPENDIX L

The Association Between Education and Images of Canada: Output of Scheffé Post Hoc Comparisons on Significant Scales

			Mean for Each Education Group				
Scale	F Ratio	F Prob.	1	2	3	4	5
Great Britain							
Tech. Advan.	3.74	.006	5.5a	4.9ab	4.6b	5.3a	5.2ab
Closer Ties	3.80	.005	6.1a	5.2ab	5.1b	5.4ab	5.1ab
More Investment	4.28	.002	6.3a	5.1b	5.7ab	5.8ab	5.5ab
Know a Lot	3.59	.007	3.0a	2.5a	2.9a	3.5a	3.9a
More Imports	4.50	.002	6.2a	4.8b	5.5ab	5.3b	5.2ab
France							
Tech. Advan.	5.15	.001	5.0a	5.6ab	5.8b	5.8b	4.9ab
Know a Lot	3.99	.004	1.8a	2.4ab	2.3ab	2.8b	1.7ab
Like to Visit	5.78	.000	6.4a	6.3a	6.5a	6.6a	5.1b
Germany							
More Investment	3.87	.004	4.9a	4.9a	5.3a	5.4a	4.0a

Note: Means with same letters within a row are not statistically significantly different.

APPENDIX M

The Association Between Income and Images of Canada: Output of Scheffé Post Hoc Comparisons on Significant Scale

			Mean for Each Income Group				
Scale	F Ratio	F Prob.	1	2	3	4	5
Germany							
Refined Taste	3.05	.018	4.3ab	4.2ab	4.6a	3.6b	4.1ab

Note: Means with same letters within a row are not statistically significantly different.

APPENDIX N

**The Association Between Age and Images of the United States:
Output of Scheffé Post Hoc Comparisons on Significant Scales**

			Mean for Each Age Group				
Scale	F Ratio	F Prob.	1	2	3	4	5
Great Britain							
Role in Politics	5.77	.000	6.7a	4.3b	5.2a	5.3a	5.2ab
Trustworthy	5.52	.000	4.6ab	4.0a	4.7ab	4.9b	5.3b
Likeable	3.64	.007	4.7ab	4.0a	4.3ab	5.0b	4.8ab
Hardworking	6.45	.000	3.6ab	4.2a	4.6ab	5.1b	5.3b
Ideal Country	8.52	.000	4.3ab	3.4a	4.2b	4.7b	4.8b
Know a Lot	5.43	.000	6.0ab	5.6a	5.2a	5.0ab	4.2b
Educated	6.09	.000	4.3ab	4.0a	4.6b	4.9b	5.1b
Germany							
Know a Lot	7.69	.000	4.1ab	5.2a	4.7ab	4.1b	3.5b

Note: Means with same letters within a row are not statistically significantly different.

APPENDIX O

**The Association Between Age and Images of American Products:
Output of Scheffé Post Hoc Comparisons on Significant Scales**

			Mean for Each Age Group				
Scale	F Ratio	F Prob.	1	2	3	4	5
Great Britain							
Easy to Find	6.33	.000	6.9ab	5.9a	5.1b	4.9b	4.6b
Variety	4.06	.003	6.7ab	6.2a	5.5b	5.5ab	5.5ab
Brand Names	4.57	.001	7.0ab	6.1a	5.3b	5.6ab	5.8ab
Know a Lot	8.21	.000	5.9abd	5.0ab	4.5abd	4.1de	3.4ce
Normally Buy	9.30	.000	5.4ab	4.9a	4.0b	3.6b	3.4b
France							
Know a Lot	4.60	.001	6.2a	5.7a	5.6ab	5.2ab	4.8b
Normally Buy	7.42	.000	5.6a	4.8ab	4.5abc	3.9bc	3.7c
Germany							
Innovative	3.09	.016	5.0ab	5.4a	4.7b	4.9ab	5.1ab
Easy to Find	4.13	.003	4.9a	5.8a	5.0a	4.7a	5.1a
Variety	6.66	.000	5.0ab	5.8a	4.8b	5.4ab	5.0ab
Brand Names	5.18	.001	4.9ab	5.9a	4.9b	5.7ab	4.7ab
Know a Lot	3.90	.004	4.3ab	4.9a	3.9b	4.5ab	4.9ab
Normally Buy	5.94	.000	4.3ab	4.5a	3.3b	4.1ab	3.9ab
Willing to Buy	4.02	.003	4.5a	5.5a	5.0a	5.1a	4.7a

Note: Means with same letters within a row are not statistically significantly different.

APPENDIX P

**The Association Between Education and Images of the United States:
Output of Scheffé Post Hoc Comparisons on Significant Scales**

			Mean for Each Education Group				
Scale	F Ratio	F Prob.	1	2	3	4	5
Great Britain							
Know a Lot	7.37	.000	4.2a	4.9ab	4.9ab	5.5b	5.7b
France							
Know a Lot	4.05	.003	3.6a	3.9ab	4.6ab	4.8b	4.1ab
Germany							
More Investment	3.81	.005	4.7a	4.8a	5.0ab	5.6b	4.7ab
Know a Lot	5.50	.000	4.0a	4.6ab	5.0b	5.3b	4.3ab

Note: Means with same letters within a row are not statistically significantly different.

APPENDIX Q

The Association Between Education and Images of American Products: Output of Scheffé Post Hoc Comparisons on Significant Scales

			Mean for Each Education Group				
Scale	F Ratio	F Prob.	1	2	3	4	5
Great Britain							
Expensive	3.24	.013	4.7a	4.5ab	3.8b	4.4ab	4.3ab
Know a Lot	5.71	.000	3.5a	4.4ab	4.5ab	4.8b	4.0ab
Normally Buy	4.17	.003	3.2a	4.2ab	4.2ab	4.4b	4.2ab
France							
After Sales Service	4.65	.001	4.1a	5.4b	5.0b	5.0b	5.0ab
Easy to Find	5.26	.000	5.0a	5.6ab	5.9ab	6.0b	5.4ab
Know a Lot	3.48	.009	5.6a	5.3a	5.6a	5.9a	4.8a

Note: Means with same letters within a row are not statistically significantly different.

APPENDIX R

The Association Between Income and Images of the United States: Output of Scheffé Post Hoc Comparisons on Significant Scale

			Mean for Each Income Group				
Scale	F Ratio	F Prob.	1	2	3	4	5
France							
Educated	5.25	.000	4.3a	5.2b	5.1ab	4.5ab	4.3a

Note: Means with same letters within a row are not statistically significantly different.