

An Integrative Study of PCI and TDI
from a Psychological Perspective

MBA Thesis

Submitted By: Cui Chen

In Partial Fulfillment of the Degree of MBA

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Abstract

Product Country Image (PCI) and Tourist Destination Image (TDI) have been studied intensively but separately. Therefore the relationships between the two constructs remain largely unexplored. How PCI and TDI interact with General Country Image (GCI) is also unknown. As part of a broader research program this study has, for the first time, drawn image schemata maps which examine and illustrate PCI, TDI and GCI holistically using 14, 817 verbatim responses provided by three samples collected in Canada and South Korea. The results reveal that PCI, TDI and GCI have common elements that link these images together although with different levels of strength. This study also found that respondents from different countries perceive the images of the same test countries differently. However, students and consumers from the same country may not differ significantly in their responses.

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I truly enjoyed doing this research. The more I delve into image studies, the more I find it important and interesting. There are still many territories remain unexplored in this area; I hope this piece of work will draw more attentions from researchers so that more studies will be done in the future.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

Product Country Image (PCI) and Tourist Destination Image (TDI) have both been studied intensively. The importance of these two constructs as cues that influence consumer behavior has been widely accepted. Although research in the two areas shares many similarities, they have been studied independently from each other, and, more often than not, without reference to the General Country Image (GCI) that may serve as an umbrella concept related to the tourism- and product-specific ones. With intensified global competition for increasing exports, and attracting everything from investment and tourism to foreign students and skilled labor, it becomes more and more important to focus on place equity and systematic marketing. Both scholars and practitioners have started to realize the importance of studying place images in a holistic way and that studies of place image may have common interests with studies in politics, international affairs and other fields, that could benefit from a more collaborative approach to research.

Due to the multidimensionality of image, there are many ways to study it. Theories of psychology, when applied to the study of image, can provide a deeper understanding of people's mental mechanisms. This study drew from knowledge in psychology in order to examine a more holistic concept of image, focusing on the salient nodes and associations of place.

This study is part of a broader research program conducted by Dr. Nicolas Papadopoulos which focuses on PCI and TDI. Qualitative methods based on free elicited

responses are used to explore people's mental schemata about three selected target countries (the U.S., Japan and Australia), their products, and their tourism. Image Schemata Maps are drawn to visualize schema nodes and their associations in people's minds about the target countries' GCI, PCI and TDI. Frequencies and percentages were also used to examine the strength of each association.

The data used in this study was collected from Canada and South Korea as part of the broader research program by Statia Elliot, a Spratt PhD student, and Dr. Papadopoulos. Both consumer and student samples are included in order to examine the validity of student samples as substitutes for real consumer samples in qualitative marketing research.

This thesis is composed of 12 chapters. Following this introduction, which provides relevant background and details the roadmap of this study, the next three chapters review the literature. Chapter 2 focuses on the concepts of PCI and TDI, as well as their importance and the reason why they are of great interest to researchers. Chapter 3 reviews the existing literature from three different perspectives: a holistic place image perspective, a methodological perspective, and a psychological perspective. Three research gaps are identified in the existing literature. Chapter 4 focuses on using theories of psychology to understand the psychological foundations of image, and examines the application of Image Schemata Maps.

Chapter 5 specifies the research objectives and research questions of this study. Chapter 6 discusses the research methodology. Chapters 7 to 11 detail the data analysis

and the findings of this study. Chapter 12 concludes this thesis by outlining the benefits and limitations of the study and suggests directions for future research.

Chapter 2 The Concepts of PCI, TDI and Their Importance

This part of the literature review focuses on the concepts of PCI and TDI, and the reasons why these two areas are of interest.

2.1. Overview

The concepts of PCI and TDI are complex, perhaps explaining why universally accepted definitions are lacking. Nonetheless, the importance of PCI and TDI is supported by experimental and empirical research, and is quite widely accepted by both scholars and practitioners.

2.2. PCI and Its Importance

2.2.1. The concept of PCI

The term PCI embodies rich connotations. As Papadopoulos (1993) points out, first, “product” should not be strictly confined to goods and services, but may include nontraditional products such as travel and places promoting themselves for foreign investment. Second, products are made in geographic places which can be associated not only with countries, but with anything from a city to a continent, or in the case of hybrid products (those associated with two or more countries), the world. Third, products are not necessarily “made” in geographic places, but can also be “assembled-, designed-, or invented-in, made by a producer whose domicile is-in, and, often, wanting to look like it

was made-in” (Papadopoulos, 1993, p.4). The literature suggests that PCI is a multi-dimensional concept, although scholars have different opinions on how many dimensions PCI encompasses as well as the content of each dimension.

For example, Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2001) propose a taxonomy of country images based on the different roles a country may play in the final product (i.e. whether the country is a source of design, production location of components, or assembly location). This taxonomy has merit by recognizing that country images have different effects on product evaluation when countries play different roles in the final product, which is especially relevant for hybrid products. However, the introduction of so many terms can be confusing. For example, this research uses the term PCI for the image of a country as a production location of product components; and OCI for the overall image of a country that is associated with products. It also uses OC to represent “Country of Origin”, which is different from the more widely accepted abbreviation of CO. Such new or altered terms may introduce more confusion than clarification if not clearly distinct. More importantly, the researchers only suggest that different types of country images may have different effects on consumer behavior, but they do not specify what these possible different effects are, nor do they provide enough evidence of how much and how important these differences are. The necessity of distinguishing and using the proposed terms is not well justified.

Some scholars classify the dimensions of PCI in a hierarchical way. For example, Hooley, Shipley and Krieger (1988) suggest that country image occurs at two levels. At the micro level it refers to the specific image of a product, and at the macro level it refers

to the general image of a country. It is legitimate and necessary to distinguish national and product images since research suggests that consumers do distinguish between their views of a country and the country's products (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2002). However, this two-level view is rather general, and little is provided about the relationship between the two levels (i.e. the relationship between consumers' view about a country and its products).

From yet another perspective, Laroche et al. (2005) propose that PCI is a three-dimensional concept, consisting of a cognitive, an affective, and a conative component. They propose that consumers have not only cognitive beliefs about the level of development of a country's industries and technologies, but also different levels of affect towards the people of the country. Consumers' desires to interact with the country also differ. The three components together form the country image, which impacts product evaluation directly and indirectly through product beliefs. This is an advance of the earlier study by Papadopoulos and Heslop (2002), who also distinguish between product beliefs and affect. The three-dimensional view provides a more comprehensive understanding of PCI and also takes into account both direct and indirect effects that country image may have on product evaluation.

This multi-dimensional character of PCI makes it very difficult to define. As a result, no consensus has been reached on the definition of PCI. Despite the rich connotations of the term, studies have been overwhelmingly focused on the product side. Studies of countries as FDI locations have been rare compared to the relative importance of the topic (Wee, Lim and Tan, 1993), and TDI has been studied as an independent

stream within tourism research. Only recently has cross-disciplinary research begun to emerge (Elliot and Papadopoulos, 2006).

It is not this paper's objective to define PCI; however, it is necessary to clarify the scope of the concept that will be used. Given the lack of a universally accepted definition, it is important for researchers to clarify what they mean when they say "PCI" (Gold and Ward, 1994; Elliot and Papadopoulos, 2006). As mentioned above, PCI can be a very broad concept which includes both traditional and nontraditional products and services. However, since PCI studies have overwhelmingly focused on the product side, this paper will review the PCI literature and TDI literature separately. Therefore, PCI is defined as "buyers' opinions regarding the relative qualities of goods and services produced in various countries" (Bilkey, 1993). And here "goods and services" means traditional goods and services which do not include tourism and foreign investment.

2.2.2. The importance of PCI

The importance of PCI has long been recognized (Papadopoulos, 1993), reflecting the fact that, as an information cue, it considerably influences consumers' evaluations of products, and their buying behavior (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2001). There are several models that explain how PCI influences consumer behavior. The most influential are probably the halo effect and summary construct models tested by Han (1989). He concluded that, depending on consumers' level of familiarity with the country's products, country image may serve as a halo or summary construct. A halo effect happens when consumers have little knowledge about products. In this case, they

infer the quality of the products from knowledge they have about the countries associated with them. Summary constructs occur when consumers have a lot of information about products. In this case, they use countries as indices which summarize the attributes of products from the same country. Knight and Calantone (2000) criticize the halo and summary constructs for not taking into account the simultaneous processing of country image and product beliefs that takes place during consumers' attitude formation. As noted above, Laroche et al. (2005) proposed that regardless of consumers' level of familiarity, country image has both a direct influence on product evaluation and an indirect influence through product beliefs. This model takes into account both the halo and summary views and does not suffer from the weakness of Han's (1989) conceptualization, and therefore it is considered to be more plausible.

Independent from the argument of which model is better, the view that PCI has great influence on consumer behavior is supported by empirical observations.

First, the PCI effects are measurable. In his summary of 22 CO experimental studies, Liefeld (1993) showed that all but two found that PCI was statistically related to consumer product evaluations or choices. One exception dealt with consumers' evaluation or choice of products from a region instead of a certain country. The other exception dealt with effects of advertising rather than consumers' product evaluations or choices. Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2001) also presented findings that support the notion that PCI does play a major role in consumers' evaluations of products and purchase intentions.

Second, PCI effects occur over a wide range of consumer and product types. The term “consumers” is not restricted to individual buyers, but also includes industrial buyers (Papadopoulos, 1993; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2002). Products also include a wide range of both consumer and industrial goods (Liefeld, 1993).

Third, although the PCI effect tends to be diluted in the presence of other cues, it is still significant. Research shows that the effect varies depending on the situation, and often it is more influential than price, dealer reputation, or even brand name (Nebenzahl and Jaffe, 1993; Aluned, d’Astous and El-adraoui, 1994; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2002).

Fourth, from a practical perspective, the importance of the PCI role is growing. With globalization, international competition is fiercer than ever. Products need to be differentiated from their substitutes in order to gain a competitive advantage. PCI is one of the most important consumer cues. Studies of PCI in a multi-cue environment show how PCI interacts with other cues in product evaluation. Such findings are valuable for companies to position their products in the global market. For example, studies show that origin images affect price expectations (Nebenzahl and Jaffe, 1993; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2002). Therefore, products from countries which lack a strong positive image may have to lower their price to meet such discount expectations. To summarize, PCI is of great importance for companies to determine their strategies and to position their products in order to succeed in the global market.

2.3. TDI and Its Importance

2.3.1. The concept of TDI

As mentioned above, TDI has been studied as an independent stream within the domain of tourism research, starting with Hunt (1971, 1975), who found that destinations do have images, and that images influence travel behavior (Gallarza, Saura and Garcia, 2002; Elliot, 2006). Although almost half of the TDI studies since Hunt's work have dealt with definitions and delimitations, no consensus has been reached on what exactly TDI is, nor what dimensions the concept encompasses (Elliot and Papadopoulos, 2006). The following selection of definitions is based on Gallarza, Saura and Garcia (2002):

<u>Author</u>	<u>Definition</u>
Hunt (1971)	Impressions that a person or persons hold about a state in which they do not reside.
Lawson and Bond-Bovy (1977)	An expression of knowledge, impressions, prejudice, imaginations and emotional thoughts an individual has of a specific place.
Crompton (1979) Kotler et al. (1994)	The sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a destination.
Embacher and Buttle (1989)	Image is comprised of the ideas or conceptions held individually or collectively of the destination under investigation. Image may comprise both cognitive and evaluative components.
Fakeye and Crompton (1991)	Image is the mental construct developed by a potential tourist on the basis of a few selected impressions among the flood of total impressions.
Gartner (1993, 1996)	Destination images are developed by three hierarchically interrelated components: cognitive, affective, and conative.
Parenteau (1995)	Image is a favorable or unfavorable prejudice that the audience and distributors have of the destination.

Adapted from Gallarza Saura and Garcia, 2002

The main reason that there has not been a consensus on a TDI definition is probably the complexity and multidimensionality of the tourism product itself, making multidisciplinary an inevitable characteristic of TDI research (Gallarza, Saura and Garcia, 2002). There are so many possible perspectives from which to study destination image, such as anthropology, sociology, geography, semiotics, and marketing, that it is almost impossible to have a simple definition that takes into account all its attributes. Another problem is that the term TDI has been used in a variety of contexts, including

those pertaining to the destination image projected by tourism promoters, the stereotype image held by the public, and the destination image held by individuals (Jenkins, 1999).

However, researchers continue to explore the conceptualization and measurement of destination image. Two notable pieces of work are Echtner and Ritchie (1993) and Gallarza, Saura and Garcia (2002). Echtner and Ritchie (1993) propose that TDI be envisaged in three dimensions: functional vs. psychological characteristics, common vs. unique attributes, and individual attributes vs. a holistic, or gestalt, image. Although it is not a definition, this conceptual framework does shed light on the understanding of TDI.

Gallarza, Saura and Garcia (2002) propose a conceptual model of TDI based on four features: complex, multiple, relativistic and dynamic. The “complex” feature holds that the conceptual delimitation of TDI is not unequivocal; it allows more than one interpretation. Thus, there is debate in regards to both its nature (whether it is a collective or uni-personal impression) and its content (what types of components TDI has and the interactions among the components). The “multiple” feature is justified by two characteristics. The first corresponds to whether the nature of TDI is attribute-based or holistic. The second corresponds to whether the formation process of TDI is static or dynamic. The “relativistic” feature refers to the subjective character of image and that image of one particular object is perceived as opposed to others. The “dynamic” feature holds that image is not static, but changes with time and space. In other words, image evolves over time and people from different geographic areas may perceive the same destination differently.

This framework does not really clarify what TDI actually is. Rather, it is more of a summary or a map of the existing studies of the TDI concept. Nonetheless, it provides excellent insight into the complex dimensions of TDI.

Aside from the conceptual dimensions of TDI, it seems that there is less controversy on the definition of image as a general concept. Some of the most common definitions from the literature can be captured in a holistic way, or gestalt, to summarize image as all the impressions, perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, ideas, experiences, knowledge, feelings and emotions that an individual holds toward a subject (Elliot, 2006). However, it is argued that image is not necessarily held differently by individuals. Rather, it can be shared by groups of people (Jenkins, 1999; Gallarza, Saura and Garcia, 2002). It is very important from the marketing point of view to understand images that are held in common, because such understanding enables the segmentation of markets, and facilitates the formulation of strategies accordingly. Thus, it is proper to account for this point in the image definition summarized by Elliot (2006) as: all the impressions, perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, ideas, experiences, knowledge, feelings and emotions that an individual or group holds toward an object.

2.3.2. The importance of TDI

The importance of TDI is well acknowledged. It originates from the importance of the tourism industry itself, and TDI's influence on tourist consumer behavior (Hunt, 1975; Goodrich, 1978; Scott, Schewe and Frederick, 1978; Jenkins, 1999; Gallarza, Saura and Garcia, 2002; Papadopoulos, 2006). The importance of the tourism industry to local

economies can be summarized as follows: first, it can create a great number of jobs; second, tourist expenditures contribute to local economies; third, it helps to partially shift the tax burden to nonresidents; and, last, it can stimulate exporting (Kotler, Haider and Rein, 1993). Tourism is a big industry. The World Tourism Organization (WTO) forecasts that by the year 2020, there will be 1.6 billion international arrivals around the world, and these tourists are expected to spend over two trillion U.S. dollars on travel (Papadopoulos, 2006). The winners of tourism will also be winners in economic growth.

Tourism is an image-driven, service industry (Elliot, 2006). It is different from other industries because of its intangibility and its dependence on the invisible elements of pre-visit selection (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991). Thus, images can be more important than tangible resources in tourism because perceptions rather than reality can motivate consumer behavior (Mercer, 1971; Jenkins, 1999; Guthrie and Gale, 1991 cited in Gallarza, Saura and Garcia, 2002). The influence of TDI on tourists' choice of destination was evident from the beginning of the study of TDI, supported by much research. For example, Hunt (1975) found that "...images, as perceived by individuals in the travel market, may have as much to do with an area's tourism development success". Goodall (1988) argues that mental images are the basis of evaluation or selection of holiday destinations. Research in tourist consumer behavior also supports this view. Most models of tourists' destination selection behavior contain elements like attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and feelings (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999). The overriding belief is that if one can influence image, one can influence behavior (Elliot, 2006).

2.4. Summary

The importance of PCI and TDI effects has been supported by numerous studies. However, due to the complexity of PCI and TDI, much remains unknown. To further study these two areas, current research gaps need to be identified in order to guide future research.

Chapter 3 Research on PCI and TDI

The above chapter has discussed the concepts of PCI and TDI, as well as their importance. This chapter will go further to review the existing literature, focusing on the identification of current research gaps and suggestions for future research directions.

3.1. Overview

Three research gaps are identified in the existing research on PCI and TDI. First, despite having many similarities and interests in common, the two streams have been studied separately until recently, therefore missing potential opportunities to advance both fields through cross-disciplinary research.

Second, quantitative methods have been overwhelmingly favored in both areas, while qualitative methods have been neglected. This is not to say that one type of method is superior to the other in image studies, as both have advantages and disadvantages; yet in some circumstances, one may be more effective than the other. To fully explore the many complex aspects of PCI and TDI, the use of both methods can be complementary. Another issue that has not gained enough attention from researchers is the use of student samples. Research that tests the results from a student sample and a consumer sample on identical questionnaires has been rare. There is even less research that tests the results from qualitative data.

Third, although image is the main subject matter of both PCI and TDI studies, little is understood in terms of how an image is originally formed, how it changes over time,

and how it is drawn from consumers' mind as a cue in product evaluation. Theories of psychology can provide valuable insight to better understand these complexities of image.

3.2. The Holistic Place Image Perspective

Both PCI and TDI studies deal extensively with the role of place image in consumer behavior, marketing and international business; however, these two streams have been studied independently from each other and only recently have cross-disciplinary studies emerged (Elliot and Papadopoulos, 2006). This is probably due to the obvious difference between the two: in PCI research the place image is one of several cues that may influence consumers' evaluation of products and their buying behavior; whereas, in TDI studies, place image is the primary cue which affects consumers' choice of tourism destination (Elliot and Papadopoulos, 2006).

Despite the fact the two streams have been studied in different contexts, they share many similarities, which are well summarized by Elliot and Papadopoulos (2006). First, the most common focus of both streams is the assessment and measurement of the image of one or more countries or places from the perspective of respondents in one or more countries or places. Second, respondents' home countries are considered in both, although from different perspectives. Third, the main objective of both streams is to better understand the motivations of consumers and the influence of image on behavior. Fourth, despite a different level of intensity, place image is studied in relation to other cues in both streams.

As discussed in earlier sections, with intensified global competition for exports and attracting everything from investment and tourism to foreign students and skilled labor, it becomes increasingly important to focus on place equity and systematic marketing (Papadopoulos, 2004). Scholars today have started to realize that studies dealing with place images have common interests and should be studied collaboratively for mutual benefit (Papadopoulos, 2004; Dinnie, 2004).

A term called Place Branding, which focuses more specifically on marketing aspects of place image, has recently emerged. Though similar terms have been used before, their application has been more practical than theoretical. For example, two books published in the early 1990s used very similar terms. One is “Marketing Places: Attracting Investment, Industry, and Tourism to Cities, States, and Nations” by Kotler, Haider and Rein (1993) and the other is “Place Promotion: The Use of Publicity and Marketing to Sell Towns and Regions” edited by Gold and Ward (1994). These books focus on strategies to market a place, rather than theory development incorporating place image studies such as PCI and TDI.

To conclude, despite advances in both PCI and TDI research individually, the benefits of collaborative studies have been missed. There is certainly a need to fill this gap. Pioneer scholars have realized this and there is a call for more cross-disciplinary study to benefit all.

3.3. The Methodological Perspective

A review of the PCI and TDI literature shows at least two weaknesses of the current research. First, quantitative methods have been overwhelmingly favored, while qualitative methods have been largely neglected. Second, many studies rely on student samples.

In PCI research, rating scales to measure attributes and factor analysis to analyze the findings are widely used. Analysis of variance and conjoint analysis are also common (Elliot and Papadopoulos, 2006). Recently, more studies are using advanced quantitative approaches such as structural equations modeling (Papadopoulos and Butt, 2005).

In TDI research, Pike's (2002) thorough literature review of 142 papers from 1973 to 2000, including the measurement approaches used, found that the majority employed structured techniques, as shown below:

<u>Methodology</u>	<u>Number of Studies</u>
Factor Analysis	41
t-test	21
Perceptual Mapping/Multi-dimensional scaling	21
Analysis of Means	20
Cluster/Discriminant Analysis	14
Importance-Performance Analysis	9
Repertory Grid	8
Mapping	3
Constant Sum	2
Conjoint Analysis	1

Pike, 2000

Gallarza, Saura and Garcia (2002) did a more detailed review of the research techniques of 65 papers measuring TDI between 1971 and 1999, and a summary of the findings is depicted in Figure 1 and Figure 2.

These two figures reveal the predominance of quantitative techniques. Few studies use qualitative methods, not to mention using them as the primary technique. The few which did use qualitative methods analyzed marketing promotions for strategic purposes, rather than theory development (Gallarza , Saura and Garcia, 2002).

Figure 1: A Taxonomy Review of Quantitative Methods for Measuring

Statistical procedure		Data Collection	Authors			
I. Multivariate Methods	Information reduction procedures	Factor Analysis Methods	Principal Components Analysis	Lk 5 Lk 5 Lk 5 Lk 7 Lk 10 SD 7	Ahmed (1991; 1996) Baloglu (1997) Baloglu & McCleary (1999) Walmsley & Young (1998) Stemquist (1985) Fakeye & Crompton (1991) Muller (1995) Driscoll et al. (1994)	
			Factor Analysis	Lk 7 Lk 7 SD 5 Lk 6	Crompton et al (1992) Schroeder (1996) Opperman (1996a,1996b) Guthrie & Gale (1991) Crompton (1979) Echtner & Ritchie (1993)	
			Correspondences Analysis	Yes / No Yes / No	Calatone et al. (1989) Eizaguirre & Lake (1996)	
		Multidimensional Scaling	Lk 5 Lk 7 2nd technique Rk 12 SD 7	Gartner (1989) Goodrich (1982) Guthrie & Gale (1991) Haahti (1986) Baloglu & Brinberg (1997)		
			Grouping	Cluster analysis	2nd technique DS 5	Muller (1995) Embacher & Buttle (1989)
		Dependence Analysis		Multiple regression	Lk 7	Dadgostar e Isotalo (1995)
				Log-linear	2nd technique	Eizaguirre & Laka (1996)
				Conjoint Analysis	Rk 4	Camichael (1992)
				Analysis of Variance (ANOVAS, MANOVAS,...)	Lk 5 Lk5 SD7 2nd technique 2nd technique 2nd technique	Chon (1992) Baloglu & Mc Cleary (1999) Schroeder (1996) Crompton (1979) Gartner (1996) Baloglu (1997) Fakeye&Crompton (1991) Ahmed (1991; 1996)
		II. Bivariate Methods	Correlations Analysis	2nd technique	Dadgostar e Isotalo (1995)	
T-Test and others	Lk 7 SD 5 Lk 5 2nd technique 2nd technique 2nd technique		Chon (1992) Gartner & Hunt (1987) Borchgrevink & Knutson (1997) Fakeye&Crompton (1991) Driscoll et al. (1994) Ahmed (1991) Muller (1985) Reilly (1990) Oppeman (1996a, 1996b) Schroeder (1996)			

From: Gallarza, Saura and Garcia, 2002

Figure 2: A Taxonomy Review of Non-quantitative Methods for Measuring TDI

Methodological procedure		Authors
I. Qualitative techniques	Free elicitation / Open ended questions	Reilly (1990) Embacher & Buttle (1989) Dann (1996) Echtner & Ritchie (1993)
	Focus groups	Amor et al (1994) Guthrie & Gale (1991) Driscoll et al. (1994) King (1994) Fakeye & Crompton (1991)
	Indepth interviews / Discussion with experts	Haahti (1986) Selby & Morgan (1996) Bramwell & Rawing (1996) Amor et al (1994) Fakeye & Crompton(1991)
II. Other techniques	Content Analysis	On promotional material Stabler (1988) Fesenmaier & MacKay (1996) Crompton (1979) Bramwell & Rawing (1996) King (1994) Baloglu & McCleary (1999)
		On previous results Goodrich (1982) Embacher & Buttle (1989) Reilly (1990) Echtner & Ritchie (1993) Haahti (1986) Fakeye & Crompton (1991)

From: Gallarza, Saura and Garcia, 2002

This unbalanced use of quantitative methods has to some extent impeded the advance of knowledge in this area. As mentioned above, image is a holistic concept. Most studies fail to address this point partly due to the research methods they use (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991). The problem with structured methods, such as scales, is that they require respondents to subjectively rate a set of pre-determined attributes. Unless care is taken, some of these attributes might be totally unimportant to respondents, and important attributes may be missing (Jenkins, 1999). A comparison of structured and unstructured methods is given in Figure 3.

Figure 3 clearly shows that both quantitative and qualitative methods have advantages and disadvantages. More importantly for the purposes of image study,

qualitative methods can capture the holistic aspects of image, as they are less likely to miss important dimensions.

Figure 3: Structured vs. Unstructured Methods Used in TDI Studies

	Structured	Unstructured
Description	Various common image attributes are specified and incorporated into a standardized instrument and the respondent rates each destination on each of the attributes, resulting in an “image profile”	The respondent is allowed to freely describe his or her impressions of the destination. Data are gathered from a number of respondents. Sorting and categorization techniques are then used to determine the “image dimensions”
Techniques	Usually a set of semantic differential or Likert type scales	Focus groups, open-ended survey questions, content analysis, repertory grid
Advantages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Easy to administer • Simple to code • Results easy to analyze using sophisticated statistical techniques • Facilitates comparisons between destinations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conducive to measuring the holistic components of destination image • Reduces interviewer bias • Reduces likelihood of missing important image dimensions or components
Disadvantages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does not incorporate holistic aspects of image • Attribute focused – that is, it forces the respondent to think about the product image in terms of the attributes specified • The completeness of structured methods can be variable – it is possible to miss dimensions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Level of detail provided by respondents is highly variable • Statistical analysis of the results is limited • Comparative analysis is not facilitated.

From: Jenkins, 1999

Therefore, it is important for researchers to pay more attention to qualitative methods which can provide valuable findings neglected by quantitative studies. Among the qualitative methods, free elicitation stands out due to some of its advantages. First, it allows respondents to describe a subject in terms that are salient to them, instead of

responding to a researcher's predetermined image-related terms. Second, it allows for the measurement of missing, or weak images, in that, if respondents are unable to provide responses, it shows that the subject does not have a strong image in the respondents' mind (Reilly, 1990). Third, data can be collected by open-ended survey questions, which is comparably less complicated than other collection techniques, such as interviews.

Free elicitation, in the form of word-association, has been used widely in marketing research, more for the assessment of motivations than for construct elicitation (Jenkins, 1999). A few TDI studies have employed this method. For example, Reilly (1990), in an investigation of the image of Montana, asked respondents: "What three words best describe the state of Montana as a destination for vacation or pleasure travel?". Echtner and Ritchie (1993) used questions like: "What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of ___ as a vacation destination?" to measure destination image. The responses were coded into similar categories, with frequencies. Free elicitation has also been used in PCI studies, though again, very rarely (e.g. Morello, 1993; Seixas, 2002; Papadopoulos, 2007). Nevertheless, these studies' findings inform future research.

It is worth mentioning that free elicitation is especially suitable for this study because this technique has the potential to draw the stereotypical image that respondents have in mind. As will be discussed in detail in the following chapter, theories of psychology, such as schema theory and stereotyping, will be considered to better understand image. Responses that reflect stereotypical images will be analyzed and interpreted more fully.

In the debate regarding the use of student samples vs. consumer samples, Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999) suggest that student samples differ from consumer samples in two fundamental ways: first, students are younger and more highly educated; second, student samples are more homogeneous. Due to these differences, it has long been a concern that student samples may not be a good substitute for real consumer samples. Nevertheless, student samples are still used by researchers, and few studies have addressed this problem empirically to actually test the differences or similarities between student samples and consumer samples.

The few researchers who have addressed this problem found that student samples did not differ significantly from consumer samples. However, caution should be taken here. The similarity of results when comparing student samples and consumer samples may not reflect great similarities between the two, but be the result of different characteristics of student samples counteracting each other. Taking the example given by Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999), PCI effects are generally smaller for people of younger age and higher education, thus a smaller effect size is expected. However, student samples are also more homogeneous, and consequently, a larger effect size is expected. The final result is that effect size does not differ between student and consumer samples. Earlier research by Khera and Benson (1970) also suggests that student samples can be good substitutes only in certain conditions.

What is more, the effectiveness of student samples as substitutes for consumer samples has rarely been tested by qualitative data. This is certainly a research gap which needs to be addressed.

To sum up, from a methodological perspective the limitations of image research are twofold. First, attention to qualitative methods is lacking. Second, more empirical research is needed to examine in what ways the results from a student sample are similar to or different from a real consumer sample, based on the same research questions.

3.4. The Psychological Perspective

As discussed earlier, Gallarza, Saura and Garcia (2002) observe that the study of the destination image formation process has been approached in two ways: static and dynamic. The static approach focuses on the relationship between image and tourist behavior, such as satisfaction and destination choice. Baloglu and McCleary (1999) summarize the literature on different aspects of the first approach: impact of familiarity or previous visitation on destination image (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Milman and Pizam, 1995); distance and image (Hunt, 1975; Crompton, 1979); measurement (Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Driscoll, Lawson and Niven, 1994), image components (MacKay and Fesenmaier, 1997) and factors influencing TDI (Walmsley and Jenkins, 1993; Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997); difference between projected and perceived image (Stabler, 1990); variations by trip purpose (Javalgi, Thomas and Rao, 1992); and sociodemographic variables (Walmsley and Jenkins, 1993; Baloglu, 1997). The dynamic approach focuses on the actual structure and formation of TDI itself but has had less success.

However, little research has focused on how image is actually formed, especially in the absence of previous experience with a destination. The process of image formation is still not well understood. Since image is fundamentally associated with people's mental

mechanisms, trying to understand it from the psychological perspective can surely help to better understand this subject.

Many studies of both PCI and TDI, as well as the emerging studies of place branding, have drawn concepts from social psychology to try to understand the deeper meaning and functionality of image. The most common psychological concepts used are values, perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, motivations, emotions, stereotypes, and social demographic factors. The focus has been on what factors influence the formation of images, what image entails, and how image influences consumer behaviors, such as evaluation and purchasing intentions. However, rarely have researchers examined the fundamental mental mechanisms in relation to these areas. To fill this gap, the next chapter will draw upon psychological theories to understand such mechanisms.

3.5. Summary

This chapter has identified research gaps in the PCI and TDI study from three perspectives. First, few cross-disciplinary studies have been done to understand place image, including both PCI and TDI, in a holistic way. Second, in terms of research methodology, qualitative methods have long been neglected and student samples are used when there are few empirical tests of the validation of student samples as proper substitute for real consumer samples. Third, how image is formed, stored and retrieved in association with country cues has rarely been studied.

To address the three research gaps, the following chapters are structured as follows. First, to address the third research gap identified, theories of psychology are drawn upon

to further and systematically understand “image”. Second, to address the first and second research gaps identified, qualitative data on both PCI and TDI are analyzed to understand possible interrelationships between the two, and to gain insights which quantitative methods can not offer. The issue of whether a student sample is a good substitute for a consumer sample is also examined. By addressing the noted gaps, this study hopes to advance the knowledge of the field, and to draw attention from other researchers to this area, as much more remains unexplored.

Chapter 4 Psychological Foundation for Image Studies

This chapter uses theories of psychology to explain “image”, focusing on how image is originally formed, stored, and retrieved, and how image changes over time. The relevant psychological areas considered are learning and memory, and the main theories used are schema theory and stereotyping.

4.1. Overview

It is widely accepted in both PCI and TDI studies that image is not a static concept (Papadopoulos, 1993; Gunn, 1972). Image formation is a process during which the image evolves. Thus, it is important to study how image first comes into being and how it changes over time.

From the psychological perspective, the image formation process can be viewed as a process of learning and information processing. People learn about a product or a place by either the information they are exposed to or their actual experience of using the product or visiting the place. Early knowledge forms people’s original image of a subject, and is stored in memory in the form of schemata. When new information or a new experience comes, it is either rejected or adopted and, as a consequence, the original image is reinforced or modified. Psychological theories that explain image evolution are those focusing on perceptions, stereotyping and schemata. As discussed earlier, image is

a gestalt concept. When people think of the image of a subject, they do not necessarily bring up every single piece of information. In many circumstances, they simply are not able to. Thus, *what* comes up to mind is most important especially when evaluating a product or a tourist destination. To put it in another way, it is also important to understand the image retrieval mechanism. The following section will discuss these issues in detail.

4.2. The Formation of Original Image -- Learning

From the psychological perspective, the formation of image in one's mind can be viewed as a process of learning or information processing. The learning process has been studied intensively in psychology. The two main approaches are cognitive learning and behavioral learning.

The cognitive learning approach maintains that humans learn through observations -- we are able to learn things simply by being exposed to them. The concept of information processing considers the organism as processing and storing information. It emphasizes the importance of the organizing and structuring of information, its storage, and its eventual retrieval for use in producing a behavioral event. The focus is on the mental structures and processes.

Behavioral learning, on the other hand, holds the view that learning results from experience and takes place when humans draw connections between environmental events. It underscores overt events, such as the existence of reinforcing or punishing

external stimuli and their influence on learning. Thus, it is also called stimulus-response, or associative orientation learning (Mowen and Minor, 1998).

It is important to be aware that neither of these two approaches can explain learning behavior alone. Cognitive learning and behavioral learning do not necessarily happen separately. Nor does behavioral learning necessarily occur prior to cognitive learning, or vice versa (Grusec, Lockhart and Walters, 1990).

In the context of PCI and TDI study, behavioral learning is associated with consumers' actual experience of using a product or traveling to a destination. Cognitive learning, on the other hand, is associated with the information consumers get and how such information influences their formation of image of a certain product or tourist destination. This view has been adopted by the TDI formation studies (Gunn, 1972). Consumers have not necessarily formed an image of a product or a place before the actual usage or visit, nor do they need to actually use a product or visit a place to form an image of it. For example, a little boy from France who goes to Japan on holidays with his parents may have no idea about Japan before he goes, but this trip will likely influence the formation of an image about Japan later in the boy's life. Similarly, the image a consumer has about German cars does not necessarily come into being after he or she has actually driven one. So in order to understand how image is originally formed, we need to understand the learning process from the point of view of both cognitive learning and behavioral learning approaches.

4.2.1. Cognitive learning

From the perspective of cognitive learning, people can form an original image of an object based on their observations. These observations can be made either consciously or subconsciously. The former mainly refers to voluntary information seeking. The latter is called “latent learning” in psychology. In this sense, people learn about things, but such learning remains hidden until the appropriate conditions bring it out. For example, by taking a bus tour in an unfamiliar city, people will probably learn something about getting around in that city even though as a passenger they are not paying attention to directions. If some time later they were driving a car in the same city, they might be surprised to know how much they had learned about the general directions of the city. In the context of image formation, people may not actively seek information about a certain country. However, they may overhear from the news that there is a rebellion currently in that country. If later they would choose a place for traveling, they will probably not choose that country because it may occur to them that it is politically unstable.

A central piece of cognitive learning is perception. Perception is defined as a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment (Robbins and Langton, 2003). People’s background knowledge and experiences are believed to bias their expectations and interpretations of reality. In addition, theory suggests that people are selective in what they notice, learn, remember and infer (Massad, Hubbard and Newston, 1979; Klein and Kunda, 1992). Sekuler and Blake (1990) proposed that perception does not only happen from the top-down but also from the bottom-up. Top-down perception happens when things in

people's minds such as knowledge, and past experiences influence how they view new things. Bottom-up perception occurs when people adopt new things into their minds. Sekuler and Blake (1990) argued that information is also perceived from the environment and processed to enrich the knowledge base. Both types of perceptions are concurrent and are supposed to supplement and reinforce each other. This process is very similar to the schema theory which is discussed later.

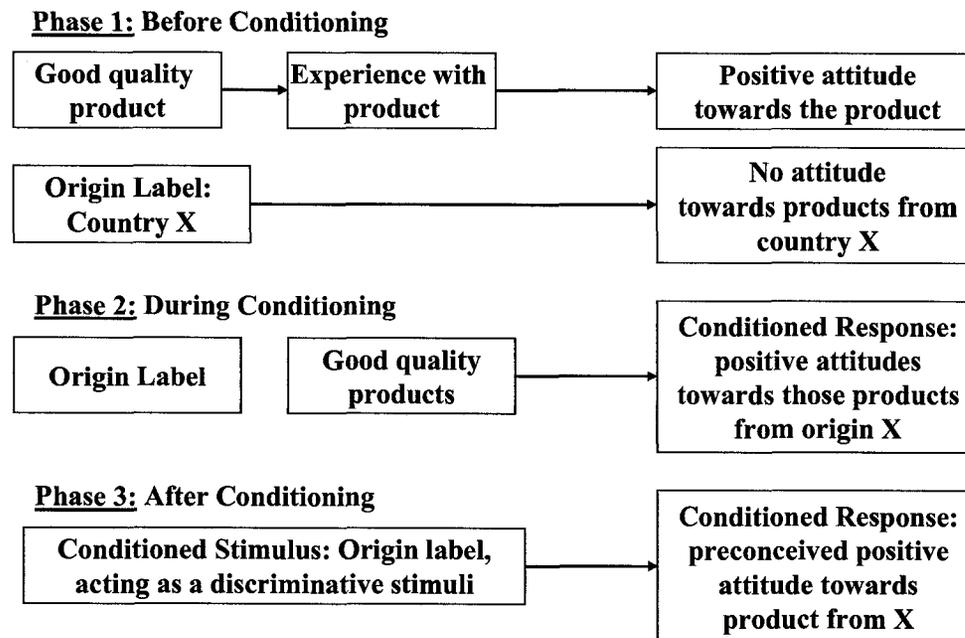
4.2.2. Behavioral learning

Behavioral learning is studied through two major approaches: classical conditioning and operant conditioning. The study of classical conditioning started from Pavlov's famous experiment on dogs. The presence of meat powder (unconditioned stimuli -- US) was paired with a bell tone (conditioned stimuli -- CS), and after repetition the bell tone produced a salivation response in the absence of meat powder. The essence of classical conditioning is the association of two stimuli: US and CS, such that CS comes to evoke a response similar to US as a result of the association (Kim, Lim and Bhargava, 1998; Till and Priluck, 2000; Olson and Fazio, 2001). In the image formation context, if a positive experience with a product or a tourist destination as US is associated with the country or place it belongs to, the country or place as CS will be associated with a positive image by the consumer. Classical conditioning has been studied intensively in advertising (Gresham and Shimp, 1985; Till and Priluck, 2000). The central idea is to associate a product or brand with pleasant images to evoke favorable responses or to attach meanings to brands (Smith, Feinberg and Burns, 1998; Till and Priluck, 2000).

Operant conditioning started from Thorndike's experiment on cats. The essence of operant conditioning is that behavior is controlled by its consequences (Skinner, 1937 cited in Staddon and Cerutti, 2003) and basically it is a response-reinforcement model (Peter and Nord, 1982). To explain, if the consequence of a certain behavior is positive, the behavior is reinforced and therefore, the likelihood of the reoccurrence of that behavior is increased. On the other hand, if the positive consequence disappears or in the case of negative consequence, the behavior is discouraged, the likelihood of its reoccurrence is decreased (Matlin, 1992). Operant conditioning is also studied intensively in marketing especially in the area of product performance: how well or poorly a product performs will positively or negatively influence the repurchasing behavior (Matlin, 1992; Staddon and Cerutti, 2003).

As Grusec, Lockhard and Walters (1990) pointed out, classical conditioning and operant conditioning are not two totally isolated processes. In practice, it is very difficult to demonstrate a case of pure operant conditioning or classic conditioning. Seixas (2002) presented a figure to explain how operant conditioning can be applied to PCI (Figure 4). However, it more appropriately serves as a demonstration that operant conditioning and classical conditioning are difficult to separate. In the figure, positive experience with the product reinforces the positive image of the product; and the original label as a CS, when associated with the product, also generates a positive image.

Figure 4: Classical and Operant Conditioning and PCI



From Seixas, 2002

4.3. The Storage of Image -- Memory

As Thompson and Madigan (2005) summarized, memory is where people store all their knowledge, experience, skills, emotions, feelings, sensations and understandings of the world. Image is also stored in memory. Memory is composed of three elements: encoding, storage and retrieval. The relevance of studying memory is that encoding is closely related to schema theory which explains what information is remembered and what is not. In turn, what is in the memory also influences what new information will be adopted. The retrieval of items stored in memory is especially relevant to this research in that it directly relates to the free elicitation which is the main research method of this paper. To better fulfill the research objectives of this study, encoding and storage will be

discussed under the schema theory, and the retrieval process will be examined in detail in a separate section.

4.4. The Evolution of Image -- Schemata and Stereotyping

It is generally agreed in both psychology and image studies in marketing that image is not static (Bilkey, 1993; Gunn, 1972; Folks and Kiesler, 1991). However, empirical studies have found a difference in the level of preservation of PCI and TDI. PCI tends to be more durable (Papadopoulos, 1993) while TDI can be changed by internationally significant events in a short period of time (Roehl, 1990; Kim and Morrision, 2005). These phenomena can be explained by schema theory.

In a broad sense, schema refers to “any of the abstract hypotheses, expectations, organizing principles, frames, implication molecules, scripts, plans or prototypes that have been proposed as abstract mental organizing system or memory structures” (Hastie, 1981 cited in Pryor, McDaniel and Russo, 1986). It is a hypothetical cognitive structure that integrates lower level units of information into a higher level cohesive and meaningful unit (Cohen and Ebbesen, 1979). These units are called nodes which, as the fundamental building blocks, form a mental network.

This node-based structure of schemata can be used to explain a major difference between PCI and TDI. In the context of PCI, a product is associated with multiple cues which can be viewed as nodes connected to the target product. To change the overall schema of the product, a majority of these nodes need to be changed. This is why once PCI is formed, it is relatively enduring. In the context of TDI, however, place image is

the primary cue, thus if this primary cue is changed by a significant event, the entire schema will be changed. This is why TDI can be changed by overt events in a short time (e.g. Kim and Morrision, 2005).

In general, the interest of studying schemata lies in two functions: first, a schema, as a cognitive structure, may be used as a framework for comprehending or interpreting incoming information (Cohen and Ebbesen, 1979); second, it influences how people retrieve stored memories (Flannery and Walles, 2003). The first function is of great relevance to image evolution. Two modern schema theories have at their core the notion of previous knowledge influencing current cognitive process: the static and the dynamic approach.

4.4.1. Static schema theories

The structural schema theory considers schemata to be static and all information processing depends on the pre-existence of such structures in memory. In other words, no learning can occur without a relevant pre-existing schema (Nejad and Winsler, 2000). This theory suffers from its inability to explain how people acquire new schemata.

Then, the script-pointer-plus-tag (SP+T) theory was proposed to address this issue. It maintains that if an inconsistent stimulus is striking enough, the perceiver may engage in more diligent processing of that stimulus instead of totally ignoring it. However, this SP+T approach still holds a static view and the so called “diligent processing” of the new stimuli does not mean that the new information will be integrated into the existing schema (Nejad and Winsler, 2000).

4.4.2. Dynamic schema theories

Functional theory maintains that schemata are constantly changing through two processes: assimilation and accommodation (Rothbart, Evans and Fulero, 1979). Assimilation is the process in which the perceiver tries to fit incoming information with pre-existing mental structures. Accommodation refers to the modification of mental structures so that the perceiver can process incoming information that does not readily fit the default contents of existing schema (Nejad and Winsler, 2000). The functional view of schemata is more plausible since it is able to explain how people learn new things.

It is important to notice that although the functional schema theory maintains that schemata can adapt to new information, therefore it changes over time, the adaptation only happens when the incoming information cannot fit into any pre-existing schema. In other words, the mental mechanism always tries to fit new information into schema first. Thus it is open to the possibility that the assimilation process may faultily interpret new information. It also demonstrates that once formed, schemata are not easy to change.

4.4.3. Stereotyping

Nelson, Acker and Manis (1996) define stereotypes as beliefs or expectations about the qualities and characteristics of specific groups. These beliefs are about the relative prevalence of traits, behaviors, or other attributes of a particular category as compared to others. Stereotype occurs because abstract concepts, as a framework, guide the interpretation of incoming information (Dijksterhuis, Spears and Lepinasse, 2001). Stereotyping is described as an automatic and unintentional process (Devine, 1989;

Sassenberg and Moskowitz, 2005), which is to say, the exposure to a category exemplar can lead to the activation of the respective stereotype even without one's intention or awareness (Bargh, 1996).

Much attention has been focused on the negative side of stereotypes because when misapplied, it infers overgeneralizations or blanket applications of a trait to virtually every member of a group. When such a trait is negative, it incurs prejudice and offense (Nelson, Acker and Manis, 1996). However, stereotyping also operates as a functional mental device which serves some important roles in mental life (Macrae, Stangor and Milne, 1994). First, it can serve as a data reduction function that filters incoming information. It is generally agreed that stereotyping increases the speed, ease and efficiency of information processing. Central to this approach is that, perceivers have limited capacity so they turn to inferential shortcuts to make sense of complex surroundings (Nelson, Acker and Manis, 1996). Second, stereotyping can well organize cognitions about a stereotyped target (Bodenhausen, 1988). Third, as Medin (1988, cited in Macrae, Stangor and Milne, 1994) notes, stereotyping may be useful, not when we have a lot of information, but when we do not know much about other people's individual attributes. Thus stereotypes enable us to fill in the gaps in our extant knowledge base.

A stereotype is a type of schema (Hamilton, 1979) therefore it shares the same attributes as schemata. For example, once formed, a stereotype is hard to change. It is also not static (Freire, 2005). For example, a favorable exemplar reinforces positive judgments of the group while an unfavorable exemplar reinforces negative judgments of

the group; stereotype-inconsistent exemplars can change the stereotype about the group (Bless et al., 2001).

4.5. The Retrieval of Image

While to understand how image is formed and evolved is crucial, the study of how image, once formed, can be retrieved is also of pivotal importance: when it comes to evaluate a product or a place, it is not what consumers have in mind, but what can be remembered that counts.

The mental mechanism of retrieval can also be explained by schema theory (Mowen and Minor, 1998). As discussed earlier, schema is a hypothetical cognitive structure that integrates lower level units of information into a higher level cohesive and meaningful unit called nodes, which, as the fundamental building blocks, form a mental network. When incoming stimuli activate one node, a piece of information stored in memory is recalled. The stimuli are also passed to the connected nodes which activated relevant information as well (Rothbart, Evans and Fulero, 1979; Mowen and Minor, 1998; Nejad and Winsler, 2000). The mere existence of the nodes and stimuli is not sufficient for retrieval, rather, which nodes are activated and remembered also depends on the strength of connection between the nodes and the target (Horton and Mills, 1984). The stronger the connections, the easier to retrieve.

This retrieval mechanism then raises another important question: what determines the strength of the connection. The fact is that this area has not been well understood yet.

But many researchers argue that it is related to the encoding process since encoding determines what goes into memory and how (Horton and Mills, 1984).

Encoding is the process that converts perceived information into a form that can be mentally retained and subsequently utilized (Matlin, 1992). It can influence the retrieval of information in at least five ways: first, although not sufficient by itself, repetition helps information retention (Kellogg, 1995); second, compared to shallow learning, deeper learning is more meaningful and more durable (Craik, 1979); third, elaboration on the subject to be remembered results in better result (Horton and Mills, 1984); fourth, the amount of effort expended during processing is also positively related to better retrieval (Horton and Mills, 1984); fifth, the organization of information which is also called “chunking” benefits memory more than separation imagery (Bower, 1970). The last point throws some light on understanding the schema network since it suggests that the learning context and the way information is organized may account for the strength between schema nodes.

4.6. Image Schema Map

This chapter has applied theories from psychology to explain image. Theory suggests that the image of an object (in this study, the objects are target countries, their products and tourism) is not a single element; rather, it is a mental schema structure. This schema structure is built by nodes which include many elements associated with the object. Therefore, to understand the image of an object, an understanding of the nodes

(the building blocks of schemata) and their associations, particularly those most salient, will help to develop a more complete structure, or map, of the image.

Mowen and Minor (1998) give a good illustration of how nodes relate to each other in peoples' mind and how the retrieval of one node activates the other associated nodes. For example, when people think of a Corvette car, many of its attributes may occur to them, such as expensive, US made, sports car and so on. Then when they continue to think about sports cars, they may think of Porsche; then probably things like German-made and prestigious will also occur to them. This is how these nodes relate to each other therefore forming mental schemata networks in peoples' mind.

The illustration provided by Mowen and Minor (1998) based on schema theories suggests that finding out the nodes and their associations can be an effective way to study image holistically. The application of schema theory is evident in qualitative studies that call for respondents to provide their most salient image associations, top of mind, rather than responding to more structured scale-type questions, set by researchers. In this way, associations salient to respondents are less likely to be neglected.

Yet, schema theory has not been widely used by researchers to study image, and qualitative methods have gained little attention in the existing literature.

One exception, by Silver and Hill (2002), uses a four-dimensional map to visually present elements associated with the US "brand", based on interviews and market research data. Figure 4 represents an interconnected set of people, places, events and icons that can all be associated with the US. Although the authors do not reference

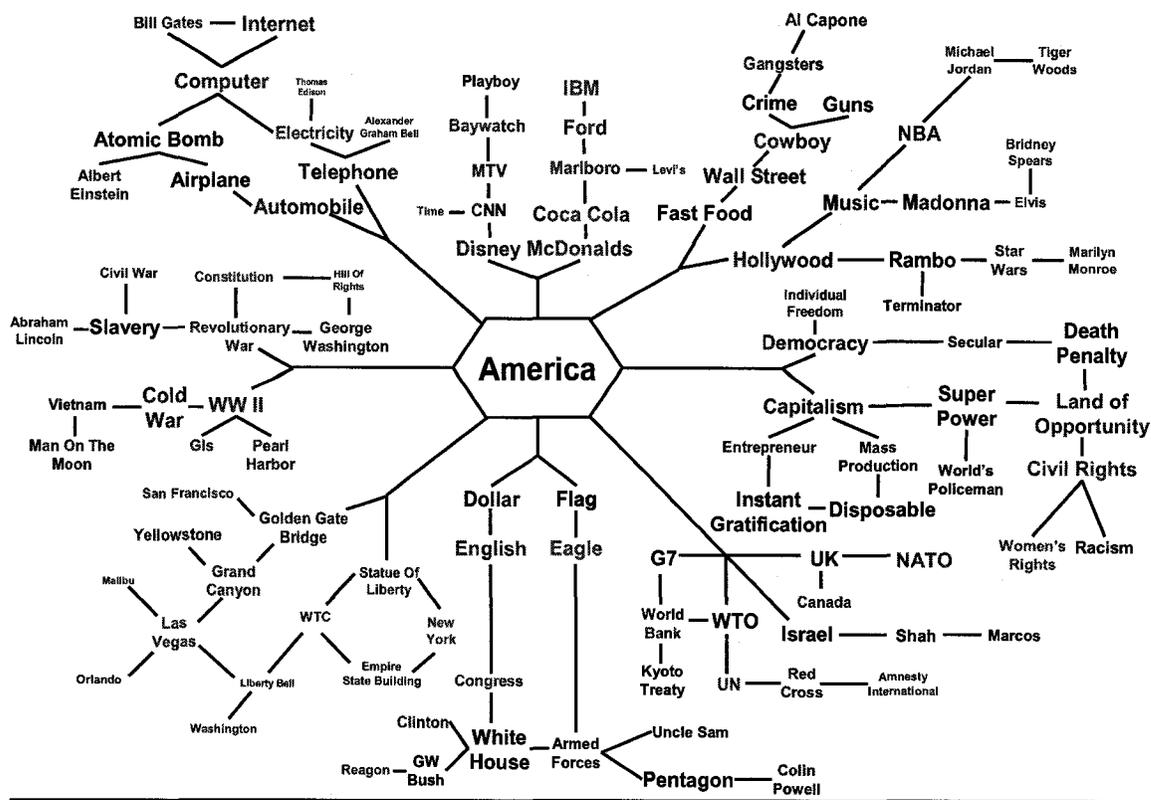
schema theory, their method of mapping is an effective technique to capture nodes and associations that come to mind in response to a country cue.

To apply this method to the study of image, one begins with the collection of free elicitations from respondents that can then be mapped in order to visually represent the underlying schema structure. Details of the method of drawing these image schemata maps are provided in Chapter 6.

4.7. Summary

This chapter has drawn from theories of psychology to study image, focusing on the process in which image is formed, stored, changed and retrieved. Schema theories suggest that image is not a single element but a mental structure built by nodes and associations. An Image Schemata Map is effective in presenting a holistic picture of image by visualizing nodes and associations of people's mental schemata structure.

Figure 5: Brand America Molecule



Silver and Hill, 2002

Chapter 5 Research Objectives and Research Questions

Three research gaps have been identified in Chapter 3. First, despite many similarities, PCI and TDI have largely been studied separately, thereby missing opportunities to advance both fields through cross-disciplinary research. Second, quantitative methods have been overwhelmingly favored, while qualitative methods have been largely neglected. Another issue that has gained some attention from researchers is the frequent use of student samples in image studies. Third, although image is the main object of interest in both PCI and TDI studies, little is understood in terms of how an image is formed in the consumers' mind in response to a country or product cue.

The overall objective of the proposed study is to tackle these gaps simultaneously. Qualitative data will be analyzed to study mental mechanisms of image in a holistic way, including general image, PCI and TDI. Responses from a student sample will also be compared to a real consumer sample from the same country (Canada) using exactly the same questionnaire.

This study has three main objectives, each associated with two specific research questions. The first objective is to map the respondents' mental schemata for each target country, its products and its tourism. As discussed in Chapter 4, schema theory provides a way to understand people's mental structures of image in a holistic way, and the

interconnections among image components. Mapping schemata patterns provides a method to visually represent these image structures in relation to place.

This objective addresses the first two research gaps by studying image in a holistic way based on qualitative data. The related research questions are:

1. What are the responses vs. non-responses for each category (general image, PCI and TDI) of each target country (US, Japan and Australia) from each sample (Canadian consumer sample and South Korean sample)?
2. What are the structures or patterns of the responses for each category of each target country?

The first research question, by comparing the number of responses and non-responses, provides a measure of the respondents' familiarity of each target country, their products and tourism. The second research question uses actual responses to build mental schemata in order to examine the interconnections of the country, product and tourism images together, to capture a more holistic image of place.

To address the third research gap, Chapter 4 has examined the process of how image is formed, stored, changed and retrieved. Theories of psychology suggest that the formation of image is influenced by many factors such as people's background knowledge and experiences. Therefore, it is of interest to examine whether people from different countries view another country differently or similarly. The result is valuable for

marketers in that if people from different countries do view another country differently, it is necessary to differentiate strategies.

Thus, the second objective is to compare the Canadian consumer sample and the South Korean consumer sample to see whether people from different countries view other countries similarly or differently, based on qualitative data. The related research questions are:

3. Are the response rates very different or similar between the Canadian consumer sample and the South Korean consumer sample?
4. How similar or different are the schemata patterns of the Canadian respondents and the South Korean respondents?

The third research question examines whether Canadian respondents are more or less as familiar with the target countries as their South Korean counterparts. The fourth research question aims to find out how similar or different the schemata patterns of the Canadian respondents and the South Korean respondents are. Unlike past research that has largely been based on quantitative data, these questions will be addressed based on an analysis of qualitative responses to open-ended questions.

The third objective is to address the question of whether a student sample is a good substitute for a real consumer sample in qualitative research. This is possible because of the availability of both a student sample and a real consumer sample from the same

country (Canada) using exactly the same questionnaire. The related research questions are:

5. What are the responses vs. non-responses of each sample for each category of each target country?
6. What are the schemata structures or patterns of each sample for each category of each target country?

The fifth research question aims to measure whether real consumers have the same level of familiarity as students. The sixth question attempts to examine how similar or different the mental schemata of students are to those of real consumers, again, based on an analysis of qualitative data.

With these objectives and related research questions in mind, the next chapter will detail the methods to be used to draw answers from the data.

Chapter 6 Methodology

This chapter will first explain the data collection process and the questionnaire design. Then the pre-analytical stage will be detailed including data cleanup and the coding process. Lastly, the research instrument used to analyze the data will be discussed.

6.1. Data Collection

6.1.1. Data collection process

This study uses data collected by Elliot and Papadopoulos in Canada and South Korea. A total of 307 Canadian consumers, 251 Canadian students and 349 South Korean consumers were asked to evaluate four countries, their products and their image as tourist destinations. The four countries evaluated by Canadian respondents are: the United States, Japan, Australia and South Korea; while those by the South Korean respondents are: the United States, Japan, Australia and Canada. The evaluation was conducted through self-administered questionnaires during which no system aid was provided.

The Canadian and South Korean consumer samples were collected during major consumer travel shows in Toronto and Seoul, South Korea. Small incentives were provided to respondents. The Canadian student sample was collected at Carleton University in different classes.

The questionnaire was designed in English. For South Korean respondents, questionnaires were translated into Korean and the answers were translated back to

English for the purpose of analysis. Back translations were conducted to ensure the accuracy of the translation.

6.1.2. Questionnaire design

The questionnaire consisted of three major parts. The first part asked the respondents to evaluate each of the four target countries, their products and their image as tourist destinations, using seven-point bipolar adjective scales.

The second part was composed of three open ended questions:

1. What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of these **countries**?
2. What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of **products** from these countries?
3. What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of these countries as **travel destinations**?

Respondents were asked to give up to three words or phrases for each question on each target country, which resulted in up to 12 words (3 words * 3 questions * 4 target countries) per respondent.

The third part of the questionnaire was the demographics section. Respondents were asked to provide information regarding their age, gender, education level, household

income, their travel, study or work experiences in the target countries, their connections with the target countries and where they got the information about the target countries.

6.1.3. Discussion

The process in which the respondents answered the three open-ended questions reflects their image retrieval process. As discussed in Chapter 4, the retrieval of image happens when an incoming stimulus activates one node of a schemata network, which triggers the recall of a certain piece of information stored in memory. Here, the country name is the stimulus and the words or phrases that a respondent gave are the information he or she recalled. It should be noted that the nodes which have the strongest links to the stimulus are most likely to be recalled, and, given that neither aid by researchers nor other cues beyond the names of the target countries were provided to respondents during data collection, the verbatims provided can be assumed to reflect the strength of associations between the country name and the image or characteristic the respondent has in mind about that country. Therefore, the verbatims reflect the strongest links in the respondents' schemata for each target country.

This study focuses on the verbatims provided by all respondents in order to study PCI, TDI and GCI deeply from a qualitative perspective. Demographic information will also be analyzed to further compare the Canadian consumer sample and the Canadian student sample.

6.2. Pre-Analytic Stage – Data Cleanup

All the verbatims given by the respondents were inputted into an SPSS database together with the scales and demographics. To ensure the consistency and reliability of the database, the data was cleaned and coded. The data cleanup involved two steps. First, misspellings were corrected. The decision rule is that when it is obvious that a misspelling happened, such as “kangaroo”, the verbatim is corrected; while in cases where it is not clear whether the verbatim is a misspelling or simply something unknown to the researchers, such as “conslemphon”, the verbatim is left unchanged. Second, to facilitate coding, the verbatims were standardized. There are two different situations. First, abbreviations were restored; for example, “N. Y.” was standardized as “New York”. Second, descriptions were replaced by proper terms; for example, “the pipe that you blow through” mentioned for Australia was replaced by “Didgeridoo”.

6.3. Coding

To ensure objectivity and facilitate analysis, all verbatims were coded. The coding process required the development of a coding scheme, the actual coding and the consistency checking of coding. Three coders were involved in the entire coding process. The coding schemes developed independently by the three coders were compared. The differences were discussed so that a consensus could be reached. After the verbatims were coded, the consistency across the entire database was checked. When coders had different opinions on certain verbatim codes, the decision was made that the final codes would be agreed to by the majority of the coders. For example, “Unilever” has a broad variety of products from ice cream to shampoo. Therefore, a decision whether it should

be coded as “Confectionery Products” or “Toiletries” was necessary. The final code for “Unilever” is “Toiletries” since two coders agreed. The coding process is detailed below.

6.3.1. Coding process

The open-ended questions are divided into three sections where respondents were asked to provide associations to the GCI, the PCI and the TDI of each target country. Except for a well-developed PCI coding scheme from an earlier study, no comparable coding schemes were available for GCI and TDI. Therefore, the coding schemes for GCI and TDI were developed from scratch. Given the successful experiences of the development of the PCI coding, and to ensure the consistency of all coding schemes, the development of the GCI and TDI coding schemes adopted the same structure and decision rules. The detailed procedure for each area is explained below.

6.3.1.1. PCI coding

The PCI coding scheme (please refer to Table 1) used in this study was developed by Papadopoulos (2002) and adopted with minor adjustment. This PCI coding scheme is used because it has been proven very effective in similar multinational studies (Seixas, 2002; Papadopoulos, 2007). Minor adjustments were made to reveal some specific characteristics that emerged from the three sample sets in this study. For example, the product category “Animation/Cartoons” was not in the original coding scheme; however, as this type of product has become more popular, especially Japanese animation, many respondents associated these products with Japan. Therefore, “Animation/Cartoons” was added. The product category “Salmon” was in the original coding scheme. However,

since there was no mention of salmon in the entire database, in this study, it did not make sense to keep it as a subcategory and it was deleted.

The PCI coding scheme consists of three levels. The first level groups the products mentioned into ten major industry sectors. The second level further breaks down each of the ten sectors into up to ten major product categories. The third level differentiates whether the products mentioned are generic or brand names. For example, the response “software” was coded as 630 (IT and Other Advanced Technology, software, generic) while the mention of “Microsoft” was coded as 631 (IT and Other Advanced Technology, software, brand name).

1. Food/Beverage/Tobacco	5. Transportation	9. Agriculture
1. Dairy Products 2. Cereals 3. Cigarettes, tobacco 4. Confectionery products 5. Beverages / nonalcoholic 6. Beverages / alcoholic 7. Traditional food 8. Food / general 9. Pharmaceuticals 0. Other	1. Passenger cars/vans 2. Trucks 3. Motorcycles 4. Ships, ship-building 5. Aircraft 6. Railroad 7. Urban transit systems, metro 8. 9. 0. Other	1. Grains 2. Fruits and vegetables 3. Maple syrup, honey 4. Other Agriculture 5. Livestock 6. Fishing 7. 8. 9. 0. Other
2. Clothing and Related	6. IT and Other Advanced Technology	0. Natural Resources
1. Clothing 2. Fashion 3. Wool 4. Shoes and other footwear 5. Furs 6. Leather 7. Winter clothes 8. Accessories 9. Jewelry, watches 0. Other	1. Computers and hardware 2. Office electric appliances 3. Software 4. Telephones and telecom 5. Aerospace 6. Technology / general 7. Imitative 8. Innovative 9. Robotics 0. Other	1. Wood 2. Pulp 3. Primary minerals/ores 4. Precious metals 5. Natural gas & petroleum 6. Natural resources / general 7. 8. Electricity 9. Water 0. Other
3. Household and Related	7. Other Industrial Goods and Product attributes	
1. Appliances 2. Household cleaning 3. Furniture 4. Ornaments and gadgets 5. Carpets and fixture 6. Glassware and china 7. Luggage 8. Toiletries 9. Cosmetics 0. Other	1. Textiles 2. Office supplies 3. Tools and machinery 4. Chemicals, plastics 5. Manufacturing 6. Business / general 7. Price-value 8. Quality 9. Metal fabricating 0. Other	
4. Entertainment and Leisure	8. Service and Miscellaneous	
1. Sports/outdoor equipment 2. Instrument & other recreation equipment 3. Video/Computer games 4. Toys 5. Movie/Music 6. Animation/Cartoons 7. Home electronics 8. Other cultural products 9. Sports/Activity 0. Other	1. Celebrities 2. Restaurants and bars 3. Airlines and tourism 4. Retail stores 5. Financial and insurance 6. Education 7. Medical services 8. Engineering and construction 9. Military and weapons 0. Other	

6.3.1.2.GCI coding

As mentioned above, the GCI coding scheme had to be developed from scratch. The underlying theory applied to the process was grounded theory, which allows the coding scheme to emerge from the data instead of posing pre-determined categories on the data.

The grounded theory coding process involves three stages: open coding, axial coding and selective coding (Corbin and Strauss, 1990). As Corbin and Strauss (1990) explained, in the open coding process, verbatims are compared with each other for similarities and differences. Similar verbatims are grouped together to form categories and subcategories. In axial coding, categories are related to their subcategories and the relationships are tested against data. Further development of categories may take place in this process. In the selective coding process, all categories are summarized into a central phenomenon of the study and poorly developed categories are likely to be identified.

Applied to this study, in the open coding stage, the verbatims were compared and the similar ones were summarized into subcategories and then into main categories. In the axial coding stage, the categories and subcategories were examined in order to find whether they fit the data. Categories and subcategories with no or few responses were deleted or merged with their similar counterparts. Constant comparison of verbatims, subcategories and categories enabled the optimum coding scheme to emerge. In the selective coding stage, a final check of the coding scheme was made to ensure all verbatims were properly fitted and coded.

The GCI coding adopted the same structure as the PCI coding, which is three-leveled (Please refer to Table 2). The verbatims were grouped into seven main categories. Each main category was further divided into subcategories, and subcategories were further broken down into types. For example, the mention of “Niagara Falls” is coded as “Natural Environment—Natural Wonders—Niagara Falls”. “Natural Environment” is the main category, “Natural Wonders” is one of the subcategories under “Natural Environment” and “Niagara Falls” is one of the types under “Natural Wonders”.

It should be pointed out that the meanings of some verbatims can be ambiguous; therefore, it was necessary for the coders to deduce the meanings by comparing responses from other respondents. For example, when a Canadian respondent said “weather” for Australia, literally it can mean both warm weather and colder weather. However, since many other Canadian respondents said “warm weather” or “hot” to Australia, the coders all agreed that mentions of “weather” by Canadian respondents to Australia mean “hot”.

It is also important to know that “who” said what to “which country” also matters. For example, if a South Korean respondent said “war” under Japan, he or she is most likely referring to wars prior to 1950 since Japan has not been involved in wars afterwards. However, if a Canadian student mentioned “war” under South Korea, he or she is most likely referring to the best-known conflicts between North Korea and South Korea. It is always possible that the student knows about the Japanese invasions of Korean some decades ago; however, this probability is comparably low.

It is also worth mentioning that “Industry” is one of the main categories in the GCI coding since many respondents associated products or companies with the target countries, such as “Sony” with Japan and “Coca-Cola” with the United States. In such cases, the subcategories and types under “Industry” complied with their counterpart of the PCI coding scheme. For example, the mention of “Coca-Cola” in the GCI section was still coded as “Food/Beverage/Tobacco, Beverages, nonalcoholic” as it was coded under PCI. The advantage of such consistency is two-fold. First, the PCI coding scheme is already well developed and proven to be effective. Second, the compliance facilitates the integrative analysis between GCI and PCI.

Table 2: GCI and TDI Coding Scheme

1. Built Environment		
Subcategories	Type	Examples
Famous Landmarks	Buildings	Tokyo Tower
	Theme parks	Disneyland
	Place of worship	Temples
	Districts, monuments, landmarks	Mount Rushmore
	Other	Famous sites
Urban Environment	Modern buildings	Futuristic buildings
	Cities / clean	Clean city
	Cities / dirty	Dirty
	Cities / other	Quiet city
	Bright city lights	Bright lights
Urbanization	Cities / big	Big cities
	Cities / busy	Busy cities
	Cities / general	Cities
	Cities / other	Some urban
Other	Gardens	Gardens
	Traditional buildings	Traditional houses
	Architecture	Architecture
	Other	Small town
2. Natural Environment		
Subcategories	Type	Examples
Natural Wonders	Ayers Rock	Ayers Rock
	Grand Canyon	Grand Canyon
	Great Barrier Reef	Great Barrier Reef
	Mt. Fuji	Mt. Fuji
	Niagara Falls	Niagara Falls
	Outback	Outback
	Other	Rockies
Fauna & Flora / Fauna	Kangaroos	Kangaroos
	Koala bears	Koala bears
	Crocodiles	Crocodiles
	Other / specific	Monkey
	Other / general	Animals
	Other / wild	Wild animals
Fauna & Flora / Flora	Maple	Maple tree
	Trees, forests	Trees
	Other / specific	Cherry blossom
	Other / general	Plants
Climate	Cold	Cold
	Hot	Hot
	Other	Drizzling

3. People, Culture, Country		
Subcategories	Type	Examples
Culture	Different, unique	Unique culture
	Similar to home	Similar to us
	Traditions	Tradition
	Culture / advanced	Advanced culture
	Culture / general	Their culture
	Rituals, artifacts, arts	Bowing
Language	Accent	Cool accent
	Other / general	Language barriers
Religion	Faiths	Buddhism
	Practices	Shrine worship
	Other	Idols
Lifestyle	Busy/fast-paced	Busy
	Relaxed/laid back	Laid back
	Other	City closedown at night
Known Symbols	Flag	National flag
	Traditional clothing	Kimonos
	National slogans	Uncle Sam
	Real traditional characters	Geisha
	Fictitious characters	Mickey Mouse
	Currency	Dollar
	Artifacts	Boomerang
	Colors	Red white blue
Known People	Celebrities / athletes	Ono
	Celebrities / business	Bill Gates
	Celebrities / general	Celebrities
	Celebrities / pop culture	Actors
Traits / People/Country	Positive	Exciting
	Negative	Boring
Traits / Personal/Culture	Positive	Friendly
	Negative	Arrogant
	Can be positive or negative	Individualism
	Sex-related	Hookers
Physical Appearance	Overweight	Fat people
	Short	Short people
	Other	Jutting teeth

4. Country Characteristics		
Subcategories	Type	Examples
Land Area (Size)	Big	Big land
	Small	Small country
Safety & Security	Safe / general	Safe
	Unsafe / general	Unsafe
	Unsafe / crime, gun, etc.	Guns
	Other	Security
Population Size	Large, high density	Lots of people
	Small	Small population
	Other	Population
Population Diversity	Racial diversity	Black people
	Aborigines	Indians
	Diversity high	Diverse
	Diversity low	Uniform
	Immigrants	Immigrants
History	History / general	History
	History / country roots	British colony
Development	Advanced / economy	Economy advanced
	Advanced / general	Advanced
	Developing	Tiger nation
	Polluted environment	Pollution
	Other	Human labor
Quality of Life, Wealth	Cost-of-living / expensive	Expensive
	Cost-of-living / inexpensive	Cheap
	Education / high	Education
	Education / low	Large # people uneducated
	Quality of life / high	High living standard
	Wealth / rich	Rich
	Wealth / poor (er)	Poor
	Wealth / poor-rich gap	Gap between rich and poor
	Health & welfare	Social welfare
Place Names	City	New York
	Province, state, region	Florida
Associations with Places & People	With continent's people	Asians (for Japan)
	With other country's people	Chinese (for S Korea)
	With same country's people	Japanese (for Japan)
	With continent/other country	New Zealand (for Australia)
	Distance from home / far	Far away
	Distance from home / close	Easy to travel to
	Location on map	South
	It's an island	Island
	Other	Continent

5. Political & Military		
Subcategories	Type	Examples
Political System	Capitalism	Capitalism
	Communism	Communism
	Democracy	Democracy
	Not democracy	Non-democratic
	Oppression, repression	Oppression
	Liberty/freedom	Liberal
	Corruption	Corruption
	Other	Government
Politics & Politicians	Known personalities	Bush
	Political positions	President
	Politics / general	Politics
Global & Domestic Position	Peaceful	Peaceful
	Powerful/strong/leader	Great power
	Stable	Stable
	Unstable	Turmoil
	Imperialism	Imperialism
	Anti-USA views	Invasion
	Anti-Japan views	Mean nation
	Insular/isolated	Isolated
	Other	Independent
Military	Army / general	American army
	Army / strong	Strong army
	Weapons / bombs	Bombs
	Weapons / other	Weapons
Conflicts/Wars / Other	Afghanistan	Afghanistan
	Iraq	Iraq
	WWII	WWII
	Just said "war"	War
Conflicts/Wars / S. Korea with Japan	Current territorial disputes	Takeshima
	Past wars / invasion, colonization	Invasion
	Past wars / specific	Pacific War
	Past wars / general	War
	Anti- Japan views	Japanese killed Korean Queen
	Other	Self-defense force
Conflicts/Wars / S. Korea with N. Korea	S. Korea next to N. Korea	Next to N. Korea
	Past wars / specific	Korean War
	Anti-N. Korea views	Crazy N Korea
	Divisions into S. and N. Korea	Divided
	US army in S. Korea	U.S. troops
	War between S. and N. Korea	Civil War
Terrorism	September 11, WTC	9/11
	Terrorism / general	Terrorists
Other	Other	Independence movement

6. Sports & Leisure		
Subcategories	Type	Examples
Sports	Baseball	Baseball
	Basketball	Basketball
	Football	Football
	Hockey	Hockey
	Martial arts	Martial arts
	Soccer	Soccer
	Sumo	Sumo
	Other / general	Sports
	Other / specific	Rugby
Recreation	Fishing, hunting	Safari
	Gambling	Gambling
	Golf	Golf
	Hiking, backpacking	Backpacking
	Scuba diving	Diving
	Shopping	Shopping
	Skiing	Skiing
	Surfing	Surfing
Other / specific	Yacht	
Major Events	Sports	Olympics
	Cultural	Mardi Gras
Tourism	Attractions / general	Attractions
	Attractions / specific	Museum
	Attractions / hot spa's	Hot spa
	Things to see/do – lots	Lots to do
	Things to see/do – few	Little to see
	Vacationing	Vacation
	Visit, want to visit	Want to go
	Adventure	Adventure
	accommodation	Lots of hotels

6.3.1.3.TDI coding

Prior to the development of coding schemes, a consensus had been reached by the researchers that the GCI and TDI coding should be comparable in order to facilitate integrative analysis of GCI and TDI. After the development of the GCI coding scheme, all coders agreed that the variety of the GCI mentions was so broad that the GCI coding scheme could be applied to the TDI verbatims. Unless a major adjustment was needed,

the use of the same coding scheme for both GCI and TDI would maximize the compliance, and therefore significantly facilitate the integrative study of GCI and TDI.

The process during which the GCI coding was applied to the TDI verbatims further confirmed the effectiveness of the GCI coding scheme. The main reason is that in general, people tend to think a wide variety of things that can be associated with a country and this variety will be narrowed down when people are asked about a specific perspective of a country, such as its products and tourism. Therefore, it is both logical and practical to apply the same coding scheme to both GCI and TDI verbatims.

6.3.2. Consistency checking of the coding

Once the coding was finished, it was necessary to make sure that codes were consistent across samples and categories. Pivot tables sorted by different categories were created in Excel to more easily spot inconsistencies. The final coding was examined and agreed upon by all three coders.

6.4. Outline of Data Analysis

There are many possible ways to analyze the data given that (i) the survey was conducted in two countries (Canada and South Korea); (ii) there are five target countries (the U.S., Japan, Australia, South Korea and Canada); (iii) three types of images were evaluated (GCI, PCI and TDI); and (iv) respondents include both consumers and students. However, only analysis that will fulfill the main objectives of this study will be conducted and interpreted.

As discussed in Chapter 5, this study has three main objectives. To summarize, the first objective is to draw image schemata maps; the second is to compare the Canadian consumer sample and the South Korea consumer sample; and the third is to examine the validity of student samples as substitutes for real consumer samples. Note that the purpose of including the Canadian student sample in this study is to examine whether student samples can be proper substitutes for consumer samples; therefore, the Canadian student sample will not be discussed except in (i) Chapter 8 where the response rate of all the three samples are addressed; (ii) Chapter 9 where the image schemata maps of all samples for each target country will be drawn; and (iii) Chapter 11 which is dedicated to the comparison of the Canadian student sample and the Canadian real consumer sample.

To fulfill the three main objectives, the chapters that follow are structured as follows:

Chapter 7 will give an overview of all the responses. The views of all respondents will be combined to give the overall GCI, PCI and TDI of each common target country (the U.S., Japan and Australia).

Given the possibility that each sample may respond to the GCI, PCI and TDI of the same target country differently, it is necessary to examine the individual view of each sample. To fulfill this purpose, the following chapters are structured as below:

Chapter 8 will discuss the familiarity of respondents with the target countries, their products and tourism.

In Chapter 9, image schemata maps will be drawn and discussed. Bar charts are also used in order to present more clearly the strength of associations in the image maps.

Chapter 10 will focus on the comparison of the Canadian consumer sample and the South Korean consumer sample by Chi-square tests and visual-aid figures. Enabled by the three level coding schemes, further comparison of the two samples will be conducted by breaking down each major category into subcategories.

Chapter 11 will focus on the comparison of the Canadian consumer sample and the Canadian student sample in order to examine the validity of student samples as proper substitutes for consumer samples in qualitative studies. Chi-square tests will be conducted to compare whether these two samples are similar or different and whether the results can be generalized to the whole population.

The last chapter in this thesis (12) will summarize the study's limitations and benefits. Suggestions for future research will also be given.

Chapter 7 Overall GCI, PCI and TDI for the U.S., Japan and Australia

The objective of this chapter is to give an overall view of all responses. Since there were three samples responding to the three common target countries, it is both possible and of great interest to summarize these views to obtain the overall GCI, PCI and TDI of each country. The benefit is that by comparing the response to each image category of each country, the similarities and differences can be identified. The comparable strength and weaknesses of each country can also be revealed.

To fulfill this purpose, Chi-square tests are first conducted to examine whether each image category of each country is perceived similarly or differently by all respondents. Second, the GCI, PCI and TDI of each target country are discussed individually to reveal their individual strengths and weaknesses. To identify specific strengths of each country, within the discussion of each image, categories that account for more than ten per cent of mentions will be further broken down into subcategories and types. The top mentioned brand names for the PCI and TDI of each target country are also presented.

7.1. Overall GCI, PCI and TDI for the U.S., Japan and Australia

Tables 3 and 4 summarize the Chi-square analysis of the comparison among the GCI, TDI and PCI of the U.S., Japan and Australia. The results show that the responses

for the GCI, TDI and PCI of these three target countries are significantly different in the distributions across all major categories.

For the GCI, mentions for the U.S. concentrate in country characteristics, people and culture, political and military; mentions for Japan concentrate in industry, people and culture; mentions of natural environment dominate responses for Australia.

Table 3: Chi-square Test of the GCI and TDI of the U.S., Japan and Australia

		Built Environment	Country Characteristics	Industry	Natural Environment	People, Country, Culture	Political & Military	Sports & Leisure	Total
GCI	U.S.	8	25	10	6	23	22	6	100
	Japan	6	17	27	6	31	7	6	100
	Australia	3	11	5	51	20	2	8	100
	<i>Chi-square = 115.69, degree of freedom = 12, significant at p = 0.05</i>								
TDI	U.S.	22	46	4	18	3	1	6	100
	Japan	15	41	8	14	8	2	12	100
	Australia	11	32	2	43	2	1	9	100
	<i>Chi-square = 37.22, degree of freedom = 12, significant at p = 0.05</i>								

For TDI, mentions for the U.S. and Japan concentrate on their country characteristics; while mentions for Australia, again, concentrate in natural environment.

For PCI, the most mentioned industry sectors are clothing and transportation for the U.S., entertainment and leisure and transportation for Japan, and food, clothing and entertainment for Australia.

Table 4: Chi-square Test of the PCI of the U.S., Japan and Australia

PCI	Natural Resources	Food/Beverage/Tobacco	Clothing and Related	Household and Related	Entertainment and Leisure	Transportation	IT and Other Advanced Technology	Other Industrial Goods and Product Attributes	Service and Miscellaneous	Agriculture	Total
U.S.	1	10	18	5	7	24	13	2	18	2	100
Japan	1	4	2	2	49	30	9	1	1	1	100
Australia	3	22	18	11	19	3	1	1	9	13	100
<i>Chi-square = 138.78, degree of freedom = 18, significant at p = 0.05</i>											

In the following section, pie charts will be used to clearly show the structure of image components; therefore, strength and weakness will be revealed straightforwardly.

The categories which have higher percentages are viewed to be the strength of the country's images and vice versa. Here, strength does not necessarily mean that the country is viewed positively on these components; rather, a strong component means that when people think of the image of the target country, this component has more power on the overall opinion. Therefore, a country that has a positive view on the strongest

components will enjoy an overall positive image. Although in a different form, these pie charts comply with the image schemata maps since higher percentage indicates strong association between a country's images and their components in both cases.

7.2. GCI

Figure 6 clearly reveals the strongest and weakest components of the general image of the United States, Japan and Australia. The biggest components of the U.S. are "country character", "people, culture, country", and "political and military". For Japan, "people, culture, country", "industry", and "country characteristics" are the major components. In the case of Australia, the strongest component is "natural environment", followed by "people, culture, country", and "country characteristics".

It seems like "people, culture, country" and "country characteristics" are the common things that Canadian and South Korean consumers link to when they think of these three common target countries in general.

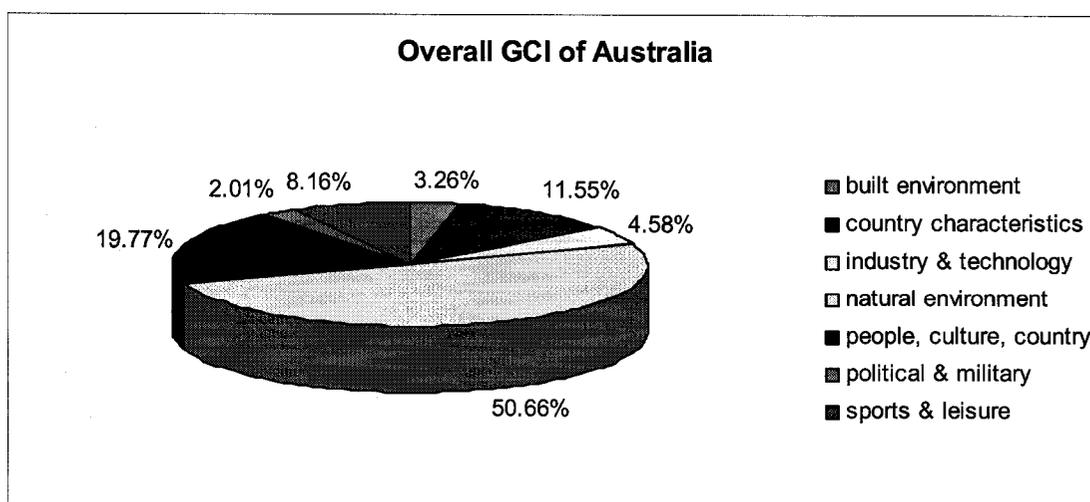
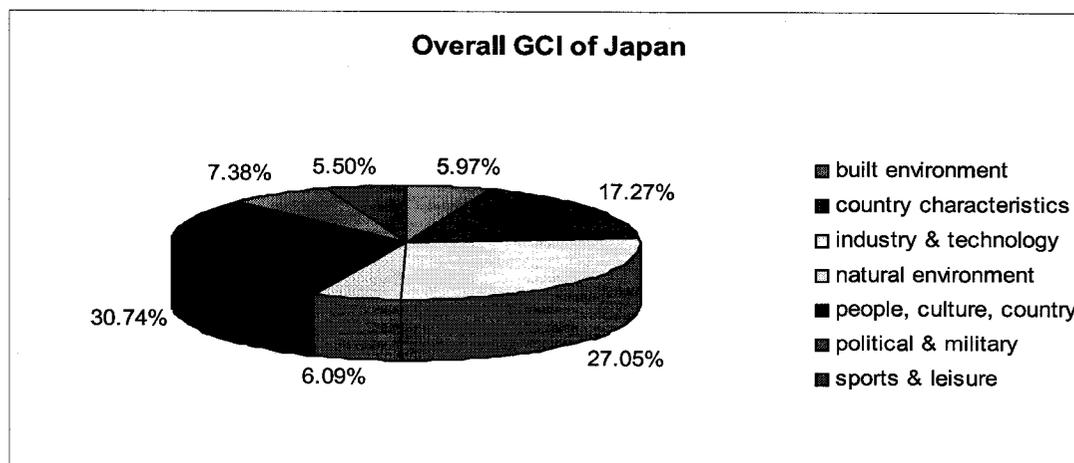
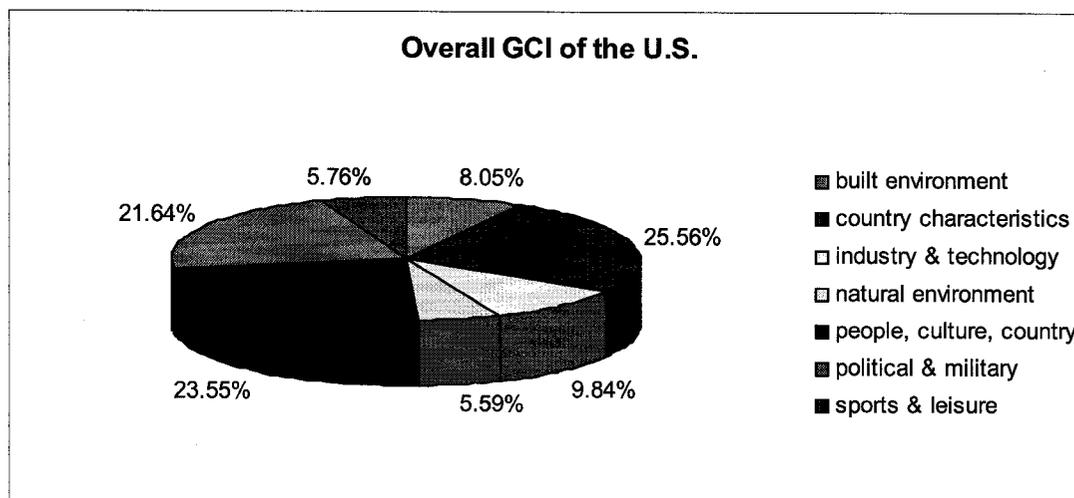
Other than the above mentioned two categories, "political and military" were mentioned most for the United States; "industry" was mentioned most for Japan; and "natural environment" was mentioned most for Australia.

The indication is that for the U.S., its political stands and military actions may have a serious impact on how the country is generally perceived by other people. For example, the American government's policy towards the Middle East, and recent wars in Afghanistan and Iraq may all have a great influence on the general image of the U.S., either positively or negatively depending on the perceiver.

Japan has been defined as an industrial country. The international reputation of its products has significantly raised the country's overall image. In order to maintain its strength as a manufacturer, Japan needs to continuously keep high standard on its product quality.

Australia is perceived as a country of beautiful nature. The advantage is that the overall image of Australia is not likely to be negative given nature accounts for more than half of its GCI mentions. The disadvantage is that people tend to ignore other features of Australia, such as its industry and its efforts in international affairs.

Figure 6: GCI Comparison across Target Countries – All Samples



To view more in detail the strength and weaknesses of each country, major components of the GCI of each country will be broken down into subcategories. The top mentions will be presented to identify the exact strength and weaknesses. The most mentioned brands for PCI and TDI will also be presented in order to identify the most salient brands in people's minds when they think of the U.S., Japan, Australia, South Korea and Canada.

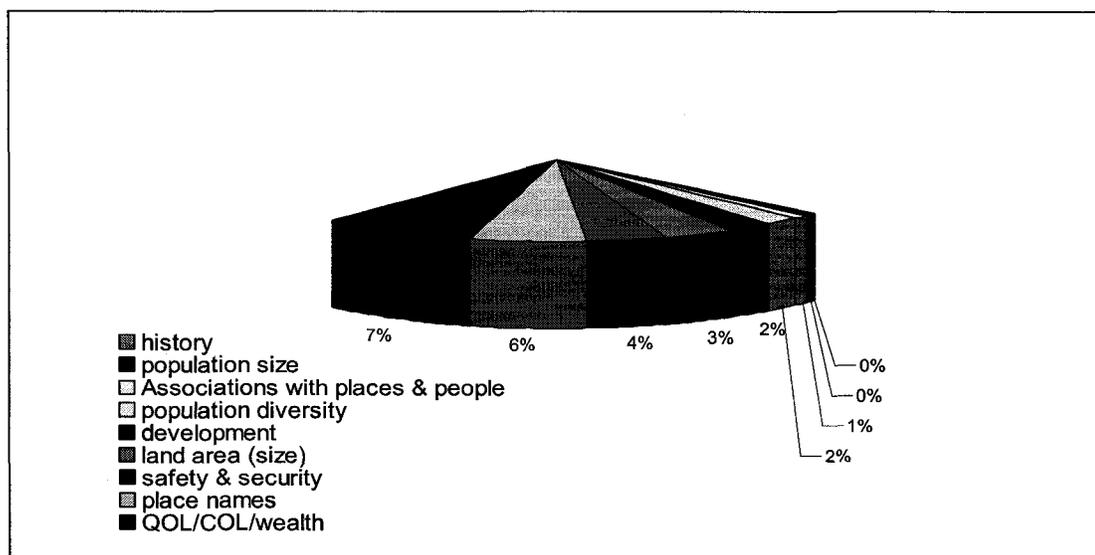
7.2.1. GCI of the U.S

The three major categories that are associated with the general image of the U.S. are "country characteristics", "people, culture, country", and "political & military". These categories will be further broken down as percentages of the overall mentions about the GCI of the United States.

7.2.1.1. Country characteristics

The top three mentions within country characteristics are quality of life (QOL)/cost of living (COL)/wealth, place names and safety with each representing 7%, 6% and 4% of the mentions about the U.S. general image (Figure 7).

Figure 7: Country Characteristics of the U.S. – All Samples

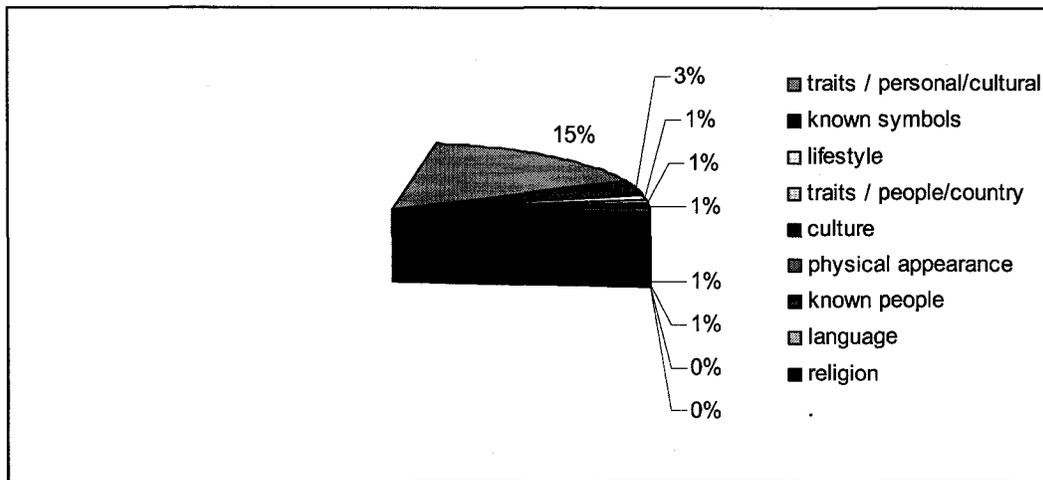


The strongest associations with QOL are wealth, income gaps between rich and poor, and high quality of life. New York, Las Vegas and Florida are the top three mentioned places. An overwhelming majority of respondents associates guns and unsafe feelings with U.S. security. The overall country characteristics of the U.S. can be summarized as: rich but unsafe.

7.2.1.2. People, culture, country

A vast majority link the U.S. people and culture with personalities and traits (Figure 8). Unfortunately, of all the traits and personality mentioned, 49.6 per cent are negative; 31.4 per cent are positive; 17.9 per cent of the mentions can be either positive or negative depending on the perceiver.

Figure 8: People, Culture, Country of the U.S. – All Samples

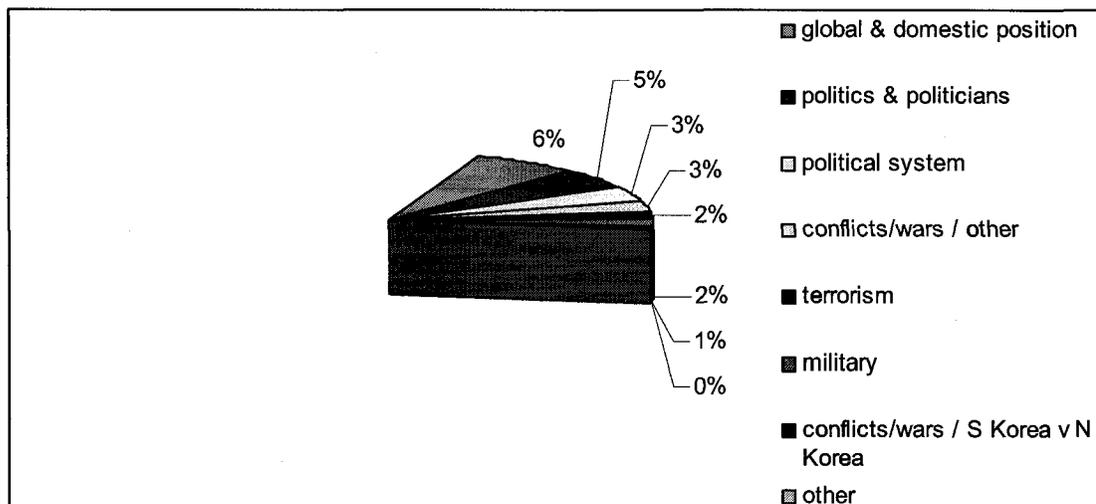


The indication is that the American people and culture are perceived negatively by both their neighbor country and an oriental country with which they have close relationships. The most mentioned negative traits or personalities are “arrogant” and “bully”. Since traits and personalities account for 15 per cent of the overall general image, the U.S. people will have to change their behavior in order to largely improve the overall image of their country.

7.2.1.3. Political and Military

The top three mentions within “political and military” for the U.S. are its global and domestic position, and politics and politicians, with each representing 6% and 5% of the overall mentions about the U.S. general image (Figure 9). The mentioning of U.S.’s power dominates in the subcategory of global & domestic position. President Bush was overwhelmingly mentioned (76 times in total) within politics and politicians (90 mentions in total) at about 85 per cent.

Figure 9: Political and Military of the U.S. – All Samples



It is not surprising that many people associate the U.S. with its power. However, it is interesting to see that in both Canadian consumer's and South Korean consumer's minds, Present Bush seems to represent the American politics.

7.2.2. GCI of Japan

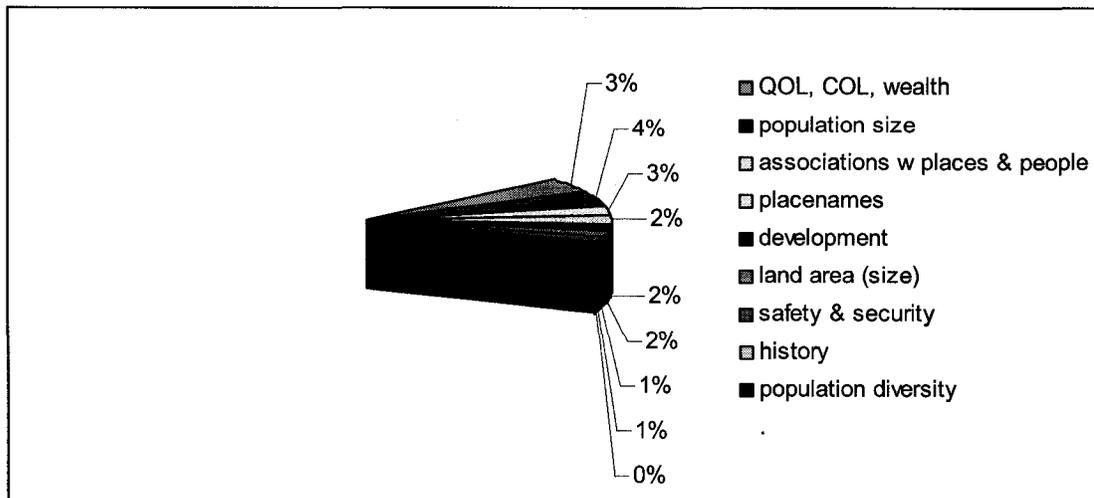
The three major categories that are associated with the general image of Japan are "country characteristics", "people, culture, country", and "industry". The first two categories will be further broken down as percentages of the overall mentions about the GCI of Japan; and since the PCI of Japan will be discussed later in this chapter, the Japanese industry will not be discussed in this section.

7.2.2.1. Country characteristics

The largest three subcategories mentioned for Japan are QOL, population size and associations with place & people; each represents 3%, 4% and 3% of the overall general

image of Japan (Figure 10). Within these three subcategories, people tend to associate Japan more with its high living costs, high density of population, and the fact that Japan is an island.

Figure 10: Country Characteristics of Japan – All Samples



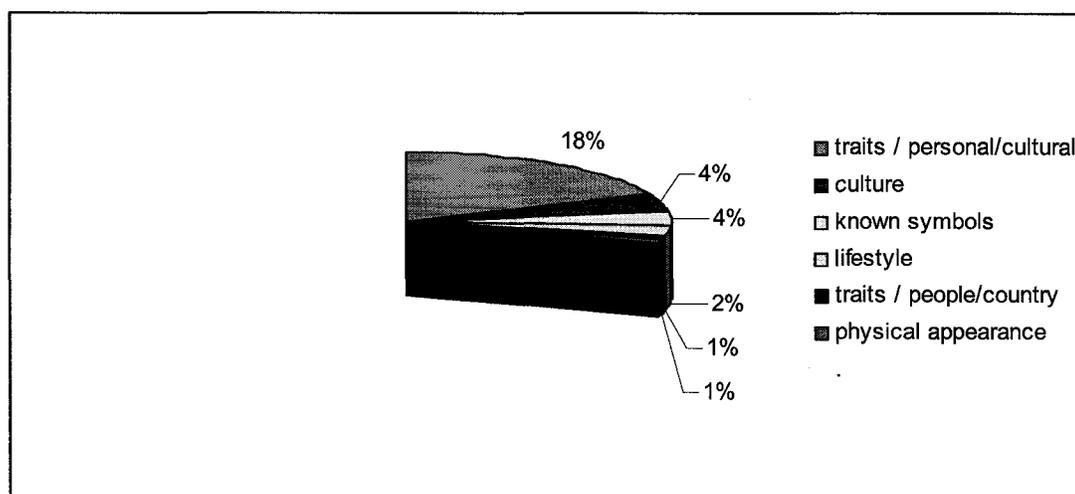
7.2.2.2. People, culture, country

As in most of the cases, Japanese people and their culture are most likely to be associated with personalities and traits. Together, these traits and personalities account for 18 per cent of the overall general image of Japan (Figure 11). Positive traits represent 56 per cent of all traits mentioned; negative traits represent 22 per cent; and there are 19 per cent that can be both positive and negative depending on the perceiver.

Most mentioned positive traits and personalities are: polite, friendly, hardworking and intelligent. Most mentioned negative traits and personalities are hostile and bad. As

discussed earlier, Canadians hold more positive views about the Japanese people while South Koreans hold more negative views about them.

Figure 11: People, Culture, Country of Japan – All Samples



7.2.3. GCI of Australia

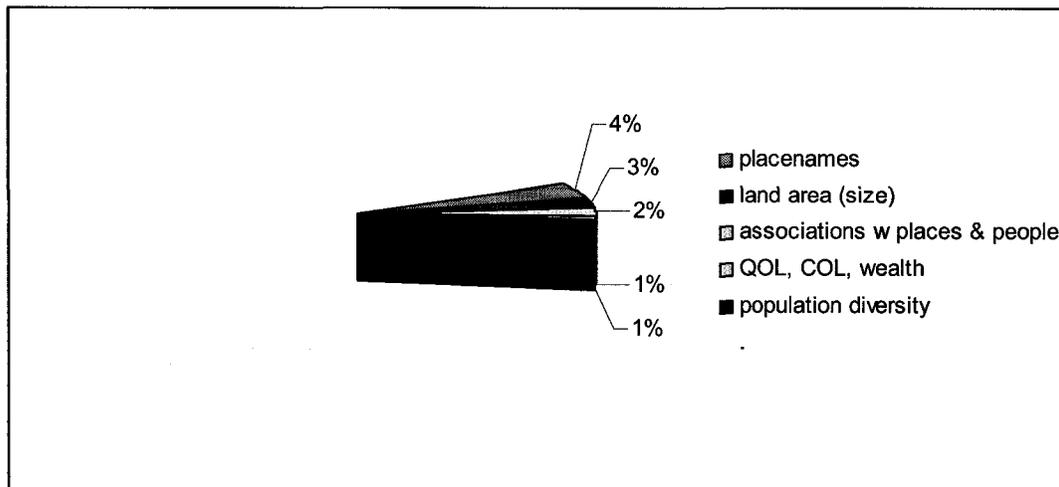
The three major categories that are associated with the general image of Australia are “country characteristics”, “people, culture, country”, and “natural environment”. These categories will be further broken down as percentages of the overall mentions about the GCI of Australia.

7.2.3.1. Country characteristics

The top three subcategories within country characteristics for Australia are: place names, land area and associations with place & people (Figure 12). Not surprisingly, Sydney is the most mentioned place. Four per cent of the overall general image of

Australia is associated with its big country size. The respondents also mentioned that Australia is an island or a country far away.

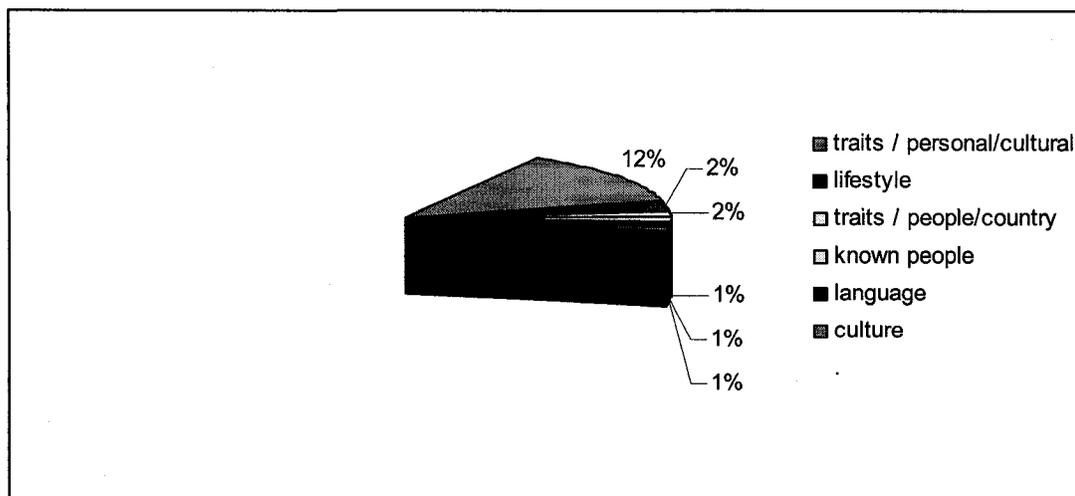
Figure 12: Country Characteristics of Australia – All Samples



7.2.3.2. People, culture, country

Australian people and their culture are, again, most likely being associated with personalities and traits. Together, these traits and personalities account for 12 per cent of the overall general image of Australia (Figure 13). Positive traits represent 85 per cent of all traits mentioned; while negative traits represent 5 per cent. The most mentioned positive traits and personalities are: outgoing, happy and friendly.

Figure 13: People, Culture, Country of Australia – All Samples

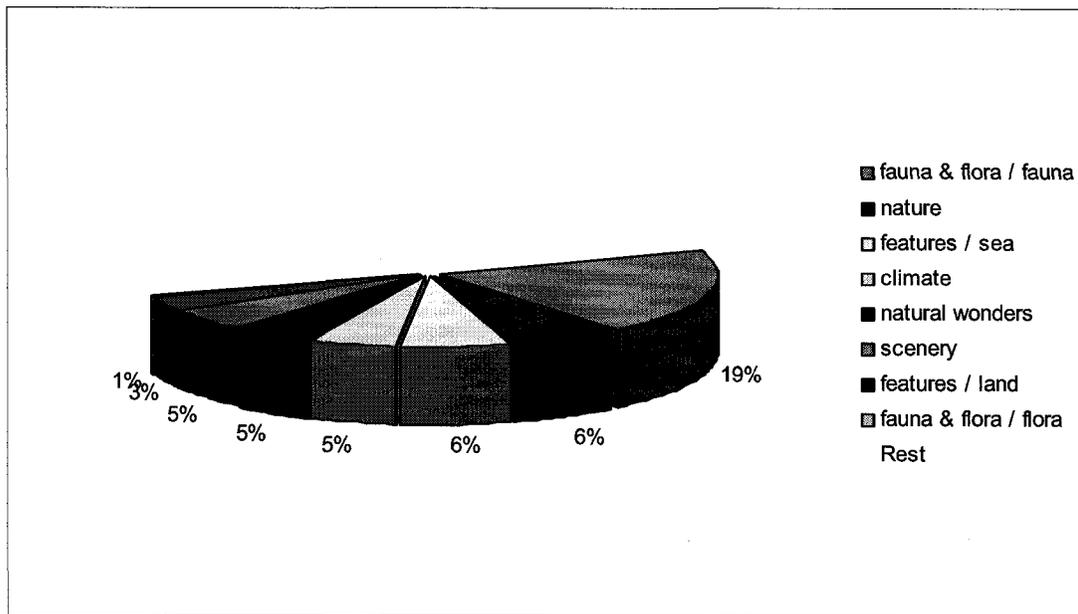


7.2.3.3. Natural environment

Natural environment accounts for more than 50 per cent of all the mentions about the general image of Australia. The breaking-down of natural environment reveals that animals represent most of the mentions. Other subcategories such as climate, nature, sea are almost associated with Australia by the same strength (Figure 14).

The most mentioned animals are kangaroos and koala bears. These two types of animals account for about 85 per cent of all the mentions about animals. The top mention for natural wonders is the Outback, followed by the Great Barrier Reef and the Ayers Rock. For climate, Australia is perceived as a hot country.

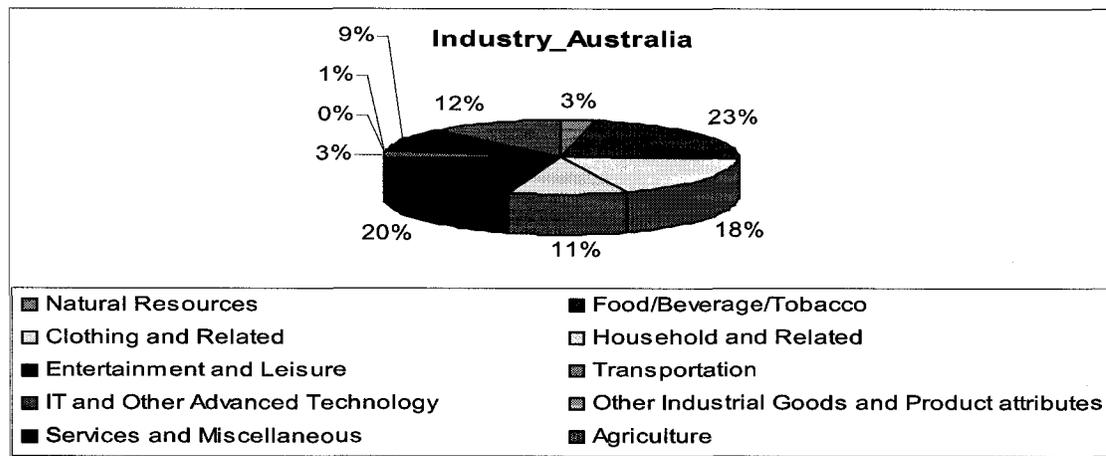
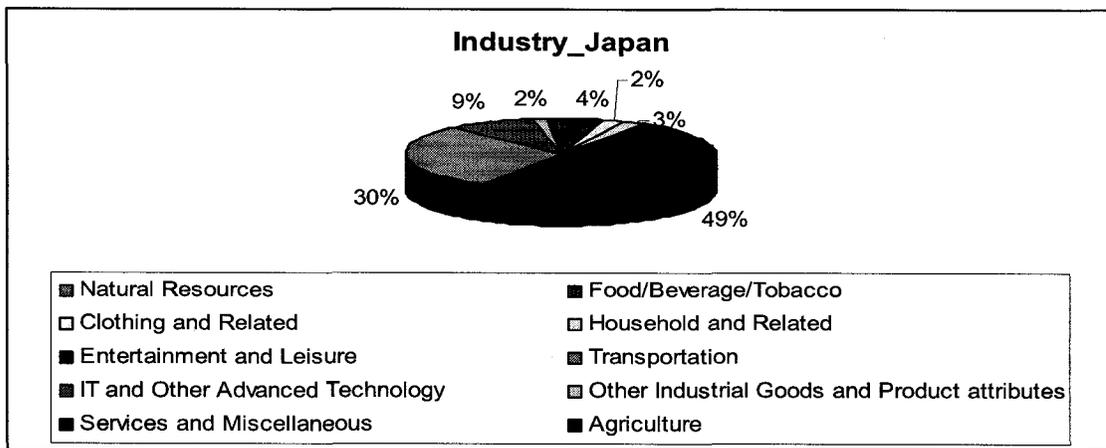
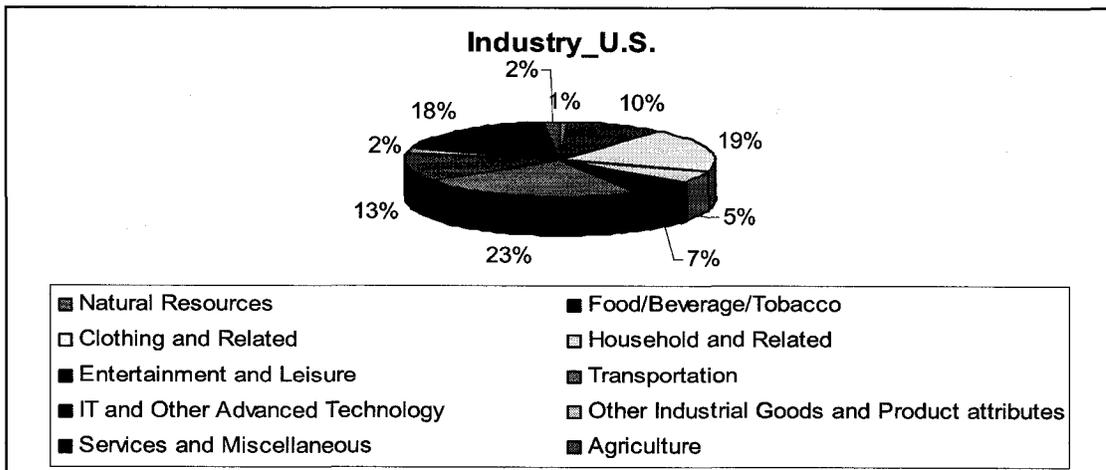
Figure 14: Natural Environment of Australia – All Samples



7.3. PCI

Figure 15 clearly reveals the strongest and weakest industries associated with the United States, Japan and Australia. The U.S. and Australia are perceived to have a balanced industry structure. In contrast, the Japanese industry is highly concentrated in transportation and entertainment/leisure equipment.

Figure 15: PCI Comparison across Target Countries



7.3.1. PCI of the U.S.

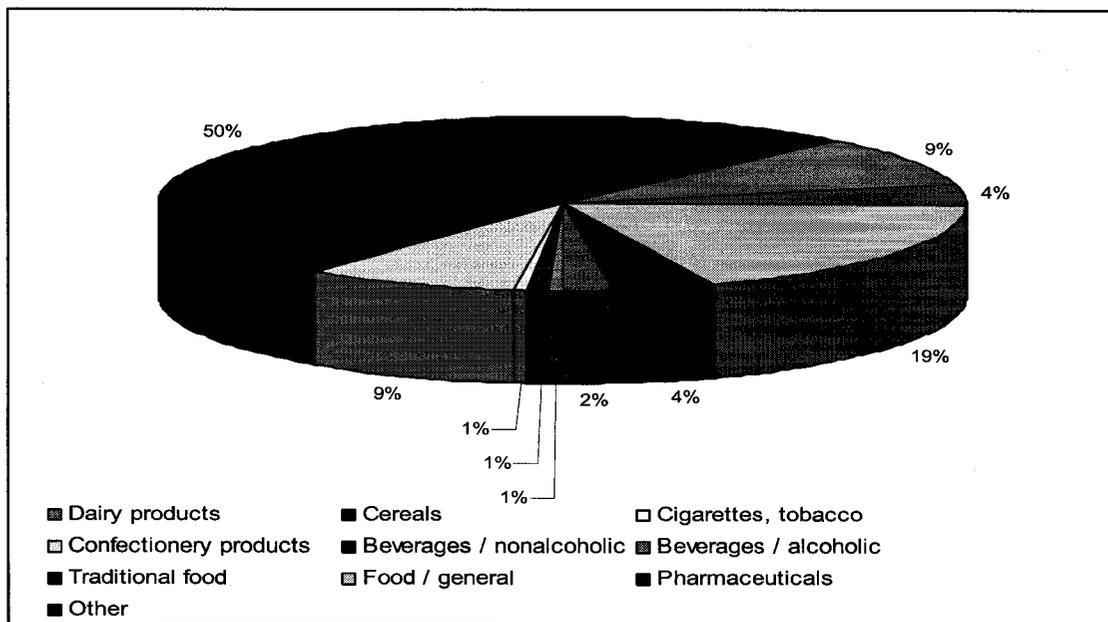
The mentions of the American industries are split out quite evenly among all sectors. The five major industries are: food and beverage, clothing, transportation, IT and other advanced technology, service and miscellaneous. These five industries will be broken down by product categories to examine products that are mostly associated with the United States.

7.3.1.1. Food/beverage/tobacco

Sixty per cent of the respondents mentioned beverages under the food and beverage industry, among which 50 per cent mentions are non-alcoholic and the other 10 per cent are alcoholic drinks. Nineteen per cent of the mentions are just food in general; and 10 per cent mentions are confectionery products (Figure 16).

The top brand mentioned under the food and beverage industry is Coca-Cola which accounts for 91 per cent of all non-alcoholic beverages mentioned and 47 per cent of all food and beverages mentioned. There are another eleven brands mentioned under food and beverage industry, such as Budweiser, Kraft and Dove chocolate, but they together only account for ten per cent of the overall mentions. This indicates the overwhelming dominance of the Coca-Cola brand in people's mind about the U.S. food and beverage industry.

Figure 16: Food and Beverage Industry of the U.S. – All Samples

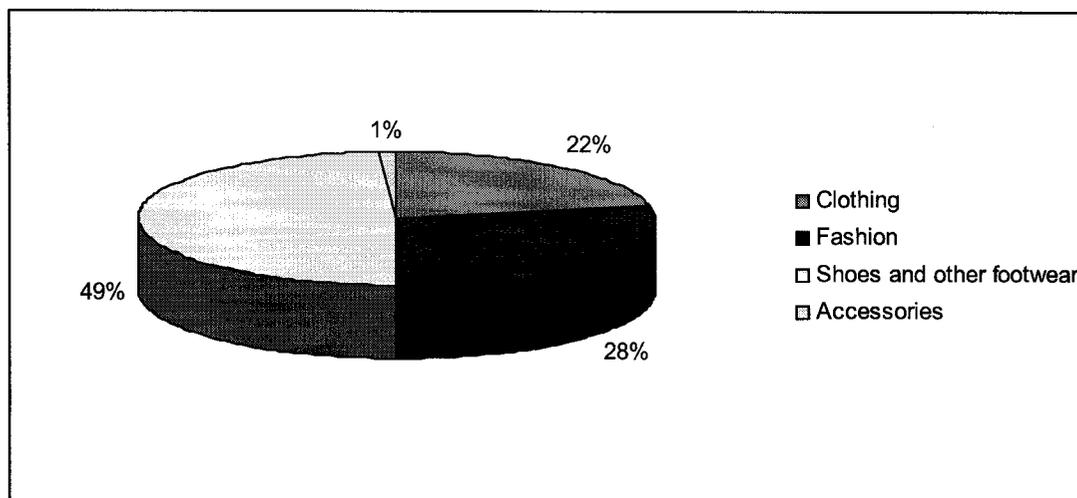


7.3.1.2. Clothing and Related

The perceived American clothing industry can be mainly divided into three product categories: clothing in general, fashion and footwear. Footwear takes almost half of the mentions for the clothing industry. The other half is evenly divided by general mentions of clothing and fashion brand names (Figure 17).

For footwear, 97 per cent of the mentions are brand names. The top brand name mentioned for footwear is Nike which accounts for 85 per cent of all footwear brands mentioned.

Figure 17: Clothing Industry of the U.S. – All Samples



For fashion products, a variety of brand names were mentioned. The top three brands are Levis, Gap and Tommy Hilfiger. These three brands account for about 55 per cent of all fashion brands mentioned.

7.3.1.3. Transportation

Ninety-four per cent of the mentions for transportation fall into the category of passenger vehicles and a bit less than four per cent are aircraft. About fifty-nine per cent of the overall mentions are brand names. GM and Ford are the most mentioned brands which together account for 90 per cent of all vehicle brands mentioned.

7.3.1.4. IT and other advanced technology

Computers and software are the biggest product category within the IT and other advanced technology industry. Computers account for 42.5 per cent of the overall mention and software accounts for 47 per cent. Within computer, 67 per cent respondents

mentioned brands. Among all brands mentioned, IBM represents 47 per cent; Apple takes 29 per cent; and Intel takes 15 per cent. Of all software mentioned, 97 per cent of the responses are Microsoft.

7.3.1.5. Service and miscellaneous

Restaurants and retail stores are the most mentioned subcategories within the service industry. Restaurants account for 42 per cent of all mentions within this category and retailers account for 17 per cent. McDonald's is mentioned most, taking 70 per cent of all restaurants mentioned. Wal-Mart is mentioned most within retails, accounting for 62 per cent of all retail mentions.

7.3.2. PCI of Japan

Japanese industries are dominated by transportation and entertainment/leisure manufacturing. These two industries account for almost 80 per cent of the overall mentions about Japanese products. These two industries will be broken down by product categories to examine products that are mostly associated with Japan.

7.3.2.1. Entertainment and leisure

Entertainment and leisure equipment accounts for 49 per cent of all products mention for Japan, followed by transportation at 30 per cent. 90 per cent of entertainment and leisure equipment falls into home electronics. Of all home electronics mentioned, 74 per cent are brand names. Sony is the most mentioned brand accounting for 75 per cent of

all brands mentioned. Panasonic is the second biggest brand accounting for eight per cent, followed by Canon and Nikon each accounting for three per cent.

7.3.2.2. Transportation

Ninety-seven per cent of the mentions for transportation are passenger cars for Japan. Seventy-two per cent of the cars mentioned are brand names. The top three mentioned car brands are Toyota, Honda and Mitsubishi, each accounting for 51%, 34% and 7% of all brands mentioned.

7.3.3. PCI of Australia

Similar to the U.S. industries, the industries of Australia are split out quite evenly. The six major industries are: food and beverage, clothing, household, entertainment and leisure, service and miscellaneous, and agriculture.

Australian industries are perceived to be more consumer-oriented. Consumer industries such as food and beverage, clothing, household, entertainment and leisure, services, and agriculture are all associated with Australia with similar strength.

Seventy-three per cent of the mentions for food and beverage industry are beers and wines. Beers and wines take almost half-half of alcoholic beverages mentioned. The only mentioned brand name for beer is Foster's and the two brands mentioned for wines are Yellowtail and Wolf Blass.

The Australian clothing industry is evenly spread out in all product categories. There are more sports clothes especially surf wear mentioned for Australia. The most mentioned fashion brand is Billabong. The most mentioned footwear is Ugg boots.

Toiletries represent 80 per cent of the household products mentioned. Hair products, especially shampoo is the most mentioned toiletry. Interestingly, Aussie, an American brand is the most mentioned brand for all toiletries. Although the name of this brand can easily cause confusion, the fact that many respondents associated it with Australia indicates that the company achieved its objective of associating its brand image with that country.

Very different from Japan, sports equipment and culture products are most mentioned as entertainment and leisure products. For sports equipment mentioned, surfing equipment dominates. Boomerang and didgeridoo are the most mentioned culture products.

Livestock accounts for 52 per cent of all agriculture mentions, followed by agriculture in general at 19 per cent and fruits and vegetables at 11 per cent.

7.3.4. Top brands of PCI

Table 5 summarizes the most mentioned brands for each target country including South Korea and Canada. The patterns of the brands mentioned again reflect the characteristics of each country's industry. The brands mentioned for the U.S. and

Australia cover a variety of product categories while the brands mentioned for Japan and South Korea are concentrated in electronics and cars.

Very few brand names were mentioned for Canada. Of the overall 14 brands mentioned for Canada, eight were Roots and two were Air Canada. Note that only the South Korean consumers responded to Canada, it can be said that Canadian products are unknown to South Korean consumers.

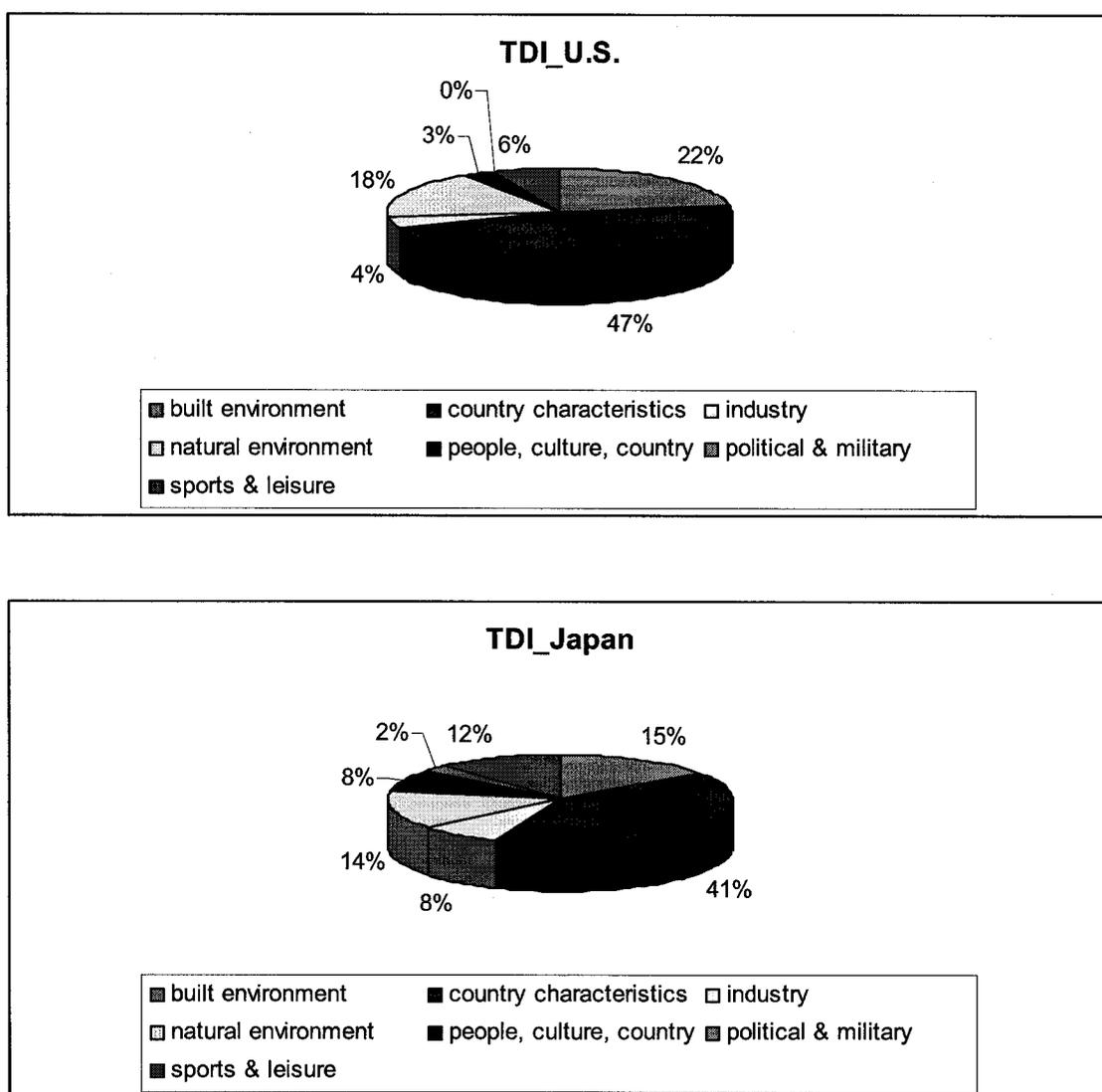
Table 5: PCI Top Brands – All Target Countries

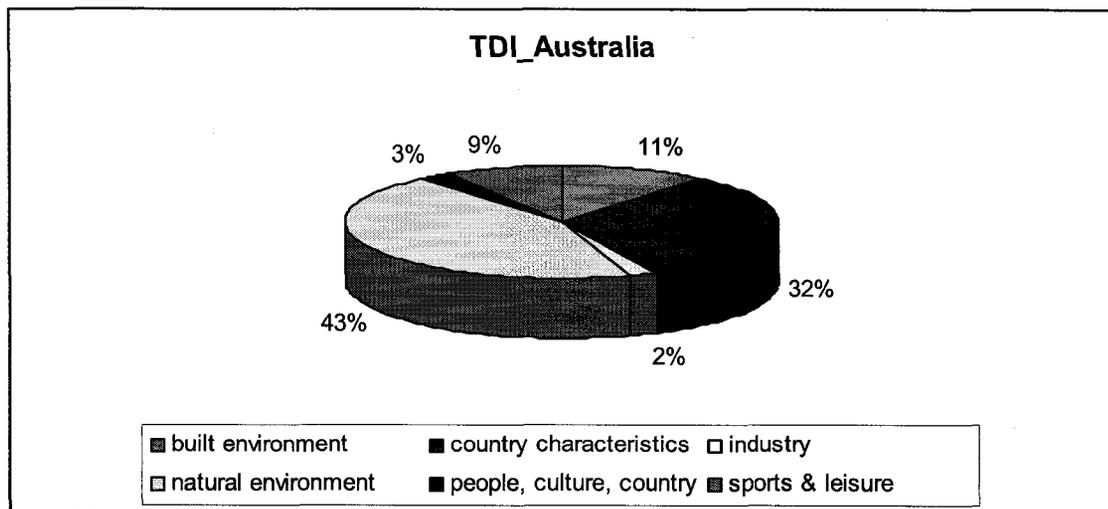
U.S.				
Rank	Brands	Frequencies	% of Brand Mentions	% of All PCI Mentions
1	Nike	114	11.66%	7.61%
2	GM	91	9.30%	6.07%
3	Microsoft	88	9.00%	5.87%
4	McDonald's	80	8.18%	5.34%
5	Ford	79	8.08%	5.27%
6	Coca Cola	67	6.85%	4.47%
7	GE	31	3.17%	2.07%
7	Disney	31	3.17%	2.07%
9	Wal-Mart	29	2.97%	1.94%
10	IBM	26	2.66%	1.74%
	Total	636	65.03%	42.46%
Japan				
Rank	Brands	Frequencies	% of Brand Mentions	% of All PCI Mentions
1	Sony	379	40.58%	24.42%
2	Toyota	163	17.45%	10.50%
3	Honda	108	11.56%	6.96%
4	Panasonic	41	4.39%	2.64%
5	Toshiba	28	3.00%	1.80%
6	Mitsubishi	20	2.14%	1.29%
7	Sanyo	18	1.93%	1.16%
8	Nissan	17	1.82%	1.10%
9	Canon	15	1.61%	0.97%
9	Nikon	15	1.61%	0.97%
	Total	804	86.08%	51.80%
Australia				
Rank	Brands	Frequencies	% of Brand Mentions	% of All PCI Mentions
1	Foster's	33	24.44%	5.49%
2	Billabong	11	8.15%	1.83%
2	Aussie	11	8.15%	1.83%
2	Outback	11	8.15%	1.83%
5	Kangaroo	8	5.93%	1.33%
	Total	74	54.81%	12.31%
S. Korea				
Rank	Brands	Frequencies	% of Brand Mentions	% of All PCI Mentions
1	Hyundai	61	24.40%	10.30%
2	Kia	54	21.60%	9.12%
3	Samsung	50	20.00%	8.45%
4	LG	33	13.20%	5.57%
5	Daewoo	23	9.20%	3.89%
	Total	221	88.40%	37.33%
Canada				
Rank	Brands	Frequencies	% of Brand Mentions	% of All PCI Mentions
1	Roots	8	57.14%	21.05%
2	Air Canada	2	14.29%	5.26%
	Total	10	71.43%	26.32%

7.4. TDI

Factors which are most strongly associated with the TDI of all target countries are: natural environment, built environment, country characteristics, sports and leisure (Figure 18). As discussed earlier, country characteristics mainly refer to places that people can visit, mostly cities and states.

Figure 18: TDI Comparison across Target countries





Comparing the mentions for the U.S., Japan and Australia, place names and built environment are associated most strongly with the U.S. and Japan; while natural environment and place names are associated most strongly with Australia. The difference shows the strength of each country in attracting tourists and it is very important for marketers to understand it. For example, Australia has beautiful nature and unique animals; marketers promoting Australia should take this advantage and project a beautiful nature image to target nature loving tourists.

Since natural environment, built environment, place names, sports and leisure account for most of the associations with all three countries, these four categories will be broken down in the following sections in order to reveal the exact attractions of each country.

7.4.1. TDI of the U.S.

For the U.S., famous landmarks accounts for 95 per cent of the mentions about its built environment. Although there are a variety of landmarks mentioned for the U.S., the most mentioned landmarks are: theme parks, Statue of Liberty, White House and Mount Rushmore with each taking 65%, 13%, 4.5% and 3.5% of all landmarks mentioned. Disneyland accounts for 86 per cent of all mentions of theme parks, therefore taking 56 per cent of overall famous landmarks mentioned by all respondents.

Place names account for 44 per cent of all TDI verbatims for the United States. A variety of places including cities, city districts and states were mentioned. Table 6 lists the top ten places mentioned. New York City is obviously associated with the U.S. most strongly. Las Vegas also has a strong association due to its gambling resorts.

Table 6: Top Ten Places Mentioned for the U.S.

New York City	32.57%
Las Vegas	19.03%
Los Angeles	10.65%
Florida	8.52%
California	5.48%
Hawaii	5.33%
San Francisco	4.26%
Miami	2.59%
Washington DC	1.98%
Alaska	1.07%
Other	8.52%
Total	100%

In the case of natural environment, natural wonders accounts for 66 per cent of all mentions, followed by beach/sea at 16.5 per cent. Of all the natural wonders mentioned, the Grand Canyon accounts for 74 per cent, followed by Niagara Falls at 9.5 per cent.

The top three mentions under sports and leisure are: gambling, shopping and golfing. These three leisure activities account for more than half of all mentions for sports and leisure. The indication is that the biggest attractions of the U.S. for leisure travelers are the gambling and shopping facilities it provides and its excellent leisure sports facilities.

7.4.2. TDI of Japan

The TDI of Japan is most strongly associated with place names. All place names mentioned account for 37 per cent of overall mentions. As shown in Table 7, the most mentioned place is Tokyo, followed by Osaka, Hokkaido and Sapporo, Kyoto and Okinawa. These four places represent 87 per cent of all places mentioned.

Table 7: Top Five Places Mentioned for Japan

Tokyo	56.75%
Osaka	13.73%
Hokkaido/Sapporo	8.92%
Kyoto	4.81%
Okinawa	2.75%

Tokyo, Osaka and Kyoto are major cities in Japan and they represent different features of the country. Tokyo is the capital city, seat of the Japanese government and the Imperial family of Japan. It is considered one of the world's major global cities and a

megacity. Osaka is the second largest city in Japan and historically the commercial center of the country. It is considered to be the nation's kitchen; the unique traditional Japanese food seems to be a great tourism attraction. Kyoto is formerly the imperial capital; therefore it is a great city to experience traditional Japanese culture.

Hokkaido is famous for its beautiful natural environment. There are many national parks. Cool summer and icy winter make it a big attraction for summer holidays and snow sports in winter. Okinawa is known for its military relationships with the United States. The disputed land issue of the Senkaku Islands may also have contributed to people's familiarity with it.

Built environment accounts for 15 per cent of the overall TDI mentions. The urban features of Japanese cities seem to be most strongly associated with the built environment in Japan, followed by temples/shrines, famous shopping areas and theme parks. Disneyland is the most mentioned theme park in Japan and for shopping areas, Akihabara (the famous electronic street), Harajuku (center of youth fashion), Ginza and Shinjuku (commercial and administrative center of Tokyo) are mentioned most often.

Forty-five per cent of the respondents associate the natural environment of Japan with Mount Fuji; and another 19 per cent links Japan to mountains. It seems like Japan is perceived as mountainous geographically.

For sports and leisure options in Japan, 61 per cent respondents mentioned hot spa and 12 per cent mentioned shopping. Japan has rich hot springs, but it tends to be more

attractive to oriental people since hot spa is a traditional and popular leisure activity for them.

7.4.3. TDI of Australia

As mentioned above, the TDI of Australia is most strongly associated with its natural environment, followed by place names, built environment, sports and leisure.

Natural environment accounts for 44 per cent of all TDI mentions for Australia. The top three associations with Australia's natural environment are: natural wonders, ocean and beaches, and animals, with each account for 36.5%, 24% and 16.5% of all mentions. The Outback, Great Barrier Reef, and Ayers Rock together account for 95 per cent of all natural wonders mentioned. The most mentioned animals are not surprisingly kangaroos and koala bears.

The most famous man-made feature of Australia is probably the Sydney Opera House. This is also reflected in the responses. Seventy-seven per cent of all built environment mentioned for Australia are the Opera House. Sydney harbor and the Olympic Dome are also associated with Australia, although much less strongly.

Sydney is the most mentioned city for Australia, followed by Melbourne and Gold Coast. Sydney accounts for 69 per cent of all places mentioned and 20 per cent of all TDI responses for Australia. Compared to the U.S. and Japan, much fewer city names were mentioned. This reflects the fact that Australia is less urbanized.

The most mentioned sports and activities for Australia are surfing and diving. Outbacking and safari are also often mentioned. This indicates that Australia has very unique attractions to travelers and marketers should definitely take advantage of it to differentiate Australia from other popular tourist destinations in order to attract more visits.

7.4.4. Top brands of TDI

Table 8 summarizes the top TDI brands mentioned for each target country. Cities and states are the most mentioned TDI brands for the U.S. and Japan. Natural wonders and animals are most mentioned for Australia. For South Korea, the capital city Seoul is most mentioned.

Interestingly, the Demilitarized Zone and the border between North Korea and South Korea are also mentioned by some respondents indicating that the unique political and military situation on the Korean peninsular is also an attraction.

It is also interesting to notice that the top mentioned TDI brands for Canada are mostly cities, with Niagara Falls and Quebec¹ as exceptions. Recalling that more than 35 per cent of the associations with the TDI of Canada are natural environment, it is surprising to see no natural brands such as moose and beaver were mentioned. This again, reflects the unfamiliarity of the South Korean consumers with Canada.

¹ Note: Although “Quebec” may also refer to “Quebec City”, the coders agreed that the respondents were most likely referring to the province.

Table 8: TDI Top Brands – All Target Countries

U.S.				
Rank	Brands	Frequencies	% of Brand Mentions	% of All TDI Mentions
1	New York	218	17.93%	14.46%
2	Disneyland	178	14.64%	11.80%
3	Las Vegas	130	10.69%	8.62%
3	Grand Canyon	130	10.69%	8.62%
5	Los Angeles	70	5.76%	4.64%
6	Florida	60	4.93%	3.98%
7	Statue of Liberty	41	3.37%	2.72%
8	California	37	3.04%	2.45%
8	Hollywood	37	3.04%	2.45%
10	Hawaii	35	2.88%	2.32%
	Total	936	76.97%	62.07%
Japan				
Rank	Brands	Frequencies	% of Brand Mentions	% of All TDI Mentions
1	Tokyo	252	38.07%	21.23%
2	Mt. Fuji	74	11.18%	6.23%
3	Osaka	60	9.06%	5.05%
4	Hokkaido	26	3.93%	2.19%
5	Kyoto	21	3.17%	1.77%
6	Disneyland	19	2.87%	1.60%
7	Sapporo	16	2.42%	1.35%
8	Batbu	14	2.11%	1.18%
9	Hiroshima	12	1.81%	1.01%
	Total	494	74.62%	41.62%
Australia				
Rank	Brands	Frequencies	% of Brand Mentions	% of All TDI Mentions
1	Sydney	236	34.71%	21.26%
2	Outback	84	12.35%	7.57%
3	Sydney Opera House	75	11.03%	6.76%
4	Great Barrier Reef	59	8.68%	5.32%
5	Melbourne	45	6.62%	4.05%
6	Kangaroo	38	5.59%	3.42%
7	Ayers Rock	29	4.26%	2.61%
8	Gold Coast	22	3.24%	1.98%
9	Koala bear	16	2.35%	1.44%
10	Canberra	12	1.76%	1.08%
	Total	616	90.59%	55.50%
S. Korea				
Rank	Brands	Frequencies	% of Brand Mentions	% of All TDI Mentions
1	Seoul	69	72.63%	22.04%
2	Demilitarized Zone	5	5.26%	1.60%
3	Border with N. Korea	4	4.21%	1.28%
4	Pusan	3	3.16%	0.96%
	Total	81	85.26%	25.88%
Canada				
Rank	Brands	Frequencies	% of Brand Mentions	% of All PCI Mentions
1	Vancouver	44	27.33%	22.56%
2	Niagara Falls	41	25.47%	21.03%
3	Toronto	20	12.42%	10.26%
4	Montreal	11	6.83%	5.64%
4	Quebec	11	6.83%	5.64%
5	Ottawa	10	6.21%	5.13%
	Total	137	85.09%	70.26%

7.5. Summary

This chapter has provided an overall view of all responses and integrated these views to form an international view about the U.S., Japan and Australia. However, since the respondents were from two different countries which have different distances to the target countries geographically and culturally, it is possible that these respondents may actually have different views about the target countries. Even for the two Canadian samples, one was from consumers and one from students. Therefore, it is then necessary to examine the individual opinions of each sample. The following chapters will focus on the discussions and comparisons of responses from each sample starting with their familiarity levels about the target countries.

Chapter 8 Familiarity

This chapter discusses the familiarity of respondents with the target countries. There are several possible ways to measure familiarity. The selection of methods and the rationale will be discussed in the overview, and then the actual analysis will follow.

8.1. Overview

Some methods to analyze familiarity are: response rate versus non-response rate, accurate mentions versus wrong mentions, and specific mentions versus generic mentions.

8.1.1. Response rate

Response rate is the most used method to measure familiarity based on the logic that the lack of knowledge about a target will result in a low response rate. It can be argued that there are other factors that contribute to low response rate, such as limited response time and low interest in participation. However, there is no means whereby researchers are able to distinguish respondents with low participation interest from those with low knowledge. Given the fact that the respondents were all willing to conduct the survey, it can be assumed that they had both enough time and interest to provide as much information as they could in most circumstances.

Moreover, compared to Likert or bipolar adjective scales, open-ended questions are more reliable in reflecting familiarity. A respondent can still mark the scale even if he or she does not know anything about the target, while in the case of verbatims, the

possibility that the respondent writes a right word about a target without knowing anything about it is low. Therefore, response rate is an effective way to measure familiarity, especially in qualitative studies.

8.1.2. Accurate versus wrong mentions

The comparison of accurate mentions versus wrong mentions is also a good way to measure familiarity since people who are more familiar with the target are also more likely to give right mentions and vice versa. It has been agreed by all coders that misspellings are not counted as wrong mentions because misspellings may result from poor language skills of the respondents rather than a lack of knowledge.

There are essentially two types of respondent inaccuracies: (i) respondents associated wrong products to a country; for example, Kia was associated with Japan rather than South Korea; (ii) respondents associated objects that obviously do not belong to the target country; for example, New Zealand was associated with Australia. It has been agreed by all coders that the first situation is a true wrong mention because it is very likely that the respondents who associated Kia with Japan thought that Kia was a Japanese brand. The second situation is not considered to be a wrong mention because the mention of objects belonging to other countries or the mention of another country may simply be the association that the respondents have in mind with the target country. For example, when a respondent wrote “New Zealand” for Australia, obviously he or she knew that New Zealand was not Australia, rather, New Zealand was strongly associated with Australia in his/her mind.

The wrong mention rate is very low. Of the 14,817 mentions provided by all respondents, fewer than 30 were identified by the coders as being wrong. Since the wrong mention rate is only 0.02%, the comparison of accurate responses versus wrong responses will not be conducted in this study.

8.1.3. Specific versus generic mentions

In the case of PCI, specific mentions refer to brand names and generic mentions refer to product or industry categories. For example, “Toyota” is a brand name and “car” is a generic mention. In the cases of GCI and TDI, specific mentions refer to all matters that are unique to or generally perceived as symbols of a target country. For example, “New York” is considered to be a specific mention and “big cities” is considered to be generic. In a sense, unique objects and national symbols can be viewed as brands of countries. Taking “New York” as an example, just as Coca Cola differentiates itself from other beverages, New York differentiates itself from other cities. And just as Coca Cola partially represents the American beverage industry, New York also partially represents the United States and its urban environment.

The comparison of specific mentions versus generic answers is also considered as a measurement of familiarity based on the argument that people who have more knowledge of a target tend to give specific rather than vague answers. Taking PCI verbatims as an example, people who are familiar with Japanese products may give specific brand names such as “Toyota”, “Honda” and “Sony”. People who are not familiar with Japanese

products may not know any brand but know that Japan is famous for its electronics and cars, so they may write “electronics” and “cars”.

The counterargument is that generic mentions do not result from unfamiliarity but rather from summarizing effects. To explain, if people are very familiar with a country’s products, they may have many brand names in mind for a certain product. So instead of writing all brand names, they write product categories. For example, a person who is very familiar with Japanese products may think of many brand names such as “Sony”, “Panasonic”, “Toyota” and “Honda”. Since only three blanks were given in the questionnaire for the PCI of Japan, he or she may summarize “Sony” and “Panasonic” into “electronics” and “Toyota” and “Honda” into “cars”.

Both arguments are logical. And it is possible to deduce whether generic mentions result from unfamiliarity or summarizing effects. One approach is, to view brand versus generic mentions together with response rates. For example, if the response rate for a target country is high but there are more generic products mentioned than brands, it can be said that summarizing effects have played a role in summing up brands into the product category to which they belong. The following sections of this chapter will discuss the response rates and brand versus generic mentions in detail.

Another approach is to simply consider the number of well-known brands in the market from a particular country in a category. For example, there are many more famous brands of electronics from Japan than from Australia or Canada. Together, these two

approaches make it possible to distinguish between unfamiliarity and summarizing effects.

8.2. Response Rate

In total, the maximum possible number of responses was 32,652 (sample size 907 * 4 target countries * 3 image categories * 3 blanks for each image category), and respondents provided 14,817 mentions overall.

In this section, an overview of all response rates will be first discussed and then the individual response rates of each sample for each image category for each target country will be detailed. A Chi-square test will be performed in order to compare whether the Canadian consumers have different levels of familiarity with the U.S., Japan and Australia than the South Korean consumers. The comparison between the Canadian consumers and the Canadian students will be discussed in Chapter 11.

8.2.1. Overview

Table 9 compiles the response rates of each sample for each image category for each target country. Table 10 summarizes the average responses (max 3 for each image category for each target country) provided by each sample.

The response rates will be compared from three different perspectives. First, the response rates will be compared by sample in order to identify which sample has the highest level of familiarity with the target countries. Second, the response rates will be compared by the three image categories in order to examine whether the respondents

have more ease in associating the target countries with their products or their tourism resources or characteristics. Finally, the response rates will be compared by target country in order to see which target country is most known to all respondents.

8.2.1.1. Response rates by sample

The overall response rates of the Canadian student sample, the Canadian consumer sample and the South Korean consumer sample are 61.09%, 45.57% and 33.91%. The Canadian student sample has the highest response rates for all image categories for all target countries. The South Korean consumer sample has the lowest response rates for all image categories for all target countries except that its response rate for the TDI of Japan is higher than the counterpart of the Canadian consumer sample (41.36% versus 37.68%).

Table 9: Response Rates – All Samples (in percentage)

	Canadian Consumers	S. Korean Consumers	Canadian Students	Overall by Country
a. GCI				
Max Responses Each	921	1047	753	2721
U.S.	66.23	53.58	81.94	65.71
Japan	59.93	54.25	78.09	62.77
Australia	61.56	42.98	76.49	58.54
S. Korea	35.83	N/A	54.18	44.09
Canada	N/A	37.82	N/A	37.82
Average by Sample	55.89	47.16	72.68	N/A
b. PCI				
Max Responses Each	921	1047	753	2721
U.S.	56.79	39.83	74.10	55.05
Japan	53.31	47.66	74.63	57.04
Australia	29.32	3.15	39.58	22.09
S. Korea	29.10	N/A	43.03	35.36
Canada	N/A	3.63	N/A	3.63
Average by Sample	42.13	23.57	57.84	N/A
c. TDI				
Max Responses Each	921	1047	753	2721
U.S.	58.31	40.31	72.91	55.42
Japan	37.68	41.36	54.05	43.62
Australia	44.41	23.78	60.03	40.79
S. Korea	14.33	N/A	24.04	18.70
Canada	N/A	18.62	N/A	18.62
Average by Sample	38.68	31.02	52.76	N/A

Table 10: Mean Number of Responses – All Samples

	Canadian Consumers	S. Korean Consumers	Canadian Students	Overall by Country
Sample Size	307	349	251	907
a. GCI				
U.S.	1.99	1.61	2.46	2.02
Japan	1.80	1.63	2.34	1.92
Australia	1.85	1.29	2.29	1.81
S. Korea	1.07	N/A	1.63	1.35
Canada	N/A	1.13	N/A	1.13
Average by Sample	1.68	1.42	2.18	N/A
b. PCI				
U.S.	1.70	1.19	2.22	1.70
Japan	1.60	1.43	2.24	1.76
Australia	0.88	0.09	1.19	0.72
S. Korea	0.87	N/A	1.29	1.08
Canada	N/A	0.11	N/A	0.11
Average by Sample	1.26	0.71	1.74	N/A
c. TDI				
U.S.	1.75	1.21	2.19	1.72
Japan	1.13	1.24	1.62	1.33
Australia	1.33	0.71	1.80	1.28
S. Korea	0.43	N/A	0.72	0.58
Canada	N/A	0.56	N/A	0.56
Average by Sample	1.16	0.93	1.58	N/A

Table 11 summarizes the response rates of each sample for each target country (including mentions for all image categories for each country). It is clear that compared to other countries, the U.S. is most known to both Canadian consumers and students while Japan is most known to the South Korean consumers. The results reflect the role

that geographic distance plays. Geographic adjacency facilitates not only trade, but also tourist activities. Therefore, it is not surprising that respondents are more familiar with their neighbors than other countries. In general, respondents are most familiar with their neighbor countries.

Table 11: Response Rates by Sample

	U.S.	Japan	Australia	S. Korea	Canada	Overall
Canadian Consumers	60.44%	50.31%	45.10%	26.42%	N/A	45.57%
S. Korean Consumers	44.57%	47.76%	23.30%	N/A	20.03%	33.91%
Canadian Students	76.32%	68.92%	58.70%	40.42%	N/A	61.09%

8.2.1.2. Response rates by image category

The overall response rates for GCI, PCI and TDI are 57.18%, 39.33% and 39.63%. In general, respondents provided the most mentions for the GCI category. Possible explanations can be: (i) the GCI category allows respondents to provide any association they have in mind with the target countries, while the PCI and TDI category confine their answers within their knowledge about the products and tourism resources or characteristics of the countries; (ii) the open-ended part of the questionnaire is arranged in the order of GCI, PCI and TDI; therefore it is possible that the respondents filled less in the PCI and TDI categories because they were not patient enough to complete the survey. However, since respondents gave even slightly more mentions for TDI than PCI, the second explanation is likely to be invalid, that is, the sequence of the image categories in the questionnaires is unlikely to have had a large impact on the amount of mentions for each category.

8.2.1.3. Response rate by target country

Table 12 shows that among the three common target countries for all samples (U.S., Japan and Australia), the U.S. has the highest overall response rate at 58.73%. The tourism resources of the U.S. are also the most known to all respondents in general. However, in terms of products, Japan is most known to all respondents. Table 4 clearly shows that the respondents have very balanced knowledge about the products and tourism resources of the United States. However, the respondents generally have more knowledge of the products than the tourism resources of Japan and South Korea but they have more knowledge of the tourism resources than the products of Australia and Canada.

Table 12: Response Rate by Target Country

	GCI	PCI	TDI	Overall
U.S.	65.71%	55.05%	55.42%	58.73%
Japan	62.77%	57.04%	43.62%	54.48%
Australia	58.54%	22.09%	40.79%	40.48%
S. Korea	44.09%	35.36%	18.70%	32.72%
Canada	37.82%	3.63%	18.62%	20.03%

8.2.2. Canadian consumer sample versus S. Korean consumer sample

This section is dedicated to the comparison between the Canadian consumer sample and the South Korean consumer sample. Chi-square test is conducted to compare whether the two groups of consumers are similar to or different from each other.

The two samples will be compared from three perspectives. First, the two groups of consumers will be compared by their responses to different image categories, that is, their

responses to the overall GCI, PCI and TDI. This comparison aims to identify whether the two groups have similar or different levels of familiarity with the three categories.

Second, the two groups will be compared by their responses to all three common target countries. The purpose is to find out whether the two groups of consumers have similar or different levels of familiarity with the target countries.

Third, more detailed comparison between the two groups of consumers will be conducted by showing their responses to each image category of each target country.

8.2.2.1. Comparison by image category

Table 13 shows the number of responses of each sample for the overall GCI, PCI and TDI. The Chi-square result shows that the responses of the Canadian consumers are significantly different from the responses of the South Korean consumers.

Table 13: Comparison of Responses by Image Category: Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers (in numbers)

	GCI	PCI	TDI	Total
Canadian Consumers	2059	1552	1425	5036
S. Korean Consumers	1975	987	1299	4261
<i>Chi-square = 69.18, degrees of freedom = 2, significant at p = 0.05</i>				

Table 14 shows the percentages of each sample to each image category. It is clear that the Canadian consumers had more ease in providing associations with GCI. The Canadian consumer also provided a similar amount of responses to PCI and TDI

indicating that they have similar levels of familiarity with the products and tourism of the three common target countries.

The South Korean consumers also had fewer difficulties in providing linkages to GCI. However, compared to the Canadian consumers, the South Korean consumers obviously had more difficulties in providing associations with products than tourism with the target countries.

Table 14: Comparison of Responses by Image Category: Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers (in percentages)

	GCI	PCI	TDI	Total
Canadian Consumers	41	31	28	100
S. Korean Consumers	46	23	30	100

8.2.2.2. Comparison by target country

Table 15 shows the number of responses of each sample for each common target country. The Chi-square result shows that the responses of the Canadian consumers are significantly different from the responses of the South Korean consumers.

Table 16 shows that the Canadian consumers had fewer difficulties in providing associations with the U.S. and had most difficulties in providing associations with Australia. The South Korean consumers also provided the fewest mentions for Australia but the largest number of mentions for Japan. This result again confirmed that consumers are more familiar with their neighbor countries than with other countries.

Table 15: Comparison of Responses by Target Country: Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers (in numbers)

	U.S.	Japan	Australia	Total
Canadian Consumers	1670	1390	1246	4306
S. Korean Consumers	1400	1500	732	3632
<i>Chi-square = 105.03, degrees of freedom = 2, significant at $p = 0.05$</i>				

Table 16: Comparison of Responses by Target Country: Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers (in percentages)

	U.S.	Japan	Australia	Total
Canadian Consumers	39	32	29	100
S. Korean Consumers	39	41	20	100

It is worth noting that the Canadian consumers have similar levels of familiarity with Japan and Australia given that they gave a similar number of mentions for both countries. The South Korean consumers, on the other hand, are much more familiar with Japan and U.S. than with Australia since they provided twice as many responses to Japan and U.S. than to Australia.

8.2.2.3. Comparison by image category and target country

Table 17 shows that the Canadian consumers and the South Korean consumers responded differently to the GCI of the U.S., Japan and Australia. However, although the difference is statistically significant at a $p = 0.05$ level, the difference is not very large.

Table 18 shows that the difference is mainly because the Canadian consumers provided similar amounts of responses to both Japan and Australia; while the South Korean consumers provided a notably greater amount of responses to Japan than to Australia.

Table 17: Comparison by GCI of Each Target Country: Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers (in numbers)

GCI	U.S.	Japan	Australia	Total
Canadian Consumers	610	552	567	1729
S. Korean Consumers	561	568	450	1579
<i>Chi-square = 8.96, degrees of freedom = 2, significant at p = 0.05</i>				

Table 18: Comparison by GCI of Each Target Country: Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers (in percentages)

GCI	U.S.	Japan	Australia	Total
Canadian Consumers	35	32	33	100
S. Korean Consumers	35	36	29	100

Tables 19 and 20 show that the patterns of responses of the two consumer groups for TDI are also different. Overall, the Canadian consumers have the highest level of familiarity with the U.S. and the lowest with Japan. The South Korean consumers, on the other hand, are most familiar with Japan and least with Australia. The results partially confirmed that consumers tend to be more familiar with tourism resources of their neighbor countries.

Table 19: Comparison by TDI of Each Target Country: Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers (in numbers)

TDI	U.S.	Japan	Australia	Total
Canadian Consumers	537	347	409	1293
S. Korean Consumers	422	433	249	1104
<i>Chi-square = 47.57, degrees of freedom = 2, significant at p = 0.05</i>				

Table 20: Comparison by TDI of Each Target Country: Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers (in percentages)

TDI	U.S.	Japan	Australia	Total
Canadian Consumers	41	27	32	100
S. Korean Consumers	38	39	23	100

Tables 21 and 22 reveal the biggest difference between the responses of the two consumer groups, that is, compared to the Canadian consumers, the South Korean consumers barely associated any products with Australia, which indicates their lack of knowledge and experience with goods from that country.

Table 21 and 22 also show an obvious similarity between the two consumer groups. Although the Canadian consumers provided slightly more associations to the U.S. products and the South Korean consumers provided more to the Japanese products, their overall levels of familiarity with products from the U.S. and Japan are very similar. This

similarity may explained by the world-wide availability of American and Japanese products.

Table 21: Comparison by PCI of Each Target Country: Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers (in numbers)

PCI	U.S.	Japan	Australia	Total
Canadian Consumers	523	491	270	1284
S. Korean Consumers	417	499	33	949
<i>Chi-square = 150.52, degrees of freedom = 2, significant at p = 0.05</i>				

Table 22: Comparison by PCI of Each Target Country: Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers (in percentages)

PCI	U.S.	Japan	Australia	Total
Canadian Consumers	41	38	21	100
S. Korean Consumers	44	53	3	100

8.3. Brand versus Generic Mentions

This section focuses on the discussion of brand and generic mentions. As discussed earlier, high percentages of brand mentions indicate high levels of familiarity and low percentages of brand mentions together with high response rates also indicate high levels of familiarity. Table 23 summarizes the brand versus generic mentions provided by all three samples for the GCI, PCI and TDI of all target countries

Table 23: Brand versus Generic Mentions – All Samples

GCI	Canadian Consumers			S. Korean Consumers			Canadian Students			Total by Country		
	Specific	Generic	Percentage of Brand	Specific	Generic	Percentage of Brand	Specific	Generic	Percentage of Brand	Specific	Generic	Percentage of Brand
U.S.	147	463	24.10%	174	387	31.02%	152	465	24.64%	473	1315	26.45%
Japan	91	461	16.49%	202	366	35.56%	66	522	11.22%	359	1349	21.02%
Australia	163	404	28.75%	193	257	42.89%	123	453	21.35%	479	1114	30.07%
S. Korea	20	310	6.06%	N/A	N/A	N/A	31	377	7.60%	51	687	6.91%
Canada	N/A	N/A	N/A	75	321	18.94%	N/A	N/A	N/A	75	321	18.94%
Total by Sample	421	1638	20.45%	644	1331	32.61%	372	1817	16.99%	1437	4786	23.09%
PCI	Brand	Generic	Percentage of Brand	Brand	Generic	Percentage of Brand	Brand	Generic	Percentage of Brand	Brand	Generic	Percentage of Brand
U.S.	226	297	43.21%	380	37	91.13%	372	186	66.67%	978	520	65.29%
Japan	186	305	37.88%	448	51	89.78%	300	262	53.38%	934	618	60.18%
Australia	47	223	17.41%	10	23	30.30%	78	220	26.17%	135	466	22.46%
S. Korea	95	173	35.45%	N/A	N/A	N/A	155	169	47.84%	250	342	42.23%
Canada	N/A	N/A	N/A	14	24	36.84%	N/A	N/A	N/A	14	24	36.84%
Total by Sample	554	998	35.70%	852	135	86.32%	905	837	51.95%	2311	1970	53.98%
TDI	Specific	Generic	Percentage of Brand	Specific	Generic	Percentage of Brand	Specific	Generic	Percentage of Brand	Specific	Generic	Percentage of Brand
U.S.	368	169	68.53%	410	12	97.16%	435	114	79.23%	1213	295	80.44%
Japan	156	191	44.96%	416	17	96.07%	172	235	42.26%	744	443	62.68%
Australia	228	181	55.75%	220	29	88.35%	234	218	51.77%	682	428	61.44%
S. Korea	38	94	28.79%	N/A	N/A	N/A	51	130	28.18%	89	224	28.43%
Canada	N/A	N/A	N/A	163	32	83.59%	N/A	N/A	N/A	163	32	83.59%
Total by Sample	790	635	55.44%	1209	90	93.07%	892	697	56.14%	2891	1422	67.03%

The overall responses will be discussed in the overview and the comparison between the Canadian consumer sample and the South Korean sample will follow.

8.3.1. Overview

The brands versus generic mentions will be analyzed from three perspectives. First, which image category has the most overall brand mentions will be discussed. Second, which target country has the most overall brands mentions will be identified. Last, the image categories and the target countries will be viewed together to identify which image category of which country has been provided with most brands associations.

8.3.1.1. Brand versus generic mentions by image category

Overall, respondents associated more brands with TDI and more generic mentions with GCI. The big difference of the distributions of brand versus generic mentions given by the three samples is reflected by the high Chi-square value shown in Table 24.

Table 24: Brand versus Generic Mentions for GCI, PCI and TDI (in numbers)

	GCI	PCI	TDI	Total
Brand	1437	2311	2891	6639
Generic	4786	1970	1422	8178
<i>Chi-square = 2193.63, degrees of freedom = 2, significant at p = 0.05</i>				

Table 25 shows the percentages of brand versus generic mentions for each image category. It is not surprising that most respondents provided generic mentions to GCI because when people think of a country in general, it is natural to bring out broader

impressions. For PCI, respondents provided brand and generic mentions in about equal halves. It is interesting to find that respondents associated significantly more brands to TDI. The indication is that when consumers think of a country as a travel destination, they are more likely to think specific tourism features or attractions of that country.

Table 25: Brand versus Generic Mentions for GCI, PCI and TDI (in percentages)

	GCI	PCI	TDI	Total
Brand	23	54	67	100
Generic	77	46	33	100

By looking at the brands versus generic mentions together with the response rates, we find that GCI has the highest response rate at 57.18%, but also the highest generic mention rate at 77%. As discussed above, summarizing effects may have taken place when the respondents were trying to provide associations with general images. The overall response rates for PCI and TDI are 39.33% and 39.63%, but the corresponding brand rates are 54% and 67%. Given that TDI has a similar overall response rate as PCI but has more brand mentions, it can be said that the respondents are more familiar with the tourism than the products of all target countries in general. The data collection method may explain this result. Since both consumer samples were collected during major tourism events, people who went to the events may be more interested in traveling than average consumers thus may be more familiar with the tourism resources of the target countries.

8.3.1.2.Brand versus generic mentions by target country

To view from the target countries' perspective, Table 26 shows that the brands versus generic mentions are distributed differently among the U.S., Japan, and Australia.

Table 26: Brand versus Generic Mentions by Target Country (in numbers)

	U.S.	Japan	Australia
Brand	2664	2037	1296
Generic	2130	2410	2008
<i>Chi-square = 220.43, degrees of freedom = 2, significant at p = 0.05</i>			

Table 27 shows that the respondents have had most ease in providing brands linked to the United States, but had most difficulties in providing brands to Australia. The overall response rates for the U.S., Japan and Australia are 58.73%, 54.48% and 40.48%. Since the U.S. has the highest overall response rate and the highest brand mention rate, it can be said that in general, the respondents are more familiar with the U.S. than with Japan and Australia. By the same logic, of the three target countries, Australia is the least known to the respondents.

Table 27: Brand versus Generic Mentions by Target Country (in percentages)

	U.S.	Japan	Australia
Brand	56	46	39
Generic	44	54	61
Total	100	100	100

8.3.1.3.Brand versus generic mentions by image category and target country

Table 28 reveals that the patterns of brand mentions to the target countries are similar across samples in the case of GCI and TDI. For GCI, all respondents tend to provide more generic mentions and for TDI, they tend to provide more brand mentions. The biggest difference comes from their responses to PCI. The respondents provided more brands for the U.S. and Japan, but many fewer for Australia. Given that the overall response rate for the PCI of Australia is also very low (22.09%) compared to the U.S. (55.05%) and Japan (57.04%), it can be said that Australian products are the least known to all respondents.

Table 28: Brand versus Generic Mentions by Image Category and Target Country

GCI	Brand		Generic	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
U.S.	473	26	1315	74
Japan	359	21	1349	79
Australia	479	30	1114	70
<i>Chi-square = 35.99, degrees of freedom = 2, significant at p = 0.05</i>				
PCI	Brand		Generic	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
U.S.	978	65	520	35
Japan	934	60	618	40
Australia	135	22	466	78
<i>Chi-square = 337.89, degrees of freedom = 2, significant at p = 0.05</i>				
TDI	Brand		Generic	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
U.S.	1213	80	295	20
Japan	744	63	443	37
Australia	682	61	428	39
<i>Chi-square = 144.75, degrees of freedom = 2, significant at p = 0.05</i>				

8.3.2. Comparison between the Canadian consumer sample and the S. Korean consumer sample

Table 29 shows that the South Korean consumers differ from the Canadian consumers in all their responses concerning providing brands versus generic mentions to the GCI, PCI and TDI of the U.S., Japan and Australia. However, there is one exception: the difference between the responses of the two consumer groups to the PCI of Australia is not significant.

Table 29: Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers on Brand Mentions

GCI	U.S.		Japan		Australia	
	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic
Canadian Consumer	147	463	91	461	163	404
S. Korean Consumer	174	387	202	366	193	257
Chi-square	7.03		52.75		22.05	
df = 1	Significant at p = 0.05		Significant at p = 0.05		Significant at p = 0.05	
PCI	U.S.		Japan		Australia	
	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic
Canadian Consumer	226	297	186	305	47	223
S. Korean Consumer	380	37	448	51	10	23
Chi-square	232.53		289.45		3.20	
df = 1	Significant at p = 0.05		Significant at p = 0.05		Not significant at p=0.05	
TDI	U.S.		Japan		Australia	
	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic
Canadian Consumer	368	169	156	191	228	181
S. Korean Consumer	410	12	416	17	220	29
Chi-square	126.48		257.39		75.73	
df = 1	Significant at p = 0.05		Significant at p = 0.05		Significant at p = 0.05	

Table 30 summarizes the brand versus generic mentions and the response rates accordingly in order to compare the overall familiarity of each consumer group with each image category of each target country. The results are rather clear and can be summarized into three points.

Table 30: Comparison by both Brand Mentions and Response Rates: Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers

GCI	Canadian Consumer		S. Korean Consumer	
	Brand or Generic	Response Rate (%)	Brand or Generic	Response Rate (%)
U.S.	Generic	66	Generic	54
Japan	Generic	60	Generic	54
Australia	Generic	62	Generic	43
PCI	Brand or Generic	Response Rate (%)	Brand or Generic	Response Rate (%)
U.S.	Generic	57	Brand	40
Japan	Generic	53	Brand	48
Australia	Generic	29	Generic	3
TDI	Brand or Generic	Response Rate (%)	Brand or Generic	Response Rate (%)
U.S.	Brand	58	Brand	40
Japan	Generic	38	Brand	41
Australia	Brand	44	Brand	24

First, both consumer groups provided more generic mentions for the GCI of all target countries. Since the Canadian consumers have a higher overall response rate, it can be said that in general, the Canadian consumers are more familiar with the three target countries than are the South Korean consumers.

Second, for the PCI of the U.S. and Japan, the Canadian consumers have higher response rates but provided more generic mentions; while the South Korean consumers have lower response rates but more brand mentions. Therefore, it can be concluded that summary effects had played a role for the Canadian consumers. To explain, it appears that the Canadian consumers provided more generic products for the U.S. and Japan not because they are not familiar with American or Japanese products; but because they know many brand names so that they tend to summarize several brand names into a

generic product category. Australian products are rather unknown to both consumer groups given that both Canadian consumers and South Korean consumers provided few mentions.

Third, both consumer groups mentioned more brands for the TDI of the U.S. and Australia. But since the Canadian consumers have higher response rates, it can be said that they are more familiar with the tourism of the U.S. and Australia than are the South Korean consumers.

However, for the TDI of Japan, the South Korean consumers provided both higher response rates and higher brand mentions. Therefore, it can be concluded that the South Korean consumers are more familiar with the tourism of Japan than are the Canadian consumers.

8.4. Summary

This chapter has examined the response rates and brand versus generic mentions. The results can be summarized into five points. First, respondents had more ease in providing associations with general image than PCI and TDI, and people tend to provide more generic mentions for general image and more brands to PCI and TDI. Second, the most familiar target country to the Canadian respondents is the U.S., and to the South Korean respondents it is Japan. Australia is the least known target country to all three samples. Third, U.S. is the most known country for tourism and overall, and Japan is the most known product producer. People tend to provide more brands for the U.S, and more generic mentions for Japan and Australia. Fourth, the Canadian students provided the

highest response rates for all image categories for all countries. Fifth, the South Korean consumers differ from the Canadian consumers in their responses. The South Korean consumers had more ease in associating with TDI than PCI and provided significantly more brand mentions.

Chapter 9 Image Schemata Maps

This chapter focuses on drawing and interpreting image schemata maps (referred to as ISMs from this point forward). One image schema map will be drawn for each sample for each target country; therefore there will be a total of 12 ISMs (3 samples * 3 common target countries + 2 Canadian samples for South Korea + 1 South Korean sample for Canada).

To present so much information effectively, this chapter is structured as follows: the overview explains how the ISMs were drawn and interpreted; in the following sections, ISMs of each target country will be presented by sample in the order of Canadian consumer sample, Canadian student sample and South Korean consumer sample. That is to say, the four Canadian consumer's schemata maps for the United States, Japan, Australia and South Korea will be presented first, followed by those of the Canadian student sample and those of the South Korean sample.

9.1. Overview

As discussed above, all the verbatims were coded. The PCI mentions were coded using a pre-developed scheme by Papadopoulos (2007) with minor adjustments (please refer to Appendix 1) and the GCI and TDI mentions were coded using the same coding scheme developed for this study (please refer to Appendix 2). The PCI verbatims were divided into ten main categories with each category representing a major industry. The

GCI and TDI verbatims were divided into seven categories with each category representing a major feature or characteristics.

To draw the ISMs, the percentage of each category was calculated to show the relative strength between the target country and each category associated to it. Then GCI, PCI and TDI were connected by their common categories together with the percentages.

Although GCI and TDI share the same coding scheme, it does not mean that all categories are equally associated with GCI and TDI. On the contrary, not all categories are necessarily connected to both GCI and TDI in people's minds for a particular country. For categories that are indeed associated with both GCI and TDI, the strength of the linkages may be very different. For example, natural environment such as Florida beaches may come to mind more easily than political and military issues such as the war in Iraq when people think of the U.S. as a tourism destination; while political and military issues may come to mind more easily than natural environment when people think of the U.S. in general. Therefore, in people's mental schemata networks, the strength of associations is as important as the nodes and associations themselves.

As discussed in Chapter 4, image schemata maps show the nodes and associations in people's minds for a particular target. Nodes are connected either directly or indirectly to each other by the associations. In the image maps, higher percentages of mentions represent stronger associations between nodes and vice versa. Therefore, the primary merit of the ISMs is that they can show not only the structures of people's mental schemata, but also the strength of each association.

It should be noted that the percentages used in image schemata maps are valid percentages, that is, these percentages are calculated on the base of actual mentions rather than the maximum possible mentions. In the following sections, image schemata maps will be presented.

9.2. Image Schemata Maps

In this section, ISMs are drawn and interpreted. The order is: first Canadian consumer's ISMs of the U.S., Japan, Australia and South Korea; then Canadian students' ISMs of the same countries in the same order; and at last South Korean consumer's ISMs of the U.S., Japan, Australia and Canada.

9.2.1. Canadian consumer's image schemata maps

9.2.1.1. The United States

Figure 19 shows that in the Canadian consumer's mind, the United State general image is most strongly associated with its people and culture, followed by its country characteristics, political and military features and its natural environment. For the TDI of the U.S., the Canadian consumers associate most strongly with its country characteristics, followed by built environment, natural environment and sports and leisure. The U.S. people, their culture, industry, and the U.S. politics and military actions are weakly linked to the U.S.'s image as a tourist destination.

Figure 20 shows the comparison between different levels of strength by which each category is associated with the GCI and TDI of the United States. The advantage of the

bar chart is that it shows the comparison more clearly. The disadvantage is that the bar chart cannot show the mental schemata structures people have in mind.

Figure 19: The ISM of Canadian Consumers for the U.S.

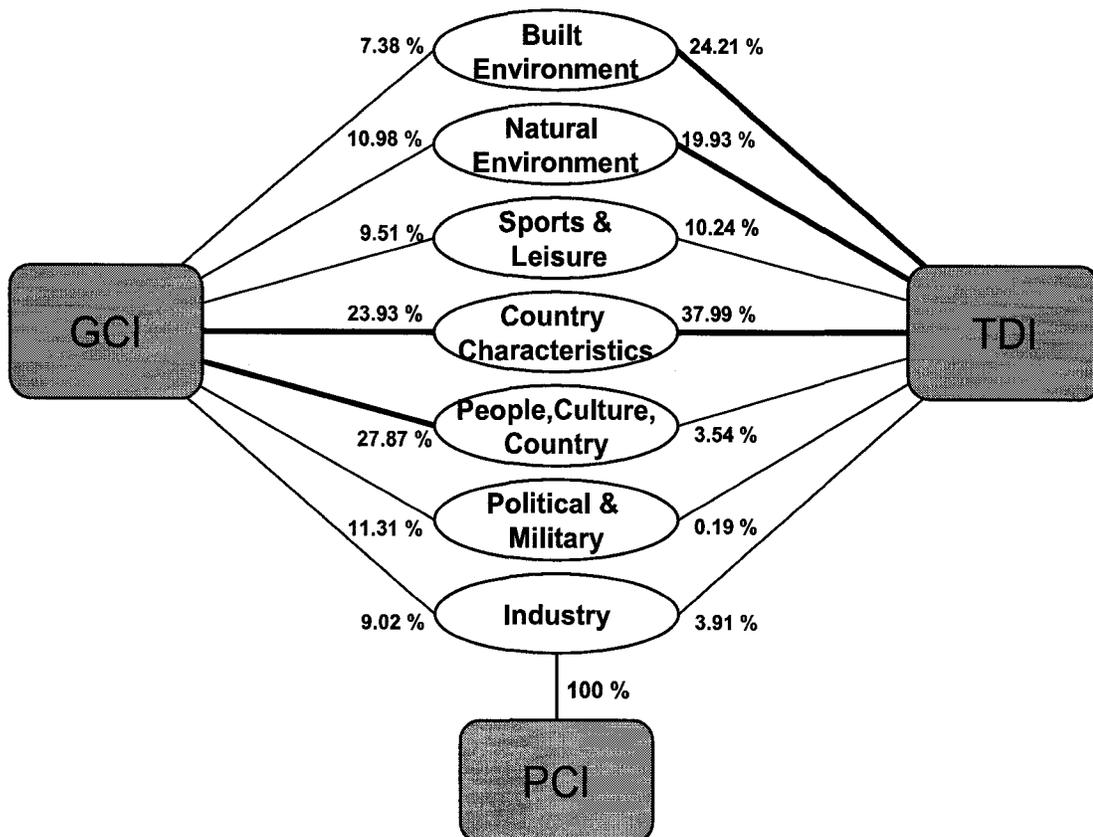
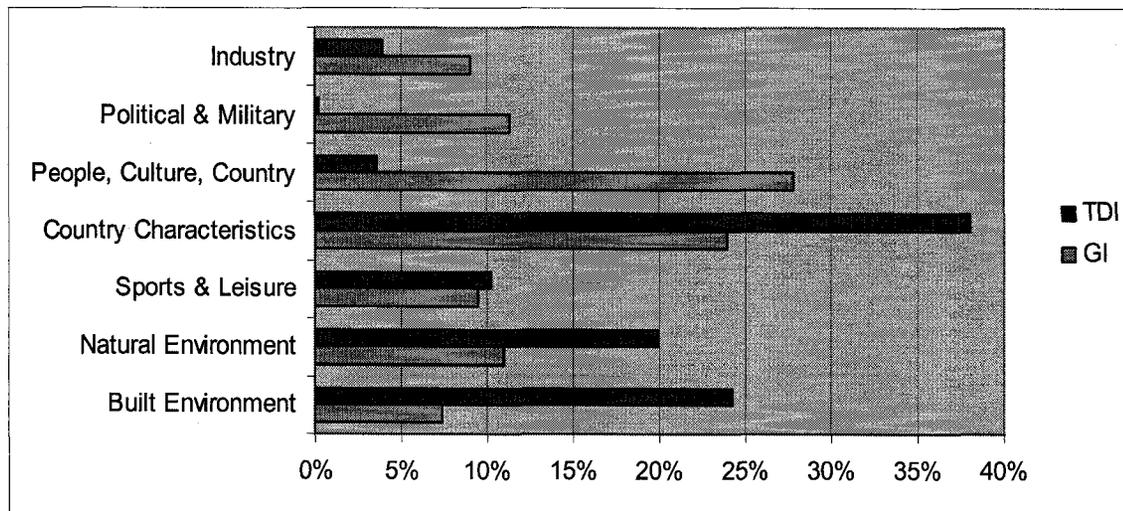


Figure 20: Strength of Associations by Canadian consumers for the U.S.



Both figures show that the GCI and TDI of the U.S. overlap through all categories. The category that has a large impact on both GCI and TDI is country characteristics. The indication is that the Canadian consumer respondents associate country characteristics of the U.S. strongly with both the GCI and TDI of the country. Therefore, the change of the overall country characteristics of the U.S. may significantly influence both its GCI and TDI.

Categories that account for higher percentages of GCI but not TDI are: people, culture, country, political and military, and industry. To interpret, Canadian consumers tend to think about these three facets of the U.S. in general but these features are less likely to come to mind when they think of the U.S. as a tourist destination. Since categories with a weak linkage to images are hard to recall, these categories are also less likely to influence the images. For example, political and military factors account for only 0.18 per cent of the TDI mentions, indicating that the political behavior of the U.S.

and its military actions are less likely to influence the Canadian consumer's view about the U.S. as a tourist destination.

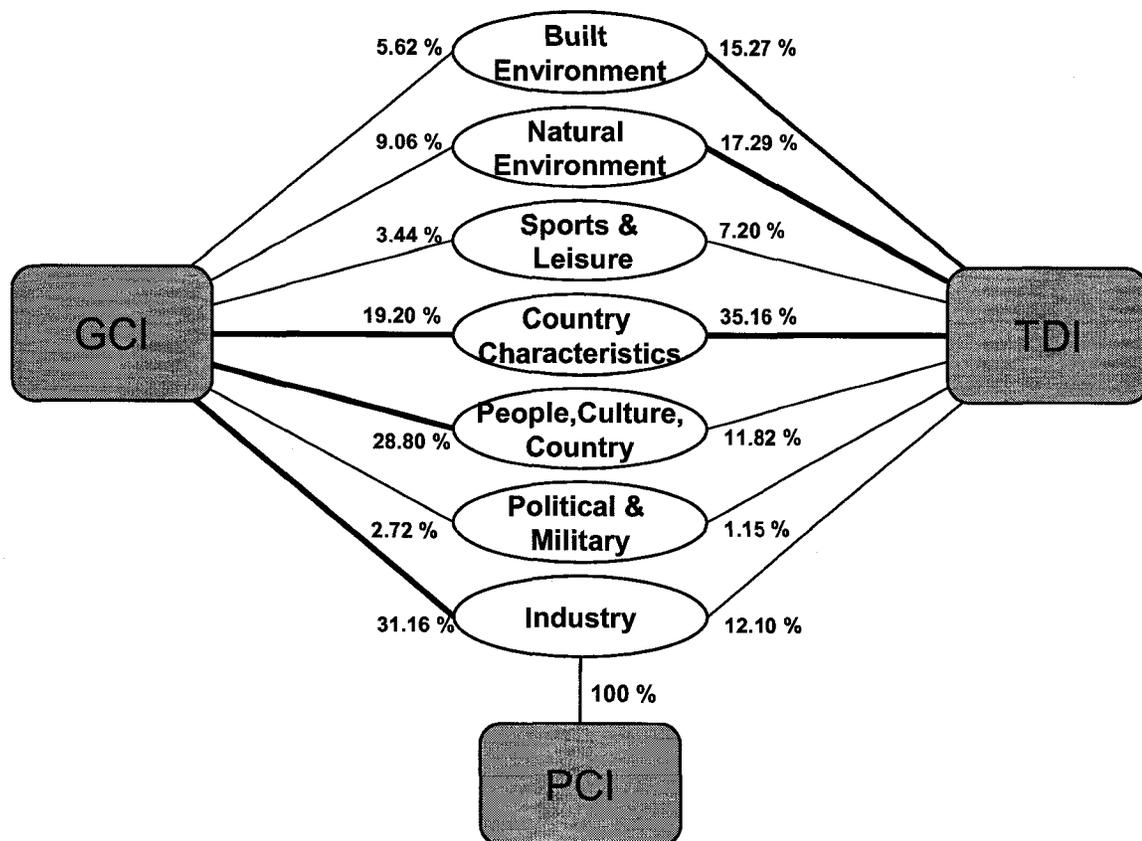
The mentions of industry contribute to almost 10 per cent of the U.S.'s GCI and a bit less than four per cent of its TDI. The indication is that the PCI of the U.S. industries influences to some extent how Canadian consumers perceive the country in general, while the country's TDI is influenced much less.

Based on the strength of associations with the American images, it can be suggested that if the U.S. wants to change how their country is perceived in general by Canadian consumers, their focus might be their people and culture, their country characteristics and their political and military stand. On the other hand, if the U.S. wants to market their tourism resources to Canadian consumers, the promotions might be focused on their country characteristics and their natural and built environment since these three factors are mostly relevant to the U.S. tourism resources in Canadian consumer's minds.

9.2.1.2.Japan

When they think of Japan in general, the Canadian consumers have comparably more balanced associations among all categories except the political and military features of Japan (Figure 21).

Figure 21: The ISM of Canadian Consumers for Japan



Industry accounts for more than 30 per cent of the GCI and even 12 per cent of the TDI. This is three times as much as the comparable mentions for the United States. This reflects the important role that the Japanese industry has played in Japan's overall image internationally. Another major category of Japan's GCI is "people, culture, country". This is also expected given that to the Canadian consumers, Japan has an oriental culture which makes the difference salient to Canadians.

Compared to GCI, the TDI of Japan is mostly associated to its country characteristics by Canadian consumers. Built environment and natural environment are also major components to its TDI.

It is worth noting that few Canadian consumers associated Japan's GCI and TDI with political and military issues. The reason might be attributed to the comparable inactivity of Japan in international politics.

Figure 22: Strength of Associations by Canadian consumers for Japan

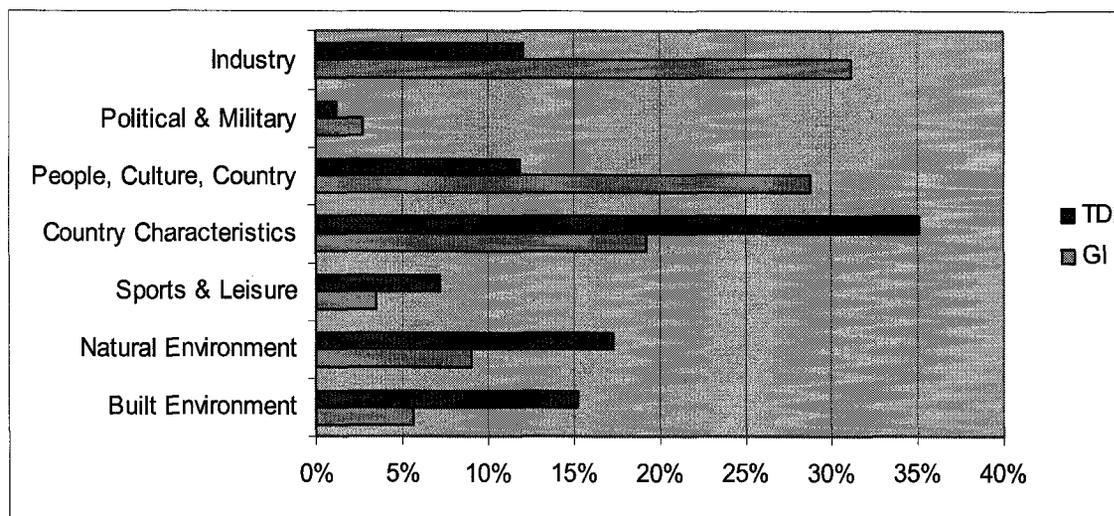


Figure 22 further confirms that in Canadian consumers' minds, Japan is strongly associated with its industry and its people and culture. In terms of tourism, country characteristics stand out mainly due to the large amount mentions of place names. The further breakdown of major categories will be discussed in the next chapter.

9.2.1.3. Australia

The Canadian consumers associate Australia's natural environment very strongly with both Australia's GCI and TDI, as shown in Figure 23. When Canadian consumers think of Australia in general, in half of the cases natural features come in mind. Canadian consumers also tend to relate Australian people and their culture to the country. Canadian

consumer's schemata about Australia's TDI resemble their schemata of its GCI, except only that they associate TDI more with its country characteristics than its people and culture.

Figure 24 clearly reveals the unique image schemata pattern in Canadian consumer's mind about Australia. In fifty percent of the cases, the GCI and TDI of Australia are associated with its beautiful and diverse natural environment. This can be both an advantage and a disadvantage to Australia. The advantage is that such natural environment contributes greatly to both its general country image and its attractiveness as a tourist destination. The disadvantage is that given that the natural environment accounts for about half of both the GCI and TDI associations, there is not much space to improve the images. Progress of the country in other facets may not have much impact on Australia's overall image as things stand today. If Australia cannot well protect its nature, both its general image and its attractiveness as a tourist destination can be damaged.

Another characteristic of the Canadian consumer's image map for Australia is that although people and culture represents almost 25 per cent of its GCI, they account for only less than four percent of the TDI. This indicates that while Canadian consumers associate Australia often with its people and culture, the Australian people and their culture are not likely to be an incentive for them to choose Australia as a tourist destination since the Canadian consumers hardly have them in mind when they think of tourism of Australia.

Canadian consumers have very weak associations between Australia's built environment and its GCI and TDI. This is not surprising since, compared to the U.S., Australia has much less urbanized land and fewer man-made attractions such as theme parks and casinos.

Political and military features are hardly associated with Australia. A 0.53 per cent mention in GCI and zero mention in TDI indicate that political and military factors have no impact on Australia's image in Canadian consumer's minds.

Australian industry also has a weak association with GCI and TDI in Canadian consumers' minds, although it still contributes to about five per cent of both.

Figure 23: The ISM of Canadian Consumers for Australia

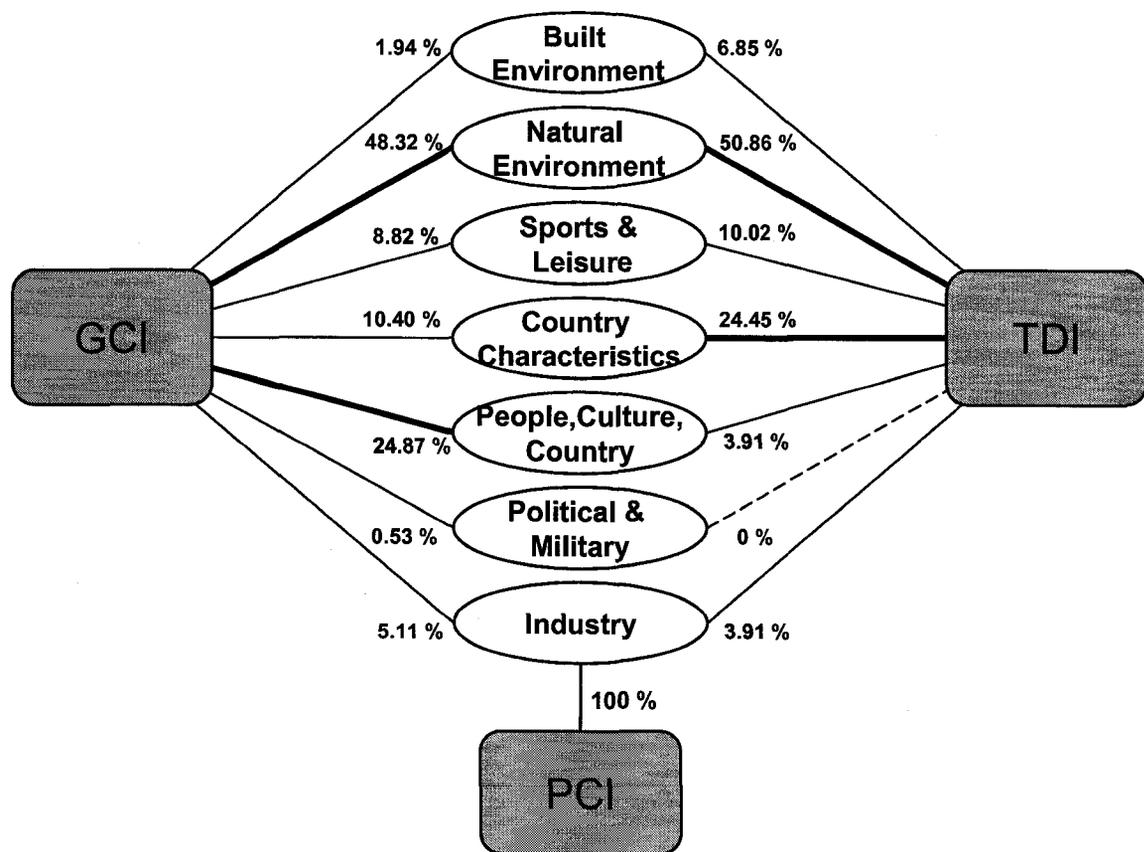
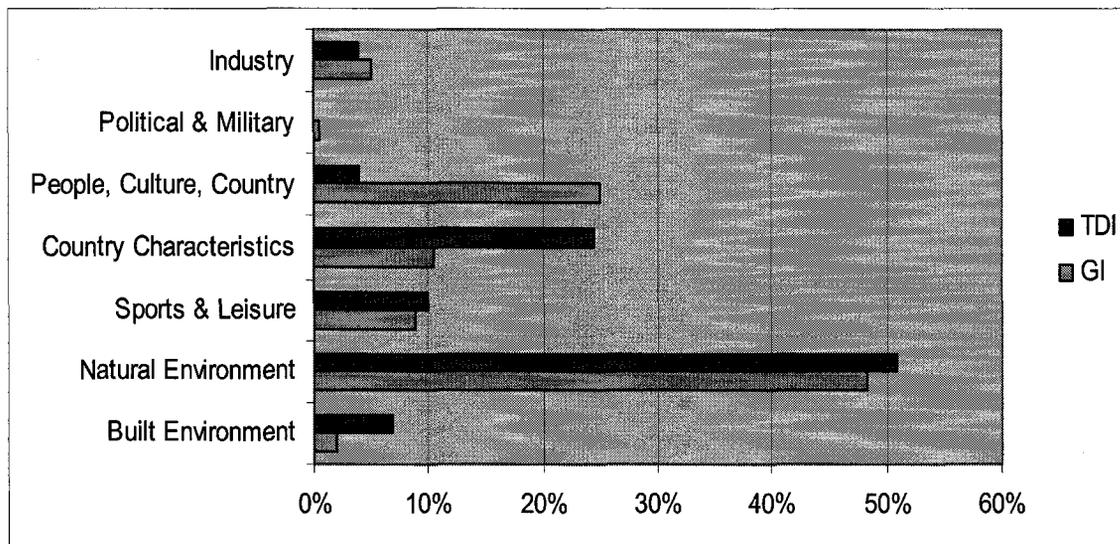


Figure 24: Strength of Associations by the Canadian consumers for Australia



9.2.1.4.South Korea

The image map that Canadian consumers have for South Korea is similar to the map they have for Japan in that (i) industry is strongly associated with both GCI and TDI; (ii) the general image of South Korea is also strongly associated with its people and culture (Figure 25).

The Canadian consumers associate South Korea's GCI and TDI comparably more balanced with all categories. Especially for TDI, no single category accounts for more than 25 per cent; and no categories represent less than five per cent of the overall mentions.

The most interesting characteristic shown by this image map is that political and military factors are linked with considerable strength to both GCI and TDI. This mainly results from the conflicts between South Korea and North Korea. Political and military conflicts are generally perceived as negative especially for tourism. However, the unique situation on the Korean peninsula, especially the big contrast on the border line between South Korea and North Korea, may actually be an attraction to many people. As shown by Table 8, the demilitarized zone and the border between South and North Korea are the second most mentioned brands for tourism in South Korea.

Figure 25: The ISM of Canadian Consumers for South Korea

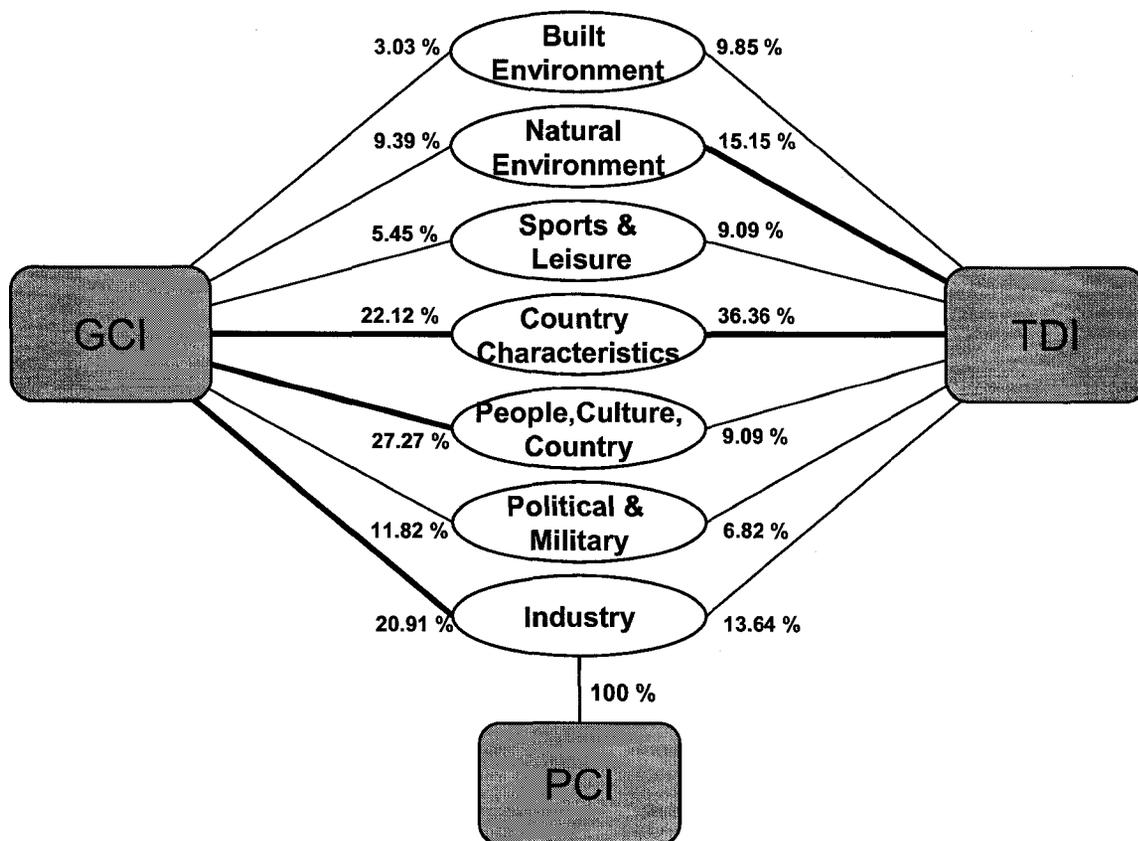


Figure 26: Strength of Associations of Canadian consumers for South Korea

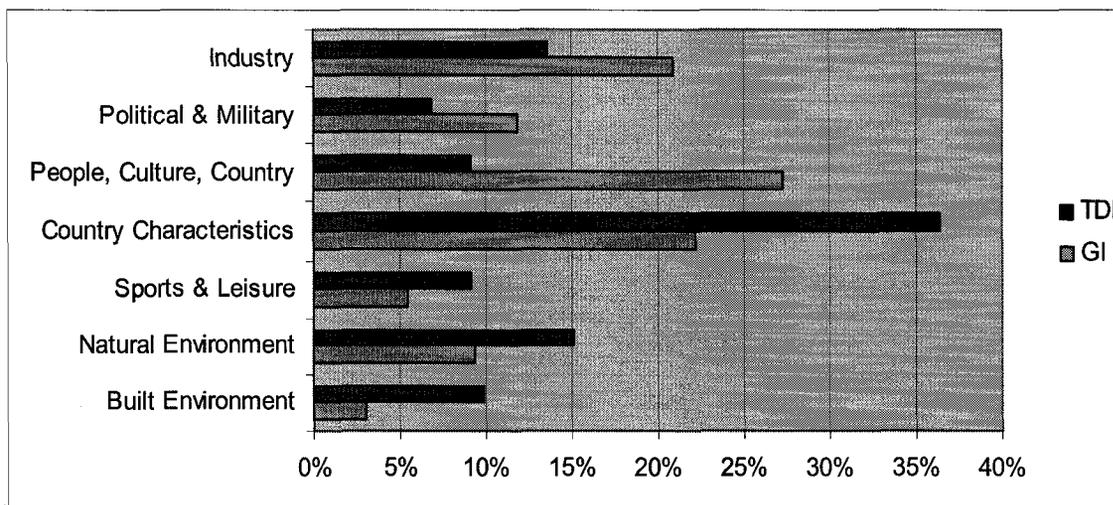


Figure 26 shows that when Canadian consumers think of South Korea in general, they tend to think about its people and culture, its country characteristics and its industry. This, again, demonstrates the important role that industry has played in raising the overall image of South Korea. In terms of TDI, since Canadian consumers have comparably balanced associations among most categories, presentations reflecting the diversity of attractions can be effective in promoting South Korea as a travel destination to Canadian consumers.

9.2.2. Canadian students' image schemata maps

The image schemata maps that the Canadian students have are in many ways similar to the maps of the Canadian consumers. Therefore, to avoid redundancy, only significant differences will be discussed.

9.2.2.1. The United States

The most salient difference between the Canadian students' and Canadian consumer's image maps for the U.S. is that Canadian students associate political and military factors about twice as strongly with the general image of the United States (Figure 27). Therefore, the political behaviors and military actions of the U.S. may significantly change its country image perceived by Canadian students. On the other hand, however, political and military features were not associated to the TDI of the U.S. at all by Canadian students, indicating that the Canadian students do differentiate their opinions about the U.S. politics from their travel view.

Canadian students also associated the U.S. less with sports and leisure. Sports and leisure only account less than three per cent of the GCI for the students and about than 10 per cent for the consumers.

Figure 27: The ISM of Canadian Students for the U.S.

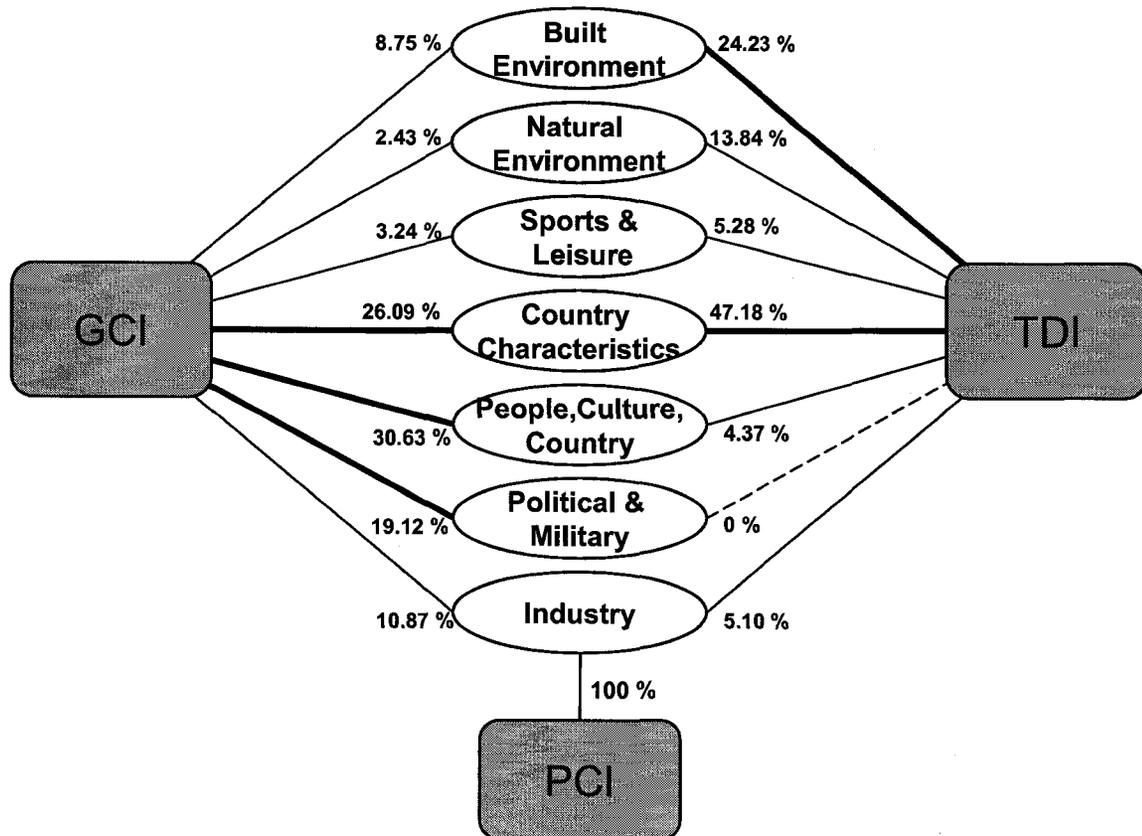
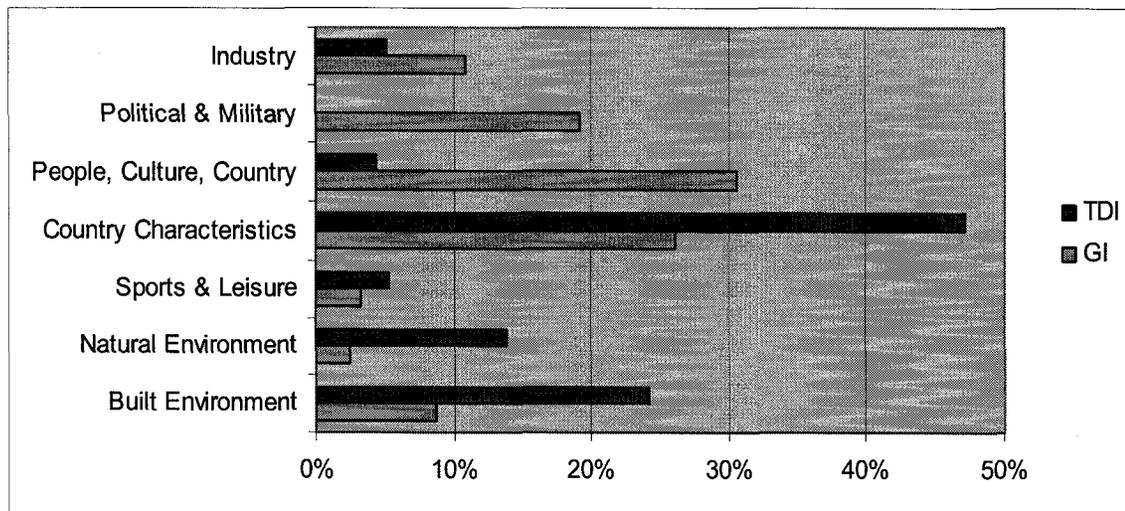


Figure 28 reveals that Canadian students tend to associate different things, except country characteristics, when they think of the U.S. in general and when they think of it as a tourist destination. For the GCI of the U.S., the students associate more to the American people, their culture, and industries. For TDI on the other hand, they tend to link more to the natural and built environment of the U.S. This characteristic provides very specific information to different decision-makers. Obviously, different focuses and

approaches might be taken in promoting the U.S. as a travel destination to Canadian students versus raising the general image of the country perceived by them.

Figure 28: Strength of Associations of Canadian Students for the U.S.



9.2.2.2. Japan

The Canadian students' image map about Japan is very similar to that of the Canadian consumer, although Canadian students associate Japan's GCI less with its natural environment and more with its people and culture (Figure 29, 30). But overall, the students have very similar or even identical percentages as the consumers have on the same categories.

It is worth noting that the Japanese industries and Japanese people and culture together account for 65 per cent of the total mentions. Therefore, change within these two categories may significantly change Japan's general country image.

The TDI associations are comparably more balanced than the GCI associations as demonstrated by the percentages. The diversity of TDI attractions also enables diverse promotion methods. Given that Japanese industry accounts for more than ten per cent of the TDI attractions, shopping options can be included in the tourist promotions for Japan.

Figure 29: The ISM of Canadian Students for Japan

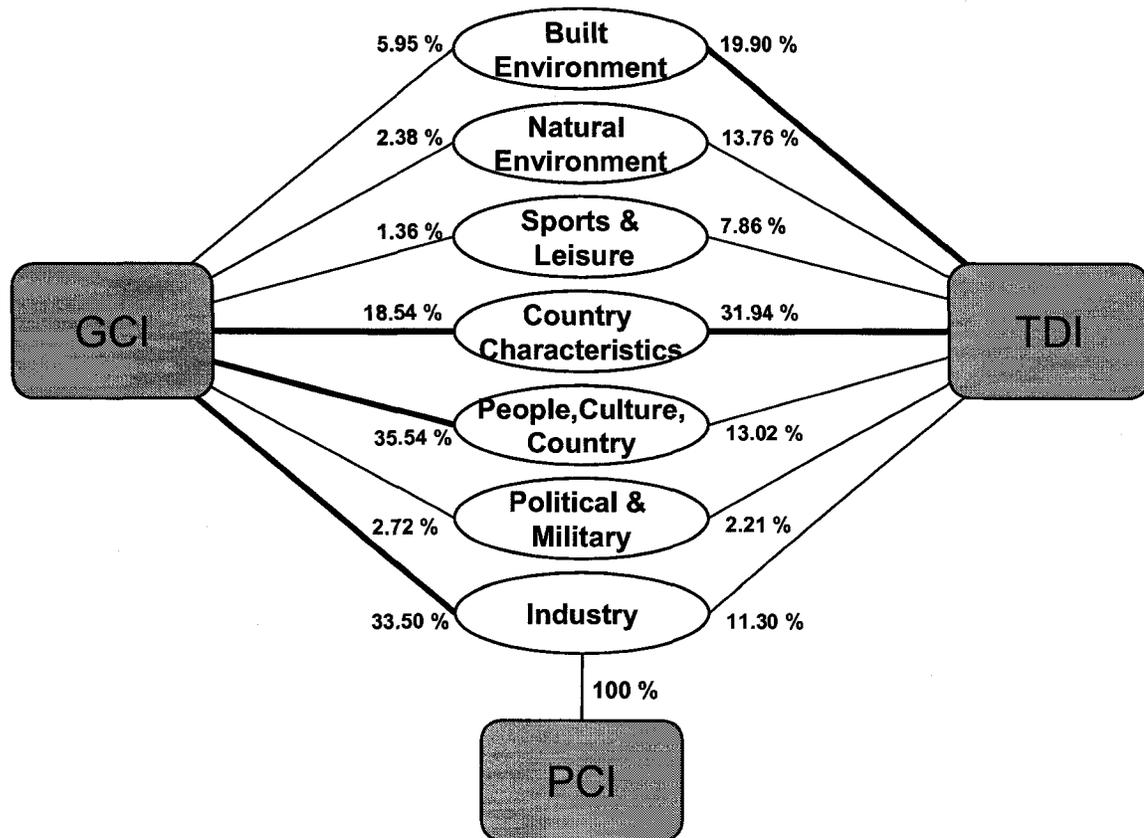
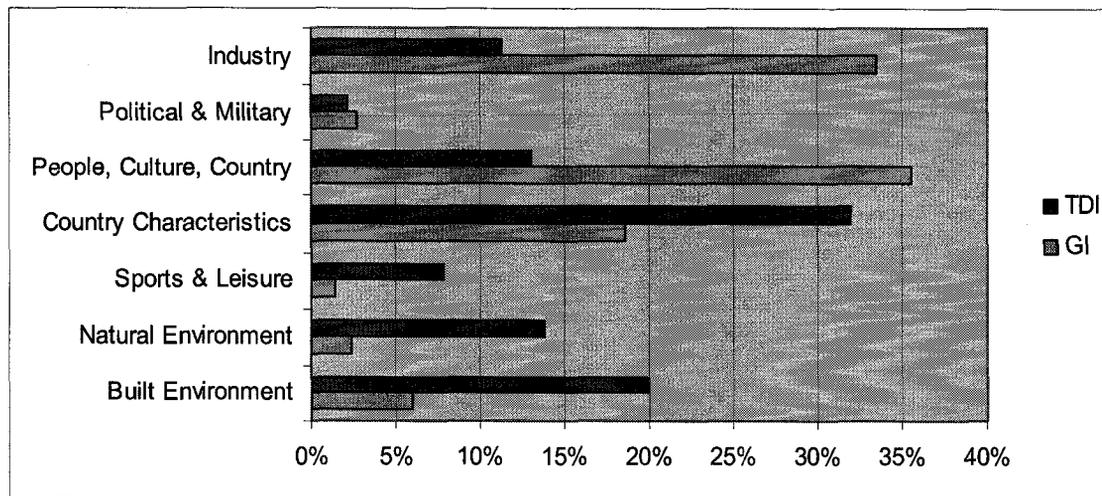


Figure 30: Strength of Associations of Canadian Students for Japan



9.2.2.3. Australia

The Canadian students' image map about Australia is also very similar to that of the Canadian consumers. However, the students have a strong association between GCI and political/military factors. On the other hand, since political and military factors account for less than three per cent of the overall GCI mentions for Australia, they do not really make a big difference.

Figures 31, 32 clearly show that Canadian students barely associate political or military factors to Australia. Compared to the natural environment, built environment in Australia is weakly associated with both GCI and TDI of the country. Although Australian people and culture accounts for much of the GCI in Canadian students' mind, they are not attractive for the students in terms of tourism. Country characteristics are strongly associated with TDI mainly due to the large number of mentions of places where people can travel to.

Figure 31: The ISM of Canadian Students for Australia

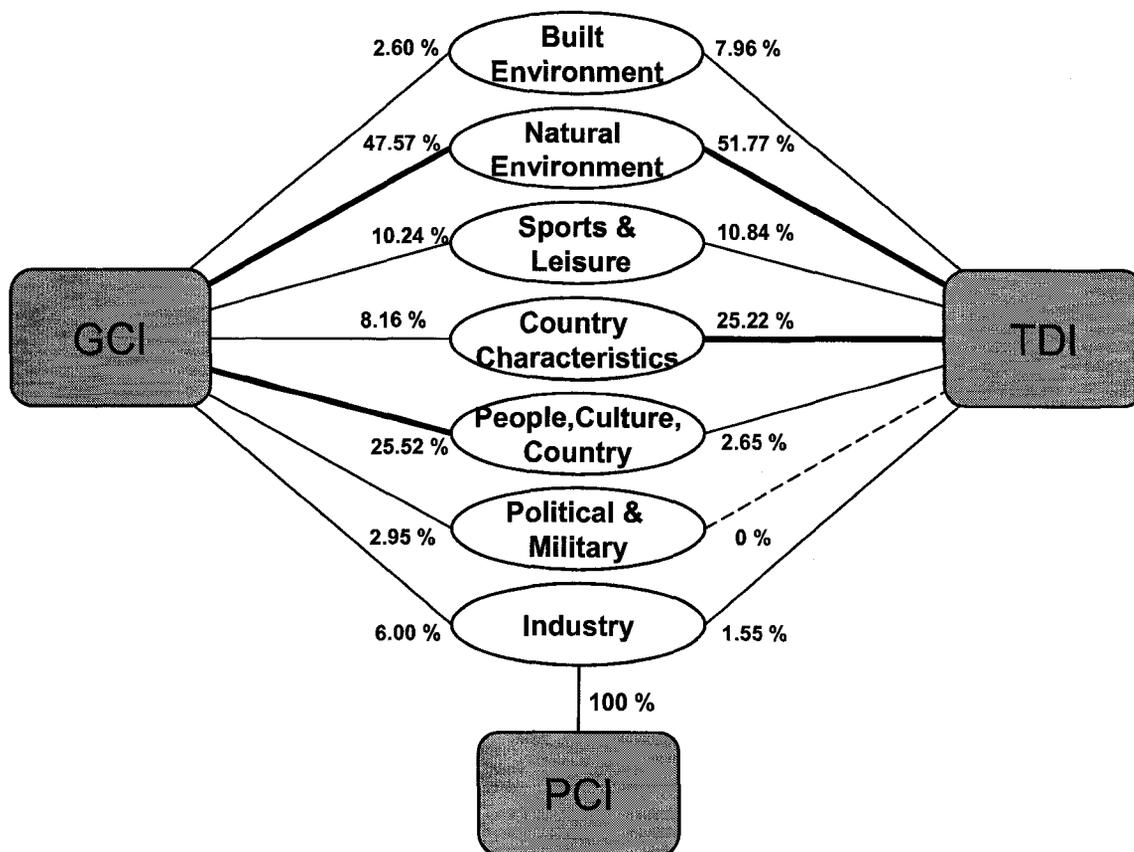
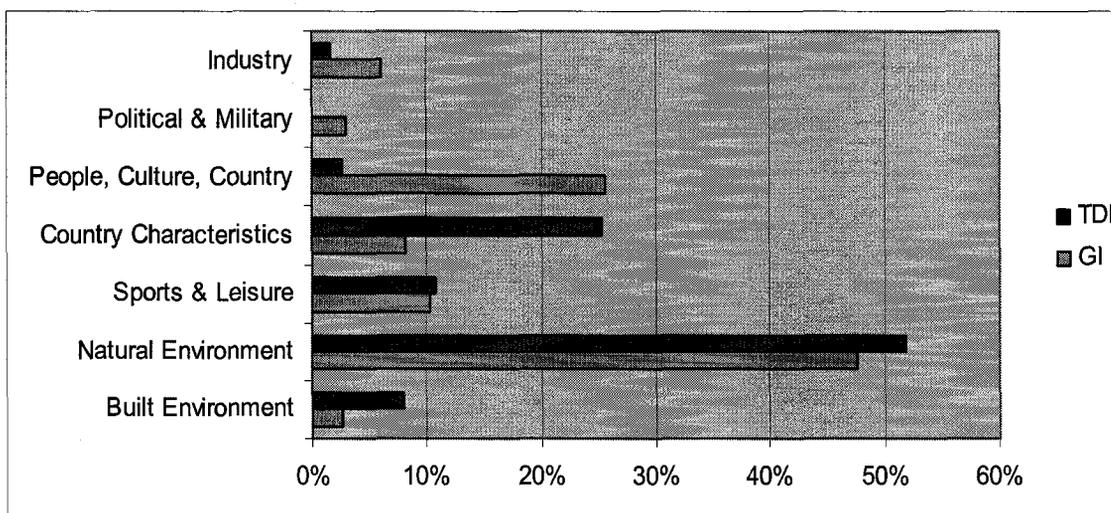


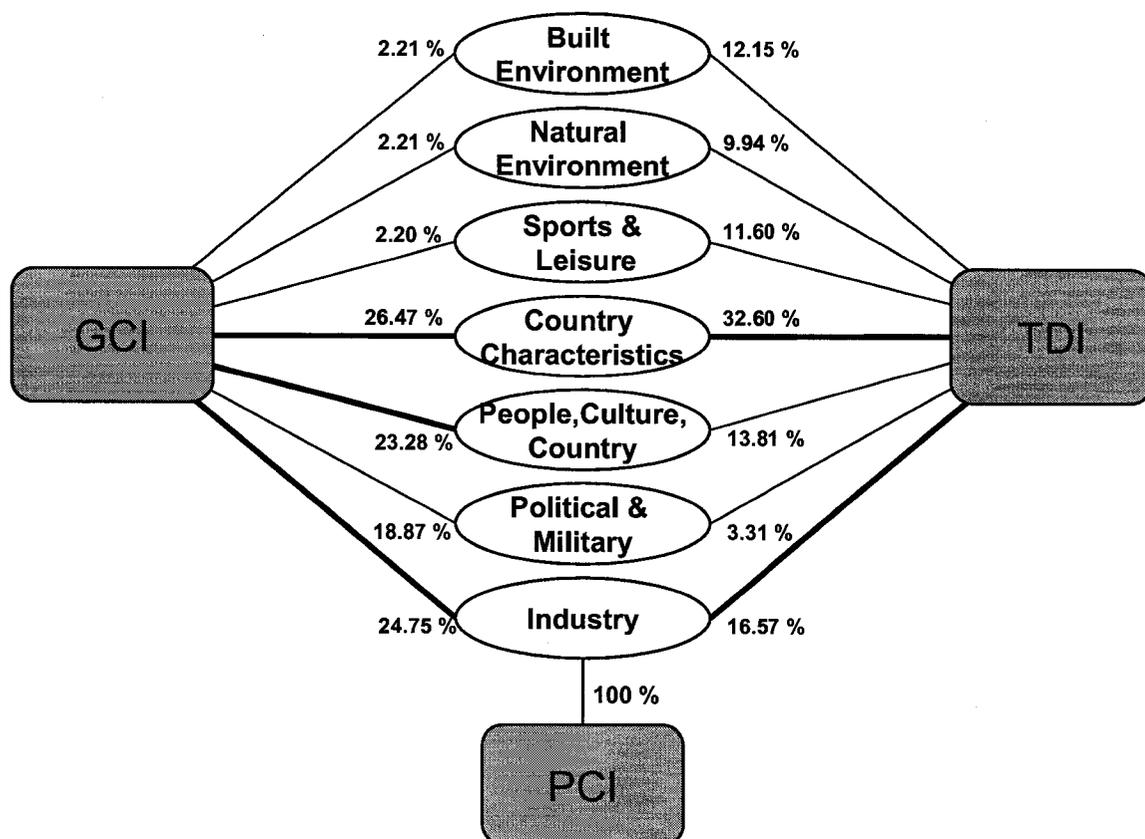
Figure 32: Strength of Associations by Canadian Students for Australia



9.2.2.4.South Korea

Again, the Canadian students' image map about South Korea is very similar to that of the Canadian consumers. However, it is worth noting that Canadian students have stronger associations between industry and both GCI and TDI (Figure 33). This indicates that Canadian students are more familiar with South Korean products and this, in turn, affects their evaluation of the country.

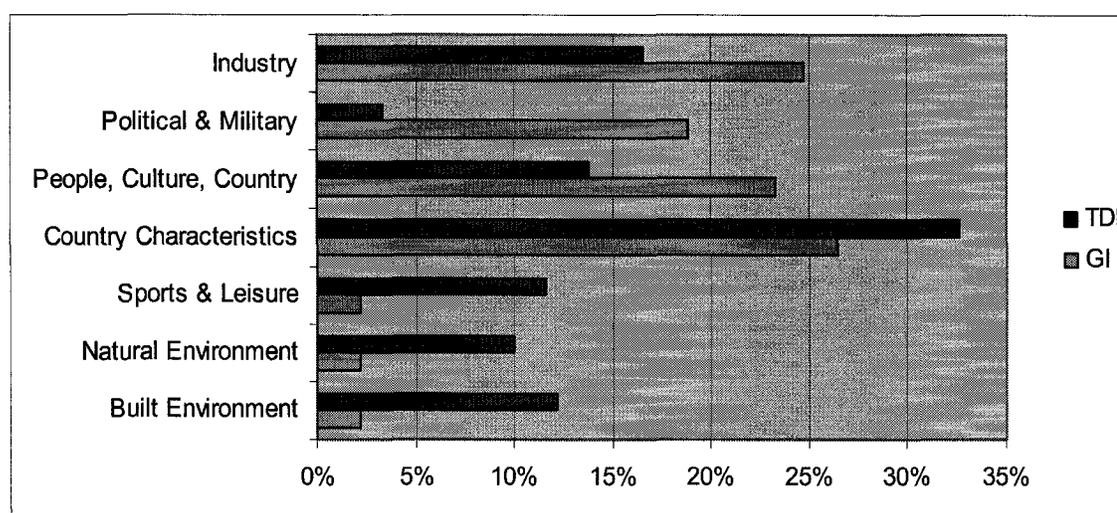
Figure 33: The ISM of Canadian Students for South Korea



As with the United States, Canadian students associate South Korea's GCI with its politics and military more than the Canadian consumers do. However, in terms of TDI,

the students present a weaker linkage to South Korea's politics and military. The indication is two-fold: (i) the political and military conflicts between South Korea and North Korea may have little impact on Canadian students' perception about the country as a travel destination; (ii) the country border between South Korea and North Korea and the contrast between the two may not be an attraction to most Canadian students.

Figure 34: Strength of Associations by Canadian Students for South Korea



It can be learned that South Korean industries, its conflicts with North Korea, its people and culture, and its country characteristics basically form the general image of South Korea in the Canadian students' mind.

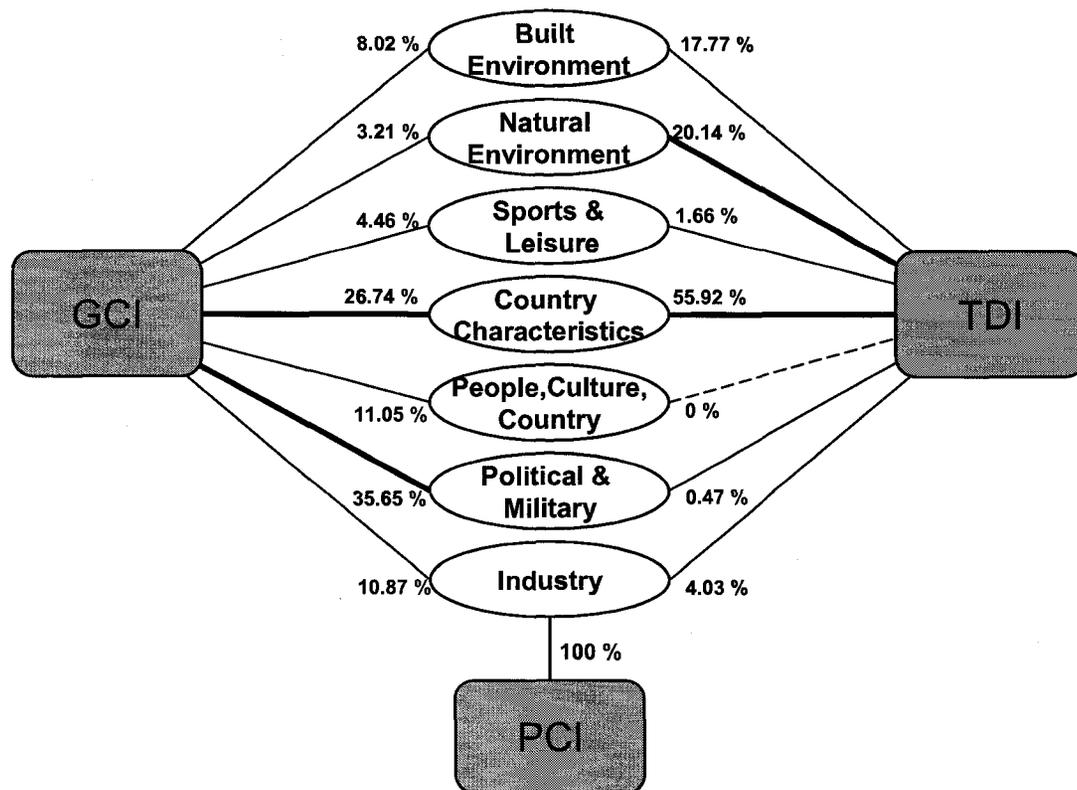
In terms of TDI, Canadian students have comparably balanced associations among all categories. This character resembles Canadian students' view about Japan. In other words, South Korea can hardly differentiate itself from Japan as a better tourist destination, which may result in low travel intentions from the Canadian students.

9.2.3. South Korean consumer's image schemata maps

The South Korean consumer's image maps have the following characteristics: first, compared to the Canadian samples, the South Korean sample have Canada as the fourth target country instead of its home country; second, South Korean consumers have a similar image map for the U.S. as the Canadian samples, but have a very different map for Japan and Australia. The four South Korean consumer's image schemata maps are presented below (Figure 35).

9.2.3.1. The United States

Figure 35: The ISM of South Korean Consumers for the U.S.



As mentioned above, South Korean consumers perceive similar GCI, TDI and PCI about the U.S. as the Canadian respondents. The biggest difference is that South Korean consumers have a strong association between the U.S. and its political and military features. This may be explained by the fact that there is more political and military cooperation between the U.S. and South Korea.

In South Korean consumer minds, GCI of the U.S. is much more weakly linked to its people and culture. People and culture is not linked to TDI at all by the South Korean sample. This shows that to see the U.S. people and experience their culture are not attractive to most Korean consumers.

Also, South Korean consumers almost do not link sports and leisure to the TDI of the United States. This interesting result shows that participating in sports and enjoying leisure in the U.S. may not be an attraction for them or that they are not familiar with U.S. offerings in this sector.

Figure 36: Strength of Associations by South Korean Consumers for the U.S.

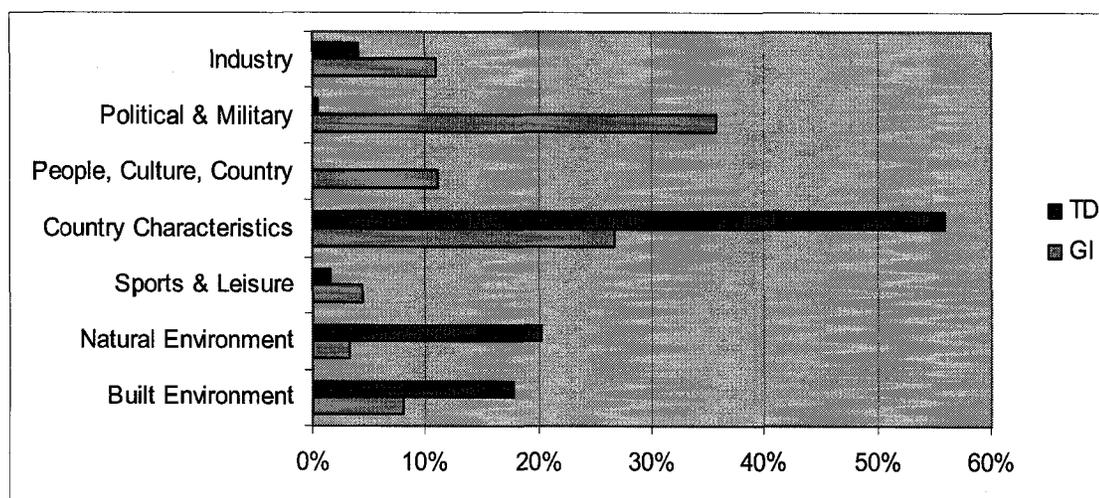


Figure 36 shows that political and military factors and country characteristics of the U.S. account for more than 50 per cent of its GCI in South Korean consumer minds. Political and military factors even present a high of more than 35 per cent. As discussed above, this may be explained by the close political and military relationships between U.S. and South Korea. However, it is disadvantageous to the U.S. because disagreements and conflicts originating from the political/military relationship may seriously damage the general image of the U.S. in South Korean people's mind.

On the other hand, however, political and military almost have no association with TDI in South Korean consumer's minds. That is to say, although political/military factors greatly influence how South Koreans view the U.S. in general, they barely have impact on their perception about U.S. as a travel destination.

9.2.3.2. Japan

As mentioned above, the image schemata map of the South Korean consumers for Japan is unique compared to those of the Canadian samples in that: (i) South Korean consumers associate the GCI of Japan strongly with political and military factors, which is not surprising due to both historical and current political conflicts between the two nations; (ii) South Korean consumers associate sports and leisure much more to both GCI and TDI of Japan, which indicates that Japan is a preferred place for playing and relaxing; (iii) country characteristics account for more than half of the mentions for TDI, mainly due to the familiarity of South Koreans consumers about places in Japan where they can travel to; (iv) although industry is again strongly associated with GCI, it is very weakly associated with TDI (Figure 37).

Figure 37: The ISM of South Korean Consumers for Japan

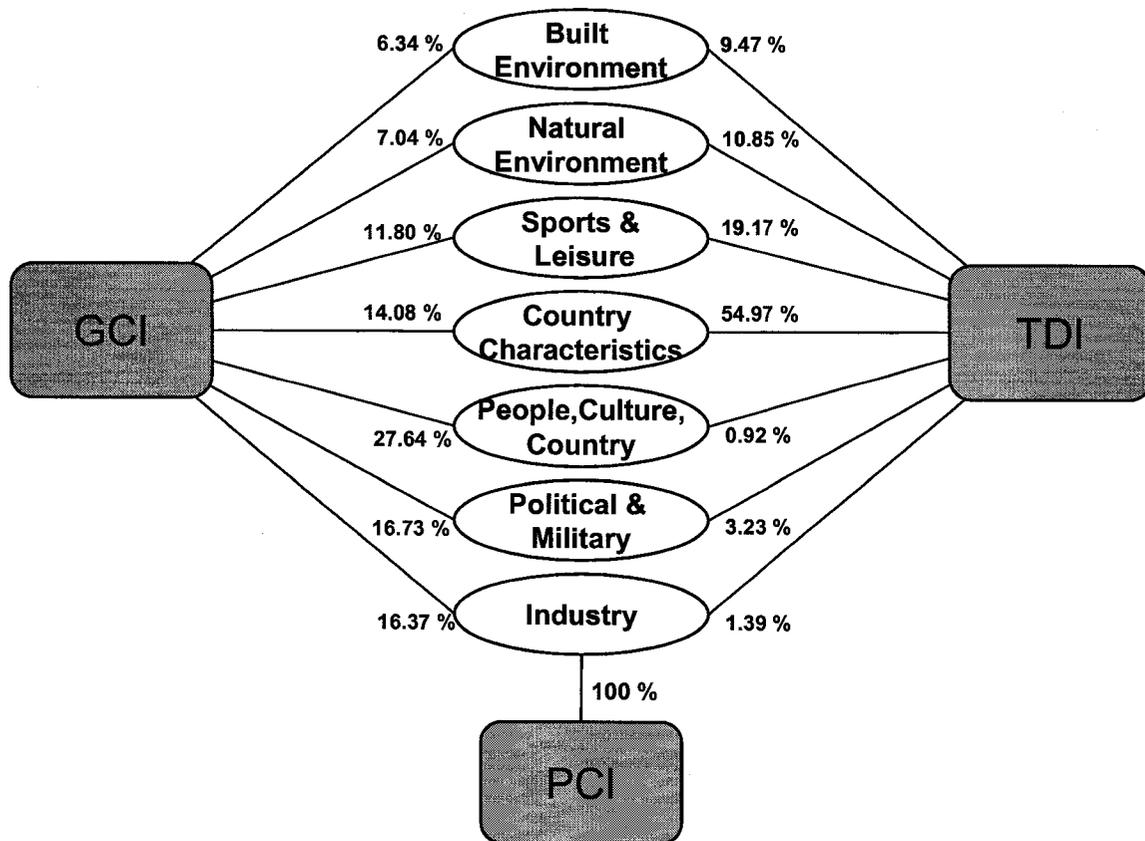


Figure 38: Strength of Associations by South Korean Consumers for Japan

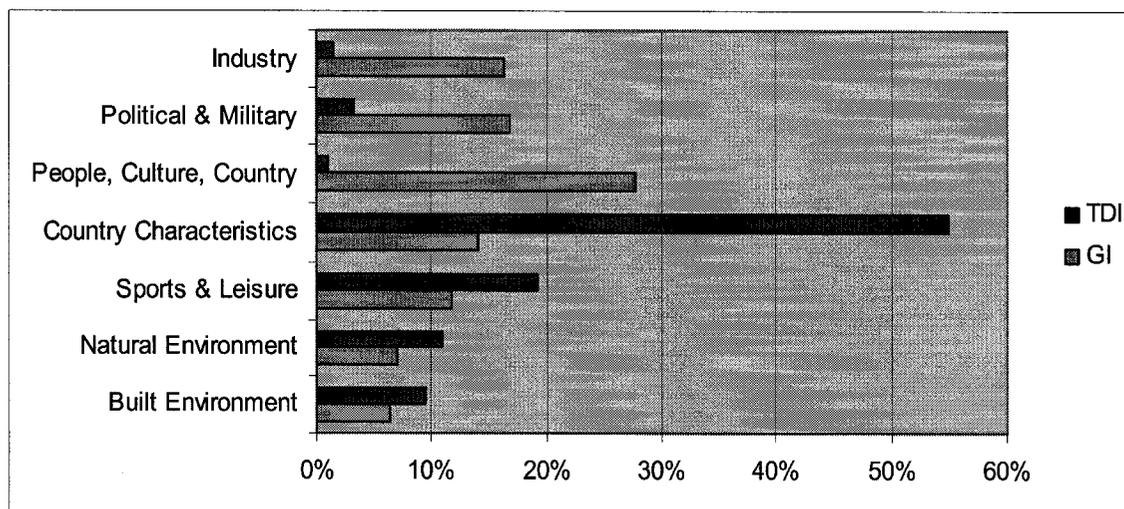
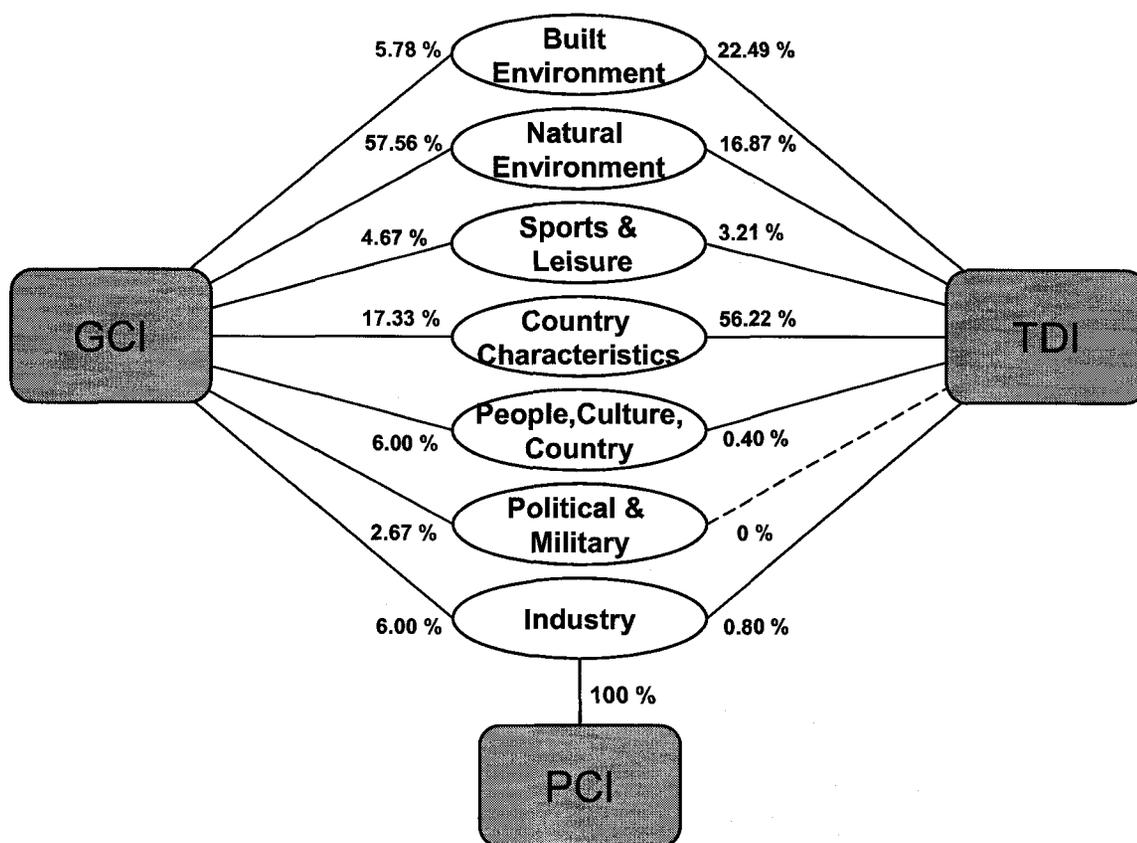


Figure 38 shows that South Korean consumers have a more balanced view of Japan in general in that changes in one category are not likely to affect greatly the general image of Japan. In terms of TDI, South Korean consumers know far more places in Japan that they can go for traveling.

9.2.3.3.Australia

Figure 39: The ISM of South Korean Consumers for Australia



The general image of Australia in South Korean consumer minds is mostly associated with its natural environment. Except for country characteristics, other categories are much weakly associated with the GCI of Australia by South Korean consumers (Figure 39).

However, natural environment is not the greatest attraction for South Korean consumers to travel to Australia. Instead, South Korean consumers think more about the Australian cities they can visit and the built environment in Australia. South Korean consumer sample is the only sample that associated the TDI of Australia more to its built environment than to its natural environment.

South Korean consumers also associate TDI of Australia less with sports and leisure. This characteristic combined with their strong association between the TDI of Australia and cities indicates that South Korean consumers travel to Australia more for sightseeing than for playing and relaxing.

Figure 40: Strength of Associations by S. Korean Consumers for Australia

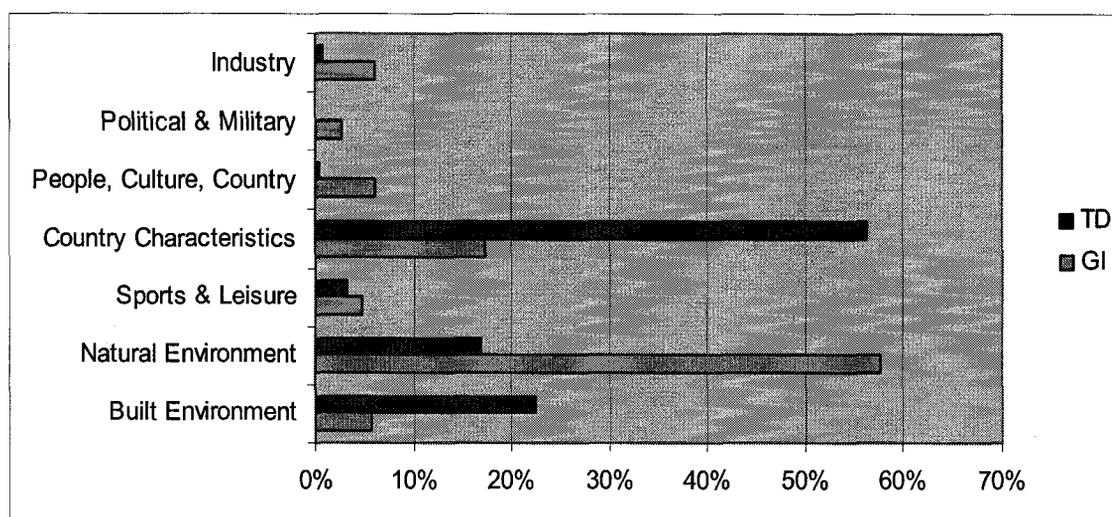
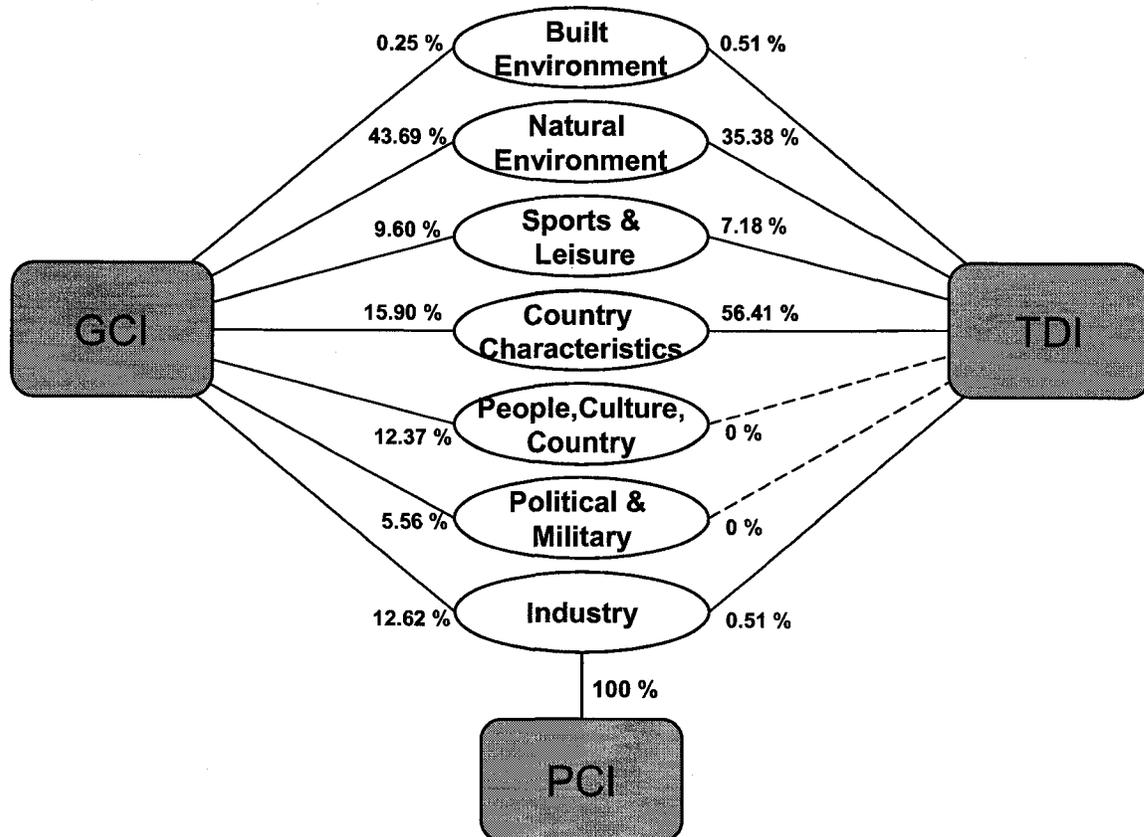


Figure 40 shows more clearly that for South Korean consumers, natural environment is associated very strongly with the general image of Australia; while country characteristics which is largely composed of place names is the single major attraction for them to travel to Australia.

9.2.3.4. Canada

Figure 41: The ISM of South Korean Consumers for Canada



The image map of the South Korean consumers for Canada resembles a lot their image map for Australia. However, South Korean consumers tend to associate Canada's GCI somewhat less with the natural environment, and more with the Canadian people, culture and industry. On the other hand, South Korean consumers have stronger associations between the TDI of Canada and its natural environment (Figure 41). The most mentioned aspects of the natural environment are Niagara Falls, plants and scenery so it can be said that Canada is perceived as a country with beautiful nature by South Korean consumers.

The South Korean consumers barely associate built environment in Canada with its GCI and TDI. Built environment accounts for less than one per cent of all the mentions provided by South Korean consumers on Canada.

Figure 42: Strength of Associations by South Korean Consumers for Canada

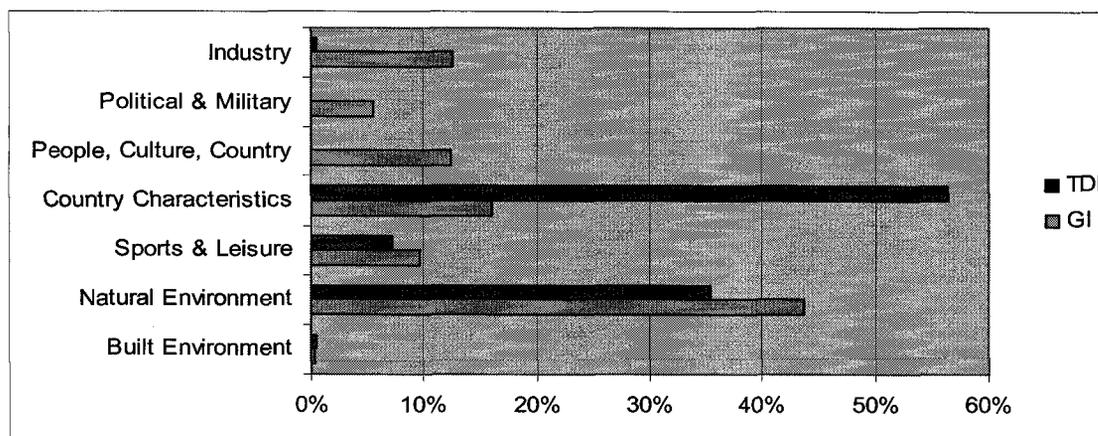


Figure 42 shows that South Korean consumers associate the TDI of Canada strongly with the places they can visit and the natural environment in Canada. Political/military factors, Canadian people and culture are not associated to Canada's tourism image at all. Canadian industry and built environment is also barely associated with Canada's tourism image. The indication is that to promote Canada as a tourist destination to South Korean consumers, the focus should be the beautiful nature of Canada.

9.2.4. Summary

In this chapter, 12 image schemata maps representing all three samples and all five target countries were shown and discussed. By drawing the ISMs, the relationships

among the GCI, PCI and TDI are clearly revealed. By examining the strength of the linkages among all images and their associated nodes, the key elements that have large impacts on the GCI, PCI and TDI are identified.

The findings suggest that people do not necessarily associate common things to the GCI, TDI and PCI of a certain country. Therefore, finding out what is most strongly associated with which image is critical for decision makers with different purposes. For example, political and military factors greatly influence how Canadian students perceive the U.S. in general, but these factors are not associated with how the students view the U.S. as a tourist destination. Therefore, improving the general image of the U.S. and promoting U.S. tourism obviously need to take different approaches.

The findings also suggest that common nodes in people's mind which are strongly associated with both GCI and TDI do exist. These common nodes are powerful in that they can greatly influence many facets of how a country is perceived. For example, the electronic and car industry is very strongly associated with Japan's PCI, GCI and TDI. Therefore, Japan can take advantage of its well-known industries to raise the overall image of the country and attract more tourists. On the other hand, if for any reason the reputation of Japanese electronics and cars declines, this may be disadvantageous for the overall image of the country. Even the tourism image of the country may be negatively influenced.

The findings also suggest that people have different schemata for the other countries and that the same country can be perceived very differently by people from

different places of the world. In the next chapter, the image schemata maps of the Canadian consumers and the South Korean consumers will be compared in order to identify differences and similarities between the two samples.

Chapter 10 The Comparison of Image

Schemata Maps

Based on the image schemata maps drawn in the last chapter, this chapter will go further to compare the maps of Canadian consumers and South Korean consumers. The comparison between Canadian consumers and Canadian students will be conducted in Chapter 11 which focuses exclusively on the comparison between these two samples.

This chapter is structured as follows. First, Chi-square analysis is used to test whether the structures of the two sets of responses are different and whether the differences can be generalized to the two populations from which the samples were drawn.

Second, in order to examine the two samples more thoroughly, and enabled by the three-level coding scheme, the second part of this chapter will go further to compare the two sets of responses at the subcategory level. The comparison will be conducted by country, that is, the verbatims provided by the Canadian consumer sample and the South Korean sample about the U.S. will be compared first, followed by those for Japan and then Australia. Within the comparison of each target country, an order of: first GCI, then TDI and last PCI will be followed.

10.1. Chi-square Analysis

Tables 31, 32 and 33 show the Chi-square results of the comparison between the Canadian consumer sample and the South Korean consumer sample.

Table 31: Chi-square Test of Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers for GCI

		Built Environment	Country Characteristics	Industry	Natural Environment	People, Country, Culture	Political & Military	Sports & Leisure	Total
U.S.	Canadian Consumers	7	24	9	11	28	11	10	100
	S. Korean Consumers	8	27	11	3	11	36	4	100
	<i>Chi-square = 27.98, degree of freedom = 6, significant at p = 0.05</i>								
Japan	Canadian Consumers	6	19	31	9	29	3	3	100
	S. Korean Consumers	6	14	16	7	28	17	12	100
	<i>Chi-square = 20.46, degree of freedom = 6, significant at p = 0.05</i>								
Australia	Canadian Consumers	2	10	5	48	25	1	9	100
	S. Korean Consumers	6	17	6	57	6	3	5	100
	<i>Chi-square = 18.97, degree of freedom = 6, significant at p = 0.05</i>								

Table 32: Chi-square Test of Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers for TDI

		Built Environment	Country Characteristics	Industry	Natural Environment	People, Country, Culture	Political & Military	Sports & Leisure	Total
U.S.	Canadian Consumers	24	38	4	20	3	1	10	100
	S. Korean Consumers	17	55	4	20	1	1	2	100
	<i>Chi-square = 10.67, degree of freedom = 6, Not significant at $p = 0.05$ but significant at $p = 0.10$</i>								
Japan	Canadian Consumers	15	35	12	18	12	1	7	100
	S. Korean Consumers	10	55	1	11	1	3	19	100
	<i>Chi-square = 33.98, degree of freedom = 6, significant at $p = 0.05$</i>								
Australia	Canadian Consumers	6	24	4	51	4	1	10	100
	S. Korean Consumers	22	56	1	16	1	1	3	100
	<i>Chi-square = 57.97, degree of freedom = 6, significant at $p = 0.05$</i>								

Table 33: Chi-square Test of Canadian versus S. Korean Consumers for PCI

PCI		Natural Resources	Food/Beverage/Tobacco	Clothing and Related	Household and Related	Entertainment and Leisure	Transportation	IT and Other Advanced Technology	Other Industrial Goods and Product Attributes	Service and Miscellaneous	Agriculture
U.S.	Canadian Consumers	2	10	16	6	9	27	9	3	15	3
	S. Korean Consumers	1	9	26	8	4	15	17	1	18	1
	<i>Chi-square = 13.64, degree of freedom = 9, significant at p = 0.05</i>										
Japan	Canadian Consumers	1	6	3	2	44	33	8	1	1	1
	S. Korean Consumers	1	1	1	4	63	20	5	3	1	1
	<i>Chi-square = 14.32, degree of freedom = 9, significant at p = 0.05</i>										
Australia	Canadian Consumers	3	24	18	9	19	3	1	1	9	13
	S. Korean Consumers	1	6	12	1	9	5	1	1	26	38
	<i>Chi-square = 56.55, degree of freedom = 9, significant at p = 0.05</i>										

The results show that except for the TDI of the U.S., the structures of the responses of the Canadian consumers are significantly different from those of the South Korean consumers. That is to say, when the two groups of consumers think of the PCI or TDI or GCI of the same target country, they tend to associate different things with it. For example, more than half of the Canadian consumers think of natural environment when they think of Australia as a travel destination; however, more than half of the South Korean consumers think of Australia's country characteristics in this case.

To further examine what the differences are between the two sets of responses, the following section will visualize the comparison by charts. The responses will also be compared at the subcategory level in order to identify the differences in detail.

10.2. Comparison by Target Countries

As mentioned above, this section will visualize the structures of the two sets of responses and further compare them at the subcategory level. However, only two types of categories will be further broken down: (i) categories where the two samples have similar strength of associations; (ii) categories that account for more than ten per cent of the overall mentions for the GCI, PCI or TDI of each target country by both samples.

The comparison will be discussed in the order of the U.S., Japan and the Australia.

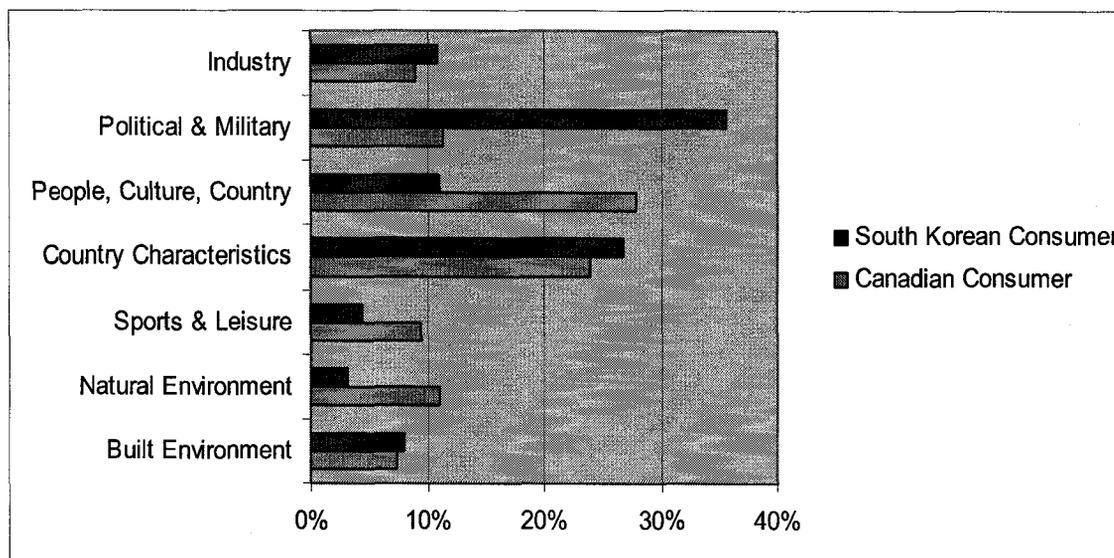
10.2.1. The United States

10.2.1.1. GCI of the U.S.

Figure 43 shows that, overall, South Korean consumers associate the general image of the U.S. more strongly with its political/military features and its country characteristics; while the Canadian consumers tend to associate more strongly with the U.S. people, their culture and the country characteristics.

The Canadian consumers and the South Korean consumers have similar responses on three categories (Industry, Country Characteristics, and Built Environment) and very different responses on the other four categories (Political & Military, People, Culture, Country, Sports & Leisure, and Natural Environment).

Figure 43: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: GCI of the U.S.

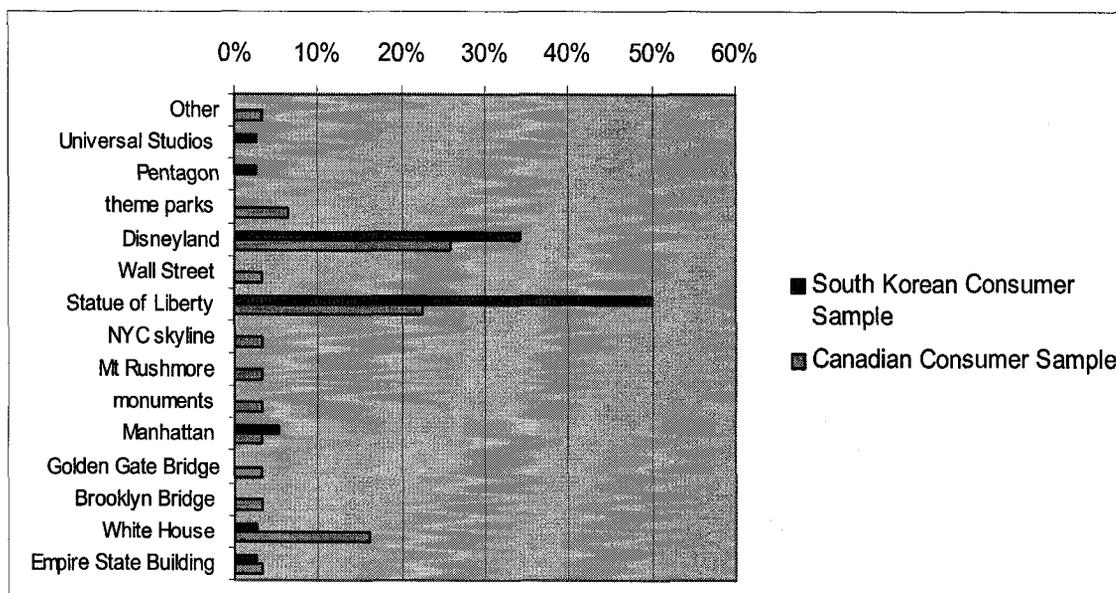


Built environment

Of all 45 mentions of “Built Environment” from the South Korean sample, 38 fall into the subcategory of “Famous Landmarks”. The number is 31 out of 32 in the case of the Canadian consumer sample. So the two samples are still similar on the second level (subcategory level).

Figure 44 shows that Disneyland and the Statue of Liberty dominate all famous landmark mentioned by both samples. However, the Canadian sample has more diverse mentions; while the South Korean sample has very few other mentions other than the Statue of Liberty and Disneyland.

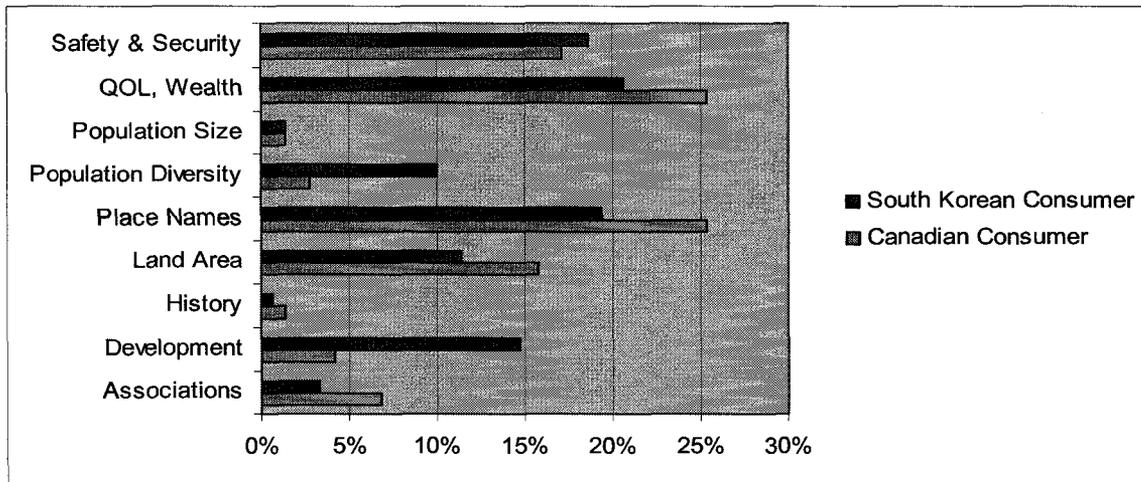
Figure 44: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Built Environment of the U.S.



Country characteristics

Figure 45 shows that the two samples are still similar on the subcategory level except for “Population Diversity” and “Development”. The South Korean consumers are more sensitive to the fact that the U.S. has a very diverse population and is a developed country.

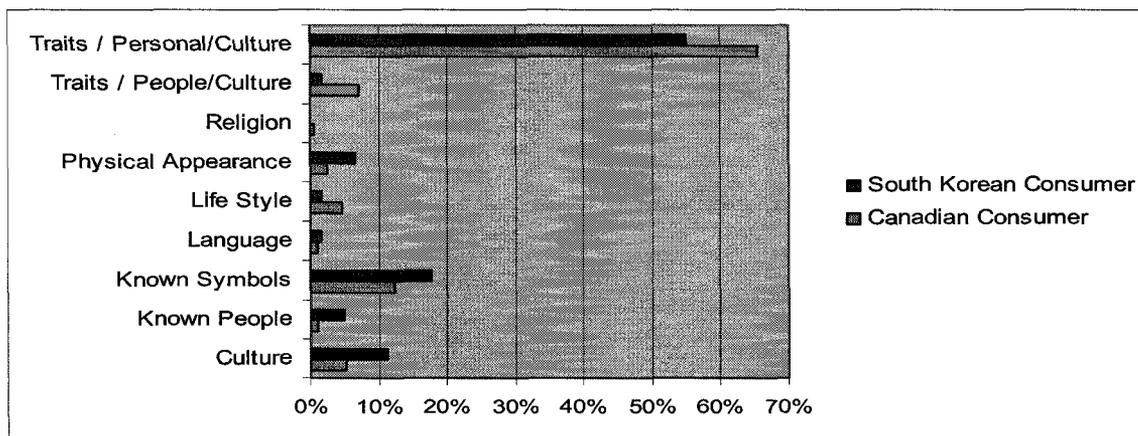
Figure 45: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Country Characteristics of the U.S.



People, culture, country

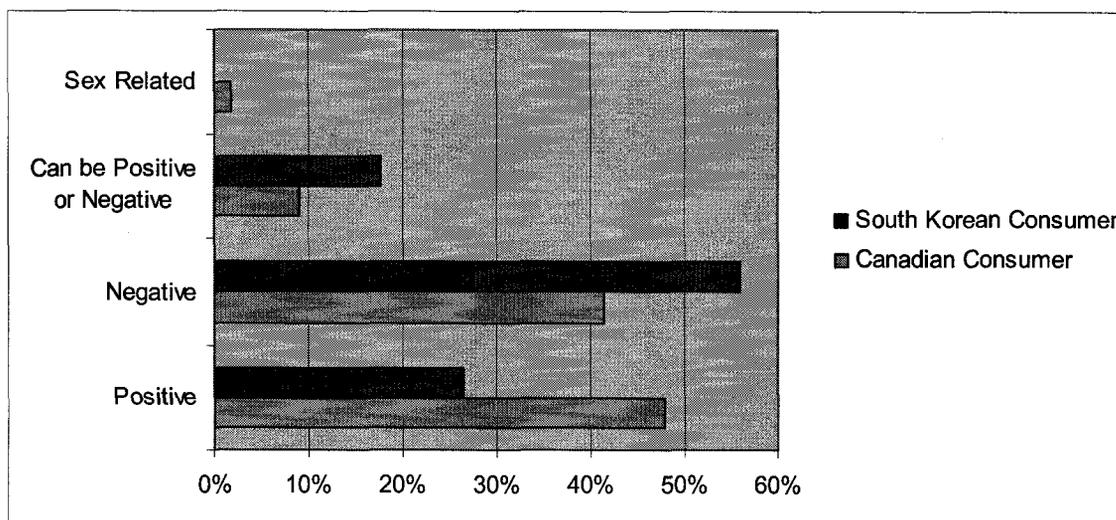
Mentions of personal/culture traits of the U.S are overwhelmingly strong in both samples (Figure 46).

Figure 46: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: People, Culture, Country of the U.S.



Therefore, it is necessary to break down “Traits / Personal/Culture” to compare whether South Korean and Canadian consumers have similar opinions.

Figure 47: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Traits of the U.S.

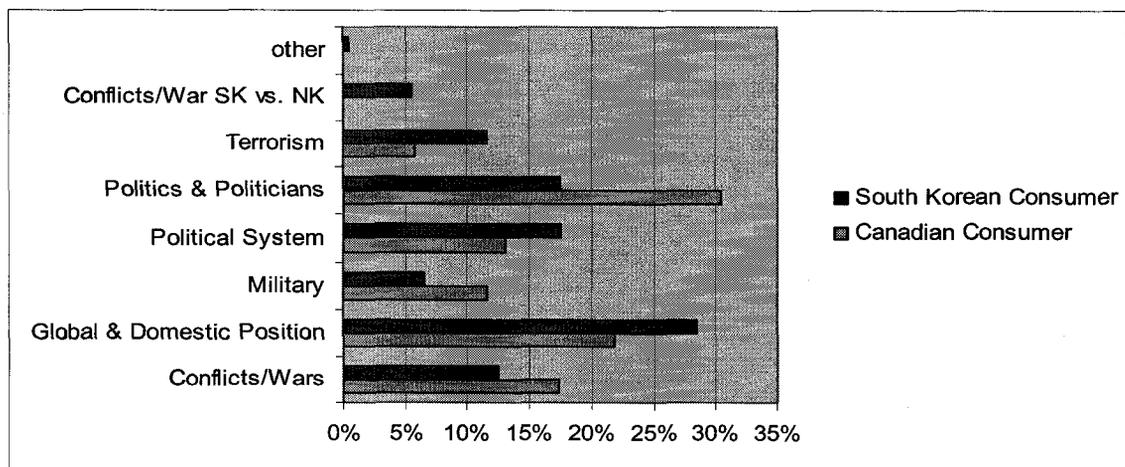


The results (Figure 47) show a big difference in how the U.S. people and culture are perceived by Canadian consumers and South Korean consumers. South Korean consumers have a more negative view towards the U.S; while Canadian consumers have a more positive view.

Political and military

Canadian consumers associate politics and politicians to the U.S. more than the South Korean consumers do. However, South Korean consumers are more sensitive to the terrorism danger in the United States. South Korean consumers are also more likely to associate the U.S. with its power and international political stand (Figure 48).

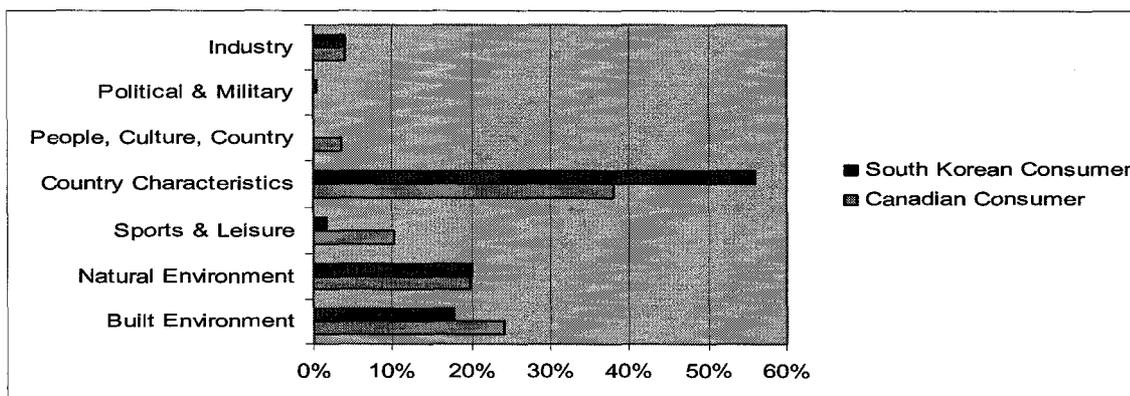
Figure 48: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Political & Military of the U.S.



10.2.1.2. TDI of the U.S.

Canadian consumers have similar views as the South Korean consumers about the U.S. as a travel destination. Country characteristics stand out in both samples (Figure 49). Although Canadian consumers mention more sports and leisure than the South Korean consumers, they have similar strength of associations between the TDI of the U.S. and its natural and built environment.

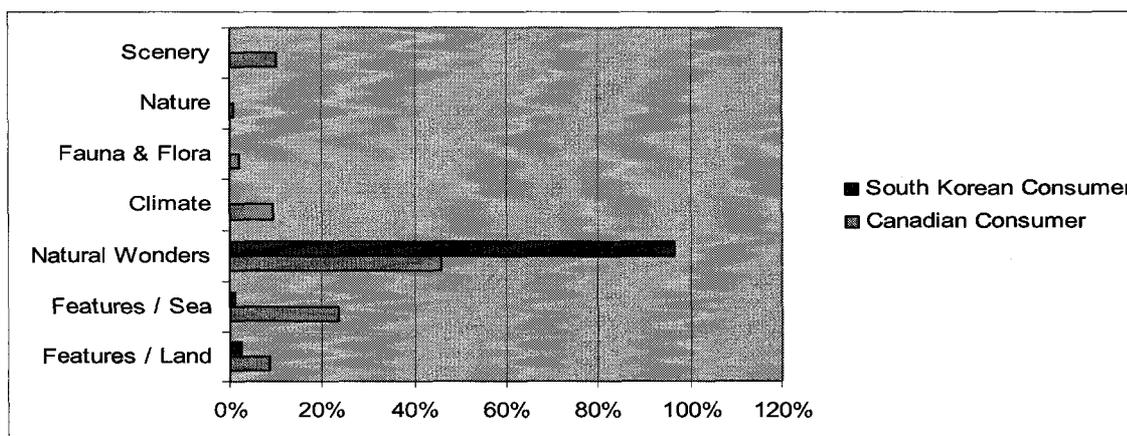
Figure 49: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: TDI of the U.S.



Natural environment

South Korean consumers associate the natural environment of the U.S. almost exclusively with natural wonders. Canadian consumers associate the natural environment of the U.S. strongly with its natural wonders, too, but they also associate other natural features such as sea and scenery (Figure 50).

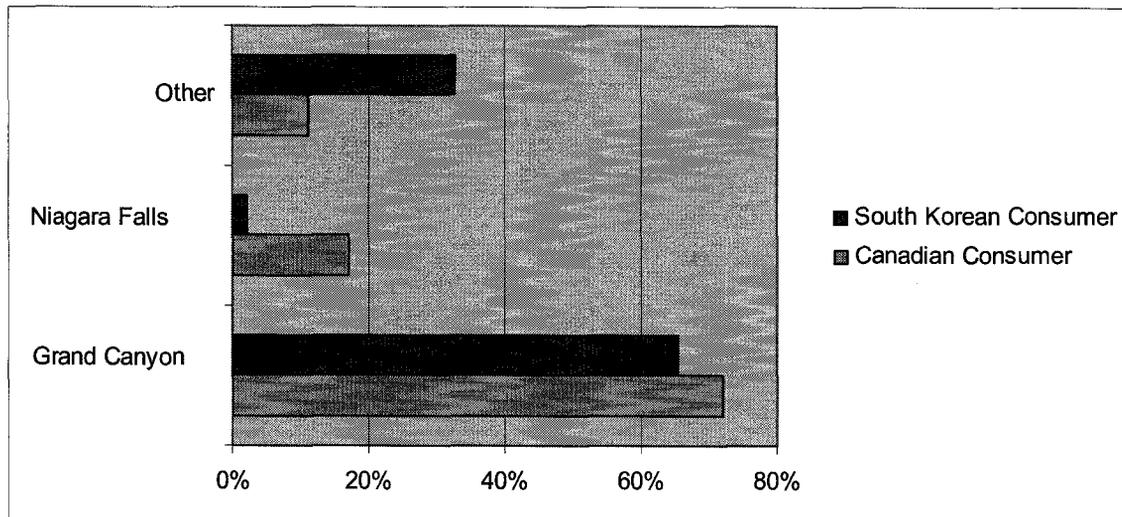
Figure 50: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Natural Environment of the U.S.



For natural wonders, both samples associate the Grand Canyon the most (Figure 51). It is interesting that many South Koreans associated Niagara Falls with the U.S. but

few Canadians did so. Although Niagara Falls is shared by both Canada and the United States, perhaps this reflects Canadian pride in having the larger wonder and best view on the Canadian side of the border. Canadian consumers also associated more types of natural wonders with the United States than the South Koreans did.

Figure 51: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Natural Wonders of the U.S.



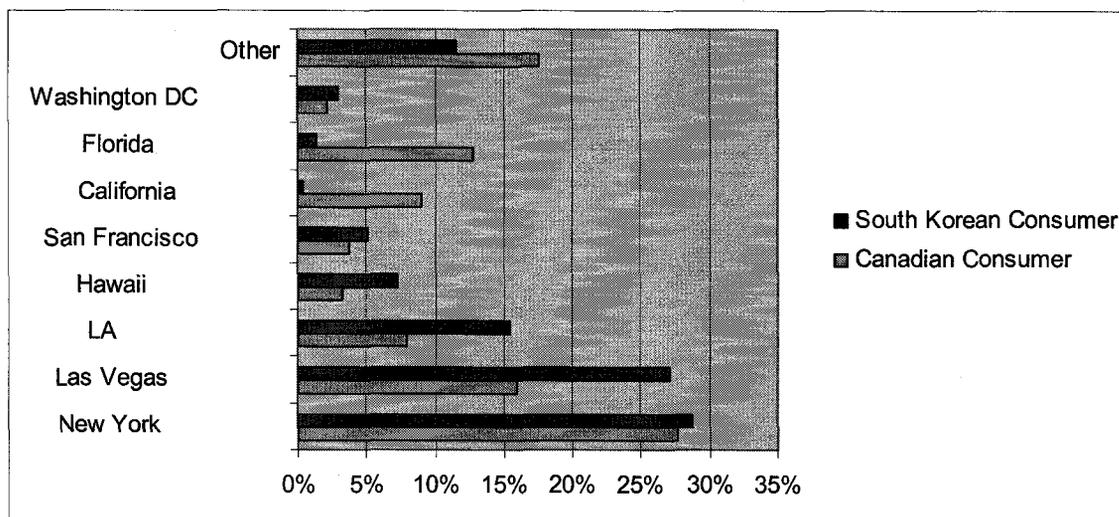
Built environment

Ninety-six per cent of the South Korean consumers and 91 per cent of the Canadian consumers associate built environment of the U.S. with famous landmarks. The most mentioned landmark for both samples is Disneyland, which accounts for 60 per cent of the Canadian mentions and 54 per cent of the South Korean mentions. The Statue of Liberty accounts for 21 per cent of the South Korean mentions, but only six per cent of the Canadian mentions. Again, Canadian consumer's TDI mentions of the U.S. are more diverse.

Country characteristics

In this category, place names account for 98 per cent of the South Korean mentions and 92 per cent of the Canadian mentions. New York and Las Vegas are the most popular cities for both samples. Comparably, Canadian consumers mention more of Florida and California, but less of Los Angeles, Hawaii and San Francisco (Figure 52). The indication is that except for major tourist cities, South Korean consumers associate different places with the U.S. than the Canadian consumers.

Figure 52: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Places Mentioned for the U.S.



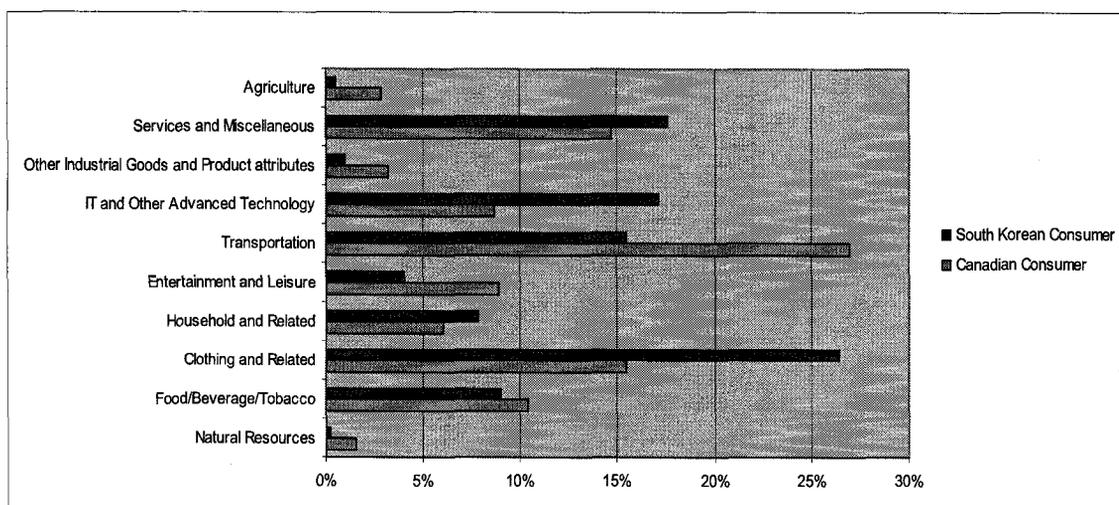
10.2.1.3. PCI of the U.S.

Figure 53 shows that both consumer groups hold a similar dispersed industry image for the United States. Responses from both samples are evenly associated with most of

the industries, although the industry most mentioned by Canadian consumers is transportation while the most mentioned industry for South Korean consumers is clothing.

The industries that are mentioned most by both samples are broken down by product categories in order to detect similar or different mentioning patterns from the two samples.

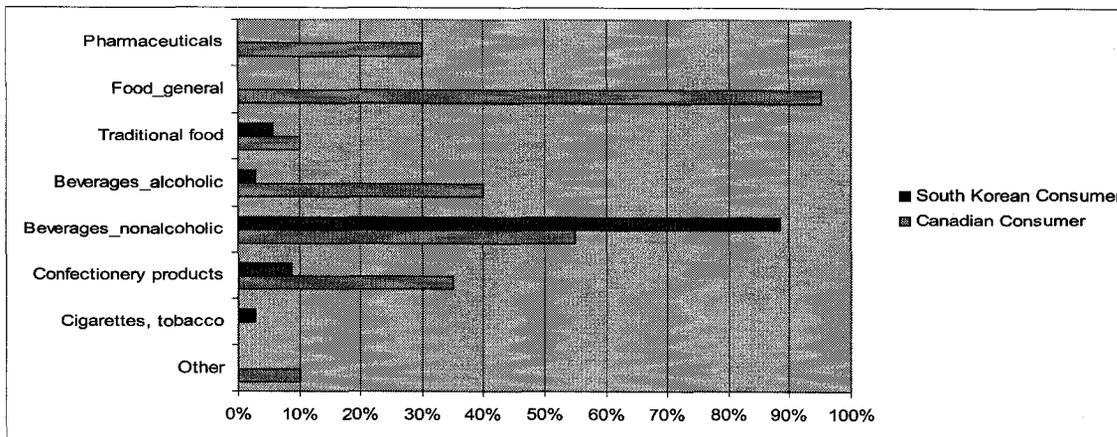
Figure 53: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: PCI of the U.S.



Food/Beverage/Tobacco

Although Food/Beverage/Tobacco accounts for about ten per cent of all industries for both samples, obviously South Korean consumers associate different product categories from Canadian consumers (Figure 54). South Korean consumers overwhelmingly associate the food industry of the U.S. with non-alcoholic beverages. Canadian consumers in contrast, associate the food industry of the U.S. with almost all categories. Surprisingly, Canadian consumers associate no tobacco products with the U.S. industry.

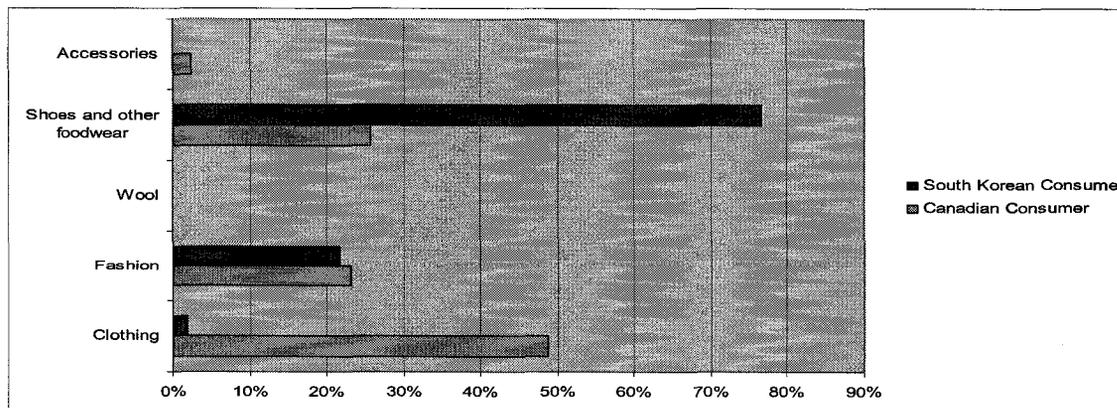
Figure 54: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Food/Beverage of the U.S.



Clothing and Related

More than 75 per cent of the mentions within the clothing industry are footwear for South Korean consumers (Figure 55). This might result from the mass production of known brand shoes in Asia. About 50 per cent of the Canadian mentions within the clothing industry are clothes. Fashion also account for a considerable 20 per cent of the mentions for clothing by both samples.

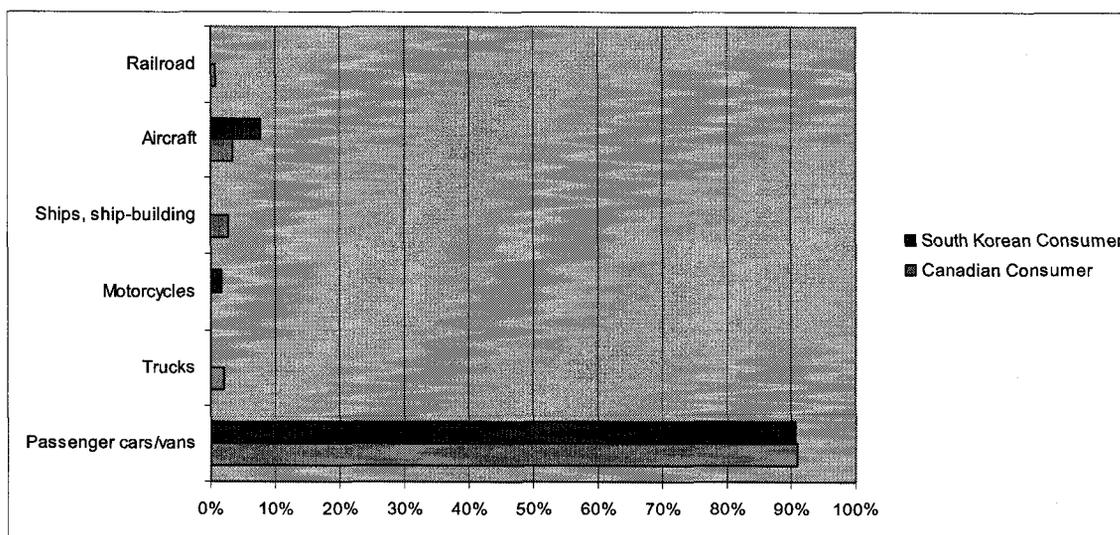
Figure 55: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Clothing of the U.S.



Transportation

The transportation industry of the U.S. almost falls exclusively into the passenger car category. The second largest product category is aircraft which only accounts for about seven per cent of the overall mentions for transportation (Figure 56).

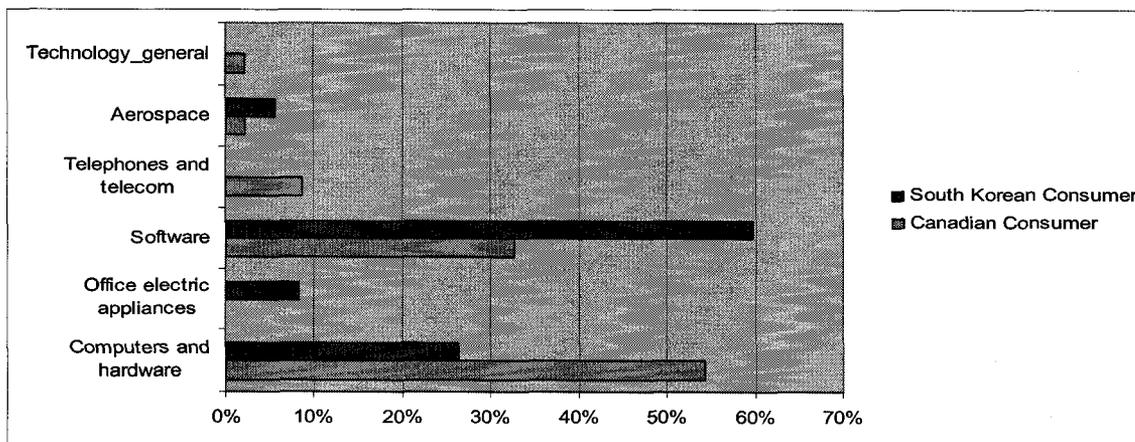
Figure 56: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Transportation of the U.S.



IT and Other Advanced Technology

The IT industry category is mainly associated with two product categories: software and computers (Figure 57). South Korean consumers associate the IT industry of the U.S. mostly with software; while Canadian consumers associate the U.S. IT industry with computers.

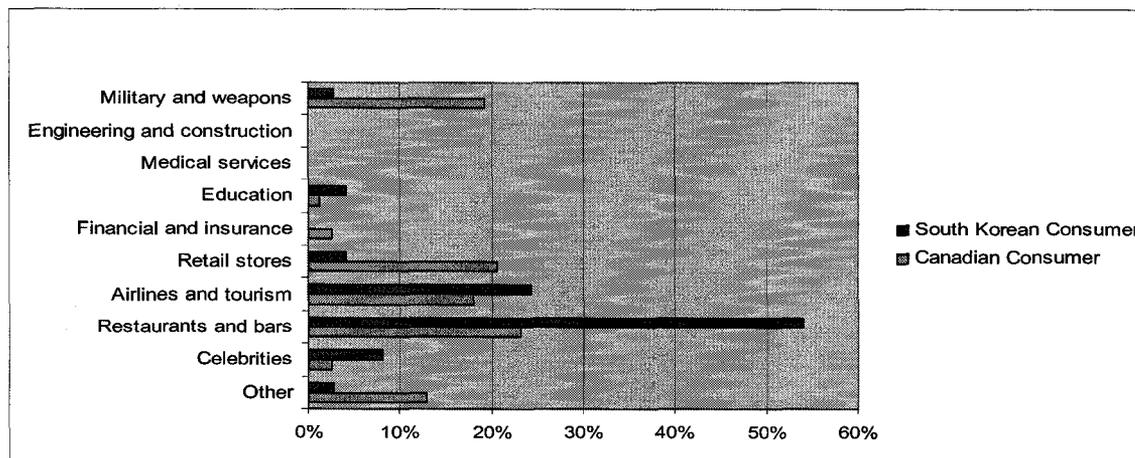
Figure 57: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: IT and High Tech of the U.S.



Service and Miscellaneous

South Korean consumers associate the U.S. service industry mostly with restaurants and airlines. In contrast, Canadian consumers also associate retail and weapons to the U.S. service industry and miscellaneous (Figure 58).

Figure 58: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Service of the U.S.



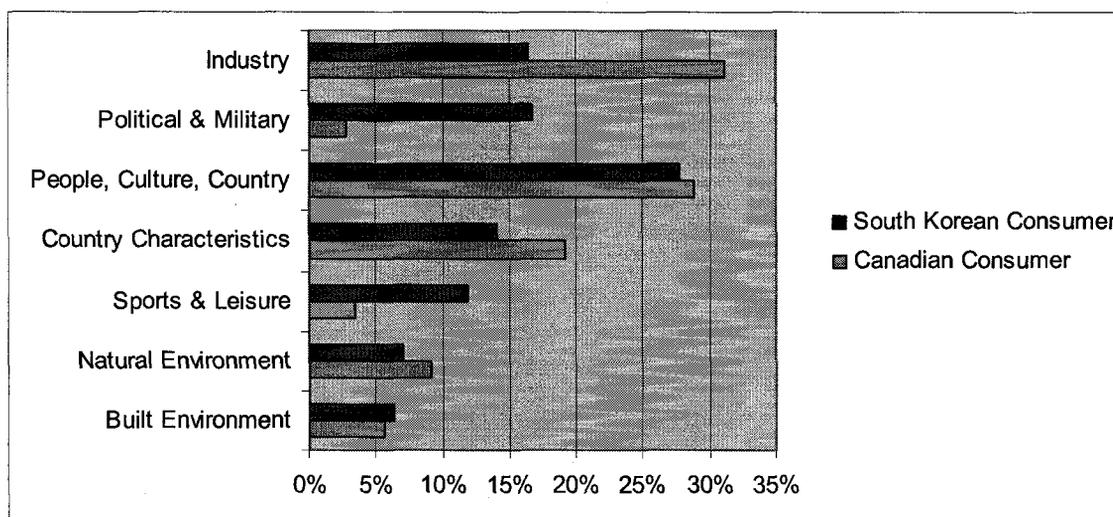
Note that more South Korean consumers mention education than Canadian consumers. This may indicate that the export of U.S. education has a far reach internationally.

10.2.2. Japan

10.2.2.1. GCI of Japan

South Korean consumers associate the general image of Japan quite evenly with its people, culture, industry, political/military features and sports and leisure options. Canadian consumers tend to associate more strongly with the Japanese industry, people and culture, and Japanese country characteristics (Figure 59). The Canadian consumers and the South Korean consumers have similar responses on three categories (People, Culture, Country, Natural Environment, and Built Environment) and very different responses on the other four categories (Political & Military, Industry, Sports & Leisure, and Country Characteristics).

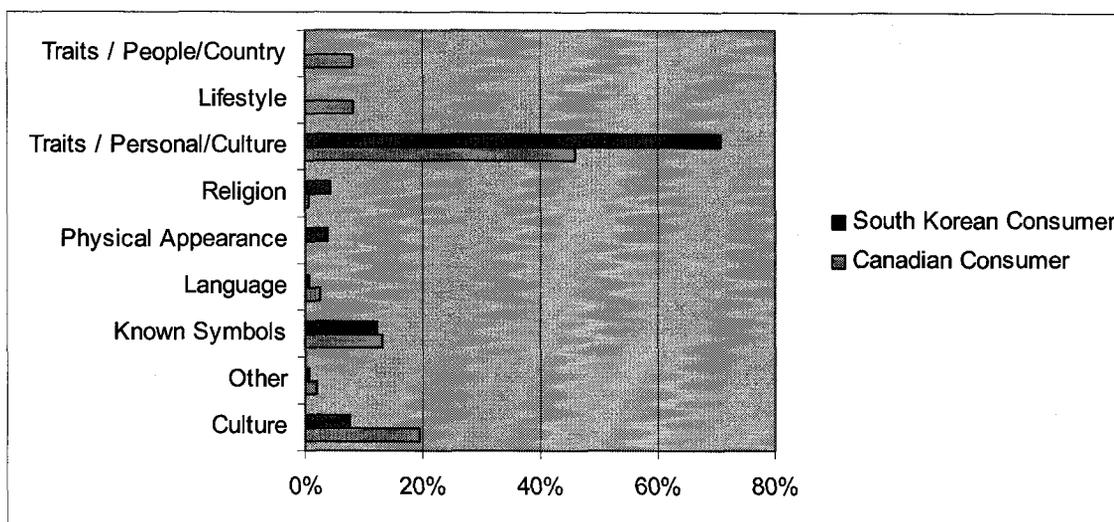
Figure 59: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: GCI of Japan



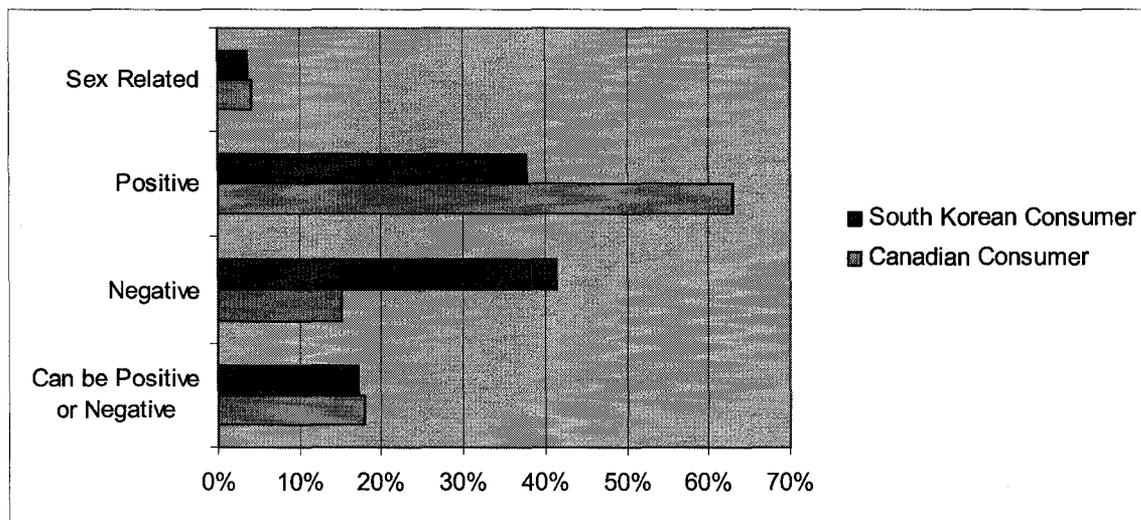
People, culture, country

When Canadian consumers and South Korean consumers think of Japanese people and culture, they all tend to think about the traits or personalities. Known symbols such as Kimono and Japanese national flag are also associated (Figure 60).

Figure 60: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: People, Culture of Japan



Interestingly, South Korean consumers associate positive and negative traits of Japan in about equal halves (Figure 61). The historical wars and current political conflicts between South Korea and Japan may have contributed to their negative view about Japanese people. Canadian consumers associate positive traits to Japanese people and culture most of the time. This is not surprising since Japanese are generally perceived as polite and friendly by Western countries.

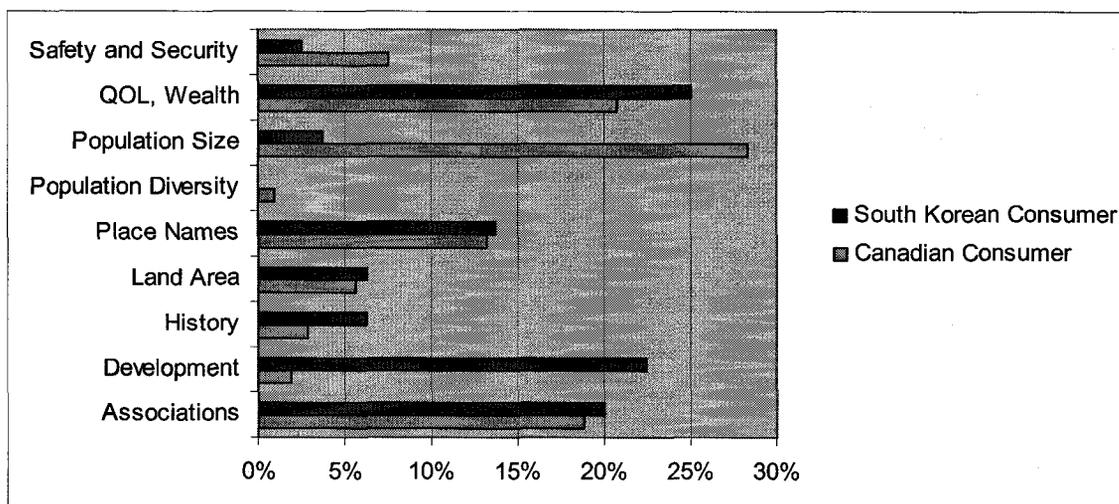
Figure 61: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Traits of Japan

Country characteristics

The strength of associations of population size and development with Japan's country characteristics is very different in Canadian consumer minds and in South Korean consumer minds (Figure 62). The dense population of Japan is much more salient to Canadian consumers because they have fewer people on a much bigger land. South Korea has similar population and country size as Japan; therefore the South Korean consumers are not sensitive to large population density.

South Korean consumers are very aware of the development of Japan. In recent years, South Korea adopted similar strategies as Japan to develop the country. This might be the reason why South Korean consumers associate Japan's country characteristics strongly to its development.

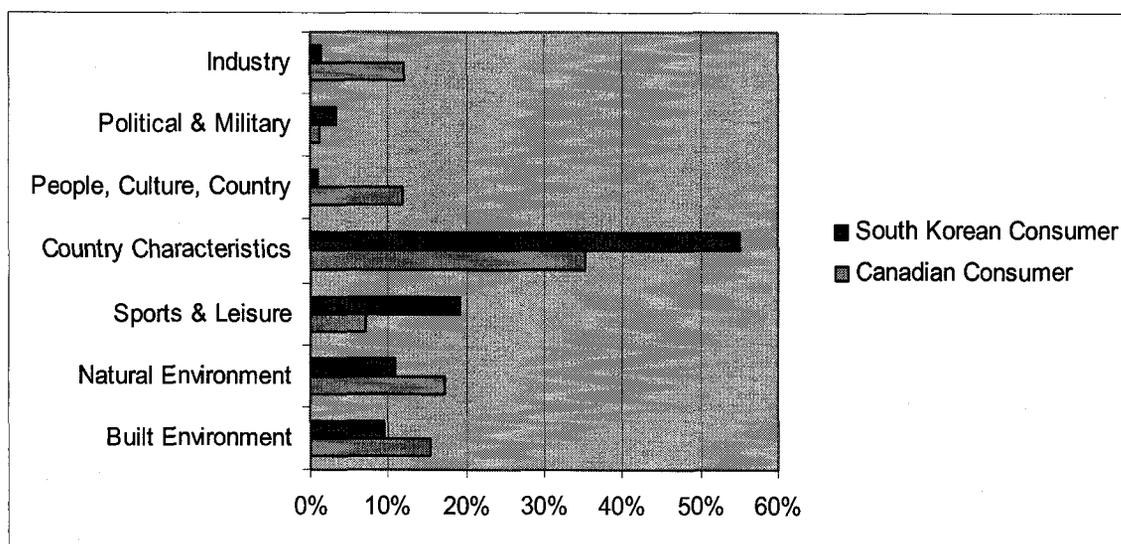
Figure 62: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Country Characteristic of Japan



10.2.2.2. TDI of Japan

Country characteristics play an important role in the TDI of Japan for both Canadian consumers and South Korean consumers. For the other subcategories, South Korean consumers tend to associate more with sports and leisure and less to the natural or built environment of Japan compared to the Canadian consumers (Figure 63).

Figure 63: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: TDI of Japan

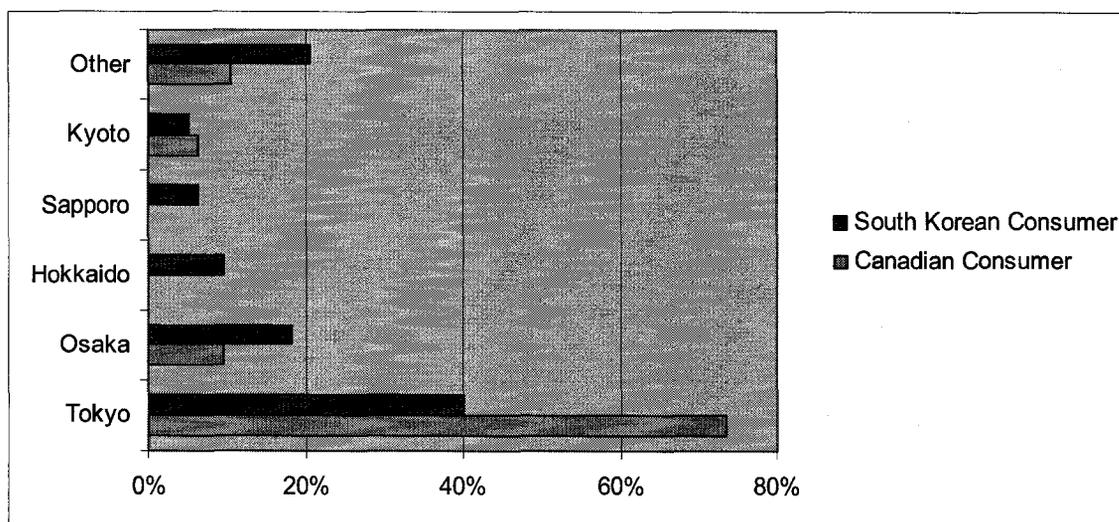


Country characteristics

Again, the biggest single subcategory under country characteristic is place names. The further break-down of place names mentioned reveals that Tokyo is associated most strongly with Japan's TDI by both Canadian consumers and South Korean consumers (Figure 64).

The difference between the two samples is that Canadian consumers tend to associate limited places with Japan while South Korean consumers tend to associate a wide variety of places. Tokyo, Osaka and Kyoto account for almost 90 per cent of all places mentioned by Canadian consumers, but only 63 per cent of all places mentioned by South Korean consumers. Hokkaido and its capital city Sapporo together account for 16 per cent of the South Korean mentions due to that it is a common place to travel to for South Korean people.

Figure 64: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Places Mentioned for Japan

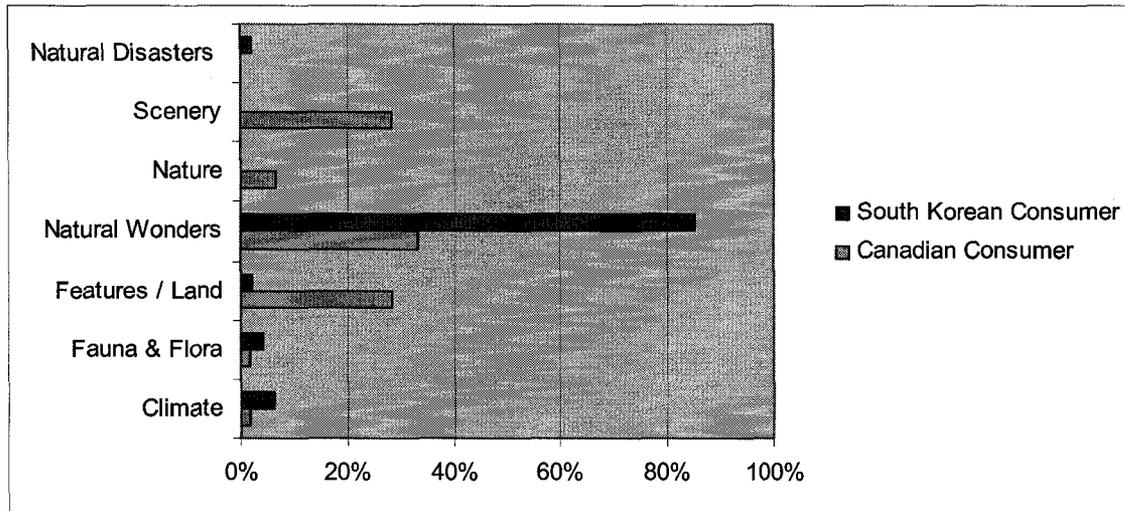


Natural environment

Natural wonders for Japan exclusively refer to Mount Fuji. It is obvious that when South Korean consumers think of the natural environment in Japan, most likely they think of Mount Fuji.

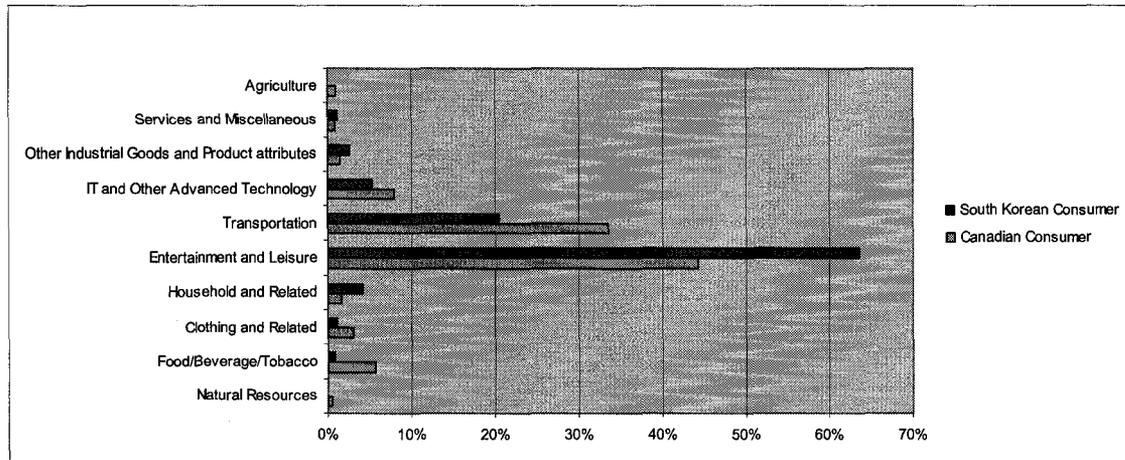
Compared to South Korean consumers, Canadian consumers associate the natural environment of Japan evenly with Mount Fuji, scenery and land features. The land features mentioned by Canadian consumers mainly refer to the mountainous geographic features of Japan (Figure 65).

Figure 65: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Natural Environment of Japan



10.2.2.3. PCI of Japan

Figure 66: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: PCI of Japan



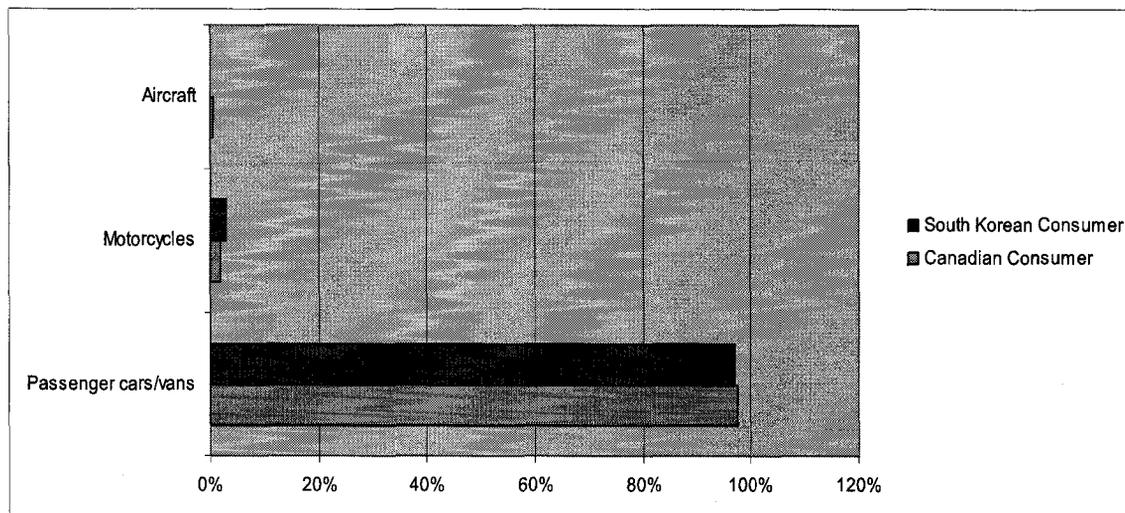
Obviously, both Canadian consumers and South Korean consumers perceive Japan as a producer of entertainment goods and transportation vehicles (Figure 66). These two industries account for more than 80 per cent of all industries mentioned for Japan by both samples. Interestingly, Canadian consumers mentioned more other industries than South

Korean consumers. For example, agriculture and natural resources are not associated with Japanese industry by South Korean consumers but by Canadian consumers.

Transportation

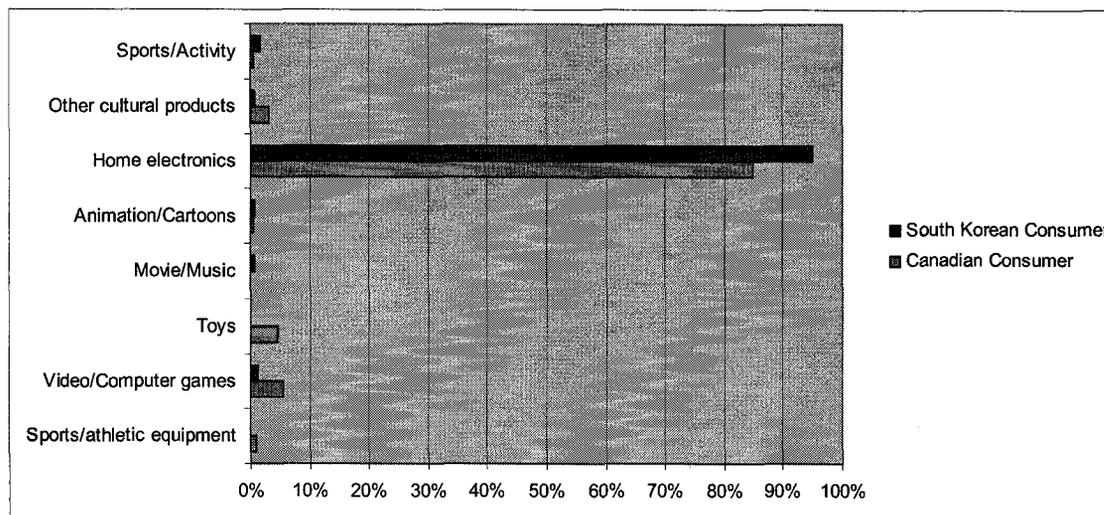
Transportation accounts for about 34 per cent of the Canadian mentions and 20 per cent of the South Korean mentions. By further breaking-down of the transportation industry, it is revealed that passenger vehicles are the single biggest product category which represents more than 95 per cent of the mentions from both samples (Figure 67).

Figure 67: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Transportation of Japan



Entertainment and Leisure

Figure 68: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Entertainment/Leisure of Japan



The Japanese entertainment and leisure industry accounts for about 65 per cent of the South Korean mentions and 45 per cent of the Canadian mentions. Further breaking-down shows that home electronics are the single biggest product category which represents 95 per cent of the South Korean mentions and 85 per cent of the Canadian mentions (Figure 68).

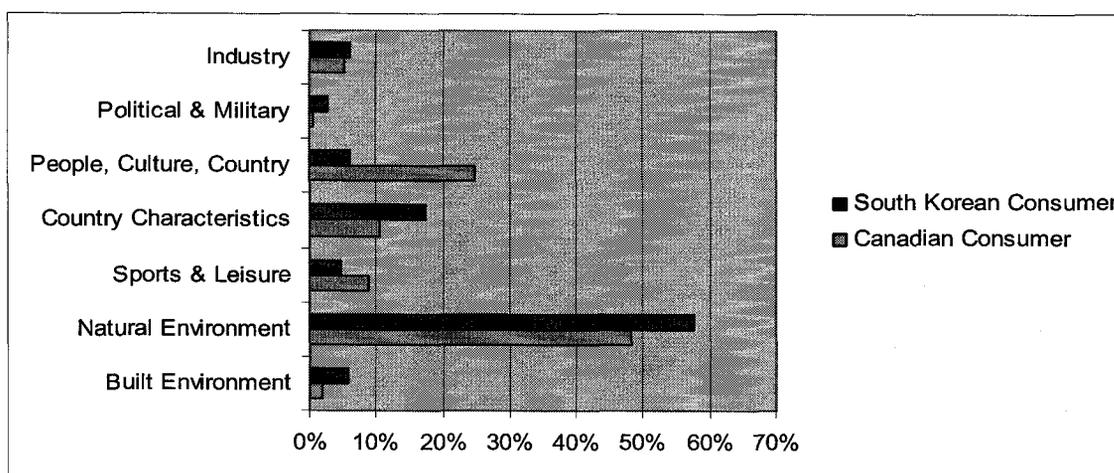
Again, Canadian consumers mentioned more other industries than South Koreans did. For example, video/computer games, toys, movies, music, sports equipment are all associated by Canadian consumers to the Japanese industry but this is not the case for South Korean consumers.

10.2.3. Australia

10.2.3.1. GCI of Australia

The GCI of Australia is most strongly associated with natural environment by both Canadian consumers and South Korean consumers (Figure 69).

Figure 69 : S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: GCI of Australia

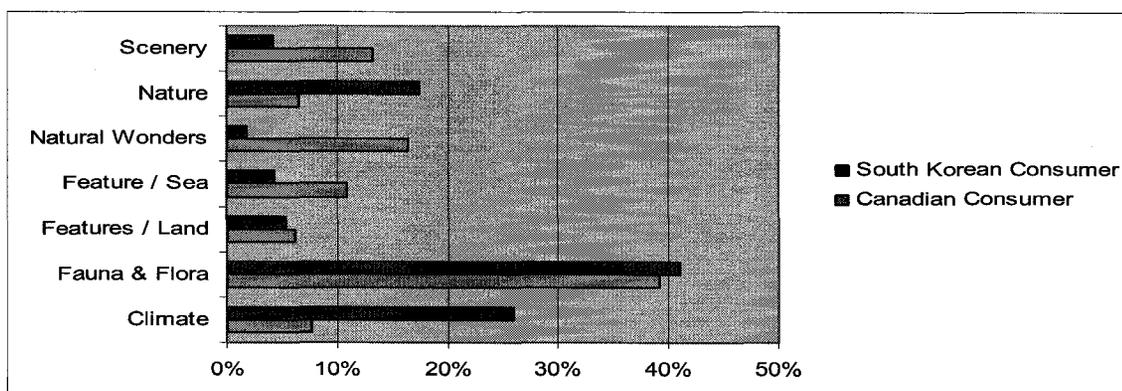


Natural environment

Both Canadian and South Korean consumers associate Australia's natural environment strongly with animals and plants (Figure 70). This is not surprising since Australia has many cute and unique animals such as kangaroos and koala bears.

In general, the associations of Australia's natural environment with scenery and natural wonders are stronger in Canadian consumers' minds than in South Korean consumers' minds. South Korean consumers tend to associate Australian natural environment more with its nature and climate.

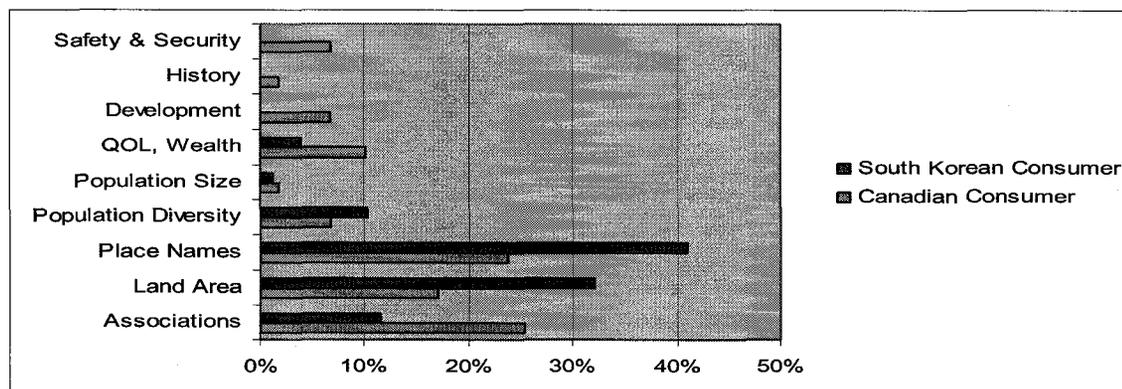
Figure 70: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Natural Environment of Australia



Country characteristics

Respondents from both of the samples associate Australia's country characteristics strongly with places (mostly Sydney), the country's land area (perceived as big) and things they link to Australia, such as New Zealand.

Figure 71: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Country Characteristic of Australia

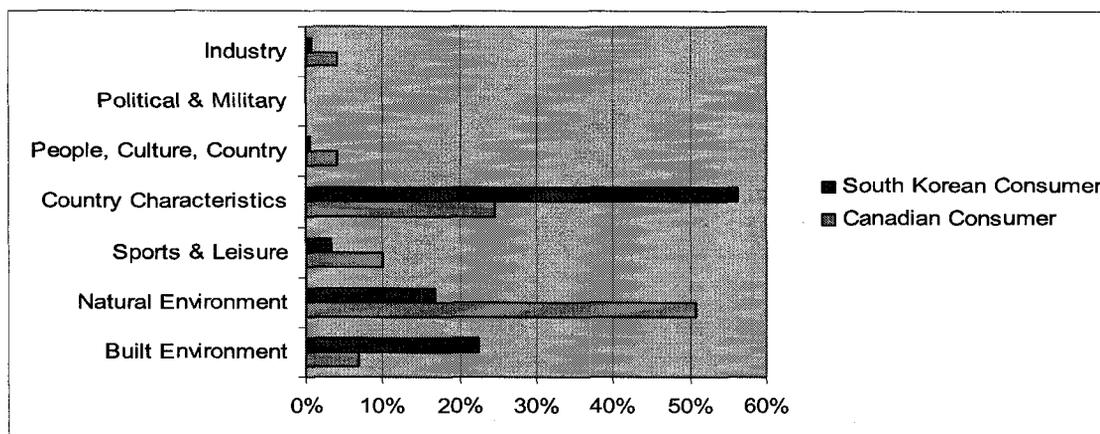


10.2.3.2. TDI of Australia

Canadian consumers and South Korean consumers associate the TDI of Australia very differently (Figure 72). When thinking of Australia as a tourist destination, South

Korean consumers think mostly of the places where they can visit while Canadian consumers think mostly of the natural environment of Australia. South Korean consumers also tend to associate Australia's TDI with built environment more than the Canadian consumers do.

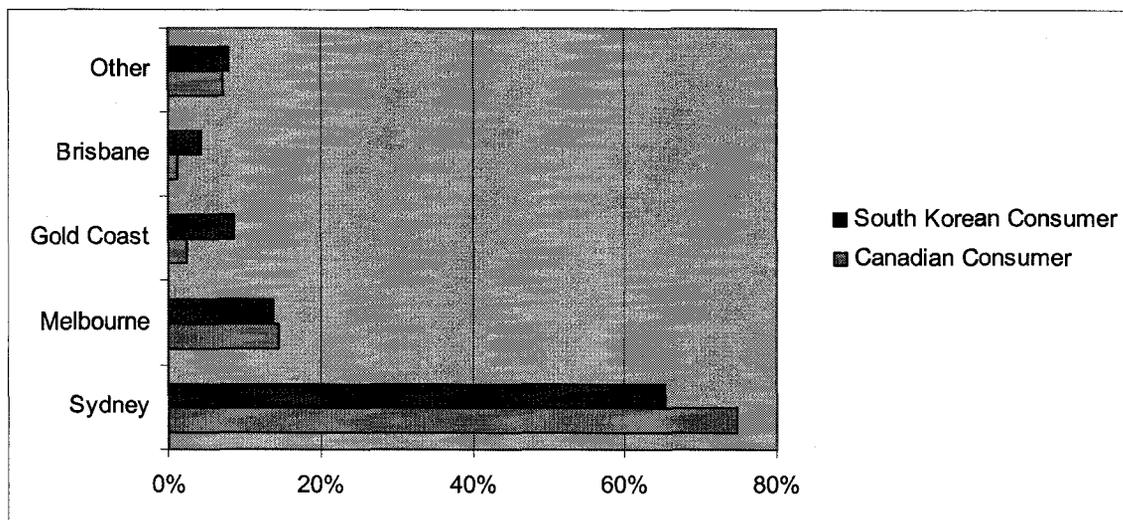
Figure 72: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: TDI of Australia



Country characteristics

Places account for most of the country characteristics of Australia. Interestingly, the Canadian consumers and the South Korean consumers associate the same cities with Australia's TDI with almost the same strength. Sydney is by far the most mentioned city, followed by Melbourne and the Gold Coast (Figure 73).

Figure 73: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Places Mentioned for Australia

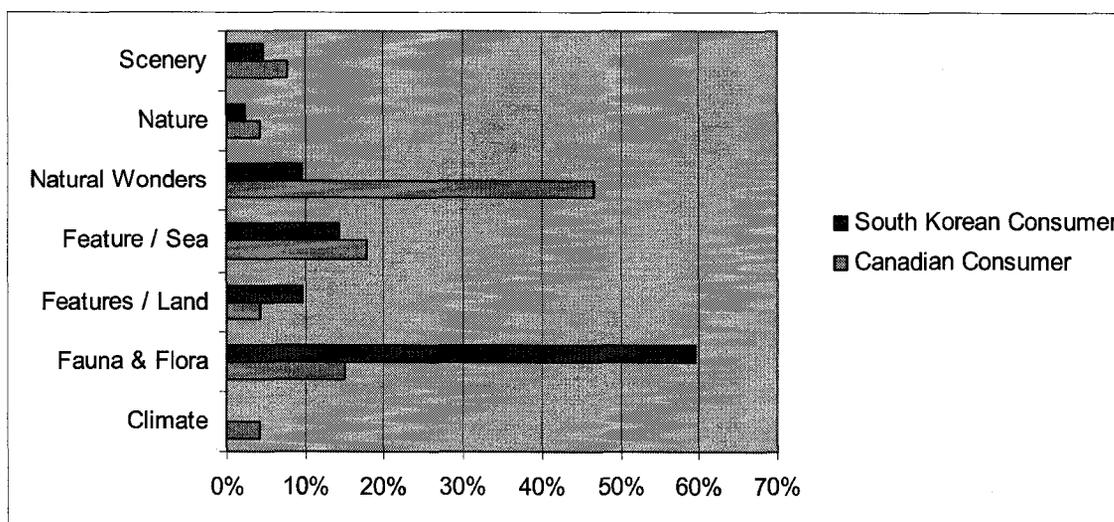


Natural environment

Figure 74 clearly shows that Canadian consumers associate Australia's natural environment mostly with natural wonders such as Ayers Rock and the Great Barrier Reef. South Korean consumers, on the other hand, associate Australia's natural environment more with animals, such as kangaroos and koala bears, and plants.

The indication is, when promoting Australia as a travel destination, different approaches should be used in the Canadian market and the South Korean market. Advertising showing kangaroos and koala bears may attract more South Korean consumers and advertising showing Ayers Rock and Great Barrier Reef may attract more Canadian consumers.

Figure 74: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Natural Environment of Australia



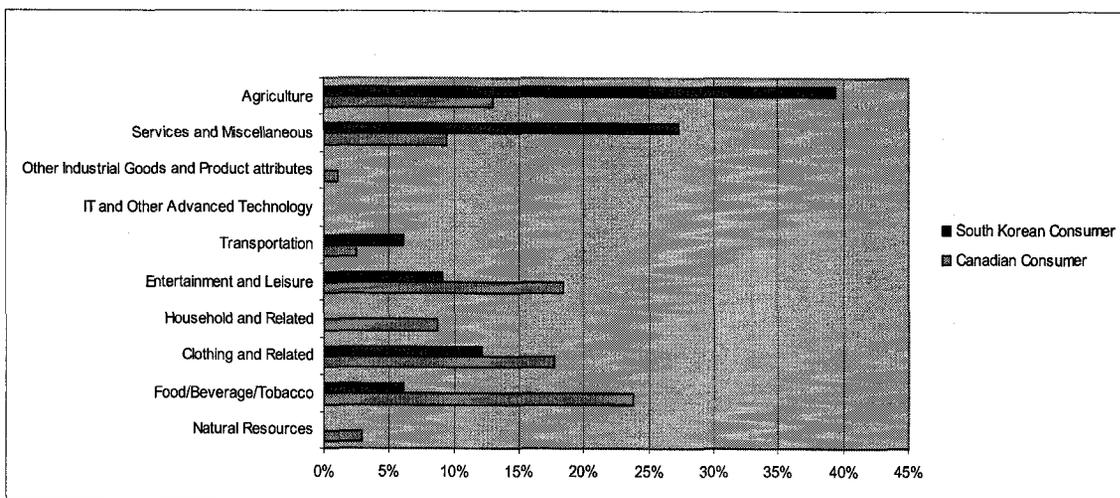
10.2.3.3. PCI of Australia

Canadian consumers have a very different view of Australian industry from South Korean consumers. Canadian consumers tend to associate most industries more evenly with the PCI of Australia; while South Korean consumer associate the PCI of Australia mainly to its agriculture and service industry (Figure 75).

Neither Canadian nor South Korean consumers associate Australian industry with IT and other advanced technology. The complete lack of advanced technology in the PCI of Australia indicates that it may not be easy to persuade consumers to buy high technology products made in Australia.

It is worth noting that the response rate of South Korean consumers for the PCI of Australia is very low (3.15 %). Therefore, a high percentage from the South Korean sample may only represent a small actual number.

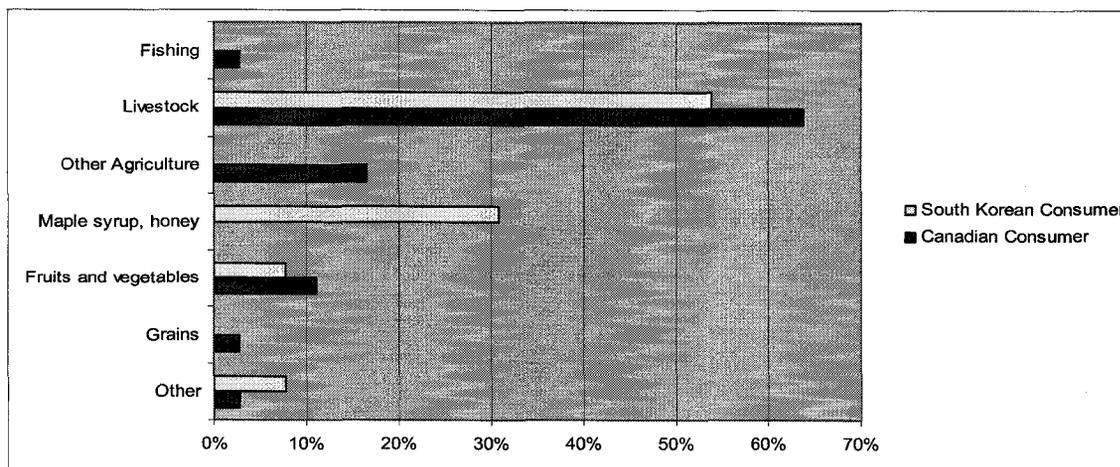
Figure 75: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: PCI of Australia



Agriculture

The breaking-down of the agriculture industry shows that livestock is associated most with the PCI of Australia (Figure 76). Note that Canadian consumers provided general mentions of agriculture but not honey, while South Korean consumers provided mentions of honey but not agriculture in general.

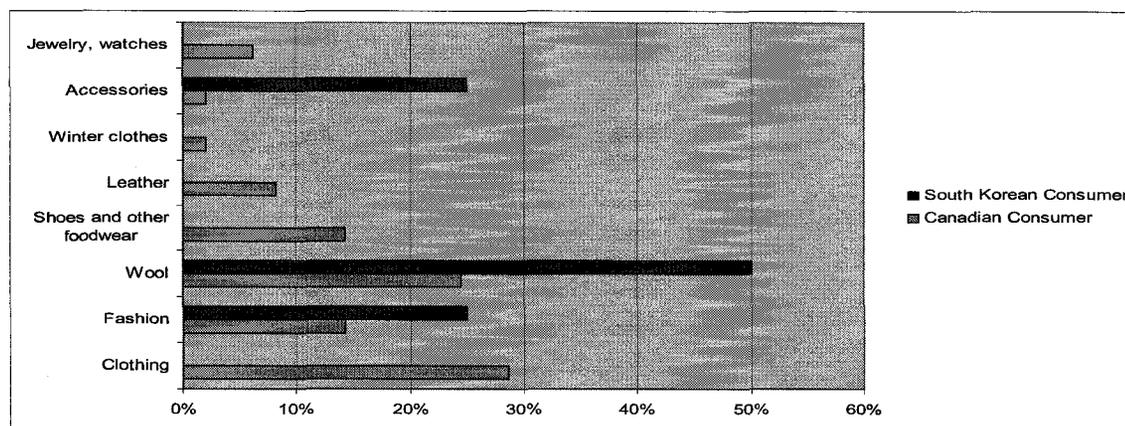
Figure 76: S Korean vs. Canadian Consumers: Agriculture of Australia



Clothing and Related

Reflecting the strong association between agriculture and the PCI of Australia, wool is a big product under the clothing industry, especially for South Korean consumers. Comparably, Canadian consumers mention more other clothing and related products.

Figure 77: S Korean Consumers vs. Canadian Consumers: Clothing



10.3. Summary

The main purpose of this chapter was to examine whether people from different countries perceive other countries differently. The conclusion is yes. Finding out how a country is perceived differently by other people is very important because these differences are the base of targeted strategies. For example, knowing that its natural environment is more strongly associated with Canadian consumers but the built environment more strongly associated with South Korean consumers is very important for Australia to make different advertising and promotion programs to attract these two markets.

Chapter 11 Consumer Sample versus Student Sample

This chapter is devoted to the comparison of the Canadian student sample and the Canadian real consumer sample. First, an overview will be given discussing how the comparison is carried out. And then the demographics of both samples will be compared to detect major differences between students and real consumers. Afterwards, the response rates will be compared in order to measure and compare the familiarity of each sample. And then, the real verbatim responses will be compared to find out whether students have similar mental schemata as real consumers in terms of the GCI, PCI and TDI they have about the same countries. Finally, a summary will be presented discussing the indications of the findings.

11.1. Overview

As discussed earlier, student samples are often used as substitutions for real consumer samples in business studies. Even though some studies have examined the differences between student samples and real consumer samples, the results are inconclusive and the validity of generalization from student samples to the whole population is generally unknown (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999).

Enabled by the data collected from a Canadian student sample and a Canadian real consumer sample on identical questionnaires, it was felt that this study may be able to

contribute through a comparison to identify the similarities or differences between the two groups in this research.

11.2. Demographics

Students as a group are very different from real consumers in terms of their demographics. First of all, students tend to be younger and have higher education compared to average consumers. Second, students are less financially established than average consumers. Third, although university students tend to have more knowledge compared to the population as a whole, they also have fewer experiences than average consumers due to their young age. In the following sections, detailed demographic information of the two samples will be presented and compared, hoping to further understand the differences between students and real consumers.

11.2.1. Gender

Table 34 shows the gender composition of each sample. Although the student sample was drawn from one university and the real consumer sample was drawn from major tourism events, the individual respondents were drawn randomly, that is, no pre-defined requirements were set to target any specific respondent. Therefore, the gender distribution is evenly divided by male and female in both samples.

Table 34: Canadian Consumer vs. Canadian Students: Gender

	Canadian Consumer	Canadian Student
Male	46.90%	51.80%
Female	51.80%	47.00%
Missing	1.30%	1.20%
<i>Chi-square =0.51, degree of freedom = 2, Not significant at p = 0.05</i>		

11.2.2.Age

Table 31 shows the age groups of each sample. As expected, students are generally much younger than the average consumers. More than 97 per cent of the students are younger than 35; while only 42.6 per cent of average consumers are younger than 35. Also, the ages of average consumers are evenly distributed through all age ranges; while most students are 20 to 24 years old.

Table 35: Canadian Consumer vs. Canadian Students: Age

	Canadian Consumer	Canadian Student
less than 20	16.90%	15.10%
20 - 29 years	21.10%	80.90%
30 - 39 years	9.80%	1.60%
40 - 49 years	10.10%	1.20%
50 - 59 years	15.30%	0.00%
60 or older	25.80%	0.00%
Missing	1.00%	1.20%

11.2.3. Education

Since the student sample is drawn from a university, the overall education level of the student sample is higher than average consumers. Ninety-eight per cent of the student respondents have some university education or are university graduates; while only 47 per cent of the average consumers have the same level of education.

Table 36: Canadian Consumer vs. Canadian Students: Education

	Canadian Consumer	Canadian Student
no high school	1.30%	0.00%
some high school	11.70%	0.00%
high school graduate	13.40%	0.00%
some college	11.40%	0.40%
college graduate	12.40%	0.80%
some university	16.60%	88.80%
university graduate	30.30%	9.20%
other	2.00%	0.00%
Missing	1.00%	0.80%

11.2.4. Household income

Surprisingly, although 30 per cent of the students have household income less than 30, 000 annually, the income levels of the other 70 per cent of the students are quite evenly spread out through all other categories. The reason might be that most university students are not married, so they count the income of their parents in the overall household income.

Table 37: Canadian Consumer vs. Canadian Students: Household Income

	Canadian Consumer	Canadian Student
Up to \$ 29,999	9.40%	31.50%
\$ 30,000 - \$ 49,999	16.60%	13.50%
\$ 50,000 - \$ 74,999	21.50%	17.90%
\$ 75,000 - \$ 99,999	16.90%	10.40%
\$ 100,000 - 149,999	13.00%	13.90%
\$ 150,000 or more	10.10%	8.00%
Missing	12.40%	4.80%

11.2.5. Summary of demographics

The results show that the major demographic differences between students and average consumers are age and education level.

11.3. Response Rates

Table 38 shows that the student sample has higher response rates in all cases. The indication is that students have more knowledge about the target countries than the average consumers. A counter argument might be that students simply have more time and patience to fill out the questionnaires, or a greater willingness to cooperate since the request to participate in the study was made in an in-class environment. This can be true in some cases, however, given that (i) the real consumer respondents were all willing to do the survey therefore it can be assumed that they have both the time and patience to do so; (ii) students do have higher education level than average consumers; it can be said

that the higher response rates provided by the students may at least to an extent reflect their richer knowledge of the target countries.

Table 38: Canadian Consumers vs. Students: Response Rates (in percentages)

GCI	U.S.	Japan	Australia	South Korea	Average by Sample
Canadian Consumer	66.23%	55.90%	61.56%	35.83%	54.88%
Canadian Student	81.94%	78.09%	76.49%	54.18%	72.68%
PCI	US	Japan	Australia	South Korea	Average by Sample
Canadian Consumer	57.55%	53.50%	30.08%	29.20%	42.58%
Canadian Student	75.56%	75.17%	41.56%	44.35%	59.16%
TDI	US	Japan	Australia	South Korea	Average by Sample
Canadian Consumer	58.84%	38.11%	45.05%	15.30%	39.33%
Canadian Student	74.37%	55.10%	60.95%	26.43%	54.21%

Table 39 summarizes the Chi-square analysis between the two samples. The results show that there is no significant difference between the distribution of Canadian consumer mentions and Canadian student mentions across all target countries. To explain, the students are not more familiar with any specific target country than are the consumers.

Table 39: Canadian Consumers vs. Students: Response Rates (in numbers)

GCI	U.S.	Japan	Australia	South Korea	Overall
Canadian Consumer	610	552	567	330	2059
Canadian Student	617	588	576	408	2189
<i>Chi-square = 5.51, degree of freedom = 3, Not significant at p = 0.05</i>					
PCI	US	Japan	Australia	South Korea	Overall
Canadian Consumer	523	491	270	268	1552
Canadian Student	558	562	298	324	1742
<i>Chi-square = 1.64, degree of freedom = 3, Not significant at p = 0.05</i>					
TDI	US	Japan	Australia	South Korea	Overall
Canadian Consumer	537	347	409	132	1425
Canadian Student	549	407	452	181	1589
<i>Chi-square = 5.82, degree of freedom = 3, Not significant at p = 0.05</i>					

Table 40 summarizes the Chi-square results of the distributions of brand versus generic mentions across all image categories of each target country. It is evident that the Canadian students do differ from the Canadian consumers in their responses. The Canadian consumers tend to provide specific associations with the general image of Japan and Australia. The Canadian students, on the other hand, tend to associate more brand names to the PCI of all target countries. The Canadian students also provide more specific mentions for the TDI of the United States. The most important indication might be that the students are more brand-aware, especially for products. Therefore, marketing programs targeting students might need to put more stress on their brand images.

Table 40: Canadian Consumers vs. Students: Brand versus Generic Mentions

GCI	U.S.		Japan		Australia		S. Korea	
	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic
Canadian Consumers	147	463	91	461	163	404	20	310
Canadian Students	152	465	66	522	123	453	31	377
Chi-square value, df=1, P=0.05	0.48		6.64		8.33		0.67	
	Not significant		Significant		Significant		Not significant	
PCI	U.S.		Japan		Australia		S. Korea	
	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic
Canadian Consumers	226	297	186	305	47	223	95	173
Canadian Students	372	186	300	262	78	220	155	169
Chi-square value, df=1, P=0.05	60.08		25.33		6.34		9.23	
	Significant		Significant		Significant		Significant	
TDI	U.S.		Japan		Australia		S. Korea	
	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic	Brand	Generic
Canadian Consumers	368	169	156	191	228	181	38	94
Canadian Students	435	114	172	235	234	218	51	130
Chi-square value, df=1, P=0.05	16.15		0.55		1.36		0.01	
	Significant		Not significant		Not significant		Not significant	

11.4. Strength of Associations

Tables 41 and 42 show that the pattern of the responses of the Canadian students does not differ from that of the Canadian consumers across all image categories of all target countries. That is to say, the Canadian students associate very similar things as the Canadian consumers do with the GCI, PCI and TDI of each target country.

The indication is that in image studies, the use of a Canadian student sample does not make the results much different from using a real Canadian consumer sample since

the students associate similar things with similar strength to all images of the target countries.

11.5. Summary

This chapter has compared a Canadian student sample with a Canadian real consumer sample. The results show that although students differ from real consumers in many ways such as age and education, their mental schemata of the images of the U.S, Japan, Australia and South Korea do not differ from those of the real Canadian consumers. The only major difference is that students link the PCI of a country more strongly with its brand names. Therefore, given that there are no significant differences between the student sample and the real consumer sample in general, it may be possible to use student samples as substitutes of real consumer samples in future studies of this kind.

Table 41: Canadian Consumers vs. Students: Chi-square Test of Response Structures, GCI and TDI

			Built Environment	Country Characteristics	Industry	Natural Environment	People, Country, Culture	Political & Military	Sports & Leisure	Total	
GCI	U.S.	Canadian Consumers	7	24	9	11	28	11	10	100	
		Canadian Students	8	26	10	3	31	19	3	100	
	Chi-square = 11.35, degree of freedom = 6, Not significant at p = 0.05										
	Japan	Canadian Consumers	6	19	31	9	29	3	3	100	
		Canadian Students	6	18	34	2	36	3	1	100	
	Chi-square = 6.97, degree of freedom = 6, Not significant at p = 0.05										
	Australia	Canadian Consumers	2	10	5	48	25	1	9	100	
		Canadian Students	3	8	3	47	26	3	10	100	
	Chi-square = 2.88, degree of freedom = 6, Not significant at p = 0.05										
	S. Korea	Canadian Consumers	3	22	21	9	27	12	6	100	
		Canadian Students	2	27	25	2	23	19	2	100	
	Chi-square = 10.86, degree of freedom = 6, Not significant at p = 0.05										
TDI	U.S.	Canadian Consumers	24	38	4	20	3	1	10	100	
		Canadian Students	24	47	5	14	4	1	5	100	
	Chi-square = 4.22, degree of freedom = 6, Not significant at p = 0.05										
	Japan	Canadian Consumers	15	35	12	18	12	1	1	100	
		Canadian Students	20	32	11	14	13	2	8	100	
	Chi-square = 7.81, degree of freedom = 6, Not significant at p = 0.05										
	Australia	Canadian Consumers	6	24	4	51	4	1	10	100	
		Canadian Students	8	25	1	52	2	1	11	100	
	Chi-square = 3.62, degree of freedom = 6, Not significant at p = 0.05										
	S. Korea	Canadian Consumers	10	36	14	15	9	7	9	100	
		Canadian Students	12	33	16	10	14	3	12	100	
	Chi-square = 4.71, degree of freedom = 6, Not significant at p = 0.05										

Table 42: Canadian Consumers vs. Students: Chi-square Test of Response Structures, PCI

PCI		Natural Resources	Food/Beverage/Tobacco	Clothing and Related	Household and Related	Entertainment and Leisure	Transportation	IT and Other Advanced Technology	Other Industrial Goods and Product Attributes	Service and Miscellaneous	Agriculture	Total
U.S.	Canadian Consumers	2	10	16	6	9	27	9	3	15	3	100
	Canadian Students	1	10	15	3	7	26	13	1	22	2	100
	<i>Chi-square = 6.16, degree of freedom = 9, Not significant at p = 0.05</i>											
Japan	Canadian Consumers	1	6	3	2	44	33	8	1	1	1	100
	Canadian Students	1	6	2	2	39	34	13	1	1	1	100
	<i>Chi-square = 2.14, degree of freedom = 9, Not significant at p = 0.05</i>											
Australia	Canadian Consumers	3	24	18	9	19	3	1	1	9	13	100
	Canadian Students	3	22	19	14	21	3	1	1	7	9	100
	<i>Chi-square = 2.31, degree of freedom = 9, Not significant at p = 0.05</i>											
S. Korea	Canadian Consumers	1	6	12	5	22	34	9	5	4	2	100
	Canadian Students	1	4	6	8	26	36	12	4	2	1	100
	<i>Chi-square = 5.87, degree of freedom = 9, Not significant at p = 0.05</i>											

Chapter 12 Benefits, Limitations and Feature Research

The benefits of this study include contributions to research in the PCI and TDI areas as well as strategic insights for business and governments. This chapter summarizes the benefits that this study has contributed, as well as its limitations. Suggestions for future research are also discussed.

12.1. Benefits

This study has provided considerable benefits to researchers, marketers and governments. Since different audiences may have different interests, the study's contributions are discussed separately below.

For researchers

This study has contributed to the research of PCI and TDI by addressing the three research gaps identified in the current literatures in these two areas.

The first research gap is that PCI and TDI have been studied independently of each other until recently, potentially leading to missed opportunities to advance both fields through cross-disciplinary research. This study has addressed a part of this gap by examining the fundamental connections of PCI, TDI and GCI in people's minds. Image schemata maps revealed that these three images are linked by common elements, therefore having close relationships. Studying PCI, TDI and GCI together may deepen

the understanding of all and their influences to each other. Historically, image studies have been focused on one specific image or even on limited perspectives of that image. This is necessary for a thorough understanding of each image category. However, given the close relationships among all images, image studies will not be complete if the “big picture” is missing. By elaborating on this necessity, this study hopes to draw more attention from researchers to broaden their views in image studies.

The second research gap concerns the research methods that have been used in image studies, and can be discussed in terms of two distinct issues. The first issue is that qualitative methods have been largely neglected in this field of research. As discussed in Chapter 3, this may have contributed to the failure to catch a holistic picture of images. To address this issue, instead of asking respondents to rate a set of pre-determined attributes, this study asked the respondents to provide verbatims which reflect the nodes associated with these images in their mental schemata. In this way, a holistic view of images can be obtained and the most salient elements of images were allowed to emerge.

In order to capture the holistic picture of images and show their relationships as well as the strength of each relationship, this study has used an innovative approach – drawing image schemata maps. Although drawing maps from qualitative verbatim responses is not a brand new method, it is the first time that image schemata maps were used to present the holistic picture of PCI, TDI and GCI by showing their common elements and the associations among them. Most importantly, the strength of the associations was also shown so that how exactly these images are related to each other

can be examined. Therefore, the method of drawing image schemata maps used in this study may be a new approach that image studies can use to further explore this area.

The second issue concerning image research methodology is that student samples have been frequently used as substitutions for consumer samples although the potential impact on the appropriateness and generalizeability of results remain inconclusive. This study has examined this issue and the findings may provide useful insights. As the results show, in this qualitative image study, university student samples do not differ from consumer samples significantly. University students may have more knowledge about other countries due to their higher-than-average educational level, but in terms of what comes to mind when they think of another country, the pattern of responses are very similar.

Caution should be taken here because in this study, both consumers and students were from the same country and they were asked to respond about foreign countries. This indicates that in terms of perceptions about other countries, the cultural background of consumers and students, which in this case was the same, may be a more important factor than other demographic differences such as age.

The indication is that, although the impact of using student samples in domestic image studies remains unclear, such samples can be an option as a substitute for consumer samples in international image studies with the advantages of: (i) student samples may be more easily accessed; (ii) students may have a higher interest or stronger

motive to participate in surveys in class; and (iii) students may have more knowledge than average consumers therefore may provide more responses.

However, this does not mean that student samples can be always used as substitutes for consumer samples. Random consumer samples have more power to generalize to the whole population, and therefore they should always be considered a priority. Student samples should only be considered when consumer samples are not accessible and full caution should be taken concerning the potential impacts on the results.

This points to a particular benefit of this study, which used both consumer and student samples. The validation of the students' responses, which in this case made it possible to essentially double the Canadian sample size, comes from the fact that these responses could be compared to those of consumers. If the study had used student samples only, as most other studies that use students do, the validity of their responses would have been in doubt.

The third research gap concerns image formation and composition. This study has addressed image formation by thoroughly examining psychology theories and has addressed image composition by analyzing a large amount of verbatim responses.

Psychology theories suggest that image is not a single element, but rather a mental network composed of nodes and associations. All elements in the network have gone through learning, storage, adaptation or change before they are retrieved. Therefore, although the mental schemata networks in people's minds cannot be accessed directly, the elements that are retrieved can be used to construct such mental networks indirectly.

By drawing image schemata maps, this study has effectively presented the composition of the GCI, PCI and TDI of each target country so that a big picture of the overall image of each country can be obtained. Researchers can benefit from a solid foundation of understandings about images provided by this study as well as a theoretical base of using ISMs as a method for image studies.

An additional benefit highlighted by this study, which is not related to any gaps in past research but is related to the study's methodology, is the wealth of information that can be extracted from an approach such as the one used here and the insights it can provide if it is analyzed carefully and in detail. The base data for this study was a set of more than 14,000 words offered by over 900 respondents in two countries. The volume of top-of-mind mentions alone is very large and offers the opportunity to delve deeply into how consumers think of the selected target countries. Analyzing such a large volume of qualitative information is a daunting and time-consuming task, and if not done properly it can lead to justifiable doubt as to the usefulness of any reported findings. But in this case the use of multiple coders and approaches (including open, axial, and selective coding, in line with Corbin and Strauss 1990), coupled with the fact that the results are intuitively logical and in line with earlier research, offers confidence in the findings and suggests that qualitative methodologies such as those used here can contribute significantly to a better understanding of how images work and what the images of selected target countries are.

For business

The main benefits that this study provides to business are the deep understanding of the country image that consumers hold, based on which effective strategies can be developed.

For manufacturing corporations, it is important to know how their countries are perceived as product origins. As halo effects indicate, products are not judged individually especially when consumers do not have experience with the products. PCI cues may play very important roles in such circumstances. For example, Japan is generally perceived as technologically advanced and its products are generally perceived as of good quality. Therefore, Japanese manufactures should take advantage of this and put PCI cues in their technology-related products.

For countries that do not have a positive PCI, it is not recommended that the manufacturers reveal obvious PCI cues in the marketing of their products. This is not a suggestion that producers should cheat consumers but one intended to counteract the negative impacts from negative PCI within ethical boundaries. Although country origins do indicate product attributes in many cases, such a connection should not be taken for granted. It is possible that high quality products can be produced in countries with negative PCI, and in this case the products should not be pre-judged as being of bad quality only because of where they happened to be made.

One way to counteract negative PCI stereotypes is to “borrow” positive PCI from other countries. For example, South Korean cars are generally perceived as cheap and

less reliable quality wise. To counteract this negative image, Daewoo, a Korean car brand, in an earlier advertising campaign associated itself with German engineering and Italian design in their advertising.

Another option might be hiding the country origin of products. For example, many food retailers, including Loblaws and its parent company, Weston, label imported foods as “Imported for [Weston Foods] / by [importing company name] for [Weston Foods]” instead of “Made in / Product of [origin country name]”. In this way, the product is less likely to be pre-judged by its origin, but more likely being judged by its real quality. In such practices responsibility for the product’s appropriateness, safety, and other similar considerations is assumed by the importer and/or retailer.

It is also important for business to understand how the GCI of their countries can influence their international performance. If the GCI of a country is perceived as negative, the aversion to the country can be transferred to its products. For example, in the past, there have been boycotts of Japanese products in China and South Korea (Takeshi, 2005; Rhee and Lee, 1996). Although Japanese products are not perceived as being of bad quality, the aversion to Japan, which is rooted in historical conflicts, has simply been the reason of these boycotts. Patriotism exists everywhere and it can be used against products from countries with which the target country has or has had conflicts. Therefore, it is important for businesses to continuously monitor the views of their home countries by consumers from other countries. Ignoring potential impacts from GCI may result in unexpected market failures.

For firms in tourism, it is even more important to understand how their home countries are perceived by international consumers since many tourism resources are country-specific, that is, every country may have unique tourism attractions which can differentiate it from other countries. Therefore, marketers need to know what these unique attractions are and which tourism elements are most strongly associated with the TDI of their countries in consumers' minds. These associated images are likely to have the greatest potential influences on their travel purchasing behaviors.

Advertising has long been used as one of the major approaches to convince consumers in making purchase decisions. Classical conditioning has been actively used in advertising practices and its effects have been affirmed by many studies (Smith, Feinberg and Burns, 1998). As discussed earlier, classical conditioning is a type of association. The mechanism is that when an unconditioned stimulus (US) is systematically paired with a conditioned stimulus (CS), the target will become aware of the contingency relation and the generated affects can transfer from the US to the CS (Allen and Madden, 1985).

Applying to marketers, if they know what elements are most strongly associated with PCI or TDI in consumer's minds, as well as whether these elements are positive or negative, they can take advantage of pairing strong positive elements with the PCI and TDI of the marketer's home country, therefore transferring consumer affects towards these positive elements to all images. For example, by knowing that Australia is in general very strongly associated with positive natural features, marketers can integrate pictures of beautiful nature into their advertisements thereby transferring consumers' love

of nature to a love of Australia. Products that can be associated with nature are also likely to benefit from classical conditioning effects. For example, agricultural products can be perceived as clean and healthy when associated with clean and beautiful nature.

This study has provided valuable findings by presenting the most salient elements associated with each image in people's minds, which may greatly facilitate the effective designs of strategies and campaigns for marketers.

For governments

Governments of the five target countries in this study can also benefit greatly from the findings, in ways similar to those concerning business. However, since individual firms are only interested in their own and their sector's affairs, while government interests extend to all sectors, the benefits to government from this simultaneous examination of GCI, TDI and PCI are considerably broader and greater. On the one hand, this study has provided a macro picture of all images for each target country; on the other hand, the holistic image maps have also provided detailed information about how exactly these countries are perceived.

With insights provided by this study, governments can: (i) better understand how their countries are perceived, therefore being able to make effective international policies accordingly; (ii) develop international campaigns in order to further project their positive images or counteract their negative images.

12.2. Limitations and Future Research

The limitations of this study mainly originate from the qualitative approach it used. The biggest challenge for qualitative studies is subjectivity. To maximize objectivity, several researchers and coders worked closely together to ensure the efficiency and accuracy of the coding process.

Another limitation of this study is that the research methods were restrained by the availability of qualitative research tools. However, the main purpose of qualitative studies is to reveal deeper meanings rather than to enable statistical tests. This study has hopefully made a good balance of addressing its main objectives through the qualitative analyses and findings coupled with statistical tests where possible and appropriate.

A third limitation may originate from the potential impact that the sequence of questions may have had on the responses. In the questionnaire, respondents were asked to provide their top-of-mind-awareness mentions for GCI first, followed by those for PCI and then TDI. It can be argued that, having provided answers for the target countries in the first set (GCI), respondents might then go farther down their hierarchical memory schemata in looking for responses to the next two sets (PCI and TDI) than if the GCI question had not been asked first. This effect might be doubled for the TDI responses, since they were preceded by those for both GCI and PCI. Such an argument is logical and reflects the unavoidable need for, and potential consequences of, sequencing any questions in any questionnaire. In this case, however, both the structure of the questionnaire and the results suggest that such sequencing effects, if any, likely were minimal. First, the questions for GCI and TDI, which might be the most susceptible to

hierarchical answering, were separated by those for PCI. Second, all three sets of questions appeared on the same page of the questionnaire, and the differences between them were highlighted by bold-facing the relevant terms in each case (countries, products, tourism), clearly indicating to respondents that these were three distinct categories. Third, the results of the data analysis clearly suggest that respondents did understand the distinction between the three different questions, given the great differences between the responses to GCI and TDI and the fact that respondents oriented themselves toward different kinds of concepts in each case. Although the coding schemes for GCI and TDI, as determined by the grounded theory approach in the study, were the same, the strength of the associations between each construct and the coding categories varied widely in many cases. For example, political and military factors were associated by the respondents very strongly with the GCI of the U.S., but very weakly with the same country's TDI. Nevertheless, and notwithstanding the above comments which add confidence in the results, future research can further examine this issue by rotating the sequence of questions.

A further limitation is that the data was collected in only two countries and may not represent an international opinion. However, the two countries can represent a western and an oriental view. Given the difficulties in data collection from many countries, samples from different regions and cultures may be a good way to start as stepping-stones for international studies with wider scope.

With this said, the space for future studies is wide. Effective methods used in this study, such as (i) the use and analysis of large number of verbatim responses and (ii)

drawing schemata maps to catch holistic pictures, can be extended to a large variety of other studies related to image research.

More countries can be included in image studies to further understand this area and practically benefit strategy makers. More samples can also be collected from other countries in order to examine similarities and differences across countries.

Since image is a mental network made of nodes and associations, which node is first recalled may partially determine what may be recalled next within the same image category. Furthermore, the nature of the GCI and TDI components of image makes these two constructs somewhat different from PCI, and suggests that further analysis may be called for to relate specific parts of PCI with the “industry” component of the GCI and TDI schemata. While these issues were beyond the scope of this study and were not explored in the preceding analysis, they can be a great interest for future studies and could, or perhaps should, be pursued. Path analysis, for example, can be conducted to examine such sequencing effects.

This study has also addressed the issue of using student samples as substitutes of real consumer samples. No significant differences were found against the validity of such substitution. However, this may not be the case for all student samples. More research is needed to further test this issue in both quantitative and qualitative studies.

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