



Zhou, Qi (2018) *The reverse country-of-origin spread effects: An integrative framework of product, destination and country image with co-branding perspective*. [MBA]

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**The Reverse Country-of-Origin Spread Effects:
An Integrative Framework of Product, Destination and
Country Image with Co-Branding Perspective**

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A dissertation submitted in part requirement for the
Master of Business Administration

Adam Smith Business School
University of Glasgow
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Abstract

Traditional country-of-origin effects are concerned with the country image to influence beliefs about the country's products. Recent researches suggest the reverse effects of product beliefs on destination or country image. If product beliefs can generalize into a favourable country image, a spread effect will then enable the traditional country-of-origin effect to benefit the country's other products. In this study, the findings of a questionnaire survey involving three different industries across two countries reveal the positive relationships among the product-related beliefs, destination-related beliefs, general country image, country brand equity and related consumer behavioural intentions, indicating that both product-related beliefs and destination-related beliefs positively influence the general country image, contributing to the positive country brand equity, which in turn, influences consumers' behaviour intentions in other industries. Furthermore, the author draws on the co-branding theory and image transfer process to build the theoretical model to explain their findings, contributing to the broad grounds not only for other researchers, but also for brand managers, tourist organizations, industry associations and governors to work cooperatively for building up synergic effectiveness.

Keywords: reverse country-of-origin effects, product reputation, destination image, general country image, country brand equity, word of mouth, intention to recommend

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The country-of-origin effect is one of the most intense and persistent concerns among academic researchers, governmental officers, and business practitioners in international marketing over the past three decades (Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Kim 2011). One aspect of country-of-origin which is particularly favoured on both practical and theoretical circles is the country-of-origin effect, involving the effects of country-of-origin image on product image, consumers perceptions on products and behaviours (Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre, 2016; Andéhn, Nordin, and Nilsson, 2016; Herz and Diamantopoulos, 2013, 2017; Koshate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos, and Oldenkotte, 2012). The strategy to explore products' country-of-origin to cue and influence consumers is commonly utilized by international marketers and studied by academic researchers (Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre, 2016; Koschate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos, and Oldenkotte ,2012). Consequently, a positive country image gives the country's products a competitive advantage, which influences consumers with a country stereotype on their perceptions of the products and furtherly affects their product-related intentions and behaviours (Sharma, 2011; Supanvanij and Amine, 2000)

With expansive international trading, consumers are likely to build up familiarity with foreign products but may have limited knowledge of the products' origin country. Therefore, whether product perceptions can influence the image of the country of origin, whereby the reverse country-of-origin effects of product perceptions on the country image, is a significant topic to discuss.

The traditional country-of-origin effect research has proven with a bulk of evidence that the image transfer process works from country-of-origin cue to product cue, the country-of-origin effects are associated with the image transfer process wherein stereotype of a country is imbued into consumers' product perceptions (Ke, Haizhong, and Chen, 2015; Herz and Diamantopoulos, 2013, 2017; Dagger and Raciti ,2011; Chattalas, Kramer, and Takada, 2008). Then there might be the possibility that the images transfer reversely in consumers' memory network, from the product to country-of-origin, representing the product cues influence consumers' perceptions of the country-of-origin. If positive product perceptions can engender a favourable country image, contributing to a positive country brand equity, there might be

chain effects spreading from the traditional country-of-origin effects on one product to other products, generating multiple benefits to the country's other industries.

Only a few recent studies have suggested the reverse country-of-origin effects, whereby the influence stems from product beliefs rather than from country beliefs. Some studies emphasize the association between the product beliefs and destination image. For example, Elliot, Padadopoulos, and Kim (2011) explore the relationship between tourism destination image and product-country image, during which the reverse effect is found of the product beliefs on the destination image. Lee and Lockshin (2012) directly relate product beliefs to travel destination image. Some research attempts to investigate the relationship between brand beliefs and destination image or country image. For instance, Magnusson's et al.'s (2014) study on the brand crisis indicates a possibility of the spillover effects of the brand image on the country image and the related brands. Gotsi, Lopez and Andriopoulos (2011) conclude that a brand with a powerful, clear, image closed related to the country is more likely to transfer to the country image. Some researchers make the effort to expand the image conceptualization and explore the reverse effects in a broader scope. For example, Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre (2016) furtherly investigate the chain effects of the reverse country-of-origin cue based on the memory theory and expend the positive relationships between the product image and overall country image. Against such background, this research aims for contributing to a framework of the reverse country-of-origin effects with comprehensive grounding integrating the product-related beliefs, destination-related beliefs, general country image, country brand equity, word of mouth and consumers' behavioural intentions.

The first research question of this study is to approve the existence of the reverse country-of-origin effects in multiple exemplary industries. As the mainstreams of the reverse country-of-origin effect research either have only focused narrowly on the image of the country as a travel destination or the image of the country as producer. Associations with the two streams are with a paucity of research. This study selects three industries including two product-related categories and destination-related category and simultaneously investigate the existence of the reverse country-of-origin effects. Moreover, it attempts to examine which category may have a stronger influence on the general country image.

The second question of this research is to investigate the spread effects of the country-of-origin influences across different industries. The traditional country-of-origin research suggests that country image influences product beliefs only if there is a congruence between them. Unless

the product is congruent with its country, country-of-origin effects weaken (Josiassen, 2010; Supanvanij and Amine, 2000). Magnusson et al. (2014) suggest that a prototype brand transgression negatively influence other related brands through its spillover effects on the country image. Lee, Lockshin and Greenacre (2016) also suggest that the reverse country-of-origin effects of the product image on the country image and then spill over to the other products in the country only occur in the category related to the original product. Spread effects among different categories or industries have not been examined and approved before this study.

The last question of this research draws on the co-branding theory and image transfer framework in building the theoretical model of the reverse country-of-origin spread effects, integrating with the constructs of product reputation, destination image, general country image, country brand equity, word of mouth and consumers' behavioural intentions. The model builds up a grand and macro framework to explain the reverse country-of-origin effects and has significant and profound value in managerial implication for brand managers, tourist organizations, industry associations and governors to work cooperatively for synergic effectiveness.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 The Traditional Country-of-origin Effects

2.1.1 Definition of country-of-origin effects

Interest in the country-of-origin has grown substantially during past decades and the country-of-origin effect has been one of most intense and persistent concern among academic researchers, governmental officers, and business practitioners in international marketing. In addition, the globalization of today's marketplace demands international marketers to compete in global markets with products from other countries. The strategy to explore products' country-of-origin to cue and influence consumers is commonly utilized by international marketers and studied by academic researchers.

Country-of-origin effects have diverse definitions by various academic researchers. Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2006) define Country-of-origin as "the country in which a consumer associates a certain product or brand as being its source, regardless of where the product is actually produced". Dagger and Raciti (2011) argue that country-of-origin effects refer to buyers'

attitudes on the relative qualities of products and services produced in some countries. Koschate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos and Oldenkotte (2012) define country-of-origin effects as the impact on consumers' attitude of product quality in association with cognitive, affective and normative association with a country. Herz and Diamantopoulos (2013) suggest the country-of-origin effects as the influence or bias on consumers' perception of product evaluating, risk analysing, buying intention, as a result of the country-of-origin information. Supanvanij and Amine (2013) recognize the country-of-origin as a significant impact when the "made in" label indicates the stereotype of the country image and influences consumers' purchasing decision. Mikael, Nordin and Nilsson (2016) suggest the country-of-origin effect refers to the situation in which consumers' judgment on a product, service, or brand is altered due to the association with a place. Overall, the central of the Country-of-origin effects, against all the understanding, is concerned with the influence of a country image on consumers' perceptions of the country's products and the related behaviours.

2.2 The Majority of Country-of-origin Effects Research

Since the 1980s, there has been a large amount of research consistently focus on exploring the evidence of country-of-origin effects on consumers' perceptions of products from the country-of-origin (Dagger and Raciti, 2011). For the past over three decades, the country-of-origin effects on consumers' perceptions and evaluations of the products have been one of the most broadly researched phenomena in the field of international marketing, business, and consumer behaviour (Supanvanij and Amine, 2000). Until now, the mainstream of country-of-origin effects research focuses on investigating how individuals' perceptions of products and purchase behaviour are influenced by the information of country where the products are made (Magnusson et al. 2014; Supanvanij and Amine, 2000)

Consumers' perceptions of the country-of-origin effects suggest a country serves as a cue in consumers' purchasing intention of products (Supanvanij and Amine, 2000). The cue stimulates consumers' experience which associates with a country, and in turn, induces the consumer to imbue a certain memory into the product. As a result, consumers make decisions favourably or unfavourably. Consequently, the activated country stereotype which associates with the product has important affection on consumers' product evaluation and purchasing intention when then process the product-related information.

Dagger and Raciti (2011) suggest that country-of-origin perceptions mirror the pictures, attitudes or stereotypes which consumers imbue to products from a country, and those elements belong to an extrinsic product quality cue. Supanvanij and Amine, (2000) examine consumers' information accessing process and suggest that consumers' product evaluations process is based on intrinsic and extrinsic cues. Intrinsic cues refer to product experiences such as taste, design and product functions. Extrinsic cues refer to the external product information such as price, brand image, and warranty. Against this understanding, Country-of-origin is recognized as an extrinsic cue, and the country-of-origin cue is applied when consumer tends to evaluate the product while in the absence of intrinsic information (Koschate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos and Oldenkotte, 2012).

Country-of-origin that operates as an extrinsic information cue helps consumer simply decide when information lacks or information overloads (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993), as extrinsic information cues seem easier to evaluate than intrinsic information which requires actual product experience (Insch, 2003). Moreover, consumers tend to rely on extrinsic information cues when they are short of time or interest to evaluate complicated intrinsic information (Dagger and Raciti, 2011). Supanvanij and Amine (20000) support the idea that when a consumer is not familiar with the products' intrinsic information, they will utilize the country-of-origin cue to evaluate products. Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre (2016) also suggest that when consumer lack objective knowledge about a product, they rely on their perceived image of the product's country-of-origin to form stereotypical beliefs about the product. Sharma (2011) concludes that country-of-origin influence consumers' product evaluations through the "Halo" effects, under which, consumer evaluate products about product quality according to the image they access from the country-of-origin. Against these views, it is important to be noted that, country-of-origin effects might take place automatically and unconsciously on consumers' product evaluations process (Liu and Johnson, 2005).

It is also suggested that the congruence between the product category and country image plays an important role in the country-of-origin effects. That is, when the country image favourably matches the product category, the country-of-origin effect is significantly positive; while the country image unfavourably matches the product image, the country-of-origin effect is significantly negative (Supanvanij and Amine, 2000). Consequently, a positive country image gives the country's products a competitive advantage, whereas a negative country image can

be a barrier for the products to enter foreign markets, even if the perception is misguided (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2011, Magnusson et al. 2014).

The majority of country-of-origin research emphasizes on empirical evidence of the effects of country-of-origin cue on the consumers' perceptions of the products and the related intentions, behaviours. However, how do the effects work, which is, how does the image of the country-of-origin transfer to the product resulting in affecting consumers' perceptions of the products in the particular country, is relatively less emphasized. Moreover, another potential question which leads to the central subject of this dissertation may be raised that whether the fluence flows backwards from the product image to country image.

2.2 Co-branding and Image transfer

2.2.1 Co-branding

Askegaard and Bengtson (2005) view co-branding as a strategic alliance connecting two or more brands in the marketplace. Park et al. (1996) define co-branding as the action to pair two or more branded products in order to create a separate and unique product. Rao and Ruekert (1994) argue that co-branding is a combination of two brands to create a marginal value based on mutual strengths of the two brand assets rather than the sum value of the two. In a leading marketing textbook (Kotler and Keller, 2009), co-branding is discussed as an effective way to build brand equity by "borrowing" it from other brands which refers to linking the brand to other information in memory to convey meaning for the consumer. The essential of a cobranding process is to link a brand to other information in consumers' memory, in other words, to mirror or complement a brand's value through "image transfer" from another brand (Uggla and Asberg, 2010).

Co-branding is one of the marketing strategic tools used largely by marketers in attempting to transfer the positive associations of the partner brands to the newly formed composite brand to maximize the brand potential (Kakuni, Rowley, and Binsardi, 1999). Heslop et al. (2013) argue that co-branding strategy relates to the marketers' expectation of the association where image transfers between the associated objectives in the brand alliance. The expectation assumes that the alliance is built up across the positive images of the partnering entities, resulting in not only with benefit for the joint brands, but also for the contributing brands. During the alliance, each entity in the co-branding process is assumed with brand assets, resources, competencies to share in the creation for an alliance.

Research on the value of co-branding suggests that the brand alliance is positively assessed by consumers in general (Heslop et al., 2013). As when brands seek for an alliance, there is potential risk of vulnerability due to the partner's action. Therefore, consumers tend to believe that brands will only seek for co-branding strategy then they trust their partners and the trust is only extended to brand value. Thus, the partnership in the alliance delivers signals to the marketplace with the value of each partner and the benefit of the alliance, leading to co-branding reputation. In addition, when both partnered entities have strong individual brand equity, the co-branded brand equity will be still high and strong and consequently, both partnered entities will be generally favoured in the brand reputation through the synergistic alliance.

2.2.2 Image and Image Transfer

The notion of image is defined in the literature with complex implications. Kakuni, Rowley, and Binsardi (1999) suggest image building is often associated with brands or the creation of brand equity. Brand image is often viewed as part of brand personality (Arons, 1961). They suggest that image has the strength to influence consumer behaviour through the image spill over process with the consequence to improve brand equity by enhancing the consumers' loyalty, audience size, and so forth (Kakuni, Rowley, and Binsardi, 2009). For example, many brands use celebrity endorsers in order to transfer their image to the sponsoring brands.

Gutman and Reynolds (2001) suggest product images consist of implications network reflecting associations in consumers' memory. Stern, Zinkhan, and Jaju (2001) note that product images construct a pattern of beliefs and feelings in consumers' mind evoked by the association with the real-world entity. Gotsi et al. (2011) discuss about the factors which influence the image transfer process during the corporate image and country image and adopt the concept of the memory network to associate the image transfer process, which is suggested similar to the memorizing process as "one set of nodes can induce thinking about other nodes". The interaction between nodes occurs during the spreading of activation in the network. Against such knowledge, the image transfer is explained as the association between two nodes in consumers' memory network where the activation of one node active the other. It is also acknowledged that "image transfer" is largely implicated in the marketing literature in areas such as co-branding, brand extension and sponsorship to explore the association and interaction between extended brand and the parent brand, partnered brands, an event and a brand (Gotsi et al., 2011).

2.2.3 Country Image and Country Brand Equity

Kleppe et al. (2002) also suggest that country-of-origin can be viewed as a kind of branding strategy, as the common point between the two is the attempt to develop a competitive advantage based on consumers' familiarity with the country of origin or brand names. The country-of-origin is sometimes attached to a brand name as a secondary association (ibid). Hence, the image of the country-of-origin, as known as the country image could be seen as a country brand image, contributing to "country brand equity". The term of country brand equity describes consumers' affection to a product or a brand derived from the product's association with a country (Kleppe et al, 2002; Shimp et al., 1993). The association is suggested as intangible assets that arise from consumers' beliefs of the speciality related to technology, manufacturing process etc. within the country. These beliefs then substantially affect their judgment of product qualities (Kleppe et al, 2002).

It is concluded the country image as "any knowledge about the country that can be used as a heuristic to form beliefs about product attribute", and the country equity as "country-related intangible assets" which is associated with consumers' memory linking to experience with products from the origin (Kleppe et al, 2002). Consequently, the more relevant association with the country image, the higher the country equity. Given the understanding of the co-branding theory and image transfer process, it could be argued that the country-of-origin image is constructed similarly to the co-branding process with a country brand in alliance with product brands, and contributing to the country brand equity through the image transfer process.

2.3 The Reverse Country-of-origin Effects

2.3.1 Introduction

As is evident from the discussion in the previous section, the traditional country-of-origin effect research has proven with a bulk of evidence that the image transfer process works from country-of-origin cue to product cue, explained as an association between activation of nodes in consumers' memory network. Then there might be the possibility that the images transfer in an opposite direction, from the product to country-of-origin, representing the product beliefs influence country image. If the premise is supported, there might be the chain effects spreading from the traditional country-of-origin effects on one product to other products, generating multiple benefits to the country's other industries. However, this reverse effect is this is little known with limited papers to discuss.

2.3.2 The Relationships between Destination Image, Product Image and Country Image

The recent relevant studies related to the reverse Country-of-origin effects are drawn on the suggestion that the possible influence originates from product perceptions rather than from a country image (Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Kim, 2011, Lee and Lockshin, 2012; Magnusson, 2014; Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre, 2016).

Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Kim (2011) explore the relationship between tourism destination image and product-country image. The key framework for the two parts is measured simultaneously in a developed Integrative Model of Place Image, testing the survey data collected from consumers in South Korea to examine image measurement of two countries: The United States and Japan. The findings suggest some positive relationships among cognitive country image, affective country image, beliefs and receptivity of products and destination. An important phenomenon in their experiments of a crossover effect from product beliefs to destination receptivity is revealed. That is, the finding suggests consumers' views of a country as a product maker could influence their perception of the country as a destination to travel.

The study has the contribution on both the theoretical and practical foundations. Firstly, previous studies on the tourism destination image and product-country image are developed independently and separately. The tourism destination image is generally identified as effects of consumers' beliefs and impressions of a destination. Many articles have built up the significance of this image as a stimulus to travellers' behaviour (ibid). The product-country image is identified as how the country image affects consumers' attitudes towards the products of the country (Papadopoulos, 2004). The research in this stream has been a long history and is one of the most explored themes in the international marketing area. However, few research combines the two themes to develop some comprehensive framework to discuss the association of tourism destination image and product-country image. For example, it is suggested tourism destination image influences travellers' destination choice (Woodside, Arch and Lysonski, 1989), and product-country image influences product choice. But the interaction between the two fields stops. Only in recent years, a few researchers start to conceptualize both as elements of a new theme, for example, the "general country image" (e.g. De Nisco et al. 2017). As a result, the potential association between the tourism, products, and overall country image, have not been fully researched. Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Kim (2011) have addressed this gap and integrated the tourism destination image and product-country image together in one model.

Secondly and more importantly, their experiment finds evidence of a new crossover effect between the product beliefs to destination receptivity, suggesting that consumers' perception of one country as a product supplier can influence their attitudes of the country as a destination to travel. The finding of the new crossover effects contributes both in the theoretical implication and practical implication. For researchers, the results contribute to the conceptual model, which demonstrates the relationships among those core elements of the country image, product beliefs, destination belief and consumer behaviours. The research examines the association of product-country image, tourism destination image in one developed model, and the new relationship between product, tourism and country-of-origin steams are first explored. For product marketer, the findings suggest the practitioners enhance the image-based branding strategies to promote the tourism programs by associating product strengths, as a method of leveraging the touring destination marketing communication. For national destination marketers, the results provide a wide scope of views helping them understand the different influences of the cognitive country image and affective country image, as well as the relationship between product beliefs, destination beliefs and behaviours. The potential value is that with a more macro view, national destination marketers could find effective measures to reduce the dissonance among various destination branding and achieve a synergistic effect from public expenditures on destination marketing.

However, there are limitations to this study obviously. Firstly, as there are too many variables examined in the model, the relationship between the product beliefs and destination beliefs is not investigated deeply and discussed fully. Secondly, the "crossover effect" is narrowly investigated between the product construct and destination constructs, A widely and deeply research to expand the constructs between the product image and general country image with the destination element included is to be accessed in further research.

2.3.3 Reverse Country-of-origin Effects: The Relationship between Product Perceptions and Destination Image

Lee and Lockshin (2010) directly explore the reverse country-of-origin effect. The researchers explore the relationship between the travel destination image and country-of-origin image and examine whether consumers' perceptions of a country's product can influence their perceptions of that country as a destination to travel.

Their findings have been closely related to the previous research from Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Kim (2011) and have a further development in theoretical groundings. Although they have different conceptualization in their own framework and develop into a different conceptual model. The familiarity and association among the different concepts are evident. For example. The travel destination image (Lee and Lockshin, 2012) and tourism destination image (Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Kim, 2011) are both defined as consumers' beliefs, ideas and impression of a destination. And country-of-origin image (Lee and Lockshin, 2012) is with similar interpretation of the product- country image or general country image (Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Kim, 2011). In Lee and Lockshin's paper, "destination" is widely used to refer to a country specifically as a destination to travel.

Their first argument is that consumers' positive product beliefs process favourable destination image of a country. This argument suggests that consumers might unconsciously use product image from a country to imbue their perceptions of the specific country as a travel destination. Lee and Lockshin (2012) find this phenomenon as "unconscious halo" from early research in psychology tests. Likewise, consumers sometimes use cues unconsciously to influence their purchase decision (Fitzsimons et al. 2002). Thus, they suggest this process may work in a similar way as the "spillover effects". For example, the marketing communication on one brand may spill over the effect on the other product categories under this brand, imbue an overall brand image to consumers (Balachander and Ghose, 2003). Against this background, it is plausible to suggest a synergistic effect between the country's product and the country as a destination to travel, which is, consumer's positive product beliefs may influence their perceptions on the product's country as a destination to travel.

Their experiment tests the moderate factor in the relationship between product beliefs and destination beliefs and finds that the familiarity with a country will negatively moderate that association. The traditional country-of-origin effects suggest that when consumers are not familiar with a product, they may use the country-of-origin image cue to imbue some stereotype into the product to create the product perceptions. In contrast, consumers who are familiar with a product might not rely much on the country-of-origin cue to form their product beliefs (Chattalas, Kramer, and Takada, 2008). Hence the more information consumers have about a product, the less influence from the country-of-origin image on the consumers' product perceptions. Extending these findings into the reverse country-of-origin effects research, it is reasonable to argue that consumers' destination familiarity may reduce the influence of product

belief on the destination belief (Lee and Lockshin, 2012), which means, when consumer have knowledge on the destination, they might rely less on the product perceptions to generate the destination beliefs. Instead, they may more likely to use the destination cue to form their destination beliefs.

Overall, Lee and Lockshin's (2012) study is the first to directly associate the product beliefs to destination beliefs without any travel-related cue supplied. They conceptualize their finding as "reverse country-of-origin effects" of product perceptions on destination image, which suggests an effect happens when consumers use their perceptions of the product image to stimulate their perception of the country as a destination to travel. Moreover, their study demonstrates the moderating influence of destination familiarity. That is, the destination familiarity may weaken the reverse country-of-origin image effect.

In addition, Lee and Lockshin (2012) develop their experiments based on the psychological theory. They use the memory network theory to explain the country-of-origin image effect and interpret this effect as a "country-belief node associating with a product belief node". As previously discussed, researcher of the traditional country-of-origin effects associates the memory network theory with the image transfer process in the attempt to explain how country image influence product image in consumers' mind (Gotsi et al, 2011). It is thus suggested that due to the interactions of the nodes in consumers' memory network, the influence flow may also work reversely, from the product cue to country cue. Lee and Lockshin's study supports the suggestion, and a framework is further developed as a theoretical grounding model in their following research (Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre, 2016).

Even though their study has a great contribution, the further research is needed to investigate more in some areas. Firstly, future studies may access more product categories to discuss which product category image may have an explicit and strong influence on a country's general image and which is strongly associated with the tourism destination. Secondly, their study still narrowly focuses on the product-destination image construct and does not spread the researched concepts in banding with general country image to investigate the effects cross different type of product categories.

2.3.4 The Spillover Effects of Brand Transgressions on the Country Image and Related Brands.

Mangusson et al. (2014) examine the opposite direction in consumer attitudes to a country and demonstrate the spillover effects of prototype brand transgressions on the country image and

related brands. Their results provide evidence of the relationship wherein the product beliefs affect the country beliefs, which may have spillover effects on related products. While the spillover of negative effects also depends on the degree of prototypicality of the transgression brand and the level of development of the country.

Their investigation into this topic originates from an important but often ignored question: How does a leading brand crisis affect the brand's original country's image and other brands in the related category from the same country? For example, Toyota's quality crisis during the year 2009 to 2010 involved an unintended spillover negative impact on several automobile brands in Japan. The Japanese government also stated concerns that Toyota's quality recall might reform consumers' perception of Japan and would impact other Japanese brands (Mochizuki, 2010). This crisis suggests the possibility that a brand crisis may spill over to the image of the brand's country, as well as the other related brands in the same industry.

Magnusson's argument of gaining a theoretical understanding of the relationships among brand transgression, country image and other related brands is based on the recognition of a paucity of study on the theoretical grounding of negative spillover effects from brand crisis onto the country image and related brand, along with the fact of raising concerns of the governments and brand promoters about the increasing reports involving brand transgression in the recent years.

A conceptual framework integrating "prototype theory" and "schema change" theory is developed in the model. Prototype theory is recognized as a phenomenon that a leading brand can be viewed by consumers as a prototypical representation in the belonging category. The prototype theory suggests that changes of the prototypical exemplar likely lead to similar changes in the whole category (Rosch, 1978). As a country's image is sometimes represented by the major corporate brands in the country (Anholt, 2000). Thus, it is suggested the exemplary brands are closely associated with the country image. For example, Kindle might be the prototypical representation for the e-book reader. Therefore, when the prototypical represented brand involves a publicized crisis, the negative effect may spill over to related brands under the same category. The "schema change" refers to the process of a prototypical brand transgression changes consumers' perceptions of the related category and the country image. Askegaard and Ger (1998, p. 52) describe "country image" as a "schema or a network of interrelated elements that define the country". Although it is conceptualized differently, the "schema change" explain the same construct of the image transfer process as previously

discussed. The two theories, as argued by Magnusson et al. (2014), are closely connected and the connection between the prototype theory and schema change theory forms the theoretical framework for their research.

Magnusson et al. (2014) then adopt the country image identification from early literature (Nagashima,1970), and deconstruct the country image into a micro level country image consisting of the combination of beliefs about the products of the country, and the macro level country image consisting of a combination of all informational beliefs about a country (Pappu, Quester, and Cooksey, 2007). In line with their theoretical framework, the schema on the micro country image is at a low level reflecting product related perceptions, and the schema on the macro country image is at a high level reflecting a country's overall perceptions. Consequently, they demonstrated that a brand transgression has spillover effects on to the micro country image, while the spillover effect on the macro country image depends on the level of the country's overall development.

Their findings support the existence of the reverse country-of-origin effects and suggest that a negative brand image influences other related brands negatively through its spillover effects on the country image. The research firstly reports the spillover effects of the reverse country-of-origin influence, suggests that a brand image may influence the country image, which in turn, affect other related brands in the country. The finding expands the reverse county-of-origin effect research into a broader field. It has significant theoretical and practical value. For governmental officers, this study suggests their awareness of consumers' attitude towards the representative brands in the country, as the perceptions of the leading brands may affect the country image. For brand managers, their research provides evidence that brands associated with the country-of-origin of a transgressing prototypical brand are risky to be subjected to negative effects although they have not done anything wrong.

The implication of the prototype theory in their research also provides a new view for future research in examining the reverse country-of-origin effects by selecting typical brands, categories or industries in a country.

2.3.5 Reverse Country-of-origin Effects and Memory Theory

The following research from Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre (2016) significantly develops the reverse country-of-origin effects theory. Their study confirms the existence of reverse country-of-origin effects and discusses about the possibility of the further "chain effects". They also

argue that this reverse influence only takes place when the product and country are congruent, and the influence is moderated when country familiarity increases. In addition, it suggests the reverse country-of-origin effects implements with consumers' unconscious awareness based on the memory theory.

Firstly, Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre (2016) directly investigates the reverse country-of-origin effects and approve the existence of the influence flows backwards from product beliefs to country images. The relationship between product beliefs and country image, in their research, is noticed to be positive.

Secondly, they argue that the reverse country-of-origin effects occur only when product-country congruence exists. "Congruence" herein is defined as a product's association with the product's country image, for example, the association between perfume and France. This argument is based on the suggestion from the traditional country-of-origin research that country image influences product beliefs only when there is a congruence between the two. Unless the product is congruent with its country, country-of-origin effects weaken (Josiassen, 2010; Supanvanij and Amine, 2000).

Furthermore, if product beliefs generalize into a positive country image, the country image, in turn, can also influence consumers perceptions of the country's other products. For example, Mochizuki (2010) finds that during Toyota's public relation crisis from 2009 to 2010 due to the quality issue, concerns are widely expressed in government's reports that Japanese car industry might be impacted due to the negative effect from Toyota's global recall and damaged brand image. Collectively, it is suggested a possibility of "chain effects" which originates from a product perception on the country image at first, and in turn, influence country's other products.

However, their report also suggests that the reverse country-of-origin effects of the product perception on the country image and then on to the other products in the country only benefit the category related to the original product. For instance, Australian wine might build positive country image if Australia, in turn, the positive country image will influence consumers with the positive mindset on the Australia foods, rather than fashion products. This finding also supports the previous research from Josiassen (2010) who found that country-of-origin as an international marketing strategy works effectively only when country-of-origin is strongly consonant with the related products.

At last, they contribute a theoretical development on the grounding of the reverse country-of-origin effect by utilizing the associative network theory of memory. In line with the theory, they suggest the reverse effects may take place with consumers' unconscious awareness.

Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre (2016)'s reverse Country-of-origin effect study has significant managerial implications. Firstly, it is suggested that strong brands with strong national identities can shadow consumers' perceptions of the country. It means that the marketing communication with advertising one brand stating its brand image associated with its particular country might also boost the country's overall image in consumers mind unintentionally. Secondly, it is suggested a close cooperation between government and industries. If there is consonance between the product and country-of-origin, the synergy framework might be developed where product marketer emphasizes the country-of-origin and governments promote the products. Eventually, a win-win satiation is gained with both parties benefit from the collaboration.

There are still limitations of their experiments where further research is recommended. Firstly. It would be valuable to explore in depth in the suggestions that each country might have product categories which are more congruent than other categories. For example, in their survey, the relationship between the category of Australia wine and Australia image is examined. While by raising the mentioned argument, there is no other category is examined comparing to wine to find out which category is with more congruence with the country image.

Secondly, the argument of emotional appeals can create stronger memory link than practical appeals is plausibly declared in the study, which suggests products with more emotional appeal rather than practical appeal might have stronger reverse effect (Ford, Morris, and Kensinger, 2013), However, it is not deeply discussed whether some specific products are more suitable to generate a reverse country-of-origin effect due to the limitation of the survey construction.

Thirdly. In their study, the reverse country-of-origin effects are suggested in plausibility only take place in the related category in line with Kleppe et al. (2002)'s view which suggested that a strong brand endowed with the strong country image can shadow the country image and other brands in the country, only if the other brands belong to the same category of the leading brand. However, due to the limitation of variables in the survey design, the argument is not verified and investigated in the study.

2.3.6 Conclusion

Elliot, Padadopoulos, and Kim (2011) explore the relationship between tourism destination image and product-country image, during which the reverse effect is found of the product beliefs on the destination image. Lee and Lockshin (2010) directly approve explore the reverse country-of-origin effects between product image and destination image. Magnusson's et al.'s (2014) study on the brand crisis indicates the spillover effects of the brand image on the country image and the related brands. Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre (2016) furtherly investigate the reverse country-of-origin effects of product beliefs on the overall country image and expanding the discussion into the “chain effects”. Against such background, a framework of the reverse country-of-origin effects with comprehensive grounding integrating the product image, brand image, destination image and the general country image is being constructed in this research.

Chapter 3: Research Model

3.1 Research Model

This chapter introduces the theoretical model for this research, including the focus of this research, the modelling and the conceptual constructs in the model. The principal focus of the model in this research is to simultaneously test the product-related and destination-related constructs in order to investigate the associations among the product reputation, destination image, general country image, country brand equity, the consumers' perceptions, intentions and related behaviour, which are conceptualized by the researcher as “the reverse country-of-origin spread effects”.

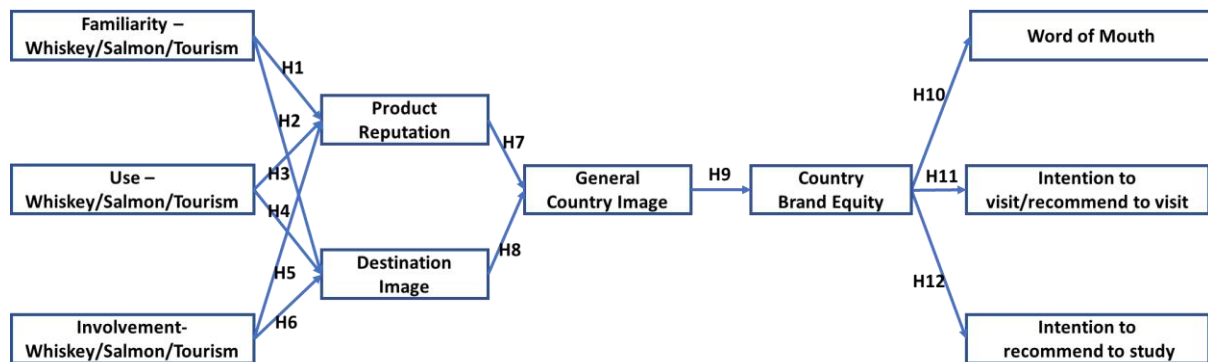
As reviewed in previous literature, many constructs proven in the past research for the traditional country-of-origin effects are selected wherever possible or appropriate in this model. Most of the relationships among the product image, destination image and country image in the present studies of the reverse country-of-origin effects are also proven in this model and developed in depth. Moreover, some constructional relationships which have not been investigated focusing on the spread effects of country brand equity on consumers' perceptions, intentions and behaviours, are also explored in this model. See Future 3.1 of the research model below.

The model contains four main types of effects:

- 1) Effects of industry familiarity, use and involvement on the product reputation or destination image;

- 2) Effects of product reputation or destination image on the general country image;
- 3) Effects of general country image on the country brand equity;
- 4) Effects of country brand equity on consumers' perceptions, intentions and behaviours, representing the constructs of the world of mouth of the country brand, intention to visit or intention to recommend to visit the country, intention to recommend to study in the country;

Figure 3.1: Research Model of “the Reverse Country-of-origin Spread Effects”



3.2 Industry Familiarity, Use, and Involvement

3.2.1 Industry Familiarity

Product familiarity is usually used for the measurement of the product personality which is associated with the brand equity or product reputation. Brand personality is considered to be a significant factor for a successful brand as a distinctive brand personality enables consumers to create a favourable association in memory as a result of building brand equity (Johnson, Soutar, and Sweeney, 2000; Phau and Lau, 2000; Diamantopoulos, Smith and Grime, 2005). Assessment of the brand personality is affected by consumers' brand knowledge and familiarity, and commonly related to how well consumers know the brand (Diamantopoulos, Smith, and Grime, 2005). Koschate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos and Oldenkotte (2012) recognize the brand familiarity as the reflection of the extent of consumers' direct and indirect experience with a brand. In this research, product, category and industry are alternatively used in different context with the same meaning.

3.2.2 Industry Use

Koschate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos and Oldenkotte (2012) use a seven-point semantic differential scale questions of “how often do you use [product]?” and “how regularly do you

use [product]?” as two of their five items to measure consumers’ product experience. The construct in this research refers to the experience a consumer disposes with respect to a product by accessing the frequency and regularity of consumers product consumption.

3.2.3 Industry Involvement

Herz and Diamantopoulos (2013) define product involvement as “the degree of interest of a consumer in a product category on an on-going basis”. Product involvement refers to consumers' commitment with regard to their ideas, feelings, attitudes and behaviours to a product category (Cilingir and Basfirinci, 2014; Quester and Lim, 2003;). Consumers' product involvement reflects their beliefs and feelings about the product. It is suggested the high product involvement positively influences brand loyalty (Ferriera and Coelho, 2015).

In this research, the three constructs of “familiarity”, “use” and “involvement” are simultaneously used in the model to access consumer’s knowledge about products with respect to experience, frequency, expertise and familiarity, resulting in an association with the product reputation.

3.3 Product Reputation, and Destination Image

3.3.1 Product Reputation

Brand reputation is defined as a compressed set of associations and attitudes from relevant external stakeholders’ mindset about an object (Keller, 2008). It is thus recognized as the accumulation of views about a brand externally (Veloutsou and Scott, 2005). Moreover, brand reputation is believed as an asset, because the positive brand reputation is likely to attract more customers. And there is a close association between the brand image and the brand reputation (Veloutsou, 2007).

3.3.2 Destination Image

Destination image is concerned with the perception held by potential visitors about a place (De Nisco et al., 2015), according to the bulk of tourism research, this construct is often recognized through a functional and attribute-based approach, which includes tourists’ attitudes towards a tourism destination formed as a result of touring experience in association with tangible and measurable features (ibid).

Extending the argument of the relationship between product familiarity, use, involvement and the product reputation. We argue similarly that tourism familiarity, use, involvement will contribute to the destination image.

Consequently, in the category of whisky and salmon, the hypotheses are as follows:

H1: Positive industry familiarity influences the product reputation positively;

H3: Positive industry use influences the product reputation positively;

H5: Positive industry involvement influences the product reputation positively;

In the category of tourism, the hypotheses are as follows:

H2: Positive industry familiarity influences the destination Image positively;

H4: Positive industry use influences the destination image positively;

H6: Positive industry involvement influences the destination image positively;

3.4 General Country Image, and Country Brand Equity

3.4.1 General Country Image

De Nisco et al. (2015) suggest the general country image as “a generic construct consisting of generalized images created not only by representative products but also by the degree of economic and political maturity, historical events and relationships, culture and traditions, and the degree of technical virtuosity and industrialization.” The general country image could be identified through the fields of cognitive and affective components of the place image (Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Kim, 2011).

As previously noted in the literature review chapter, recent studies discussed the reverse country-of-origin effects wherein the product beliefs influence the country image (Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Kim, 2011, Lee and Lockshin, 2012; Magnusson, 2014; Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre, 2016). It is proposed a hypothesis of the reverse country-of-origin effects of the product beliefs on the general country image. Expanding the image transfer theory on the relationship between product image and country image, we hereby argue similarly that the destination image may influence the general country image as well.

Therefore, the hypotheses to verify the reverse country-of-origin effects are as follows:

H7: A Positive product reputation influences the general country image positively;

H8: A Positive destination image influences the general country image positively;

3.4.2 Country Brand Equity

The term “country equity” was introduced by Shimp et al. (1993) to describe consumers' affection toward a brand or product derived from its associations with a particular country. These associations also are recognized as country-related intangible assets (Kim and Chung, 2013), which could be technical advancement, prestige, innovation, design, and service. Papadopoulos and Heslop's (2003) define country brand equity as “the value that may be embedded in perceptions by various target markets about the country, and the ways in which these perceptions may be used to advance its interests and those of its constituents.” It is formed from all related activities related to the country such as education, marketing communication, travelling, immigration, product trading, business experience and the marketing perspective; Kleppe et al. (2002) argue the country equity are associations with its export of goods and services (Kleppe et al. 2002), with consumers' beliefs of some speciality such as the technology or manufacturing processes within a particular country. While, in all cases, the country image plays an important role in forming the country brand equity (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2003).

Given these understandings, it is proposed to the hypotheses as follows:

H9: Positive general country image influence country brand equity positively;

3.5 Word of Mouth, Intention to Visit, Intention to Recommend to Visit, and Intention to Recommend to Study

3.5.1 Word of Mouth

Herz and Diamantopoulos (2013) define word-of-mouth as “the degree to which a person speaks well of something and does so in an active manner.” De Nisco et al. (2015) suggest word of mouth towards a country is an evaluating element of tourists' post-visit behavioural intentions. In prior vacation marketing research, it is confirmed that the general country image positively influences tourists' post-visit intentions and word of mouth towards the sojourn country (De Nisco et al. 2015, 2017). As the general country image is the significant contributing element of country brand equity, it is reasonable to propose a relationship between the country brand equity and word of mouth of the country brand.

3.5.2 Intention to Visit, Intention to Recommend to Visit

Koschate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos and Oldenkotte (2012) suggest “visit to the country” is concerned with consumers’ experience of the country-of-origin. Prayag et al.’s (2017) identification of tourists’ behavioural intention is measured in terms of “their propensity to recommend the destination to others such as family and friends”. Prior studies confirm that a positive overall country image contributes to the high propensity for tourists to recommend (Prayag et al. 2017; Prayag, 2009; De Nisco et al., 2015). Against the association between general country and the country brand equity. It is reasonable to propose a positive relationship between the country brand equity and consumers’ intention to visit.

3.5.3 Intention to Recommend to Study

Prayag et al. (2017) have accessed the relationships among tourists' emotional experiences, perceived overall image, satisfaction and intentions to recommend and found positive associations among them. According to prior brand equity literature, brand image is one decomposed construct to brand knowledge, which is a key antecedent of consumer-based brand equity (Christodoulides and Chernatony, 2010). As similar with consumers' intention to visit, we propose a positive association between the country brand equity and consumers’ intention to recommend in this research.

Consequently, In line with the brand equity theory and the discussed association between general country image and country brand equity. This research proposes the following hypothesis for the spread effects of the general country image on consumers attitudes, perceptions and behavioural intentions.

H10: Positive country brand equity influences the country’s word of mouth positively;

H11: Positive country brand equity influences consumers’ intention to visit or intention to recommend to visit the country positively;

H12: Positive country brand equity influences consumers’ intention to recommend to study in the country;

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1 Introduction

Creswell and Miller (1997) define research methodology as a system or pattern that provides a philosophical base or frame of reference for approaching research. It is an overall approach for academic research including the context of constraints, analysis of the principles of the method and ethical choices within the research. Against this understanding, research methods in this research present the research philosophy, approach, design, a structured questionnaire being used to data collection procedures, ethics statement, industry selection, sampling, demographic statistics and shows the right direction to achieve an outcome.

This dissertation aims for investigating the reverse country-of-origin spread effects, exploring how the product reputation and destination image influences country image and the country brand equity, which in turn, influences the other industries in the country with the chain effects. The relationship between the variables is examined through the analysis of data and information collected by the questionnaire survey.

4.2 Research Philosophy

The research philosophy depends on a “system of beliefs an assumption about the development of knowledge” (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2016). The three most approached philosophies are positivism, realism and interpretivism, which have important roles in the process of business and management research.

Positivism involves producing general laws from the objective truth that can be used for prospective behaviour, rather than inferring subjectively through sensation, reflection or intuition (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2016). Realism “focuses on explaining what we see and experience, in terms of the underlying structures of reality that shape the observable events” (ibid). Interpretivism involves how researchers explain the social reality appear to people, where the reality is relative to the situation, time, location, culture and value of a society, an experience of an individual (Fisher, 2010).

In this study, the researcher mainly followed the philosophical stance of positivism, as the research is based on the quantitative approach which is more objective rather than the qualitative approach. It focuses on analysing and examining the relationship among the aspects

of research such as product reputation, country image, country brand equity, word of mouth and consumers' intentions. By using positivism, it is good to develop a theory or model from observation

4.3 Research Approach

Two contrasting approaches which are widely adopted by researchers to the reasoning are deduction and induction (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2016).

Deductive research is a scientific way of research used to explain causal relationships between variables. It involves the development of a theory which is subjected to an accurate test. It is the dominant research approach in the natural sciences, where laws present the basis of explanation (Collis & Hussey, 2003).

This research uses the deductive approach mainly, through which a theoretical model along with hypotheses is developed with the following research strategy including data collection and analysis to test the hypothesis and conclude the findings. Deduction processes have several important characteristics representing the commonest view of the nature of the relationship between theory and research. In this dissertation, the deductive processes are as follows:

- Theory Hypothesis
- Data collection
- Findings
- Hypotheses Testing

4.4 Research Design

The research design is the general plan of how the researcher to answer the research questions (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2016). The methodological choice for research design is whether to follow a quantitative, qualitative or a mixed method.

Qualitative research is a subjective method often involving the information which cannot be numerically analysed. It is commonly used in social and behavioural sciences to investigate human behaviour and functions (ibid). Quantitative research involves gathering numerical data and generalizing data across groups of people. Compared to qualitative research, it is a more objective and scientific approach (ibid).

This dissertation uses the quantitative technique to explore and examine the numerical relationship among the variables from the data obtained through the well-structured questionnaires. Correlation and regression analysis is implemented based on the numerical value to attain an in-depth understanding of the relationships among the product reputation, country image, country brand equity and consumer's perceptions, intentions and behaviours.

4.5 Methods of Data Collection

Data collection is an important stage of the research to collect information through various types of databases with different approaches, methods and techniques. Secondary data and primary data are the two types of data to obtain in data collection.

Secondary data refers to the data that already exists and has been collected previously by other researchers for some other purposes including both raw data and published summaries (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2016). An advantage for secondary data approach is time and cost saving. Primary data refer to the data collected specifically for the research project being undertaken (ibid). An advantage for primary data is that it is specifically tailored to researchers' objectives.

This research selects Chinese consumers as the research sample to explore the reverse country-of-origin spread effects. The research topic, model and framework are new with limited resources to obtain suitable data. Therefore, the researcher chose the primary data approach through a questionnaire survey to collect the demand information.

4.6 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions designed for gathering information from respondents. Questionnaires are widely used for primary data collection. It usually contains two types: self-administered and interview-administered. This research adopts the self-administered questionnaire with closed-ended questions to collect data. The Structured questionnaire items designed to explore patterns and relationships among variables. Data analysis is implemented afterwards by using software such as SPSS. Estimated questionnaire completion time will be around 5-10 minutes; Use of complex formats and structures is avoided. Copies of the questionnaires in English and Chinese are included in the Appendices (Appendix 1, and Appendix 2).

4.6.1 Question Type

Questionnaires usually are constructed with two types of questions: open-ended questions and close-ended questions. Open-ended questions provided respondents with an opportunity to express their options in a free manner. Close-ended questions restrict participants to choose among any of the give multiple choice answers. In this research, close-ended questions are adopted as for quantitative research approach.

Close-ended questions are adopted in this research with the aim of further qualitative analysis. Two types of close-ended questions are used for the main body of questions: Likert-type scale questions, and rating scale questions.

- Likert-type scale questions

Likert-type scale questions are used to help researchers ascertain how strongly the respondents agree to a particular state. In this research, Likert questions are designed to help the researcher assess how Chinese consumers feel towards a certain product service or a place. The scale from “1” to “7” representing “strongly disagreed” to “strongly agreed”.

- Rating scale questions

Rating scale questions are applied to assist researchers to acknowledge how respondents rate a particular issue on a scale that ranges between the given two extreme options, for instance, poor to good, unfamiliar to familiar. In this research, the scale from “1” to “7” is given for respondents to select their agreement rate from negative to positive.

4.6.2 Questionnaire Development

The question constructs in the questionnaire of this research are developed in two steps. Firstly, questions associated with conceptualization in the theoretical model are accessed and obtained from the literature review. The researcher reviewed journal articles on the purpose of defining individual construct, deciding measurement for each variable, and adopting the question structure for the researcher's own model developing. These questions create the main body of the questionnaire and help the researcher ensure not only that the questions are with suitable standard and reliable quality, but also that the findings can be comparable with the previous study.

Whereas, due to the time limitation, if the adoptable question constructs are not found in the literature, the second step is to design questions by the researcher. These questions take a minority of the total questions in the questionnaire. Constructs Description and Measurement is shown in Table 4.6.2.

Table 4.6.2: Constructs Description and Measurement

Constructs	Description	Measurement
Industry Familiarity	The extent of consumers' direct or indirect experience of an industry 1) "1" means "unfamiliar", and "7" means "familiar"; 2) "1" means "inexperienced", and "7" means "experienced"; 3) "1" means not "knowledgeable", and "7" means "knowledgeable"; 4) "1" means "uninformed", and "7" means "informed"; 5) "1" means "novice buyer", and "7" means "expert buyer"	Five items on a seven-point rating scale from negative to positive (Source: Koschate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos, and Oldenkotte, 2012)
Industry Use	The extent of consumers frequency and regularity to use a product Questions in the category of whisky and salmon 1) I have been using [product] for a long time; 2) I buy more [product] than the average person in China; 3) I use more [product] than the average person in China; These questions are adapted in the category of tourism as follows: 1) I have been a tourist for a long time; 2) I tour more than the average person in China; 3) I travel more than the average person in China;	Three items on a seven-point rating scale from "negative" to "positive".
Industry Involvement	"The degree of interest of a consumer in a product category on an on-going basis"(Herz and Diamantopoulos (2013). 1) I have a strong interest in [product/industry]; 2) [product/industry] is very important to me; 3) For me, [product/industry] do not matter; 4) I would choose my [product/industry] very carefully; 5) Choosing a [product/industry] is an important decision for me; 6) Which [product/industry] I buy matters to me a lot;	Six items on a seven-point rating scale anchored by "strongly disagree" [1] and "strongly agree" [7]: (Source: Herz and Diamantopoulos, 2013)
Product Reputation	A compressed set of associations and attitudes from relevant external stakeholders' mindset about an object. (Keller, 2008). 1) Bad/good 2) Outmoded/advanced 3) Inferior products from other countries/ superior products from other countries	Five items on a seven-point rating scale anchored by "strongly disagree" [1] and "strongly agree" [7]: (Source: adapted from

	<p>4) Not as good as the product from other countries/ as good as products from other countries</p> <p>5) Not a good value / a good value</p>	Maheswaran and Sternthal. 1990)
Destinasion Image	<p>The perception held by potential visitors about a place (De Nisco et al., 2015)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Attractive sceneries 2) High-quality attractions 3) Lots to see and do for tourism 4) Well-organized tourism services 5) High-quality tourism services 6) Good overall tourism destination 	Six items on a seven-point rating scale anchored by "strongly disagree" [1] and "strongly agree" [7]: (Source: adapted from De Nicsco et al. 2015, 2017)
General Country Image	<p>A generic construct of generalized images about a country (De Nisco et al., 2015)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) High quality of life 2) High technology level 3) Advanced education level 4) High wealth 5) Friendly people 6) Trustworthy people 7) Pleasant place 8) Safe environment 	Eight items on a seven-point rating scale anchored by "strongly disagree" [1] and "strongly agree" [7]. (Source: adapted from De Nisco et al. 2015, 2017)
Country Brand Equity	<p>"The portion of consumer affect toward a brand or product that is derived purely from the product's associations with a particular country"(Shimp et al. 1993)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) It makes sense to support [the country] instead of any other country, even if they are the same; 2) Even if another country has the same features as [the country], I would prefer to support [the country]; 3) If there is another country is as good as this, I prefer to support [the country]; 4) If another country is not different from this in any way, it seems smarter to support/visit [the country]; 	Five items on a seven-point rating scale anchored by "strongly disagree" [1] and "strongly agree" [7]:
Word of Mouth	<p>"The degree to which a person speaks well of something and does so in an active manner" (Herz and Diamantopoulos ,2013)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) I "talk up" [the country] to people I know; 2) I bring up [the country] in a positive way in conversations I have with friends and acquaintances; 3) In social situations, I often speak favourably about [the country]; 	Three items on a seven-point rating scale from the extent to "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" (Source: adapted from Herz and Diamantopoulos ,2013).
Intention to Visit	<p>The extent of consumers' intention to visit a country.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) I am willing to visit [the country]; 	Three items on a seven-point rating scale

	2) I plan to visit [the country]; 3) I will make an effort to visit [the country];	anchored by “strongly disagree” [1] and “strongly agree” [7]. (Source: adapted from Verma and Chandra, 2018)
Intention to Recommend to Visit	The extent of consumers' intention to recommend others to visit a country. 1) I will recommend [the country] to other people as a place to visit; 2) I will say positive things about [the country] to other people as a destination; 3) I will encourage friends and relatives to visit [the country];	Three items on a seven-point rating scale anchored by “strongly disagree” [1] and “strongly agree” [7]. (Source: adapted from Prayag et al., 2017)
Intention to Recommend to Study	The extent of consumers' intention to recommend others to study in a country. 1) I will recommend [country] and its universities and colleges to other people; 2) I will say positive things about [country] and its universities and colleges to other people; 3) I will encourage friends and relatives to study in [country];	Three items on a seven-point rating scale anchored by “strongly disagree” [1] and “strongly agree” [7]. (Source: adapted from Prayag et al. 2017)

4.6.3 Questionnaire Translation

The questionnaire is firstly developed in English, following the back-translation procedures, the questionnaire is then translated into simplified Chinese, followed by a translation back to English to check for consistency and accuracy (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2016). With only minor changes, no major problems are found with the questionnaire. The final questionnaire is then submitted into an online survey website, being available for participants to access. The questionnaires in Chinese and in English are attached as the Appendix 1 and Appendix 2.

4.7 Ethical Statement

The University of Glasgow's ethics committee implements the ethical approval process for students' research. Core issues that ethics committee normally expect applicants to address include respecting autonomy, maximizing benefit, minimizing harm, being fair, and behaving with integrity.

Adam Smith Business School of the University of Glasgow requires all primary research involving human participants or human data to subject to formal ethical review before research implemented. Students undertaking primary research must pass ethical approval through the

University's process and are not permitted to start the research without getting approval confirmation from the university's ethics committee. Failure to follow the process will result in rejection of the dissertation submission. In addition, if the approval is granted, the ethics approval document must be included in the applicant's dissertation. Also, as a part of the submission, an indication of the questionnaire or interview questions must be provided along with copies of the plain language statement and consent form. The primary source of guidance and forms for the process is in the college of social sciences research ethical webpage: <http://www.gla.ac.uk/colleges/socialsciences/students/ethics/>

This research does not either cover any of the topics listed in the risk guidance document or involve any of the procedures listed in the risk guidance document. The investigation with an online questionnaire survey of adults involves non-sensitive issues.

The estimated number of survey participants is over 300 with mixed male and female varying above the age of 18. The participants take part voluntarily and are informed of the research aim and objectives. All personal details of participants are kept in privacy being stored separately and are not disclosed within the dissertation. The research is not for commercial use.

4.8 Industry Selection

The dissertation selects three exemplary industries in Scotland: whisky, salmon and tourism, representing the product-related category and the destination-related category, to investigate their association with the general country image, country brand equity, consumers attitudes and behavioural intentions.

4.8.1 Scottish Whisky

Scottish whisky, often simply called Scotch whisky, is recognized as Scotland's national drink, also as one of the best-known Scottish manufacture products. It has been crafted throughout the country for centuries. Until now there are still over 120 working distilleries operating today, each making whisky in their own unique way. However, it is generally agreed with three different types of Scotch whisky: malt whisky, grain whisky and blended whisky (visitscotland.com, 2018). Scotch whisky must be made in a manner specified by law.

Scotch whisky has enjoyed a record-breaking year for exports in 2017. According to official Her Majesty's Revenue and Customs (HMRC) data, in 2017 Scotch whisky grew in both

volume and value (by 1.6% and 8.9% respectively) to a total of £4.36bn, an equivalent of 1.23bn bottles exported globally (scotch-whisky.org.uk, 2018a). The figures coming from the latest HMRC export data show that Scotch whisky accounts for over 20% of all UK food and drink exports. In addition, more than 40,000 jobs supported by the Scotch Whisky industry across the UK, 7,000 of which are in rural areas in Scotland (ibid). Commenting on the figures, Karen Betts, CEO of the Scotch Whisky Association (SWA), said: “Scotch Whisky is not just a core part of Scotland's national identity and heritage, it is also a fundamental part of our export economy” (scotch-whisky.org.uk, 2018a).

China is the world's largest spirits market, and the top 6 largest destination (including Taiwan) for Scotch whisky (by value) in 2017. “China is as key market for Scotch Whisky, both now and in the future” said Karen Betts. In addition, the Scotch Whisky Association (SWA) has renewed its collective trademarks “SCOTCH WHISKY” and its Chinese translation in China until November 2028. as a result, Scotch Whisky is officially protected from locally produced copies for a further 10 years (scotch-whisky.org.uk, 2018b).

4.8.2 Scottish Salmon

Scotland is one of the world's major suppliers of farmed salmon, Scottish salmon exports during 2017 were valued at £600M, up 35% compared to 2016. The export tonnage of salmon also increased during 2017 by 26% in 2016 (scottishsalmon.co.uk, 2018). China has one of the world's fast-growing appetites for fresh and smoked salmon, Beijing first allowed imports of Scottish Salmon in 2011 before when Mainly Norway has capitalized on China's exploding demand for Atlantic salmon (chinadaily.com.cn, 2017). In 2017, China has been rising at the top 3 largest market for Scottish salmon with sales worth £69M. Taiwan secured its place in the top five markets with sales worth £16M (scottishsalmon.co.uk, 2018).

Rural Economy Secretary Fergus Ewing welcomed the figures and said: “Today's outstanding figures are a result of remarkable products and of sectors working together to create a national brand with a global reputation, underpinned by the Scotland Food and Drink Export Plan.” (scottishsalmon.co.uk, 2018)

4.8.3 Scottish Tourism

Scotland is a well-developed tourist destination. Scotland is generally seen as a clean, un-spoilt destination with beautiful scenery which has a long history, combined with thousands of

historic sites and attractions. These include prehistoric sites, historic castles, battlegrounds, ruins, and museums.

Tourism is one of Scotland's most important industries, helping to create wealth and jobs and build upon Scottish strong international reputation. In 2015, Spending by tourists in Scotland generates around £12 billion of economic activity for the wider Scottish supply chain and contributes around £6 billion to Scottish GDP, representing about 5% of total Scottish GDP. The tourism industry in Scotland supported more than 217,000 jobs in 2015, accounting for around 8.5% of employment in the country (beta.gov.scot, 2018). The number of visits made by overseas visitors to Scotland rose by nearly 17% between 2005 (2.4 million) and 2016 (2.8 million). In current prices (not adjusted for inflation) overseas expenditure has risen by around 29% since 2006, to almost £1.9bn in 2016 (ibid). In 2016, China was Scotland's 16th largest source market measured by the number of visits (visitscotland.org, 2018).

4.9 Sample Selection

A sample refers to a group of people participating in the research, or more generally, a small proportion of the population. Sampling is a survey-based research where researchers analyse the sample about the population to answer the research questions and access the research objectives (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2016). The main two approaches of sampling are probability sampling and non-probability sampling.

This research targets the overseas market of China. Non-probability sampling is applied in this research. The main sample of this study is the group of Chinese consumers with age above 18 years old.

4.10 Demographic Statistics

This section explains the demographic details of the participants in the data collection, including participants' information on gender, age, education, and occupation (See table 4.10).

Table: 4.10: Demographic Statistics

Construct	Items	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	94	27.25%
	Female	251	72.75%
Age	18-25	77	22.32%
	26-35	109	31.59%
	36-45	88	25.51%
	46-55	47	13.62%
	56-65	21	6.09%
	above 65	3	0.87%
Education	not filled	2	0.58%
	Not completed secondary school	37	10.72%
	completed secondary school	42	12.17%
	Some college education	35	10.14%
	Higher National Diploma (HND)	27	7.83%
	University degree	119	34.49%
	Postgraduate study	78	22.61%
Above postgraduate study	5	1.45%	
Job Status	not filled	7	2.03%
	Full time	161	46.67%
	Part-time	48	13.91%
	Student	84	24.35%
	Retired	21	6.09%
	Not working	24	6.96%
Total		345	100%

The questionnaire survey is carried out with a sample of 345 Chinese participants. 94 are male, taking 27.25% of the total participants; 251 are female, taking 72.75% of the total participants. All Chinese participants are above 18 years old. One-third of the participants are in the age between 26 to 35, taking the largest proportion of 31.59%. The education level is separated into 7 categories. The largest proportion of participants accomplish University's degree, taking 34.49% in total (119 people). The second largest proportion saying 22.61% are in postgraduate study level (78 people). The Majority of the participants work as full-time employees, with a number of 161, representing 46.67% of the total. The second is the student, with a number of 84, taking 24.35%.

4.11 Data Analysis Method

The data collected for this research through questionnaire is accessed and analysed via SPSS program to investigate the relationship among variables in two ways: correlation and regression analysis.

In statistical terms, correlation is used to denote an association between two quantitative variables. It is often assumed that the association is linear, which means one variable increase or decrease a fixed amount accordingly increase or decrease the other variable. The degree of association is measured by a correlation coefficient, which is usually called Pearson's correlation coefficient. The correlation coefficient is measured on a scale that varies from + 1 to - 1. Describing the positive relationship, when one variable increase as the other increases, or the negative relationship, when one decreases as the other increases.

The other technique that is often used in these circumstances is the regression, which involves estimating the best straight line to summarize the association. Regression analysis is a widely used technique which is useful for evaluating multiple independent variables. The regression equation representing how much one variable changes with any given change of another variable. The coefficient of multiple determination is represented by R^2 , taking on any value from 0 to +1, measuring the proportion of the variation in a dependent variable that can be explained statistically by the independent variable (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2016). Other common measures in association with regression analysis include the variance inflation factor (VIF) indicating the extent of collinearity, and F-test, indicating the possibility of the results occurrence.

In this research, both correlation and regression analysis are used to explore the relationship among the variables. The following chapter will provide the research findings, the interpretation of the findings and the literature reviewed previously. The dissertation then ends with a conclusion in the last chapter.

Chapter 5: Findings

5.1 Data Analysis

5.1.1 Introduction

The data is collected through online questionnaires edited on the website: www.wjx.cn. The website is operated by a Chinese internet company offering online survey service for both corporations and individuals. Since its foundation in 2006, it has been growing to the biggest online questionnaire, exam, and ballot platform in China with a total of 18 billion questionnaires have been collected. A payable SPSS service is also available on their website for further data analysis.

The questionnaire is firstly designed on paper in English and then translated into Chinese to submit on the website. A link is created for the researcher to send to participants. The questionnaire link is delivered to participants mainly in two ways. The primary way is on the WeChat platform, where the researcher posts the link both in his individual WeChat account which is associated with all his friends, family members, acquaintances, colleagues, and classmates to ask them to access and distribute, and in all social WeChat groups where the researcher participants for networking, social activity, academic research, specific topic discussion, to invite all the group members to participate the survey for the completion of the questionnaire. The other way, as a supplementary method, is through emails. The researcher collects the contact information of the Chinese students in the pre-session summer language program in the University of Glasgow upon their approval and sends them the online questionnaire link through email inviting them to participate the survey. With all the effort, a total of 345 questionnaires have been collected at the end.

The demographics statistics is discussed in the chapter of methodology. The respondent group has a majority of female participants. The age range is diversified from 18 to 65. Half of the participants accomplish at least the University degree. Almost half of the total respondents work on full time, and students take one-fifth of all participants.

5.1.2 Descriptive Statistics

The researcher implements the reliability test for all the constructs at first (Table 5.1.2)

Table 5.1.2: Descriptive Statistics

Constructs	Number of questions	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's α
Industry Familiarity (IF)-whisky	5	2.96	1.71	0.95
Industry Familiarity (IF)-salmon	5	3.99	1.63	0.95
Industry Familiarity (IF)-tourism	5	4.60	1.61	0.96
Industry Use (IU)-whisky	3	2.70	1.84	0.96
Industry Use (IU)-salmon	3	3.76	1.79	0.95
Industry Use (IU)-tourism	3	4.56	1.53	0.92
Industry Involvement (II)-whisky	6	3.50	1.30	0.78
Industry Involvement (II)-salmon	6	3.99	1.28	0.82
Industry Involvement (II)-tourism	6	5.16	1.15	0.83
Product Reputation (PR)-whisky	6	4.37	1.29	0.87
Product Reputation (PR)-salmon	6	4.13	1.30	0.91
Destination Image (DI)	7	4.88	1.21	0.91
General Country Image (GCI)	8	4.84	1.10	0.95
Country Brand Equity (CBE)	4	4.66	1.25	0.95
Word of Mouth (WOM)	3	4.82	1.40	0.95
Intention/Recommend to Visit (IV)	6	4.91	1.33	0.95
Intention to Recommend to Study (IS)	3	4.85	1.44	0.97

It could be concluded that the reliability is adequate with all constructs across this survey having Cronbach's α of more than 0.7, and most of the constructs have the α more than 0.9, confirming the high reliability (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2016).

Through the mean method, it is interesting to find that participants are more familiar with tourism, rather than salmon and whisky. The category of tourism is relatively strong, scoring as high as 4.6, 4.56, 5.16 on the seven-point scales for "familiarity", "use", "involvement". The scores in the category of salmon are in a mediate level, at 3.99 for "familiarity", 3.76 for "use", and 3.99 for "involvement". However, the category of whisky's scores are relatively weak, as low as 2.96 for "familiarity", 2.70 for "use", and 3.5 for "involvement". It might suggest that Chinese consumers are still not that familiar with whisky, with no adequate assessment and involvement of whisky consumption. On the other hand, the female respondents as the majority of participants might explain the low score in the whisky category, on the consideration of the Chinese culture wherein females are not encouraged to drink liquor. The score for "reputation" are very close between the category of whisky and salmon, and in the same level of scores for

“destination image”, at 4.37 for “reputation” of whisky, 4.13 for “reputation” of salmon, and 4.88 for “destination image”. It is an interesting finding which appears that even though the participants might not have expansive individual experiences on Scottish whisky and Scottish salmon, they are somehow acknowledged about the categories and have positive perceptions on them through some other cues, for instance, the country-of-origin imbuement. The “general country image” of Scotland and “country brand equity” of Scotland have very close scores, at 4.84 and 4.66 separately. It represents a positive image and value of Scotland from the perceptions of the Chinese consumer, while the scores are not at a very strong level. The other three constructs of “word of mouth”, “intention/recommend to visit”, “intention to recommend to study” score at 4.82, 4.91 and 4.85 separately, as well, representing positive results.

The analysis of means implies some interesting relationships among the researched constructs. Next, the data are analysed to test the theoretical model through correlation and regress analysis.

5.1.3 Correlation and Regression Analysis

A correlation analysis is often utilized to quantify the strength of the linear relationships between two ranked or numerical variables (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2016). Table 5.1.3-1, 5.1.3-2, and 5.1.3-3 indicates the results of correlations analysis of this research.

Table 5.1.3-1: Person Inter-correlation of variables in the category of whisky

	IF-whisky	II-whisky	Use-whisky	PR-whisky	GCI	CBE	WOM	IV	IS
IF-whisky	1								
II-whisky	0.608**	1							
IU-whisky	0.778**	0.702**	1						
PR-whisky	0.456**	0.457**	0.372**	1					
GCI	0.310**	0.303**	0.250**	0.495**	1				
CBE	0.307**	0.324**	0.290**	0.436**	0.804**	1			
WOM	0.233**	0.299**	0.207**	0.475**	0.796**	0.783**	1		
IV	0.236**	0.276**	0.181**	0.479**	0.774**	0.732**	0.877**	1	
IS	0.219**	0.323**	0.212**	0.431**	0.763**	0.727**	0.855**	0.901**	1

* p<0.05 ** p<0.01

Table 5.1.3-2: Person Inter-correlation of variables in the category of salmon

	IF-salmon	Use-salmon	II-salmon	PR-salmon	GCI	CBE	WOM	IV	IS
IF-salmon	1								
Use-salmon	0.738**	1							
II-salmon	0.616**	0.751**	1						
PR-salmon	0.492**	0.489**	0.535**	1					
GCI	0.274**	0.245**	0.257**	0.550**	1				
CBE	0.278**	0.308**	0.304**	0.502**	0.804**	1			
WOM	0.262**	0.295**	0.289**	0.474**	0.796**	0.783**	1		
IV	0.308**	0.320**	0.316**	0.501**	0.774**	0.732**	0.877**	1	
IS	0.274**	0.291**	0.330**	0.493**	0.763**	0.727**	0.855**	0.901**	1

* p<0.05 ** p<0.01

Table 5.1.3-3: Person Inter-correlation of variables in the category of tourism

	IF-tourism	Use-tourism	II-tourism	DI	GCI	CBE	WOM	IV	IS
IF-tourism	1								
Use-tourism	0.750**	1							
II-tourism	0.527**	0.549**	1						
DI	0.450**	0.407**	0.473**	1					
GCI	0.241**	0.307**	0.367**	0.715**	1				
CBE	0.230**	0.306**	0.259**	0.585**	0.804**	1			
WOM	0.305**	0.421**	0.414**	0.675**	0.796**	0.783**	1		
IV	0.339**	0.415**	0.445**	0.698**	0.774**	0.732**	0.877**	1	
IS	0.273**	0.348**	0.385**	0.640**	0.763**	0.727**	0.855**	0.901**	1

* p<0.05 ** p<0.01

The correlation for all the constructs is proven significantly in 0.01 level. All factors in the three selected industries are positively inter-related. The analysis indicates a positive correlation among the variables. This finding is consistent with what has been proven in previous research related to traditional country-of-origin effects (eg. Andéhn, Nordin, and Nilsson, 2016; Herz and Diamantopoulos, 2013; Koshate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos, and Oldenkotte, 2012) and the recent studies of reverse country-of-origin effects (Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Kim, 2011, Lee and Lockshin, 2012; Magnusson, 2014; Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre, 2016). As expected, the finding supports the proposition that product-related beliefs and destination-related beliefs are positively related with general country image and country brand equity, which are furtherly correlated with consumers' attitudes, behavioural intentions.

In contrast to the correlation coefficient, regression analysis assesses the strength of a cause-and-effect relationship between dependent and independent variables. Table 5.1.3-4 shows the results of regression analysis among the variables in this research, as follows:

Table 5.1.3-4: Path Coefficients for the Hypothesize Relationships in the Research Model

Hypotheses	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	P	VIF	R ²	F Value
	β	Std. Error					
H1,3,5: Industry Familiarity/Use/Involvement - Product Reputation							
Category of Whiskey							
H1a: Industry Familiarity - Product Reputation	0.28	0.06	4.94	0.000**	2.58		
H3a: Industry Use - Product Reputation	-0.11	0.06	-1.84	0.067	3.21	0.27	41.24**
H5a: Industry Involvement - Product Reputation	0.34	0.07	5.17	0.000**	2.01		
Category of Salmon							
H1b: Industry Familiarity - Product Reputation	0.19	0.05	3.63	0.000**	2.24		
H3b: Industry Use - Product Reputation	0.04	0.06	0.60	0.547	3.18	0.33	55.95**
H5b: Industry Involvement - Product Reputation	0.36	0.07	5.18	0.000**	2.34		
H2,4,6: Industry Familiarity/Use/Involvement - Destination Image							
Category of Tourism							
H2: Industry Familiarity - Destination Image	0.18	0.05	3.46	0.001**	2.39		
H4: Industry Use - Destination Image	0.04	0.06	0.67	0.501	2.47	0.28	44.30**
H6: Industry Involvement - Destination Image	0.33	0.06	5.64	0.000**	1.50		
H7, H8: Product Reputation/Destination Image - General Country Image							
H7: Product Reputation - General Country Image	0.17	0.05	3.68	0.000**	1.75	0.53	192.23**
H8: Destination Image - General Country Image	0.54	0.05	12.15	0.000**	1.75		
H9: General Country Image - Country Brand Equity							
H9: General Country Image - Country Brand Equity	0.92	0.04	25.08	0.000**	1.00	0.65	628.88**
H10,11,12: Country Brand Equity - Word of Mouth, Intention / Recommend to Visit, Intention to Recommend to Study							
H10: Country Brand Equity - Word of Mouth	0.88	0.04	23.32	0.000**	1.00	0.61	543.78**
H11: Country Brand Equity - Intention/Recommend to Visit	0.78	0.04	19.88	0.000**	1.00	0.54	395.32**
H12: Country Brand Equity - Intention to Recommend to Study	0.84	0.04	19.61	0.000**	1.00	0.53	384.46**

* p<0.05 ** p<0.01

5.2 Hypothesis Testing

5.2.1 H1,3,5: Industry Familiarity/Use/Involvement - Product Reputation

The value of R^2 in both categories indicates there is a model fit for the regression equation, representing a proportion of the variability in “product reputation” can be explained by the “industry familiarity”, “industry use” and “industry involvement”. In addition, VIF results in all values are less than 5, indicating no existence of collinearity among the independent variables.

The regression coefficients for “familiarity” (0.28,0.19, $p < 0.01$) indicate a positive relationship with “product reputation”. **H1** is therefore supported. In terms of “use” factor, $p > 0.05$, suggests no significant relationship with “product reputation”. **H3** is not supported. The regression coefficients for “involvement” (0.34,0.36, $p < 0.01$) and $p < 0.01$, suggest a positive relationship with “product reputation”. **H5** is therefore supported.

It meets the expectation that both industry familiarity and involvement have a strong link with the product reputation as proven in previous literature, while, it is a surprising finding that the factor “use” is not linked with the product reputation. It seems to suggest that the frequency and regularity of consumers' product consumption not affect their attitude towards a product. As long as the product familiarity and interest is built, the association with and attitudes about the product is thus formed in consumers' mind.

5.2.2 H2,4,6: Industry Familiarity/Use/Involvement - Destination Image

Results in the tourism category show the similar findings to the category whisky and salmon. A positive relationship between “familiarity”, “involvement” and “destination image” is supported (**H2, H6**). The link between “use” and “destination image” is not approved (**H4**).

5.2.3 H7,8: Product Reputation/ Destination Image - General Country Image

The R^2 value of 0.54, indicates that there is a good model fit for the regression equation. The regression coefficients (0.17,0.54, $p < 0.01$) supports both “product reputation” and “destination image” are positively related to “general county image”. While the differences in the coefficient numbers confirm “destination image” have stronger influence on “general country image”. Consequently, **H7, H8** are both supported.

This significant finding strongly approves the existence of the reverse country-of-origin effects and suggest that both product-related beliefs and destination-related beliefs influence general country image. It furtherly reports that compared to product reputation, destination image has a stronger effect on the general country image.

5.2.5 H9: General Country Image - Country Brand Equity

The R^2 value of 0.647, indicates that there is a high degree of goodness of model fit for the regression equation. The regression coefficient is 0.915, and $p < 0.01$, confirming a strong positive relationship with “general country image”. **H9** is therefore strongly supported.

It is not surprising to gain this finding, as the relationship between a brand image and the brand equity is largely discussed and approved in the marketing research. However, the finding in this research reveals that through the co-branding and image transfer process, the alliance between a product image and a country image, or a destination image and a country image, is also able to contribute to the positive brand equity.

5.2.6 H10,11,12: Country Brand Equity - Word of Mouth, Intention / Recommend to Visit, Intention to Recommend to Study

R^2 values (0.61,0.54,0.53) support a high degree of goodness of model fit for the regression equations. The regression coefficients (0.88,0.78,0.84) indicate “country brand equity” is positively and significantly associated with “word of mouth”, “intention/recommend to visit” and “intention/recommend to study”. **H10, H11, H12** are strongly supported.

The country brand equity, derived from product reputation or destination image, positively influence consumers’ values, attitudes and behavioural intentions with spread effects on other industries (e.g. education industry). This finding thus explicitly reveals reverse country-of-origin spread effects in the model. That is, the product-related beliefs and destination-related beliefs influence general country image, contributing to the positive country brand equity, which in turn, influences consumers' behavioural intentions in other industries.

Chapter 6: Discussion and Conclusion

6.1 Discussion

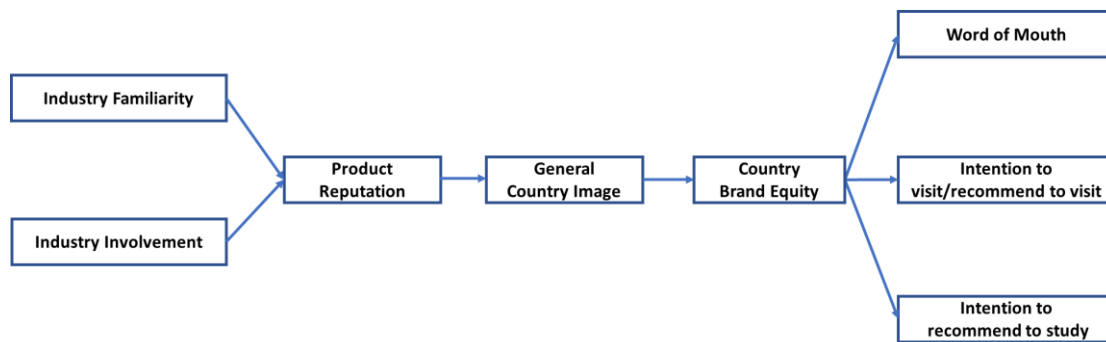
Traditional country-of-origin effect study involves a country-image cue to influence consumers' perceptions of the country's products (Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre, 2016). Consequently, a positive country image gives the products from the country a competitive advantage, which enable consumers to imbue into their perceptions of the products with country stereotype and therefore influence their product-related intentions and behaviours. Recent studies have suggested the reverse country-of-origin effects, whereby the influence stems from product beliefs rather than from country beliefs (Elliot, Papadopoulos, and Kim, 2011; Lee and Lockshin, 2012; Magnusson et al. 2014). This study draws on the co-branding and image transfer framework to explain the reverse effect and show that both product-related beliefs and destination-related beliefs can influence country image, and moreover, with spread effects, influence other industries in the country. In the next sections, the theoretical and managerial implications of the findings in this study will be fully discussed, along with its significant contributions in both fields.

6.2 Theoretical Implications

The first contribution of this study is the demonstration of the existence of reverse country-of-origin effects, whereby the product-related beliefs or destination-related beliefs influence the general country image. The reverse influence flows are explicitly demonstrated in three selected exemplary industries in Scotland, including two product-related industries – Scottish whisky and Scottish salmon, and one destination-related industry – Scotland tourism.

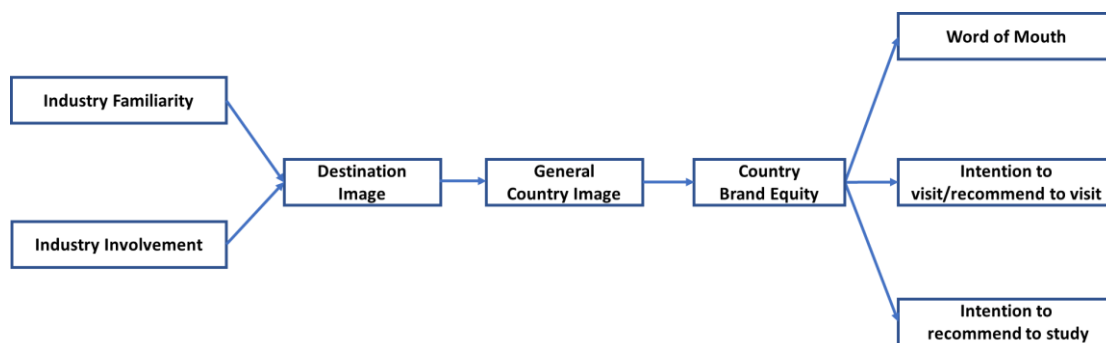
In the product-related categories, the reverse country-of-origin spread effects work in the path as familiarity/involvement – product reputation – general country image – country brand equity – world of mouth/ intention/recommend to visit/ intention to recommend to study (See table 6.2-1).

Table 6.2-1: The Reverse Country-of-origin Spread Effects of the product-related beliefs



In the destination-related category, the reverse country-of-origin spread effects work in the path as familiarity/involvement – destination image – general country image - country brand equity – world of mouth/ intention/recommend to visit/ intention to recommend to study (See table 6.2-2).

Table 6.2-2: The Reverse Country-of-origin Spread Effects of the destination-related beliefs



The results successfully confirm the existence of the reverse country-of-origin effects in multiple industries. In addition, it is first as we know to simultaneously test the reverse country-of-origin effects in both product-related categories and destination-related category in selected exemplary industries in a country.

Most of the previous study carried out the reverse country-or-origin effects research on the image of a country as a producer (Magnusson et al. 2014; Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre, 2016), or the image of country as a travel destination separately (Elliot, Papadopoulos and Kim, 2010; Lee and Lockshin, 2012). The combination of the two steams is little researched. This research integrates the two steams into one model and prove the existence of the reverse effects simultaneously in multiple industries.

Moreover, the study demonstrates the different weight coefficients of the reverse effects between different industries, revealing exemplary industries in different category influence country image to different extents. The findings suggest that destination-related beliefs seem to have a stronger influence on the country image than product-related beliefs. Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre (2016) argue that every country may have product categories that see more congruence than other categories. For example, Japan is more congruent with electronic products than with fashion goods. In contrast, France is more congruent with fashion goods than with electronic products. However, this is little known in recent research to investigate which specific product categories are better suited than others to generalize the reverse country-of-origin effect, except only some observed evidence indicating a stronger reverse effect could come from product categories with more emotional features than that with practical features (Lee, Lockshin and Greenacre, 2016). This study empirically investigates the congruence of three different industries with the country and suggests that the strength of influence seems stronger in the association between Scotland tourism and Scotland brand equity, compared to the association between Scottish whisky, salmon and Scotland brand equity, sampling Chinese consumers. The result thus builds up a pathway for further research to explore the boundaries of the reverse effects among multiple industries in a country.

The third contribution of this study is the finding of the “spread effects” of reverse country-of-influence. That is, this study is the first we know to confirm that the reverse effects can take place among different product categories or industries in an associated country. As discussed, most of the past studies on the reverse country-of-origin effects developed the research on the destination-country image association or the product-country image association separately. The combinations of the two streams are very limited in recent research. Let alone the deep investigation of the reverse effects across diverse industries. Lee, Lockshin, and Greenacre (2016) suggest that the chain effects from the product image to country image and then on to the country's other products would benefit only product categories related to the original products. This study demonstrates that the chain effects can move among diverse product categories and benefit un-related industries with county brand equity's spillover effects on consumers' behavioural intentions. This finding has significant values in the managerial implications which will be discussed in the next sections.

The last contribution of this study is in the development of the theoretical grounding for the reverse country-of-origin spread effect which is drawn on co-branding and image transfer

framework, integrating the product-related and destination-related constructs. The use of the co-branding process to explain brand equity is not new in brand management and marketing research. But this study is the first to deconstruct the reverse country-of-origin spread effects in terms of co-branding functions, specifically, of the associative image transfer process. Most of the recent research on the reverse country-of-origin effects interprets the image transfer between products and the country-of-origin based on consumer's mental network (Magnusson et.al 2014) or memory network theory (Lee and Lockshin, 2012; Lee, Lockshin and Greenacre, 2016). Although the memory network theory provides a convincing micro-level explanation of the reverse effects process, a macro-level grounding to construct the whole reverse country-of-origin effects seems a paucity. This study adopts the co-branding framework and image transfer process to construct the reverse country-of-origin spread effects in integrating product-related category and destination-related category. Therefore, it forms the theoretical model on a grander level and shed light on other researchers to investigate this object in a macro view.

6.3 Managerial Implications

The findings of this research have significant and profound value in practical implication for brand managers, tourist organizations, industry associations and governors to work cooperatively in building up synergistic benefits.

Lee, Lockshin and Greenacre (2016) suggest that country-of-origin as a competitive strategy is effective only if the congruence exists between a country and its products. Moreover, they further argue that the chain effects from the product image to country image and then on to the country's other products would benefit only product categories related to the original products. For example, Australian wine might imbue a favourable image of Australia, which in turn, generate the positive image of food-related products such as fruits and cheese, but not shoes or furniture. This plausibility is not convincingly approved in their study. In this study, the results demonstrated that the reverse country-of-origin effects can spill over into other unrelated industries or categories, through the co-branding and image transferring process. This spread effect is demonstrated in all the three chosen industries in Scotland: whisky, salmon, and tourism. These findings have significant potential values for practical implication.

In the industry of Scottish whisky. Although this “spread effects” across industries is first as we know demonstrated in this study theoretically, the industrial marketers, regardless with consciousness or unconsciousness, actually have been utilizing the co-branding strategy to associate their product strengths with the country-of-origin image as means of leveraging the

tourism marketing campaigns. In Scotland, there are over 120 active distilleries spread across five whisky-producing regions - Campbeltown, Highland, Islay, Lowland and Speyside, where a whisky is made with the unique taste comes through from the course of the water and the peat in the local area. Whisky tours or distillery tours are provided by many of the distilleries or travel agencies, to take visitors through the process of distilling, during which each distillery offers its own story to emphasize the unique taste. However, these tours are mainly designed for domestic visitors, especially for the consumer groups with whisky familiarity for a short trip. The findings of this study approve the effectiveness of this strategy in a broad scope crossing overseas markets, thus provide the whiskey marketers with a macro-level view to expand their marketing campaigns in the international markets, targeting more diverse and international consumer groups.

The same strategy works in the salmon industry as well if the industrial marketers acknowledge the significance of the reverse country-of-origin spread effects. It could be forecasted for the potential boost to not only the salmon export but also to the tourism economy if marketers in the salmon industry leverage their marketing campaigns in association with the destination image, given the fact that most of the Scottish salmon farming is widespread along Scotland's west coast and western and northern isles, with beautiful landscape and stunning lake views.

The benefit is obvious for the Scotland tourism industry. However, the researcher suggests a different view on investigating the influence for the tourism marketers with consideration of the alliance with other industries, for instance with the whisky or the salmon industry, in the attempt to gain the synergistic effect. As it is obvious that either a whisky tour or a salmon tour benefits not only the whisky sales or salmon export, but also the tourism industry with visitors' consumption on food, accommodation, traffic and souvenirs, etc.

The spread effects on the Scottish education industry has not been revealed before this study. It is suggested from the finding that both the industry reputation of Scottish whisky, salmon and Scotland image as a tourism destination can finally affect Chinese consumers' intention to recommend to study in Scotland. This finding suggests the education promoters expand their audience for marketing campaigns instead of only focusing on the targeted student groups. Co-promotion strategy could be used in association with other industries, such as tourism. In practical, the university tour is often a significant item of a touring portfolio in Scottish tourism agencies' brochures for international visitors, as many of the top universities in Scotland have hundreds of years history and well-known with its ancient architecture. For example, the

Gilbert Scott building of the University of Glasgow, as a landmark in Glasgow, is visited by a large population of international visitors in their travelling in the destination of Glasgow.

Moreover, in terms of the industry associations, whereby the implications have never been discussed in previous reverse country-of-origin effect research, there is significant potential benefit originating from the synergistic effects through industry alliance in international marketing communications. Co-branding strategies should be encouraged in associations with diverse industries which are approved with the positive influence on and strong congruence with the country brand equity. The marketing campaigns can be associated not only with country-of-origin images, but also possible industry affiliations, to engender the synergistic benefits for multiple industries. In particular, there are many industry associations in Scotland. For example, Scottish Tourism Alliance (STA) is the representative body of the Scottish tourism industry, comprising over 250 trade associations, business, destination groups and other organisations with an interest in tourism, with the mission to connect tourism business, destinations, and other organisations to shape a vibrant visitor economy for Scotland. Scottish Salmon Producers Organisations (SSPO) represents the Scottish Salmon farming industry and plays a central role in representing its members on political, regulatory, media and technical issues. Scotch Whisky Association (SWA) plays a role to advance the global interests of Scotch Whiskey and build strong relationships with all level of government and opinion-formers to support, safeguard the Scotch whisky category and ensure their members to fairly access all markets worldwide. However, it is rare to find cross-industrial collaborations among the different associations and organizations. With the findings of this study, the collaboration across industries, for example between the Scotch whisky and Scottish salmon, may draw the attention as the proven evidence of the positive synergetic effects benefiting both industries with effective source utilization.

For the specific industry, with further research to investigate its strength on the reverse influence, may gain the bargaining power with governors on the policy support, government subsidies, tax exemption and so on. For example, Scotch Whisky has a record-breaking year for exports in 2017. According to official HMRC data, last year Scotch whisky grew in both volume and value to a total of £4.36bn, showing that Scotch Whisky accounted for over 20% of all UK food and drink exports. Commenting on the figures, Karen Betts, CEO of the SWA, said:

“Scotch Whisky is not just a core part of Scotland's national identity and heritage, it is also a fundamental part of our export economy.....With more than 40,000 jobs supported by the Scotch Whisky industry across the UK, 7,000 of which are in rural areas in Scotland, it is crucial that we continue to support both the new wave of whisky entrepreneurs and established distillers who are taking Scotch to the world.” (scotch-whisky.org.uk, 2018)

With the findings of this study, the spread effects of Scotch Whisky on other industries might suggest a more significant and fundamental contribution of the whisky industry to the whole economy which calls for extra support it deserves from the government.

At last, for government officials, at the very least, the strong the positive relationship between product reputation, destination image and county brand equity suggests close collaborations between government officers and major industry marketers. The results of the reverse country-of-origin spread effects guide strategic development at a macro level to help the governors in the understanding of the distinct relationships between product reputation in the different industries and the country brand equity. On the other hand, for national destination marketers in the government who carry out country branding strategy, a collaborative framework could be developed where industry marketers emphasize the country-of-origin, and governments refer industry images in the country branding communication. In this way, both parties would benefit from building or strengthening the explicit link between them. In terms of industry support, as long as the specific products are closely associated with country images, cross-promotions should work in all the country branding communications to encourage the positive image transferring between each other, as a result of building the co-branding synergy benefiting both for the country and industries.

6.4 Limitation and Further Research

This study contributes a theoretical grounding model that might stimulate the interest of other researchers towards more advanced and in-depth studies of the reverse country-of-origin effects. It has limitations which possibly constrain the generalizability of results but also light on the path of the future research. One limitation is the choice of sampling country, selected industries and survey participants. China is a significant emerging market for Scotland, both as the source of manufacture and market for export, as discussed in previous chapters. China (including Taiwan) is the top 6 largest destination for Scotch whisky (by value) in 2017 (scotch-whisky.org.uk, 2018b), the top 3 largest market for Scottish salmon with sales worth £69M (scottishsalmon.co.uk, 2018), and Scotland's 16th largest source market measured by the

number of visits in 2016 (visitscotland.org, 2018). Up to 2017, all 19 Scottish universities have cooperative partners in China. More than 10,000 Chinese students studied in Scotland, making up the biggest foreign student group in Scotland (fmprc.gov.cn, 2017). Therefore, the approach of testing the model sampling Chinese consumers in the three selected industries suggest that the results may be stable and applicable to other environments. However, it is possible that different industries and target country combinations may lead to different findings, especially if the type of context selected for research are significantly distinguished from the present one. For example, a target country with a developed market and mature business association with Scotland might indicate different characteristic in the results.

The second limitation of this research is that this research doesn't investigate the moderate factors for the reverse country-of-origin effects. Due to the integration with many constructs in the model, this research doesn't examine the which factors may moderate the reverse effects. Further research can be carried out in this area to discuss the possible moderate effects.

Appendix 1: The Questionnaire in Chinese

问卷调查:针对中国市场的品牌声誉以及品牌声誉对原产地的反向影响

本调查问卷仅供学术用途。您提供的详细信息是用于在格拉斯哥大学进行的学术研究。格拉斯哥大学的研究遵循伦理原则运作，详细信息可以从如下的链接了解：

<https://www.gla.ac.uk/colleges/scienceengineering/staff/committees/ethicscommittee/>

所有收集的信息都不会用于商业用途。

请您在适当的空格内打勾或者说明您的同意程度

非常感谢您的支持和合作

第一部分

1. 当你想到威士忌时，你会把自己表述成（请选择）：

不熟悉的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	熟悉的
经验不足的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	有经验的
不太懂行	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	很懂行
信息不足的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	信息灵通的
新手买家	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	专业买家

2. 请说明你对如下声明的同意程度？

	非常不同意	比较不同意	略不同意	既不同意也不反对	略同意	比较同意	非常同意
我喝威士忌有很长一段时间	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我买威士忌比普通中国人购买的威士忌要多	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我喝威士忌比普通中国人要多	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我对威士忌有很强的兴趣	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
威士忌对我很重要	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
对我来说威士忌不重要	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我很小心地选择威士忌	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
选择威士忌对我来说是一个重要的决定	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
买哪种威士忌对我来说很重要	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. 当我想到苏格兰威士忌，我觉得它是一种产品（请选择）：

不熟悉	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	熟悉
不好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	好
不时兴	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	时兴
比其他国家的威士忌要次一些	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	比其他国家的威士忌要高档一些
没有其他国家的威士忌好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	和其他国家的威士忌一样好
没有什么价值	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	很有价值

4. 当你想到三文鱼时，你会把自己表述成（请选择）：

不熟悉的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	熟悉的
经验不足的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	有经验的
不太懂行	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	很懂行
信息不足的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	信息灵通的
新手买家	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	专业买家

5. 请说明你对如下声明的同意程度？

	非常不同意	比较不同意	略不同意	既不同意也不反对	略同意	比较同意	非常同意
我消费三文鱼有很长一段时间了	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我买三文鱼比普通中国人购买三文鱼要多	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我吃三文鱼比普通中国人要多	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我对三文鱼有强烈的兴趣	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
三文鱼对我很重要	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
对我来说,三文鱼不重要	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我很小心地选择三文鱼	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
选择三文鱼对我来说是一个重要的决定	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
买哪种三文鱼对我来说很重要	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. 当我想到苏格兰三文鱼,我觉得它是一种产品(请选择):

不熟悉	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	熟悉
不好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	好
不时兴	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	时兴
次于其他国家的三文鱼	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	优于其他国家的三文鱼
没有其它国家的三文鱼好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	和其他国家的三文鱼一样好
没什么价值	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	很有价值

7. 当你想到旅游时,你会把自己表述成(请选择):

不熟悉的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	熟悉的
经验不足的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	有经验的
不太懂行	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	很懂行
信息不足的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	信息灵通的
新手买家	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	专业买家

8. 请说明你对如下声明的同意程度？

	非常不同意	比较不同意	略不同意	既不同意也不反对	略同意	比较同意	非常同意
我旅游有很长一段时间了	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我比普通中国人旅游观光的次数要多	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我比普通中国人出行的次数要多	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我对旅游有很强烈的兴趣	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
旅游对我很重要	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
对我来说,旅游不重要	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我会很小心地选择一次旅游	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
选择旅游对我来说是很重要的决定	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
旅游的目的地对我来说很重要	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. 当我想到苏格兰，我觉得它是一个目的地（请选择）：

不熟悉	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	很熟悉
无吸引力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	有吸引力
很低质量的吸引力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	高质量的吸引力
没有什么地方可以参观和旅游	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	有很多的地方可以参观和旅游
有组织的很差的旅游服务	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	有组织的很好的旅游服务
有低质量的旅游服务	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	有高质量的旅游服务
总体来说很差的目的地	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	总体来说很好的目的地

第二部分

10. 请说明你对如下声明的同意程度？

	非常不同意	比较不同意	略不同意	既不同意也不反对	略同意	比较同意	非常同意
苏格兰代表高质量的生活	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
苏格兰拥有很高的技术水平	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
苏格兰拥有先进的教育水平	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
苏格兰拥有很高的财富	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
苏格兰人民都很友好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
苏格兰人民值得信赖	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
苏格兰是个令人愉悦的地方	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
苏格兰有安全的环境	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
有理由支持苏格兰而不是其他的国家,即使它们相同	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
即使另外一个国家与苏格兰有相同的特征,我也宁愿支持苏格兰	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
如果有另一个国家也像这样好,我更愿意支持苏格兰	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
如果另外一个国家在任何方面都和苏格兰不同,支持/访问苏格兰似乎更明智	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第三部分

11. 请说明你对如下声明的同意程度?

	非常不同意	比较不同意	略不同意	既不同意也不反对	略同意	比较同意	非常同意
我会向我认识的人称赞苏格兰	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
在和朋友及熟人的交谈中，我以一种积极的方式提到苏格兰	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
在社交场合，我经常称赞苏格兰	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我愿意访问苏格兰	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我计划访问苏格兰	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我将努力去访问苏格兰	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我会向其他人推荐苏格兰作为一个旅游目的地	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我将对其他人说一些关于苏格兰作为一个目的地的积极的事情	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我会鼓励我的朋友和亲戚到苏格兰旅游	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我会推荐苏格兰以及苏格兰的大学给其他的人	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我会对其他人说关于苏格兰以及苏格兰大学的积极的事情	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我会鼓励朋友和亲戚到苏格兰留学	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第四部分 – 请表述你自己

你的性别: 男 女

你的年龄: 18-25 26-35 36-45 46-55 56-65 >65

受教育程度: (最高的教育程度):

<input type="checkbox"/> 中学/中专以下	<input type="checkbox"/> 中学/中专
<input type="checkbox"/> 高中程度	<input type="checkbox"/> 高等教育文凭/大专
<input type="checkbox"/> 大学程度	<input type="checkbox"/> 研究生程度
	<input type="checkbox"/> 研究生以上程度

你的工作状态: 全职 兼职 学生
退休 待业

问卷结束，谢谢你的参与。

Appendix 2: The Questionnaire in English

Consumer Survey: Brand Reputation and its reverse effect on the country of origin in China market

This questionnaire is for academic purposes only. The details you provide are for an academic piece of research, performed in the *University of Glasgow*. The University of Glasgow operates according to Principles of Ethical Research which can be viewed on

<https://www.gla.ac.uk/colleges/scienceengineering/staff/committees/ethicscommittee/>

None of the information collected will be for commercial use.

Please tick the appropriate boxes or state your degree of agreement with the following statements
Your support and co-operation is much appreciated.

Section 1

12. When you consider whisky, you would characterize yourself as (please choose):

Unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Familiar
Inexperienced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Experienced
Not Knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Knowledgeable
Uninformed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Informed
Novice buyer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Expert buyer

13. Please state the degree of your agreements with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
I have been drinking whisky for a long time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I buy whisky more than the average person in China	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I drink more whisky than the average person in China	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a strong interest in whisky	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Whisky is very important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
For me whisky does not matter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I choose whisky very carefully	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Choosing whisky is an important decision for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Which whisky I buy matters to me a lot	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. When I am thinking about Scottish whisky, I feel it is a product (please choose):

Unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Familiar
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Unfashionable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fashionable
Inferior to whisky from other countries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Superior to Whisky from other counties
Not as good as whisky from other countries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	As good as whisky from other countries
Not a good value	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	A good value

15. When you consider salmon, you would characterize yourself as (please choose):

Unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Familiar
Inexperienced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Experienced
Not Knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Knowledgeable
Uninformed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Informed
Novice buyer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Expert buyer

16. Please state the degree of your agreements with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
I have been using salmon for a long time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I buy salmon more than the average person in China	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I eat more salmon than the average person in China	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a strong interest in salmon	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Salmon is very important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
For me, salmon does not matter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I choose salmon very carefully	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Choosing salmon is an important decision for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Which salmon I buy matters to me a lot	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. When I am thinking about Scottish salmon, I feel it is a product (please choose):

Unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Familiar
Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Unfashionable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fashionable
Inferior to whisky from other countries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Superior to Whisky from other countries
Not as good as salmon from other countries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	As good as salmon from other countries
Not a good value	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	A good value

18. When you consider touring, you would characterize yourself as (please choose):

Unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Familiar
Inexperienced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Experienced
Not Knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Knowledgeable
Uninformed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Informed
Novice buyer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Expert buyer

19. Please state the degree of your agreements with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
I have been a tourist for long time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I tour more than the average person in China	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I travel more than the average person in China	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a strong interest in touring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Touring is very important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
For me, touring does not matter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I choose a tour very carefully	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Choosing to tour is an important decision for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Which destination I tour matters to me a lot	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

20. When I am thinking about Scotland, I feel it is a destination (please choose):

Unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Familiar
Unattractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Attractive
Low-quality attraction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	High-quality attraction
Nothing to see and do for tourism	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Lots to see and do for tourism
With bad-organized tourism services	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	With well-organized tourism services
With low-quality tourism services	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	With high-quality tourism services
A bad overall tourism destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	A good overall tourism destination

Section 2

Please state the degree of your agreements with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
Scotland stands for high quality of life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Scotland has high technology level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Scotland has an advanced education level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Scotland has high wealth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Scotland has friendly people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Scotland has trustworthy people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Scotland is a pleasant place	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Scotland has safe environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It makes sense to support Scotland instead of any other country, even if they are the same	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Even if another country has the same features as Scotland, I would prefer to support Scotland	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If there is another country is as good as this, I prefer to support Scotland	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If another country is not different from this in any way, it seems smarter to support/visit Scotland	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 3

Please state the degree of your agreements with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
I "talk up" Scotland to people I know	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I bring up Scotland in a positive way in conversations I have with friends and acquaintances	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In social situations, I often speak favorably about Scotland	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am willing to visit Scotland	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I plan to visit Scotland	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will make an effort to visit Scotland	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will recommend Scotland to other people as a place to visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will say positive things about Scotland to other people as a destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will encourage friends and relatives to visit Scotland	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will recommend Scotland and its Universities and colleges to other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will say positive things about Scotland and its Universities and colleges to other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will encourage friends and relatives to study in Scotland	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 4 - Please describe yourself

Your Gender: Male Female

Your Age: 18-25 26 - 35 36-45 46-55 56-65 >65

Your Education: Not completed secondary school Completed secondary school
 (highest level attained): Some college education Higher National Diploma (HND)
 University degree Post graduate studies
 Above postgraduate

Your Job status: Full time Part time Student
 Retired Not working

This is the end of the survey. Thank you for your participation.

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