

The constitution and effects of country images

Theory and measurement of a central target construct in
international public relations and public diplomacy

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Short summary

The country image is an important target construct in international public relations and public diplomacy. Under the conditions of a globalized world and the spread of modern media societies a country's image is becoming more important compared to territory access and raw materials when it comes to the cultural, economic, and political competitiveness of nation-states in the international system (Nye 2004; Gilboa 2008).

While other research domains, such as marketing and social psychology, have devoted some attention to the constitution and effects of country images from their field perspective, in public relations and public diplomacy research there is no widely accepted model and measurement instrument available. Much like the seminal works of e.g. Michael Kunczik (1997) or Joseph Nye (2004), many of the studies available in the domain of international public relations and public diplomacy research that touch on the construct of the country image have a rather conceptual or historical focus. Until now it has remained an open question, how the available concepts from other domains may be gainfully combined to derive, specify, and operationalize a comprehensive model of the country image suitable for analyses in international public relations and public diplomacy. Such a specific model and instrument is needed, however, to clarify the constitution of this central target construct in international public relations and public diplomacy and understand how its different dimensions interrelate and affect each other and how they ultimately lead to the facilitation of favorable stakeholder behavior.

Applying the analytical meso-perspective, the present study combines extant approaches from national identity theory, attitude theory, and reputation management to derive an integrative four-dimensional model (4D Model) of the country image as a subjective stakeholder attitude towards a nation and its state, comprising specific beliefs and general feelings in a functional, a normative, an aesthetic and a emotional dimension.

Furthermore, the work advances the debate on methods in the field by introducing variance-based structural equation modeling as a suitable approach to analyzing effects between different latent/emergent country image dimensions and behavioral intentions when handling specific research conditions such as mixed-specified (formative and reflective) constructs, predictive research settings or relatively large sets of variables.

Subsequently, both model and method are applied in two sets of empirical studies, which, due to the novelty of the model, serve the development and testing of a new measurement instrument. The latter is developed successively through semi-structured interviews, expert interviews, and item sorting tasks and is then tested and validated by means of three standardized surveys in Switzerland and Germany.

The results retrieved in this study support the proposed model and underscore the value of measuring the country image as a four-factorial construct in international public relations and public diplomacy, comprising both cognitive and affective dimensions. Furthermore, the results a) demonstrate how functional, normative and aesthetic country image dimensions vary in affecting the formation of the affective country image component and b) support the mediating role of the affective component in the country image's effect on stakeholder behavior.

1 Introduction

1.1 The country image as a target construct in IPR and PD research

People base their decisions and actions towards social entities on their cognitive representations (images) of these entities. The way individuals, organizations and countries can function in their respective social environments is strongly determined by their image among the people and groups that constitute these environments. For countries this is the image among foreign publics.

Under the conditions of a globalized world and the spread of modern media societies a country's "favorable image and reputation around the world [...] have become more important than territory, access, and raw materials" (Gilboa 2008: 56). In times of globalization and mediatization, the image a country projects is becoming more important because countries are increasingly observed by international organizations, media, and publics, they are publicly rated and compared according to their economic development, their political stability, the effectiveness and morality of their national and international policies or the attractiveness of their culture (Werron 2014).

Furthermore, as an antecedent of people's behavior towards a country, the country image as an attitudinal construct can strongly affect foreign direct investment (Kunczik 2002; Kotler, Gertner 2002), the prosperity of national tourist industries (Tapachi, Waryszak 2000; Gertner 2010), the attractiveness of domestic labor markets (Papadopoulos 2004: 40) and educational systems (Srikatanyoo, Gnoth 2002; Gertner 2010), the success of global exports of goods and services (Papadopoulos, Heslop 1993), as well as international relations and the degree of a country's political influence (Leonard et al. 2002; Sun 2008).

Especially for a small country such as Switzerland that cannot rely so much on political and economical power to defend national interests in a global context, the country image's effects

on people's behavior can make a critical difference to political, economical and cultural success. Many of the country's political, cultural and economical organizations depend on interactions with foreign publics. And the quality of these interactions is influenced by the country's image. Particularly in recent years the Swiss country image has become a controversially debated public issue. Topics such as Switzerland's role in international tax fraud, the business practices of Swiss-based *Glencore Xstrata* (in international commodity trading) and *Nestlé* (in private water trading), the recent *FIFA* corruption scandal, or alleged tendencies of xenophobia related to the Swiss ban on minarets in 2009 and the so-called 'mass-immigration initiative' in 2014 have all raised strong international media attention and are being discussed by publics, journalists and politicians nationally and abroad as damaging Switzerland's good esteem in Europe and worldwide and throughout the world.

Due to the growing importance of a country's image under the conditions of a globalized world and modern media societies, the construct has stirred practical concern. Political, economic, and cultural leaders are increasingly concerned about their country's esteem abroad and efforts of communication management are increasingly being applied on the level of the nation-state system in international public relations (IPR) and public diplomacy (PD) (Dinnie 2008; Dyke, Vercic 2009; Kunczik 1997; Snow, Taylor 2009).

A typical case for this is Switzerland, where many governmental, non-profit, and private institutions such as *Pro Helvetica*, *Switzerland Tourism*, the *Swiss Cultural Foreign Policy Centre*, *Switzerland Global Enterprise*, or *Swissnex* all have adopted sophisticated strategies to cultivate a positive country image of Switzerland. On top of this, the government founded *Presence Switzerland* in 2001, an umbrella organization of efforts in public diplomacy and international public relations, which is dedicated to promoting Switzerland's image abroad (Pasquier et al. 2009). The history of *Presence Switzerland* mirrors not only the importance of the country image but also the growing establishment of respective communication management practices: First created as a decentralized administrative unit, *Presence Switzerland* was integrated into the General Secretariat of

the *Swiss Federal Department of Foreign Affairs*. The appointment of this institution is grounded in the Swiss federal constitution: “On the basis of the Federal Act on the Promotion of Switzerland’s image abroad, Presence Switzerland supports the protection of Switzerland’s interests by using various public relations tools. Its tasks include transmitting general knowledge about Switzerland, the forging of understanding for Switzerland, as well as a portrayal of Switzerland’s diversity and attractiveness. The strategic thrusts of Switzerland’s communication abroad are regularly reviewed and set down by the Federal Council” (FDFA 2014).

Both their central role in international (political, economic, and cultural) relations and their importance in an increasingly popular practical domain of communication management on the level of the nation-state system, have created a strong need in IPR and PD research to provide analyses that clarify in detail the constitution and effects of country images from the perspective of strategic communication (Pahlavi 2007; Fitzpatrick 2007; Banks 2011): “Communication experts need to have knowledge of their target groups” (Vos 2006: 256), which, in an international public relations and public diplomacy context involves knowledge of how publics in a given country perceive a foreign entity (organization or country) and how they behave towards it (Sriramesh, Vercic 2009). The development of measures for intangibles like country images is an important desideratum in both IPR and PD research and practice: while these measures help to develop a systematic understanding of the constitution of country images and their effects on people’s behavior in research, they serve as an evaluative and interpretative basis for the development and implementation of cross-national communication strategies in practice.

However, as we argue below, particular desiderata in understanding the constitution and effects of country images remain, specifically concerning the development of suitable approaches (concepts, methods, measures) within international public relations and public diplomacy research.

1.2 Desiderata: researching the constitution and effects of country images

1.2.1 Desiderata in theory

A recent synoptical literature review reveals central research gaps concerning the theoretical foundation of the country image construct (Buhmann, Ingenhoff 2015b), namely: the definition of its domain, the conceptualization of its basic components and the specification of its dimensions. In general, the theoretical foundation and empirical testing of the dimensionality of the country image is still unsatisfactory (Newburry 2012; Roth, Diamantopoulos 2009). When looking at the basic components of the country image, there appears to be a gap concerning the inclusion of affective dimensions. Most models developed so far focus entirely on the cognitive component of the attitudinal construct and fail to coherently integrate emotional aspects. Furthermore, the internal structure of the country image remains largely unexplained, raising the question of how different cognitive and affective image-dimensions relate and affect each other.

In conceptualizing the construct, most researchers (like Ptaschunder et al. 2004; Reindl, Schweiger 2006; Schweiger 1988, 1992; Schweiger, Kurz 1997) develop models inductively from existing images among a certain group of people at a specific point in time. Such models work only for the image of specific countries and cannot be generalized and utilized in comparative analyses of different countries. Furthermore, these models are limited in their applicability to different stakeholder groups because their dimensions depend strongly on the focus of specific groups, e.g. consumers or tourists. Despite the obvious need to deliver more differentiated and comparative analyses of country images among different groups (like politicians, foreign political publics, skilled workers and experts, journalists, students), researchers have so far largely neglected the development of generalizable concepts of the country image that could be applied to comparative analyses of different groups. It is quite striking that concepts of national identity—although they offer promising theoretical grounds for substantiating the more generic attributes and content of the

construct needed for comparative analyses—are widely disregarded in research on country images. Recent works in nation branding (Dinnie 2008) and collective identity research (David, Bar-Tal 2009) successfully demonstrate how theoretical insights from leading scholars like Anderson (1983), Gellner (1983) or Smith (1987) can be applied to the study of country images.

Furthermore, there is still a need for integrative approaches in the study of country images (Papadopoulos 2004). In this regard there exists a manifest terminological challenge: There is no widely accepted conceptual understanding of the country image within any of the individual research fields. Depending on study objectives, country images are defined as brand associations, cognitive and/or affective attitudes, stereotypes, self-perceptions (i.e. identity), mass-mediated information or social reputation. This terminological heterogeneity complicates the necessary transfer and integration of knowledge between different approaches and suggests a common framework is needed.

1.2.2 Desiderata in measures

Much like the seminal works of, e.g., Michael Kunczik (1997) or Joseph Nye (2004), many of the studies available in the domain of international public relations and public diplomacy research that touch on the construct of the country image have a rather conceptual or historical focus. Other than works in neighboring disciplines, such as marketing (e.g. Desborde 1990; Martin, Eroglu 1993; Nebenzahl, Jaffe 1996) or branding (Jaffe, Nebenzahl 2001: e.g.) where the development of country image measures is more central, few researchers in international public relations and public diplomacy produce their own conceptually based instruments.

So far, where empirical work on country images is done, researchers apply one-dimensional measures for the country image such as *Gallup Polls* or single items (Lee, Hong 2012). Exceptions to this are the works by e.g. Yang et al. (2008) or Passow et al. (2005) who apply more complex multidimensional instruments. However, these researchers do not develop new

measures but transfer existing instruments from business studies domains, often lacking measures that capture non-commercial (cultural, social, aesthetic) aspects of interest in IPR and PD research.

So far, within IPR and PD research, there exists no ‘own’ conceptually based multidimensional instrument for the analysis of the constitution and effects of country images. For these emerging fields, however, it is central to move beyond mere conceptual or historical arguments, common item ‘borrowings’, or single measures to provide sophisticated empirical analyses of this central target construct.

1.2.3 Desiderata in methods

In the 2010 *Barcelona Declaration of Measurement Principles*, scholars and practitioners underlined the current need for advancing methods for the evaluation of outcomes in public relations (AMEC 2010). Empirically measuring and evaluating outcomes such as reputation or image is a demanding task since these target constructs are no manifest phenomena, but rather complex intangibles that have to be defined, specified and operationalized carefully in order to produce meaningful results. If conceptualized with multiple dimensions, the constitution of these constructs yet involves various interrelated latent/emergent variables. Furthermore, from an evaluation standpoint, these constructs are not self-evident, meaning that merely descriptive analyses of an entity’s image or reputation cannot explain what public relations scholars ultimately want to know, which is: how exactly these constructs contribute to the building of trust-based relations, the facilitation of favorable stakeholder behavior or even the creation of economic value added for a respective organization, company or country. Without taking into consideration this wider network of relationships, it is not possible to evaluate the importance of an entity’s image and reputation.

As young fields within—or adjacent to—the domain of public relations research, international public relations and public diplomacy have a more or less emergent status (Ingenhoff, Ruehl 2013). On the one hand—in areas of joint interests and overlap—they can draw on three decades of public relations scholarship, which—as a subfield in communication research—has by now devel-

oped a reasonable academic identity as an independent field (Sisco et al. 2011; Smith 2012). On the other hand they are relating with a research domain where still further progress is needed both in terms of research methodologies, as well as in researcher's continuity and stringency in applying these approaches (Pasadeos et al. 2011, 2010). Accordingly, the application of available methods is a topic in high need of discussion both in public relations research in general and in international public relations and public diplomacy research in particular. Because when "improper methods are used and/or currently available methods have limits, [the domains] can be bound theoretically by methodology. On the other hand, newly developed and available methods can make more sophisticated theorizing possible" (Miller et al. 2011: 17). This goes especially for advancing methods and approaches that allow to measure and analyze models for evaluation, taking into consideration a wider network of relationships between multiple latent/emergent target constructs in public relations.

A powerful statistical technique for analyzing such relationships is structural equation modeling (SEM) (Bagozzi, Fornell 1982). So far, most studies in public relations research use covariance-based procedures (CB-SEM) for testing causal models (e.g. Kim, Niederdeppe 2013; Ni, Wang 2011; Sung, Yang 2008). A complementary method, which instead is rarely used, is the variance-based approach of partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) (Lohmöller 1989; Tenenhaus et al. 2005; Wold 1982). Hair et al. (2012b) argue that due to the latest analyses of this method's properties (e.g. Reinartz et al. 2009) as well as newly emerging techniques for estimating models (e.g. Henseler 2012), the understanding of the PLS approach has much increased in recent years. While PLS-SEM is currently attracting much attention in business research disciplines such as marketing and management research (Hair et al. 2012a, 2012b; Henseler et al. 2009), public relations research has so far not taken much advantage of these latest advances. This is surprising given the method provides a promising approach to address current challenges in public relations research, especially when it comes to questions of evaluation.

Thus, we can identify a gap in the field when it comes to applying the variance-based approach to SEM. The above considerations show, however, that this is not just an issue for researching the constitution and effects of country images in the field of international public relations and public diplomacy but, as argued by Buhmann and Ingenhoff (2014), has much wider implications for the whole domain of public relations research in general.

1.3 Approach of the study

1.3.1 Aim of the project

The present study has three central research objectives. *First*, it aims for the theoretical development of a new model for analyzing the constitution and effects of country images in the context of international public relations and public diplomacy research. For this, the author aims specifically to interrelate so far unrelated streams of research and use the communication management perspective to derive an integrative model that comprises both cognitive and affective components of the country image construct. Furthermore, the goal is to clearly contextualize this model within the greater terminological framework of country image, country identity, country brand and country reputation to increase commensurability and allow for applications of the model in the context of these interrelated constructs. *Second*, based on this model, the study aims to provide a systematic operationalization of a respective measurement instrument. *Third*, this instrument is to be refined and applied within a first set of empirical tests. Furthermore, in preparation of these tests, the study aims to introduce and discuss variance-based SEM as a particular method that allows researchers in international public relations and public diplomacy to handle some of the specific empirical conditions, which become relevant in the context of measuring the constitution and effects of country images. Thus, *fourth*, we aim to advance the state of the art in quantitative methods by discussing and applying PLS-SEM as a specific statistical approach for testing hypothesized relations between

multiple latent/emergent country image dimensions, which has so far not been applied in the context of studying country images in international public relations and public diplomacy research.

Lastly, it should be mentioned that the presented study *does not* aim to present representative empirical evidence of any particular country's image in any particular group at a particular point in time, but rather wants to suggest, develop, and test a new model and empirical approach for analyzing the constitution and effects of country images in international public relations and public diplomacy research.

1.3.2 Research questions and study structure

Combining the said desiderata in model building, measures, and methods concerning analyses of the constitution and effects of country images in international public relations and public diplomacy, we arrive at the following four conceptual and empirical research questions for the overall study:

RQ1: How can we combine available concepts to derive a comprehensive model of country image for comparative research designs in public relations and public diplomacy?

RQ2: How can we specify and measure the construct and its individual dimensions?

RQ3: How do different country image dimensions interrelate and affect each other?

RQ4: How do different country image dimensions affect the facilitation of behavioral intentions of foreign and domestic publics?

These central research questions are answered in the course of the four main chapters of this study:¹

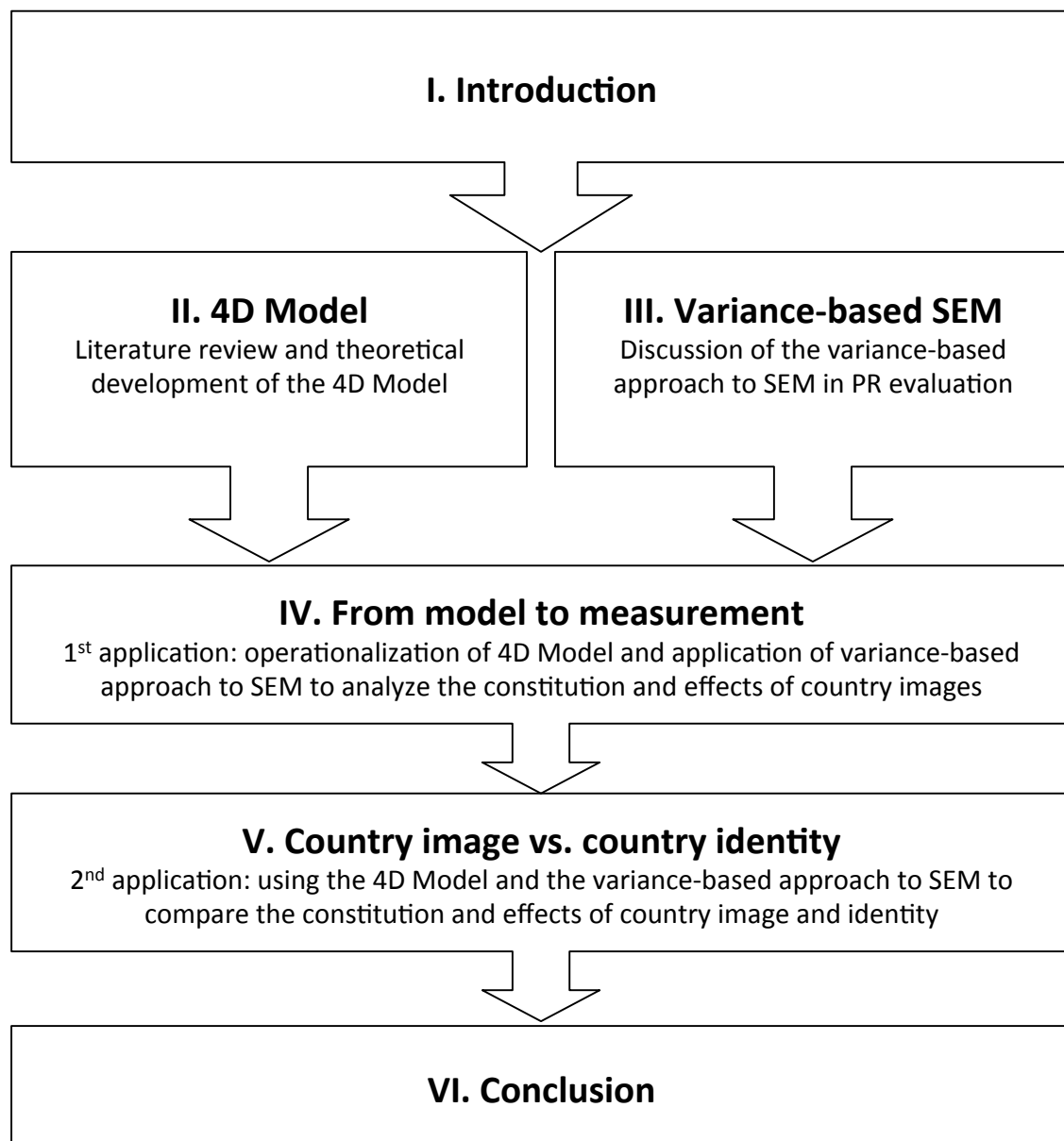
Chapter two lays out the theoretical groundwork for the study. First, this is done by introducing advances in the fields of communication science, social psychology, political science, and business studies within a synoptical literature review. This review makes visible the central lines of research in studying country images, characterizes their respective level of analysis, and outlines the underlying conceptual understandings of the construct within the different research perspectives. Then a communication management perspective is applied to systemize the interrelated concepts of country image, country reputation, country brand, and country identity in a single framework that helps to link the different perspectives on the level of international public relations and public diplomacy research. Based on these conceptual efforts the basic theoretical model (4D Model) for this study is derived by combining concepts from national identity theory, attitude theory and reputation management to arrive at an integrative model of the country image.

Chapter three provides an introduction, demonstration of application, and in-depth discussion of variance-based structural equation modeling as a method for analyzing relations between multiple latent/emergent constructs. Since the specific methodological desiderata addressed above are not just limited specifically to research on country images in international public relations and public diplomacy, but are in fact important in the wider domain of public relations research (see 1.2.3), the argument in this chapter is developed referring to discourse in public relations research and public relations evaluation in general and is meant as a contribution to these broader debates. Accordingly, this chapter specifies and advances general issues in public relations research, which emerge at a specific intercept of theory, method, and data. Specifically, an approach is presented that fits for research settings aiming for causal-predictive analyses in situations of relatively high complexity and relatively low theoretical information.

Chapters four and five apply the developed model and discussed variance-based approach in two sets of empirical studies on the constitution and effects of country images using a survey methodology. These studies allow to refine and test the developed model and provide some initial and non-representative evidence on how different country image dimensions affect each other, and

how different dimensions of the construct act as antecedents to different types of stakeholder behavior. Furthermore, referring back to the conceptual relations between country image, country reputation, country brand, and country identity, the second one of the empirical applications—in comparing image and identity—demonstrates that the developed model is suited for various constructs within this terminological framework.

Figure 1. Study structure



1.3.3 Epistemological remark

Any scientific study needs an explicit epistemological standpoint that allows locating its specific approach within the general context of its discipline—in this case within the social sciences. This is done here in brief and without engaging in the extensive discussion on the application of different epistemological paradigms in social scientific research programs that can be found elsewhere (e.g. Rosenberg 2012).

Relating to the standard terminology and lines of discussion in the philosophy of science in general (Chalmers 1976) and social science in particular (Smith 2005), the present study builds on epistemological assumptions rooted in scientific realism (Sayer 1984). Thus it assumes the existence of a social world external to the researcher, which can be accessed empirically by means of senses and research. In this context the specific goal of theory is seen in prediction as well as in the explanation of events in the social world (as e.g. in behavior). On a more general level such theory “aims to provide an understanding of the processes which produce the contingent outcomes of experience” (Manicas 2006).

In line with this standpoint and the empirical research questions and chosen method of this study (see above), we follow a positivist and quantitative research approach (Smith 1998: 74 ff.). This realist-positivist approach, however, does not equate with a naïve form of empiricism but should yield the *pragmatic* interpretation that the ‘truth’ of models is inherently connected to their practical outcomes in making predictions. This position encompasses the ‘healthy scepticist’ position that there is no *one* true model for any population but only models (plural) that make more or less sense in a given context and from a specific field perspective.

2 Towards an integrative model of the country image¹

This conceptual chapter proposes a new integrative model of the country image by drawing on advances from the fields of business studies, social psychology, political science, and communication science. To interrelate different approaches, a communication management perspective is applied, providing a basic terminological framework systemizing the central constructs of country image, country reputation, country brand, and country identity. On this basis the author develops the four-dimensional ‘4D Model’ of the country image by integrating well-established concepts from national identity theory, attitude theory, and reputation management. The new model is suited for application in comparative analyses of country images both on the level of different groups (such as a country’s domestic and foreign publics) as well as different societal levels (such as individual attitudes on the one hand and mass mediated prestige information on the other).

2.1 Introduction

In times of globalization and mediatization, the image a country projects is becoming more important: as a recent historical trend the modern establishment of external observers of the state system — such as international organizations and media — has enforced new forms of competition between countries, shifting the focus onto ‘soft goods’ (Werron 2014) such as image and reputation. Increasingly, countries are publicly rated and compared according to their economic development, political stability, the effectiveness and morality of their national and international policies or the attractiveness of their culture. Research shows that the country image, as ‘the cognitive representation that a person holds about a given country’ (Kunczik 2003: 412), has a wide range of ef-

¹ A version of this chapter has been published as Buhmann/Ingenhoff (2015): The 4D Model of the country image: an integrative approach from the perspective of communication management. In *International Communication Gazette*, 77(1), 102–124.

fects: Country images critically influence foreign direct investment (Wee et al. 1993; Kunczik 2002; Kotler, Gertner 2002), the prosperity of national tourist industries (Chon 1990; Tapachi, Waryszak 2000; Walmsley, Young 1998; Gertner 2010), the attractiveness of domestic labor markets (Papadopoulos 2004) and educational systems (Srikatanyoo, Gnoth 2002; Gertner 2010), as well as the stability of international relations and the degree of a country's political influence in the international system (Gilboa 2008; Ham 2008; Kunczik 1997; Leonard et al. 2002; Sun 2008). Furthermore, country images have a major effect on the success of exports (Dichter 1962; Papadopoulos, Heslop 1993) because they influence the way people evaluate the quality of products and services (Han, Terpstra 1988; Papadopoulos, Heslop 1993; Jaffe, Nebenzahl 2001) and, by implication, affect people's willingness to pay (Nebenzahl, Jaffe 1996).

The growing importance of country images has raised the need to analyze and compare these constructs and their effects both in research and practice.

Political leaders are increasingly concerned about their country's esteem abroad (Kunczik 2003; Price 2003; Werron 2014) and practices of communication management are widely applied on the level of the nation-state system (Dinnie 2008; Dyke, Vercic 2009; Kunczik 1997; Snow, Taylor 2009). One such example is Switzerland, which on the basis of a "Federal Act on the Promotion of Switzerland's image abroad" launched a separate unit in its Federal Department of Foreign Affairs that "supports the protection of Switzerland's interests by using various public relations tools" with a yearly budget of over 9 m. USD (FDFA 2014).

In research, various facets of the phenomenon have been studied in the different fields of business studies (Dinnie 2008; Roth, Diamantopoulos 2009), social psychology (Brown 2011; Cuddy et al. 2007), political science (Leonard et al. 2002; Wang 2006b) and communication science (Golan, Wanta 2003; Kunczik 1997). But sound conceptual models and appropriate measurement instruments to analyze and compare the constitution and effects of country images in different groups and contexts are rare. Most existing models lack theoretical foundations, cannot be applied

to different countries or the comparative analysis of country images in different groups, often fail in comprehensively capturing all relevant dimensions and refrain from clarifying the internal structure of the construct (Roth, Diamantopoulos 2009; Papadopoulos 2004; Magnusson, Westjohn 2011). Furthermore, we see that Papadopoulos' (2004) statement regarding a strict segregation of research on country images between the different disciplinary perspectives is still true and there remains 'great need for integrative studies that would merge the available knowledge across the various fields' (47). But these fields vary in their conceptual understanding of the construct, and the central concepts of country image, country reputation, country brand and country identity are defined differently, making integrative efforts difficult. These challenges raise the question of how available knowledge from the different fields of research can be structured and consolidated in order to produce an integrative model for analyzing country images.

In the following, three steps are taken to deal with this question: First, advances in the aforementioned research fields are introduced in a synoptical literature review to show the central lines of research in studying country images, characterize their respective level of analysis, and outline the underlying conceptual understandings of the construct. Second, a communication management perspective is applied to systemize the concepts of country image, country reputation, country brand, and country identity in a single framework that helps to link the different research perspectives. Third, an integrative model of the country image is derived by combining concepts from national identity theory, attitude theory and reputation management.

2.2 Central research perspectives

A first set of studies addressing the perception of countries can be found in the 1930s and 1940s (Katz, Braly 1933; Kusunoti 1936; Klingberg 1941; Child, Doob 1943). Since then, the fact that country images are both the cause and effect of social as well as psychological processes, together with the multitude of their possible economic, cultural and political effects, have led to various

studies across a range of scientific fields. This has led to a plethora of definitions of the relevant concepts and divergent specifications of their dimensions. The substantial corpus of literature can be systemized by distinguishing between the four research perspectives of business studies, social psychology, political science and communication science.

2.2.1 Business studies

From the perspective of business studies, the phenomenon is researched with an interest in questions regarding consumption behavior. Different concepts have been developed in the subfield of marketing with a focus on nation brands as well as country-of-origin effects.

2.2.1.1 Country-of-origin research

In country-of-origin research, the study of the constitution and effects of country images has a long history, starting with the works of Dichter (1962) and Schooler (1965) (see Peterson, Jolibert 1995; Roth, Diamantopoulos 2009; Verlegh, Steenkamp 1999 for an overview of the field). Most of the studies have since conceptualized the country image as an attitudinal construct, suggesting a plethora of different dimensions and variables (Roth, Diamantopoulos 2009). An important factor in many of the studies is the evaluation of the state of a country's economy (e.g. Wang, Lamb 1983; Martin, Eroglu 1993) as well as of its political system (e.g. Allred et al. 1999). Heslop et al. (2004) also suggest the work-training and competences of the people as an important factor. Another factor often referred to is the degree of technological advancement (e.g. Desborde 1990; Kühn 1993; Martin, Eroglu 1993). Despite the substantial body of research in this field, the theoretical foundation and empirical testing of the dimensionality of the country image is still labeled unsatisfactory (Newbury 2012). When looking at the basic components of the attitudinal construct, most studies have a strong emphasis on cognitive dimensions and fail to consistently operationalize country affects (Roth, Diamantopoulos 2009). With a few exceptions (Häubl 1996; Heslop et al. 2004; Brijs et al. 2011), researchers also largely refrain from clarifying the internal structure of the construct, raising the question of how different cognitive and affective image-dimensions interrelate and af-

fect each other. Also, if interested in the country image as a generic construct, most country-of-origin research has limited utility due to its focus on product-country images as a joined construct (Peterson, Jolibert 1995; Verlegh, Steenkamp 1999). When empirically analyzing country images, the fields' focus on consumer research has left a gap of understanding with regard to other important groups such as foreign investors, politicians, political publics, students or skilled workers (Papadopoulos 2004). This is also strongly reflected in respective measurement models, since many researchers (like Ptaschunder et al. 2004; Reindl, Schweiger 2006; Schweiger 1988, 1992; Schweiger, Kurz 1997) develop these inductively from specific groups of consumers at a specific point in time. This leads to dimensions, which depend entirely on the focus of one specific group, in turn limiting applicability to comparative approaches analyzing different countries' images in different groups.

2.2.1.2 Nation branding

The field of nation branding is grounded in research regarding the constitution, measurement and management of brands (see Kaneva 2011; Papadopoulos 2004 for an overview of the field). The nation brand is commonly defined as 'the unique, multi-dimensional blend of elements that provide the nation with culturally grounded differentiation and relevance for all of its target audiences' (Dinnie 2008: 15). This construct is applied both on the level of branding strategy (output) as well as the respective perceptions of the nation brand in the mind of the consumer (outcome); in outcome analyses it is often specified in terms of general associations with a country (Brown et al. 2010; Ptaschunder et al. 2004; Reindl, Schweiger 2006). So far, works on nation branding are strongly influenced by practitioners (Anholt 2006; Gilmore 2002; Olins 2002), have a rather specialized focus on the target group of tourists (Morgan et al. 2010; Tapachi, Waryszak 2000) and are often qualitative, while theory-driven concepts and quantitative approaches are rare (Gertner 2011). A central gap is the development of concepts and measures to evaluate the success of nation branding strategies (Papadopoulos 2004), i.e. instruments to track the development and change of nation brands (Loo, Davies 2006: 208).

2.2.2 Social psychology

From the perspective of social psychology country images are analyzed regarding individual cognition, emotion and behavior. The field has developed concepts of country image and country self-image (i.e. country identity) in the two subfields of intergroup relations and collective identity research.

2.2.2.1 *Intergroup relations*

In research on intergroup relations, country images are analyzed with a particular focus on countries' political actions, motivations, and abilities (Oskamp 1965; Herrmann et al. 1997). The perceived quality of the relationship between countries is often an integral part of the image — e.g. in concepts of the 'enemy country image' (Jervis 1976) or the 'ally country image' (Cottam 1977). Further, central elements of the country image are the strengths and weaknesses of a country and its status as an enemy (Boulding 1956, 1959; Cottam 1977; Holsti 1967; Shimko 1991; Silverstein, Holt 1989; White 1965). More recent models, like the stereotype content model (SCM) or the model of behaviors from intergroup affect and stereotypes (BIAS), suggest warmth and competence as two universal dimensions in intergroup perceptions (Fiske et al. 1999, 2007; Cuddy et al. 2007). Generally speaking, research on intergroup relations — in a similar way to marketing research — has a tendency to underemphasize affective and emotional components that may affect how people behave towards another group (Hogg 2006: 487) and is interested mainly in extreme forms of prejudice and intergroup conflict (Hogg 2006; Brown 2011). Accordingly, in the majority of the works, especially those on 'enemy image', but also in the SCM and BIAS models, country images are specified as simplistic stereotypes rather than as differentiated attitudes. Furthermore, due to its perspective, this line of research generally applies a dichotomous distinction between 'in-group' and 'out-group'; hence comparative analyses of specific publics are rare. Lastly, the focus on the human collective excludes non-human dimensions like the scenery and landscapes of a country.

2.2.2.2 *Collective identity research*

The related field of collective identity research analyzes the identity of countries or nations as one distinct form of collective identity (David, Bar-Tal 2009). Country identity can be described as the image citizens have of their own country or their 'country self-image' (Rusciano 2003). It can foster the joint awareness among citizens that they share a common identity (Ashmore et al. 2004) and cultivate an understanding of a country as a unique community (Anderson 1983). While national identity is constructed vis-à-vis a world public that constructs the global reputation of a country (Rusciano et al. 1997), the social group of the nation may employ identity management in an effort to improve its global reputation (Ellemers 1993). Research on collective identity has so far largely focused on small groups and there is a gap in understanding collective identity on the macro level of countries (Huddy 2001). Furthermore, David and Bar-Tal (2009) point out that the few existing psychological studies on national identity, like Herman (1977) or Bloom (1990), generally focus on the process of individual identification and barely address the generic dimensions of national identity and their specific content.

2.2.3 *Political science*

From the perspective of political science, country images are studied regarding matters of international affairs, political identity and behavior. Concepts of country image, identity, reputation and brand have been developed and applied mostly in the subfields of international relations and political anthropology.

2.2.3.1 *International relations*

Within the subfield of international relations country images are studied mostly with regard to the concept of public diplomacy, i.e. the strategic communication of a nation-state aimed at enhancing the country's reputation among foreign publics (see Leonard et al. 2002; Schatz, Levine 2010; Vickers 2004). A positive country image and reputation is seen as a means of building common

understanding in the international system (Wang, 2006), thereby increasing the political action ability of a nation-state (ibid.). The central aspect is often seen in the affective image component or a country's 'ability to attract' as it constitutes a nation's 'soft power' in the international system (Nye 2004). So far, research in public diplomacy is strongly influenced by practitioners (c.f. Snow, Taylor 2009) and by the nation branding literature (Anholt 2006), with respective concepts and methods still in the developing stages (Gilboa 2008). One of the most pressing gaps is the conceptual and empirical development of instruments applicable for measurement and evaluation in public diplomacy practice (Banks 2011; Fitzpatrick 2007; Pahlavi 2007), in order to make assessable the desired impact on awareness, attitude and behavior (Banks 2011: 29). In addition, it is argued that analyses need to include a wider range of target groups like elites, politicians and journalists (Banks 2011; Hall 2010).

2.2.3.2 Political anthropology

The field of political anthropology introduces a differentiated understanding of countries as culturally constructed national entities. Whereas some researchers have adopted a 'radical constructivist' perspective to characterize national entities as mere cultural inventions (e.g. Anderson 1983; Gellner 1983; Hobsbawm 2006), others have developed 'ethnographically grounded' concepts that allow to define some more or less continuous attributes (e.g. Hroch 1996; Smith 1991; Wehler 2011). According to these authors, manifest dimensions of the nation are, for instance, the occupancy of a distinct 'homeland', common myths and a shared history and the existence of a single economy (Smith 1991). So far, these approaches have mainly been used to analyze nations and nationalism as a political ideology. However, recent works in nation branding (Dinnie 2008) and collective identity research (David, Bar-Tal 2009) have started to adopt concepts from leading scholars like Anderson (1983), Gellner (1983) or Smith (1987) to study country image and identity by including both cognitive and affective components of the constructs.

2.2.4 Communication science

From the perspective of communication science, country images are studied as discursive phenomena in personal, organizational and mass-mediated communication. The construct has attracted attention in analyses on international communication, on media content and effects, and—to a lesser extent—on organizational communication and communication management.

2.2.4.1 *The general communication science perspective*

So far, communication science has mainly focused on mass-mediated country images. Analyses of the dynamics and patterns of the international news flow reveal the (unequal) salience of countries in international news (Chang 1998; Golan, Wanta 2003; Jones et al. 2013; Weaver et al. 1984; Wu 1998), emphasize the central role of global media events such as Olympic Games in forming country images (Chen 2012; Giffard, Rivenburgh 2000), show the strong effect of mass-mediated country images on the formation of public opinion about foreign countries (Manheim, Albritton 1984; McNelly, Izcaray 1986; Perry 1987; Salwen, Matera 1992; Semetko et al. 1992; Wanta et al. 2004) and underscore the gatekeeping role of foreign editors in forming these mediated country images (Marten 1989). The central role of mass media in the formation of country images has stimulated numerous content analyses evaluating images of certain countries as portrayed in foreign media (e.g. Sreberny-Mohammadi et al. 1985; Steenhoff 1996; Wu 1997). The conceptualization of the country image in these works is predominantly unidimensional (e.g. covering valence from positive to negative tonality) or based on (stereotypical) topics and themes found in media content (e.g. mountains, banking, and chocolate for Switzerland).

2.2.4.2 *The communication management perspective*

In the field of communication management that has a predominant focus on corporate communication the study of country images has so far received only limited attention (Kunczik 2003; Dyke, Vercic 2009). Some researchers have shown a positive effect of public relations activities on coun-

try images in U.S. news coverage (Albritton, Manheim 1985, 1983; Manheim, Albritton 1984; Zhang, Cameron 2003) and on public opinion (Kiousis, Wu 2008). Others have addressed the potential and challenges of communication strategies for the cultivation of country images and brands (Kunczik, 1997; Volcic, 2008) as well as country reputation (Wang 2008, 2006b). Only few have addressed questions regarding the conceptualization of the country image construct in detail. In recent years, Passow et al. (2005) and Yang et al. (2008) successfully applied a model of corporate reputation in analyses of country reputation. In contrast to the concepts from country-of-origin research, these works not only focus on functional aspects but also stress the importance of social dimensions like the social and ecological responsibility of a country. Despite these latest achievements, there is still much to be done in applying recent advancements from the field of communication management (e.g. Eisenegger, Imhof 2008; Thiessen, Ingenhoff 2011) to the conceptualization and specification of country images. These newer works go beyond the corporate focus and draw on more generalizable models including functional, normative, and affective dimensions. This allows for a specification of the concepts regarding a wide range of collective entities and is an advantage especially for more complex and variable entities such as countries.

2.3 Applying the perspective of communication management

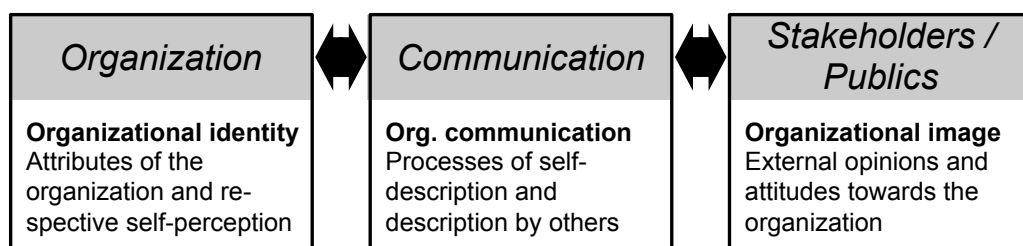
Returning to the argument regarding the need for integrative approaches in the study of country images (Papadopoulos 2004), the literature review discloses a manifest terminological challenge: There is, of course, no widely accepted conceptual understanding of the country image within any of the individual research fields. Depending on study objectives, country images are understood as brand associations, cognitive and/or affective attitudes, stereotypes, self-perceptions (i.e. identity), mass-mediated information or social reputation. In doing so, the different fields also tend to employ either a micro-level (mostly business studies and social psychology) or a macro-level (mostly political science and communication science) of analysis. This heterogeneity highly complicates any

transfer across the different approaches and suggests that for integrative efforts a common framework is needed.

2.3.1 Towards a basic terminological framework

Below, we apply a communication management perspective to accomplish the following research goals: In order to enhance the commensurability of research on country images we aim to systemize the basic concepts of country image, country reputation, country brand and country identity, and to clarify their conceptual borders as well as their interrelations. To show how available approaches can be integrated, we subsequently derive a comprehensive four-dimensional model of the country image, which can be applied to different countries and utilized for comparative analyses of country images in different groups and contexts.

Figure 2. Conceptual relations between organizational identity, communication, and image



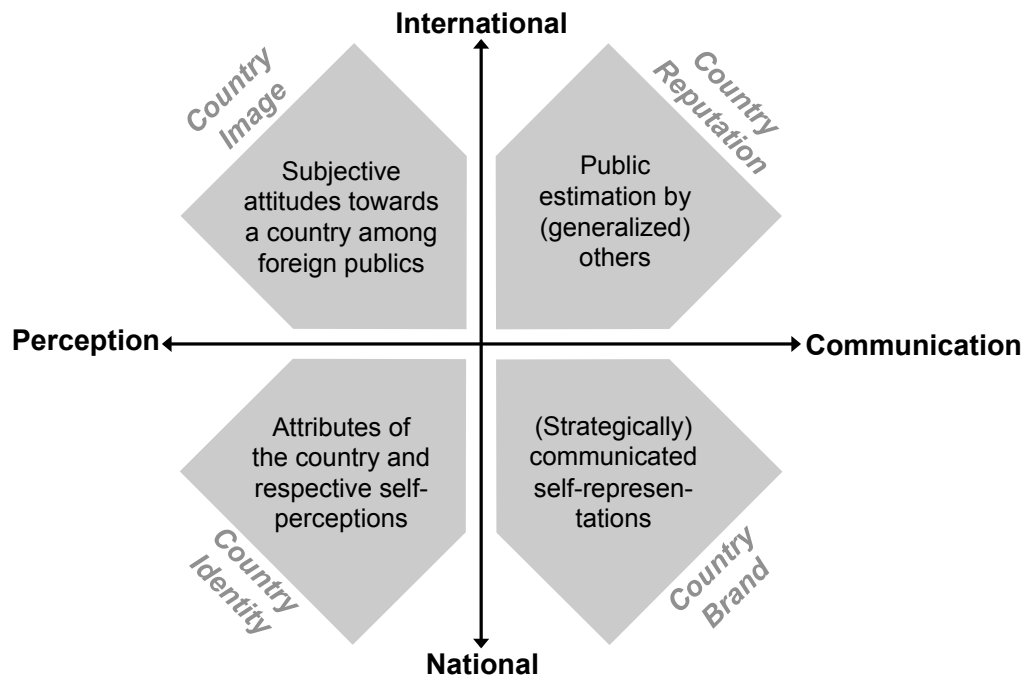
The perspective of communication management focuses on the ‘meso-level’ of communication between an organization and its publics. The goal of communication management is often seen as drawing on the organizational identity to build a favorable image among different key stakeholder groups by means of strategic communication, ultimately aiming to safeguard and strengthen the degree of trust in the organization and thereby facilitating favorable stakeholder behavior. From this analytical perspective, national agencies and the nation-state as a whole—seen as an ‘actor of world society’ (Meyer, Jepperson 2000)—appear as the organizational entities. Accordingly, communication management means the management of communication between a nation-state and its (foreign) publics, sometimes also referred to as international public relations (Zaharna 2000; Kunczik 2003) or public diplomacy (Snow, Taylor 2009; Leonard et al. 2002). An

analysis of country images from the perspective of communication management thus unfolds three fundamental and interrelated levels of analysis: The identity of a country, the processes of international communication about countries, and the opinions and attitudes towards a country that form in these processes among relevant publics or stakeholder groups (see **Figure 2**).

2.3.2 Systemizing concepts of country image, reputation, brand and identity

The terms country image, country reputation, country brand and country identity constitute important concepts in the different approaches from business studies, social psychology, political science and communication science and are central to research in communication management. Currently, in each of the fields, there are very different ideas on how to distinguish between these constructs, how to model their interrelations or even (as is often the case with image and reputation and also brand and image) how to assimilate them.

Figure 3. A coordinative framework of country image, reputation, brand and identity



When aiming to integrate available knowledge across the different fields, it is necessary to develop a basic framework that coordinates these closely related concepts by clarifying lines of

conceptual demarcation as well as interrelation. We argue that — from the perspective of communication management — all four concepts can be systemized along two basic axes by differentiating between (a) the *primal perspective* and (b) the *constitutive process* underlying each of the concepts. It is important to note, however, that this framework is merely a means to interrelate concepts in a way that helps us to integrate knowledge across a range of fields, not to give a set of exclusive and universally applicable definitions — which would not be desirable.

In the ‘meso-perspective’ of communication management it is common to build on the fundamental distinction between the realm of the organization on the one hand and the organization’s environment on the other, the latter of which can be further segmented into an organization’s various external publics or stakeholder groups (Freeman 1984; Grunig, Hunt 1984). This distinction of *perspective* (y-axis) can be employed to systemize country image, reputation, brand and identity by clarifying whether a concept is based within the realm of the nation-state or in the international context of its foreign publics. This bilateral classification can be further refined when clarifying whether the *constitutive process* of a concept rely primarily on individual perception or on public communication (x-axis). When referring to each of the constructs, these two axes allow for the clarification and coordination of conceptual differences as well as interrelations between country image, reputation, brand, and identity within a single terminological framework (see **Figure 3**).

2.3.2.1 *Country image*

Analogous to a widely used image concept, the *country image* can be defined as ‘the sum of beliefs, attitudes, and impressions that a person or group of persons has of an object’ (Barich, Kotler 1991: 95); in this case of a country. This concept can be further differentiated when distinguishing between the individual and the collective image, both of which are assimilated in Barich and Kotler’s definition. To make a clear distinction between a country image as an individual judgment made by a subjective behavior unit (Boulding 1969) on the one hand, and the accumulated country image of a group on the other, it is useful, when referring to the latter, to speak of *aggregated im-*

ages. The above-mentioned definition should also be further qualified by introducing a differentiation of perspective: It has been stressed that there should be a clear conceptual distinction between *outside-perception* (by foreign publics) and *self-perception* (of a domestic population) (Grunig 1993b). To account for this differentiation it is useful to distinguish between the concepts of *country image* and *country identity*.

2.3.2.2 Country identity

While the country image is conceptualized as the perception among foreign publics, country identity refers to the *self-perception* of a country's citizens (Rusciano et al. 1997). Country identity here means a form of collective identity based on the individual level (Ashmore et al. 2004; Rusciano 2003). Therefore, when speaking of the country image, we refer to the perception of a country that exists among its foreign publics (out-group), while country identity is conceptualized as the domestic self-perception existing among a country's domestic public (in-group). This analytical distinction should not veil the fact that domestic publics can in fact be very diverse. Respective of study objective it may make sense to further classify here along the lines of e.g. migrants, regional populations, or ethnic minorities. In their constitution, both constructs, image and identity, are interrelated as country identity is shaped in constant 'negotiation processes' with the publicly communicated images held by foreign publics and vice versa (ibid.).

2.3.2.3 Country reputation

These publicly communicated images, in turn, become important as they accumulate to form the global reputation of a country (Rusciano et al. 1997), which can be conceptualized as the emergent construct of the country reputation. In communication management, reputation is commonly defined as the overall estimation of an organization by all its stakeholders (Fombrun 1996). Correspondingly, it is not an individual's attitude (image), but the public esteem in which a social entity — in this case a country — is held. Here, the aforementioned term of *aggregated images* can be useful to substantiate the distinct character of reputation: Reputation is more than just an aggregat-

ed image; defined as the *public esteem*, it is based on ‘social, not individual judgments’ (Emler 1990: 181). Country reputation is therefore not merely the sum, but the emergent *synthesis* of multiple individual attitudes about a country as the result of complex communication processes in modern media societies (Eisenegger, Imhof 2008; Thiessen, Ingenhoff 2011). As such, country reputation develops in the international environment of a country when evaluative assessments of that country are publically communicated (mainly via mass media) by generalized others. This publicized ‘prestige information’ can exercise a considerable degree of social pressure on countries, leading them to conform to ‘world opinion’ so as not to risk penalties or isolation (Rusciano et al. 1997).

2.3.2.4 Country brand

A brand, according to a common definition, is ‘a name, term, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of these intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or a group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors’ (Kotler, Armstrong 2013: 255). As such, the brand is first of all an intentionally designed strategic self-representation. Although in academic literature there is often a distinction between the brand as communicated by an organization and the brand as conceived by its relevant target groups, the latter aspect can — with reference to the definitions established above — be conceptually aligned with the understanding of the image (or in this case ‘brand-image’) and as such lies beyond the primary concept of the brand. In line with this understanding, the *country brand* is seen as a product of strategically communicated information of a nation-state about itself. It is closely connected to the country identity, which constitutes the necessary basis for any consistent self-representation.

2.3.3 Conclusion

Defined as such, the concepts of country image, country reputation, country brand and country identity can be systemized by drawing on the distinction, introduced above, between the characteristics of *primal perspective* (national vs. international) and *constitutive process* (perception vs.

communication). Deployed as basic axes of demarcation, these characteristics help to clarify not only the distinct characteristics of the individual concepts, but also their mutual dependency due to their convergent interrelation within the broader social interaction process in which public communication is individually perceived and individual attitudes become part of public discourse.

2.4 An integrative model of the country image

To develop our integrative model of the country image we refer to three basic concepts: The concept of *national identity* by Smith (1991) to substantiate generic attributes of the reference object of the country; the *attitude theory* by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) as a foundation for the constitutive components of attitudes which build the cognitive foundation for the image construct; and the model of *reputation as a multidimensional construct* (Eisenegger, Imhof 2008; Ingenhoff, Sommer 2007), which serves as a framework for differentiating between multiple dimensions of the country image. By integrating these concepts, the country image is derived as a subjective stakeholder attitude towards a nation and its state, comprising specific beliefs and general feelings in a *functional*, a *normative*, an *aesthetic* and a *emotional* dimension.

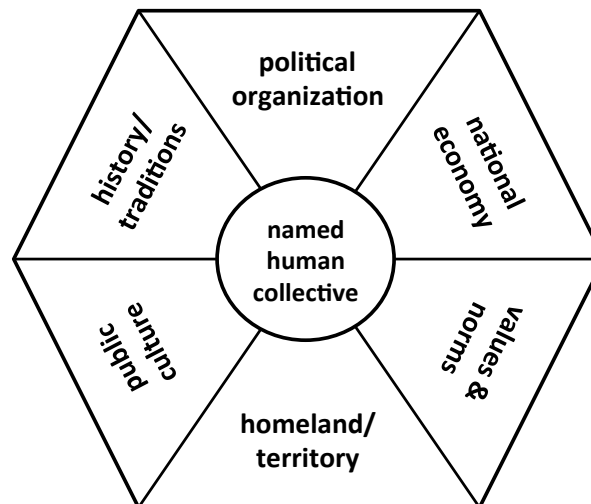
2.4.1 National identity as a basic framework

The image object of the country is conceived of as the *unity of a nation and its state*. By drawing on Smith's (1991) concept of national identity, the country can be defined as a named human collective consisting of six generic attributes: a distinct territory or 'homeland', a common history and traditions, a domestic economy, a public culture, a set of common norms and values as well as a sovereign political organization or state (see **Figure 4**). These attributes lend themselves well as a foundation for the model because they can be conceptually substantiated by Smith's widely-used theory on nations, have been successfully applied in research on country identity (David, Bar-Tal 2009), and correspond to categories by which foreigners actually perceive and distinguish between different countries (Mittelstaedt et al. 2004).

2.4.2 Country image as attitude

Having defined the image object as such, the country image is conceptualized correspondingly as an attitude *towards* a country, i.e. the attitude towards a country's territory, its history and traditions, its domestic economy, public culture, norms and values as well as its political organization. Thereby, it is possible for our model to 'use the same descriptive dimensions to characterize the image and the object' (Kelman 1965: 26). As such the model is well suited for comparative analyses of a country's citizens' self-image, i.e. the country identity, and the image of the country as perceived by foreign publics.

Figure 4. Attributes of a country (based on Smith 1991)



Following the concept of attitudes from the *Theory of Reasoned Action* (Ajzen, Fishbein 1980; Fishbein, Ajzen 1975), country images then comprise a component of beliefs (cognitive component) and a component of emotions (affective component) towards the image object. While the cognitive component can be seen as consisting of multiple *specific evaluations* regarding a broad range of attributes of the image object, the affective component consists of a necessarily *general judgment* regarding its emotional appeal (Bergler 2008). Hence, the country image comprises (a) what people know (or think they know) about the different attributes of a country and (b) people's general feelings towards the country.

2.4.3 Dimensionality of the country image: the 4D Model

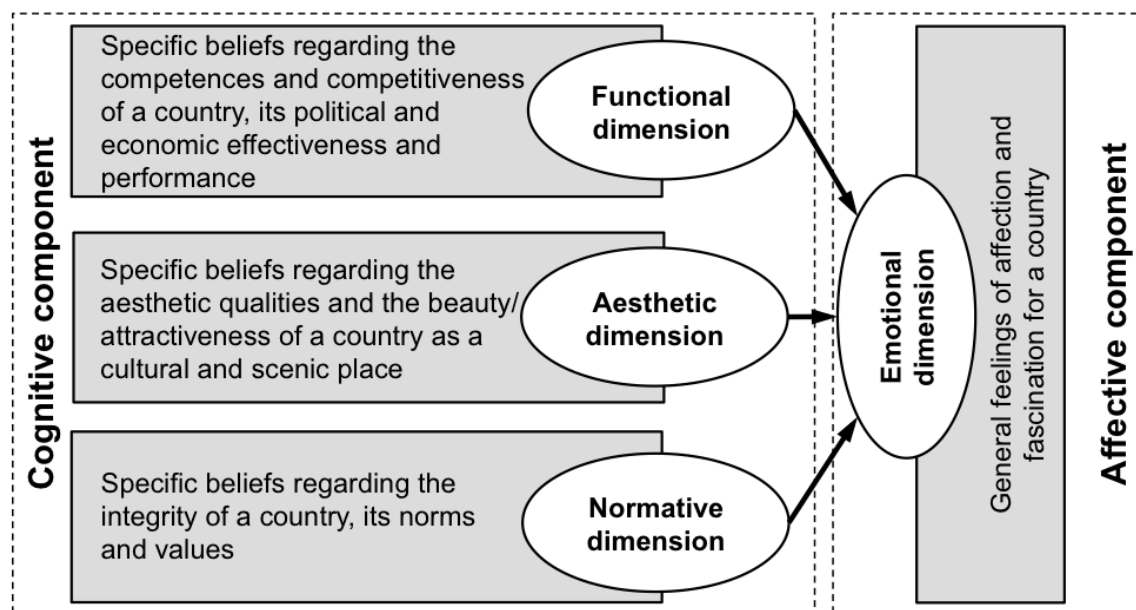
To further differentiate between these two general components we draw on a recent model of corporate reputation (Ingenhoff, Sommer 2007; Eisenegger, Imhof 2008). According to this model, each social object is judged according to ones beliefs about its *functional qualities* (abilities, competences and success), its *normative qualities* (integrity) as well as its *emotional qualities* (emotional appeal and fascination). Ingenhoff and Sommer (2010) also specify the internal structure of the construct by showing that the functional and the normative dimension can be seen as antecedents of emotional appeal. This is in line with the concept of the *Standard Learning Hierarchy* from the *Theory of Reasoned Action*, which assumes a somewhat rational process in which what we know about an object *affects* how we feel towards this object. Although this hierarchy of effects can vary according to context (Ajzen 2001), the standard learning hierarchy can be seen as the normal case of the constitution of attitudes (Pelsmacker et al. 2013) and can serve as the basic assumption for the analysis of country images (Bloemer et al. 2009).

Furthermore, to coherently apply this three-dimensional model — which has been developed in the context of companies — to the image object of the country as conceptualized on the basis of Smith's theory we need to integrate an additional dimension:

While functional judgments can refer to country attributes of the national economy and political organization, and normative judgments can be aligned with Smith's country attribute of norms and values, the attributes of public culture, traditions and landscapes resist coherent affiliation with any of the three dimensions. These attributes relate to *aesthetic* judgments, which, in the model by Eisenegger and Imhof (2008), appear to be associated with the emotional dimension. But when following Ingenhoff and Sommer (2010) in including a general emotional dimension as a *dependent outcome* of beliefs about a country, aesthetic evaluations should be conceptualized — like functional and normative ones — as a separate dimension *influencing* feelings of emotional appeal for a country. Otherwise aesthetic evaluations (e.g. about the natural beauty of a country's

landscapes) would be miss-conceptualized as outcomes of functional and normative judgments. Thus, to make this model entirely suited for analyzing country images, we further differentiate it by adding a fourth dimension that captures beliefs regarding the aesthetic qualities of a country, that is its beauty and attractiveness as a cultural and scenic place. Accordingly, the country image is conceptualized as consisting of four different, but closely interrelated, dimensions: a *functional*, a *normative*, an *aesthetic* and a *emotional* dimension. According to the two-component model of attitudes (Ajzen, Fishbein 1980; Fishbein, Ajzen 1975), the functional, normative and aesthetic dimensions constitute the cognitive component, while the emotional dimension constitutes the affective component of the country image (see **Figure 5**)

Figure 5. The 4D Model of the country image



In summary, with respect to the three concepts of national identity, image as attitude, and three-dimensional reputation, we define the country image as a subjective stakeholder attitude towards a nation and its state, comprising specific beliefs and general feelings in a functional, a normative, an aesthetic and a emotional dimension.

With this conceptual model, we can specify all cognitive image dimensions by referring to the country attributes as defined on the basis of Smith's (1991) theory. The *functional* country

image dimension, which covers beliefs regarding the competences and competitiveness of a country, is specified with reference to the two country attributes of national economy and political organization. This dimension consists of specific judgments regarding the state of the economy and national businesses, the competitiveness of a country's products and services, its labor markets and educational system, the competences and effectiveness of the political system as well as the country's performance in research and technology. The *normative* country image dimension, which covers beliefs regarding the integrity of a country, is specified in relation to the country attribute of norms and values. According to a common differentiation, this dimension consists of specific judgments regarding both the social and the ecological responsibility of a country. The *aesthetic* country image dimension, which covers beliefs regarding the aesthetic qualities and the attractiveness of a country as a cultural and scenic place, is specified by drawing on the country attributes of public culture, traditions, and territory. It comprises specific judgments regarding the attractiveness of a country's culture and traditions as well as the beauty of its landscapes. Finally, the *emotional* country image dimension, which constitutes the affective component of the country image construct, consists of general feelings of emotional appeal and fascination for a country.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter provides a synoptical overview of advances in conceptualizing country images in business studies, social psychology, political science and communication science, and shows how available knowledge from these fields can be consolidated in order to derive an integrative model of the country image. By applying the meso-perspective of communication management, a basic terminological framework is established that helps to interrelate the approaches from the different fields. Subsequently, a new four-dimensional model of the country image is derived by integrating concepts from national identity research, attitude theory and reputation management.

By adopting the meso-perspective of communication management, it is possible to systemize the central concepts of country image, country reputation, country brand and country identity in a coordinative framework using the *primal perspectives* and the *constitutive processes* as basic criteria of demarcation. While country image and identity are seen primarily as attitudinal constructs in that they are based on processes of perception, country brand and reputation are seen as constructs of representation, which are formed primarily through public communication processes. Furthermore, country image and reputation are established within the sphere of a country's international publics. Thus located primarily 'outside' the realm of the nation, these constructs are to be distinguished from country identity and brand, which are related to national self-perception and -communication. Besides drawing these lines of demarcation, the established framework also highlights that the four key constructs remain mutually interrelated as public communication is individually perceived and individual perceptions become part of public discourse.

Starting from this terminological framework, concepts of national identity, image as attitude and three-dimensional reputation can be integrated in order to model the country image as an a subjective stakeholder attitude towards a nation and its state, comprising specific beliefs and general feelings in a functional, a normative, an aesthetic and a emotional dimension. While functional, normative and aesthetic judgments constitute the cognitive component, the emotional dimension constitutes the affective component of the country image. This latter dimension is also seen as the dependent outcome of country cognitions: Beliefs about a country's competences, its values and norms as well as its attractiveness as a cultural and scenic place affect general feelings of fascination and emotional appeal for that country.

The approach presented here is the first to develop a coordinative framework that systemizes central concepts in the study of country images from different field perspectives and develops an integrative and multidimensional model of the country image. By suggesting a common terminological framework, this work also provides a valuable basis for further integrative studies involving concepts of country image, country reputation, country brand, and country identity.

In empirical applications, the developed 4D Model can be utilized to clarify how strongly different cognitive image dimensions (functional, normative, aesthetic) contribute to the formation of the affective component (emotional dimension). Better understanding these relations is highly relevant, for instance, in public diplomacy research where the model can help to analyze how the different functional dimensions contribute to a country's 'ability to attract'. Additionally, when placed in the context of public relations research, the model is suitable for analyzing the role of the country image in the formation of trust and legitimation as determinants of a country's potential freedom of action in the international system. Depending on study objective as well as operationalization, this general 4D Model can further be applied to comparative analyses of different country's images in different publics or stakeholder groups. As such, it can help to clarify differences in the constitution of specific country image dimensions among different groups like foreign investors, politicians, political publics, tourists, students or skilled workers. Similarly, the model can be operationalized to clarify specific discrepancies between country self-perceptions (country identity) on the one hand and the external perceptions (country image) of foreign publics on the other. When combining this identity-vs.-image perspective with the focus on specific groups mentioned above, migrants, for instance, can pose an interesting object of study as they develop country images and identities orthogonal to the course national/international distinction. When focusing only on the national level, the model is suited to compare the country identity of different subnational groups; besides migrants this can include ethnic minorities or regional groups in distinct cultural/language regions such as in Switzerland, the U.S., or Belgium.

Furthermore, the conceptual link to the *Theory of Reasoned Action* allows for the specification of the country image as an antecedent of conative variables. Thus, the 4D Model can be applied in analyses of the effects of the country image on behavior. Including variables on intended behavior regarding political support, travel, or investment practices, will help to better understand the specific economic, cultural or political implications of the construct. Combined with a comparative perspective on different groups, such analyses can deliver important insights on relevant

differences in how the four country image dimensions influence the behavior of central stakeholders groups such as politicians or investors. Lastly, if the attitudinal component of the model is discarded, the established dimensions of the model can be applied to analyses of self-representations as in studies on country brand management (Kernstock, Brexendorf 2009), or mass mediated country reputation in content analyses (Ingenhoff et al. 2013).

3 A variance-based approach for PR evaluation²

This chapter aims to add to the growing discourse on methods in public relations research by showing how variance-based structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) can be used to analyze effects between multiple intangible target constructs. The chapter introduces the properties of the method and demonstrates how it can be applied to analyze relations between latent constructs. This is exemplified using a model on organizational reputation, trust, and stakeholder behavior and applying it in a comparative analysis of four different stakeholder groups.

3.1 Introduction

After more than three decades of research, public relations scholarship as a subfield in communication research has come a long way in developing an academic identity and becoming an independent field (Sisco et al. 2011; Smith 2012). However, to further establish and consolidate the domain within communication research further progress is needed both in terms of theory and research methodologies, as well as in researcher's continuity and stringency in applying these approaches (Pasadeos et al. 2011, 2010). Accordingly, the application of available methods in public relations research is a topic in high need of discussion. Researchers have started to address this topic by reviewing and evaluating the application of widely used methods (Pasadeos et al. 2011; Cutler 2004) and systematically introducing new methodological approaches to the field (Everett, Johnston 2012).

In the recent *Barcelona Declaration of Measurement Principles*, scholars and practitioners have underlined the current need for advancing methods for the evaluation of outcomes in pub-

² A version of this chapter is currently under review as "Advancing PR measurement and evaluation: demonstrating the properties and assessment of variance-based structural equation models", together with D. Ingenhoff.

lic relations (AMEC 2010). Empirically measuring and evaluating outcomes such as reputation or image is a demanding task since these target constructs are no manifest phenomena, but rather complex intangibles that have to be defined, specified and operationalized carefully in order to produce meaningful results. If conceptualized with multiple dimensions, the constitution of these constructs yet involves various interrelated latent/emergent variables. Furthermore, from an evaluation standpoint, these constructs are not self-evident, meaning that merely descriptive analyses of an organization's image or reputation cannot explain what public relations scholars ultimately want to know, which is: how exactly these constructs contribute to the building of trust-based relations, the facilitation of favorable stakeholder behavior, or even the creation of economic value added for a respective company. Without taking into consideration this wider network of relationships, it is not possible to evaluate the importance of an organization's image and reputation.

A powerful statistical technique for analyzing such relationships is structural equation modeling (SEM) (Bagozzi, Fornell 1982). So far, most studies in public relations research use covariance-based procedures (CB-SEM) for testing causal models (e.g. Kim, Niederdeppe 2013; Ni, Wang 2011; Sung, Yang 2008). A complementary method is the variance-based approach of partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) (Lohmöller 1989; Tenenhaus et al. 2005; Wold 1982). Hair et al. (2012b) argue that due to the latest analyses of this method's properties (e.g. Reinartz et al. 2009) as well as newly emerging techniques for estimating models (e.g. Henseler 2012), the understanding of the PLS approach has much increased in recent years. While PLS-SEM is currently attracting much attention in business research disciplines such as marketing and management research (Hair et al. 2012a, 2012b; Henseler et al. 2009), public relations research has so far not taken much advantage of these latest advances. This is surprising given the method provides a promising approach to address current challenges in public relations research, especially when it comes to questions of evaluation.

In this chapter, we aim to show how the statistical technique of PLS-SEM can be gainfully applied to public relations research for predicting relations between multiple intangible target

constructs. We introduce PLS-SEM as a variance-based approach to structural equation modeling and discuss its properties and potential in the context of public relations research. In parallel, we also highlight the method's complementary nature and differences to CB-SEM. To demonstrate the application of PLS-SEM, we propose a structural model that serves as the basis for measuring the interrelations between organizational reputation, trust, and behavioral intentions. Specifically, the model will be applied to address the following research questions:

RQ1: How do different dimensions of organizational reputation interrelate and affect each other?

RQ2: How do different dimensions of organizational reputation contribute to the development of trust and the facilitation of favorable stakeholder behavior?

Furthermore, since the field still lacks comparative studies that empirically evaluate these effects in different stakeholder groups (Chun, 2005), we also ask:

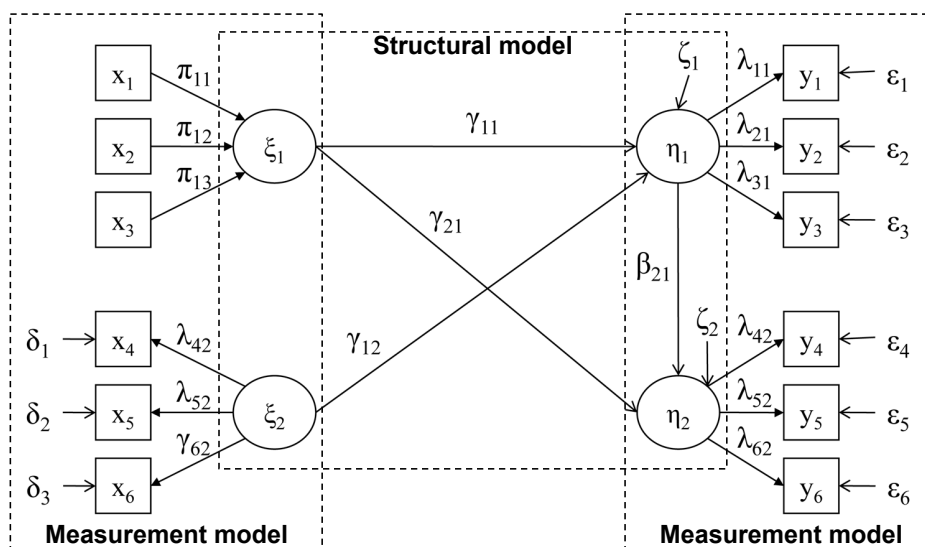
RQ3: How does the constitution of organizational reputation and its effects vary between different stakeholder groups of an organization?

These questions are answered using survey data on four different groups of stakeholders of a large telecommunications company ($n = 1'892$). By using a concrete research application, we a) show how the proposed model can be operationalized using reflective and formative measures and b) demonstrate which steps are to be taken to evaluate and interpret the empirical results when using PLS-SEM. In the final section of the chapter, we discuss the empirical results on the level of the different stakeholder groups and draw conclusions on how to apply PLS-SEM to enrich future research in the field both statistically and conceptually.

3.2 Basics of PLS-SEM and what it can do for PR research

Structural equation modeling combines elements of regression and factor analysis to assess causal relations between multiple intangible constructs in a single and comprehensive analysis while explicitly accounting for measurement error. As such, the technique is extremely helpful in going from ‘armchair theorizing’ to scientifically making sense of data using appropriately complex models. These models consist of two general components: First, the *structural model*, which represents the causal hypotheses on how the different intangible constructs affect each other. Structural models comprise two types of constructs: Those constructs that affect/explain the variance of other constructs in the model (called exogenous variables) and those constructs that are dependent, i.e. affected by other constructs in the model (called endogenous variables). Statistically estimating structural relations between these variables requires the respective constructs to be operationalized using observable, or manifest, variables (i.e. indicators). Thus, the second component consists of the *measurement models* used to empirically assess the intangible constructs. **Figure 6** shows a graphic example of SEM with two exogenous and two endogenous variables, their hypothesized relations (represented by directed arrows, or ‘paths’, in the structural model), and indicators used to measure the different constructs (measurement model).

Figure 6. Graphic example of SEM (adapted from Roldán, Sánchez-Franco 2012)



SEM is particularly useful in public relations research when researchers need to analyze interrelations between key concepts that are not directly observable. In recent years, there has been a substantial number of studies that apply SEM as a multivariate tool to analyze public relations (cf. de Bussy, Suprawan 2012; Kim, Niederdepepe 2013; Chen 2013; Chung et al. 2013; Jiang 2012; Weberling, Waters 2012; Ki 2013; Song et al. 2013; Lee, Hong 2012). So far, however, most researchers associate SEM solely with the covariance-fitting-based procedures (Jöreskog 1978). Due to concerns regarding the informational and distributional requirements of CB-SEM approaches and their rather fixed emphasis on theory testing (Wold 1982), PLS-SEM was developed as a complementary method (Jöreskog, Wold 1982). Generally speaking PLS-SEM is a causal modeling approach, which aims at maximizing the explained variance of the endogenous variables in a model. Unlike CB procedures, structural equation models that use the PLS method are based on the regression principle using ordinary least squares (OLS) to explain variance (Fornell, Bookstein 1982). The estimation is based on principal component analysis and no distributional assumptions are required of the data. Thus, other than in CB-SEM, the manifest variables must not necessarily be distributed multi-normally. As a consequence, there is no global measure of model validity available, but standard errors can be calculated for the estimated model parameters using bootstrapping as a non-parametric technique (Chin, Wynne W. 2010). Another difference between PLS measurement models and those based on covariance analysis lies in the way in which measurement errors are dealt with. While in the latter case, the variance of the observed variables is broken down into factor variance and measurement error variance, PLS models do not make this distinction and relationships with the latent variable can be underestimated as a consequence.

As such, PLS-SEM offers “many benefits not offered in CB-SEM” (Hair et al. 2011: 139) and its methodological characteristics make it suitable for application in specific empirical contexts and for particular research objectives in public relations research: Among the recently discussed properties of PLS-SEM are modeling flexibility, sample size requirements, model complexity, and

formative measures (Chin 2010; Hair et al. 2011, 2013; Henseler et al. 2009)—for an overview of the properties see **Table 1**, p. 49.

3.2.1 Modeling flexibility and predictive focus

Other than the full information approach of CB-SEM, which primarily focuses on the selection of appropriate path coefficients involving all indicator covariances (Rigdon 1998), the component-based algorithm of PLS-SEM explicitly creates scores (proxies) for the constructs and delivers estimates ‘locally’, that is focused on the immediate neighboring variables to which the constructs are structurally related (Tenenhaus et al. 2005). This is a relevant difference to CB-SEM where possible misspecifications, such as the false association of an indicator with a construct or the leaving out of a relevant path, strongly affects other estimates in the model. It is important to add that in any case the notion of testing a ‘true’ model is problematic since it is highly unlikely that nomological networks between a group of selected constructs are accurate in the sense that they exclude non-linear relationships or further underlying traits (Cudeck, Henly 2003). Seen in this context, the PLS algorithm tends to be less rigid. Though the method is also said to be appropriate in strictly confirmatory settings (Chin 2010; Hair et al. 2011), in public relations research, local estimation can be of particular advantage when the study objective lies in prediction and innovating new theory and measures in an iterative research process rather than testing a well-established theoretical model.

3.2.2 Handling high model complexity

Even though models are necessarily imperfect representations of reality, it is argued that researchers tend to stick too often to testing relatively simple models (Chin et al. 2008). In some context, however, researchers need more “complex models capturing many factors related to attitudes, opinions, and behaviors” (Chin 2010: 661). Understanding these constructs and their interrelations in the context of public relations is central for theoretical advances in our field, especially for advanc-

ing knowledge in evaluation. In such research contexts, the component-based least squares approach can be helpful because models may consist of a large number of latent and manifest variables without causing estimation problems (Wold 1985). In CB-SEM, by contrast, the chance of obtaining good model fit is strongly tied to modeling a restricted number of indicators (Diamantopoulos, Siguaw 2000).

Table 1. Comparing key properties between PLS-SEM and CB-SEM

PLS-SEM	CB-SEM
Specifics of estimation procedure	
Regression-based	Covariance-based
No distributional assumptions required	Rigid distributional assumptions
No distinction between factor variance and measurement error	Observed variables broken down in factor variance and measurement error
Modeling flexibility	
Proxies/scores for explained variance and predictive focus through local estimation (no model fit index)	Focus on path coefficients (explained variance) and fixed emphasis on theory testing (model fit)
Model complexity	
No estimation problems related to large numbers of latent and manifest variables	Good model fit is tied to restricted number of indicators
Sample size requirements	
Multiple OLS regressions allow for higher independence of sample size	Required sample size tied to model complexity
Measurement modes	
Mixed-specified constructs possible	Identification problems with formative measures due to default assumption of reflective indicators

3.2.3 Sample size requirements

Depending on model complexity, CB-SEM requires relatively large samples (Boomsma, Hoogland 2001). In PLS-SEM, where estimates are based on an iterative process of performing a series of OLS regressions, sample size requirements are much less restrictive (Tenenhaus et al. 2005). This can come as an advantage to researchers in public relations: in evolving fields where new models are being explored and measurement instruments are still in the developing stages it is often favorable to be more independent of sample size requirements (Henseler et al. 2009). Goodhue et al. (2006), however, contest a general supremacy of PLS-SEM over the CB procedures with small samples and stress that advantages of PLS-SEM become apparent only when sample sizes are small *relative* to model complexity. In any case, researchers need to carefully consider factors such as distributional characteristics of data, the psychometric properties of variables, and the magnitude of structural relationships when determining optimal sample size (Marcoulides, Saunders 2006).

3.2.4 Using formative measures

When working with intangible constructs, researchers have to operationalize them using observable indicators. These can be specified as either *formative* or *reflective* measurement models depending on how the indicators are thought to relate to their respective construct (Bollen, Lennox 1991). In *reflective* measurement models indicators are conceived as observable consequences of the underlying construct (Fornell, Bookstein 1982). In this case, indicators are termed reflectors (Pedhazur, Pedhazur Schmelkin 1991) or indicative manifestations (Rossiter 2002) of a latent variable. The underlying assumption is that these indicators have a common core (Nunnally 1978), which explains why they are (generally) highly correlated and considered to be interchangeable (Ley 1972). It is assumed that all indicators are a priori both valid and reliable for measuring the construct (Jarvis et al. 2003). In *formative* measurement models, by contrast, indicators are considered to be the cause of an emergent construct. As such, formative indicators (or ‘cause measures’) constitute the relevant dimensions of a construct, can be independent of each other and must not necessarily

be correlated (Bollen 1984). Other than in reflective measurement models, where indicators are assumed to be interchangeable, omitting indicators from a formative model necessarily leads to a change in the meaning of the construct (Diamantopoulos, Winklhofer 2001). The example-SEM in **Figure 6** (p. 46) includes representations of both these ‘modes’ of measurement: see ξ_1 for formative measures and ξ_2 for a reflective model.

To date, the distinction between both forms of measurement is rarely addressed in public relations research and most measurement models are specified reflectively without further ado. This lack of distinction is cause for concern. As Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (ibid.) point out with convincing arguments, many of the constructs in the social sciences are specified incorrectly. A meta-analysis of top-level marketing journals, for instance, shows that a substantial portion of studies apply SEM with misspecified measurement models leading to incorrect parameter estimates and relationship assessments (Jarvis et al. 2003). In public relations research scholars have recently argued that intangibles such as image and reputation ought to be operationalized with formative indicators since respective observations are *determinants* of the construct and not its consequence (Ingenhoff, Sommer 2008; Tong 2013; Buhmann, Ingenhoff 2015a). Analyzing such models can cause identification problems in CB-SEM where indicators are by default assumed to be reflections of the underlying construct (MacCallum, Browne 1993). In comparison, PLS-SEM has been shown to demonstrate higher robustness with formative measures (Vilares et al. 2010).

3.3 Towards a structural model

To go beyond ‘armchair theorizing’ using SEM, public relations researchers need both: operationalizable definitions of relevant variables that represent the concepts from theory as well as causal hypotheses, which can be used to model functional relations between these concepts. Based on conceptual arguments, working hypotheses can be derived to form the foundation of a structural

model for analyzing the constitution of organizational reputation and its effects on organizational trust and stakeholder behavior.

3.3.1 Conceptualizing the multidimensional construct

Reputation is often defined as “a perceptual representation of a company's past actions and future prospects that describes the firm's overall appeal to all of its key constituents” (Fombrun 1996: 72). In this view, reputation amounts to the synthesis of the individual attitudes and perceptions of the different stakeholder groups of an organization. If conceived of as an attitudinal construct, reputation can be conceptualized as comprising both *cognitive* and *affective* components (Caruana et al. 2006; Schwaiger 2004).

Research on *cognitive* components of reputation often distinguishes between functional and social reputation (Castro et al. 2006). Functional reputation is based on the evaluation of competence and success as expressed by the achievement of certain performance goals within specific subsystems. In the case of economic organizations such factors may include the economic performance of the organization's management, the quality of its products and services, and the organization's innovative strength. Social reputation, by contrast, is based on perceived adherence to norms and values. This dimension of reputation functions as an indicator of ethical legitimacy and integrity. Certain stakeholders are becoming increasingly sensitive to the role played by organizations in society so that growing importance is being attributed to the construct of corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Gray, Balmer 1998; Herremans et al. 1993; Tucker, Melewar 2005), which has been demonstrated to play a pivotal role in creating (positive) attitudes in different stakeholder groups (e.g. Brammer, Millington 2005; David et al. 2005; Schnietz, Epstein 2005).

In addition to these two cognitive dimensions, we must further consider the *affective* dimension of reputation, taking into account stakeholders' feelings and emotions toward the organization. Next to the rational elements of the cognitive dimensions comprising the manifold social and functional evaluations of an organization, the affective reputation can be conceptualized as an

overall judgment of emotional appeal and attractiveness. Following the perspective of a standard learning hierarchy, this general judgment of emotional appeal and attractiveness can be conceptualized as an outcome of cognitive evaluations within the framework of the overall attitudinal construct (Ajzen 2001). In sum, the above arguments on the three general dimensions of organizational reputation and their interrelations serve as the foundation for a first set of hypotheses for the structural model:

- H1: The more positive the assessment of an organization's competence and performance (functional reputation), the more positive is the emotional appraisal of the organization as being attractive (affective reputation).
- H2: The more positive the assessment of an organization's social responsibility and integrity (social reputation), the more positive is the emotional appraisal of the organization as being attractive (affective reputation).

3.3.2 Trust as an outcome variable

Although the topic of trust has been dealt with at length in several empirical and theoretical studies, there is still no consensus regarding its definition and conceptualization (for an overview c.f. Blois 1999; Hosmer 1995; Mayer et al. 1995; McEvily et al. 2003; Scott, Walsham 2005). Luhmann (1979) sees trust as a mechanism based on “cognitive, emotional, and moral expectations” (4) which serves to reduce complexity. In the context of public relations research, trust can—like reputation—be conceived of as an attitude towards an organization (Verčič 2000). Given that reputation can function as a surrogate for information about an organization, it has particular importance as a *generator* of trust (Yamagishi, Yamagishi 1994): “Reputation thus shapes our anticipation of how the other will behave. A good reputation encourages us *to rely on* an organization's promise as it is in the organization's own interest to maintain the reputation for they will have invested in its establishment” (Blois 1999: 209 [author's emphasis]). Consequently the degree of trust based on the evaluation of the reputation of an organization can reduce complexity and uncertainty (Weigelt,

Camerer 1988). Creating and maintaining trust through reputation is therefore by definition a crucial area of public relations and a central goal of communication management practice (Chia 2005; Grunig et al. 2002; Kioussis et al. 2007; O'Neill 1984). As trust develops on the basis of consistent, long-term and trustworthy organizational behavior meeting functional and social expectations which are reflected in reputation (Hosmer 1995), organizational reputation can in fact be considered as a central antecedent of trust. These considerations justify the proposition of the following hypotheses for the overall model:

- H3: The more positive the emotional appraisal of an organization as being attractive (affective reputation), the greater is the degree of trust in the organization.
- H4: The more positive the assessment of an organization's competence and performance (functional reputation), the greater is the degree of trust in the organization.
- H5: The more positive the assessment of an organization's social responsibility and integrity (social reputation), the greater is the degree of trust in the organization.

In combination with H1 and H2, it can further be argued that the emotional appraisal of an organization (*affective reputation*) acts as a mediating variable through which both the *functional reputation* and the *social reputation* exercise an indirect effect on *trust*.

3.3.3 Trust and behavioral intentions

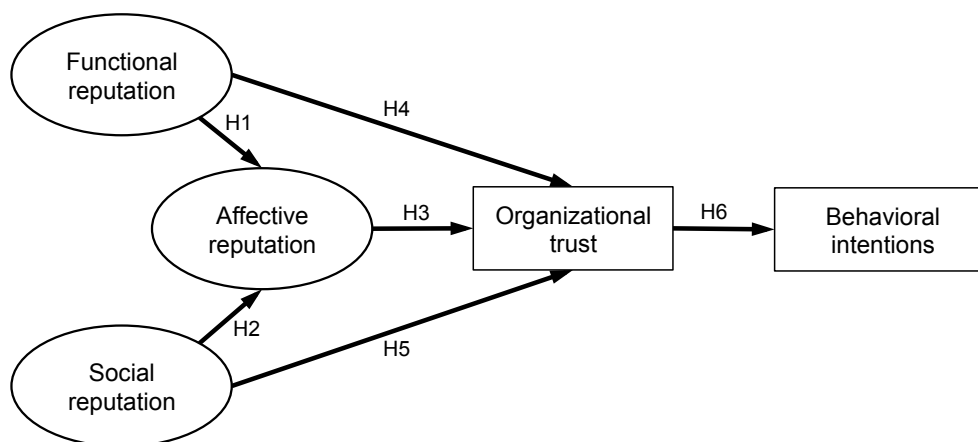
In public relations, it is central not only to measure intangible target constructs such as image and reputation but also evaluate how exactly these objectives contribute to behavioral relationships with publics (Grunig 1993a). If we conceive of reputation and trust as attitudinal constructs, it is possible to analyze the relationships between attitude and behavior according the attitude-behavior hy-

pothesis (Bentler, Speckart 1979, 1981; Caruana et al. 2006; Kroeber-Riel, Weinberg 2003; Trommsdorff 2004). Accordingly, the attitudinal constructs are seen as antecedents of intended behavior. The latter can be conceptualized as the “intention to perform a particular behavior, a plan to put behavior into effect” (Perloff 2003: 92). Based on this perspective, we can integrate behavioral intentions into the structural model by examining:

- H6 The greater the degree of trust in an organization, the more positive are the behavioral intentions of different stakeholder groups with respect to the organization.

Figure 7 summarizes the theoretical concepts discussed above in a comprehensive model by using structural relations based on the proposed hypotheses.

Figure 7. Structural model of the interrelations between reputational dimensions, organizational trust, and behavioral intentions



3.4 Applying PLS-SEM in public relations evaluation

PLS-SEM can be gainfully applied to research in public relations evaluation by linking conceptual considerations regarding different target constructs and their functional relations with issues of measurement. To demonstrate this in an illustrative application, we draw on measures and data

from a wider empirical project on the constitution and effects of the reputation of a large telecommunications company.

3.4.1 Developing reflective and formative measurement models

Following Helm (2005), Tong (2013), and Buhmann and Ingenhoff (2015a) the cognitive components of the attitudinal construct of reputation are operationalized by using formative indicators since observations about a person's manifold judgments of a company's functional and social qualities are thought to be *determinants* of these reputational constructs and not their consequence. The dimension of affective reputation, by contrast, is represented by a reflective model because the indicators are thought to be determined by a common factor—emotional attitude towards the company—therefore, the latent variable explains the variance of the indicators (Schwaiger 2004).

For all variables, a pool of indicators was generated based on widely used items in measuring reputation (see e.g. Chun 2005; Fombrun 1998; Schwaiger 2004; Wartick 2002), as well as explorative interviews and focus groups with company executives and researchers. Respondents were asked to indicate subdimensions that they considered important for the assessment of organizational reputation with a view to measuring the main subdimensions of reputation for a subsequent correlation analysis using the Spearman coefficient (Möllering 2002). As a result of this procedure, a total of 62 items were included in the pretest for evaluating the three dimensions of reputation, trust, and behavioral intentions. Since formative and reflective measures are based on fundamentally different assumptions, both types call for different procedures of measure development.

For *formative models*, where the constructs are *defined* on the basis of the chosen indicators, indicator selection must be carried out with particular caution. Different to reflective models, measures are not refined by filtering out indicators. According to Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001) formative measures should be developed and validated by: operationalization of the construct, generation of the indicators, pretest, and (in the results phase) collinearity test, indicator validity test and content validity test. Drawing on the pool of indicators generated on the basis of

construct definition, a pretest was conducted in which researchers and public relations practitioners were asked whether they believed each item represented an essential part of the construct and whether it was possible to give an unambiguous answer to the questions (DeVellis 2003). Respondents were also asked to identify any duplication of items and suggest preferable alternatives. The formative measures were then refined in an analysis of a test of collinearity. The aim of this procedure is to ensure that each formative measurement model comprises items of *different* subdimensions that should not be highly correlated. For the emergent construct of *functional reputation* this resulted in six subdimensions: One of its central aspects is the quality of a firm's output—usually termed *product and service quality* (Carmeli, Tishler 2005; Rogerson 1983; Shapiro 1983; Shenkar, Yuchtman-Yaar 1997). This subdimension comprises items used to assess the price-performance ratio, the quality of the products and services, and the customer value of the products and services. The second subdimension refers to (past) *economic performance* (c.f. Brown, Perry 1994; Cordeiro, Schwalbach 2000; McGuire et al. 1990; Roberts, Dowling 2002). Economic performance is incorporated in the construct by means of items assessing the growth potential and the economic stability of the company. The third subdimension is *quality of management* (McGuire et al. 1990; Nguyen, Leblanc 2001). This dimension is measured by items evaluating the management's strategic decisions and vision for the future. A further subdimension reflects the growing trend of personalization, i.e. the highlighting and portraying of the *personal competences of executives* in media (Park, Berger 2004). The importance of having a well-reputed CEO is growing because executives are increasingly being perceived as distinct from their organizations (Kitchen, Laurence 2003). Thus the instrument makes a distinction at item level as to whether a CEO is assessed as being personally competent or whether competence is ascribed to the top tier of management as a whole. The fifth subdimension is *innovativeness* (e.g. Nguyen, Leblanc 2001). This is expressed by items that evaluate R&D investment, and assess whether a company is believed to possess a large amount of know-how in its own field (Chun 2006). The final functional subdimension captures the *national significance* of the company, as reflected by items that assess the company's role as an employer and as being groundbreaking in its own sector and particular business

location. This subdimension was not found in the literature so far, but emerged in the expert interviews and was validated successfully in the pretest. Lastly, the emergent construct of *social reputation*, as the second cognitive component of the attitudinal construct, overall incorporates five formative indicators: To assess the important factor CSR two items were included measuring both social engagement and social responsibility. To additionally account for sustainability and ecological responsibility, items were included directed at environmental engagement and resource-friendly business practices. Finally, this dimension also includes an indicator to assess the companies concern for the welfare of its employees.

For all other non-formative measures the model development follows a different procedure. The assessment of the affective dimension of reputation is based on items that assess stakeholders' emotional appeal for the company, their enthusiasm for the corporate brand and the attractiveness of the company's products. The development of this *reflective measurement model* focuses on indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability and discriminant validity (DeVellis 2003; Nunnally 1978). An explorative principal component analysis with varimax rotation was used to retain those items that had the strongest factor loadings and the highest commonalities and correlations so as to achieve the most homogenous construct possible (c.f. Diamantopoulos 1999). Furthermore, as suggested by the proposed structural model, *trust* is affected by the three exogenous variables of (functional, social, affective) reputation. Like reputation, trust contains both an affective and a cognitive component having many of the key elements in common with reputation (Caldwell, Clapham 2003). In order to prevent redundant measures and in accordance with the aim of analyzing the interrelation between the reputation dimensions and trust, we include trust as a global measure. And finally, *behavioral intentions* specified as favorable stakeholder behavior are captured in terms of intentions to recommend a company's products and services to one's friends and family (i.e. recommendation intention). For an overview of all items see Table 18 in the Appendix.

3.4.2 Research design and sample structure

The developed instrument was applied using samples from four stakeholder groups of a large Aus-

trian telecommunications company: early adopters, employees, financial analysts, and politicians. *Early adopters* were surveyed online via an online access panel. Randomly selected individuals (n = 1'221) were filtered by asking six questions about their affinity with technology and their role as advisor. Eventually 456 interviews were carried out, corresponding to a response rate of 37%. The *Employee survey* was carried out online by sending a link to the questionnaire to 1'247 randomly selected employees and managers of the company. A total of 521 surveys were compiled, which amounts to a response rate of 42%. *Financial analysts* were surveyed by mail. 800 questionnaires were sent to all asset and investment consultants listed in Austria's classified business directory, of whom 96 responded. Second, randomly selected customer consultants and financial analysts specializing in securities were contacted by telephone and asked to fill out a questionnaire. Of the 400 acquired participants 303 responded. Thus the total response rate came to 44% (this overall respondent rate is a mean of the respondent rate for the asset and investment consultants, 12%, and the rate for the customer consultants and financial analysts, 76%) and the final sample of financial experts amounted to 399. The stakeholder group of *politicians* also received the survey via mail, which resulted in 516 returned questionnaires of 3'086 copies initially sent (2'347 to mayors, 476 to regional politicians, 245 to members of parliament, 18 to EU deputies). There was no sampling in this case because all the selected types of politicians were included. The 516 questionnaires correspond to a response rate of 17%. Most of the respondents were local politicians (n = 405), while only 83 were involved in regional politics and only 27 in federal politics. One respondent was a EU deputy.

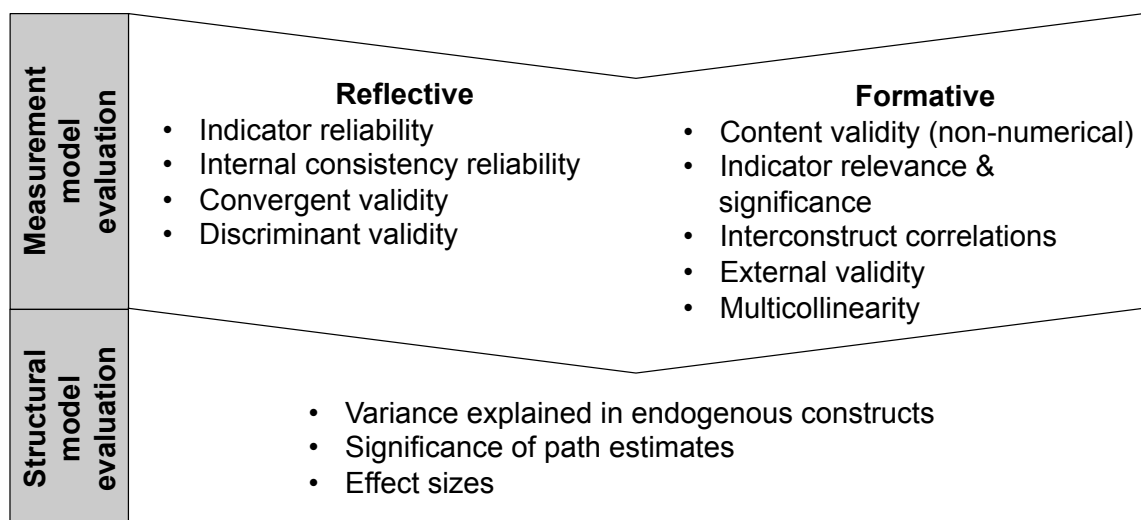
3.4.3 Model Evaluation with PLS-SEM

The PLS method suits the needs of this study particularly because the applied model— though proposed based on theoretical arguments—has tentative character, is operationalized by means of a large number of variables (mostly due to the various subdimensions of the reputation dimensions), and includes both formative and reflective indicators.

There are a number of software packages available to conduct model evaluation in PLS-SEM (for a comparison of tools see Temme et al. 2010). For this study we use SmartPLS (Ringle et al. 2005) as a Java-based tool that processes raw data and uses bootstrapping as its resampling method.

Model evaluation in PLS-SEM generally comprises two subsequent stages of analysis (Chin 2010) (see **Figure 8**): first, assessment of the measurement model and then the assessment of the structural model. Measurement model evaluation aims to show how well the chosen sets of indicators measure the respective latent or emergent constructs. Due to the difference in the indicator-construct relation, the assessment of reflective and formative measurement models follows a different procedure (Diamantopoulos, Winklhofer 2001): In *formative measurement model evaluation* indicators are examined by looking at indicator weights, indicator relevance and external validity. In *reflective measurement model evaluation* indicators are examined based on indicator loading, indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, and discriminant validity. When the quality of the measurement model is evaluated, the *structural model evaluation* follows as a second stage of analysis directed at an assessment of the meaningfulness and significance of the hypothesized relationships between the constructs.

Figure 8. Two stages of evaluation in PLS-SEM



3.4.3.1 Formative measurement model evaluation

Indicator weights. Since in formative measurement models the variance of the latent variable is explained by the individual indicators, the first step is to interpret the weights of the individual models by sign and magnitude (a weight is the coefficient that shows the impact of the item on the emergent variable). Weights are considered significant with an error probability of 5% when the t-score exceeds 1.96. As shown in **Table 2**, most indicator weights of the functional reputation are significantly positive, which means that the hypothesized relationship between the indicators and the latent variable are largely confirmed.

Table 2. Indicator weights in the formative models

<i>Constructs and items:</i>	<i>Financial analysts</i>	<i>Employees</i>	<i>Early adopters</i>	<i>Politicians</i>
	<i>Weights/t-values</i>	<i>Weights/t-values</i>	<i>Weights/t-values</i>	<i>Weights/t-values</i>
Functional reputation				
Product and service quality				
Price-performance ratio	.24/ 5.27*	.21/ 4.22*	.35/ 8.62*	.24/ 5.95*
Quality of P&S	.37/ 5.84*	.14/ 2.96*	.30/ 6.36*	.24/ 5.02*
Customer value of P&S	.16/ 2.75*	.14/ 2.91*	.12/ 2.89*	.25/ 5.76*
Economic performance				
Growth potential	.10/ 1.96*	.08/ 1.99*	.04/ 1.17	.02/ 0.43
Economic stability	.02/ 0.32	.09/ 2.23*		.12/ 2.52*
Management quality				
Strategic decisions	.05/ 0.60	-.03/ 0.64	.07/ 1.41	-.00/ 0.02
Visions for the future	-.01/ 0.14	.13/ 2.39*	-.04/ 1.00	-.01/ 0.11
Innovativeness				
R&D investment	.01/ 0.17	.10/ 2.16*	.08/ 2.13*	.09/ 2.25*
Know-how	.24/ 3.56*	.12/ 2.87*	.09/ 2.12*	.10/ 1.98*
Personal competence of executives				

CEO-competence	.04/ 0.62	.04/ 0.78	.08/ 1.81	.15/ 3.35*
Top Management-team	.04/ 0.76	.23/ 3.53*	.06/ 1.26	.01/ 0.21
National significance				
Role as employer	.14/ 2.90	.16/ 3.77*	.11/ 3.08*	.15/ 4.28*
Ground-breaking in industry	.13/ 2.36	.16/ 3.45*	.07/ 1.57	.08/ 1.83
Social reputation				
Social engagement	.13/ 1.13	.11/ 1.84	.28/ 4.96*	.39/ 5.89*
Social responsibility	.41/ 3.58*	.45/ 7.10*	.42/ 7.86*	.42/ 5.41*
Resource-friendly	.26/ 1.96*	.27/ 3.92*	.24/ 4.63*	.22/ 3.21*
Welfare of employees	.32/ 3.37*	.32/ 5.39*	.16/ 2.76*	.16/ 2.83*
Environmental commitment	.29/ 2.18*	.19/ 3.25*	.10/ 1.66	.16/ 2.22*

Significance: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

Indicator relevance. Relevance of indicators can be ascertained by testing the indicators of individual dimension for multicollinearity. This is necessary because in the event of excessively high collinearity between items, the standard errors of the coefficients increase and therefore the significance test of the effects becomes problematic (ibid.). We use the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), which represents the reciprocal tolerance value. Tolerance is ascertained by subtracting the coefficient of determination from 1. The coefficient of determination represents the proportion of the variance of an indicator, which is explained by the other indicators in the construct. Therefore: the stronger the multicollinearity, the greater is the VIF. Entirely independent indicators would lead to a minimal VIF of 1. Though it is not possible to provide a precise threshold value, it is generally recommended that the value should be close to 1 and not exceed 10 (Bowerman, O'Connell 2000). For all stakeholder groups, the VIFs of the functional and social dimension are relatively small and within an acceptable range, indicating that the single items are sufficiently independent of each other (Table 3). An additional measure for establishing multicollinearity, which is ascertained by observing the intrinsic values of the indicators, is the *condition index* which should not exceed 30

(Hair et al. 2006). For all stakeholder groups, the condition indices of both cognitive dimensions are also comfortably below the threshold value.

Table 3. VIF and condition indices

	<i>Financial analysts</i>	<i>Employees</i>	<i>Early adopters</i>	<i>Politicians</i>
Functional reputation				
VIF	2.4	2.4	3.1	2.4
Condition index	19.2	16.1	20.8	18.7
Social reputation				
VIF	1.4	1.8	2.2	1.6
Condition index	13.8	9.9	13.4	12.8

External validity. In order to guarantee the external validity of the construct measurement, it is recommended to use an external global measure (summary item) (Diamantopoulos, Winklhofer 2001). For this reason the survey included an item asking respondents to assess the company's overall reputation. It can now be examined whether the individual items of the formative measurement models correlate positively and significantly with this global, manifest variable. All of the indicators of the two constructs of the cognitive component of reputation—functional and social reputation—correlate positively and significantly with the global measure of the company's overall reputation; this holds true in each of the stakeholder groups (see Table 4). All in all, the specification of the measurement models for functional and social reputation can be considered satisfactory.

Table 4. Correlations (Pearson) between global measure and formative items

<i>Constructs and items:</i>	<i>Financial analysts</i>	<i>Employees</i>	<i>Early adopters</i>	<i>Politicians</i>
Functional-cognitive reputation				
Product & service quality				
Price-performance ratio	.413*	.399*	.552*	.431*
Quality of P&S	.435*	.268*	.589*	.482*
Customer value of P&S	.318*	.329*	.521*	.323*

Economic performance				
Growth potential	.275*	.259*	.460*	.280*
Economic stability	.386*	.274*	.519*	.446*
Management quality				
Strategic decisions	.367*	.402*	.489*	.403*
Visions for the future	.334*	.427*	.499*	.413*
Innovativeness				
R&D investment	.304*	.322*	.414*	.362*
Know-how	.240*	.279*	.500*	.354*
Personal competence of executives				
CEO-competence	.350*	.422*	.489*	.416*
Top management-team	.390*	.459*	.501*	.454*
National significance				
Role as employer	.285*	.219*	.394*	.288*
Ground-breaking in industry	.342*	.337*	.554*	.455*
Social reputation				
Social engagement	.220*	.357*	.486*	.352*
Social responsibility	.322*	.437*	.496*	.402*
Resource-friendly	.278*	.312*	.459	.288*
Welfare of employees	.250*	.406*	.357	.228*
Environmental commitment	.201*	.205*	.434	.275*

Significance: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

3.4.3.2 Reflective measurement model evaluation

Indicator loadings. The first step in the assessment of the reflective measurement model is to examine which indicator is best explained by the latent construct. This requires examination of the loadings, which no longer correspond to the regression coefficient, as in the case of the formative models, rather must be interpreted in principle as loadings in a factor analysis. As such, they should

have significant values ideally exceeding .7 in order to explain at least 50% of the indicator variance (Nunnally, Bernstein 1994). In all groups, all loadings are all significantly positive and comfortably above the threshold value (**Table 5**). Enthusiasm for the corporate brand is best explained by the construct.

Table 5. Indicator loadings, Chronbach's alpha and AVE in the reflective model

<i>Items:</i>	<i>Financial analysts</i>	<i>Employees</i>	<i>Early adopters</i>	<i>Politicians</i>
	<i>Loadings/t-values</i>	<i>Loadings/t-values</i>	<i>Loadings/t-values</i>	<i>Loadings/t-values</i>
Emotional appeal	.79/ 27.14**	.81/ 39.94**	.89/ 82.42***	.81/ 80.22***
Enthusiasm for brand	.88/ 61.12***	.85/ 61.62***	.91/ 82.01***	.84/ 60.58**
Fascinating products	.81/ 32.17**	.79/ 41.89**	.87/ 64.30**	.80/ 42.52**
Cronbach's alpha	.77	.75	.87	.76
AVE	.69	.66	.79	.67

Significance: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

Indicator reliability. This value is also strengthened by the share of the explained variance of the indicator with the weakest loading. At .79 (*financial analysts*), the factor of emotional appeal has the weakest loading for affective reputation. Squaring this value results in an explained variance of at least 62%, which is substantially higher than the threshold value of 50% specified above.

Internal consistency reliability can be assessed with Cronbach's alpha, as a measure for the homogeneity of a construct. A value of .7 is considered acceptable, while in constructs with three indicators a value of .4 can be tolerated because Cronbach's alpha increases as the number of indicators grows (Nunnally 1978). In all stakeholder groups, Cronbach's alpha lies above .7 and thus clearly meets the requirements.

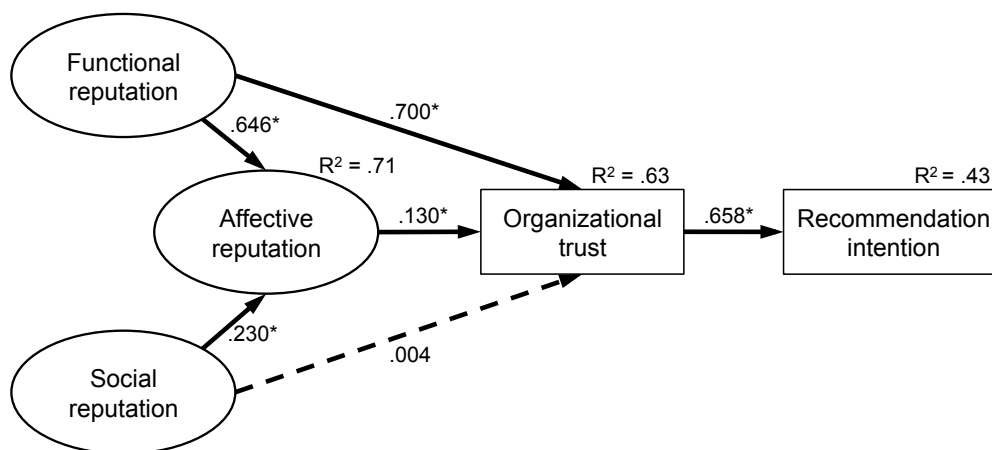
Discriminant validity. We can assume discriminant validity when the average variance extracted (AVE)—that is, the shared variance between the indicators and their latent variable—is greater than .5 and also greater than the squared correlations with all other latent variables in the

model (see „Fornell-Larcker Criterion“; Fornell, Larcker 1981). The calculation of the cross loadings also allows us to ascertain to what extent the measurements of different constructs diverge within a measurement instrument (discriminant validity). If the single loadings of the indicators are greater for their own latent variables than for the other latent variables in the model, then it can be assumed that the measurement model is well differentiated with respect to the other constructs. In all groups, the AVE is greater than .5 (with a range of .67 to .79) and is much larger than the squared correlation with the other latent variables. The cross loadings support these results, for the loadings are much smaller for the other latent variables (**Table 5**).

3.4.3.3 Structural model evaluation

Having assessed the two types of measurement models, the next step is to evaluate the structural model. For a graphical summary of the structural model results in the case of the stakeholder group of early adopters see **Figure 9**.

Figure 9. Structural model results for the stakeholder group of early adopters



To evaluate the structural model we first examine the path coefficients and their respective significance. In a first step we ascertain the relative influence of the two cognitive components of *functional reputation* and *social reputation* on the development of *affective reputation* (**Table 6**). The path coefficients can be interpreted in the same way as the beta values in a linear regression.

Together the dimensions explain 58% (financial analysts) to 71% (early adopters) of the variance of the affective dimension; the coefficient of determination (R^2) exceeds 50% (Table 7).

Table 6. Structural model results (path-coefficients and t-values)

	<i>Financial Analysts</i>	<i>Employees</i>	<i>Early adopters</i>	<i>Politicians</i>
Functional reputation → affective rep.	.638/15.70*	.560/12.36*	.646/13.32*	.605/13.32*
Social reputation → affective rep.	.182/3.42 *	.273/5.84*	.230/4.51*	.234/5.76*
Affective reputation → trust	.168/2.23*	.168/2.70*	.130/1.97*	.205 3.69*
Functional reputation → trust	.532/7.10*	.460/6.86*	.700/10.89*	.586/9.54*
Social reputation → trust	-.045/0.82	.080/1.34	.004/0.38	.009/0.17
Trust → behavioral intention	.447/9.96*	.365/8.43*	.658/21.06*	.089/1.86

Significance: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

The assessment of competence (*functional reputation*) has the strongest influence on the formation of affective reputation in all groups. H1 is therefore confirmed. The dimension of social reputation also shows an independent, albeit weaker, significant positive influence on the affective component. H2 is thus also supported. The second effect in the model concerns the impact of the affective component on organizational trust. Here, all path coefficients between .130 (t score = 1.97) and .205 (t score = 3.69) show a very significant influence (Table 6). The trust variable is explained overall by an R^2 of 41% (financial analysts) to 63% (early adopter) (Table 7). Thus, H3 is confirmed for all groups. Functional reputation shows a direct influence on trust-building, while social reputation has no significant direct impact on trust. Thus, while H4 is confirmed, the results suggest to reject H5: While the functional dimension of reputation has a direct effect on trust-building, the social dimension has no significant direct influence.

Table 7. Coefficient of determination for endogenous variables (R^2 values)

	<i>Financial Analysts</i>	<i>Employees</i>	<i>Early adopters</i>	<i>Politicians</i>
Affective reputation	.58	.61	.71	.62
Trust	.41	.44	.63	.58
Behavioral intention	.20	.13	.43	.01

However, since the path coefficient between social reputation and affective reputation is significantly positive, and because the affective component has a significant influence on trust, it can be assumed that social reputation has an *indirect* effect on trust-building which is mediated by the affective component. This conclusion, of course, also applies to the functional dimension. Thus, a mediation analysis is conducted. We can assume that an effect is fully mediated if the overall effect of the exogenous variable on the endogenous variable passes entirely through the mediating variable. If the exogenous variable also has a significant direct effect on the endogenous variable, then we have a partial mediation (Baron, Kenny 1986). A z-test can be applied to ascertain whether the indirect effect for the social dimension is significant or not. It examines the path coefficients of the independent variable on the mediating variable and of the mediating variable on the dependent variable, as well as the standard errors of the path coefficients. If the z-score exceeds 1.96, then (with an error margin of 5%) it can be assumed that there is an indirect effect. If the mediating effect is only partial, then the variance accounted for (VAF) can be ascertained. This calculates the indirect influence of the variable as a share of the total influence (that is, the direct and the indirect effect on the dependent variable) and thus indicates which percentage of the total influence is accounted for by the indirect effect (ibid.). Given a z-score of 1.96 (early adopter) to 3.62 (politicians), the indirect effect is significant in all groups and is responsible for 10.7% (early adopter) to 17.5% (politicians) of the total influence of functional reputation on trust (**Table 8**). Consequently, 89.3% (early adopter) to 82.5% (politicians) of the influence is explained by the direct effect—thus confirming a relevant case of partial mediation.

For the variable of social reputation, which has no direct influence on trust-building, the overall influence is exerted 100% by the mediating variable (full mediation). The z-score of financial analysts and early adopters is only slightly lower than the significance level of 5% error probability, but exceeds the value of 1.64, which indicates a significant indirect influence with an error probability of 10%. Thus, we cannot confirm H5 because of the restriction that if we believe that social reputation has an indirect effect on trust-building, then the probability that we are in error is slightly higher than 5% (it is actually around 7%, see **Table 8**).

Finally, we look at the influence of trust on favorable stakeholder behavior, i.e. recommendation intention. For all stakeholder groups except politicians, trust has a significant effect on positive recommendations of the products and services of the company (between .365 (t score = 8.43) for the employees and .658 (t score = 21.06) for the early adopters) (**Table 8**). The explained variance of the intention to recommend the company's products and services amounts to .43 (early adopters) Consequently, H6 is confirmed for all groups, except for the politicians.

Table 8. Indirect effects

	<i>Financial analysts</i>	<i>Employees</i>	<i>Early adopters</i>	<i>Politicians</i>
Functional reputation → trust				
z-values	2.09	2.73	1.96	3.62
VAF	.167	.170	.107	.175
Social reputation → trust				
z-values	1.82	2.55	1.81	3.12
VAF	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

3.5 Discussion

For public relations evaluation, the above analyses using PLS-SEM offer valuable insights into the constitution and effects of organizational reputation in general and in different stakeholder groups in particular. A comparison of the structural model across the different stakeholder groups reveals

some substantial similarities: Both the assessments of competence (functional reputation) and of social responsibility (social reputation) always show a significant effect on affective reputation, whereas the effect of functional reputation appears to be stronger than that of social reputation. Moreover, a company's affective reputation has a significant influence on trust-building, so that this dimension can also be interpreted as a relevant mediating variable for the indirect effect of the two cognitive dimensions of reputation on trust. The assessment of competence and success has the strongest direct impact on trust, while social reputation only influences the development of trust indirectly. This suggests that a company's social reputation is first reflected in the formation of an affective reputation of the company. This evidence of the recurring influence of the social component of reputation across all groups corroborates preliminary indications that the expectations of stakeholders with respect to corporate social responsibility have grown considerably (Scott, Walsham 2005). Finally, trust almost always has a significant influence on favorable stakeholder behavior. Moreover, the result supports the assumption that it is usually only when the social reputation is damaged by unethical organizational behavior "[...] that commentators try to retrospectively unravel the complex dimensions of what trust is" (Swift 2001: 18).

An analysis of the formative measurement models allows for an in-depth assessment of particular differences regarding the relevant value drivers of reputation across the four stakeholder groups (see **Table 9**).

A comparison of the *functional dimension* across the groups shows that the quality of the company's products and services plays a crucial role in the creation of the latent construct in all groups. In particular, the assessment of the price/performance ratio and of the quality of the products and services significantly influences the constitution of functional reputation in general. This may well be because, whatever their role, the survey participants tend to perceive the company as (potential) customers. Furthermore, the company's unique know-how as a subdimension of innovativeness and its role as an employer as a subdimension of national significance, both substantially influence the construct in all stakeholder groups. This can be explained by the fact that the compa-

ny selected for the survey is a market leader in Austria and as a result of this elevated position, may be considered especially important in this regard.

Table 9. Reputation value drivers (ranked highest to lowest)

<i>Financial Analysts</i>	<i>Employees</i>	<i>Early Adopters</i>	<i>Politicians</i>
<i>Weights</i>	<i>Weights</i>	<i>Weights</i>	<i>Weights</i>
Functional reputation			
.37 Quality of P&S	.23 Top mgmt.	.35 Price/perform.	.25 Customer value
.24 Price/perform.	.21 Price/perform.	.30 Quality of P&S	.24 Quality of P&S
.24 Know-how	.16 Role as employer	.12 Customer value	.24 Price/perform.
.16 Customer value	.16 Ground-breaking	.11 Ground-breaking	.15 Role as employer
.14 Role as employer	.15 Customer value	.09 Know-how	.12 Econ. stability
.13 Ground-breaking	.14 Quality of P&S	.08 Invest. in R&D	.10 Know-how
.10 Growth potential	.12 Know-how		.09 Invest. in R&D
	.10 Invest. in R&D		
	.09 Econ. stability		
	.08 Growth potential		
Social reputation			
.41 Soc. responsibility	.45 Soc. responsibility	.42 Soc. responsibility	.42 Soc. responsibility
.32 Welfare of emp.	.32 Welfare of emp.	.28 Soc. engagement	.39 Soc. engagement
.29 Env. engagement	.27 Resource-friendly	.24 Resource-friendly	.22 Resource-friendly
.26 Resource-friendly	.19 Env. engagement	.16 Welfare of emp.	.16 Env. engagement
			.16 Welfare of emp.
Affective reputation			
.88 Enthusiasm for CB	.85 Enthusiasm for CB	.91 Enthusiasm for CB	.84 Enthusiasm for CB
.81 Fascinating prod.	.81 Emotional appeal	.89 Emotional appeal	.81 Emotional appeal
.79 Emotional appeal	.79 Fascinating prod.	.87 Fascinating prod.	.80 Fascinating prod.

The often-mentioned strong explanatory power of economic performance and quality of management for reputation is not relevantly supported by our results in any of the stakeholder

groups. Overall, these variables show little strength of influence; in fact, in the case of the early adopters they make no contribution at all to the explanation of functional reputation. These subdimensions—with the exception of the company's growth potential—also show little effect amongst the financial analysts. This could be due to the fact that the economic performance of the company we studied has been consistently good for many years and is thus taken for granted as a basis for assessment. If this were the case, it would constitute an unvarying basis for the other subdimensions, which would be perceived, by contrast, as being variable. Here, too, it becomes clear that the financial analysts appear to assess the company from the perspective of potential customers.

In the stakeholder group of politicians, it was not surprising to find that in addition to product and service quality, the role of the company as an employer proved to be important in explaining functional reputation. Innovativeness and economic stability were also important for politicians in this reputational dimension. The representation of the company by a competent CEO was also a significant factor in the politicians' assessments. A possible explanation might be the fact that, similar to corporate executives, politicians are also becoming increasingly prominent in the media not only with respect to their functions but also with respect to their personal attributes. There is a noticeable trend towards personalization of political roles and a new tendency to view political candidates as detached from their parties (Rosenberg et al. 1986). As a result, politicians can be expected to be more sensitive to personalization tendencies than the remainder of the population.

In the employee group, almost all items have a significant effect on the emergent construct. Only the personal competence of the CEO and the assessment of the strategic decisions of management have no effect on the functional dimension of reputation. Because the employees' knowledge of the company is not primarily gleaned from the media but is based on their own personal experiences, and because they are also directly dependent on the good performance of the company, almost all aspects of this subdimension are considered important. In the subdimension of quality of management, therefore, the company's vision for the future is significant. This group is

obviously also concerned not only with the personal competence of the CEO but also with that of the entire team of senior managers.

A very similar picture emerges for *social reputation* across the different stakeholder groups. The implementation of social responsibility is the indicator with the greatest explanatory power in all groups, followed by commitment to the environment in the form of resource-friendly business practices and by concern for the welfare of employees. All stakeholder groups therefore consider it extremely important for a company's social reputation that the company should demonstrate a sense of social responsibility so as not to violate social norms or disappoint expectations.

Overall, this study shows that the fulfillment of the system-specific, *functional* service commitments of an organization is the most important factor in establishing a good reputation and developing trust with stakeholders. But the stakeholders' assessments of adherence to the social norms and values of the organization's social subsystem are also of growing importance. A company's *social* reputation therefore makes a persistent contribution to the creation of a positive *affective reputation*, which in turn is the central prerequisite for the development of organizational trust.

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter contributes to the recent efforts of advancing methods in public relations by introducing PLS-SEM as a variance-based approach to SEM and showing how it can be gainfully applied in public relations research. In reviewing general properties of the method and showing its complementary nature to the CB-SEM approach, we give central arguments that can encourage the method's application in specific empirical contexts and for particular research objectives in public relations research. In short, PLS-SEM tends to be sufficiently robust with few identification problems, works well with small samples and a large number of variables, and can incorporate both formative and reflective constructs. In studies where particular assumptions behind CB-SEM cannot be met

or the study objective lies in prediction and theory development, PLS-SEM offers vast potential for public relations research.

Demonstrating the potential of PLS-SEM in the context of public relations evaluation, a three-factor measurement model for organizational reputation that distinguishes between a cognitive and an affective level was conceptually proposed, operationalized, and tested in a comparative analysis of different stakeholder groups. The cognitive level comprised a functional dimension of reputation, which assesses task-specific competence, and a social dimension of reputation, which assesses the integrity and social responsibility of an organization. Because we assumed that these two dimensions are comprised of different subdimensions, we proposed formative measurement models. The affective dimension was constructed reflectively because it is assumed that the indicators of the construct are determined by a common factor—the stakeholders' emotional attitude towards the organization. In this empirical application, therefore, reputation was conceived and validated as a mixed-specified construct consisting of both formatively and reflectively specified constructs.

In the empirical application of the PLS-SEM analysis we demonstrated model assessment by means of formative and reflective measurement model evaluation as well as structural model evaluation. We showed how the method can be applied to assess in detail the constitution and effects of organizational reputation. More specifically we presented differences in evaluating the various dimensions responsible for the contribution to build reputation in different stakeholder groups. We demonstrated how this kind of research can produce important knowledge about specific 'value drivers', helping public relations address, measure and monitor their stakeholders' expectations and needs in a more precise way. Furthermore the relationship between organizational reputation and the development of trust in an organization was described and examined in relation to behavioral intentions as in the intention to recommend a company to others. PLS-SEM served in conceptually and empirically substantiating that the cognitive dimensions of reputation have both a

direct and an indirect effect on stakeholders' degree of trust in the organization and that trust has a positive effect on behavioral intentions.

In sum, the methodological approach presented here helped to identify critical drivers of organizational reputation in different stakeholder groups and assess the effect of reputational dimensions on building of trust and ultimately facilitating stakeholder behavior. As demonstrated in the empirical study, the development and testing of such models via PLS-SEM can be a valuable pathway to better explore, estimate, and monitor key drivers of central public relations target constructs and their effects. As such, the approach presented here can enrich public relations research both statistically and conceptually.

Future studies could expand on the proposed model, possibly including additional moderator variables. Such studies could analyze if the degree to which a respondent is familiar with the company's products or has a personal connection to the company proves to be significant. Researchers could also alternate the outcome variables in the proposed model—thus analyzing the constitution and effects of organizational reputation in broad range of evaluation contexts. Going beyond the context of evaluation, more methodological discussion and application of PLS-SEM to different public relations research domains and questions are welcome to further assess the potential of PLS-SEM for public relations research.

4 From model to measurement³

This chapter aims to apply the above theory (chapter 2) and take it ‘from model to measurement’ to empirically analyze the constitution and effects of the country image as a central target construct in international public relations and public diplomacy. It draws on the above 4D Model and its integration of concepts from reputation management (Ingenhoff, Sommer 2007; Eisenegger, Imhof 2008), national identity theory (Smith 1987), and attitude theory (Ajzen, Fishbein 1980). Furthermore, in this chapter we develop a path model to analyze the country image’s effect on stakeholder behavior. This model is operationalized and tested in a survey regarding the country image of the USA and its effects on travel behavior.

4.1 Introduction

In times of globalization and mediatization, countries are increasingly observed by global media and publics: They are rated and compared according to their economic development, political stability, effectiveness and morality of their national and international policies or the attractiveness of their culture (Werron 2014). Research shows that the country image, as “a stakeholder’s attitude towards a nation and its state” (Buhmann, Ingenhoff 2015a), has manifest effects on the success of a country’s businesses, trade, tourism and diplomatic relations because it affects the behavior of central stakeholders abroad (Jaffe, Nebenzahl 2001; Kotler, Gertner 2002; Sun 2008; Tapachi, Waryszak 2000).

Under these conditions a country’s “favorable image and reputation around the world [...] have become more important than territory, access, and raw materials“ (Gilboa 2008: 56). As a

³ A version of this chapter has been published as Buhmann/Ingenhoff (2015): Advancing the country image construct from a public relations perspective: from model to management. In *Journal of Communication Management*, 19(1), 62–80.

consequence, practices of communication management are increasingly applied on the level of the nation-state system in international public relations and public diplomacy (Dinnie 2008; Dyke, Vercic 2009; Kunczik 1997; Snow, Taylor 2009). “Communication experts need to have knowledge of their target groups” (Vos 2006: 256), which, in an international public relations context involves knowledge of how publics in a given country perceive a foreign entity (organization or country) and how they behave towards it (Sriramesh, Vercic 2009). The development of measures for intangibles like country images is an important desideratum in both public relations research and practice: while in research these measures help to develop a systematic understanding of the constitution of country images and their effects on people’s behavior, in practice these measures serve as an evaluative and interpretative basis for the development and implementation of cross-national communication strategies.

But sound conceptual models and appropriate measurement instruments to analyze the constitution and effects of country images are rare. Many existing models lack theoretical foundation, cannot be applied to different countries or the comparative analysis of country images in different stakeholder groups, often fail to measure comprehensively all relevant dimensions and largely refrain from clarifying the internal structure of the construct (Roth, Diamantopoulos 2009; Papadopoulos 2004; Magnusson, Westjohn 2011). The growing importance of country images and the respective challenges in current research and practice raise the central question: How can country images be conceptualized and measured, and what effect do they have on the facilitation of favorable stakeholder behavior?

In the following, this question is approached in three steps: First, approaches to studying country images from different fields of research are introduced, leading to a synthesis of central research gaps. Second, the public relations perspective is applied to develop a new four-dimensional model of the country image by combining concepts from reputation management, national identity theory and attitude theory. Third, we demonstrate how this model can be operationalized and used for empirical evaluation of the constitution and effects of country images by

drawing on a student sample and using the image of the USA and its effect on travel behavior as an example.

4.2 The ‘state of the art’

4.2.1 Models and measures in the central research fields

A recent interdisciplinary review of literature shows that country images—which are causes and effects of both social as well as psychological processes—have a multitude of possible economic, cultural and political effects, and that this has led to studies in a very wide range of scientific fields (Buhmann, Ingenhoff 2015a). Different facets of the phenomenon have been studied from the perspectives of business studies, social psychology, political science and communication science.

In *business studies*, different concepts have been developed in the subfields of nation branding and country of origin research. In country of origin research, most researchers have conceptualized the country image as an attitudinal construct, suggesting a plethora of variables for measurement (see Roth, Diamantopoulos 2009 for an overview). Important factors include the evaluation of the national economy (e.g. Martin, Eroglu 1993; Wang, Lamb 1983), the political system (e.g. Allred et al. 1999), the work-training and competences of the people (Heslop et al. 2004) and the degree of technological advancement (e.g. Desborde 1990; Kühn 1993; Martin, Eroglu 1993). In research on nation branding, the construct is mostly specified in terms of general associations with a country, e.g. prominent landmarks, culinary specialties and popular figures from sports or politics (Brown et al. 2010; Ptaschunder et al. 2004; Reindl, Schweiger 2006).

In *social psychology*, concepts of country image and country identity (or ‘country self-image’) have been developed in the subfields of intergroup relations and collective identity research. In research on intergroup relations, country images are analyzed with a focus on countries’ political actions, motivations, and abilities (Oskamp 1965; Herrmann et al. 1997). Integral to the

country image are the relationship between countries (Cottam 1977; Jervis 1976), the strengths and weaknesses of a country and its status as an enemy (Boulding 1956, 1959; Cottam 1977; Holsti 1967; Shimko 1991; Silverstein, Holt 1989; White 1965). Cuddy et al. (2007) and Fiske et al. (2007, 1999) identify warmth and competence as two universal factors in intergroup perceptions. In collective identity research the identity of a country is seen as one distinct form of collective identity or collective self-image (David, Bar-Tal 2009; Rusciano 2003). So far, this research largely focuses on small groups, and lacks understanding of collective identity on the macro level of countries (Huddy 2001). Furthermore, as David and Bar-Tal (2009) point out, existing studies focus on the process of individual identification and barely address the generic features and content of national identity.

In *political science*, country images are researched mostly in the subfield of international relations, often with regard to the concept of public diplomacy (Leonard et al. 2002; Schatz, Levine 2010; Vickers 2004). A positive country reputation facilitates common understanding in the international system (Wang, 2006) and increases the political action ability of a nation-state (ibid.). The central aspect is often seen in the affective image component, i.e., a country's "ability to attract" as it constitutes a nation's "soft power" in the international system (Nye 2004). In this field, concepts and methods are still in the developing stages (Gilboa 2008), making the conceptual and empirical development of instruments which are applicable for measurement and evaluation in public diplomacy practice one of the most relevant gaps of the field (Banks 2011; Fitzpatrick 2007; Pahlavi 2007).

In *communication science*, country images are studied in research on international communication as well as media content and effects (Golan, Wanta 2003; Salwen, Matera 1992; Wanta et al. 2004). In the subfield of public relations research, the study of country images has so far received only limited attention (Kunczik 2003; Dyke, Vercic 2009). Some researchers have shown a positive effect of public relations activities on country images in U.S. news coverage (Albritton, Manheim 1985, 1983; Manheim, Albritton 1984; Zhang, Cameron 2003) and on public opinion

(Kiouisis, Wu 2008). Others have addressed the potential and challenges of communication strategies for the cultivation of country images (Kunczik 2003, 1997) and country reputation (Wang 2008, 2006b). Only a few have addressed questions regarding the conceptualization and measurement of the country image construct in detail. Passow et al. (2005) and Yang et al. (2008), for instance, applied a model of corporate reputation in analyses of country reputation. In contrast to most concepts in the business studies approaches, these works stress the importance of social factors like the social and ecological responsibility of a country.

4.2.2 A synthesis of central research gaps

Coming to a synthesis of the interdisciplinary literature review, it appears that there is hardly a common conceptual understanding of the country image construct in any of the individual fields. Also, the theoretical foundation and empirical testing of the dimensionality of the construct are still unsatisfactory (Newburry 2012; Roth, Diamantopoulos 2009). When looking at the basic components of the country image, there appears to be a gap concerning the inclusion of affective variables. Most models developed so far focus on the cognitive component of the attitudinal construct and fail to coherently integrate emotional aspects. Furthermore, the internal structure of the country image remains largely unexplained, raising the question of how different cognitive and affective image dimensions affect each other. Also, as has been problematized regarding applications of measures for other intangibles like reputation (Gardberg 2001; Helm 2005; Ingenhoff, Sommer 2010; Buhmann, Ingenhoff 2014), works in the field of country images rarely address the epistemic structure of the construct, leading to possibly incorrect specifications when it comes to model operationalization. Furthermore, in conceptualizing and operationalizing the construct, most researchers (like Puaschunder et al. 2004; Reindl, Schweiger 2006; Schweiger 1988, 1992; Schweiger, Kurz 1997) develop models inductively from existing images among a certain group of people at a specific point in time. Such models fit only for the image of specific countries and cannot be applied to and utilized in comparative analyses of different countries. Such models are, of course, also limited in their applicability to different stakeholder groups since their dimensions depend strongly on the

focus of specific groups such as consumers or tourists. Despite the evident calls to deliver more differentiated and comparative analyses of country images in different groups (like politicians, foreign political publics, skilled workers and experts, journalists, students), research in the different fields has so far largely neglected the development of generalizable models that can be applied to comparative analyses in different groups. Concepts of national identity—although they offer promising theoretical grounds for substantiating generic attributes and content of the construct—are widely disregarded in research on country images. Only recently, works in nation branding (Dinnie 2008) and collective identity research (David, Bar-Tal 2009) demonstrate how such concepts can be applied to the study of country images. Based on these gaps we can formulate four specific research questions:

- RQ1: How can we integrate available approaches to conceptualize the country image as a generalizable multidimensional construct comprising cognitive and affective components?
- RQ2. How can we specify and measure the country image and its individual dimensions?
- RQ3. How do different cognitive and affective country image dimensions interrelate and affect each other?
- RQ4. How do different cognitive and affective dimensions of the country image affect the facilitation of stakeholder behavior?

4.3 From model to measurement

4.3.1 The 4D Model of the country image

Following Buhmann and Ingenhoff (2015b) we apply a public relations perspective to show how available approaches can be integrated to derive a multidimensional model of the country image, which can be applied to different countries and utilized for comparative analyses of country images and their effects in different stakeholder groups.

From a ‘meso-level’ perspective, public relations research analyzes the strategic communication between an organization and its stakeholders (Grunig, Hunt 1984). From this analytical perspective, national agencies or the nation-state as a whole—seen as an “actor of world society” (Meyer, Jepperson 2000)—appear as the organizational entities. In this context public relations means the management of communication between a nation-state and its (foreign) stakeholders. An analysis of country images from the public relations perspective thus unfolds three fundamental and interrelated levels of analysis: the identity of a country, the processes of international communication about countries, and the opinions and attitudes towards a country that form from these processes among relevant stakeholders.

To develop our integrative model of the country image we combine three basic concepts: the concept of national identity by Smith (1987) to substantiate generic attributes of the reference object of the “country”; the attitude theory by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) as a foundation for the constitutive components of attitudes which build the cognitive foundation for the image concept; and the model of reputation as a multidimensional construct as suggested by Ingenhoff and Sommer (2007) and Eisenegger and Imhof (2008), which serves as a framework for differentiating between multiple dimensions of the country image.

The image object of the country is conceived of as the unity of a nation and its state. By drawing on Smith’s (1987) concepts, the country can be defined as a named human collective con-

sisting of six generic attributes: a distinct territory or “homeland”, a common history and traditions, a domestic economy, a public culture, a set of common norms and values as well as a sovereign political organization or state.

Correspondingly, the country image is conceptualized as a stakeholder’s attitude *towards* a country. Following the concept of attitudes from the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen, Fishbein 1980; Fishbein, Ajzen 1975), country images then comprise a component of beliefs (cognitive component) and a component of emotions (affective component) towards the image object. While the cognitive component can be seen as consisting of multiple specific evaluations regarding a broad range of attributes of the image object, the affective component consists of a necessarily general judgment regarding its emotional appeal (Bergler 2008). Conceptualized as an attitudinal construct, the country image can be seen as an important antecedent of intended behavior (Roth, Diamantopoulos 2009).

To further differentiate between these general components we draw on a recent concept developed in the field of reputation management (Ingenhoff, Sommer 2007; Eisenegger, Imhof 2008). According to this concept, each image object will be judged according to one’s beliefs about its functional qualities (abilities, competences and success), its normative qualities (integrity) as well as its emotional qualities (emotional appeal and fascination). Ingenhoff and Sommer (2010) furthermore showed how this concept can be applied in a causal model in which the functional and the normative dimensions act as antecedents of emotional appeal. This is in line with the concept of the Standard Learning Hierarchy from the Theory of Reasoned Action, which assumes a somewhat rational process in which what we know about an object *affects* how we feel towards this object (Ajzen, Fishbein 1980). Although this hierarchy of effects can vary according to context (Ajzen 2001), the standard learning hierarchy can be seen as the normal case of the constitution of attitudes (Pelsmacker et al. 2013) and can serve as the basic assumption for the analysis of country images (Bloemer et al. 2009).

These dimensions can be specified regarding the image object of the country by drawing on the attributes from Smith's concept. Whereas functional judgments can be associated with general economical and political characteristics of a given country, normative judgments can be associated with Smith's country attribute of country norms and values. Looking at the attributes of the public culture, traditions and landscapes of a country, the association with one of the generic image dimensions appears to be less plausible. To make the multidimensional model of reputation—which has been developed in the context of companies—entirely suited for analyzing country images, we need to further differentiate it by adding a dimension that captures beliefs regarding the aesthetic qualities of a country, that is its beauty and attractiveness as a cultural and scenic place. In the model by Eisenegger and Imhof (2008) aesthetic aspects appear to be associated entirely with the emotional appeal dimension. But when following Ingenhoff and Sommer (2010) in including a general emotional appeal dimension as a dependent outcome of beliefs about a country, aesthetic evaluations should be conceptualized—like functional and normative ones—as a separate dimension influencing feelings of emotional appeal towards a country. Otherwise aesthetic evaluations (e.g. about the natural beauty of a country's landscapes) would be miss-conceptualized as outcomes of functional and normative judgments. Thus we specify the country image as a construct consisting of four different, but closely interrelated, dimensions: a functional, a normative, an aesthetic and an emotional dimension (see **Figure 5**, p. 30).

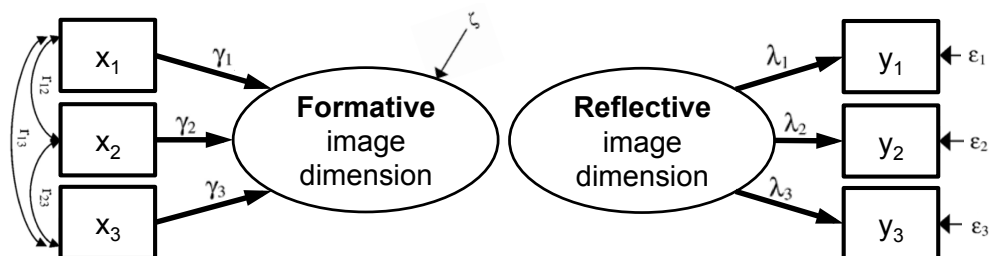
In summary, according to our model, an integration of the three concepts of national identity, image as attitude and three-dimensional reputation allows us to define the country image as *a stakeholder's attitude towards a nation and its state, comprising of specific beliefs and general feelings in a functional, a normative, an aesthetic and an emotional dimension.*

4.3.2 Defining the epistemic structure of the country image

When the ultimate aim lies in producing concrete measures for an intangible like country image in order to assess its affects on stakeholder behavior, it is necessary to clarify the epistemic structure

of the construct. While most existing approaches to measuring country images specify which dimensions should constitute the overall image construct, researchers in the field largely do not discuss how these dimensions should be specified as measurement models. But as complex latent constructs, the different country image dimensions have to be operationalized using manifest variables and this produces questions regarding the type of specification. Depending on the specific relation of manifest variables with the underlying construct, measurement models can generally be specified in a formative or reflective manner (Bollen 1989; Jarvis et al. 2003). These different types of specification, of course, make a fundamental difference to the epistemic structure of the overall country image construct: while reflective specification presupposes indicators to be the observable *outcomes* of variance in the underlying image dimension, formative specification means that indicators *cause* the respective latent construct. This, by implication, changes fundamentally the nature of the interrelations between all variables in the measurement model (see **Figure 10**). As ‘reflections’, different indicators are prototypical manifestations of a latent construct, highly similar and interchangeable. As formative elements, however, they make the latent construct appear, each acting as one dimension or building block on their ‘own right’ (ibid.). So far, this important distinction is rarely addressed explicitly when it comes to defining intangibles like image or reputation, and models which are applied as measurement instruments are generally specified reflectively without further reasoning (Helm 2005; Ingenhoff, Sommer 2010; Buhmann, Ingenhoff 2014).

Figure 10. Formative vs. reflective specification of country image dimensions

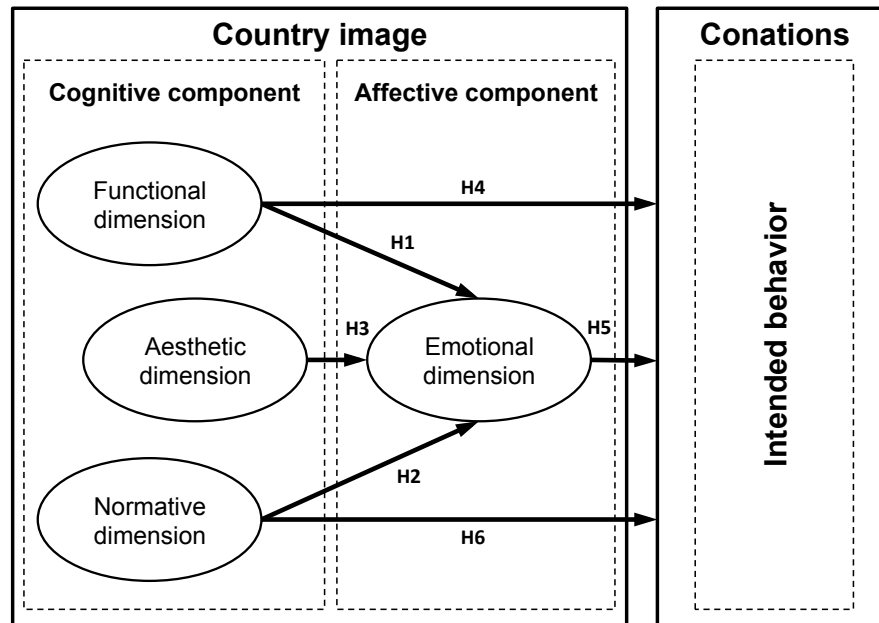


Despite the strong use of reflective indicators in existing country image measures, it is conceptually questionable whether this kind of specification is the right way to go. When the general country image and its latent dimensions are conceived of as the overall evaluation of a country,

then the specific variables of the image and its dimensions are to be seen as individual ‘building blocks’ of the image. In the concrete case of the 4D Model the different characteristics in the functional, normative and aesthetic dimensions of the broad construct of the country image cannot be presupposed as being equally valid and reliable for measuring a respective image dimension. In connection to recent arguments regarding related intangible constructs (Gardberg 2001; Helm 2005; Ingenhoff, Sommer 2010; Buhmann, Ingenhoff 2014), we see the various specific beliefs regarding the cognitive image dimensions of the country image as variables that make the underlying constructs *appear*, not as outcomes of the image dimensions. This means that they can vary independently of each other. Such an epistemic structure then has practical consequences for efforts to operationalize and measure the construct: observations about a person’s beliefs about, e.g., a country’s economic strength or natural beauty need to be formatively specified as *determinants* of the respective image dimension.

4.3.3 The country image’s effect on stakeholder behavior

According to the Theory of Reasoned Action, intended behavior (conations) can be seen as dependent outcomes of cognitions and affects. According to this theory, attitudes are—next to subjective norms—the single most important predictors of the behavior components (Fishbein, Ajzen 1975). In connection to previous results we hypothesize that each of the cognitive dimensions is positively correlated with the emotional appeal dimension which has a mediating effect on conations. While aesthetic beliefs are fully mediated by feelings of emotional appeal, functional and normative judgments are hypothesized also to affect directly intended behavior (see **Figure 11**).

Figure 11. A path model of the constitution and effects of country images

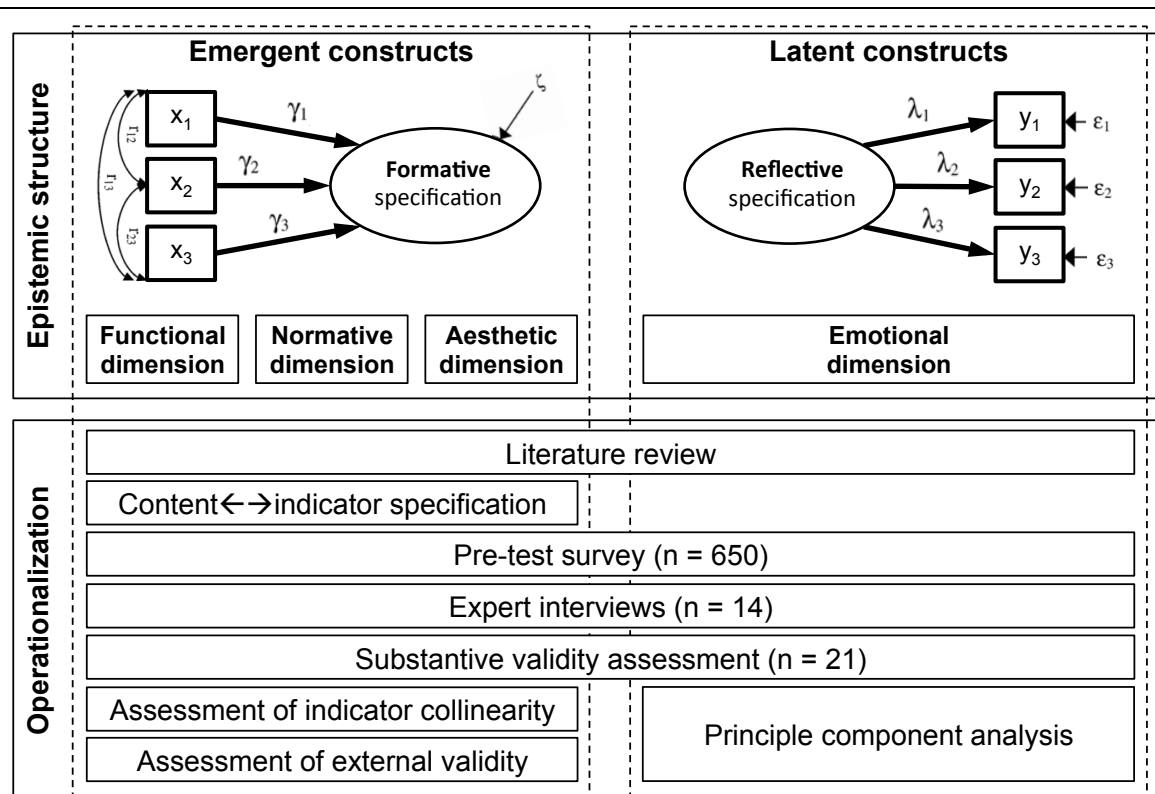
4.3.4 Operationalization of the construct

Due to the novelty of the conceptual model and a lack of consensus on valid scales, a novel measure was developed for the country image based on the 4D Model.

According to the above argumentation regarding the epistemic structure of the country image, the exogenous constructs of the functional, normative, and aesthetic dimension (cognitive country image component) were operationalized with formative indicators while the endogenous construct of the emotional dimension (affective country image component) was matched with reflective indicators. In connection to the methodology suggested by Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001), the indicators for the formatively specified dimensions of the cognitive image component were developed not only from existing literature, but also in close connection to the actual content specification of the different latent dimensions from the 4D Model. In addition to the literature review, a survey among students ($n = 650$) was conducted in February 2013, in which participants were asked how strongly their image of another country depended on a selected number of items and which further aspects were important to them. Results supported the relevance of the

selected items and the additionally suggested aspects were all consistent with items that have been extracted from literature or derived from the model. Together, the literature review and survey amounted to a total of 54 items,³ which were pre-tested in expert interviews with 14 practitioners and scholars from four different countries, checking for content validity, item clarity and redundancy. The refined set of items was subjected to an item-sorting task for assessment of substantive validity (Anderson, Gerbing 1991). These pre-tests allowed for a refining of the items to a total of 37, which were checked for indicator collinearity and external validity. An analysis of a covariance matrix gave indication of possible cross loadings. All correlations above .70 between indicators across constructs were subjected to further conceptual considerations on the basis of the content specification of the latent variables. These analyses led to a final refinement of the pool to a total of 21 items: 12 for the functional, five for the normative and four for the aesthetic dimension.

Figure 12. Epistemic structure and operationalization procedures



In the reflectively specified dimension of the affective country image component, individual items are believed to be influenced by the same underlying construct. Accordingly, this di-

mension was operationalized in accordance with a previous study on corporate reputation (Ingenhoff, Sommer 2010), using four indicators for measurement. The items of the reflective latent variable of the emotional dimension were subjected to an exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation, giving a KMO-value of .94 and a one-factor solution. One indicator was dropped due to low loading ($< .70$), leaving three indicators reflecting the overall construct.

For the goal variable of the conative component we chose a single item indicator for a person's intention to travel to a country.⁴ All items in the model were scored with bipolar, entirely verbalized five point Likert scales.

4.3.5 Method

The results described below constitute the first test of the new model in a survey on the country image of the USA using a student sample from a Swiss university ($n = 208$). The sample was collected in May 2013 and consists of undergraduate students, 63% females and 37 % males, with an average age of 21. The hypothesized relations between the different constructs in the path model are analyzed by means of structural equation modeling. Specifically, the covariance-based approach of partial least squares (PLS) was used to analyze the results because the model contains both formative and reflective constructs (Fornell, Bookstein 1982). For a detailed account on how to analyze path models using PLS, see e.g. Chin (2010).

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Measurement model

First, results from the measurement models are analyzed (outer model). Due to the differences in specification (formative vs. reflective) the instruments of the cognitive and affective image components have to be evaluated using different criteria.

The items of the reflective latent variable of the emotional country image dimension are evaluated by looking at values for significance and loadings as well as at coefficients for internal consistency reliability and discriminant validity (see **Table 10** for results). All indicators are significant and range clearly above .70 showing that each of them is able to explain over 50% of the variance of the latent construct. The reliability of indicators is substantiated when looking at the indicator showing the lowest loading: here the value of .73 suggests a variance explained of still over 53%. Internal consistency reliability is generally assessed by looking at Cronbach's alpha. In recent years, however, some researchers suggest drawing on tests that do not assume tau-equivalence (Sijtsma 2009); alternatively, composite reliability can be assessed by Dillon-Goldstein's rho. Both values suggest good reliability in this case since they are well above the suggested threshold value of .70. As further criteria, convergent and discriminant validity of the reflective construct are to be assessed. For convergent validity the average variance extracted (AVE) should be above .50. For discriminant validity, cross loadings should be checked at indicator level to see whether the individual loadings of all indicators are higher with the assigned than with all other variables in the model. And last, discriminant validity can be assessed by using the Fornell-Larcker criterion, which shows whether a latent variable shares more variance with its own indicators than with any other latent variable in the model. In this case, all tests suggest good validity of the reflective measurement model.

Table 10. Indicator loadings, Chronbach's alpha, Dillon-Goldstein's rho, and AVE

<i>Emotional dimension</i>	Loadings	T-values
Country fascination	.78	54.65**
Emotional appeal for the country	.89	68.13**
Country attractiveness	.73	31.94**
Cronbach's alpha	.77	
Dillon-Goldstein's rho	.87	
AVE	.69	

Significance: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

For the formative constructs of the functional, normative and aesthetic dimension, different criteria have to be used to evaluate the results (Chin 2010). The whole finalized set of indicators was applied, since it is, in its entirety, conceptually connected to the content of the respective constructs, and thus item selection for purposes of increasing reliability is inappropriate (Bollen, Lennox 1991). For formative measures results can be assessed based on indicator weights, indicator relevance and external validity (Diamantopoulos, Winklhofer 2001).

First, indicator weights are looked at (see **Table 11**). The weights are considered significant if t-values are above 1.96 (with an error probability at 5%). Given the number of significant indicators, the theoretically postulated relationship between the indicators and the latent variables is only partially supported by the data. The weights themselves indicate that, on the level of the functional dimension, three important factors constitute the overall evaluation of the country's competences and competitiveness in the analyzed group: *competences of the political leadership* explain most of the variance of the latent dimension, followed by the factors of *political stability* and beliefs regarding the *economic strength* of the country. This shows that the group of analyzed students had a primarily 'political angle' in forming their functional judgment of the country. Regarding the normative dimension of the country, *respect for other nations* was identified as the one central factor in constituting this level of judgment. The dimension comprising the aesthetic judgment of the country is formed by three factors, of all quite equal weights and of which beliefs regarding the country's *history and traditions* appears to be the most important.

Table 11. Indicator weights of the formative measures

	Weights	T-values
Functional dimension		
Country innovativeness	.13	1.1
National products and services	.12	0.1
Competence of national businesses	.10	0.8
National prosperity and wealth	.17	1.3

Economic strength of country	.31	2.8*
Labor markets	.11	0.8
Competences of political leadership	.43	3.1*
Political stability	.33	2.2*
Infrastructure	.3	0.2
Innovativeness in Research	.1	0.6
Educational opportunities	.2	1.3
Level of education	.02	0.1
Normative dimension		
Environmental protection	.28	1.6
International social responsibility	.05	0.3
Respect for other nations	.45	2.9*
Civil rights	.21	1.3
Fairness of international economic and trade policy	.24	1.3
Aesthetic dimension		
Cultural goods	.25	2.1*
Culinary	.28	2.5*
History and tradition	.29	2.8*
Landscapes and scenery	.18	1.5

Significance: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

Following the assessment of the indicator weights, indicator relevance has to be evaluated. This is done by looking for multi-collinearity among the cognitive country image dimensions, which is central due to the fact that the formative measurement models are based on multiple regression (ibid.). For this evaluation the variance inflation factor (VIF) is calculated (see **Table 12**). The resulting values for each of the three cognitive country image dimensions suggest that multi-collinearity isn't a problem in the dataset since all meet the threshold criteria of being close to one

and well under 10 (Kleinbaum et al. 2008). It can be concluded that the individual indicators in the model do not correlate to a degree that would cause concern.

Table 12. Variance inflation factor (VIF) of individual country image dimensions

	<i>Functional dimension</i>	<i>Normative dimension</i>	<i>Aesthetic dimension</i>
VIF	1.5	1.3	1.4

As a last step in the evaluation of the measurement model, integrating a summary item in the survey for each of the formative constructs is recommended (Diamantopoulos, Winklhofer 2001). This allows for the assessment of external validity by controlling whether the formative indicators of the construct are significantly and positively correlated with this one manifest variable (see **Table 13**). In the two constructs of the normative and aesthetic dimensions all items are significantly and positively correlated with the respective summary item for the dimensions substantiating external validity of both of these formative constructs. Looking at the functional dimension we see that the majority of the items can support external validity of the construct.

Table 13. Correlation between indicators and summary items

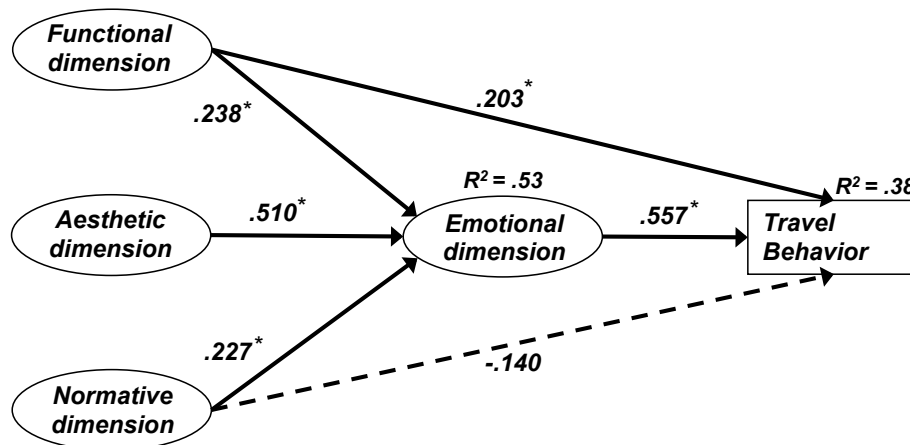
	<i>Coefficients</i>
Functional dimension	
Country innovativeness	.12*
National products and services	.20*
Competence of national businesses	.13*
National prosperity and wealth	.13*
Economic strength of country	-.1
Labor markets	.04
Competences of political leadership	.35*
Political stability	.24*
Infrastructure	.18*
Innovativeness in Research	.09
Educational opportunities	.19

Level of education	.20
Normative dimension	
Environmental protection	.29*
International social responsibility	.31*
Respect for other nations	.40*
Civil rights	.15*
Fairness of international economic and trade policy	.20*
Aesthetic dimension	
Cultural goods	.30*
Culinary	.42*
History and tradition	.35*
Landscapes and scenery	.28*

Significance: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

4.4.2 Structural relationships

Figure 13. Path model results – country image and travel behavior



Subsequent to the evaluation of the reflective and formative measurement models—as shown in the above section—the path model needs to be subjected to analysis (inner model). All results are summarized in **Figure 13**. These results show that the model is able to explain very well the endogenous variables: while the emotional dimension is explained with well over 50%, the

conative target variable attains almost 40% explained variance. Furthermore, all but one of the path coefficients are significant at $p = .50$. The strongest effect is present in the path linking the mediating variable of the emotional dimension and the conative variable of travel behavior (hypothesis H5). There is also a strong effect from the aesthetic dimension onto the emotional dimension, which is consistent with hypothesis H3. The effect of the functional dimension on the emotional dimension is only slightly stronger than the direct effect of the normative dimension onto the emotional dimension. Even though both of these effects aren't particularly strong, they shouldn't be neglected since they show that, apart from aesthetic judgments, the emotional appeal for a country is caused by functional and normative judgments. Only the hypothesized direct effect between the normative image dimension and the conative goal variable could not be supported by the model. This is in line with results from a similar model applied to measure corporate reputation (Ingenhoff, Sommer 2010). The normative dimension's effect, however, just like the aesthetic dimension, is fully mediated by the emotional appeal dimension, while the functional dimension also shows a direct effect onto the conative variable of travel behavior.

4.5 Conclusion

The country image is a central target construct in international public relations and public diplomacy. In this chapter we applied an integrative perspective in order to combine a recent model from reputation management with attitude theory as well as with conceptual insights on national identity to derive the new 4D Model of the country image. In this model the country image is defined as a stakeholder's attitude towards a nation and its state, comprising specific beliefs and general feelings in a functional, a normative, an aesthetic and a emotional dimension. While functional, normative and aesthetic judgments constitute the cognitive component, the emotional dimension constitutes the affective component of the country image. Based on the Standard Learning Hierarchy, this latter dimension is also seen as the dependent outcome of country cognitions: specific beliefs about a country's competences, values and norms as well as attractiveness as a cultural and scenic place

affect the formation of general feelings of fascination and emotional appeal for that country. To clarify the ways in which this model can be operationalized for measurement, we specifically addressed the issue of the epistemic structure, leading to the conclusion that—despite common use of reflective constructs—the cognitive image dimensions should be specified in a formative manner.

To analyze the constitution and effects of the country image, the four-dimensional country construct was integrated in a path model based on the Theory of Reasoned Action. For a first empirical test of the new model, it was applied in a study on the constitution of the country image of the USA and its effect on travel behavior. It was possible to show that the country image can in fact be measured as a four-factorial construct. Results demonstrate that the functional, the normative and the aesthetic image dimensions relevantly affect the affective image component of the emotional dimension. Furthermore, the results support the mediating role of the emotional dimension in the country image's effect on intended behavior.

The chapter contributes to public relations research by presenting a new conceptual model of the constitution and effects of country images, showing how this model can be applied by using PLS structural equation modeling, and giving first empirical evidence of the effects of different country image dimensions. Additionally, this study is the first to operationalize cognitive and affective dimensions of the country image by combining formative and reflective indicators in a mixed specified construct.

In future research, the developed model should be applied in other contexts, using different countries as image objects and different stakeholder groups as analyzed target audiences; of course, representative samples would be very desirable to further advance reliable and valid measures based on the proposed model. Due to its theoretical grounding based on concepts from reputation management, attitude theory and national identity theory, the model is well designed for comparative analyses of the images of different countries and it can be applied in the context of different stakeholder groups like foreign investors, politicians, political publics, tourists, journalists

or skilled workers. Regardless of the generality of the conceptualized 4D Model and its basic country image dimensions, the individual formative variables that make up the cognitive component of the construct will, of course, vary according to context and should be operationalized specifically regarding a given group of stakeholders. An additional future research opportunity would be to apply the model in comparative analyses of the self-image of domestic publics of a country (i.e., country identity) and the outside perceptions of foreign publics (i.e., country image). Furthermore, in the line of research conducted by Oh and Ramaprasad (2003) the 4D Model can be applied in analyzing image transfer and halo effects between multinational corporations and their country of origin, specifically clarifying the strengths of image transfer effects on the level of the different image dimensions of the 4D Model. Building on research on the influence of normative concepts like ‘consumer nationalism’ (Wang 2005), the 4D Model can be further applied to analyze the influence of these normative concepts on the image of countries as well as on the image transfer between country and corporate image.

5 The constitution and effects of country image and identity⁴

5.1 Research gaps and research questions

In the recent *Barcelona Declaration of Measurement Principles*, scholars have underlined the current need for advancing concepts and measures for the evaluation of outcomes in public relations (AMEC 2010). Empirically measuring and evaluating outcomes such as reputation or image is a demanding task since these target constructs are no manifest phenomena, but rather complex intangibles that have to be defined, specified and operationalized carefully in order to produce meaningful results. If conceptualized with multiple dimensions, the constitution of these constructs yet involves various interrelated latent/emergent variables. Furthermore, from an evaluation standpoint, these constructs are not self-evident, meaning that merely descriptive analyses of some organization's image or reputation cannot explain what public relations scholars ultimately want to know, which is: how exactly these constructs contribute to the building of trust-based relations, the facilitation of favorable behavior, or even the creation of economic value added for an economic organization. Without taking into consideration this wider network of causal relationships, it is not possible to evaluate the importance of an organization's image and reputation.

In the fields of international public relations and public diplomacy, the country image—as “the cognitive representation that a person holds about a given country” (Kunczik 2003: 412)—has become an increasingly researched target construct. In times of globalization and mediatization, countries are observed by global media and publics: They are rated and compared according to

⁴ A version of this paper is currently under review as “Imagining Switzerland: applying the 4D Model in an analysis of the Swiss country image and identity”, together with D. Ingenhoff.

their economic development, political stability, effectiveness and morality of their national and international policies or the attractiveness of their culture (Werron 2012). Research suggests that the country image has manifest effects on the success of a country's businesses, trade, tourism and diplomatic relations because it affects the behavior of central publics abroad (Jaffe, Nebenzahl 2001; Kotler, Gertner 2002; Sun 2008; Tapachi, Waryszak 2000).

Under these conditions a country's "favorable image and reputation around the world [...] have become more important than territory, access, and raw materials" (Gilboa 2008: 56). As a consequence, practices of communication management are increasingly applied on the level of the nation-state system in international public relations and public diplomacy (Dinnie 2008; Dyke, Vercic 2009; Kunczik 1997; Snow, Taylor 2009). These "communication experts need to have knowledge of their target groups" (Vos 2006: 256), which, in an international public relations context involves knowledge of how publics in a given country perceive a foreign entity (organization or country) and how they behave towards it (Sriramesh, Vercic 2009). So far, most studies in international public relations and public diplomacy give more or less descriptive analysis of country images, showing whether a given country has a positive or negative image regarding certain dimensions like the economy or international relations. But sound conceptual models and appropriate measurement instruments to analyze the constitution and *effects* of country images are rare. Many existing models lack theoretical foundation, cannot be applied to different countries or the comparative analysis of country images in various foreign or domestic publics, often fail to measure comprehensively all relevant dimensions and largely refrain from clarifying the internal structure of the construct (Roth, Diamantopoulos 2009; Papadopoulos 2004; Magnusson, Westjohn 2011).

For current research in international public relations and public diplomacy this raises questions such as: How can we combine available concepts to derive a comprehensive model of country image and identity for comparative research designs? How can we specify and measure these constructs and their individual dimensions? How do different country image and identity

dimensions interrelate and affect each other? How do both country image and identity affect the facilitation of behavioral intentions of foreign and domestic publics?

In the following, these questions are approached both conceptually and empirically: First, we argue for a new integrative framework that combines concepts from attitude theory, national identity theory, and reputation management in order to analyze the constitution and effects of both country image and identity. Second, we demonstrate how this model can be operationalized and applied for empirical evaluation of the constitution and effects of the country images and identity of Switzerland.

5.2 Towards an integrative framework of country image and identity

We argue that both country image and identity: a) can be conceptualized as (aggregated) attitudes; b) focus on the ‘target object’ of the country; and c) can be differentiated on the basis of general forms of judgment. From this perspective, the essential difference between both constructs is marked merely by the distinction between domestic and foreign publics (‘in-group’ vs. ‘out-group’): the domestic public’s aggregated attitude towards its ‘home country’ appears as the country identity (or ‘self image’) while the respective attitudes of foreign publics constitute that country’s image abroad. This allows us to develop an integrative framework of country image and identity by combining three basic concepts: a) the attitude theory by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) as a foundation for the constitutive components of attitudes which build the cognitive foundation for both constructs; b) the concept of national identity by Smith (Smith 1987) to substantiate more or less ‘generic attributes’ of the target object of the country; and c) the model of reputation as a multidimensional construct (Eisenegger, Imhof 2008; Ingenhoff, Sommer 2007), which serves as a framework for differentiating general forms of judgment.

First, following the concept of attitudes from the *Theory of Reasoned Action* (Ajzen, Fishbein 1980; Fishbein, Ajzen 1975), both attitudinal constructs comprise a component of beliefs

(cognitive component) and a component of emotions (affective component) towards the target object of the country. While the cognitive component can be seen as consisting of multiple *specific evaluations* regarding a broad range of attributes of the target object, the affective component consists of a necessarily *general judgment* regarding its emotional appeal (Bergler 2008). Hence, the country image comprises (a) what people know (or think they know) about the different attributes of a country and (b) people's general feelings towards the country.

Second, following the concept of national identity by Anthony D. Smith (1987), the target object of the country is conceived of as the *unity of a nation and its state*. By drawing on Smith's concept of national identity, the country can be defined as a named human collective consisting of six generic dimensions: a distinct territory or 'homeland', a common history and traditions, a domestic economy, a public culture, a set of common norms and values as well as a sovereign political organization or state (see **Figure 4**, p. 36). These dimensions or lend themselves well as a foundation for the framework because they can be conceptually substantiated by Smith's widely-used ethno-symbolist approach, have been successfully operationalized in research on country identity (David, Bar-Tal 2009), and equally correspond to categories by which foreign publics actually perceive different countries and form respective country images (Mittelstaedt et al. 2004).

Having defined the target object as such, country image and identity can be conceptualized correspondingly as attitudes *towards* the country, i.e. attitudes towards a country's territory, its history and traditions, its domestic economy, public culture, norms and values as well as its political organization. Thereby, it is possible for our integrative framework to "use the same descriptive dimensions to characterize the image and the object" (Kelman 1965: 26). As such the model is well suited for comparative analyses of a country's citizens' self-image, i.e. the country identity, and the image of the country as perceived by foreign publics.

Third, to further differentiate between the general components derived from attitude theory we draw on a recent model of corporate reputation (Ingenhoff, Sommer 2007; Eisenegger, Imhof

2008). According to this model, each social object is judged according to ones beliefs about its *functional qualities* (abilities, competences and success), its *normative qualities* (integrity) as well as its *emotional qualities* (emotional appeal and fascination). These dimensions constitute general aspects of rationality by which individuals judge social actors (Habermas 1984a; see Eisenegger, Imhof 2008). Ingenhoff and Sommer (2010) also specify the internal structure of the construct by showing that the functional and the normative dimension can be seen as antecedents of emotional appeal. This is in line with the concept of the *Standard Learning Hierarchy* from the *Theory of Reasoned Action* (Ajzen, Fishbein 1980), which assumes a somewhat rational process in which what we know about an object *affects* how we feel towards this object. Although this hierarchy of effects can vary according to context (Ajzen 2001), the standard learning hierarchy can be seen as the normal case of the constitution of attitudes (Pelsmacker et al. 2013) and can serve as the basic assumption for the analysis of country images (Bloemer et al. 2009).

Furthermore, to coherently apply this three-dimensional model—which has been developed in the context of companies—to the target object of the country as conceptualized on the basis of Smith's theory we need to integrate an additional dimension. While functional judgments can refer to country attributes of the national economy and political organization, and normative judgments can be aligned with Smith's country attribute of norms and values, the attributes of public culture, traditions and landscapes resist coherent affiliation with any of the three dimensions. These attributes relate to *aesthetic* judgments, which, in the model by Eisenegger and Imhof (2008), appear to be associated with the emotional appeal dimension. But when following Ingenhoff and Sommer (2010) in including a general emotional appeal dimension as a *dependent outcome* of beliefs about a country, aesthetic evaluations should be conceptualized—like functional and normative ones—as a separate dimension *influencing* feelings of emotional appeal towards a country. Otherwise aesthetic evaluations (e.g. about the natural beauty of a country's landscapes) would be miss-conceptualized as outcomes of functional and normative judgments. Thus, to make this model entirely suited for analyzing country images, we further differentiate it by adding a fourth dimen-

sion that captures beliefs regarding the aesthetic qualities of a country, that is its beauty and attractiveness as a cultural and scenic place. Accordingly, the country image is conceptualized as consisting of four different, but closely interrelated, dimensions: a *functional*, a *normative*, an *aesthetic* and a *emotional* dimension. According to the two-component model of attitudes (Ajzen, Fishbein 1980; Fishbein, Ajzen 1975), the functional, normative and aesthetic dimensions constitute the cognitive component, while the emotional dimension constitutes the affective component of the country image.

These dimensions can be specified regarding the target object of the country by drawing on the attributes from Smith's concept. Whereas functional judgments can be associated with general economical and political characteristics of a given country, normative judgments can be associated with Smith's country attribute of country norms and values. Looking at the attributes of the public culture, traditions and landscapes of a country, the association with one of the generic image dimensions appears to be less plausible. To make the multidimensional model of reputation—which has been developed in the context of companies—entirely suited for analyzing country images, we need to further differentiate it by adding a dimension that captures beliefs regarding the aesthetic qualities of a country, that is its beauty and attractiveness as a cultural and scenic place. In the model by Eisenegger and Imhof (2008) aesthetic aspects appear to be associated entirely with the emotional appeal dimension. But when following Ingenhoff and Sommer (2010) in including a general emotional appeal dimension as a dependent outcome of beliefs about a country, aesthetic evaluations should be conceptualized—like functional and normative ones—as a separate dimension influencing feelings of emotional appeal towards a country. Otherwise aesthetic evaluations (e.g. about the natural beauty of a country's landscapes) would be miss-conceptualized as outcomes of functional and normative judgments. Thus we specify the country image as a construct consisting of four different, but closely interrelated, dimensions: a functional, a normative, an aesthetic and a emotional dimension (see **Figure 5**, p. 38).

In summary, according to our model, an integration of the approaches from attitude theory, national identity theory and reputation management allows us to define the country image and identity as attitudes towards a nation and its state, comprising specific beliefs and general feelings in a functional, a normative, an aesthetic and an emotional dimension.

Modeling the constitution of country image and identity and their effects on behavior

According to the Theory of Reasoned Action, intended behavior (conations) can be seen as dependent outcomes of cognitions and affects. According to this theory, attitudes are—next to subjective norms and self efficacy—the single most important predictors of the behavior components (Fishbein, Ajzen 1975). In connection to previous results (Buhmann, Ingenhoff 2013; Ingenhoff, Sommer 2010) we hypothesize that each of the cognitive dimensions is positively correlated with the emotional appeal dimension which has a mediating effect on conations. While aesthetic beliefs are fully mediated by feelings of emotional appeal, functional and normative judgments are hypothesized also to affect intended behavior directly (see **Figure 11**, p. 87).

5.3 Methodology

5.3.1 Towards measurement: formative or reflective indicators?

When working with intangible constructs, researchers have to operationalize them using observable indicators. These can be specified as either *formative* or *reflective* measurement models depending on how the indicators are thought to relate to their respective construct (Bollen, Lennox 1991) (see **Figure 10**, p. 85). In reflective measurement models indicators are conceived as observable consequences of the underlying construct (Fornell, Bookstein 1982). In this case, indicators are termed reflectors (Pedhazur, Pedhazur Schmelkin 1991) or indicative manifestations (Rossiter 2002) of a latent variable. The underlying assumption is that these indicators have a common core (Nunnally 1978), which explains why they are (generally) highly correlated and considered to be interchangeable.

able (Ley 1972). It is assumed that all indicators are a priori both valid and reliable for measuring the construct (Jarvis et al. 2003). In *formative* measurement models, by contrast, indicators are considered to be the cause of an emergent construct. As such, formative indicators (or ‘cause measures’) constitute the relevant dimensions of a construct, can be independent of each other and must not necessarily be correlated (Bollen 1984). Other than in reflective measurement models, where indicators are assumed to be interchangeable, omitting indicators from a formative model necessarily leads to a change in the meaning of the construct (Diamantopoulos, Winklhofer 2001).

To date, the distinction between both forms of measurement is rarely addressed in public relations research and most measurement models for constructs such as image and identity are specified reflectively without further ado. This lack of distinction is cause for concern. As Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (ibid.) point out with convincing arguments, many of the constructs in the social sciences are specified incorrectly. A meta-analysis of top-level marketing journals, for instance, shows that a substantial portion of studies apply SEM with misspecified measurement models leading to incorrect parameter estimates and relationship assessments (Jarvis et al. 2003). In public relations research scholars have recently argued that intangibles such as image and reputation ought to be operationalized with formative indicators since respective observations are *determinants* of the construct and not its consequence (Ingenhoff, Sommer 2008; Tong 2013; Buhmann, Ingenhoff 2015a).

When the general attitudinal constructs of country image and identity with their latent dimensions are conceived of as the overall evaluation of a country, then their specific indicators are to be seen as individual ‘building blocks’ of the constructs. In the concrete case of the 4D Model the different characteristics in the functional, normative and aesthetic dimensions of the attitudinal construct (cognitive component) cannot be presupposed as being equally valid and reliable for measuring the respective dimension. In connection to the above arguments we specify the various beliefs regarding the cognitive dimensions of the constructs as variables that make the underlying constructs *appear*, not as outcomes of the attitudinal dimensions. This means that they can vary

independently of each other. Such an epistemic structure then has practical consequences for efforts to operationalize and measure the constructs: observations about a person's beliefs about, e.g., a country's economic strength or natural beauty need to be formatively specified as *determinants* of the respective dimensions.

5.3.2 Operationalization: developing measurement models

Due to the novelty of the conceptual model and a lack of consensus on valid scales, a novel measure was developed based on the 4D Model. According to the above argumentation on the epistemic structure of the constructs, the exogenous variables of the functional, normative, and aesthetic dimension (cognitive component) were operationalized with formative indicators while the endogenous construct of the emotional dimension (affective component) was matched with reflective indicators. Both modes call for and were matched with different procedures of operationalization (see Figure 12, p. 88)

In connection to the methodology suggested by Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001), the indicators for the formatively specified dimensions were developed not only from existing literature, but also in close connection to the actual content specification of the different emergent dimensions from the 4D Model. In addition to the literature review, a survey among students ($n = 650$) was conducted, in which participants were asked how strongly their image of a country depended on a selected number of items and which further aspects were important to them. Results supported the relevance of the selected items and the additionally suggested aspects were all consistent with items that have been extracted from literature or derived from the model's content specification. Together, the literature review and survey amounted to a total of 54 items, which were pre-tested in expert interviews with 14 practitioners and scholars from four different countries, checking for content validity, item clarity and redundancy. The refined set of items was subjected to an item-sorting task for assessment of substantive validity (Anderson, Gerbing 1991). These pre-tests allowed for a refining of the items to a total of 37, which were checked for indicator

collinearity and external validity. An analysis of a covariance matrix gave indication of possible cross loadings. All correlations above .70 between indicators across constructs were subjected to further conceptual considerations on the basis of the content specification of the latent variables. These analyses led to a final refinement of the formative pool to a total of 21 items: 12 for the functional, five for the normative and four for the aesthetic dimension.

In the reflectively specified dimension of the affective component, individual items are believed to be influenced by the same underlying construct. Accordingly, this dimension was operationalized in accordance with a previous study (Buhmann 2013), using four indicators for measurement. The items of the reflective latent variable of the emotional dimension were subjected to an exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation, giving a KMO-value of .94 and a one-factor solution. One indicator was dropped due to low loading (below .70), leaving three indicators reflecting the overall construct.

For the goal variable of the conative components we chose single item indicators for person's behavioral intentions; this comprised items on buying Swiss products, spending ones holidays in Switzerland and investing personal savings in the country. All items in the model were scored with bipolar, entirely verbalized five point Likert scales.

5.3.3 Method

For a first test of the new model in a comparative approach, a survey was conducted amongst two groups. To apply the 4D Model as a measure for country identity (domestic publics), we surveyed Swiss citizens (n = 251). The sample was collected by randomly selecting pedestrians in train stations and on trains in the Swiss-German region. To apply the 4D Model as a measure for country image (foreign publics), we surveyed German students (n = 212). The sample was collected in undergraduate und graduate courses at a German University. Both samples were collected between March and June 2013. The student sample consist 62% females and 38 % males, with an average

age of 23. The sample of Swiss citizens consist 51% females and 49 % males, with an average age of 34.

The hypothesized relations between the different constructs in the path models are analyzed by means of structural equation modeling (SEM). Specifically, the covariance-based approach of partial least squares (PLS) was used to analyze the results. The PLS method suits the needs of this study particularly because the applied model—though proposed based on theoretical arguments—has tentative character, is operationalized by means of a large number of variables (mostly due to the various subdimensions of the three emergent constructs of the cognitive component), and includes both formative and reflective indicators (see Ingenhoff, Buhmann 2015a for an extensive discussion on these properties).

There are a number of software packages available to conduct model evaluation in PLS-SEM (for a comparison of tools see Temme et al. 2010). For this study we use SmartPLS (Ringle et al. 2005) as a Java-based tool that processes raw data and uses bootstrapping as its resampling method.

Model evaluation in PLS-SEM generally comprises two stages of analysis (Chin 2010): assessment of the measurement model and assessment of the structural model. Measurement model evaluation aims to show how the chosen sets of indicators measure the individual latent or emergent constructs. Due to the difference in the indicator/construct-relation, the assessment of reflective and formative measurement models follows a different procedure (Diamantopoulos, Winklhofer 2001): In *formative* measurement model evaluation indicators are examined by looking at indicator weights, indicator relevance and external validity. In *reflective* measurement model evaluation indicators are examined based on indicator loading, indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, and discriminant validity. As a second stage structural model evaluation assesses the meaningfulness and significance of the hypothesized relationships between the constructs in the model.

5.4 Results

5.4.1 Measurement model

The items of the reflective latent variable of the emotional dimension are evaluated by looking at values for significance and loadings as well as at coefficients for internal consistency reliability and discriminant validity (see **Table 14** for results). All indicators are significant and range clearly above .70 showing that each of them is able to explain well over 50% of the variance of the latent construct. Internal consistency reliability is generally assessed by looking at Cronbach's alpha. However, some researchers recently suggested instead to draw on tests that do not assume tau-equivalence (Sijtsma 2009). As an alternative to Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability can be assessed by Dillon-Goldstein's rho. Both tests suggest good reliability in this case since they are well above the suggested threshold value of .70. As further criteria, convergent and discriminant validity of the reflective construct are to be assessed. For convergent validity the average variance extracted (AVE) should be above .50. For discriminant validity, cross loadings should be checked at indicator level to see whether the individual loadings of all indicators are higher with the assigned than with all other variables in the model. And last, discriminant validity can be assessed by using the Fornell-Larcker criterion, which shows whether a latent variable shares more variance with its own indicators than with any other latent variable in the model. In this case, all tests suggest good validity of the reflective measurement model.

For the formative constructs of the functional, normative and aesthetic dimension, different criteria have to be used to evaluate the results (Chin 2010). The whole finalized set of indicators was applied, since it is, in its entirety, conceptually connected to the content specification of the respective constructs, and thus item selection for purposes of increasing reliability is inappropriate (Bollen, Lennox 1991). For formative measures, results can be assessed based on indicator weights, indicator relevance and external validity (Diamantopoulos, Winklhofer 2001).

Table 14. Indicator loadings, Chronbach's alpha, Dillon-Goldstein's rho, and AVE

<i>Emotional dimension</i>	Loadings	T-values
Country fascination	.92	71.53**
Emotional appeal for the country	.89	68.13**
Country attractiveness	.95	79.49**
Cronbach's alpha	.79	
Dillon-Goldstein's rho	.88	
AVE	.72	

Significance: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

First, indicator weights are looked at (see **Table 15**). The weights are considered significant if t-values are above 1.96 (with an error probability at 5%). Given the number of significant indicators, the theoretically postulated relationship between the indicators and the latent variables is only partially supported by the data. The weights themselves indicate that, on the level of the functional dimension, four important factors constitute the overall evaluation of the country's competences and competitiveness in the analyzed group of Swiss citizens: *quality of products and services* explains most of the variance of the latent dimension, followed by the factors of *political stability* and *functionality of the infrastructure* and *innovativeness of science and research* country. Regarding the normative dimension of the country, the *strength of civil rights* was identified as the one central factor in constituting this level of judgment for Swiss citizens. The dimension comprising the aesthetic judgment of the country is formed by three factors, of which the *national culinary* is the most important followed by *cultural goods and artifacts* as well as *traditions and customs*.

Table 15. Indicator weights of the formative measures

	Weights	T-values
Functional dimension		
Economical innovativeness	.16	1.2
Quality of products and services	.25	2.8*
Competence of national businesses	.10	0.8

Prosperity and wealth	.17	1.3
Economic strength of country	-.00	0.0
Labor markets	.01	0.0
Competences of political leadership	.02	0.1
Political stability	.18	2.1*
Infrastructure	.16	2.7*
Innovativeness in Science	.11	2.0*
Educational opportunities	.10	1.5
Level of education	.00	0.1
Normative dimension		
Environmental protection	.20	1.3
International social responsibility	.00	0.1
Respect for other nations	-.00	0.1
Civil rights	.14	2.1*
Fairness of international economic and trade policy	.01	1.0
Aesthetic dimension		
Cultural goods	.36	2.4*
Culinary	.41	2.8*
History and customs	.23	2.1*
Landscapes and scenery	.00	0.1

Significance: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

Following the assessment of the indicator weights, indicator relevance has to be evaluated. This is done by looking for multi-collinearity among the cognitive dimensions, which is central due to the fact that the formative measurement models are based on multiple regression (ibid.). For this evaluation the variance inflation factor (VIF) is calculated (see **Table 16**). The resulting values for each of the three cognitive dimensions suggest that multi-collinearity isn't a problem in the dataset since all meet the threshold criteria of being close to one and well under 10 (Kleinbaum et

al. 2008). It can be concluded that the individual indicators in the model do not correlate to a degree that would cause concern.

Table 16. Variance inflation factor (VIF) of individual dimensions

	<i>Functional dimension</i>	<i>Normative dimension</i>	<i>Aesthetic dimension</i>
VIF	1.3	1.8	1.4

As a last step in the evaluation of the measurement model, integrating a summary item in the survey for each of the formative constructs is recommended (Diamantopoulos, Winklhofer 2001). This allows for the assessment of external validity by controlling whether the formative indicators of the construct are significantly and positively correlated with this one manifest variable (see **Table 17**). In the two constructs of the normative and aesthetic dimensions all items are significantly and positively correlated with the respective summary item for the dimensions substantiating external validity of both of these formative constructs. Looking at the functional dimension we see that the majority of the items can support external validity of the construct.

Table 17. Correlation between indicators and summary items

	Coefficients
Functional dimension	
Country innovativeness	.11*
National products and services	.35*
Competence of national businesses	.23*
National prosperity and wealth	.13*
Economic strength of country	.15*
Labor markets	.04
Competences of political leadership	.38*
Political stability	.41*
Infrastructure	.22*
Innovativeness in Research	.24*
Educational opportunities	.09

Level of education	.10
Normative dimension	
Environmental protection	.19*
International social responsibility	.35*
Respect for other nations	.33*
Civil rights	.20*
Fairness of international economic and trade policy	.10
Aesthetic dimension	
Cultural goods	.41*
Culinary	.33*
History and tradition	.34*
Landscapes and scenery	.19*

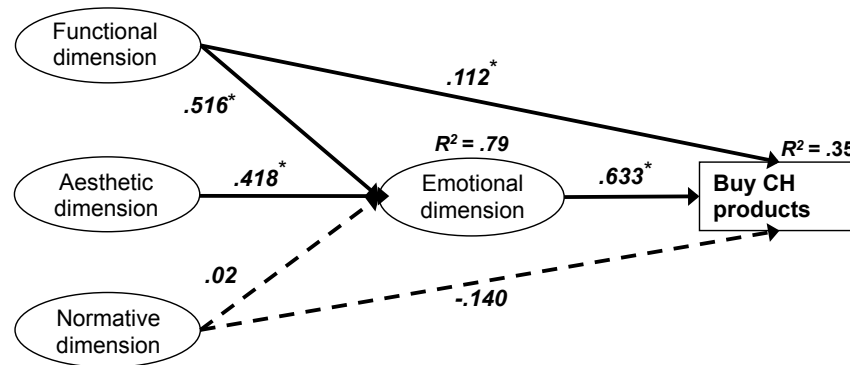
Significance: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

5.4.2 Structural relationships

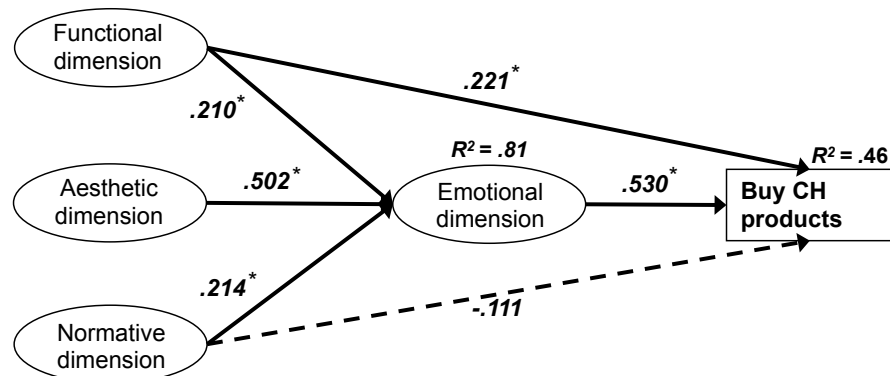
Subsequent to the evaluation of the reflective and formative measurement models—as shown in the above section—the structural (inner) model needs to be subjected to analysis. Inner model results are summarized in Figure 14 and Figure 15 for the constructs of country identity and image, the hypothesized interrelations of dimensions and the target variable of purchase intention. Results for both constructs (image and identity) show that the model is able to explain very well the endogenous variables: while the emotional dimension is explained with around 80% in both cases, the conative goal variable attains 35% (identity) and 46% (image) explained variance. In the case of the *country identity*, all but two of the path coefficients are significant at $p = .50$. Here the strongest effect is present in the path linking the emotional dimension with the conative variable. There is also a strong effect from the aesthetic dimension onto the emotional dimension, which is consistent with hypothesis 3. Furthermore, while the functional variable's direct effect on the facilitation of the

emotional dimension is fairly strong, its direct effect on the conative variable, though significant, is very weak. Lastly, only the construct of the normative dimension could not be substantiated as a relevant part of the model in the case of country identity (rejecting both H3 and H6)

Figure 14. Path model results – country identity and behavioral intention



Furthermore, in case of the *country image*, all but one of the path coefficients are significant at $p = .50$. Here, the strongest effect is also in the path linking the mediating variable of the emotional dimension and the conative variable of intention to buy Swiss products (H5). Also there is a manifest effect from the aesthetic dimension onto the emotional dimension (H3). The effect of the normative dimension on the emotional dimension is only slightly stronger than the direct effect of the functional dimension onto the emotional dimension. Even though both of these effects aren't particularly strong, they shouldn't be neglected since they show that, apart from aesthetic judgments, the emotional appeal of a country is caused by functional and normative judgments. As the only path, H6 has to be rejected in this model. This is in line with results from a similar model applied to measure corporate reputation (Ingenhoff, Sommer 2010). The normative dimension's effect, however, just like the aesthetic dimension, is fully mediated by the emotional appeal dimension, while the functional dimension also shows a direct effect onto the conative variable of travel behavior.

Figure 15. Path model results – country image and behavioral intention

5.5 Conclusion

Both country image and identity are central target constructs in international public relations and public diplomacy. In this chapter we applied an integrative perspective in order to combine a recent model from reputation management with attitude theory as well as with conceptual insights on national identity to derive the new 4D Model of the country image and identity. In this model both constructs are defined as attitudes towards a nation and its state, comprising specific beliefs and general feelings in a functional, a normative, an aesthetic and a emotional dimension. While functional, normative and aesthetic judgments constitute the cognitive component, the emotional dimension constitutes the affective component of these attitudinal constructs. Based on the *Standard Learning Hierarchy*, this latter dimension is also seen as the dependent outcome of country cognitions: specific beliefs about a country's competences, values and norms as well as attractiveness as a cultural and scenic place affect the formation of general feelings of fascination and emotional appeal for that country. To clarify the ways in which this model can be operationalized for measurement, we specifically addressed the issue of the epistemic structure, leading to the conclusion that—despite common use of reflective constructs—the cognitive dimensions should be specified in a formative manner.

To analyze the constitution and effects of both constructs, the 4D Model was integrated in a path model based on the *Theory of Reasoned Action*, thus linking the constructs with a dependent conative variable. For a first empirical test of the new model, it was applied in a study on the constitution of the country image and identity of Switzerland and its effect on the intention to buy Swiss products. It was possible to show that both country image and identity can in fact be measured as a four-factorial construct. In the case of the country image, results demonstrate that the functional, the normative and the aesthetic image dimensions relevantly affect the affective image component of the emotional dimension. Furthermore, these results support the mediating role of the emotional dimension in the country image's effect on intended behavior. In the case of the country identity, the hypothesized role of the normative dimension within the model could not be supported. Even though these results are tentative due to the restrictiveness of the samples, these results could hint that for the country identity, cognitive judgments of the home country's social relations within the international context are marginal compared to their role when a country is judged 'from the outside' by foreign publics.

The chapter contributes to public relations research by presenting a new integrative model of the constitution and effects of country image and identity, showing how this model can be applied by using PLS structural equation modeling, and giving first empirical evidence of the constitution and effects of different country image and identity dimensions. Additionally, this study is the first to operationalize cognitive and affective dimensions of the country image and identity by combining formative and reflective indicators in a mixed specified model.

In future research, the developed model should be applied in other contexts, using different countries as target objects and different foreign and domestic groups (and sub-groups) as analyzed target audiences; of course, representative samples would be very desirable to further advance reliable and valid measures based on the proposed model. Due to its theoretical grounding based on concepts from reputation management, attitude theory and national identity theory, the model is well designed for comparative analyses of the images of different countries and it can be

applied in the context of different groups like foreign investors, politicians, political publics, tourists, journalists or skilled workers. Regardless of the generality of the conceptualized 4D Model and its basic country image dimensions, the individual formative variables that make up the cognitive component of the construct will, of course, vary according to context and should be operationalized specifically regarding a given group. Furthermore, in the line of research conducted by Oh and Ramaprasad (2003) the 4D Model can be applied in analyzing image transfer and halo effects between multinational corporations and their country of origin, specifically clarifying the strengths of image transfer effects on the level of the different image dimensions of the 4D Model. Building on research on the influence of normative concepts like ‘consumer nationalism’ (Wang 2005), the 4D Model can be further applied to analyze the influence of these normative concepts on the image of countries as well as on the image transfer between country and corporate image.

6 Conclusion

6.1 Summary

The country image is an important target construct in international public relations and public diplomacy. Under the conditions of a globalized world and the spread of modern media societies a country's image is becoming more important compared to territory access and raw materials when it comes to the cultural, economic, and political competitiveness of nation-states in the international system (Nye 2004; Gilboa 2008).

While other research domains, such as marketing and social psychology, have devoted some attention to the constitution and effects of country images from their field perspective, in public relations and public diplomacy research there is no widely accepted conceptual model and measurement instrument available. Much like the seminal works of e.g. Michael Kunczik (1997) or Joseph Nye (2004), many of the studies available in the domain of international public relations and public diplomacy research that touch on the construct of the country image have a rather conceptual or historical focus. Until now it has remained an open question, how the available concepts from other domains may be gainfully combined to derive, specify, and operationalize a comprehensive model of the country image suitable for analyses in international public relations and public diplomacy. Such a specific model and instrument is needed, however, to clarify the constitution of this central target construct in international public relations and public diplomacy and understand how its different dimensions interrelate and affect each other and how they ultimately lead to the facilitation of favorable stakeholder behavior.

Applying the analytical meso-perspective, the present study combines extant approaches from national identity theory, attitude theory, and reputation management to derive an integrative four-dimensional model (4D Model) of the country image as a subjective stakeholder attitude to-

wards a nation and its state, comprising specific beliefs and general feelings in a functional, a normative, an aesthetic and an emotional dimension.

Furthermore, the work advances the debate on methods in the field by introducing variance-based structural equation modeling as a suitable approach to analyzing effects between different latent/emergent country image dimensions and behavioral intentions. In reviewing general properties of the method and showing its complementary nature to the covariance-based SEM approach, the study provides central arguments that encourage the method's application in specific empirical contexts and for particular research objectives in international public relations and public diplomacy research. Specifically it was demonstrated how the approach facilitates work with mixed-specified (formative and reflective) constructs, predictive research settings, and comparatively large sets of item variables.

Subsequently, both model and method are empirically applied in two sets of studies, which, due to the novelty of the model, serve the development and testing of a new measurement instrument. The latter is developed successively through semi-structured interviews, expert interviews, and item sorting tasks and is then tested and validated by means of three standardized surveys in Switzerland and Germany.

The results retrieved in this study support the proposed model and underscore the value of measuring the country image as a four-factorial construct in international public relations and public diplomacy, comprising both cognitive and affective dimensions. The results a) demonstrate how functional, normative and aesthetic country image dimensions vary in affecting the formation of the affective country image component and b) support the mediating role of the affective component in the country image's effect on stakeholder behavior.

6.2 Originality and value

6.2.1 Theoretical advances and implications

It has been argued that conceptual models to analyze and compare the constitution and effects of country images in different groups and contexts are rare. Most existing models lack theoretical foundations, cannot be applied to different countries or the comparative analysis of country images in different groups, often fail in comprehensively capturing all relevant dimensions and refrain from clarifying the internal structure of the construct. Additionally, there is a segregation of research on country images between the different disciplinary perspectives and a need for integrative studies that can merge the available knowledge across the various fields (see chapter 2).

The present study is the first to provide a synoptical and interdisciplinary review of advances in conceptualizing country images in business studies/marketing, social psychology, political science, and communication science and show how available knowledge from these fields can be consolidated. The subsequently proposed terminological framework of country image, country reputation, country identity, and country brand—which draws on the common meso-perspective in communication management—provides a new platform from which existing research from different domains can be integrated so as to advance the state of the art in researching the constitution and effects of country images in international public relations and public diplomacy.

Starting from this general terminological framework, the study is also the first to combine concepts from national identity theory, attitude theory and reputation management in order to derive an integrative four-dimensional model of the country image. Other than most models which have been transferred from neighboring domains the 4D Model comprises both cognitive and affective components and clarifies the internal relations of the construct's dimensions: While functional, normative and aesthetic judgments constitute the cognitive component, the emotional dimension

constitutes the affective component of the country image and is seen as the dependent outcome of country cognitions.

Due to its integrative character, the model provides a versatile conceptual basis for a variety of further research questions in international public relations and public diplomacy research. By suggesting a common terminological framework for the different disciplinary domains, this work also provides a valuable basis for further integrative studies involving concepts of country image, country reputation, country brand, and country identity.

Two of these possible pathways have been demonstrated in chapters 4 and 5. First, the model's generality allows for analyses of different countries' images in different publics or stakeholder groups. Specifically, through the link to national identity theory, this includes analyses to clarify discrepancies between country self-perceptions (country identity) on the one hand and the external perceptions (country image) of foreign publics on the other.

Second, the conceptual link to attitude theory allows for the specification of the country image as an antecedent of conative variables. Thus, the 4D Model can be applied in analyses of the effects of the country image on behavior. Including variables on intended behavior regarding political support, travel or investment practices helps to better understand the specific economic, cultural or political implications of the construct. Combined with a comparative perspective on different groups, such analyses deliver important insights on relevant differences in how the four country image dimensions influence the behavior of central stakeholder groups such as politicians or investors.

6.2.2 Advances and implications in measures

It has been argued that many of the studies available in the domain of international public relations and public diplomacy research that touch on the construct of the country image have a strong conceptual or historical focus. Other than works in neighboring disciplines, such as marketing (e.g.

Desborde 1990; Martin, Eroglu 1993; Nebenzahl, Jaffe 1996) or branding (Jaffe, Nebenzahl 2001: e.g.), where the development of country image measures is more central, few researchers in international public relations and public diplomacy produce their own conceptually based instruments.

The present study is the first to operationalize an integrative instrument for measuring country images in international public relations and public diplomacy. The study takes up recent advances from the discourse on measures in the fields of reputation management and marketing and transfers them to measures of the country image. As a result, the work proposes a first mixed-specified model using both formative and reflective specification for measuring the country image.

6.2.3 Methodological advances and implications

It has been argued that innovating new models for analyzing the constitution and effects of country images in international public relations and public diplomacy can involve particular challenges such as limited a priori theoretical information, high numbers of variables, or the necessity of mixed-specified formative/reflective instruments. For the first time in the context of international public relations and public diplomacy research, this study provides an extensive discussion of the potential and challenges of variance-based structural equation modeling as a statistical method to handle these challenges. Furthermore, this discussion is complemented by a broad empirical application of the method which demonstrates in detail the specifics of formative and reflective measurement model evaluation as well as structural model evaluation (see chapter 3). As such, the study adds to the recent discussion on methods in public relations and shows how the variance-based approach can be applied to assess effects within networks of multiple latent/emergent constructs and produce important knowledge about specific ‘value drivers’, helping researchers understand image dimensions in a more sophisticated way.

6.2.4 Advances and implications for IPR and PD practice

The complex relation between research and practice in public relations and the role of social scientific knowledge for the ‘real world’ of PR are issues of an ongoing debate in the field (e.g. Femers 2009; Grunig, White 1992; Ihlen, Ruler 2007; Avenarius, Armbrecht 1992). In today’s research environment, however, the coarse distinction between basic (scientific) research, applied research, and reflexive research (Signitzer 1988) does not hold up any more in some cases. This is also true in the case of this study. Though—like any scientific research program (Jarren, Wessler 2002: 20 f.)—it has a descriptive and explanatory focus and cannot provide direct and clear-cut answers for common questions in IPR and PD practice, there is certainly a clear area of possible transfer and stimulation. Mainly this concerns those aspects of the study that deal explicitly with questions of evaluation in the wider area of strategic communication and IPR and PD specifically.

In any strategic communication practice, evaluation constitutes a cornerstone in the overall process of initiating, designing, and implementing communication strategies, and it guides conduct within the whole practical framework between the input and outflow level of communication (Watson, Noble 2007). Other than in research, where evaluative methods and measures of the country image help to develop a systematic understanding of the constitution of country images and their effects on people’s behavior, IPR and PD practice can use these measures as an evaluative and interpretative basis for the development and implementation of cross-national communication strategies (Banks 2011). In chapters 3, 4, and 5, such possibilities for application can become apparent because it is demonstrated how the conceptual and methodological approach of the study can serve to produce knowledge about specific ‘value drivers’ in practical contexts of international public relations and public diplomacy. This may help strategic communicators address, measure, and monitor their stakeholders’ attitudes, expectations, and needs.

6.3 Limitations

Though not entirely separable, the limitations of this study can best be made explicit by addressing the *theoretical framework and model* and the *empirical approach* one by one. In addition to the above assessments of the originality and value, both of these levels of discussion are necessary to adequately contextualize the presented research program and give a fully adequate picture of the overall contribution.

6.3.1 Theoretical framework

From a theoretical standpoint, we can identify three basic limitations that relate to the underlying assumptions behind the developed country image dimensions and the integration of theory used to specify these dimensions and their structural relations.

First, the model builds on a particular hierarchy of effect between cognition, affect, and conation, which is derived from the model of the ‘standard learning hierarchy’ in attitude formation and its effect on behavior as proposed by the theory of reasoned action. This hierarchy of effects assumes a somewhat rational process in which what we know about an object (in this case a country) affects how we feel towards this object. This effect is commonly seen as the ‘normal case’ of the constitution of attitudes (Pelsmacker et al. 2013) and widely used as the basic assumption for the analysis of country images (Bloemer et al. 2009). As noted in chapters four and five, however, this hierarchy of effects can vary according to context, such as, e.g., personal preferences or situational cues (see also Ajzen 2001). When we consider the possibility of such contextual variations, we become aware of a limitation of the study that is rooted in the above assumption of the hierarchical effect: In adhering to this hierarchy, the model shows a certain degree of rigidity in terms of the empirical real-world situation in which personal preferences and situational cues are in constant flux. This limitation becomes manifest in combination with the chosen survey approach, in which such varying contexts cannot be controlled.

Second, next to the attitudinal component mentioned above, the 4D Model combines knowledge from national identity theory (Smith 1991) and established multi-dimensional models of organizational image and reputation (Ingenhoff, Sommer 2010) (see chapter 2). As such, it was possible to enrich the conceptual process of image model building by introducing a holistic approach to national identity and consolidating this systematization of common ‘country attributes’ with the universal dimensions of judgment applied in reputation management. Though this theoretical discussion made it possible to identify distinct country image components that are commonly left unattended in extant models, it also brought about an inherent theoretical incommensurability, since both theoretical approaches address the construction of the image object (the country) at different levels: While Smith’s ethno-symbolist concept speaks of common or historically generalizable *attributes* (e.g. in terms of national values, economy, history etc.) of the nation-state, Ingenhoff and Sommer address the image/reputation object through a system of generalizable image dimensions as (cognitive and affective) *forms of judgment*. As such, the ‘matching’ of certain country attributes with certain country image dimensions (e.g., matching the homeland/territory attributes with the aesthetic country image dimension) remains a choice of the researcher and thus, to some degree, a conceptual prescription that may overwrite some extant empirical realities. To give an example: An individual with a strong professional and personal interest in agriculture may build a country image by matching the attribute of the natural *territory* of a country with a *functional* form of judgment, not an aesthetic one. Though, as we argue above, this difficulty arises from different levels of argumentation in the two lines of theory integrated by the model, the resulting limitations for this study are minor. This is because—in the operationalization of the 4D Model—items are developed strictly on the level of different rationales of judgment. Referring back to the hypothetical example of the ‘agriculturalist individual’, these items will capture the individual’s functional attitudes towards the country (i.e., its territory) through items addressing the competitiveness of the economy of that country (of which, of course, the primary sector is an inherent part). Nonetheless, the above discussion shows and characterizes some apparent terminological friction that emerged from the effort of integrating different lines of theory in the development of the 4D Model.

Third, through integrating and consolidating different conceptual models on attitude, national identity, and image/reputation the study arrived at a general model that goes beyond the particular focus of extant models in, e.g., marketing or social psychology to serve the more general research interests in international public relations and public diplomacy. As with any theoretical approach, however, this model has an inherent limitation of its generalizability, which is related to its most basic axiomatic assumptions. Specifically, this model—with its differentiation of functional, normative, aesthetic, and affective dimensions as separate forms of judgment—assumes a particular modern rational worldview and modern forms of consciousness which are common in social scientific research (for an in-depth discussion see, e.g., Habermas 1984b: 75–142). This means that in its analytical potential the model is limited to contexts where this worldview can be seen as serving as the prevalent paradigm. Wherever non-modern, mystical or religious/metaphysical forms of thought prevail, we cannot assume the applied forms of judgment to constitute the best or even a valid systematization. Practically this means that applications of the 4D Model would need to be particularly cautious in these research settings. Examples would be applications in content analyses of pre-modern texts (such as, e.g. to analyze the country image of Egypt in the historical workings of Herodotus) or surveys among members of possibly non-modern groups as, e.g., particular tribal or fundamentalist groups.

6.3.2 Empirical approach

In order to address the limitations of the empirical approach, we shall discuss two basic levels. The first concerns the ‘specific procedure’, i.e. the particular course taken in this study, that is: the measures, the data situation, the statistical tools etc. The other concerns the ‘general approach’, that is: the general social-scientific empirical procedure adhered to in this project.

First, in terms of the *specific procedure*, the main limitation of this study concerns the data situation. While the focus of this project was on the theoretical development, operationalization and first empirical application and testing of the new model, the non-representative samples used in

two of the studies (see chapters 4 and 5) pose the most significant limitation of this project in terms of empirics. Though it was not the proposed aim of this study to achieve validation within a representative setting, such an application would certainly be desirable as a next step (see 6.4).

Second, limitations are not only tied to the particular empirical procedures applied within the research program but, more fundamentally, to the general social-scientific empirical *approach*. Like in any such study, these limitations are tied to the implicit assumptions behind the specific procedures of social scientific measurement in empirical research programs (Cicourel 1964). In the case of this study, they relate to the reliance on survey instruments and specifically to the respective measurement of attitudes and behavioral intention. The general limitation here is that people do not always say what they really think or behave in ways that reflect their underlying attitudes (Ajzen, Fishbein 1980; see also Fazio, Olson 2003). Therefore, inferring underlying attitudes from expressed attitudes or overt behavior may always be unreliable.

6.4 Outlook and future directions

The possible areas of application of a new theoretical and methodological approach as it has been developed in this project are highly versatile. First of all, as with any new model, it is desirable to approach further options for application that involve representative samples (Possible pathways for such applications have already been laid out above at the end of chapter 2 and needn't be repeated here). This would provide further validation to the model and instrument. Respectively, it is also desirable at one point to shift to a covariance-based method in the phase of data analysis to test the model in a strictly confirmatory setting. This, however, would necessitate statistical procedures that can handle covariance-based SEM with exogenous formative variables as they are proposed by the model above. However, as Ringle, et al. (2009) show in a Monte Carlo Simulation study, CB-SEM can still perform poorly in this situation in terms of accuracy and robustness.

Apart from a rather general call for application in representative settings for further validation, three specific areas of application can be envisioned in the context of current international public relations and public diplomacy research that shall be elaborated below.

6.4.1 The effects of country images on behavior and the role of norms

As demonstrated in this study, country images can be measured and analyzed as attitudinal constructs. Effects of the image are then assessed by analyzing how these attitudes affect different behavioral variables like the intention to buy products from a country, travel to a country, political support a country, invest or work in a country. The country image has been analyzed as an important predictor of how people act towards a country. But the constitution and effects of country images can of course be seen in an even wider context than the specific attitude-behavior-relationships analyzed in this project. As an attitudinal construct, the country image is not the sole antecedent of behavior.

According to the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein, Ajzen 1975), intended behavior is affected not only by a person's attitude but also by his/her subjective norms. For example, a person's behavior regarding foreign investment does not only depend on this person's attitude towards a respective country but also on normative predispositions as antecedents of this type of behavior. This would mean that a person with, e.g., a high degree of ethnocentrism may decide not to invest in a neighboring country, even though according to his/her functional judgments, that country's economy rates exceptionally high. To understand the importance of country images in affecting people's behavior regarding travel, consumption, political support, investment and work, these effects have to be understood in *relation* to the effects of subjective norms. But the different magnitude to which country images and subjective norms affect people's behavior is still largely unknown. Thus, like Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009), we still see a need for research that shows the joint as well as the separate impact of the country image on the one hand and subjective norms on the other hand on behavioral variables.

6.4.2 Comparative analyses of country images at the level of different groups

Different groups tend to construct different images about social entities (Ingenhoff, Sommer 2010). Domestic publics (in-groups) and foreign publics (out-groups), but also interest-bound publics like tourists and business travelers or foreign journalists, form their country images under different conditions which will most likely affect the formation of the country image and its relevance for behavioral variables.

In the various fields of research on country images, different groups are focused upon to study the effects of country images: Works in business studies and marketing, for instance, often focus on tourists and consumers, while works in communication science stress the importance of foreign journalists. Furthermore, works in public diplomacy generally focus on foreign publics. A similar focus exists in intergroup relations: Here, the interest in differences among ‘in-groups’ (i.e. domestic publics) and ‘out-groups’ (foreign publics) leads to a focus on the level of a country’s population. When considering the constitution and effects of country images and its confounding factors, comparative insights into these different levels of groups are of particular interest since ‘in-groups’ and ‘out-groups’ construct country images quite differently. Furthermore, taking the group of tourists and business travelers into consideration—i.e. people that have already been to a respective country (either for leisure or professionally)—gives additional depth to comparative analyses of the constitution and effects of country images considering the degree of people’s first-hand experience in a country. Lastly, since the mass media is the main source of information on foreign countries, the group of journalists plays a key role in the overall constitution of country images in the international system (Marten 1989).

Drawing on concepts from business studies, Pasquier et al. (2009) have conducted non-representative studies on the country image taking a comparative view on the different groups of politicians, journalists, managers, and students. These works indicate that there are relevant differences in the constitution of the country image between these groups. Future research needs to fur-

ther elaborate on such group-level analyses: First, since Pasquier et al.—like most scholars following a business studies approach—analyze the country image as a cognitive construct, the approach does not include affective components in the comparative analysis of different groups. Second, since Pasquier et al. focus on the constitution of the image alone, a comparative analysis of the country image's effects on the behavior of different groups (also relative to subjective norms, see above) is left out of scope. Third, besides covering e.g. tourists and journalists, the group-focus in research on country images needs to be expanded to include domestic publics (in-group) on the one hand and foreign publics (out-group) on the other hand.

6.4.3 Understanding image transfer in crises

In the field of international public relations and public diplomacy more attention has recently been paid to the complex relations between the country and sub-country actors (such as corporations, agencies or other organizations), specifically in cases of crises (White 2014, 2012; Wang 2006a; Buhmann, Ingenhoff 2013; Ingenhoff, Buhmann 2015b).

It is commonly accepted that corporate crises can significantly damage a corporation's reputation (Coombs 2007; Thiessen, Ingenhoff 2011). But when it comes to very large corporations, it is not just the corporation's reputation that is at stake: critical actions of these large players attract global media attention and significantly influence how their home country is perceived abroad (Gotsi et al. 2011). As such, these actors can critically influence opinions and attitudes in foreign countries, which, in consequence, has a far-reaching effect on international political and economic relations (c.f. Gilboa 2008; Ingenhoff, Ruehl 2013; Melissen 2005; Nye 2008; Signitzer, Wamser 2006; Zaharna 2000). The extent to which globally visible corporations can become a reputational threat for their home country has recently become evident in the case of Switzerland: The involvement of large Swiss banks in international tax fraud or the unethical business practices of the Swiss-based organizations such as *Glencore*, *FIFA*, or *Nestlé* not only raised strong international media attention, but the conduct of these entities is being judged by journalists, politicians,

and publics as damaging Switzerland's good esteem abroad. Especially for smaller countries that cannot heavily rely on political and economical power to defend national interests in a global context, the 'soft good' of their esteem plays a central roll in its long-term political, economic, and cultural success (Werron 2014).

In future research on image transfer in crises, two aspects are of primary interest: First, country image and image transfer need to be understood by analyzing variations of *actor associations*: Since countries are complex macro entities, the way in which sub-country entities such as corporations are associated with their home country can vary greatly, leading to varying effects in processes of crisis attribution. Second, research on country image and image transfer needs to consider 'buffer effects': The image which a country has prior to a crisis situation may act as an important 'buffer' for how severely a country suffers the 'reputational fallout' when a sub-country entity is publicly accused of misconduct.

Image transfer and actor associations in crises

Countries are highly complex and diverse macro entities. Their high diversity poses significant challenges for international public relations and public diplomacy research when it comes to understanding the role of (strategic and non-strategic) communication in the formation and effects of country images and the cultivation of beneficial relations in the international system (Fan 2006; Kunczik 1997; Volcic 2008; Wang 2006a, 2008). Due to this complexity, the way in which a country is constructed as a 'social object' can vary strongly: not only do different countries relate to quite dissimilar properties for constructing them as coherent objects, but people's perceptions of these social objects also vary depending on the focus of the perceiver as well as the context factors of specific situations (Lickel et al. 2000). The "sheer amount and variety of associations that a nation may produce" (Fan 2006: 9) poses manifest challenges in applying strategic communication and branding strategies for 'national image management' (Wang, 2006a) and leads to complex interrelations and transfer effects between images of countries and images of sub-country entities

such as domestic companies, products, and brands (Gotsi et al. 2011; Newburry 2012; Oh, Ramaprasad 2003; Wang 2006a; White 2014, 2012). In international public relations and public diplomacy research, however, this has so far remained a theoretical realization and has not led to the development and specification of an empirically applicable concept for analyzing differences in country-level actor associations.

An integration of an empirically applicable concept of constructing actor associations has recently been proposed by Buhmann and Ingenhoff (2015c) on the basis of extant research on the perception of collective entities (c.f. Campbell 1958; Lickel et al. 2000). Here, the degree to which complex social entities are constructed as coherent objects is defined as the respective social objects' *entitativity*. The construct of entitativity is commonly conceptualized as being based on two interrelated components: the ascription of common *surface-level attributes* (called "phenotypic entitativity") as well as common *inner qualities* (called "genotypic entitativity") (e.g. Brewer et al. 2004; Yzerbyt et al. 2001).

According to this approach, the degree to which a country together with its sub-country entities is constructed as a 'uniform entity' will affect how people process information in the case of crises: This applies, e.g., to the degree of organization in the cognitive formation of impressions, the drawing of inferences regarding core characteristics of the entity, the expectance of consistency in its traits and actions, and the need to resolve perceived inconsistencies (Hamilton, Sherman 1996). Recent research suggests, for instance, that the higher the perceived entitativity, the more readily and spontaneously do people transfer knowledge or inferred traits between entities/sub-entities and make implicit comparisons between them (Crawford et al. 2002; Pickett 2001; Pickett, Perrott 2004). Thus, in contexts in which a country is constructed as a highly entitative object, the country and its different sub-country entities may become "interchangeable for the perceiver" (Hamilton 2007: 1088). As such, entitativity can impact dynamics of image transfer between a country and its domestic corporations and national brands. In consequence, constructions of country entitativity become relevant in the case of crises of sub-country entities because entitativity also

affects ascriptions of collective responsibility. Lickel et al. (2003), for instance, show that if perceived entitativity is high, sub-entities are held collectively responsible for an act of wrong-doing that may have only been committed by one particular sub-unit. This happens because when entitativity of an entity is high, stakeholders tend to assume that other members of the greater collective should have had the capacity to prevent the wrongdoing, or they suspect them of being sympathetic to the act.

Buffer-effects of country images in crises

The country image can be expected to serve as an important ‘buffer’ for how severely a country suffers the ‘reputational fallout’ when a sub-country entity is publicly accused of misconduct (Matyassy, Flury 2011). The relation between country images and crises has recently attracted strong attention in international public relations and public diplomacy research (Avraham, Ketter 2008; Chua, Pang 2012; Dai, Chen 2014; Peijuan et al. 2009; Santana 2004; Wang 2005). However, these recent efforts remain entirely qualitative and conceptual. So far, there is no significant evidence on how the country image may protect a country from reputational fallout in the case of crises.

The widely applied Situational Crisis Communication Theory (SCCT) models how stakeholders’ perceptions of organizational crises impact reputation and how appropriate crises responses can minimize reputational damage (Coombs 2010): The SCCT combines a taxonomy of different types of crises (crisis clusters) with a systematization of respective degrees of crisis attributions and reputational threats. According to the SCCT, the attribution of crisis responsibility manifests in how strongly a crisis is perceived to be caused by a respective organization’s actions. Crisis responsibility, in turn, relates directly to the type of crisis cluster. The SCCT distinguishes between three crisis types: victim crises, accidental crises, and preventable crises. In the case of preventable crises the attribution of crises responsibility is strongest (Coombs, Holladay 2002). Ultimately, if attributed responsibility is strong, the reputational impact of a crisis is most severe (Coombs,

Holladay 1996, 2001, 2002). Furthermore, since crises are always part of a wider pattern of behaviors, a central factor in how severely a crisis may affect an organization's reputation is its image/reputation *prior* to the crisis (Coombs 2004). In this sense, a positive prior image/reputation can serve as a 'buffer' (or "halo") that protects from severe reputational fallout of a crisis (Coombs, Holladay 2006). In this sense, and transferred to the context of understanding reputational fallout in the case of *countries* and the role of the country image, this provokes the question of how a positive country image can 'cushion' the severity of crisis effects for a country in case of a preventable crisis of a sub-country entity.

Endnotes

¹ This manuscript constitutes an article thesis (“thesis by publication”). The main chapters (2–5) have all previously been presented and published in the following form:

- Chapter two “Towards an integrative model of the country image” (paper title: “The 4D Model of the country image: an integrative approach from the perspective of communication management”), published in the *International Communication Gazette*, 77(1), pp. 102–124, previously presented at the Annual Conference of the *International Association of Media and Communication Research (IAMCR)* 2013, Dublin, Ireland, June 25–29.
- Chapter three: “A variance-based approach for PR evaluation” (paper title: “Applying variance-based structural equation modeling to analyze causal effects between target constructs in public relations”), presented at the Annual Conference of the *European Public Relations Education and Research Association (EUPRERA)* 2014, Brussels, Belgium, September 11–13. Currently under review for journal publication.
- Chapter four: “From model to measurement” (paper title: “Advancing the country image construct from a public relations perspective: from model to management”), published in the *Journal of Communication Management*, 19(1), pp. 62–80, previously presented at the Annual Conference of the *European Public Relations Education and Research Association (EUPRERA)* 2013, Barcelona, Spain, October 3–5.
- Chapter five: “The constitution and effects of country image and identity” (paper title: “Imagining Switzerland: applying the 4D Model in an analysis of the Swiss country image and identity”), presented at Annual Conference of the *International Communication Association (ICA)* 2014, Seattle, USA, May 22–26.

² For a complete list of the reputation items see Table 18 in the Appendix.

³ For a complete list of the country image items see Table 19 in the Appendix.

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Appendix

Table 18. List of items for measuring reputation

Functional reputation

Quality of products and services:

Price-performance ratio: The company ... offers a well-balanced price-performance ratio of its products and services.

Quality of products and services: The company ... offers high-quality products and services.

Customer value: The customer value is the most important factor of the company's ... products and services.

Economic performance:

Growth potential: The company ... has a high potential for growth.

Economic stability: the company ... shows a stable, successful performance.

Innovativeness:

Investment in R & D: The company ... invests in research and development.

Know-How: The company ... has an outstanding know-how in its industry.

Personal competence of executives:

CEO-competence: The company ... is represented by a qualified leadership figure.

Top-management team competence: The company ... has a qualified top-management team.

Management quality:

Strategic decisions: The top-management of the company ... reaches convincing decisions.

Vision for future: the company's ... top-management has a clear vision for future.

National significance:

Role as employer: The company ... is an important employer in....

Path-breaking in industry: The company ... is path-breaking in ... industry.

Social reputation

Social engagement: The company ... gets involved with society.

Social responsibility: The company ... is concerned about its responsibility as major enterprise.

Environmental engagement: The company ... is actively involved in environmental concerns.

Resource-friendly: The company ... has a resource-friendly strategy.

Welfare of employees: The company ... cares about the welfare of its employees.

Affective-Expressive reputation

Emotional appeal: The company ... seems likeable.

Enthusiasm for corporate brand: I am enthused about the company's brand.

Attractiveness/ Fascination of products: the products of ... are fascinating.

Table 19. List of items for measuring the country image

Item <i>Translations provided for items that ended up in the final instrument.</i>	Dimension	Specification / type	Tests		
			Expert inter- views	Sub- stantive validity test	Final instru- ment
Die Wirtschaft von [Land] ist hoch innovativ und zukunftsfähig. <i>This country's economy is highly innovative and fit for the future.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] hat einen sehr gut entwickelten industri- ellen Sektor.	Functional	Formative	X		
[Land] hat eine sehr profitable Wirtschaft.	Functional	Formative	X		
Die Wirtschaft von [Land] ist finanziell ausge- sprochen gesund.	Functional	Formative	X		
[Land] hat eine auf den internationalen Märkten sehr erfolgreiche Wirtschaft.	Functional	Formative	X		
Aus [Land] kommen qualitativ sehr hochwertige Produkte und Dienstleistungen. <i>This country produces very high quality goods and services.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X
Die Mehrzahl der Unternehmen in [Land] werden sehr erfolgreich gemanaged.	Functional	Formative	X		
[Land] hat sehr kompetente Unternehmen und Unternehmer. <i>This country has highly competent entrepre- neurs.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X
Der Wohlstand in [Land] ist sehr hoch. <i>This country is very wealthy.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] steht für fortschrittliche Technologien. <i>This country is technologically highly advan- ced.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X

Item <i>Translations provided for items that ended up in the final instrument.</i>	Dimension	Specification / type	Tests		
			Expert inter-views	Sub-stantive validity test	Final instru-ment
[Land] hat eine starke Position in der globalen Wirtschaft. <i>This country holds a strong position in the global economy.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X
Der Arbeitsmarkt des Landes hat sehr gutausgebildete (kompetente) Arbeitskräfte. <i>The labor markets in this country are equipped with highly competent people.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] hat eine international sehr einflussreiche Kultur. <i>This country has a globally influential culture.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X
Sportler und Sportmannschaften dieses Landes sind international sehr erfolgreich. <i>Athletes and sports teams from this country are internationally known for their success.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] verfügt über eine sehr Kompetente politische Führung. <i>Competent political officials govern the country.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] steht für sehr erfolgreiche politische Strategien.	Functional	Formative	X		
[Land] kann Krisen sehr gut bewältigen.	Functional	Formative	X		
[Land] hat ein ausgesprochen stabiles politisches System. <i>This country has a very stable political system.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X

Item <i>Translations provided for items that ended up in the final instrument.</i>	Dimension	Specification / type	Tests		
			Expert interviews	Substantive validity test	Final instrument
[Land] hat eine sehr gut funktionierende Infrastruktur. <i>This country has a well-functioning infrastructure.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] hat sehr gut funktionierende Sozialsysteme (z.B. Gesundheit, Altersvorsorge, etc.). <i>This country provides well-functioning welfare systems and pension plans</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X
In [Land] wird sehr gut für die Sicherheit der Menschen gesorgt. <i>This country provides for the safety of citizens and visitors.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	
[Land] steht für äußerst innovative Wissenschaft und Forschung. <i>This country is highly innovative in science and research.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] bietet sehr gute Aus- und Weiterbildungsmöglichkeiten. <i>This country supplies great possibilities for education.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] hat ein allgemein sehr hohes Bildungsniveau. <i>The level of education in this country is very high.</i>	Functional	Formative	X	X	X

Item <i>Translations provided for items that ended up in the final instrument.</i>	Dimension	Specification / type	Tests		
			Expert interviews	Substantive validity test	Final instrument
[Land] setzt sich aktiv für den Umweltschutz ein. <i>This country is very active in protecting the environment.</i>	Normative	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] steht für eine ausgesprochen nachhaltige und umweltgerechte Entwicklung.	Normative	Formative	X		
[Land] hat sehr hohe Standards zur Verhinderung von Umweltverschmutzung.	Normative	Formative	X		
[Land] steht für eine sehr ressourcenschonende Wirtschaftsweise.	Normative	Formative	X		
Dieses Land steht für ein konsequentes Engagement für gesellschaftliche Belange (z.B. Entwicklungshilfe, Kunst- und Kulturförderung, Einsatz für Menschenrechte etc.). <i>This country is known for its strong commitment to social issues (e.g. development aid, civil rights).</i>	Normative	Formative	X	X	X
Dieses Land steht gesellschaftlich für sehr hohe moralische Standards. <i>This country has high ethical standards.</i>	Normative	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] steht für Werte und Überzeugungen, die sich mit meinen Überzeugungen decken.	Normative	Formative	X		
[Land] ist ein sozial verantwortungsvolles Mitglied der internationalen Gemeinschaft. <i>This country is a socially responsible member of the international community</i>	Normative	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] engagiert sich stark für gute internationale Beziehungen.	Normative	Formative	X		

Item <i>Translations provided for items that ended up in the final instrument.</i>	Dimension	Specification / type	Tests		
			Expert interviews	Substantive validity test	Final instrument
[Land] ist ein Land, das die Werte anderer Nationen ausreichend respektiert. <i>This country respects the values of other nations and peoples</i>	Normative	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] engagiert sich gewissenhaft bei der Bewältigung internationaler Krisen. <i>This country takes responsibility for helping out in international crises.</i>	Normative	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] ist ein gastfreundliches Land. <i>This is a welcoming country</i>	Normative	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] hat hervorragende Bürgerrechte. <i>This country has excellent civil rights</i>	Normative	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] hat ein sehr gerechtes Sozialsystem. <i>This country has a very just welfare system.</i>	Normative	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] betreibt eine äußerst faire internationale Politik. <i>This country acts very fairly in international politics.</i>	Normative	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] ist Ursprungsland sehr schöner Kulturgüter (z.B. Gebäude/Architektur, Musik, Film etc.). <i>This country is home to beautiful cultural assets (e.g. arts, architecture, music, film etc.).</i>	Aesthetic	Formative	X	X	X
Die typischen Lebensmittel und Speisen des Landes sind köstlich (CH: <i>fein</i>). <i>This country has delicious foods and a wonderful cuisine.</i>	Aesthetic	Formative	X	X	X

Item <i>Translations provided for items that ended up in the final instrument.</i>	Dimension	Specification / type	Tests		
			Expert inter-views	Sub-stantive validity test	Final instru-ment
Ich finde, dieses Land hat eine faszinierende Geschichte. <i>This country has a very fascinating history.</i>	Aesthetic	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] ist kulturell sehr vielfältig.	Aesthetic	Formative	X		
[Land] hat attraktive (hübsche) Menschen.	Aesthetic	Formative	X		
[Land] hat reizvolle Traditionen. <i>This country has rich traditions.</i>	Aesthetic	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] hat schöne Landschaften. <i>This country has beautiful scenery.</i>	Aesthetic	Formative	X	X	X
Dieses Land hat eine intakte Natur. <i>This country has a lot of preserved nature.</i>	Aesthetic	Formative	X	X	X
[Land] hat charismatische Persönlichkeiten (z.B. in Sport, Politik, Film, etc.). <i>This country has lots of charismatic people (e.g. in politics, sports, media etc.).</i>	Aesthetic	Formative	X	X	X
Wie beurteilen Sie die Leistungsfähigkeit des Landes in Wirtschaft, Politik und Forschung? <i>How do you rate the country's competitiveness, its political and economical performance and effectiveness?</i>	Functional	Summary item	X	X	X
Wie beurteilen Sie die durch das Land vertretenen Werte und Normen (z.B. in Umweltschutz, Menschenrechten, internationaler Politik)? <i>How do you rate the integrity of the country, its norms and values (e.g. in civil rights, sustainability, and international politics)?</i>	Normative	Summary item			X

Item <i>Translations provided for items that ended up in the final instrument.</i>	Dimension	Specification / type	Tests		
			Expert inter-views	Sub-stantive validity test	Final instru-ment
Wie beurteilen Sie die ästhetischen Qualitäten des Landes, d.h. die Schönheit und Attraktivität als kultureller und landschaftlicher Raum? <i>How do you rate the country in terms of aesthetics, i.e. its beauty and attractiveness as a cultural and scenic space?</i>	Aesthetic	Summary item			X
[Land] ist mir sympathisch. <i>I like this country.</i>	Emotional	Reflective	X	X	X
Ich mag [land]	Emotional	Reflective	X		
Ich empfinde Wohlwollen für [Land].	Emotional	Reflective	X		
Ich empfinde [Land] als anziehend. <i>This is an attractive country.</i>	Emotional	Reflective	X	X	X
[Land] ist ein faszinierendes Land. <i>The country is fascinating</i>	Emotional	Reflective	X	X	X
Wenn jemand abwertend über [Land] spricht, stört mich das. <i>If somebody speaks negatively about this country, it bothers me.</i>	Emotional	Reflective			X