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The Effects of Brands
and Country of Origin
on Consumers' Buying Intention
in Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

The Country of Origin (COO) and branded product are concepts that have been studied widely in social science. This is manifested in the movement and progress of studies related to these concepts from simple to sophisticated and in-depth ones. However, previous studies still have many limitations and have recommended further research in this field. Among these limitations is the restricted geographical spread of study areas, as most of the previous COO studies have been conducted in the United States, Canada, and other developed countries. Another gap in the extant COO literature is the scarcity of food product studies, as most of the COO studies have concerned durable goods such as cars, T.V. sets, appliances, etc.

The food product studies found are rarely related to the effect of COO on buying intention or consumer perception; hence, a study of the effect of COO and branded product on food products is an addition to the literature.

Moreover, previous COO research suffers from an inadequate assessment of the reliability and validity of the widely used measurement scales. Adapted scales for COO, branded product and brand parity that fit the culture and the research product have been developed specifically for this research. These scales are reasonably valid and reliable. A process for scale adaptation has been developed using a qualitative approach; this process can be followed in any similar studies in future.

An attempt is made to address these limitations in this study, which examines how Saudis, as Muslim consumers, use the Country of Origin (COO) and branded product cues in their buying intention decisions and how their socioeconomic characteristics, ethnocentrism and perceptions about brand parity affect their perception of COO and branded product. Based on a thorough literature review, an analytical model that depicts the different relationships between the research constructs and the research hypotheses has been developed.

A complementary qualitative and quantitive approach has been used in this research, and the outcome of combining the two methods has strengthened the reliability of the research findings. The process of combining the two methods has been proven to be a prudent decision, as the use of only one of these methods may have resulted in misleading findings.

A qualitative approach, including an exploratory study and focus groups, has been used to gain an in-depth understanding of the different dimensions of the theoretical concepts of the research and to discover which of the variables can conceptualize each of them in the Saudi setting. This process has assisted in adapting the construct scales that were developed in a different setting, as using the scales in the Saudi culture without adaptation was inappropriate. Therefore, the qualitative approach was a prerequisite for this research.

A quantitative approach (survey) has been used as the research approach after developing appropriate scales for each construct and putting them together in a well-designed questionnaire. The instrument was pre-tested and found to be appropriate. The data was collected in Saudi Arabia from two purposive quota sub-samples of 400 women in each sub-sample; the respondents were women who regularly buy the research product (chicken).

A wide range of statistical analysis techniques was used. These techniques include descriptive statistics, correlation, regression and ANOVA.

Regarding the overall objective of this study to explore the effects of Saudi consumers' perception about country of origin and branded product on their buying intention, the study results reveal that the political, cultural, and religious dimensions have a significant effect on consumers' buying intention for chicken from most of the countries under consideration, whereas the economic and technological dimensions play a very minor role in influencing consumers' chicken buying intention. This is exactly opposite to the situation with durable goods, such as automobiles, where the technological and economical dimensions play an important role in influencing consumers' buying intention. These findings prove the importance of the effect of the product category, as different product categories will have different effects on how consumers perceive the COO. This study mainly focuses on consumers' perceptions towards whole chicken, as it is normal form of purchase in the Saudi market.

Furthermore, the study results show that the respondents' perception about all the dimensions of the branded product have no effect on their buying intention of those brands in the case of seven out of the eight countries under consideration. The weak effect of the different dimensions of the branded product concept on the consumers' buying intention of chicken branded product might be attributed to the minor

emphasis on and limited use of the branded product as information cue in the consumers' buying decision in the case of the chicken as a fast-moving food product. The product category again proves its importance in this research; the weak effect of brands on the buying intention of chicken as the research product shows that the brand effect may be high or low depending on the product category.

It has been found that brand parity does not exist in the case of branded chicken and is not significally correlated with branded product construct, which may explain the scarcity of such studies in the literature.

Ethnocentrism was proven to have an effect on the Saudi female consumers' buying intention, which means that Saudi women may buy a local product even if they perceive that an imported product is of better quality. In addition, it has been proven that various demographic factors may explain the differences in consumer perception of COO.

Thus, the conclusion is reached that the importance of each of the COO dimensions and the branded product as an information cue in influencing buying decision depends on the type of product.

The research has conceptualisation and methodological contributions that reflect the importance of this study. The conceptualisation contributions are, firstly, the COO conceptualisation, which has been adapted to include the cultural and religious dimensions in order to be appropriate to the study area (Saudi Arabia) and the research product and, secondly, the branded product, which has been conceptualised to include the brand as a person and the brand as a product. The third contribution is that the research has studied the joint effect of COO and brand simultaneously. The final contribution is the conceptualisation of brand parity, which has been dealt with in this study in a different manner than in previous studies.

The methodological contributions are: a) the use of the focus group data collection technique in a conservative society, in this case Saudi Arabia, and b) the process of adapting the scales for this study, which represents a significant contribution that may be useful to other researchers.

The study's main policy and empirical implication is the recognition of the differing effects of COO of different countries for Saudi consumers, and the differing effects of COO dimensions. This proves the importance of studying different countries and

different products in order to find the real effect of the COO and its implication for policy makers' decisions.

Nevertheless, the study has certain limitations. Among these is the fact that the scales used for COO have relatively low reliability and the conceptualisation of COO requires improvement. The scarcity of food product studies in Saudi Arabia restricted the arguments that could be used to compare and support the study findings. The limited study of the religious effect is another limitation. The difficulty the researcher experienced in gaining access to the executives during the preliminary exploratory study also placed certain limitations on the results. The final limitation was related to the difficulty of conducting the focus group in such a conservative country, particularly when the participants were women, as was the case in this research.

Suggestions are made for further studies that could enrich the literature in this area. These are, firstly, that the differential relevance and importance of the different dimensions of the COO and branded product constructs for different products and different consumers' require further examination. Secondly, methodologically, more comprehensive analytical models could be used and, lastly, a full re-modelling of the research model utilised in this study is suggested.

Acknowledgement

To my parents who give me love, to my wife and children who give me support, to my brothers and sisters who care, to my supervisors who believe in my abilities and guide me on the right track, to all of these I am grateful for helping me achieve this significant accomplishment. It could never have come about without their support and encouragement. May Almighty Allah guide us on the right path to succeed and flourish.

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Chapter One

Introduction & Study Objectives

1.1 Introduction

Despite the prolific research on country of origin (COO) and branded product over the last five decades as it has moved from simple studies to sophisticated and in-depth ones (Laroche et al. 2005), the extant literature in these two areas has several gaps. One of the main limitations of the previous COO literature is the restricted geographical spread of study areas. Most of the previous COO studies have been conducted in the United States, Canada, and other developed countries and this, as it may imply lack of cross-cultural representation, can limit the comparability and generalization of results (Baker and Ballington, 2002).

Thus, it has been recognised that there is a great need for more studies, including different countries with different cultures, religions, levels of economic development levels, etc. to be conducted (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2002). This limitation is further compounded by the fact that only a very few COO studies have been conducted in the Middle East region, which has its own unique culture, particularly with respect to food products of animal origin.

In this study, Saudi Arabia, which is part of the Middle East, is the study area and this represents an original addition to the literature since the findings will be compared with the findings of similar studies conducted in other parts of the world, particularly those studies conducted in non-Muslim countries. The study results reveal that consumer's perception about the COO's political, cultural and religious background are the principal COO dimensions influencing Saudi consumers' chicken buying behaviour.

Another gap in the extant COO literature is the scarcity of food products studies. The product category has proven to be a very important factor, which can vary the COO effect. There are some indications to suggest that the inconsistent findings of previous research (some found the effects of COO significant while others did not) may partially be attributed to the product category used in the analysis (Etzel and Walker, 1974; Pappu et al. 2007). Hausman (2000) argued that consumers seem to choose many food products without prior planning, so that when they buy, their purchase represents a form of impulse buying.

Most COO studies have been concerned cars, T.V. sets, appliances, etc., and very few studies have been conducted on food products. Knight et al. (2007) indicated that in contrast to consumer durables, food products are generally purchased with low involvement on the part of the consumer. Food products are one of the most important product categories that most often involve a daily buying decision, which means that any change in the COO perception because of changes in the economic climate, political relations or any other issues will directly affect consumers' buying intention (Philippidis and Hubbard, 2003). Hoyer and MacInnis (2000) argued that in low involvement products, consumers are often not very involved in the purchase and thus unlikely to engage in long information processing.

Food category products that are purchased on an almost daily basis by most consumers and can directly capture the different changes in the COO effect will be studied in this research. In regards to the scarcity of food studies in the previous literature, Knight et al. (2007) reported that it is important to determine whether the conceptual framework that has emerged over three decades of study of product-country images in relation to decision-making by consumers applies equally to these professional buyers; if not, in what regard does this framework need to be extended?

Moreover, as has been suggested by Pappu et al. (2007), the contribution of each country image dimension to the relationship with the branded product varies according to product category, this study will examine the effects of the different COO concept dimensions on the different dimensions of the chicken branded product.

From a methodological point of view, COO research suffers from inadequate assessment of reliability and validity of the widely-used measurement scales. The reliability and validity of the measurement scales used have not been adequately assessed and they do not fit different cultures (Etzel and Walker, 1974; Darling and Kraft, 1977; Han, 1989). For those scales to be applied to different cultures and to different types of products, they require certain adaptations in order for them to fit different cultures and be used for different types of products. Another methodological limitation is that previous COO studies have tended to use student samples (Pappu et al. 2007; Baker and Ballington, 2002).

The results of this study are derived from a sample of actual consumers who have used the product category under consideration.

Therefore, there is a need for research such as this to examine how Saudis, as Muslim consumers, use the Country of Origin (COO) and branded product cues in their buying intention decisions and how their socioeconomic characteristics and perceptions about brand parity affect their perceptions about COO and branded product.

1.2 The Study Objectives

This is what this study intends to achieve through realizing the following specific objectives:

1. To explore and analyse the effects of COO and to what extent it affects the whole chicken buying intention of Saudis, as Muslim consumers who put great emphasis on the factor of religion.

2. To explore and analyse the effects of branded product and to what extent it affects the whole chicken buying intention of Saudis, as Muslim consumers for whom the factor of religion is of special importance.

3. To explore and analyse the relationship between COO and branded product in the case of whole chicken.

4. To explore and analyse the effects of ethnocentrism and to what extent it affects the Saudi consumers' whole chicken buying intention.

5. To explore and analyse the relationship between whole chicken brand parity and whole chicken branded products.

6. To explore and analyse the perceived degree of brand parity of whole chicken branded products in Saudi markets.

7. To explore and analyse the effects of the consumers' demographic factors on their perception about country of origin of branded whole chicken products.

The first four objectives will help to evaluate the level of the effects of COO, branded products, and ethnocentrism on buying intention in a Saudi setting taking into consideration the importance of religion for Saudi society and for the product

category, which is whole chicken. Knowing the level of these effects will help to understand what policies the decisions makers should consider to deal with imported and locally-produced chickens. A critical evaluation of the academic literature will be made through those objectives. Specifically, the third objective will evaluate the relationship between COO and branded product for chicken, which will help to understand the effects of both of these on buying intention. The fourth objective will help to understand the level of the ethnocentrism of Saudi consumers, which will assist the manufacturers of both local and imported to formulate strategies for selling their products in the Saudi market.

The fifth and sixth objectives will assist in evaluating the degree of the brand parity and to what extent the brand has a strong effect on buying intention. The brand parity will help to understand to what extent the brand is important for the product category, i.e. whole chicken, which is under consideration in this study.

The last objective will assist decision and policy makers to be aware of the effect of consumers' different demographic factors on the buying intention and to what extent these factors have an effect on how consumers perceive the various factors.

1.3 Significance of the Study

This study has methodological, theoretical and applied significance. Methodologically, it will contribute to improving the assessment of reliability and validity of the COO, branded product and brand parity measurement scales, as it will apply these scales in a somewhat different culture. It has been argued that the reliability and validity of the COO measurement scales used have not been assessed adequately and do not fit different cultures.

For these scales to be applied in different cultures and to different types of products, they require certain adaptations in order for them to fit different cultures and be used for different types of products (Etzel and Walker, 1974; Darling and Kraft, 1977; Han, 1989). This study will adapt those scales to Saudi culture, which represents to some extent Islamic culture, and to the chicken product which represents food products of animal origin. Another methodological contribution is that the sample of this study is women in a very conservative country, i.e. Saudi Arabia.

In addition, the study has another methodological significance as both Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) research methods (qualitative research methods), such as interviews with key informants and focused group discussion, as well as classical research methods (quantitative research methods), such as surveys, will be used in a complementary way to collect data and gain a more in-depth understanding of the factors affecting Saudis' chicken buying behaviour.

The theoretical significance of this study comes from its contribution to widening the limited geographical spread of the study areas of COO research. Most previous COO studies have been conducted in the United States, Canada, and other developed countries with respondents from those countries, while very few COO studies have been done in the Middle East region. Baker and Ballington (2002) argued that the lack of wide geographical spread of the research areas, which may imply lack of cross-cultural representation, can limit the comparability and generalization of results.

Further theoretical significance of this study is that religion, which is a very important factor that could moderate the effect of any country of origin, will be given due consideration in this study, as it deals with food products of animal origin (meat) that have very strict religious prerequisites that should be observed in the Muslim world. The effect of religion on consumers' perception of COO and brand of food products, such as the notion of *halal* food in Islam, has occasionally been discussed in the literature.

Fischer (2009) stated that *halal* literally means lawful or permitted; the Quran and the Sunna (the sayings, actions and teachings of the Prophet Muhammad PBUH) exhort Muslims to eat the good and lawful food that God has provided for them, but with various conditions and prohibitions. He added that Muslims are expressly forbidden from consuming carrion, spurting blood, pork and foods that have been consecrated to any being other than God Himself. These substances are *haram* and thus forbidden.

The market for *halal* food has been growing all over the world, not only in Muslim countries but also in countries that have immigrants from Muslim countries. The size of the *halal* food market annually has been estimated at approximately U.S. $2.1 trillion a year (Anonymous, 2007). Bonne et al. (2007) asserted that major retailers

such as Carrefour or Alvert Heijn have been testing the provision of *halal* meat in their outlets, which reflects the importance of consuming *halal* meat as a religious practice. Fischer (2009) stated that to use *halal* labels or logos on products, a certifier must inspect all related enterprises and organisations. Hasnah (2009) found that, by using *halal* certification signage, companies can target Muslims but not reduce the favourable responses from non-Muslims.

In spite of the existence of some literature about *halal* food, its effect on buying intention in the context of the conceptualisation of the COO has not yet been studied; this will be done in this study. Ahmed (2008) stated that it has been clear from the outset that there have been limitations on the availability of literature specifically focusing on *halal* meat. Hasnah (2009) asserted that although *halal* accreditation has been widespread, there have been no major empirical studies addressing the influence of the *halal* signage on purchase decisions by Muslim and non-Muslim consumers.

The study is also theoretically significant in that it studies the joint effect of COO and brand for a specific product category. Most previous studies have studied either COO or brand for a specific product separately. Another approach in the literature is the use of brand as one of the factors that conceptualize the COO or the use of the COO as one of the factors that conceptualize the brand. This study will study the effects of both constructs on consumers' buying intention simultaneously. Pappu et al. (2007) claimed that the previous literature had not satisfactorily explained the link between the country image and brand loyalty (Brand vs. COO).

Ethnocentrism, as an important factor that influences buying intention, has been included in this study to ensure that the effect of ethnocentrism with the COO and brand on buying intention is studied. Ozretic-Dosen et al. (2007) found that if a national Croatian chocolate brand was of equal quality to brands from Western European countries, almost half of the respondents would buy the more expensive Croatian chocolate. This could be a result of consumers' ethnocentrism.

Further theoretical significance of the present study comes from its contribution to filling the gap in the COO research, in which there is a scarcity of food product studies. The product category has proven to be a very important factor in differentiating the COO effect. The different findings concerning the effects of COO

on consumer perception could be related to the different types of products that are being studied. This illustrates that the inconsistent findings of previous research may partially be attributed to the product category used in the analysis (Etzel and Walker, 1974). This makes conducting research on different products indispensable in order to understand the COO effect on different product categories.

Most previous studies were concerned with durable goods such as automobiles, TV sets, appliances, etc. and very few studies have been conducted on the effect of COO on food products. Food products make up one of the most important product categories that generally have a daily buying decision, which means that any change in the COO perception because of changes in the economic and political climate or any other issues will directly affect consumers' buying decisions. Philippidis and Hubbard (2003) reported that some previous researchers had proven that there is evidence that food products exhibit strong country of origin characteristics. The food category products that are purchased on a daily basis by most consumers and are able to capture directly the different changes in the COO effect, will be studied in this research.

The small number of studies which examined the effect of COO using food as the research product have criticised that only a limited number of studies have been done using the food product category and have suggested that further studies be conducted about food (Ahmed et al. 2002).

From the point of view of application, the significance of this study comes from its expected contribution in highlighting and shedding light on the cultural and religious concerns of Muslims consumers in general, and Saudi consumers in particular, when buying food products of animal origin.

By knowing and observing those concerns, food producers all over the world will be able to overcome the cultural and religious barriers and gain free access to the Saudi market. This will enable Saudi consumers to benefit from their country's ascension to the World Trade Organization in terms of obtaining food products at a competitive price.

1.4 Organization of the Study

Some introductory remarks about the study objectives, selection of the product and countries to be studied and the study's methodological, theoretical and applied significance have been made in *Chapter One*.

The literature review and theoretical framework parts of the thesis are presented in *Chapters Two, Three, Four and Five*. In *Chapter Two* the country of origin concept and some related concepts are presented. *Chapter Three* is devoted to brands where the brand concept is defined, and other related concepts that are of relevance to the current study such as brand name, branded product and quality, packaging and taste are discussed. *Chapter Four* includes a review and discussion of the consumers' characteristics, ethnocentrism and behaviour, and the interaction of these factors with the COO and their effects on consumers' buying intention and actual purchasing decision are discussed.

In *Chapter Five* the study focus is presented and the analytical model to be used is developed. The chapter consists of two main sections. The first section presents the study focus, in which the main issues to be examined are highlighted, and the anticipated relationships between the study concepts are formulated into hypotheses. In the second section, the study hypotheses and anticipated relationships between the different concepts are put together in the form of an analytical model.

The research methodology is presented in *Chapter Six*, which consists of four main sections. The study population and sample selection are discussed in sections one and two. Section three consists of a description of data collection methods. Measurement of some of the study's theoretical concepts is presented in the last section. *Chapter Seven* is devoted to the presentation and discussion of results. Summary, conclusions and implications of the study, and recommendations for further research constitute *Chapter Eight*. See Figure 1.1 for the thesis structure.

Figure 1.1: The Thesis Structure

Chapter 1: Introduction & Study Objectives
- The research problem
- Selection of research product & COO
- The study objectives
- Significance of the study
- Organization of the study

Chapter 2: Literature Review; COO
- The country of origin (COO) concept
- Dimensions of COO concept
- Processing of the COO information
- Types and historical development of COO effect research
- Gaps in the COO literature

Chapter 3: Literature Review; Brands
- The branded product concept
- Branded product conceptualization
- COO effect on the evaluation of branded product
- Perceived brand parity

Chapter 4: Literature Review; Consumers' Demographic Characteristics, Ethnocentrism and Buying Intention
- Consumer perception concept
- The effect of consumers' demographic characteristics on their perceptions of COO and branded product
- Psychographic factors
- Consumer perception and consumer behaviour
- Buying intention and actual buying behaviour

Chapter 5: Literature Review; the Research Focus & Analytical Model Development
- The research focus
- The analytical model

Chapter 6: The Research Methodology
- The research methodology
- Data collection
- Measurement of the theoretical concepts
- Methods of analysis used

Chapter 7: Results & Discussion
- Factor analysis and scales reliability
- Results of sub-sample one
- Results of sub-sample two

Chapter 8: Conclusion
- The findings and the objectives of the research
- The study theoretical and methodological implications
- The study policy and empirical implications
- Recommendations for further studies

Chapter Two

Literature Review & Theoretical Framework: Country of Origin (COO)

2.1 Introduction

The Country of Origin (COO) literature review is presented in this chapter with a thorough review of the previous research on COO. Some of the main arguments that have been widely discussed widely are examined.

In addition to this introductory section, *Chapter Two* consists of five main sections:

1. The country of origin (COO) concept
2. Dimensions and operationalization of the country of origin concept
3. Processing of the COO information
4. Types and historical development of COO effect research
5. Gaps in the COO literature

The overall objective of this chapter is to document the use of COO cues and their dimensions by consumers when evaluating different products in order to justify its inclusion in the analytical model of the study.

In addition, through an examination of the extant literature, a clearer picture will be arrived at as to how and why the model developed in this research came to be conceptualized. It can be seen that it is, in a sense, the next step in a logical progression.

Moreover, investigation of the previous literature reveals a significant research gap. The present study represents an attempt to go some way towards filling that gap.

2.2 The country of origin (COO) concept

The concept of country of origin is one of the best-known concepts to have been researched in the social sciences. The concept was initiated when producers wished to sell their products in different countries and found that legally they needed to verify the origin of their products to the customers. The 'made in' label has been used for more than a hundred years as an identification strategy by international companies (Cai et al. 2004; Morello, 1984). Piron (2000) states that marketers and consumer behaviour researchers generally accept that a product's country of origin is important in consumer decision making.

COO is a tool that has been widely used to identify products' attributes for consumers in different countries. The country of origin concept is related to the country image that has been built by consumers, which leads the consumers to use the country of origin as a tool to identify which products they should buy, through consideration of the country's image.

Badri et al. (1995) found in their study that the label 'made in Saudi Arabia' and other Gulf countries (Kuwait, Bahrain, Qatar, The United Arab of Emirates and Oman) has a significant difference in general attitude in different countries. For example, U.S. products are perceived differently from products produced in other countries, apart from Japan, on most attributes.

The conceptualization of country of origin and country image varies from study to study. Some researchers consider them to be different, while others consider them to be the same and use them interchangeably. There are several different definitions, at least in wording, of country of origin. These include:

"The picture, the reputation, the stereotype that businessmen and consumers attach to products of a specific country" (Nagashima, 1970).

"Consumers' general perceptions about the quality of products made in a given country" (Bilkey and Nes, 1982).

"Made in 'places' or geographic origins, which can be anything from a city to a state or province, a country, a region, a continent – or the world in the case of 'global' products. Farther, unless viewed in strictly legal terms, 'made-in' can mean manufactured-in but also assembled- designed- or invented-in, made by a producer whose domicile is in, and often, wanting to look like it is made-in ..." (Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983).

"The overall perception consumers form of products from a particular country, based on their perceptions of that country's production and marketing strengths and weaknesses" (Roth and Romeo, 1992).

"The total of all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs one has about a particular country" (Martin and Eroglu, 1993).

"The sum of all those emotional and aesthetic qualities such as experience, beliefs, ideas, recollections and impressions that a person has of a place" (Kotler et al. 1993).

"The place in the world where a product is manufactured is the country of origin" (Liefeld, 2004).

The use and adoption of any of these definitions or any other definition of the country of origin concept is affected and determined by the purpose of each study. In this study, country of origin (COO) is defined as *the country with which the manufacturer is associated, which is typically the home country of the producer and the sum of beliefs and impressions people hold about that country (*Kotler and Gertner, 2002; Bandyopadhyay, 2001). Moreover, the country of origin and the country image will be considered to be identical and will be used interchangeably, as has been the case in certain other studies (Cervino et al. 2005).

There is almost a consensus in the literature that consumers hold distinctly different views about products from different countries in terms of quality, values, image, promotion and availability. It has been argued that when consumers have a positive attitude toward a country in general, they usually have a positive attitude toward products (in terms of quality, values and image) from that country as well (Bandyopadhyay, 2001). Paswan and Sharma (2004) have reported that country of origin is a cue for evaluating products, and some authors have suggested that favourable perceptions about the country result in favourable attributions to brands from that country.

Laroche et al. (2005) have reported that a product's country of origin influences consumers' evaluation of it. Different brands will be affected by the image of the country those brands come from. According to Pappu et al. (2007), familiarity with a country's products could affect how consumers use country image in their branded product evaluations. Moreover, consumers' satisfaction, or lack of it, with a country's products may also influence their loyalty towards brands from that country. Baker and Ballington (2002) reported that COO is a factor or attribute considered by both individuals and organizations when making buying decisions. Laroche et al. (2005) reported that the fact that a product's origin matters to consumers has significant strategic implications for firms engaged in both domestic and

international businesses. Papadopoulos et al. (1987) found that producers use country of origin information as a key element in marketing strategy. The importance of the concept of country of origin in international marketing strategies gives the concept wider usage and makes it an important concept for study. Cai et al. (2004) argued that the 'made-in' label raised consumers' awareness of sourcing, and it also came to stand for attractive features of products from certain countries.

Ahmed et al. (2004) found that country of origin played a role in consumers' evaluation of low-involvement products. Similarly, Ozretic-Dosen et al.'s (2007) findings made explicit the importance of country of origin associations that young Croatian consumers attach to different products in the process of the consumption of chocolate as a single low-involvement food product. Webb and Po (2000) have presented four reasons why consumers use country of origin as a tool to evaluate products:

1. Consumers use the product origin as a means of simplifying the information process by treating it as an indicator of quality and acceptability, and that is a result of the rapid process of globalization.

2. Growing complexity of products and the increase of difficulties that business people are facing in establishing unique selling propositions because of product standardization have led to greater use of country of origin and brand name.

3. Country of origin and brand name assist in forming a multinational marketing strategy.

4. Consumers' knowledge about foreign products and the differences between them has increased as a result of exposure to the global media.

Therefore, and in line with the increasing prevalence of global expansion strategies by large and small firms all over the world, a large body of literature has developed over the past few decades addressing the impacts of country of origin labels on consumers' product evaluations (Chao, 2005). This has been referred to as the country of origin effect and is defined as *"how consumers perceive products originating from a particular country"* (Chiou, 2003). Similarly, Laroche et al. (2005) indicated that country of origin effect refers to the extent to which the origin of a particular product influences its evaluation.

Although the research on country of origin has made significant theoretical and practical contributions (Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2001), the country of origin literature has reported conflicting results regarding the importance of the country of origin cue in consumer product evaluations (Chao, 2005). This is mainly because the country of origin effect is a complex phenomenon and various other factors can influence its magnitude (Phau and Suntornnond, 2006). Amine et al. (2005) argued that another source of difficulty had arisen from the focus of country of origin effect research. That is, the different cues used in each study will result in different outcomes. In accordance with this, a thorough literature review by Kaynak and Kara (2001) revealed that the findings of the country of origin effect research are only somewhat generalizable.

Similarly, Bandyopadhyay (2001) recommended that caution should be exercised in generalizing the results of country of origin effect across all product categories, as the product category is a salient factor in product country of origin evaluations. Amine et al. (2005) believed that difficulties in accurately defining and measuring the country of origin effect in particular comes from the contingent nature of the construct; that is, the country of origin effect is not absolute for a given country. Papadopoulos and Heslop (2002) reviewed the voluminous research on product-country image and their effects and concluded that:

1. National and other place images are powerful stereotypes that influence behaviour in all types of target markets.

2. The effects of national images vary depending on the situation (depending on the strengths of the cues studied in each case).

3. Origin images affect price expectations.

4. Product-country images appear to consist of many key constructs.

5. In the case of hybrid products, buyers may distinguish between a product's country of origin, manufacture, assembly and/or the producer's home country.

6. Product-country images of specific product classes are related to a country's global product image.

7. Buyers distinguish between national and product images, and between major, niche and less-developed countries as producers.

8. Product-country images may shift slowly over time or quickly as a result of intervening events.

9. The effectiveness of "buy domestic" campaigns is unclear.

2.3 Dimensions and Operationalisation of the COO Concept

The country of origin (COO) concept has developed from a basic, simple concept to a complex one with many dimensions and different approaches to conceptualisation.

Martin and Eroglu (1993) reported that an accurate scale of country image needs to clearly define the construct's domain and to be exact concerning what is included in, as well as what is excluded, from the definition. This means that to measure the effect of COO we need to conceptualize it according to the definition of the COO and not the product that comes from that specific country. They differentiated the attitude towards products from a certain country from the country's image, which can be developed from a direct experience with the country, outside sources of information, and inferences (correct or incorrect) based on past experience, such as opinions gained from using products originating in that particular country. Cai et al. (2004) have reported that consumers' attitudes toward a country as a producer could have a strong effect on their preference for that country's products. Papadopoulos and Heslop (2000) have suggested that buyers evaluate the COO using multiple criteria that include the country's level of advancement, the buyers' feelings about the people of the country and the buyers' desire to be more closely aligned with the country.

2.3.1 COO Conceptualization Approaches

There are two approaches to studying the effect of COO: through the characteristics of the products that come from a specific country or through the characteristics of the country itself. Pappu et al. (2007) state that two different conceptualisations of country image exist in the international marketing literature: country image is conceptualized at both the country (macro) level (e.g. Martin and Eroglu, 1993) and the product (micro) level (e.g. Agarwal and Sikri, 1996).

2.3.1.1 Product characteristics approach

One of the best-known scales to have been used widely in the literature is Nagashima's (1970) twenty-item scale, which is a multi-dimension scale. The dimensions used are related basically to product characteristics rather than country characteristics, while what is intended to be measured is the country effect, and not the products that come from that specific country. Many researchers have followed the same approach in measuring the effect of the COO. The main limitation of such an approach is that the different product categories that come from the same country will be perceived differently, and if used as a proxy for the COO they may have different effects for the same country, as mentioned above.

Knight and Calantone (2000) argued that most of the country images measured through product rather than country measures focused on country/people-oriented effect measures rather than cognitive ones. Laroche et al (2005) reported that the vast majority of product-country image studies used product-only measures; as a result, they inevitably stressed cognitive factors as the key components of product evaluation. Instead, by using separate country and people measures, the nascent stream of research serves to highlight the potentially important role of the effect of some countries. This makes studying the country characteristics more appropriate for assessing the COO effects.

Studying the COO effects using the product characteristics has two limitations:

1. The different product categories that come from one specific country may reflect different images of the same country and can have different effects of the same COO, which makes it difficult to generalize the COO effect using one product category.

2. The marketing activities that are used for a specific branded product will affect the evaluation of that specific product either positively or negatively, but not the COO of that product.

On the other hand, many other researchers (e.g. Martin and Eroglu, 1993) have followed the other approach in measuring the COO effects, which is to use the country characteristics as a measure for the COO concept.

2.3.1.2 Country characteristics approach

Martin and Eroglu (1993) found through a literature review that there were four relevant dimensions for the COO concept, i.e. political, economical, technological and social desirability, and after testing the scale, they excluded social desirability because its items were captured in the other three dimensions. They observed that the literature did not consider culture or cultural familiarity as an underlying dimension of the country image construct. Baker and Ballington (2002) suggested that if the product is not particularly associated with the country of origin there may still be an effect in terms of the positive or negative connotations of the country and its people.

Martin and Eroglu (1993) developed a scale for measuring the COO concept, but it requires some improvement and modifications to fit the Saudi culture. This is mainly because they excluded the cultural dimension, which is not considered an appropriate approach, as it has been found that consumers' willingness to buy products is related to the economic, political and cultural characteristics of the product's country of origin (Wang and Lamb, 1983). Culture should be included as a factor that can differentiate the effects of countries' images.

Having a positive country reputation is a very desirable goal and most governments are spending very large sums of money and developing strategies to raise their countries' reputations. One of the advantages of a good country reputation is the positive perception of the products produced in that country. Papadopoulos et al. (1989) found that the Japanese have succeeded in creating a universally positive image for their products and themselves, not only among Eastern consumers, but also among Western consumers. This image can be seen as representing a significant amount of goodwill towards Japanese products, which must be taken into account by producers who find themselves in competition with manufacturers from Japan. In the same study, Papadopoulos et al. (1989) found tentative evidence that product images may influence, and/or be influenced by country images.

This suggests that the direction of causality between these two constructs is less clear than had previously been thought. Some countries are creating a good general reputation for their products as a result of producing specific good products. One example of such a country is Germany, which has an excellent reputation for producing high-quality cars such as BMW and Mercedes. That good reputation is a

positive factor that makes consumers evaluate all automobile products from Germany as good products.

Cai et al. (2004) argued that increased exposure of consumers to foreign countries and their products through travelling and media and the growing presence of foreign products in domestic markets bring about greater awareness and acceptance of these products and the related country of origin image. In addition, as the market and products become more complex, consumers are increasingly seeking means of simplifying information processing through the use of some specific product cues, including a product's country of origin, in their decision making. Similarly, Verlegh et al. (2005) found that country of origin strongly influences consumer product evaluations, even in the presence of additional information presented by advertising claims.

The composite of the 'made in' image intrinsically addresses related variables such as representative products, national and cultural characteristics, and the economic and political circumstances associated with each nation (Nagashima 1977). Roth and Romeo (1992) claim that there is a relationship between consumer preferences for a country's products, and perceptions of country's culture, economy and politics, and that consumers' evaluations of a specific product from country X are based on the match between product and country.

Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993) and Amonini et al. (1999) considered macro and micro in the COO conceptualisation. Moreover, Pappu et al. (2007) conceptualized the macro country image, according to Martin and Eroglu (1993), who defined it as the *'total of all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs one has about a particular country'*.

Pappu et al. (2007) believed that combining the effects of macro and micro country images provided a more comprehensive understanding of COO effects. Based on the above discussion, the COO construct in this study will be operationalised according to the country characteristics approach. While micro country image will be covered in the branded product construct conceptualization, the COO dimensions that will be considered are political background, economic development, technological background, cultural background, and religious background.

2.3.2 Political Background

How consumers perceive the COO is very much affected by many factors related to the country that the product comes from, as well as the consumers themselves. Political background is a good example of those factors. The political background of a specific country has been proven to be one of the factors that consumers usually use to evaluate that country, and consequently it affects consumers' perception about the products that come from that country (Lewis, 2002).

Wang (1978) found that although the U.S. consumers perceived the USSR's degree of economic development to be higher than it actually was, they gave very low evaluations of its products. This may be explained by Wang's 'political climate' variable. Wang and Lamb (1983) found that consumer willingness to purchase products was related to the economic, political and cultural characteristics of the product's COO.

Abeidoh (2002) reported that when consumers in Saudi Arabia felt that the United States of America was unfair in their attempts to find a solution for the Middle East crisis, Americans products were boycotted. Imports of American products to Saudi Arabia had dropped by 40%. The boycott of US goods by Saudis led to a sharp fall in US exports to Saudi Arabia. Official US figures showed that US exports to Saudi Arabia plunged 33% to $2.8 billion between September 2001 (the month that suicide bombers, most of them Saudis, attacked US cities) and March 2002. In the first quarter of 2002, exports fell 43% to $986 million from $1.74 billion a year earlier.

Many Saudi consumers have shifted to European and Japanese products, encouraged by campaigners wearing Palestinian chequered headscarves who have distributed leaflets at mosques, schools and shopping malls (Abeidoh, 2002). Lewis (2002) stated that if Blair declared war on Iraq then that would have an impact on British software companies like Eidos. Anholt (2002) argued that we can deduce a great deal about the quality of a country from the way it behaves. This may go some way in explaining the reluctance of certain British companies to associate themselves with UK brands and their effort to keep themselves separate from agencies that they cannot control.

Lewis (2002) stated that at the Walpole seminal, Andrew Gower, editor of the *Financial Times*, pointed out that the situation post-September 11th has proven that it

is impossible to ignore the effect of politics on the commercial sector regarding brands: 'Politics is back. The role of the Government is increasing and this has an impact on business. For example, McDonald's has become a target for anti-globalisation.' Postlewaite (2003) reported that on March 26, 2003, anti-war demonstrators lay down in the street in front of McDonald's in Argentina, waving signs that read "Here they sell 'Happy Meals' to finance the war". Amine et al. (2005) reported that from Iraq to Indonesia, Muslims called on their governments and companies to switch from the use of the dollar to the use of the Euro for international transactions. Hayes (2003) has reported that the Lentini restaurant in New York removed all French wines and champagnes from its menu to protest against France's opposition to the U.S-led coalition in Iraq.

2.3.3 Economic Development

The level of a country's economic development gives a good indication of how consumers perceive its products, and the country's level of economic development has been demonstrated to be one of the factors that consumers habitually use to evaluate a particular country and its products. Thus, there is a consensus in the literature that the higher the level of economic development, the more favourably consumers will perceive the products that come from that country (Wang and Lamb, 1983; Roth and Romeo, 1992; Manrai et al. 1997; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001).

According to Bhuian (1997), Saudi consumers' preferences tend to be related to the level of economic development of countries. Kaynak et al. (2000) found that products originating from advanced developed countries were perceived to be associated with very similar attributes such as good or very good quality, etc., while products originating from the developing counties of the South were perceived to be less desirable in quality.

Cai et al. (2004) found that the 'made in' effect was significant in a multiple-attribute scenario. This suggests that the degree of economic development of the producing country does affect consumers' buying intentions when other information is also present.

Ozretic-Dosen et al. (2007) reported that many sources of literature on the effects of country of origin indicate a tendency to evaluate products from developed countries more highly than those from less-developed countries.

Chinen et al. (2000) found a positive relationship between the level of economic development of the reference country and U.S. consumers' willingness to buy its products. Despite the general tendency to prefer products produced in economically developed countries, firms in the developed countries are choosing more and more to manufacture their products in less-developed East Asian countries in order to reduce their manufacturing costs (Chao, 1993).

O'Cass and Lim (2002) argued that the higher appreciation of products that come from well-developed countries is highly complex, because of the perceived disparity in the economic, cultural and political systems that exist in consumers' minds in different markets.

Batra et al. (2000) have given several explanations for the greater salience of status determination in developing societies: acquiring non-local products promotes status to a greater extent than does acquiring local products. First, in developing countries, imports are usually more expensive and less readily available than local products, making them more desirable from a reference group standpoint (Bearden and Etzel, 1982). Second, consumers in developing countries are relatively less affluent than those in developed countries, and this can, quite naturally, create a sense of insecurity and inferiority. Consumers in developing countries, therefore, often seek to emulate the apparently glamorous Western consumption practices and lifestyles and purchase the brands they are exposed to through movies and TV programmes, Western tourists, their own workers who have gone overseas, and their own travel abroad. Third, Hannerz (1990) pointed out that the desire to display competence with regard to foreign cultures is an important motive behind the growth of 'cosmopolitan' elites in many developing countries. Owning foreign brands is arguably a way of displaying such competence.

Finally, Venkatesh and Swamy (1994) argued that consumers in developing economies today want to be able to participate in the global consumer community, living in this 'imagined world' (Appadurai, 1990), in part through access to products from all over the world. However, not all consumers have the power to do so, leading

to an aspiration to the acquisition of many foreign-made brands. However, this is not the case with consumers from developed countries.

2.3.4 Technological Background

The technological background of a country is perceived in the same way as its level of economic development, i.e. the more advanced the technological background, the better the ability of the country to produce high quality products. Papadopoulos and Heslop (2000) suggested that buyers evaluate the country of origin using multiple criteria that include the country's level of advancement, the buyers' feeling about the people of the country and the buyers' desire to be more closely aligned with the country. Chinen et al. (2000) found that U.S. consumers perceive Japanese product quality to be superior to those of other advanced countries such as Germany, Great Britain, and Canada.

Story (2005) concluded that a high level of a country's technological capabilities bestows category dominance that transcends levels of product and attribute technology. He added that this means that higher perceptions of the perceived technological capabilities of countries result in a broader range of products and attributes and technologies being perceived as a good fit. Story (2005) found that products from less technologically developed countries were generally perceived as being of lower quality; much of the focus has been on more technologically advanced products.

2.3.5 Cultural Background

The cultural factor is another factor that should be considered when evaluating COO, the culture of any society having a positive or negative role in evaluating a product COO. The composite of the 'made in' image intrinsically addresses related variables such as representative products, national and cultural characteristics, and the economic and political circumstances associated with each nation (Nagashima 1977). Krishnakumar (1974) found that Indian students rated British products higher than did Taiwanese students and attributed the difference to the former colonial ties with Britain.

In line with this, Balabanis et al. (2002) reported that fluency in a country of origin's language (as part of the cultural values) can result in a more objective evaluation of

the country by enabling access to additional information sources outside one's own country and by facilitating direct contact. Language fluency may amplify the effect of direct contact on consumers' perceptions. This supports the argument that the cultural background of a specific country has an effect on how consumers perceive a product that comes from that specific country.

Lillis and Narayana (1974) found differences between respondents from two countries in terms of their attitudes towards products from a third country. Kumar and Krishnan (2002) found that country-specific cultural factors influence cross-country interaction effects. Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran (2000) reported that individualism and collectivism as cultural dimensions have been used to explain why consumers prefer home country products over imported ones, even when provided with information that the foreign product is superior.

Dwyer et al. (2005) have reported in their literature review that the influence of national culture influence on the diffusion of products across countries has been examined only to a limited extent. They have suggested that further investigation of the influence of culture on the rate of product diffusion seems particularly appropriate, and a deeper understanding of the influence of national culture on product diffusion could provide a prescriptive insight to guide marketers intending to launch products cross-nationally.

Similarly, Balabanis et al. (2002) reported that there is little academic research on how culture as a multidimensional construct is related to country of origin. They added that most country of origin studies treat culture as a nominal variable, void of any content, represented by the evaluated country. Furthermore, they argued that understanding how culture may influence consumers' evaluations of a country and its products would help practitioners to understand better the contributing factors underlying a country's image and to shape or manage the use of a product's country of origin as a marketing tool.

2.3.6 Religious Background

The factor of religion has not been studied frequently as one that conceptualizes COO effects. This is considered a significant gap in the literature, especially in relation to product categories that have a religious dimension in their production or

preparation, such as meat in Muslim countries and for Muslim consumers all over the world.

There is evidence that religion can influence consumers' attitude and behaviour in general, and may affect food consumption in particular (Pettinger et al. 2004; Mullen et al. 2000; Blackwell et al. 2001). Dindyal (2003) stated that religion is very influential in food choices. Bonne et al. (2007) stated that the religious associations attached to *halal* meat probably makes this decision more important for Muslim consumers, which could lead to a different decision making process, including a specific set of predictors.

Although there are many researchers who have proven the importance of religion for purchasing food products (Mennell et al. 1992; Shatenstein and Ghadirian, 1997; Asp, 1999), none of them has conceptualised the COO using religion as a dimension; this is a very important process, as it can help to measure the level of the effect of religion as part of the COO construct.

Bonne et al. (2007) defined religion ethnographically as "an institution consisting of culturally patterned interaction with culturally postulated superhuman beings". Despite the noted importance of the religious factor in consumer decision making, particularly regarding food, this factor has not yet been studied thoroughly (Pettinger et al. 2004) and its effect is unclear (Delener, 1994). The impact of religion on food consumption depends on the religion itself and on to what extent individuals interpret and follow the teachings of their religion (Pettinger et al. 2004).

It is crucial to know the percentage of people following religious teachings strictly in order to evaluate the level of the effect of religion on buying decisions. Hussaini (2004) found that 75% of Muslims in the United States follow the Islamic dietary rules, while only 16% of Jews follow Jewish dietary rules. Ahmed (2008) stated that Islam is one of the most influential forces in moulding and regulating the behaviour and outlook of Muslims, both individuals and groups.

Thus, religion is a very important aspect of people's lives and it has a very strong effect on their perceptions. Consumers in a society with strong religious beliefs, such as Saudi Arabia, will esteem products from countries with the same religious background. As *halal* food is crucial for Muslims, they will perceive positively food

products that come from a Muslim country. Moreover, the stronger and more committed the believers (e.g. Saudis) the more important is this factor.

Anderson and Cunningham (1972) demonstrated the desirability of using personality attributes associated with attitudes (such as religion) as the basis for segmenting domestic markets for foreign products. Yavas and Glauser (1985) found that cultural and religious differences between Western and Arabian Gulf countries were vast; many products that are appropriate in a Western market may not be accepted in the Gulf markets. Bonne et al. (2007) found consumption of *halal* meat for Muslims to be quite a different issue from the consumption of regular meat or other foods for non-Muslims.

According to the Holy Quran, an animal or bird slaughtered without reciting the *Takbir* (the name of Allah) is forbidden by the Quranic saying: *"And do not eat the flesh of an animal/bird over which Allah's name has not been mentioned (at the time of slaughter); this is indeed sinful"* (6-121). In this verse, Allah (Most Glorious is His name) makes it explicitly clear that it is forbidden to consume the meat of any animal/bird over which the *Takbir* was not recited at the time of slaughtering. It follows then that it is essential to say the *Takbir* (reciting the name of Allah) when slaughtering the animal or bird.

The animal should be slaughtered by cutting the throat, as has been made clear in the Hadith narrated by Abdullah bin Abbas, Umar and Ali (may Allah be pleased with them): the Prophet (peace be upon him) instructed them to slaughter the animal/bird at the neck. (Bukhari: an authentic Islamic resource book)

Based upon the above Islamic principles and beliefs, cited from the Quran and Hadith (sayings of the Prophet Mohammad PBUH), Saudi Arabia has imposed "*halal*" legalization on local imported meats. For example, the representative of any importer to Saudi Arabia has to make sure that the production complies with the rules and laws of "*halal food*" in any country wishing to export meat to Saudi Arabia. This makes the concept of "*halal food*" an important brand attribute for Muslim consumers.

2.4 Processing of the COO information

The COO effects have been demonstrated widely in the literature for all different product categories. The level of those effects differs according to many factors such as the product category, the time, the number of cues released to the respondents, and other factors. The type of cues has been classified into in two groups: extrinsic and intrinsic. The extrinsic cues are those that are not attached to the product itself, like brand name, COO label, price, packaging, store name and others, while the intrinsic cues are those, which are attached to the product itself, like the product quality, taste, performance and others.

Usually consumers use the extrinsic cues more if they have little information about the product quality, price (Gerstner, 1985), brand (Jacoby et al., 1977), and packaging (Kotler and Gertner, 2002). The COO cue is the most commonly used extrinsic cue to differentiate product quality if the consumers are not familiar with the product (Huber and McCann, 1982). If the consumers have previous experience and knowledge about the product, their use of the extrinsic cues will be limited.

Laroche et al. (2005) reported that information relevant to country image in the market context is provided to consumers in a variety of ways from numerous sources, including education, the media, travel, and marketing cues involving origin associations which may be provided though 'made-in' labels, brand names, advertising and packaging, and other parts of the marketing mix. Verlegh et al. (2005) found that country of origin acts both as information variable and as source variable.

The COO information effect on consumers' decisions is processed differently in different models. Understanding this process will facilitate the use of the COO and other cues by the decision makers in the manufacturing institutes. Consumers hold country image stereotypes that are used as information cues in judging products of different origins (Maheswaran, 1994; Lotz and Hu, 2001). Cai et al. (2004) reported that consumers' knowledge about a country plays an important role in explaining the effect of country of origin on their information processing and decision-making. Liu and Johnson (2005) raised the questions as to why COO could affect product judgment and, more importantly, why COO can be influential even in the absence of buying intention. They reached the conclusion that there is an automatic component

of country stereotypes that can be activated spontaneously on encountering COO cues in the environment.

Processing country of origin information is a continuous process that consumers should carry out in order to keep up-to-date and make wise buying decisions. Amine et al. (2005), reviewing previous literature, reported that findings lead us to conclude that consumer perceptions that change over time require a contingent approach to the discussion of country of origin effects and country image. Baker et al. (2002) reported that in the year 2000 alone, a staggering 31,432 new consumer packaged products were introduced in the United States, i.e. a 21.2% increase over the number introduced in 1999 (Marketing Intelligence Service, 2001).

Accordingly, in the light of new information presented in the form of new brands, consumers are continually being forced to re-evaluate similarity judgments made about products. Kotler and Gertner (2002) reported that the country images of knowledge structures related to places, or place schemata, are commonly used as short-cuts for information processing and consumer decision heuristics.

2.4.1 Halo and Summary Construct

Mittal and Tsiros (1995) summarized the COO information processing evaluation process presented in Hong and Wyer's (1989) research and concluded that the COO activates thoughts about the product's other attributes. The COO cue therefore may be related not only to specific beliefs about product attributes, but also to the overall attitude towards purchasing the product.

Han (1989) tested two alternative models: 1) The halo model, which posits that country image serves as halo for product evaluation and, 2) The summary construct model, which posits that country image functions as a summary construct. The halo construct model suggests that COO directly affects consumers' beliefs about product attributes and indirectly affects the overall evaluation of the products through those beliefs. On the other hand, the summary construct model suggests that COO directly affects consumers' attitude toward a brand rather than affecting it indirectly through product attribute rating. Empirical results favoured the halo construct model for products such as cars and the summary construct for products such as television sets.

Han (1989) argued that buyers will use the COO for product evaluation when they are not able to figure out the quality of the country's product before buying (Halo), while they use the Summary approach when they are familiar with the country's product and in this case the COO may help them summarize their beliefs about the product and therefore it directly affects their attitudes towards the brand.

Johansson et al. (1985) found that the country image has an effect on the product attributes but not on the overall evaluation of the product and this is in line with the halo way of processing the COO cue. Han (1989) found that consumers make inferences about product quality from the COO image and argued that when consumers are not familiar with a country's products, COO information may serve as a halo construct, while when consumers are familiar with country's product, COO information may serve as a summary construct.

The stereotype that consumers have about a specific country (positive or negative) is usually used to evaluate a country's products if they do not know the product, while if the consumers are not familiar with a country's products, a summary construct model operates in which the consumers infer information about the country image which then influences their attitude towards the brand (Han, 1989).

Ahmed and d'Astous (2001) reported that stereotyping is one psychological process that is commonly used to explain how consumers react to COO information. They added that the country stereotypes serve as anchors to construct evaluations of products from foreign countries and affect the cognitive processing of other product-related cues. Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran (2000) found that consumers were more likely to focus on the COO when their motivation to buy the products was low.

Knight and Calantone (2000) have criticized Han's model for not accounting for the simultaneous processing of country image and product beliefs that may take place during the formation of consumers' attitudes. They developed a flexible model to account for the simultaneous processing of country image and product beliefs regardless of the level of familiarity with the country's product. According to their model, country image is assumed to have an additional indirect effect on attitudes through consumers' product beliefs. In line with Knight and Calantone (2000), Laroche et al. (2005) found that country image and product beliefs affect product evaluations simultaneously regardless of consumers' level of familiarity with a country's

products. They found that when a country's image includes a strong affective component, its direct influence on product evaluation is stronger than its influence on product beliefs. Alternatively, when a country's image has a strong cognitive component, its direct influences on product evaluation is smaller than its influence on product beliefs. They also found that the total effect of country image on product evaluation was equally substantial whether the image was based on affection or cognition.

These findings support both country image and product beliefs acting simultaneously to influence product evaluation; this differs from what Han (1989) suggested. Further studies in this area are needed to test these findings. This study is one of those attempts.

2.4.2 Direct influence approach

The third model is that of direct influence of the COO on buying intention. Obermiller and Spangenberg (1988) suggested that the third possible model is a direct effect of COO on consumers' behaviour without the mediating effect of product attributes or attitudes. They argued that consumers could have a good perception about a specific product but buy another one because of social pressure, such as buying a lower quality locally produced product for the benefit of the local workers or manufactures, or because of religious factors, such as buying low quality meat that had been slaughtered according to the Islamic way and not buying high quality meat that was not slaughtered according to Islamic teachings. In other words, the level of ethnocentrism and religious beliefs could affect the consumer's decision as to what to buy. The direct impact of COO effect on behavioural intentions has been confirmed by Villanueva and Papadopoulos (2003).

Johansson and Nebenzahl (1986) found that multi-national firms with foreign manufacturing operations may face the risk of potential loss in brand image depending on the country of production image. This makes knowledge of the process of the COO effect information processing important, in order that the COO effect may be manipulated. Martin and Eroglu (1993) suggested that international managers need to assess the extent to which relevant country images are favourable or unfavourable, how they affect product quality perceptions and purchase decisions, and how they can be used to develop effective marketing strategies.

These diverse COO information processing models lead to the conclusion that different studies of COO effects conducted in different countries and cultures, about different product categories, at different times, etc. will most likely reveal different levels of COO effects. Martin and Eroglu's (1993) study showed that country evoked different product images in consumers' minds. However, because country of origin effects vary across countries, sample and products, the results of this stream of research seem to lack consistency and generalisability.

Bandyopadhyay (2001) recommended that caution should be exercised in generalizing the results across all product categories, as the product category is a salient factor in product country of origin evaluations. Newberry et al. (2003) reported that the findings apply to one service industry in a limited geographic market and should not be generalized across other industries or markets without close examination of those product classes or markets. Papadopoulos and Heslop (2002) concluded that the research which they had reviewed clearly suggests that there is a need to think very carefully before deciding on any particular strategy for country branding and positioning.

Ozretic-Dosen et al. (2007) criticized generalization of the different studies' findings, stating that generalizations drawn from studies' discussions should include only the countries where the studies take place, and the countries on which the studies focus.

Thus, we need to conduct many different studies under different circumstances in every country to be able to generalize the findings of those studies, and we should be very cautious about generalizing the results of any single study.

2.5 Types and historical development of COO effect research

This section is intended to illustrate the progress that research into COO effects has made and how it has moved from simple studies to sophisticated and in-depth ones. Laroche et al. (2005) indicated that research on the product country image (known as country of origin) began about 40 years ago and has grown rapidly to become one of the most important fields in international marketing and business theory.

Based on the nature of the issues dealt with, country of origin research can be divided into three types of studies, which reflect to some extent the chronological development of the research in this field:

1. Single-cue studies

2. Multiple-cue studies

3. High complexity and approaching reality studies

2.5.1 Single-cue Studies

The early studies, which were conducted to prove the existence of COO effects, were of three types. While some studies dealt with general products (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Nagashima, 1970 and 1977), others dealt with classes of products (Dornoff et al., 1974; Nagashima, 1970, 1977), and a third group of studies dealt with a specific type of product (Tongberg, 1972; White, 1979). White and Cundiff (1978) found COO to be a salient cue in buyers' perceptions of quality of a specific brand when purchasing industrial products (Yaprak, 1978). Reierson's (1966, 1967) subsequent research focused on consumers' perceptions of product quality and documented the existence of COO effects, whether on general products, classes of products or specific products.

Kaynak and Kara (2001) indicated that single-cue studies produced a greater country of origin effect than did multiple-cue studies and studies of larger samples produced COO effect sizes greater than those produced by studies with smaller samples. The size of an observed country of origin effect was a function of whether the dependent variable was a quality/reliability perception or a purchase intention. According to Cai et al. (2004), one could misunderstand consumers' rationality of purchase behaviours by focusing only on any single piece of information. In a real purchase environment, a consumer who pays attention to the country or origin information will no doubt do so in the context of other information such as price and quality assessment.

The single-cue studies succeeded in proving the existence of COO effects and acted as a good foundation for the coming studies. Moreover, the single-cue studies of the COO effect highlighted many issues that continue to represent research priorities for different researchers even at the present time. These issues include:

1- The effect of the COO level of economical development (Schooler, 1971; Tongberg, 1972; Krishnakumar, 1974; Hampton, 1977; Wang, 1978).

2- Ethnocentrism effect. (Gaedeke, 1973; Nagashima, 1970 and 1977; Lillis and Narayane 1974; Bannister and Saunders, 1978).

3- Change of consumers' attitude about a specific country. (Dornoff et al., 1974; Nagashima, 1970; Nagashima, 1977)

4- The effect of consumers' demographic characteristics on their perception of COO. (Schooler, 1971; Tongberg, 1972; Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Dornoff et al., 1974; and Wang, 1978)

2.5.2 Multiple-cue Studies

The second wave of studies overcame the single-cue studies' limitations. Studies began to be conducted with multiple cues, in an attempt to find the real effect of the country of origin (COO) in the real world. The multiple-cue studies dominated the period from the mid-1980s to the mid-1990s. Presenting the COO cue alone to the consumers is not sufficient to discover the effects of COO accurately; it is necessary to have other possible cues.

The next generation of COO effect studies began to introduce other cues for the participants. These studies, which started in the mid-1980s, stressed the importance of examining the COO as a salient quality determinant in the presence of and relative to other salient cues (Erickson et al., 1984; Johansson et al., 1985; Eroglu and Machleit, 1988; Han and Terpstra, 1988; Han, 1989; Hong and Wyer, 1989; Baker and Ballington, 2002).

Cai et al. (2004) found that the country of origin effect is better understood under a multi-cue environment; the multi-cue scenario is especially important in today's marketplace where consumers have access to a variety of product-related information. Knight et al. (2007) demonstrated that realistically, country image can act as only one of several extrinsic cues that buyers use to perceive quality of products or services.

In addition, the multiple-cue studies revealed that the effect of COO differs according to the product complexity. Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983) found that source

country effects tend to increase with the technological complexity of the product. Thus, the source country would be less important with shirts and blouses than with television sets and car radios.

Multiple-cue studies also revealed that different country stereotypes prevailed depending on the different product categories (Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983; Ettenson et al. 1988; Hong and Wyer, 1989; Wall et al. 1991). Han and Terpstra (1988) found that the image effect could vary across different product categories. For example, although Iran, a newly-industrialising country (NIC), is generally viewed negatively as a COO, woollen rugs made in this country are perceived quite favourably.

Since the use of different cues will approach the reality in the market so that the effect of the COO cue will be as close as possible to its effect in the real world, the multiple-cue approach is applied in this study.

The issues that have been proved in the literature of single-cue studies have also been supported by the multiple-cue studies; the effect of COO is supported (Papadopoulos et al. 1989; Wall et al. 1991; Tse and Gorn, 1993; Maheswaran, 1994), the effect of level of economic development (Wang and Lamb ,1983; Schellinck, 1989; Khachaturian and Morganosky, 1990; Wall et al. 1991; Li and Monroe 1992), the ethnocentrism effect (Kaynak and Cavusgil,1983; Papadopoulos, Heslop and Beracs, 1990; Yaprak and Baughn, 1991), change of consumer perception about COO over time (Morello, 1984; Wall and Heslop, 1986; Strutton et al., 1995), and the effect of consumer demographic characteristics (Wall and Heslop, 1985 and 1986; Johansson et al. 1985; Dickerson, 1987; Shimp and Sharma, 1987).

Thus, the multiple-cue studies have confirmed the existence of COO effects even though they have proven that the effect is less than the single cue studies had reported. Another important issue examined by the multiple-cue studies was the interaction between the COO cue and other cues. It was found that knowing the COO cue would affect how consumers perceive the other cues related to the same product.

Issues that emerged and findings revealed by the multiple-cue studies:

1- Previous knowledge and experience can influence the COO effect (Biehal, 1983; Eroglu and Machleit, 1988; Hong and Wyer, 1989).

2- Different levels of the COO effects (Hooley and Shipley, 1988).

3- The effect of COO differs according to the product complexity. (Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983)

4- Different country stereotypes prevail depending on the different product categories (Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983; Ettenson et al., 1988; Han and Terpstra, 1988; Hong and Wyer, 1989; Wall et al. 1991).

2.5.3 High-complexity and Approaching Reality Studies

The studies of the COO effects in the mid-1990s started to become more complex because of the increase in trade globalisation and several changes in economic issues. Pharr (2005) reported that coinciding perhaps in response to a call for them, a number of post-1995 studies tested a variety of cues or factors that could lessen or assuage country of origin's impact on product purchase intentions. Cai et al. (2004) reported that during the 1990s, the percentage of global production moving in world trade increased by half, so that by 2000, the ratio of world trade to world gross domestic production reached about 30% (WTO, 2001).

Cervino et al. (2005) suggested that it should be noted that the literature has gradually gained more depth and sophistication; much of the late research effort has been empirical and has identified some key constructs and influences in this area. Phau and Suntornnond (2006) reported that prior literature reflects that country of origin effect is a complex phenomenon and various factors can influence its magnitude.

The growing number of countries joining the World Trade Organization and the increase in the influence of this organisation on the international markets began to increase the effect of COO and create more dimensions to the COO concept. Philippidis and Hubbard (2003) suggested that understanding the levels of variation in global markets was becoming a hallmark of international trade in food products where the product-country images and preferences are likely to have implications for trade flows. Political issues and how different countries act politically have also made the perception of different countries in the consumers' minds more complicated.

Pharr (2005) presented some of the reasons for the changes that have restructured international/global markets over the last decade: 1– the advent and rapid growth of

the World Trade Organization; 2- United States membership in NAFTA coupled with the increasing importance of trade blocs in governing trade in all major regions of the world; 3- 'rules of origin' changes issued by the U.S. Customs Service to govern the classification of import products; and 4– worldwide acceptance of the internet as a medium of commerce irrespective of country boundaries.

The main issue of the studies during this period is that they are starting to approach the reality of the product in the market. The studies began to carry out types of simulation of the real world with real products that were already in the market. This allowed the participants to feel as if they were in a real-life situation. Cai et al. (2004) and Kaynak and Kara (2001) reported that in both experimental and survey studies conducted before the 1990s, intangible descriptions of product cues, such as photo and verbal attribute descriptions, were commonly employed. They added that when subjects were not shown tangible goods, it was difficult to be sure what they actually had in mind when they expressed attitudes and/or evaluated products. Some recent studies that employed an experimental design to investigate country of origin effects used tangible goods, ranging from computers and VCRs to wallets and T-shirts. Using tangible goods facilitates researchers' examinations of consumers' information processing regarding both product evaluation and purchase intentions (Cai et al. 2004).

Lin and Kao (2004) found that product complexity could moderate country of origin effect on purchase intentions.

Pharr (2005) indicated that over the last decade, the use of more realistic multiple-cue studies has helped uncover a number of factors that temper the country of origin effect on cognitive and behavioural responses. First, the product itself apparently carries a great deal of weight in determining the extent to which a country of origin effect will emerge. Moreover, the studies have shown that both extrinsic and intrinsic product cues have demonstrated the ability to moderate the country of origin's influence. This negates the idea of a generalisable country of origin effect and suggests that product-related factors should be included as moderators of the country of origin effects. Second, individual consumer factors like the level of product familiarity and involvement have been found to influence country of origin effect. Third, holistic brand constructs such as brand image or brand equity have been found

to moderate the effect of country of origin on product evaluations and purchase intentions. Lastly, concerning price as a moderator, the influence of price information in conjunction with country of origin information is not well understood. Some studies have suggested that price information trumps COO information when both are known to buyers, while others suggest that price and COO interact to influence consumers' product quality evaluations and that neither variable produces significant influence when presented with the other. Others suggest that, while price may directly affect purchase intentions, COO does not – although COO can affect the same consumers' perceptions of product "value".

Phau and Suntornnond (2006) argued that a consumer's direct experience with a particular brand is likely to enhance the use of brand name as a choice criterion. This will diminish the effects of country of origin cues, whereas general product class knowledge will probably facilitate the use of other extrinsic product cues including country of origin. Phau and Suntornnond (2006) found that country of origin as a cue for product evaluation is of special importance to customers with lower levels of brand familiarity.

The high complexity and approaching reality studies have emphasized the following issues:

1- The importance of culture (Hannerz, 1990; Diamantopoulos et al, 1995)

2- Increased importance of brand as a cue in the COO-effect studies. Samiee (1994) found that consumer perceptions were influenced by brand familiarity (d'Astous and Ahmed, 1999; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001)

3- Differentiation of the COO effects by the level of involvement. (Maheswaran,1994 ; Baker et al. 2002)

4- The hybrid product issue: a hybrid product is a product that is produced in two or more countries, e.g. in the automobile industry, the engine could be produced in one country and other parts in a different country (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001; Chao, 2001).

2.6 Limitations of the COO Literature

2.6.1 Inadequate assessment of reliability and validity of the measurement scales

The reliability and validity of the COO measurement scales used have not been assessed adequately and they do not fit different cultures (Etzel and Walker, 1974; Darling and Kraft, 1977; Han, 1989). Martin and Eroglu (1993) criticized the measures used in COO research and indicated that it suffered from similar weaknesses to those found in cross-cultural consumer behaviour studies; namely, the shortage of valid and reliable measuring instruments. The scales that have been used to assess the COO effects are not reliable enough for such assessment and this necessitates developing new, more reliable scales. For those scales to be applied in different cultures and for different types of products, they require certain adaptations in order for them to fit different cultures and be used for different types of products.

Martin and Eroglu (1993) found through their extensive literature review that the measures that were being used in the literature seemed to be questionable for two reasons. First, from a conceptual perspective, most of the scales presently used do not clearly distinguish between the images of different objects; i.e., whether it is a country image or product image that is being measured. This is a criticism of the famous Nagashima (1970, 1977) scale, which used the products' attributes (e.g. reliable, expensive, etc) to measure the COO effect, while, if the country image is to be measured, the scale items should capture country-relevant attributes (technically advanced, ethnocentric, etc). The second weakness is the low reliability ratings of the existing scales used in country image studies. Martin and Eroglu (1993) stated that Narayana (1981) and Cattin et al. (1982) had reported poor reliabilities in their efforts to validate some of the popular scales and their findings were supported by Jaffe and Nebenzahl's (1984) results, which were not tested for internal consistency and stability either.

Ahmed and d'Astous (2001) reported that looking at the extensive reviews of the COO literature by Klein et al. (1998), Chao (1998), Samiee (1994), Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999) and others, no study had thus far reported results dealing with the multi-dimensionality of the COO, product and market-related multi-attribute influences, and customer-based segmentation variables. Ahmed and d'Astous (1992)

and Chao (1993) argued that researchers interested in studying COO effects must adopt a research approach where COO information was presented along with other informational cues such as brand name and warranty. Leclerc et al. (1994) demonstrated how the COO effect was reflected in a brand name. From all these studies, and to give a better evaluation of the COO effects on consumer perceptions or purchasing decisions, we should consider conducting multi-cue studies.

Bilkey and Nes (1982) reported that in previous research the researchers were not sure if the discrepancy of the different levels of COO effects were a result of actual differences in the country or product image or due to the use of different measuring instruments.

Johansson et al. (1985) were among those who carried out multi-cue COO research using a new methodological approach, and they suggested that the COO of a car does not affect overall ratings, but has some effect on rating of specific attributes. They concluded that the COO effect was relatively minor. However, in view of previous research indicating the existence of COO effects, such a conclusion may be somewhat premature. Ahmed and d'Astous (2001) found that multiple-cue differences between countries were smaller than single-cue differences.

Martin and Eroglu (1993) suggested that future research should look at the ability to use measures of country image to predict the probability of purchase behaviour; i.e., what are the stereotypes that consumers have of countries that rank as planned economies with low standards of living and low literacy rates and levels of industrialization? The next interesting issue is to determine if the stereotypes that form the country image also affect the probability of buying a certain product from that country.

As a contribution to the COO literature, a new measurement scale for the COO effects is adapted in this study, one that is appropriate for Saudi Arabia as a country with a culture that is different from other countries, both Western and Eastern (e.g. different language and religion). Introducing the extrinsic cues and their significance for the COO effects, those cues are always controllable by the decision makers. Their effects can be controlled more easily than those of the intrinsic cues. Martin and Eroglu's (1993) suggestion will be used as a base for measuring the COO effect with some adaptation to the scale so that it fits the research country.

A comprehensive discussion of the measurement of the COO effect used in this study is presented in *Chapter Six*. This attempt is made because of the recognition that it would not be possible to generalise the findings of any study that had been conducted for a specific product category and/or country to another product category and/or country. This necessitates conducting as many studies as possible for different product categories and countries in order to be able to generalize the findings.

2.6.2 Limitations of sampling techniques

One of the methodological limitations is that of sampling techniques such as using university students or executives who do not represent the population. Baker and Ballington (2002), in reviewing the limitations of the previous studies, reported that one of the limitations is that the sampling techniques used have been criticised for employing non-probability convenience methods such as using atypical populations, e.g. students. To overcome this limitation, the appropriate sampling technique will be applied to the sample of this research to obtain a sample that represents the study population.

2.6.3 Limited geographical spread of study areas

Most of the previous COO studies were conducted in the United States, Canada, and other developed countries, with respondents from those countries. Chinen et al. (2000) pointed out that much of the COO literature has focused on two countries. Rogers et al. (2005) argue that most internationalisation and market orientation studies to date have focused on manufacturing companies in Western, highly developed markets. Baker and Ballington (2002) recognised that the lack of wide geographical spread of the research areas, which may imply lack of cross-cultural representation, could limit the comparability of results, as the majority of research involved either American or Japanese respondents. The respondents may not be able to differentiate between the national product stereotype and products from different countries.

There is a great need for more cross-cultural studies including different countries with different cultures, religions, economic development levels, etc. Papadopoulos and Heslop (2002) criticised the fact that only a few studies have analysed the COO phenomena and effects across multiple countries. Amine et al. (2005) conducted their study in Taiwan, a newly-industrialised country, in response to calls by Batra and

colleagues (2000) and Balabanis et al. (2002) for a shift in focus in country of origin research from the United States and the United Kingdom to include different country settings. This will offer some clarification as to whether the consumers in those different countries perceive the COO in the same way as the consumers from developed countries and will determine the extent of the COO effects.

Religion, which is a very important factor that could influence the effect of any country of origin, will be given due consideration in this study, as it deals with a food product of animal origin (meat) that has very strict religious prerequisites that should be observed in the Muslim world. The effect of religion on consumers' perceptions of COO and brands of food products such as the notion of *halal* food in Islam is not dealt with in the literature at all. Tuncalp and Yavas (1990) found Islam and tribal heritage were the most influential factors shaping current Saudi value systems; both religious and tribal traditions meld the values among others and reinforce the centrality of family.

Only very limited COO studies have been done in the Middle East region and this represents another serious gap in the literature, as this region has its own unique culture, particularly with respect to food products of animal origin. Bhuian (1997) reported that most previous studies had been carried out in USA; few had been applied in Saudi markets. The Middle East, with its predominantly Islamic culture, which has a strong effect on all aspects of life, deserves to be considered in future studies of COO, particularly those studies dealing with food products of animal origin. In this study, Saudi Arabia, which is part of the Middle East, will be the study location and this will be an original addition to the literature since the findings will be compared with the findings of similar studies that had been conducted in other parts of the world, particularly those studies conducted in non-Muslim countries. This will reveal the differences, if such exist, in the perception of respondents in countries with different cultures and religions regarding COO and branded products.

Replication of COO studies in different cultures and with different product categories (which have different dimensions) and different levels of involvement will help to generalize the findings of the studies of COO effects.

2.6.4 Scarcity of food product studies

The product category has proved to be a very important factor that can differentiate the COO effect. The level of involvement affects the COO effect and it differs depending on the product category. The different findings about the effects of COO on consumer perception could be related to the different types of products that have been studied. This illustrates that the inconsistent findings of previous research (some of which found the effects of COO to be significant while others did not) may be partially attributed to the product category used in the analysis. Etzel and Walker (1974) studied the degree of congruence between general national product stereotypes and attitudes toward specific products. They found a significant difference between general attitude towards the country and attitudes towards specific products.

Pappu et al. (2007) stated that country image was found to be transferable between different products categories. That could be because of the small number of product categories that have been studied in the literature. More categories should be studied to prove the effects of different product categories on the COO effect when evaluating a product.

There are many studies about food products, but studies of the effect of COO using food as the study product are still very limited. Most of the studies of COO effects have focused on high involvement products; there have been few studies on the impact of consumers' COO perceptions on low involvement products such as food (Ahmed et al. 2002).

Knight et al. (2007) reported the product-country image literature is concerned mainly with high-involvement consumer purchasing of durable products, and in particular products bearing well-recognized brands. They added that there have been far fewer studies dealing with the importance of product-country image in relation to the purchase of food products, which are generally low-involvement, from the perspective of consumers. Phau and Suntornnond (2006) reported a gap in the previous studies, as previous country of origin studies mostly used durable, complex and high financial risk products, such as automobiles and electronic appliances.

Very few studies have investigated solely non-durable, low financial risk, fast-moving fast consumer goods. This makes conducting research on different products essential in order to understand the COO effect on different product categories. Most

of the studies in the literature have concerned on cars, T.V. sets, appliances, etc. and very few studies have been conducted on the effect of COO on food products. Food products are one of the most important product categories that most often involve a daily buying decision, which means that any change in the COO perception because of changes in the economic climate or any other issues will directly affect the consumers' buying intention. Philippidis and Hubbard (2003) reported that some previous researchers had proved that there was evidence that food products exhibited strong country of origin characteristics.

The small number of food product studies that have studied the effect of COO on buying intention have recognised the dearth of similar studies and emphasised the need for further studies to be conducted in the future to explore the effect of COO using food as the study product (Ahmed et al. 2002).

Tuncalp and Yavas (1990) stated that Saudis spent significantly larger amounts on groceries per month than the expatriates in Saudi Arabia. Relatively, the higher food expenditures by Saudi households is not surprising, because of the size of Saudi families, e.g. six members in one family.

2.7 Conclusion

A review of the literature on COO effects has revealed that the research in this area shows a chronological progress in the manner in which it moved from simple single-cue studies towards high complexity and approaching-reality studies. Over time, researchers came to recognize that the COO concept is a multidimensional concept rather than a one-dimensional concept, and more dimensions were recognised as time went on.

Moreover, with the development of the COO studies from simple single-cue studies to high complexity and approaching-reality studies, it was also recognised that COO interacts with several other factors that may change its effects. Among these factors are factors related to the product, and the consumers' demographic and psychographic characteristics.

It is anticipated that the COO concept will become even more complex in the future as researchers try to simulate the real world, which is becoming ever more complicated, particularly with the open world market that has resulted from the establishment of the

World Trade Organization and the consequent willingness of different countries to facilitate the movement of different products in international markets.

There are several issues and factors that interact with or otherwise affect the COO effect. These include brand, and consumers' demographic and psychographic characteristics. These are to be included in the study theoretical model to contribute to its development. In order to appreciate fully the contribution of these various elements to the model, it is necessary to acquire greater insight into them. It is with this purpose in mind that they will be discussed and conceptualised in some depth in *Chapters Three* and *Four*.

Chapter Three

Literature Review & Theoretical Framework: Brands

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the definition of the brand concept, its dimensions and importance in influencing consumers' perceptions about different goods, and to a review of the relevant literature. Related concepts that are of relevance to the current study such as brand name, branded product and quality, packaging and price are discussed in terms of the theories presented in previous studies as variable product characteristics.

The conceptualisation of the branded product (brand as a person and brand as a product) is also presented and discussed.

The overall objective of the chapter is to justify and present evidence for the importance of including the branded product construct in the study's analytical model, as a construct that may have similar to the country of origin (COO) effect on consumers' perceptions and buying intentions.

3.2 The branded product concept

The product attributes that cover both the extrinsic and intrinsic cues are labelled 'branded product', which will be conceptualised to cover the categories of both cues. After defining and illustrating the importance of the branded product construct, some of its dimensions, such as reliability and quality, will be presented and defined in an attempt to clarify their importance and how they could affect the product when they are attached to it, rather than studying the product without knowing its brand.

Brand is one of the issues that marketers have been discussing widely for a very long time, and many arguments about most brand details are still valid. Dong and Helms (2001) defined the brand image as *"consumer perceptions of a brand as reflected by the associations held in consumers' memories"*. They added that the brand has many elements, such as brand name, logo, signs, jingles, etc. Brand has many different definitions depending on the perspective used. The American Marketing Association defines a brand as a '*name, term, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of them intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiated them from those of competitors'*.

Fan (2002) found that brand is widely defined as *"a name, logo, symbol or any combination of these definitions that identifies a product or service and differentiates it from other competing products"*. Kotler and Gertner (2002) have indicated that *"brands differentiate products and represent a promise of value; brands incite beliefs, evoke emotions and prompt behaviours"*. A brand is essentially a marketer's promise to deliver a specific set of features, benefits and services consistently to the buyers. The marketer must establish a mission for the brand and a vision of what the brand must be and do. The marketer must think that he is offering a contract to the customer regarding how the brand will perform. Moreover, this contract must be honest and should be honoured (Kotler, 2003).

Thus, it is clear that brand is a complex symbol that can convey up to six meanings (Kotler, 2003): 1) *Attributes*: a brand brings to mind certain attributes. 2) *Benefits*: attributes must be translated into functional and emotional benefits. 3) *Values*: the brand also says something about the producer's values. 4) *Culture*: the brand may represent a certain culture. 5) *Personality*: the brand can project a certain personality. 6) *User*: the brand suggests the kind of the consumer who buys or uses the product.

Kotler and Gertner (2002) reported that brands have social and emotional value to users, they have personality and speak for the user, and they enhance the perceived utility and desirability of a product. They added that brand has the ability to add to or subtract from the perceived value of a product.

Tse and Gorn (1993) found that brand effects were very similar to those of country of origin. Taking this further, some researchers have argued that purchase intentions are directly impacted brand information, although not by COO, and they have concluded that the influence of COO is more likely to operate through other variables rather than directly on purchase intentions (Pharr, 2005). Dong and Helms (2001) have suggested that more evidence that shows the importance of brand names is the rapid growth and prosperity of the branding industry itself.

Brand has a major significant effect on both types (low and high-involvement) of product evaluation (Tse and Gorn, 1993). Consumers rated the Sony (a well-known brand) system more favourably than the GIW (a little-known brand). Tse and Gorn (1993) also found that experience and interaction with the brand has a significant effect on both types of product evaluation. Ozretic-Dosen et al. (2007) concluded

that objective and subjective knowledge of brand is clearly a strong motivator in purchase-related behaviour.

Therefore, marketers interested in developing strategies based on consumers' levels of familiarity with brand should take into account the knowledge that consumers have about their own products, as well as the knowledge that they hold about their competitors' products.

Understanding branding effects on consumers' perception will help marketers to devise the appropriate branding strategy in the market. The stereotype of a country in consumer perception could affect the image of its brand. Ghose and Lowengart (2001) reported that branding is one of the fundamental concepts of marketing; consumers look at brand name and make a variety of judgments about the product that could be related to perceptions of image, price, value and quality among other things. Consumer products are most likely branded and associated with country of origin at least in the consumers' minds.

The importance of brand names in product evaluation has long been established in marketing literature (Tse and Gorn, 1993). It has been argued that a brand name not only conveys a specific set of attributes and benefits to buyers, but it also expresses the values of the producer and the positioning of the product in the market (Fan, 2002). Thus, branding, when properly executed, could be a viable solution to the problem of fierce competition since brand names can enhance the consumer's perception of the value of the products (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1988).

It has long been recognised that the long-term success of a brand depends very much on the marketers' abilities to select a brand meaning (name) before the market entry, operationalise the meaning in the form of a brand image and maintain the image over time (Gardner and Levy, 1955). Dong and Helms (2001) have suggested that the importance of brand names is demonstrated by the rapid growth and prosperity of the branding industry itself.

Kinnear and Taylor (1973) argued that image is related to the brand name in at least two ways. *First*, the brand name contributes to the image; and *second*, it is through the brand name that image is projected. The brand name has been used as a synonym for the COO effects, and some studies have found that the brand name effect can some times overcome the effect of COO, especially in the case of well-known brand

names. Akshay and Monroe (1989) found that brand name is an important cue that consumers consider in their buying decision process, particularly for high-involvement purchases, such as automobiles.

Similarly, Phau and Suntornnond (2006) argued that consumer's direct experience with a particular brand is likely to enhance the use of brand name specifically as a choice criterion and this will diminish the effects of country of origin cue. Consequently, it has been argued that positive brand image provides protection against a negative country of origin evaluation (Jo et al. 2003).

Thus, it has been averred that an appropriate brand name makes a significant difference in the successful introduction of new products (Dong and Helms, 2001). Zaltman and Wallendorf (1979) found that brand name could account for as much as 40% of the success or failure of new products. Consistent with this, Dong and Helms (2001) indicated that despite all the differences in quality and features of a product, the brand name itself can influence Chinese consumers' attitudes towards the brand and therefore influences their purchasing decision. Hence, while a brand name by definition is invisible, intangible and weightless, it is essential and critical for the success of any company.

Thus, one of the most important extrinsic cues to have been discussed widely in the literature is the brand name, which can be conceptualised in such a way as to cover both the intrinsic and extrinsic branded product's attributes and distinguish it from other brands.

Kotler (2003) indicated that once a company decides on its brand-name strategy, it faces the task of choosing a specific brand name. The company could choose the name of a person, location, quality, lifestyle or an artificial name. He added that a brand name is much more than a name, logo, colours, a tagline or symbol. These are marketing tools and tactics. Since brand name is a communication tool that marketers use to reach the consumers' minds, its importance stems from the fact that it could send either positive or negative messages to the consumers. This makes it a crucial tool that should be handled properly.

Fan (2002) stated that the essence of a brand is a name in the memory of consumers. It is a perception map of positive and negative associations, a symbolic language and a network of associations. Weill and Olson (1989) reported that the choice of a brand

name could be highly important for the success of the products because of the various meanings the brand name can activate from consumers' memories.

Leclerc et al. (1994) indicated that from a strategic perspective, the desirability of a brand name can be judged along two dimensions: 1) the inherent ease with which the name can be encoded into, retained in, and retrieved from memory and 2) the extent to which the name supports or enhances the strategic positioning of the product (Park et al., 1986; Robertson 1989).

Collins (1977) proposed that a brand name should be unique, short, suggestive of the product, distinctive, and pronounceable in several languages. Robertson (1989) found that high imagery brand names were easier to recall across a variety of product categories. Fan (2002) reviewed many studies and concluded that there appears to be a consensus about the main characteristics that a good brand name should have. It should be short, easy to pronounce, memorable, descriptive of product benefits and possessing positive connotations. Similarly, Dong and Helms (2001) argued that a brand name that is both memorable and meaningful offers numerous benefits to a company.

A foreign-sounding brand name will have different effects on consumers than a local-sounding one. Douglas et al. (2001) stated that a critical factor influencing brand structure is the degree of cultural embeddedness of a product, which can be defined as the extent to which there are strong and deeply ingrained local preferences for specific products or product variants or if the products are considered an integral part of a culture. Leclerc et al. (1994) found that product perceptions and evaluations change as a function of whether the brand name is pronounced in French or English. French names were preferred over English names for hedonic products, which were more positively evaluated when they had French names as opposed to English names. Peterson and Ross (1972) found that certain words were more reminiscent of cereal brand names and others were more likely to remind consumers of detergents. This suggests that consumers associate certain words or sounds with particular product categories. This supports the argument that the brand name sound should match the product category. Some product categories are better perceived if they have a foreign-sounding brand name, while other categories are better perceived if they have a local-sounding brand name.

Keller (1993) found that incongruent brand associations result in less cohesive and more diffuse brand images. Leclerc et al. (1994) found that consumers usually have positive attitudes toward hedonic products produced in France, and the presence of 'made in France' alone should produce a more hedonic perception of the product.

However, it should be recognised that the meaning and image associated with the brand name depends upon the cultural context (Dong and Helms, 2001). In some less-developed countries it is appropriate to use a brand name that sounds as if it has an association with a developed country, such as a European name. Dong and Helms (2001) reported that some consumers might favour a US brand name, considering it fashionable to own a foreign-brand product. Quelch (1999) said that there is a common aspiration among mass-market consumers to test out, experiment with and enjoy the use of Western brands if at all possible. The consumer perception of a brand can be termed a brand image. Fan (2002) stated that the brand image refers to the perception of consumers, a picture in the mind of the beholder.

Studying the effect of brand name on Chinese consumers, Dong and Helms (2001) indicated that the symbolic meaning of a brand name may greatly influence their purchase decision. Therefore, choosing a brand name should be perceived as more than simply a translation exercise. Culture, norms, values, traditions and history must be considered when translating a brand name into Chinese. Leclerc et al. (1989) suggested that by selecting a brand name and having this brand name pronounced in a certain way, managers can make effective use of the national and cultural beliefs and stereotypes that consumers hold.

Fan (2002) concluded that no simple rule could guarantee finding a good brand name and he argued that more attention should be given to the meaning of the new name rather than to its sound. A meaningful name is crucial in developing both a mental image and favourable associations and most important is the brand's ability to reduce the burden on marketing communications to build awareness and link brand associations.

Marketers use many tools to attract consumers to their brand name, such as advertisements, trade shows, social activities and press releases, among many other tools. Different tools will be used according to budget and the product that has been branded; if the branded product is a consumer product, tools that can reach the

majority of consumers, such as mass media, can be used, but if the product is industrial then the tools that are appropriate for the industrial sector can be used.

The above explanation about brand is known as 'brand architecture', which was defined by Douglas et al. (2001) as a formal process and outcome by which management rationalises a firm's brands and makes it explicit how the brand names at each level in the organisation will be applied. He added that brand architecture also indicates how new brands, whether acquired or developed internally, will be treated.

Thakor and Pacheco (1997) stated that the studies of brand effects on consumers` perception have some limitations, such as the almost exclusive operationalisation of the brand name in terms of familiar versus new or unfamiliar brand names. Additionally, origin identifiers have typically been examined at country level and not the interregional images, with one exception, this being Elbeik's (1985) study. Just like country of origin (COO), brand is a multidimensional concept. Perceived quality, packaging and reliability are some of the most important brand dimensions

3.3 Branded product conceptualisation

It is clear from the literature review above that brand has two dimensional concepts, values and operational function, which can properly explain the brand concept. Veloutsou (2007), supporting the argument that consumers may develop relationships with specific brands, reported that the relationship with the mental images, "Symbols and Objects" can be one of the many aspects that can be used as a basis of a relationship (Gummesson, 1994). Although consumers' bonds with specific brands and services seem to be somewhat similar in nature (Johnston and Thomson, 2003), it has been appreciated that individuals develop relationships with brands in order to reduce their choice set (Sheth and Parvatiyar, 1995). Post-modern scholars have criticised traditional experimental researchers for narrow conceptualisation of products as bundles of functional attributes and failing to consider product symbolism, while some scholars' conceptualisations have included symbolic components (Austin et al. 2003).

According to Aaker's (1996) classification, brand identity consists of the brand as a product, brand as an organisation, brand as a person and brand as a symbol.

Veloutsou (2007) has argued that brand has two main dimensions: the brand organisation and the brand expression. The brand as an organisation is not relevant to this study because the branded products that come from specific countries will be tested, and the organisations producing the brand are therefore irrelevant.

Veloutsou (2001), following the line of Aaker (1996) mentioned above, argued that brand expression consists of the brand as a symbol, the brand as a product and the brand as a person. Brand as a symbol is the brand name or anything (colours, logos, etc.) that helps consumers recognise the branded products. Again, it is not appropriate to deal with the brand as symbol in this study as no specific brands will be tested, but a general branded product from the different given countries. Thus, the other two dimensions, i.e. brand as a person and brand as a product, which can develop connections to the markets will be considered as the bases to conceptualise the branded products in this study.

3.3.1 Brand as a Person

The brand personality gives the brand human characteristics that can distinguish one brand from another in a product category (Halliday, 1996). Aaker (1997) defined the brand personality as "*the set of human characteristics associated with a brand*". Brand personality can be used as a central driver to consumer preference and a common denominator that can be used to market a brand across cultures (Plummer, 1985; Biel, 1993, Fournier, 1998).

Many other brand personality definitions are to be found in the literature, most of them on the recognition of the use of human characteristics on brands (Freling and Forbes, 2005). They added that brands, like people, can acquire distinctive personalities which differentiate them in consumers' minds. The different perceptions of consumers about brand personality can be a result of their different cultures (Sung and Tinkham, 2005). They added that brand personality and human personality are not identical. Rojas-Mendez et al. (2004) have recognized that the brand personality concept possesses a stronger cultural component as a moderator than initially thought.

Freling and Forbes (2005) stated that because the brand is a cornerstone in marketing strategy, the brand personality concept and its influence on consumers has become a

critically important research topic. Dong and Helms (2001) reported that brand equity, brand suggestiveness and brand personality have received tremendous attention in the marketing literature in recent years. According to Azoulay and Kapferer (2003), "*brand personality is the set of human personality traits that are both applicable to and relevant for brands*". It is important to notice that brand personality must be managed (Triplett, 1994), and it helps to differentiate the brand (Halliday, 1996).

Freling and Forbes (2005) reported that researchers have neglected brand personality and focused on other branding issues, which has led to little-known terrain with limited theoretical or qualitative grounding.

3.3.1.1 Brand as a person dimensions

The concept of 'brand personality' originated as a non-product-based definition of brand and it captured all the non-product dimensions that are not related to the product's use, performance, benefits, attributes and in this way the definition of the term has been criticised as being too wide (Azoulay and Kapferer, 2003). It has been argued that brand personality tends to serve a symbolic or self-expressive function (Keller, 1993). Azoulay and Kapferer (2003) mentioned that it is obvious that the use of 'brand personality' originated as a non-product-based definition of the brand, and it captured all that was not bound to the product's use, performance, benefits, attributes, and so on.

Freling and Forbes (2005) stated that because of a natural human tendency to anthropomorphise non-human objects, consumers embrace brands with strong and positive personalities. 'Coca Cola is cool but Pepsi is young' is the kind of statement that you can hear about brands which describes them as persons. Aaker (1997) reported that previous research had suggested that the greater the congruity between the human characteristics that consistently and distinctively describe an individual's actual or ideal self and those that describe a brand, the greater the preference for the brand. Plummer (1985) reported that perceptions of brand personality traits could be formed and influenced by any direct or indirect contact that the consumer has with the brand. Levy (1959) argued that brand personality includes demographic characteristics such as gender.

The personal psychological features that have been used to conceptualise human personality are called the "Big Five" dimensions. These are: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness (Blackston, 1993). The same dimensions have been used to conceptualise the brand personality, but it is important to recognise that the different product categories need to be conceptualised differently depending on how consumers personalise the different branded products.

Azoulay and Kapferer (2003) argued that although human personality descriptions can be used to describe brand personality, the adjectives used to describe human personality may not all be relevant to brands. Accordingly, they defined brand personality as "*the set of human personality traits that are both applicable to and relevant for brands*". Moreover, the dimensions could be different according to the different cultures that the brand is based in. Freling and Forbes (2005) found that the crux of the brand personality theory is that consumers prefer brands with strong and favourable brand personality, and brand managers may use this preference to strengthen their brands.

Aaker (1997) concluded that little is known about the psychological mechanism by which brand personality operates across cultures. However, recent research in cultural psychology suggests that the symbolic use of brands differs considerably across cultures. Thus, it has been argued that brand knowledge includes how brands compare on different attributes and which attributes are most important in each setting (Baker et al. 2002).

Although Azoulay and Kapferer (2003) questioned the validity of the brand personality scale developed by Aaker in 1997, they acknowledged that most of the research conducted since then has been based on it. Moreover, they did not suggest another scale and most of the studies since then have continued using the Aaker (1997) as the main scale for brand personality studies. Venable et al. (2003) have reported that the Aaker (1997) brand personality measure has been examined across various cultural contexts and proved its consistencies in scale dimensions.

Aaker et al. (2001) have replicated the Aaker (1997) brand personality measure in three different culture (USA, Spain, and Japan) and found that the brand personality dimensions (sincerity, excitement, competence, and sophistication) had similar meanings in the different cultures, the United States and Japan. The same study was

been extended to Spain and found that while some dimensions had the same meaning in the United States and Spain, other dimensions had different meanings. That means that the different brand personality dimensions may or may not have the same meaning in different cultures and that could be assumed to be the case for a different product category too. This may lead to avoiding the use of the brand personality dimensions from culture to culture before verification of them and ensuring which of those dimensions could be used for that culture and for a specific product category.

In the same manner, Davies et al. (2001) replicated Aaker's (1997) study in the UK and found that the reliability of the scale items, western, small town and feminine, was low. This again supports the arguments that different cultures may use different dimensions for the brand personality construct.

The Aaker scale is therefore used in this study but, as mentioned above, the primary exploratory study and the focus groups will be used to verify which of those five dimensions are applicable to the product category and the Saudi culture that are to be studied.

Venable et al. (2003) used participants in a qualitative approach to include unique traits that fit the research sample culture. Sung and Tinkham (2005) supported the argument that the dimensions of the brand personality may change in different cultures. Rojas-Mendez et al. (2004) refined the scale, and found that only four dimensions were reliable and valid, which again proves the importance of verifying the scale in each different culture and/or product category.

3.3.2 Brand as a Product

The brand as a product is related to the product attributes which tend to serve a utilitarian function for consumers (Aaker, 1997). The brand as a product can be described as the branded product features and attributes that consumers have attached to a specific branded product. Some researchers have argued that the product, even the augmented product, is a pre-fabricated package of resources and features that is ready to be exchanged (Gronroos 1996; 1997; Veloutsou, 2007). However, others have argued that it could aid in the development of relationships; buyers develop relationship with the product (the object) (Saren and Tzokas, 1998).

The different product categories and different countries' cultures will affect which of the product features and attributes can be used to conceptualize the brand as a product dimension of the branded product construct. As with the brand as a person dimension, the primary exploratory study and the focus group discussion sessions will be used to find out which of the branded product features and attributes will be studied. .

3.3.2.1 The value of the product characteristics

Product characteristics have been proved to be very important factors that affect how the specific product could be evaluated. Different product categories will have a different level of evaluation for each product characteristic. Kaynak et al. (2000) found that country of origin significantly influenced Bangladeshi consumers' perception of products imported from overseas. In particular, there were variations in the product class evolutions across countries.

Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran (2000) anticipated that incongruent attribute information condensed in one product may not provide compelling evidence to evaluate the country of origin, since country of origin perceptions reflect the country's reputation for producing high or low-quality products in general. Blackwell et al. (2001) concluded that consumers may not buy a product when they do not have sufficient information. Pham (2006), in his study across regional trade areas, reported that the study arguments may be purely rhetorical to consumers, as their valuations of product dimensions differ across product class, and also differ across national boundaries. Still, there are common values that consumers can use to evaluate the different product categories.

Baker et al. (2002) found that brand knowledge includes how brands compared on different attributes and which brands possess unique attributes. Quality is defined as the degree to which a set of inherent characteristics fulfils consumers' requirements (The Quality Management Systems Fundamentals and Vocabulary, 2000). Increasing globalization and consumer needs for reassurance about product quality and reliability are resulting in a shift towards corporate endorsement of product brands (Douglas et al. 2001).

Chiou (2003) argued that when consumer was given a chance to evaluate the product personality, the perceived performance of the product would become an important input for the evaluation of the product. Miranda and Konya (2006) indicated that shoppers who are disposed to examine the country of manufacture are inclined to take particular note of the item's brand name. For example, even if a product is identified as "Australian made", unless it is a brand that consumers can recognise and with whose dimension of quality they are comfortable, there is no guarantee that they will buy it.

Brand name has been used typically as an extrinsic cue for the product, especially if the product is new or not been used before by the consumers who are targeted by the product. Extrinsic properties are not related directly to product performance but instead are used by consumers to infer product quality (Olson, 1973). That is why a well-established brand is considered a quality cue for consumers who are familiar with the brand. When consumers experience the product then they can have full information about it.

The consistency between the brand name and the other product attributes is absolutely essential to satisfy consumers. If the extrinsic cues provide conflicting information, credibility could decrease and consumers may discount the information (Kelley, 1987).

It is therefore important that the brand, as an honest contract, really reflects the attributes of the products, so that when consumers try the product they will get what they expect. Congruence between cues not only does not help in increasing perceptions of product hedonism, but has proved to be a definite disadvantage (Thakor and Pacheco, 1997).

Therefore, one of the advantages of building a strong and reputable brand name is using the brand as a cue for the product quality. Park and Winter (1979) found that, empirically, brand names are important sources of information for evaluating the quality of products.

According to Ettenson and Gaeth (1991), it is well established that marketers use brand names as distinctive labels to identify a product with a firm. They added that, in turn, this linking enhanced the product's attractiveness and provided the consumer with some assurance of the product's overall quality. Sternthal and Craig (1982)

found that consumers use a brand name as a surrogate for product quality, especially if other cues are not known.

On the other hand, according to the globalisation paradigm, as long as a product is of high quality, reliable and at a reasonable price, it will sell well in all markets (Levitt, 1983). But that does not mean a good brand name will have no effect; the brand name, as mentioned above, will act as a cue for good quality and reliability. Loken et al. (1986) reported that trademarks serve to identify the product or services so that consumer can be assured that goods marked with the same name, symbol or other design characteristics indeed come from the same source and therefore the marks can be relied upon to signify certain standards of quality.

One of the most important determinants of quality and acceptability of food products for Muslims is whether it is lawful and permitted from an Islamic point of view. This makes the label "*Halal* Food" an important dimension of food branded products in the Islamic world.

Monroe (2003) reported that extrinsic cues that may affect consumers' product evaluation include price, brand name, packaging and perceived warranty and guarantees. Emphasising the effect of extrinsic cues such as packaging, some researchers have claimed that 'the first taste is almost always with the eye' suggesting that visual cues, such as packaging and colour, greatly influence a consumer's initial acceptance of a food product (Imran, 1999; Knight et al. 2007). Knight et al. (2007) argued that packaging and labels on food products have the potential to play an important role in influencing consumers' decision-making, in view of the spontaneous nature of much food-purchasing behavior.

Even in the cases of the studies that failed to prove significant effects of packaging, the explanations given confirm the importance of packaging. For example, some researchers found that package appearance had no significant effect upon purchase of brands of scouring cleanser and coffee (Banks, 1950; Hooley and Shipley, 1988), but this has been explained by the argument that this finding might have been an artifact of the research procedures. Another suggested explanation for the lack of a significant effect of packaging is that all the packaging now in use is acceptable. Moreover, it has been argued that even if these explanations were not valid, a manufacturer should not feel free to package his coffee in torn, dirty bags.

Packaging for food is more critical because of its importance in maintaining the quality of the product. Attractiveness of packaging is also important to encourage consumers to try the product, especially if they do not have previous experience with that branded product. Consumers use brand, price, colour, taste and scent cues to judge the product quality (Cox, 1967). Olson (1972) considered taste to be one of the most important intrinsic cues that represent indigenous produce-related attributes. He added that intrinsic cues were more important than extrinsic cues in product quality evaluation. Walley et al. (2007) found that brand has a greater effect on purchase decision than price and service.

The importance of extrinsic cues such as brand and intrinsic cues such as taste has been discussed at great length in the literature. For example, it has been found that intrinsic cues (taste and freshness) are more important than extrinsic cues (price, packaging, and brand name) in determining Indian consumers' overall quality perceptions of processed food products (Chung et al. 2006). Chung et al. (2006) concluded that the extrinsic cues have no direct influence on overall quality perception, but that they have an indirect effect through their direct influences on intrinsic cues.

On the other hand, Holbrook et al. (1986) suggested that extrinsic cues such as packaging and brand may affect consumers' evaluation more than intrinsic cues for products for which image is important. Similarly, Richardson et al. (1994) argued that extrinsic cues can explain the difference in consumer product quality evaluation more than intrinsic cues can for packaged grocery products. This means that the product category is important in determining which of the cues has more effect on consumers' quality evaluation.

One of the limitations of the literature in this area is the lack of research examining the role of both intrinsic and extrinsic cues simultaneously in determining consumers' perception about a specific product category (Chung et al. 2006). This study is an attempt to fill this gap.

3.4 Perceived Brand Parity

The importance of the brand in any specific product could lose its importance if that specific brand has proved not to have an effect on the consumer who perceives the brand. That could happen if the brand parity of any product category is high. Henderson et al. (1998) found that the branding effects (brand parity is one of them) range from the benign to those that can have devastating effects on a brand's performance.

Brand differentiation is a marketing tool that is used to give a specific brand an edge over other brands. Iyer and Muncy (2005) indicated that one of the bases for different market structures is the extent to which products are differentiated. Opposite to brand differentiation is perceived brand parity, which is defined by Muncy (1996) as *"the overall perception held by the consumer that the differences between the major brand alternatives in a product category are small."* It has also been defined as *"the belief in the consumer's mind that major offerings in a product category are similar"* (Iyer and Muncy, 2005).

This means that if consumers perceive that the brand parity is high, then the major brands are similar and consumers see all the major offerings in a product category as being similar, while if they perceive that the brand parity is low, then the major brands are different and consumers see major differences between products in a particular category (Iyer and Muncy, 2005).

According to Muncy (1996), it is important to note that, as defined, brand parity exists as a perception in the consumer's mind and not necessarily as an intrinsic characteristic of a product class. Thus, it is possible that a consumer would not perceive parity in a product category where the brands are basically alike. The opposite could also hold true, in that a consumer could have high parity perception for a product category where the brands are quite dissimilar.

Dhar and Nowlis (1999) stated that although comparisons are often made for the purpose of choice, consumers at times also compare objects in order to make judgments of the similarity that are basic to categorisation, generalisation and discrimination. It has been acknowledged that *"the confusing similarity between brand names is fundamentally a psychological process that has arisen from similarity in the sight, sound and meaning of trademarks, which is related to the*

degree of care consumers employ when making marketplace evaluations and decisions" (Howard et al., 2000).

Knowing the perceived level of brand parity for a specific product category could affect the marketing activities that marketers perform. For example, if the brand parity is high for a specific product category then advertising efforts may not be the right way to increase sales, and reducing the price could be a better approach to adopt since consumers will be significantly price sensitive and tend to use the price as a quality cue (Obermiller and Wheatley, 1984; Handelsman, 1987; Iyer and Muncy, 2005).

Iyer and Muncy (2005) found that if parity is not just a perception and high parity actually exists, then investing advertising dollars makes sense only after making adjustments that will create real product differences. They recommend developing the quality and service needed to create loyalty and then battle parity so that brand loyalty can develop.

Giges (1988) also argued that consumers are less receptive to advertising when high parity perceptions exist. Iyer and Muncy (2005) reported that Kellner (2005), Chairman and CEO of Continental Air-lines, stated that the older airlines are struggling to engage in price competition with airlines that have more favourable cost structures due to newer jets and better labour contracts. Iyer and Muncy (2005) concluded that obviously the parity perceptions are hurting the larger, older airlines but benefiting the newer ones.

Thus, one company might want to fight parity while another may exist simply because of the evolution of an industry into a world of high parity perceptions. Lamons (1994), in contrast, suggested that we must learn to live with parity because it is a natural outgrowth of a product's evaluation. Malburg (2000) reached the same conclusion as Lamons (1994), that all product categories will reach parity over time.

Iyer and Muncy (2005) added that there are two reasons that brand managers fear brand parity. *First*, it is believed that if high parity exists, consumers will be much more price sensitive. *Second*, it is believed that brand parity is inversely related to brand loyalty. Therefore, it has been hypothesized that parity acts as a moderating variable that weakens the effect of variables such as satisfaction and perceived quality on brand loyalty (Iyer and Muncy, 2005).

Therefore, it has been argued that with a differentiation strategy, advertising should be used; however, with a low price strategy, parity perceptions should be fostered in an attempt to discourage brand loyalty. Thus, a starting point for many advertising campaigns should be a clear understanding of both the parity perceptions in the marketplace and the need to either develop or fight brand loyalty.

Despite the importance of parity, there has been surprisingly little research on product level brand parity perceptions and to what extent it operates as a moderating variable in the development of loyal customers (Iyer and Muncy, 2005).

Thus, brand similarity has been reviewed to assist in gaining a greater understanding of brand parity. However it is important to note that from the definition and application of brand similarity as a concept, it is different from brand parity. Brand parity means that the major brands in a specific category are the same, while brand similarity means that some of the brands within the category are the same, but others are different.

Yamin (2005) defined brand similarity as *"a lack of understanding and potential alteration of a consumer's choice or an incorrect brand evaluation caused by the perceived physical similarity of products or services"*. He defined brand confusion as *"a lack of understanding caused by the consumer being confronted with an overly information-rich environment that cannot be processed in the time available to fully understand and be confident in the purchase environment"*.

Hence, brand similarity is likely to lead to a delay or abandonment of decision making because when consumers are aware that there is at least a possibility that they are about to buy a brand that they did not intend to, they are likely to take more time to find out whether the (two or more) alternatives are actually the same.

Some researchers found that brand name similarity has a significant influence on judgments of common brand origin and under high-involvement conditions, brand names with shared meaning cause consumers to infer that both brands are likely to be made by the same company (Baker et al. 2002). Therefore, the information used to make that judgment differs by level of involvement.

In this study, brand parity is conceptualised and treated in a way that is different from that of Muncy (1996). Instead of comparing the overall different brands, the

comparison in this study will be between the different variables that conceptualise the branded product construct in order to measure the level of the perceived brand parity for all the different variables (see Chapter 5 & 6).

3.5 Conclusion

The underlying aim of this chapter has been the identification and justification of the significance of including the branded product construct in the study's analytical model. This key concept can act together with the country of origin (COO) to influence consumers' perceptions and buying intentions. The attempt to achieve this aim was made through a review of the relevant literature.

Generally speaking, it is safe to argue that there is a consensus in the literature about the existence and importance of the brand effect on consumers' evaluation of products, as brand names can enhance or diminish the consumer's perception of the value of the products. On the other hand, the causal relationship between brand and consumers' evaluation of products and the mechanisms, through which brand affects consumers' evaluation, is still controversial. This is mainly because of the complicated and multi-dimensional nature of the brand concept and its effect on buying intention with other concepts such as country of origin and brand parity on one hand, and the complicated nature of the consumers' usage of the different cues in their decision-making process on the other hand.

This study, therefore, represents an attempt towards overcoming the inconclusiveness of the research findings about the brand effect and its interaction with other concepts on the consumers' complicated multi-cue decision-making process regarding their evaluation of different products through incorporating all the relevant concepts in the study's analytical model.

Chapter Four

Literature Review & Theoretical Framework: Consumers' Demographic Characteristics, Ethnocentrism and Buying Intention

4.1 Introduction

Consumers' buying intention and actual buying behaviour are the ultimate outcome of their perceptions about COO and branded product. Therefore, it is crucial to identify the most important factors influencing consumers' perception of COO and a product brand to understand better the underlying factors that influence their buying intention and actual buying behaviour. Many studies have recognised consumers' demographic characteristics (age, sex, education, occupation and income) and psychographic variables (ethnocentrism) as factors that affect their perception about COO and product brand.

The literature has clearly stated that the more cues given to consumers, the more difficult the buying decision will be, yet few of the studies have given all the cues that the consumer may be exposed to in real life, which may give a misleading outcome to the studies. All the real life cues should be given to consumers to study the real effects of the different cues.

The buying decision is not an easy one; different consumers will have different ways of processing the different cues. Knowledge of the process of buying is vital in order to evaluate the findings of any study. For example, it is critical to cover the emotional part of consumer decision making rather than considering only the product features.

Therefore, the indirect effect of the consumers' demographic characteristics (through their effect on their perceptions of COO and branded product) on their buying intention is examined in this study. This necessitates reviewing literature on consumers' perception concepts, the effect of COO and brand on consumers' perception, the possible relationships between consumers' demographic characteristics and psychographic variables on their perceptions of brands and country of origin.

4.2 Consumer perception concept

Consumer perception, which is defined as *"the process by which an individual selects, organizes and interprets information inputs to create a meaningful picture of the world"* (Kotler, 2003), is one of the most important issues to have been studied

by marketing researchers and it has a strong effect on the marketing strategies of organisations. Consumer perception is a strong drive for the consumer decisions which represent their reaction to those perceptions.

Boulding (1956) argued that people do not react to reality but to their perception of the reality; this shows the importance of consumer perception. Decision makers are very much interested in consumers' perceptions as they recognise that knowing these perceptions will help them make the proper marketing strategy for their products and/or services so that it fits the consumers' perception. The positive perception that consumers have about goods or services will affect the consumer buying behaviour for those goods or services. Bhuian (1997) found that there was a significant difference in the attitudes of Saudi consumers toward products in general and the associated marketing practices of products produced in different countries.

4.2.1 Operationalisation of the consumer perception concept

The consumer perception concept can be operationalised, with regard to the country of origin and/or brands of any specific product category, among other factors. The operationalisation of the concept with the COO and brand will be discussed and criticised in the following two sections:

4.2.1.1 Operationalisation of the consumer perception concept (COO)

The quality of the products that are produced by companies can be measured by consumer perception. The ways in which consumers judge product quality are variable. Johansson et al. (1985) found that consumers with specific product knowledge, and hence a high ability to evaluate a specific product, tended to rate products either more or less positively than those with less knowledge. Previous experience is one of the most important methods for judging the quality of a product. When the consumer is familiar with the product, he/she can judge the quality of that product, but what if that product is new on the market or he/she has not used it before?

The consumer's background about any product could give him/her the ability to evaluate the product better and can be used as a factor for deciding the country of origin preference. Eroglu and Machleit (1988) found that perceived ability to detect inter-brand quality differences is expected to affect the cue perception process.

Eroglu and Machleit (1988) added that previous research (Assael, 1985) supports this premise. Consumers who detect higher inter-brand quality variation are likely to spend more time and effort in selecting and evaluating the relevant quality cues. Eroglu and Machleit (1988) found that the more complex the way the individual views a product, the more quality cues there are to select from. Therefore, with a higher number of available quality cues, consumers' perceptions of their own ability to detect quality differences would increase.

International marketers need to understand these images as they relate to both their own and their competitors' products. Specifically, they will need to determine whether such images are positive or negative, whether and how they affect behaviour, and how they can be catered for in their marketing strategy (Hooley and Shipley, 1988).

The price of the product is another factor that consumers can use to judge the quality of the product. Newman and Becknell (1970) stated that the evaluation of product quality is clouded by the fact that some consumers may make quality judgments on the basis of price rather than physical product attributes. Product with low prices could be perceived as being of bad quality by consumers. Tull et al. (1964) found that some consumers may feel less satisfied with low-priced products. Shapiro (1968) reported that some consumers may choose high-priced brands in order to reduce the risk of choosing inferior products. Rao and Monroe (1988) found that when consumers are unable or are not motivated to process product attribute information, they are more likely to use the price-quality heuristic when evaluating a product offering. Monroe (2003) found that price might play a uniquely negative or positive role in the assessment of value because price serves not only as an indicator of sacrifice but also as an indicator of quality.

Suri and Monroe (2003) stated that in uncertain information environments, price serves not only as an indicator of monetary sacrifice but also as an indicator of product quality. This relation between price and perceived quality is a heuristic one that enables consumers to use an attribute like price to make judgments about the product's quality. Store image can be used as a quality cue for the consumer, as the store with a good image may be presumed to hold quality products; in contrast, low image stores could have low quality products. They added that consumers are less

likely to use price as an indicator of quality when they have the ability and motivation to process other information that might help their evaluations. In such situations it is likely that price will serve more as an indicator of sacrifice than as an indicator of quality.

Thus, when contexts allow consumers to process the available information, price is more likely to be used to infer sacrifice than quality. But when situations limit information processing, price information is likely to be used to infer quality rather than sacrifice.

Wheatley and Chiu (1977) found that price may interact with other informational cues, such as store image and brand familiarity, to serve as a basis for making quality judgments and preferences. Retailers need to make sure that they have the quality that their consumers are looking for, i.e. that they have matched the expectations of their customers' needs. One more method of evaluating the quality of the product, as stated by Wheatley and Chiu (1977), is the brand name of the product, which is commonly used by consumers as a cue of quality.

The importance of the different cues that may affect consumers' buying decisions is well documented in the literature; the more cues there are, the more complex the decision is and the less the COO effect will be. Different cues will have different effects on different consumers having previous experience with the cues and with the product itself; this is a very important consideration for both researchers and the policy makers in real life practice.

Nationalism has an effect on consumers' perception about quality of products. Woodside and Taylor (1978) found that consumer perceptions of product quality increased as consumers perceived level of national advertising increased. Elliott and Cameron (1994) found that where products differed only in their country of origin; the difference in perceived quality was significant. This reinforces the notion that information about country of origin may indeed act as a surrogate of quality, especially where all other 'intrinsic' or 'extrinsic' cues do not give a more positive indication of quality. They added that there is evidence also that consumers are prepared to make allowances for the locally made product, as long as its quality is comparable. Even in cases where the quality is considered to be only average, as long as it is comparable to alternatives, the local product will still be preferred. As a

result of that, imported product marketers will have to make more effort to market their imported products.

Elliott and Cameron (1994) suggested that imported products generally need to be of markedly superior quality or attractively priced relative to their locally-made counterparts if consumers are to give them first purchase preference. Needless say, if the quality of local product is bad, consumers will not buy it unless its price is lower than that of the imported product. Elliott and Cameron (1994) reported that in the absence of substantial improvement in quality levels, the locally-made products need to compete on the basis of price.

The price and quality of the products are two factors that have to be well balanced by marketers and it should be the case that the higher the quality, the higher the price and the lower the quality, the lower the price. Even so, quality that is higher than what consumers demand will increase the product cost and price but might not help the product in the market.

Time pressure can affect the choice between product quality and price. By examining consumers' trade-offs between quality and price in a time pressure situation, Nowlis (1995) found that consumers will choose higher quality and high price, high quality brands over low quality, and premium products over basic products. That is because they are trying to make sure that they have chosen the right product instead of taking the risk of buying any product, since they do not have much time.

Suri and Monroe (2003) reviewed the work of many researchers and concluded that one explanation for these reversals is that decision makers use different information integration process depending on the task. Indeed, under time-constrained conditions, people are more likely to use heuristics to simplify the cognitive task. Dhar and Nowlis (1999) stated that under time pressure conditions, consumers infer from less information processing than consumers in situations where there is no time pressure. Nowlis (1995) found that there is an implication of greater use of heuristics under conditions of time pressure. Not only do consumers use a brand name heuristic but they may use a price-quality heuristic as well.

In conclusion, we can say that the greater the ability to process information and the more motivation the consumer has, the better the systematic decisions he/she can make, and the less ability to process information and less motivation that he/she has,

the more he/she will use the heuristic cues. Different consumers will have different ways of processing their buying decisions depending on different factors: consumer experience, knowledge, time pressure, brand recognition, COO perception, and many other cues, which makes the process very complex and not easy to recognise.

Eagly and Chaiken (1993) found that when there is the motivation and ability to process information, people are likely to process information systematically. Suri and Monroe (2003) stated that such processing involves an analytic orientation in which consumers scrutinize all task-relevant information. However, if there is low motivation to process information or if the capacity to process information is constrained, then heuristic processing that requires less effort and information processing capacity rather than systematic processing will be used.

From the above, it could be argued that consumers' perception has a strong effect on the perceived quality of the products, and this should be considered by decision makers to understand how to overcome any negative perceptions that consumers have acquired about the quality of their products.

4.2.1.2 Operationalisation of the consumer perception concept (brand)

The meaning of brands is strongly attached to consumer perception, since whatever marketers do about branding is done in order to catch consumer attention. De Chernatony and Riley (1997) reported that the number of authors adhering to the concept of brands as associations in consumers' minds attests to the growing support for a consumer-centered perspective on the meaning of brands (e.g. Newman, 1957; Martineau, 1959; Joyce, 1963; Pitcher, 1985; Arnold, 1992). This has led to some definitions of brands that centre on consumer perceptions. Gardner and Levy (1955) defined brand as *"more than the label employed to differentiate between the manufacturers of a product. It is a complex symbol that represents a variety of ideas and attributes. It tells the consumers many things, not only by the way it sounds (and its literal meaning, if it has one) but, more importantly, via the body of associations it has built up and acquired as a public object over a period of time".*

De Chernatony and Riley (1997) have suggested that acting in accordance to this definition would force management to face the challenge of perceptual filters, which

change consumers' cognitions. Yet, effective brand management needs to balance input (supplier-based) activities with output (consumer-based) perceptions.

De Chernatony and Riley (1997) reported that de Chernatony and McWilliam (1989) and McWilliam (1991) summarized four complementary, rather than alternative, views of brands that a consumer might hold:

1. In its simplest form, a brand can be a means of identifying an offering. Recent evidence shows that often consumers do not even remember the names of the products they buy regularly, but rely on the packaging to identify what they are looking for.

2. A brand can also be a guarantee of consistent quality.

3. Brands can also act as shorthand devices encapsulating all the mental connections people have concerning them.

4. Brands also enable consumers to project aspects of their self-concepts. Several studies have shown that consumers may choose brands which they perceive to be congruent with their self-concept (e.g. Birdwell, 1968; Landon, 1974).

Brands can be considered as a promise or a guarantee for consumers from manufacturers. This promise can last until the consumer feels it has been broken, either from bad experience or a change in the brand features or quality or anything else that consumers may expect from the brand. This makes building the brand in consumers' minds a difficult process, and the brand needs to be maintained in order to continue being the source that the consumer considers when planning to buy a product.

The emotional part of a brand strongly interacts with the consumer perception, which gives an edge to the emotional aspects of any brand strategy. The emotional aspect of the brand communicates with the consumers interior feelings. Based on the in-depth interviews that they conducted with marketing experts, de Chernatony and Riley (1997) argued that it was commonly acknowledged that the emotional aspects of brands interact with performance perceptions to affect people's overall assessment (e.g. 'a brand exists in the mind or not at all as a blend of both tangible and intangible elements' - advertising consultant). They added that, consistent with the

continuum of brand definitions expressed by some experts, consumers have several views of brands.

Experts suggest that a consumer's view could be summarised by several spectra. For example, a basic sophisticated spectrum, ranging from the brand as a recognition device, to a shorthand notation, to functional consistency, to self-congratulation and, finally, surrogate expressions of values reflecting consumers' personalities.

Marketers should have in their minds that consumer satisfaction is a long-term objective of their organisations. Concentrating on the short-term objectives like making a quick profit or increasing the market share could affect the brand image in the consumer's minds.

De Chernatony and Riley (1997) reported that Deshpande et al. (1993) argued that a competitor orientation can be almost antithetical to a customer orientation, particularly since Farnell (1992) reported an empirical negative relationship between market share and customer satisfaction. Brand managers need to adopt greater consumer orientation.

The emotional aspect has been proven to be important in brand evaluation, but needless to say, the tangible feature of the brand is essential too; the weight of the two dimensions, emotional and tangible features (brand as product and as a person), very much depends on the product category. Consumer perception about the various brands is affected by the different cues of the brand, which makes it similar to the COO effect and thus it could act in the same manner.

4.3 The effect of consumers' demographic characteristics on their perceptions about COO of branded products

The influence of consumers' demographic characteristics on the COO effect has been widely documented in the literature (Wall and Heslop, 1985 and 1986; Johansson et al., 1985; Dickerson, 1987). In addition to their role in determining consumers' needs from different products, demographic variables such as age, gender, education, place of residence and travel abroad also affect consumers' perceptions of and attitudes towards branded products and their country of origin (Wang and Heitmeyer, 2006).

Thus, studying the effect of demographic variables could help decision makers to target their customers and plan their marketing activities for the right market segments.

4.3.1 Age

One of the factors that have an effect on consumers' perceptions of COO and product evaluation is the consumer's age. Consumer perception of products from different countries changes with the age factor. It has been found that younger consumers show a lower level of prejudice towards products originating from less-developed countries and react more favourably towards products made in newly-industrializing East Asian countries (Leonidou et al. 1999; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001). Badri et al. (1995) found that age has only occasional and marginal significance on how respondents perceive products from different countries.

Beaudoin et al. (1998) found that young fashion leaders have more positive attitude towards imported apparel than local ones. This is consistent with the adoption and diffusion of innovation literature which argues that young people are less conservative, more cosmopolitan, have more information about and relations with other communities and are more innovative compared to older people (Rogers, 1993). This will enable them have more information about and be familiar with those communities' products, which is considered to be the first step towards forming a positive attitude towards them.

In line with this argument, it has also been found that young consumers tend to be globally-minded, display a lower level of prejudice towards foreign products and are less likely to be nationalistic (Tongberg, 1972; Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Hett, 1993; Rawwas et al. 1996).

However, this is not consistent with earlier studies' findings which indicated that older persons tended to evaluate foreign products more highly than did younger persons (Schooler, 1971; Tongberg, 1972) or that they paid less attention to COO cues (Insch and McBride, 2004).

Moreover, it has been argued that consumers' age affects their use of COO and brand as cues for product quality, and that effect may be strikingly different from one country to another (Insch and McBride, 2004). Ozretic-Dosen et al. (2007) found that

young Croatian consumers use country of origin and brand as extrinsic cues to evaluate the quality of the product.

Ozretic-Dosen et al.'s (2007) findings make explicit the importance of country of origin and brand associations which young Croatian consumers attach to different products in the process of the consumption of a single low-involvement food product such as chocolate. Thus, some researchers have described the correlations between the consumers' age and perception about COO as consistent and strong (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001).

Therefore, in this study one would expect age to be related to the evaluation of products and countries as producers of consumer goods.

4.3.2 Education

Another factor that has an effect on consumers' perception towards COO and evaluation of products is the educational level of the consumers. Kaynak et al. (2000) argued that with advancements in satellite communications, travel, television outreach and Internet access as well as increased education, consumers all over the world are becoming more aware of the products/services available throughout the world. Badri et al. (1995) found that respondents with a higher educational level gave higher ratings to the U.S., Japanese, French, English and German products than respondents with a lower education level.

Wang and Heitmeyer (2006) found that consumers' educational level was significantly related to Taiwanese consumers' attitudes towards Taiwanese and US-made apparel. Schooler (1971), Anderson and Cunningham (1972), Dornoff et al. (1974), and Wang (1978) found that people with more education tended to rate foreign products more highly than did persons with limited education; however, Tongberg (1972) did not support this.

Moreover, although it has been argued that better-educated consumers tend to be globally-minded and display a lower level of prejudice towards foreign products (Hett, 1993; Rawwas et al. 1996), it has been also argued that the higher the consumers' educational level, the more unfavourable is their perception of products made in newly-industrialised countries (Samiee, 1994; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001).

Furthermore, Kaynak et al. (2000) indicated that consumers' education affects their product evaluation and they posited that consumers with lower educational attainment generally consider physical attributes of the product (intrinsic as well as extrinsic), whereas their counterparts with higher educational attainment place more importance on augmented parts of the product.

Therefore, it has been recommended that particular attention be paid to the role of education in the purchase of specific products in explaining differences in consumers' perceptions of COO (Samiee, 1994; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001).

4.3.3 Occupation

It is expected that occupation will be strongly related to education and income; i.e. occupation can serve as a proxy for the level of education and income. Thus, occupation has been proved to be one of the most important socio-economic characteristics of consumers to affect their perceptions and attitudes. Chao and Rajendran (1993) found that attitudes towards people owning foreign products have become quite favourable, particularly for those who belong to the professional ranks.

4.3.4 Income

One of the important socio-economic characteristics of consumers to have an effect on their perception towards COO is income. Basu and Chau (1998) illustrated the role of income redistributive policies in shifting consumer's demand in favour of Southern high-quality products. Whether the consumer's income is high or low will have an effect on the evaluation of the product label. Research results revealed that higher-income consumers, in general, tended to have more acceptance of foreign products than did lower-income ones (Wang, 1978; Niss, 1996). Furthermore, Leonidou et al. (1999) found that upper-class consumers showed a lower level of prejudice towards products originating from less-developed countries. With Badri et al. (1995), a significant difference was found with regard to two attributes and two countries only.

Similar to education, income also affects the criteria to be used for product evaluation. Kaynak et al. (2000) posited that low-income consumers generally consider the physical attributes of the product (intrinsic as well as extrinsic), whereas their counterparts with higher incomes place more importance on augmented parts of

the product. Again, in this study, one would expect consumers' income to be related to their evaluation of consumer goods and of countries as producers of consumer goods.

4.3.5 Gender

One of the cues that have an effect on consumers` perception of brands is their gender; females have different way of processing brand choice than males. Holbrook (1986) found that males and females differ regarding the attributes that they consider important for evaluating products. Nowaczyk (1982) found that women responded more to non-verbal stimuli and more elaborate descriptions than did their male counterparts. Johansson et al. (1985) found that male respondents tended to give more negative overall ratings to American cars than did female respondents and, in contrast, rated Japanese cars more positively.

Meyers-Levy and Sternthal (1991) found that males and females differ in how they make judgments. Harris et al. (1994) noted an interaction between gender and brand name. Thakor and Pacheco (1997) indicated that previous authors had highlighted differences between males and females in the way they process information and form judgments. They added that females tend to show more preference for French brand names over English names compared to males. Thakor and Pacheco (1997) reported that studies that attempted to relate the sex of the consumers to their responses to COO stimuli have often produced mixed results.

These studies have shown that males and females may respond differently to the COO cues depending on the particular source countries, products and attributes being studied. They found that males tend to rate brand name as more suitable when the product's country of origin was provided as opposed to when it was absent. This seems to suggest that, unlike females, males' attitudes towards brand names might be more easily influenced by identifying the brand's country of origin.

Consequently, it could be argued that males need to have both brand name and country of origin to facilitate their decisions, while females can proceed with each one of them separately.

Gender not only affects the perception, but also affects the attitude towards the products; that is, female attitudes towards a product differ from male attitudes.

Thakor and Pacheco (1997) found that gender differences were not only evident in subjects` perceptions of product hedonism, but were also apparent in their attitudes towards the brand names.

The gender of the respondents will not be included in this study because all the respondents are females. The decision that all the respondents be females is based on the result of previous manufacturers' studies which concluded that females make 85% of the decisions regarding the purchase of fast-moving food products (see Chapter 6).

This is consistent with Knight et al.'s (2007) argument, which is based on the results of Hoffmann (2000) and Nayga's (2000) studies, that women predominantly act as gatekeepers for the household, and tend to be more risk averse than men. This has also been supported by Hoffmann's (2000) conclusion that females use country of origin as a quality cue more than males in evaluating food quality safety.

The respondents' age, income, occupation and education will be included to test if they explain variations in the consumers' perceptions of COO and branded product.

4.4 Psychographic factors

The most important psychographic factor is ethnocentrism, which has been verified widely in the literature. Its effects have been captured in consumers who perceive COO effects (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1997; Bruning, 1997; Phau and Prendergast, 2000; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2000). Other psychographic factors such as dogmatism, conservatism, status concern, patriotism and others have been proved to be less important than the ethnocentrism factor (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1997; Phau and Prendergast, 2000).

Ethnocentrism is the most commonly studied psychographic factor out of many other factors (Phau and Prendergast, 2000) which makes it a factor that needs to be studied in the evaluation of the COO effect on buying intention.

4.4.1 Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism has been defined as *"the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing locally-made products products instead of foreign- made products"* (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). This is considered to

be the most important psychographic factor affecting how consumers perceive the COO (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1997; Bruning, 1997; Phau and Prendergast, 2000; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2000).

It is well documented in the literature that ethnocentrism has a strong influence on how a consumer perceives imported products compared to locally produced products (Orth and Firbasova, 2003; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004).

Many studies have revealed that consumers have a tendency to evaluate their own country's products more favourably than do foreigners (Gaedeke, 1973; Lillis and Narayane 1974; Nagashima, 1970 and 1977; Bannister and Saunders, 1978).

Darling and Kraft (1977) found that Finnish consumers rated domestic products significantly higher than foreign goods from major trading nations that hold dominant positions in the world markets. Bilkey and Nes (1982) mentioned that studies reporting US consumers' attitudes towards domestic products usually place US products in first place, while foreign studies, particularly European ones, have rated US products comparatively lower (e.g. Bruskin, int. 1962; Nagashima, 1977; Bannister and Saunders, 1978).

Kaynak and Kara (2001) suggested that in general, irrespective of nationality, place of residence and ethnic background, consumers prefer to purchase locally produced products. Ozretic-Dosen et al. (2007) have found that if a national Croatian brand of chocolate was of equal quality to brands from Western European countries, almost half of the respondents would buy the more expensive Croatian chocolate. They attributed that to consumers' ethnocentrism.

Balestrini et al. (2003) summarised from previous studies that domestic goods tend to be preferred in nations where:

1. Consumers have a strong sense of patriotism or national pride

2. The domestic economy is threatened by foreign goods

3. There is unfamiliarity with foreign products and brands

4. Product services are available.

It is clear that there is a consensus that country stereotypes significantly influence country of origin evaluations and it has been suggested that adding the ethnocentrism

variables to a set of demographic and psychographics variables will significantly improve the predictive ability of the set (Liu and Johnson, 2005; Pharr, 2005). It has been argued that, as a result of ethnocentrism, consumers may perceive a particular country's products to be of high quality, but they may not purchase that country's products (Chinen et al. 2000; Herche, 1994).

Since locally-produced and imported types of the products under consideration in this study are available and competing in the Saudi market, the psychographic factor of ethnocentrism is studied and included in the study analytical model.

4.5 Consumer perception and consumer behaviour

Consumer perception has been proved to be an important factor to be recognised by decision makers as helping to understand consumer behaviour in different markets towards different products under different circumstances.

4.5.1 Consumer perception as anticipant of consumer attitude

Consumer perception is important for decision makers. Knowing consumers' perceptions will help decision makers predict consumers' attitudes, which in turn will help them to be aware of their buying decisions. Consumers' attitudes are a result of their perceptions. Thus, knowing consumers' perceptions is essential for marketers to understand and manipulate consumers' attitudes and buying decisions. Yaprak and Parameswaran (1986) found that the influences of COO on purchase intention come about primarily through its influence on consumers' perception of the attributes of the particular product or brand.

Dawson (1970) stated that consumer orientation, in one definition, considers the consumer to be 'the absolute dead center of the universe'. Moreover, as far as present or potential consumers are concerned, consumer orientation generates concern only with the individual's role as a buyer or consumer of a particular product or service.

Thus, consumer orientation is limited in scope and is one-dimensional in nature. Dawson (1970) added that a broader human concept could provide management with a sense of direction in an era of increased concern about human conditions by committing the business organisation to the service of an internal and an external social purpose concurrent with realisation of profit.

According to Kotler (2003), the key point is that perceptions can vary widely among individuals who are exposed to the same reality. He added that one person might perceive a fast-talking salesperson as aggressive and insincere; while another might regard him as intelligent and helpful. Moreover, different consumer perceptions can exist for the same objects (e.g. TV commercials) and that is because of the different approaches with which consumers perceive things. This is very important for marketers to know and consider when performing their marketing activities.

Kotler (2003) reported that people could have different perceptions about the same objects because of three perceptional processes:

1. Selective Attention, which is a process in which a person screens out most of the stimuli that he/she is exposed to daily. This happens because he/she cannot possibly attend to all of the stimuli.

2. Selective Distortion, which is the tendency to twist information into personal meanings and interpret them in a way that fits individuals' preconceptions. Unfortunately, there is not much that marketers can do about selective distortion.

3. Selective Retention, which is a process in which people will forget much of what they learn, but will tend to retain information that supports their attitudes and beliefs. We are more likely to remember good points mentioned about a product and forget good points mentioned about the competing products.

Consequently, each individual will respond differently to the same salesperson. Thus, in marketing, people's perceptions are more important than reality. The different perceptions that consumers capture from the same messages can affect their attitude toward the brand and/or product, which makes understanding the process from the perception to the buying intention essential for marketing decision makers worldwide.

Although it is not easy to learn about consumer perception, there are nonetheless many methods of collecting data about consumer perception. A questionnaire is one of the most common methods, as they allow decision makers to learn from the consumers themselves what their perceptions are.

4.5.2 Consumer attitude as anticipant of consumer buying intention

The country of origin or branding could affect the perception, but not the attitude of consumers. That is because attitude is not affected by a single cue, but by different cues. Therefore, in order to study consumer attitudes we have to consider the effect of all the cues rather than the effect of only one or some cues. Mandler (1982) argued that attitudes might require the integration of one's associations with the many different aspects of the product and thus they are more cognitively demanding than perceptual judgments.

This contradicts the findings of some older studies that argued that the brand preference is identical to the attitudes of the consumers. Banks (1950) found that brand preference was almost identical to purchase intention and preference for brands was a good predictor of purchases for the individual as well as for the entire group. Brand name is widely considered to be one of the product attributes that consumers use in their product evaluation. Davis (1982) found that brand name was a major product attribute and a part of what the consumer buys. The last experience of the product also has an effect on consumers' attitudes towards that product and can make the attitude more stable.

In addition, Fazio and Zanna (1981) found that direct experiences have been shown to result in more stable attitudes that are more predictive of behaviour than indirect experiences. Zinkhan and Martin (1982) found that high levels of experience and interest in a product class can lead to high attitudinal levels for a new brand name. Zinkhan and Martin (1982) found that brand name alone can shift a consumer's attitude away from a neutral or zero level. However, it should be recognised that brand name alone cannot have an impact on consumer purchasing intentions.

With these findings, we expect to find a difference between consumer's attitude and real purchasing intention, so the brand name can help to change the attitude but other marketing activities should be carried out to convert the consumer's intention to a real purchase.

4.5.3 The effect of consumers' buying intention measurement on their buying intention

Measuring consumer intention to buy is a common research practice, but the effects of that measurement on consumer behaviour are also important considerations. Morwitz et al. (1993) found that merely asking consumers whether they intended to purchase an automobile or a personal computer in a survey increased their subsequent purchase rate. Fitzsimons and Morwitz (1996) suggested that the mere act of measurement creates purchase intentions either directly or by altering consumers' attitudes. They added that these purchase intentions are not only created, but also acted on. The measurement tool is considered to be a way of informing consumers about something that they do not know or at least reminding them about something that they already know. Fitzsimons and Morwitz (1996) suggested that for the non-user, accessibility of brand cognitions will be a function of external cues such as advertising, prominence of product display, and product promotion rather than direct product experience.

Morwitz et al. (1993) found that consumers whose purchase intentions were measured were more likely to buy a product from the category than was a control group of consumers whose intentions were not measured. They suggested that measuring intentions to buy a product can change purchase behaviour in two ways. *First*, measuring intention may make underlying product-related cognition, such as attitudes or intentions, more accessible. *Second*, measuring intentions can lead the respondent to engage in cognitive effort that results in the creation of or changes in these cognitions. In both cases the resulting purchase behaviour becomes more consistent with the respondent's cognitions when intentions are measured than when they are not. Even though researchers have proven the effect of the measurement tools on consumer's buying behaviour from the product categories, they have not proved anything about the effect of measurement on the brand sales.

Fitzsimons and Morwitz (1996) argued that it is important to evaluate the effects of measurement on the brands rather than on the product category for two main reasons. *First*, in practice, marketing researchers are usually more interested in the effect of a particular marketing action on their specific brand than on the entire product category. Therefore, the ability to isolate the brand-level impact of asking purchase

intention questions should be of interest to marketers. *Second*, this examination will extend the theoretical literature on the mere measurement effect by examining the brand-level behavioural impact.

The effect on the brand of the measurement tools on consumers' buying intention has been proven. Fitzsimons and Morwitz (1996) found that for consumers currently using a brand, asking questions about their future intentions to buy from a product category increases the market share of the brand currently used. They found a positive relationship between brands' repeat purchase rates and brand choice probability. This effect is stronger when intention questions are asked than when they are not. For consumers who do not currently use any brand in the product category, asking a purchase intention question increases the market share of those brands which have the largest market shares.

Fitzsimons and Morwitz (1996) suggested that when attitudes are positive it can be expected that asking intent questions will increase sales for the brand currently being used, but when attitudes are negative a decrease in the sales of those brands is to be anticipated. Williams (2002) asked how it was possible that simply asking questions, an act not necessarily intended to influence behavioural outcomes, appears to have such a significant and consistent impact on behaviour, while overt persuasion attempts such as advertisements, which are intended to directly influence behavioural outcomes, are not always so successful. He then suggested that when a question is asked by a source that appears to have a vested interest in the subject of the question, decision makers may adjust or override the effect of having been asked an intentions question by invoking their knowledge about persuasion attempts and persuasion tactics. He also argued that the 'mere measurement' effect occurs below the level of consciousness, and that any 'correction' of this automatic change in behaviour only occurs in situations in which the respondent perceives that the questioner is attempting to use the question to persuade him and has significant cognitive resources available to effectively and fully invoke persuasion knowledge when responding to the question.

4.5.4 Consumer buying intention models

As mentioned above, knowledge of consumer perception will help to increase knowledge of consumer-buying behaviour, which in turn will help to discover the

consumer buying decision, which is very important for marketers. Fitzsimons and Morwitz (1996) assumed that consumers follow a simple three-stage model of choice such as that proposed by Nedungadi et al. (1993). *First*, consumers will generate alternatives, in a stimulus-based manner, a memory-based manner, or most likely, some combination of the two. *Secondly*, consumers will determine which alternatives to consider selecting. Finally, they will select an alternative. Kotler (2003) elaborated on the process and provided a model that helps to understand the whole buying process. He suggested a stimulus-response model for understanding consumer buying behaviour (Fig. 4.1).

The model hypothesises that the four Ps (product, price, place and promotion) that the marketing strategy contains and the economical, technological, political and cultural factors (which are the environmental stimuli) enter the buyer's consciousness. The buyer's cultural, social, personal, and psychological characteristics and the buyer's decision process which includes problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision, and post-purchase behaviour lead to a buyer decision which consists of product choice, brand choice, dealer choice, purchase timing, and purchase amount. Kotler (2003) suggested that the marketer's task is to understand what happens in the buyer's consciousness between the arrival of outside stimuli and the purchase decisions.

Figure 4.1: Stimulus-response model

Marketing stimuli	Other stimuli	Buyer's Characteristics	Buyer's decision process	Buyer's decisions
Product	Economic	Cultural	Problem recognition	Product choice
Price	Technological	Social	Information search	Brand choice
Place	Political	Personal	Evaluation of alternatives	Dealer choice
Promotion	Cultural	Psychological	Purchase decision	Purchase timing
			Post-purchase behaviour	Purchase amount

The issue that should be considered by marketers is not the outcome of the behaviour, but instead the behaviour itself. Jacoby and Kyner (1973) concluded that

marketers should not only be concerned with the number of repeat purchasers, but also with the underlying reasons for such behaviour. Only when a marketer understands these reasons can he/she make informed decisions regarding strategies for affecting this behaviour. As an example, Elliott and Cameron (1994) found that country of origin effects on campaigns in general, and on 'Buy Local' campaigns in particular, are indeed potentially important influences on consumers' purchase decision-making behavior. Brand of a product could be another cue that influences the consumer's buying decision.

Aaker (1970) criticised the buying behaviour models as tools that could be used by marketers to improve their marketing decisions. He specified that there were two types of models of buyer behaviour. The brand choice models focus on brand choice decisions and market share statistics; in contrast, the purchase incidence models focus on purchase timing decisions and sales level statistics. Both types of model are based upon the realisation that great many variables, mostly non-controllable and random, determine purchase decisions. Since it is neither practical nor desirable for a model to include all these variables, most are excluded. This introduces uncertainty which takes the form of purchase probabilities, dynamic and unobservable, but about which worthwhile inferences can be made.

Most of the prediction models measure three interests. The first is the initial brand share (or sales level) observed by the model among the buying group being mentioned. The second is the asymptotic brand share (or sales level) prediction. The third is the rate at which the model expects the market to move from initial brand share (sales share) to asymptotic brand share (or sales share). Parfitt and Collins (1968) tested their model on 24 successful new brands in product classes, and the predicted share was within the expected range.

This shows that these models are very effective tools for use by marketers, provided that there is not any market disruption.

Aaker (1970) indicated that Parfitt and Collins' (1968) results were obtained in relatively stable markets. If a major market disruption occurs after the model has been used to generate a prediction, then the prediction may appear to be in error and suspicion may unjustly be cast upon the model. On the other hand, he added that the

predictive aspect of the model may also be useful in developing segmentation schemes and in testing promotional strategies.

In addition, the model prediction can be used as a baseline against which to measure the effect of marketing inputs. In a practical sense, one has to select a specific model for a particular situation and often several models may appear plausible.

Aaker (1970) stated that in addition to their predictive ability, those models, when used in structural analysis where parameters, values and relationships are examined, give useful insights into the process being modelled. In the context of stochastic buyer behaviour models at least three distinct ways exist in which structural analysis is employed. *First*, it can be used to select the 'best' model for the process. *Second*, it can provide a basic understanding of the consumer buying process that may have policy implications. *Third*, when marketing decision variables are built into the model, a structural analysis can directly determine the influence of these variables on market dynamics.

Aaker (1970), indicating the importance of the structural analysis, argued that although the predictive ability of these models often motivates their development, yet their utility in structural analysis should not be ignored. If the model development is concerned with understanding the behavioural process being modelled, as it should be, then a structural analysis will be a natural part of the research. If, however, a curve fitting methodology is blindly pursued with no regard to the underlying process, it becomes prone to misunderstanding. Without understanding, confidence in the predictive ability of the model will be reduced substantially.

As mentioned above, there are many different models that can be used for studying buying behaviour. These models can help marketers understand consumer buying behaviour and give them the best tools to help them understand consumers' perceptions. One of the best-known models is the Dirichlet model, which is the foremost example of an empirical generalisation in marketing, with the possible exception of the Bass diffusion model (Uncles et al. 1995).

For a long time, researchers have observed that there is regularity in brand performance measures with no certain theory that can approve it. Ehrenberg (1988) stated that much regularity had been observed in the buying behaviour of consumers. Based on replicated studies it became clear that these regularities were very general

and were observed for many different product categories, countries, and time periods. Uncles et al. (1995) added that only very late was there an attempt to link the empirical observations together into a comprehensive model of buyer behaviour. This is what is known as the Dirichlet model, which amalgamates several earlier regularities and models. Dirichlet modelling offers a way for marketing practitioners to monitor routinely the performance of special brands on a range of different loyalty measures (Uncles et al. 1995).

Uncles et al. (1995) found some empirical and theoretical limitations of the Dirichlet model. Empirically, they would like to see further extensions to differentiated product categories, detailed studies of flavours and pack-size and not only brands, application in newly-developed countries, investigation of other measures like favorite brands and radically different choice situations (i.e. what would happen if price differentials were large and how would this affect consumer repertoires?).

Theoretically, the Dirichlet model is very parsimonious (or even simplistic) in its assumptions and input requirements. Thus, it is not surprising that discrepancy problems occur although they are mostly at the margin. More work is needed to study 'model failure'. Although it has long been recognised that the Dirichlet model is not suitable for very short periods, but only recently has longer-term erosion of repeat-buying loyalty been thoroughly studied (East and Hammond, 1995). Uncles et al (1995) also found that the model was about habitual near-state consumer behaviour. Despite the fact that it is not dynamic in dynamic situations, it nonetheless provides a useful benchmark.

With all these limitations, they believe that the Dirichlet model is a very important tool in marketing analysis and its ongoing process which rests on the model differentiated replication and extension, with the aim of modelling systematic main effects, and establishing norms or benchmarks for use in marketing management. A good explanation of the theory's assumptions and special features and further generalisations can be found in Uncles et al.'s (1995) paper.

The buying behaviour models will not be effective if marketers do not know the consumer contribution to the different decision-making attributes. Elliott and Cameron (1994) pointed out that a common difficulty when studying consumer information processing and decision making is that of identifying the individual

contribution of the single attributes in a decision that is based on the consideration of a complex range of attributes and, further, where the decision itself may be based on equally complex decision rules.

4.6 Buying intention and actual buying behaviour

Buying intention is "*an individual's conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand*" (Spears and Singh, 2004, p.56). It is also defined as *"personal action tendencies related to the brand"* (Ostrom 1969; Bagozzi et al. 1979). Spears and Singh (2004) reported that attitude is different from intention in that the attitude is a summary evaluation whereas intention represents "*the person's motivation in the sense of his or her conscious plan to exert effort to carry out behaviour*" (Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p. 168). From the previous definitions it is clear that buying intention requires a move or action to be formulated and is a result of attitude to applied behaviour.

Cai et al. (2004) reported that unlike consumers' attitudes, which were commonly used in pervious studies, consumers' buying intentions have seldom been measured by researchers examining the country of origin effect.

4.6.1 The gap between buying intention and actual buying behaviour

Confidence in a brand is a very important indication about the actual purchasing of the specific brand; confidence as a construct has been proposed by Howard and Sheth (1969). They found that confidence was positively related to buying intention. Bennett and Harrell (1975) suggested that confidence played a major role in predicting intentions to buy. Moreover, it has been proven that buying intention is affected by the attitude towards the same brand (Laroche and Brisoux, 1989; Laroche and Sadokierski, 1994). Laroche et al. (1996) found that the confidence in brand evaluation was one of the determinants of purchase intention.

The confidence in a brand is a positive attitude towards that brand, which means that if consumers have a positive attitude to or confidence in a brand that will be a good indication that they will buy the products which have that brand.

Many previous studies have shown that buying intention measurement has proved to be a good indicator for the actual purchasing behaviour for specific products or

services. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) suggested that intentions are the best predictor of an individual's behaviour because they allow each individual to incorporate independently all relevant factors that may influence his/her actual behaviour.

Young et al. (1998) showed that self-reported purchase intentions for a new product or concept are measured and used as a proxy variable. Intentions are also often used to predict sales over time for existing products among different segments of customers.

From another perspective, many researchers do not recommend taking the data for the buying intention literally. Manski (1990) and Young et al. (1998) reported that most empirical evidence suggests that purchase intentions cannot be taken literally. Measuring the actual buying behaviour proved that the predicted purchase is not accurate. Juster (1966) suggested that the self-reported purchase probabilities provide biased estimates of actual purchasing, typically underestimating the actual purchase rate.

Several other studies have examined the relationship between purchase intentions and purchase behaviour for durable and non-durable goods. The observed relationship between intentions and purchase is generally positive and significant; however, the strength of the relationship varies from one study to another (Young et al. 1998). It has also been argued that based on empirical evidence, intentions almost always appear to provide biased measures of purchase propensity, sometimes underestimating actual purchasing and at other times overestimating it.

Thus, we should expect to observe that not all intenders purchase and that some non-intenders do purchase, even with perfectly rational respondents.

Therefore, while purchase intentions may serve as a valid proxy for, or precursor to, purchase behaviour, many researchers suggest that generalisation regarding purchase behaviour should not be drawn from intentions data (Newberry et al. 2003). In contrast, several comparative studies suggest that the use of intentions-based data may be useful, but these researchers also note that under certain instances intentions measures are not a suitable substitute for actual behaviour measures.

4.6.2 Actual buying behaviour models

To resolve the issue of the discrepancy between buying intention and actual buying behaviour, researchers have created models that are supposed to use the discrepancies between intended and actual behaviour and create a better expectation of the actual behaviour. More recent studies of purchase intentions have developed models that incorporate the discrepancies between stated intentions and actual behaviour. The psychometric beta binomial model of Morrison (1979) is a descriptive model of the relationship between stated purchase intention and subsequent purchase (Young et al. 1998). Infosino's (1986) model also captures systematic biases in intentions measurement.

Supporting the application of the model approach, Warshaw (1980) concluded that an alternative purchase intention measure, which is an approach employing purchase contexts as a conditional antecedent, was more predictive of the purchase behaviour than the conventional approach of directly assessing intention. Miniard et al. (1983) arrived at conclusions which are different from those of Warshaw (1980). First, the weight of these findings suggests little difference between conditional and direct measures in their predictive accuracy. They suggested that subjects were in fact able to integrate contextual considerations accurately in responding to the direct measure. They do not therefore recommend using purchase contexts because given such predictive equivalence, additional considerations favour the direct measure because:

1. A direct format involves fewer measurements than the conditional format and hence requires less respondent time, which could lead to lower costs of obtaining the information.

2. These results revealed that contextual specificity does not enhance the intention-behaviour relationship.

In their justification for having found a result different to that of Warshaw's (1980) finding, Miniard et al. (1983) reported that they could not replicate their study under conditions involving similar measurement and analytical procedures. Thus, it can be concluded that any changes in the market, time, and situation of the study could lead to a different result which makes generalising models that have been created in different markets with different product categories inappropriate.

4.6.3 Limitations of actual buying behaviour anticipation

Some researchers have attempted to adjust purchase-intentions scores to help correct their limitations in assessing or predicting actual purchase behaviour (Newberry et al. 2003). However, neither of these adjustment-scheme studies has been found to be useful for general application, but they are limited to certain product and device domains.

Researchers have found three main reasons for the mismatch between the actual buying behaviour and the buying intention. Young et al. (1998) summarised those reasons as: 1) the type of product under consideration. Jamieson and Bass (1989) reported that the relationship between buying intention and buying behaviour is different between durable and non-durable products. 2) The consumers' different demographic characteristics and product usage-based segments. Morwitz and Schmittlein (1992) found that the relationship between purchase intentions and subsequent purchase varied across demographic and product usage-based segments. 3) The effect of measuring the buying intention. Morwitz et al. (1993) reported that merely asking respondents whether they intended to purchase durable goods actually increases subsequent purchase of the product.

To measure actual purchasing, the same consumers who filled in the questionnaire should report their actual purchasing in exactly the same situation, which is not possible. Moreover, countries that have no products in the market should be excluded from the research. This makes measuring the actual purchasing in this study impossible, but the intention to buy will be measured.

4.7 Conclusion

Previous research has documented the important role that demographic variables such as age, income, education, occupation and psychographic variables such as ethnocentrism, play in explaining differences in consumers' perceptions of COO and evaluation of products. Accordingly, it has been suggested that adding the ethnocentrism variables to a set of demographic and psychographic variables will significantly improve the predictive ability of the set.

Therefore, as an approaching reality study and in recognition of the fact that consumers need and use many cues to make their buying intention and decision, this

study will incorporate demographic and ethnocentrism variables in the analytical model.

One of the critiques of many of the previous studies is that they do not include all the cues in buying intention that a consumer may consider, which may lead to misleading findings. Including the emotional and tangible factors in evaluating the effects of the different cues is essential to arrive at the correct findings. The brand name is one of the cues that have emotional and tangible features and an evaluation of its effect on buying intention should be included.

The processing of the cues is also important to give the correct findings, as different consumers will have different buying processes; this should be considered when analysing the outcome of the studies.

The measurement of buying intention rather than the actual buying has been discussed and justified in this chapter.

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Chapter Five

Literature Review & Theoretical Framework: The Research Focus and Analytical Model Development

5.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of two main sections;

The first section presents the study focus where the main issues that will be examined, namely COO effects, brand perception, the relation between perceived brand parity and perception about branded products, the effects of ethnocentrism, and the influence of consumers' demographic characteristics, are highlighted.

Based on the literature review, the expected relationships between the study concepts are formulated into hypotheses.

In the second section, the study hypotheses and expected relationships between the different concepts are put together in the form of an analytical model. This is done in an attempt to overcome the shortcomings of previous research by integrating the concepts and variables representing the cues used in the consumer's decision-making process, and thus to provide a more realistic and comprehensive picture of the context of this decision-making.

5.2 The research focus

As an approaching reality study, this research, in addition to making use of previous studies' findings in formulating its hypotheses and developing its analytical model, will also attempt to avoid the weaknesses and limitations of the previous studies in order to simulate the real decision-making context of consumers. This will be attempted by incorporating the concepts and variables that represents all the cues that consumers use and depend on in their decision-making process.

Therefore, in addition to those relationships that have already been proven by previous studies, this study will focus on the interaction between the different concepts.

5.2.1 COO effects

Previous studies have proven and documented the COO effects on consumers' buying intentions of different products (Reierson 1966; Nagashima, 1977; Hampton, 1977; Yaprak, 1978; Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983; Teas and Agarwal, 2000; Paswan and Sharma, 2004, Pharr, 2005). The COO effects have been proven for many

different types of products: general, specific, specific brands, and specific types of product.

Cai et al. (2004) argued that recognising the country of origin effect on consumers' buying intentions and quantifying the effect will not only help consumers understand the rationality of their purchase behaviour, but also will help international producers and marketers. Nelson et al. (2005) found that all three segments of the study sample revealed significant preferences for origin and form in their intentions to buy.

Various studies have found that there are various levels of COO effects for different types of products (Nagashima, 1970, 1977; Roth and Romeo, 1992; Chao, 2005). Nagashima (1977) found that US consumers perceived imported automobile, textiles, and pharmaceutical products positively, while they perceived imported food and computers negatively compared to local products. Many researchers have found that the general country image is different from the country image in a specific product category (Etzel and Walker, 1974; Hafhill, 1980; Ozretic-Dosen et al. 2007).

It is important to distinguish between the influence of product category and brand image in order to obtain an unbiased estimate of the country of origin effects. Piron (2000) found that country of origin had a significant impact on purchase intentions of luxury products, which means that product type can moderate country of origin effect on purchase intentions. According to Cai et al. (2004), different product categories, such as durable versus non-durable goods, may interact with price and country of origin to influence consumers' decision-making.

Parameswaran and Pisharodi (2002) found no direct relationship of COO with purchase intention; rather it affects the product evaluations that significantly affect purchase intention.

The previous experience and familiarity of consumers with a specific product category also affects the level of the COO effect on their buying intention (Cai et al. 2004; Phau and Suntornnond, 2006). Thus, one of the factors that affect consumers' perceptions of a specific country of origin is the involvement of the consumer with a product from that country. This means that the consumer is familiar with that product from that country and he/she has personal experience of it. The experience could be with only one product, but it will still have an effect on other products from the same

country. Nagashima (1970) found the 'made in' image is naturally affected by the availability and consumers' familiarity with the country's product. Changing the perception of a country resulting from a consumer's experience with a certain product requires another experience/s with another product/s from same country. It is important to take into consideration that the positive effect of product familiarity is stronger than the negative effect.

Most of the conclusions presented in the literature about the different levels of involvement with products, previous experience with a product, availability of a product and many other factors that have been discussed in the literature support the hypothesis that different types of products will have different levels of COO effect. This makes the selection of a product on which the effect of COO is to be tested a very important decision in any research.

Consumers usually use their perception concerning the country of origin of any product, and that perception can be formed using different sources. Among those sources are the brand name and the brand country of origin. Sometimes the brand name originated in a specific country but for logistic, economic, or other reasons can later on be manufactured in different country. However, consumers still perceive that branded product as being manufactured in the country that originated the brand. This is an indication that consumers do not really check the country of origin of the branded products; instead, they use their perception. Thakor and Pacheco (1997) indicated that previous researchers had assumed that respondents would infer that products with a particular brand name were made in the countries associated with that brand name, but whether this association was actually made or not remained unverified.

The importance of the product category leads to the importance of the product attributes, which has been intensively discussed in the literature. Han and Terpstra (1988) and Baker and Ballington (2002) found that the extent of the country of origin effect is related to specific product attributes. Bannister and Saunders (1978) had reported the same findings and gave the example of German products being rated highly on attributes relevant to the intrinsic qualities of products such as reliability, while French products were usually rated on extrinsic cues. This may suggest that the product attributes for a specific category can be generalised for the same category but

not for all the different product categories. Johansson et al. (1985) argued that it is more relevant to emphasise product attributes rather than general national product attitudes in assessing country of origin effects and predicting choice behaviour.

Determining which attribute has more effect would require studying the effect of the different attributes on every product category. In Piron's (2000) study, consumers indicated that they considered the product's COO to be either important for luxury products or somewhat important for necessities. Cai et al. (2004) hypothesised that difference between the own-price elasticities of demand for different products was confirmed: a durable good from a less-developed country is less own-price elastic than a non-durable good from the same country.

Certain of the researchers did not recognise any significant effect of the COO on branded products. Gaedeke (1973) found that there were no significant COO effects on branded products. Ettenson (1993), too, found that the interaction between brand name and country of origin played a relatively minor role in consumers' decision-making. Leclerc et al. (1994) found that country of origin and foreign branding function similarly when they are the single cue; a French brand name alone produces a more hedonic perception than an English brand name alone.

Thakor and Pacheco (1997) referred to Johansson et al. (1985), who argued that consumers pay more attention to intrinsic cues when they are available and rely on extrinsic cues such as country of origin information when intrinsic cues are not provided. Thus, Thakor and Pacheco (1997) argued that a similar discounting effect appears to occur in the case of foreign brand names.

Many researchers have proved that the country of origin can serve as a heuristic when it is the only cue known to the consumers, but it will serve as a halo when sufficient information is available to the consumers; that it will be like any other products attribute (Han, 1989; Hong and Wyer, 1990; Chao, 2005; Pharr, 2005).

Similar studies could be conducted on the brand as a cue and the same result could be expected from such studies; but this still needs to be verified. If the country of origin is unknown to consumers, they will use the origin of the brand as the country of origin for the product. Nebenzahl and Jaffe (1996) found that when no 'made in' country was specified, consumers imputed the missing information by assuming that the 'made in country' was the country associated with the brand.

One of the issues that has been discussed widely by international marketers and has a greater effect on consumers is the country of origin or the branding. In some categories, it is clear that the country of origin has a greater effect, while in others the branding may have greater effect. Tse and Gorn (1993) found that the COO effect is a more enduring factor than brand name. Wall et al. (1991) found that COO was more important in affecting product quality assessment than price and brand, while Ulgado and Lee (1993) and Chao (2005) found that the brand name effect was stronger than the COO effect.

Papadopoulos and Heslop (2002) have reviewed voluminous research on product-country images and their effects and found:

1. National and other place images are powerful stereotypes that influence behaviour in all types of target markets.

2. The effects of national images vary depending on the situation (depending on the strengths of the cues studied in each case).

3. Origin images affect price expectations.

4. Product-country images appear to consist of seven key constructs.

5. In the case of hybrid products, buyers may distinguish between a product's country of origin, manufacture, assembly and/or the producer's home country.

6. Product-country images of specific product classes are related to a country's global product image.

7. Buyers distinguish between national and product images, and between major, niche and less developed countries as producers.

8. Product-country images may shift slowly over time or quickly as a result of intervening events.

9. The effectiveness of "buy domestic" campaigns is unclear.

5.2.2 Effect of COO on the evaluation of branded products and buying intention

It is essential to understand the effect of all the product attributes, both extrinsic and intrinsic, on consumer perception. One of the extrinsic attributes, which is considered one of the most important cues affecting consumers perception, is country of origin. According to Pharr (2005), a product's country of origin is an extrinsic product cue or intangible product characteristic distinct from physical product characteristics or intrinsic attributes. As such, a country of origin cue is similar to price, brand name or retailer reputation in that none of these has a direct bearing on product performance and can be manipulated without changing the physical product. Pappu et al. (2007) claimed that the previous literature had not satisfactorily explained the link between the country image and brand loyalty.

Russell and Russell (2006) found from the literature review that existing country of origin research had mainly focused on the effects of country of origin information of stereotypes on product evaluations and intentions to purchase.

Patterson and Tai (1991) reported that the volume of world trade continued to increase and the international marketplace became more competitive in the 1990s; therefore, it became more important than ever that marketing managers understand the attitudes and perceptions of consumers concerning the country of origin cue. Papadopoulos and Heslop (2002) concluded that depending on the situation, investors and various other type of buyers may ignore, be influenced by, or actively seek information on, product-place associations when making purchase decisions. .They added that one way or another, the pervasive presence of origin cues in the market begs for a better understanding of product-country images and a concentrated effect for more effective country branding.

Cai et al. (2004) argued that recognising the country of origin effect on consumers' buying intentions and quantifying the effect will not only help consumers understand the rationality of their purchase behaviour, but will also help international producers and marketers. Elliott and Cameron (1994) reported that since it may be difficult to interpret intrinsic cues (e.g. taste, performance, etc.) prior to purchase, consumers will often resort to using extrinsic cues (e.g. price, brand name, packaging, etc.) as the basis on which to make inferences regarding the product.

Baker and Ballington (2002) reported that the Commonwealth Department of Industry, Science and Resources commissioned a survey of both industry and consumers in May 1999, and found that almost 70% of the surveyed consumers look for information about the product's origin when making a purchase. They explained that consumers look for country of origin labels in order to help them determine the quality of an item and to support local industry and employment.

Consumers display a tendency to rely upon extrinsic cues where they have little prior knowledge of the product (Cattin et al. 1982). Hugstad and Durr (1986) found that significant proportions of consumers were interested in country of origin information before making purchases. Hong and Wyer (1989) found that country of origin effects had some bearing on consumer's product interest and led them to think more extensively about product information and its evaluation implications. Many researchers have suggested that when consumers become aware of the country of origin, their perception about a product could change. Gaedeke (1973) found that attitudes towards a specific product or brand could change substantially, either favourably or unfavourably, when the country of origin of the product or brand was revealed to the consumer. Phau and Suntornnond (2006) reported that Afghan rugs are highly valued in world markets. Hence, objective product class knowledge might contain both product class knowledge and country knowledge, which may to some extent overlap, but may not be entirely identical.

Elliott and Cameron (1994) found that consumers do indeed have a preconceived, stereotypical view of products identified as being made in certain foreign countries. Knight and Calantone (2000) summarised what many researchers had found about the country of origin image and argued that it reflected the consumer's general perceptions about the quality of products made in a particular country and the nature of people from that country. They added that generally, researchers have demonstrated that, when known to consumers, the image of a country influences the evaluation of products in general, specific classes of products, and specific brands. Han (2001) reported that numbers of studies have been conducted on country image and they agree that consumers have significantly different global or general perceptions about products made in different countries. According to Paswan et al.

(2003), loyalty to a specific brand could lead to being loyal to a specific country which produces that specific brand.

Samiee (1987) reported that the country of origin effect (COE) has been broadly defined as any influence, positive or negative, that the country of manufacture might have on the consumer's choice processes or subsequent behaviour. Shapiro (1982) suggested that consumers utilize country image to infer the quality of a foreign brand because they are unable to detect its true quality prior to purchase and use. In addition, Han (2001) suggested that consumers may infer the quality of a product category from a given country from their perceived quality of other categories of products in general from that country.

These general perceptions of a country or country image have significant effects on consumers' attitudes towards individual brands made in that country (Bilkey and Nes, 1982). Patterson and Tai (1991) suggested that consumers perceive major differences in product attributes depending on country of origin.

The perception that a consumer has about a country will affect the perception that the consumer has about the products that come from that country. National reputations for technological superiority, product quality, design and value will naturally vary from product to product, and it has been found that consumers generally tend to be more willing to buy products made in countries with good reputations in those product categories (Roth and Romeo, 1992). On the other hand, some consumers tend to generalise their attitudes and opinions across a wide range of products from a given country (Patterson and Tai, 1991). They added that this stereotyping may also be due to attitudes towards the people of the country, familiarity with the country (Nagashima, 1970; Wang and Lamb, 1980), and the background of the consumers, such as their demographic characteristics (Schooler, 1971; Wall and Heslop, 1986) and their cultural characteristics (Tan and Farley, 1987). Leclerc et al. (1994) stated that many studies in psychology had demonstrated the existence of stereotypes and their influence on the perception and evaluation of individual behaviours. Leclerc et al. (1994) further stated that national and cultural stereotypes, like other stereotypes, may influence the perception and judgment of any object, including consumer products that are associated with the culture of a certain country.

The country of origin can serve as a halo or summary construct for how consumers perceive the country of origin image. The country image serves as a halo that consumers use in order to infer the quality of unknown foreign products (Han and Terpstra, 1988). The halo hypothesis suggests that country image affects consumers' attitudes towards a brand only to the extent to which consumers are unfamiliar with the country's products (Ofir and Lehmann, 1986). In contradiction to that, Han (2001) found that country image may have a greater effect on consumers' attitudes towards familiar brands than unfamiliar brands. In addition, the halo hypothesis suggests that consumers may consider not buying an unfamiliar foreign brand simply because they may make unfavourable inferences about the quality of the brand from their lack of familiarity with products from that country. Supporting this argument, Han (2001) found that the country image was likely to have a direct effect on purchase intentions for an unfamiliar foreign brand, because consumers may make unfavorable inferences about the brand quality from their lack of familiarity with the brand, and thus eliminate the brand from the set of alternatives they consider in detail for their purchase decisions. In contrast, Han's (1989) summary construct model implies that, among consumers possessing high knowledge of the product stimulus, the country of origin image may serve to summarise beliefs about product attributes, directly affecting attitude towards the brand. It is important to marketers to know how to deal with the effects of the country image on consumer perceptions; the more positive the country stereotype in consumers' minds in a specific country, the easier the entrance to that specific market and vice versa.

Knight and Calantone (2000) reported that if the stereotype was negative, it could impose formidable barriers for marketers attempting to enter a market or position products in an existing market. Alternatively, numerous firms have used positive country of origin image to good advantage in the marketing of many types of goods. Knight and Calantone (2000) proposed a new model of country of origin image cognitive processing which is both comprehensive and flexible, and which extends and enhances prior work by Han (1989). This model allows attitudes to be both directly and indirectly (through beliefs) influenced by the country of origin image. They found that both country of origin effects and beliefs simultaneously influence attitudes, under both low and high-knowledge conditions. In addition, the flexible model appears to be a more accurate depiction of the complex processing that occurs

during thinking about imported goods. They also reported that in light of their findings and those of other scholars in foreign settings, it can be concluded that the linkage between country of origin image and purchase intentions appears likely to hold throughout the world. Managers must design products and associate marketing accordingly. Where a country of origin image is perceived as negative, the producer must minimise any reference to the country of origin and may need to engage in substantial promotional efforts in order to overcome embedded stereotypes. They also found that the role of country of origin image is substantially more complex than has been suggested in previous research. Managers must consider country of origin image in combination with specific beliefs about the product, such as beliefs regarding quality and pricing. Consumers consider products within the framework of a 'neural network' of attributes and associations. It is likely, for example, that sufficient quality and/or sufficiently attractive pricing could, in some settings, convince the buyer to overcome a negative country of origin image. It is also likely that where country of origin image perception is sufficiently positive, the exporter may be able to command premium prices.

The economic development of any country has a strong effect on consumers' perceptions about the products of that country. Yaprak (1978) tested buying intentions among U.S. and Turkish business executives for specific brands made in West Germany, Japan and Italy and found a significant correlation between buying intentions and various source country attributes. These effects can damage a well-known brand name if it is manufactured in a less-developed country. Brand quality image was also found to diminish if it was designed or assembled in a less prestigious country (Johansson and Nebenzahl, 1986).

Phau and Prendergast (2000) concluded that, generally, most of the published studies found that country stereotypes do exist and that they have some impact on product evaluations and buying intentions (e.g. Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Cordell, 1992; Tse and Gorn, 1993).

Decision makers should consider the effects of stereotypes on consumers' perceptions and intentions of buying any product. Hooley and Shipley (1988) summarised that at the level of product it can be concluded that:

1. Images of foreign-produced goods and services appear to be relatively homogeneous throughout an importing country.

2. Images of foreign-produced goods and services vary from one importing country to another.

3. Images of foreign-produced goods and services can vary significantly over time.

A strong element of patriotism has been found in many studies, favouring home-produced goods and services over foreign-produced ones.

Even though many researchers have demonstrated the effect of country of origin, some researchers remain unconvinced about the effects of country of origin. Elliott and Cameron (1994) mentioned that Johansson et al. (1985), Samiee (1987), Olson and Jacoby (1972), and Erickson et al. (1984) all cast doubt on the significance of country of origin effects.

Looking at the large number of researchers who proved the effects of the country of origin, which cannot be neglected, ignoring any effects of the country of origin is not acceptable. Even so, the extent of that effect can be debatable depending on several factors, such as how many cues were used in the study, the product category, the country of the study, 'buy local products' or 'buy national products' campaigns, and many other factors.

Han and Terpstra (1988) warned that generalisation of country of origin effects should be treated with caution, as consumers do not perceive all foreign products or all products from a given country as being the same. Cai et al. (2004) found that the country of origin effect does not totally prohibit consumers from considering products from a country against which they have a bias.

It is important to recognise that when consumers know about a product or a brand the country of origin effects could be diminished or at least be minimal. Elliott and Cameron (1994), in their study of the impact of an 'Australian Made' promotional campaign found that a major difficulty confronting 'Buy Local' campaigns is that it seems very unlikely that quality and price will be commonly regarded as being equivalent across competing brands. Thus, country of origin will rarely be a prominent, and even less often the dominant, cue in a purchase decision.

Han (2001) argued that consumers do not rely on country image when they are familiar with the products. When Johansson et al. (1985) examined country of origin effects for well-known brands of car from Germany, Japan and the US, they found no such significant effects on subjects' attitudes towards the brands. This was because the subjects knew about the brands and trusted them without a major consideration being given to the place of manufacturing.

Han (2001) hypothesised that the country image would have greater effects on purchase intention when consumers were not familiar with the country's products than when they were. He added that this effect was direct in the sense that consumers eliminate a country's brand from the set of alternatives without evaluating the brand in detail.

On the other hand, when consumers are familiar with a country's products, the country image may have an indirect rather than a direct effect on purchase decisions because consumers are more likely to include a brand from the country in the set of alternatives considered in detail, and may choose it after they evaluate their set of alternatives.

Han (2001) defined country image as consumers' general perceptions about the quality of products made in a given country. This definition shows how consumer perceptions form the country image. Teas and Agarwal (2000) found that the country of origin had a significant effect on product quality perceptions compared to price and brand name.

One of the issues that should be considered by decision makers in organisations is what consumers really know and what they think they know. This will help to gain a better understanding of the consumer decision-making process. Alba and Hutchinson (2000) concluded that overconfidence is indeed a robust phenomenon and can be adopted by researchers as a stylised fact about human cognition.

However, there are critical qualifications and exceptions that must be kept in mind. The central construct in their analysis is the 'calibration of consumer knowledge', which they define as the agreement between objective and subjective assessments of the validity of information - particularly the information used in decision-making. That is, calibration refers to the match between confidence and accuracy, rather than accuracy itself.

Alba and Hutchinson (2000) reviewed a wide range of empirical results and indicated that high levels of calibration are rarely achieved, moderate levels that include some degree of systematic bias are the norm, and confidence and accuracy are sometimes completely uncorrelated.

Pharr (2005), in reviewing the literature, summarised that although the majority of these studies provide evidence that country of origin's influence on product evaluations is in fact moderated when encountered alongside other information studies, recent research on cue consistency may explain the results. Findings from these studies suggest country of origin information interacts with price to significantly influence product quality evaluations only when the cues are consistent. He suggested that inconsistent cue pairs between price, brand and country of origin have led to past equivocal results when examining multiple cue influences and that, when consistent multiple cues are present, their influence is interactive rather that singular.

It has been argued that the brand origin association may be more influential than the country of origin itself in terms of consumers' evaluations of a product, and it appears to have a greater influence on consumers than information about the place of manufacture or assembly of the product and/or product components, which is less important (Thakor and Lavack, 2003).

Pharr (2005) reported that researchers have found purchase intentions were directly impacted by price and brand information, but not by COO, which led to the conclusion that the influence of COO is more likely to operate through other variables rather than directly on purchase intentions.

Jo et al. (2003) found that positive brand image can act as a protective against a negative country of origin evaluation. Ozretic-Dosen et al. (2007) reported that brand origin associations play a potentially powerful role in the formation of attitudes toward a brand. This is consistent with O'Cass and Lim's (2002) argument that favourability in consumer evaluations of products and brands is a result of the cognitive trade-off between the preference for products and brands from a developed economy and the preference for products and brands of domestic origin.

After an intensive literature review, Balabanis et al. (2002) concluded that a multitude of academic studies had shown that positive images of a country influence

consumers' evaluations of products from that country as well as their buying intentions. Moreover, Paswan and Sharma (2004) argued that consumers' knowledge of a brand's country is crucial for the transfer of the country of origin image to the brand image; however, if consumers do not know about a brand's country of origin, they are hardly likely to be able to transfer any perceived country of origin image to the brand.

Knight et al. (2007) indicated that there are many instances where successful incorporation of a country name into branding has enhanced the perceived value of a product or product category. In addition, Rugimbana and Nwankwo (2003) indicated that many of the international brands have a credibility based on their country of origin image. The effect of the COO on brand evaluation becomes even more important if the consumers have no experience with or information about the brand.

Phau and Suntornnond (2006) found that customers with lower levels of brand familiarity paid closer attention to the country of origin image. Leclerc et al. (1994) found that the cultural stereotypes associated with a particular country affects the image of products originating from that country and it is the basis for foreign branding effect. Companies are transferring cultural issues with the branded product that they send across the borders. Those cultural issues can be perceived positively or negatively and it is important for those companies to know how to deal with both types of perception.

Preston (1996) argued that truly borderless companies combine transferable management practices and culture with a set of brand attributes that are recognised by customers wherever the company does business. Quelch (1999) reported that in the case of product categories that are culture-bound we obviously find large cultural and national taste variations. On the other hand, consumers around the world buy certain products such as personal computers on the same basis of performance criteria wherever they are.

In contrast, Pharr (2005) reported that although decades of research scrutiny have led to one seemingly unequivocal conclusion, that a product's country of origin can influence consumers' evaluative judgments of branded product, recently that conclusion has been called into question. Similarly, Pharr (2005) argued that as significant structural changes occur in international markets and business models,

researchers have begun to doubt both the salience of country of origin information in determining product evaluations as well as consumers' real level of knowledge concerning the origin of the brands they purchase.

Moreover, Phau and Suntornnond (2006) argued that consumers do not rely on country of origin when they evaluate an unknown brand name. Pharr (2005) also indicated that some studies found the effect of the country of origin to be relatively weak or insignificant in explaining either product evaluations or purchase intentions when considered in conjunction with the extrinsic cues of price and brand name. Pecotich and Rosenthal (2001) found a significant effect of the product quality in purchase intention, while the effect of brand name and ethnocentrism was not significant, and there was no evidence of a major effect of country of origin.

The inconclusiveness of the research findings about the COO effect on brand evaluation may be understood by viewing brand and COO as cues in a complicated multi-cue consumer decision-making context, but unfortunately, the research has failed to distinguish clearly between the various COO conceptualizations and their interactions with other cues (Pecotich and Ward, 2007). Brodowsky et al. (2004) indicated that particular imprecision is associated with the brand name as a carrier of COO connotations, the notion of the COO as an overall image across product classes may be contrasted with the possibility of a more limited application to a particular product class and, further, the interplay between COO, branding and quality has not been fully evaluated.

Consistent with this argument, Lin and Kao (2004) found that the influence of COO operated through brand equity, which in turn had a strong direct effect on both product perceptions and purchase intentions. Keller (2003) indicated that marketers may leverage the effects of positive country of origin perception by associating it with their brand equity to affect the consumers' product evaluations. Verlegh et al. (2005) argued that a disadvantage of this strategy is its inherent vulnerability, which is due to the fact that consumers' perceptions of country of origin may be influenced by many factors beyond the control of individual marketers, including negative publicity and low quality products by other brands from the same country of origin.

Thus, it has been recommended that an alternative strategy for products suffering an unfavourable 'made in' image is to disguise or hide its national origin and to use

product design and/or packaging to mask its national identity (Hooley and Shipley, 1988).

Similarly, branding with locally or internationally neutral names can be beneficial. A different option is to engage in overseas licensing, joint ventures, foreign assembly and so on, although these activities should not be entered into without extensive evaluation of the relative costs and gains.

In Pappu et al. (2007), many researchers proved that consumers' perception of quality was affected by COO. Other researchers have proved that consumer brand image is changing as brands are manufactured in different countries. Pappu et al. (2007) believe that portions of brand image can originate from COO, especially if the brands are available in other countries.

Tse and Gorn (1993) reported that some studies had found that, in the presence of established brands, the country of origin of a product may not be an important consideration. They added that these studies revealed that the country of origin exerted either no impact at all or only a very weak impact on consumers' product evaluation (Johansson et al. 1985). Other studies, however, had found significant country of origin effects on consumers` evaluation of foreign products (Nagashima 1970; Gaedeke 1973; Lillis and Narayana 1974; Cattin et al. 1982).

Knight et al. (2007) indicated that there are many instances where successful incorporation of a country name into branding has enhanced the perceived value of a product or product category. In Pappu et al. (2007), research in the past few decades does not explain whether consumer-based equity of a brand is linked to the macro and micro images of the country in which it is produced. Pappu et al. (2007) have suggested that the relative impact of macro and micro country images on consumer-based brand equity may also be product category specific. In Pappu et al. (2007) understanding the relationships between consumer's country image and consumer-base brand equity is important for several reasons: 1- globalisation and increased international business activity have facilitated the availability of different brands form other counties to consumers; 2- firms introducing their branded product to other markets for strategic reasons such as economic of scale; and 3- producing in other countries for cheaper labour and/or to reduce transportation costs.

According to Pappu et al. (2007), whether there is a relationship between country image and consumer-based brand equity remains unclear. Pappu et al. (2007) asserted that a good understanding of the relationship between country image and consumer-based brand equity would assist marketing decision-makers seeking to improve marketing productivity. With Pappu et al. (2007), the macro and micro images are considered as two dimensions of country image; in line with some other researchers, they consider macro and micro country image as interrelated, and thus overcome a limitation of the COO research where the majority of studies considered either macro or micro image of the country.

Thus, it is important to assess the effects of a product's intrinsic and extrinsic attributes to be able to evaluate and calculate the actual effect of the country of origin of a specific product category and this is what this study will attempt to do.

Based on the literature review concerning the effect of the COO on the image of the brand, and consumers' buying intention and following the country-based COO conceptualization, it is hypothesised that:

H1: If a country has a positive image, its branded products will also have a positive image.

H2: The more positively consumers perceive COO, the higher their buying intentions of its products.

5.2.3 Effect of Brand perception on consumers' buying intention

The effect of the brand on the consumer's perception is similar to the effect of country of origin most of the time; both of them have an effect on consumer perception (Cai et al. 2004; Pharr, 2005). Kelman and Eagly (1965) found that similarly to foreign branding, country images triggered by 'made in' labels may not only trigger inferences about product quality but also about shared beliefs involving national ideology, geography, population and race, as well as citizens` lifestyles, religious beliefs, and world view.

Niffenegger et al. (1982) found that the role of country of origin as an information-processing cue is affected by the brand recognition factor. Johansson and Nebenzahl (1986) suggested that individuals who consider themselves familiar with brands in a product class are more willing to let country of origin cues enter into their evaluation

process, primarily because they use these cues as a shortcut in information processing.

Cervino et al. (2005) found that country image has an impact on brand performance through overall product evaluation; the impact is more evident in the purchase intention. Similarly to the country of origin, when the brand name is the only cue given to the consumers its effect on their decision is clear.

Walley et al. (2007) concluded that branding may play an important role in industrial purchase decisions. It has been proved in many studies that the effect of the brand or the country of origin will be less whenever other attributes of a product are known and the fewer cues given to the consumer, the more important the effects of the brand and country of origin.

Before conducting their study in 1993, Tse and Gorn hypothesised that before experiencing a product, the consumer may use country of origin, brand, and other extrinsic cues to form his/her expectations about how the product will perform. They added that how the product actually performs may work against the previously held stereotype and hence reduce the country of origin and brand effects on the consumer's post-experience evaluation. After conducting the study, they found that product experience, although it had reduced the country of origin influence, did not appear to have removed its impact, whereas the brand effects were removed by the experience with the product.

Tse and Gorn (1993) argued that if the brand name is the major cue in evaluating a sound system and the country of origin is a relatively minor cue, then it will matter little whether the Sony stereo system was manufactured in Japan or Indonesia, and an interaction between the COO and brand would be expected. They added that if, however, the country of origin was revealed to be an important cue used by consumers in evaluating a stereo system, then it would not be reasonable to expect this form of interaction; the fact that the system is a Sony will not offset the fact that it was made in Indonesia.

Tse and Gorn (1993) reported that one reason for why global brands may overshadow country of origin effect in product evaluation (Pharr, 2005) may relate to the firms` marketing efforts; most advertising expenditures are directed towards

improving brand name recognition, while much less expenditure is directed to boosting the image of the country of production.

Ettenson (1993) found that consumers in Russia, Poland (and Hungary, to a lesser extent) have a keen preference for products imported from the West, but are less concerned with the brand names associated with those imports. The reason for that could be that the people in those countries perceived the products from well-developed countries as high quality, but at the same time they were (at that time) not involved in the global communication system and so they were not familiar with the well- established brands.

Leclerc et al. (1994) found that compared with foreign branding, country of origin information may be a less differentiated cue for hedonic perception. Thakor and Pacheco (1997) replicated Leclerc et al's (1994) study and reported the same findings, suggesting that country of origin information is not as effective as foreign branding in influencing perceptions of product hedonism. This may be because foreign branding and country of origin trigger different associations.

Some researchers have argued that brand can help to change the image of products that come from countries which do not enjoy a good reputation, Reierson (1966) found that American consumers` attitudes towards products made in countries other than those of North America can be made positive if the products are associated with a quality brand image and high levels of services.

Some researchers have argued that the good image of country of origin can be used with a brand that has no relation to that country. Papadopoulos (1993) argued that an increasingly common trend in today's global markets is the borrowing of strong origin images to enhance or distinguish the image of brands that have little or no relation to the origin in real terms. Walley et al. (2007) found that brand has a greater effect on purchase decision than price and service in industrial products.

International marketers should discover whether COO or brand has the greater effect in order to deal with it properly in their marketing strategy. For example, the result of Leclerc et al's (1994) study of fragrance and nail polish, suggested that French names may be more likely to possess exclusive associations with hedonism than the country of France. This may explain why the effect of foreign branding on attitudes was more pronounced than that of country of origin information. This might not be

the case with other products from different categories. Even when marketers know whether country of origin or branding has the greater effect on consumers' perception; it is not easy to manipulate them, particularly the country of origin. If the country has a bad image, it is not easy to change the country of manufacturing but it could be possible to attempt to avoid mentioning it, while the brand has more flexibility for change.

Leclerc et al. (1994) found that foreign branding may be a more flexible and effective means than country of origin information because brand names can be changed more easily and are typically more salient than 'made in' information. The brand name as a cue is perceived as a summary of the product attributes and the consumer perception of the brand is a reflection of those attributes (Ozretic-Dosen et al. 2007). Knowing the importance of each attribute and dealing with it properly on the part of the decision makers will help to improve the brand perception.

Thakor and Pacheco (1997) found that there are no significant interactions between country of origin and brand name, indicating that the two types of information contribute independently to product evaluations. They added that this lack of interaction therefore suggests that the low perceived hedonism of a product associated with a particular source country could not be compensated for by using a hedonic brand name.

Banks (1950) argued that brands are made up of many product attributes, some of which strongly affect the overall preference and purchase while others have weak effect or no effect at all. If a manufacturer wishes to increase sales by improving his product, he needs to know the most crucial attributes of his brand. The different product categories may have different brand and/or country of origin effects on consumers.

Zinkhan and Martin (1987) found that products with brand names that were typical of their product category were perceived more positively than products with atypical names. According to the study, this implies that based on a product name alone customers form instant, non-neutral attitudes about the product that can be difficult to change through the use of subsequent communications (Miranda and Konya, 2006).

In some categories, the brand could have more effect, while in others, the country of origin may have more effect and they may have similar effects in some other

categories. As an example, in the sound system products, Tse and Gorn (1993) found that the brand might be a less enduring cue than country of origin. This is because the country of origin will have an effect after experience. This suggests that the country of origin effect is not only salient in the era of global brands, but may also be more enduring than global brand names. Marketers should identify the categories to which their products belong in order to choose the proper marketing strategy to fit the market.

Tse and Gorn (1993) found that the insignificant interaction between brand and country of origin suggests that in product categories where consumers attach importance to both brand name and country of origin cues and not just to the former, a strong global brand may not override the image consumers might have about the country in which the product is produced. They suggested that if marketers choose to develop new brands, they may perhaps improve the attribute evaluations of the new brand by allowing consumers to experience it, but the perceptions of the overall brand may remain comparatively unfavourable, at least in the short term.

Some manufacturers, to reduce the cost of their production, start to produce their products in other countries with lower production costs and use the same brand name. Tse and Gorn (1993) stated that multi-national companies may be able to increase their returns by relocating their production plants to developing countries in which investment and labour costs are typically low. They added that some of those multi-national companies believe that by using uniform and high-quality control standards and a strong global brand, they will be able to reduce any negative impact of an unfavourable country of origin effect. To overcome the bad reputation of some countries they do not mention the production place when they communicate with consumers and they concentrate more on the brand name.

Tse and Gorn (1993) and Miranda and Konya (2006) argued that the success of this multi-country sourcing strategy assumes that the country of origin, i.e. where a product is produced, which was once an important consideration, will not be an important factor if the firm has a strong global brand. Their findings suggest that a multi-national company, which produces in, or sources from unfavourable country of origin should proceed with caution; a Sony made in Indonesia is not the same as a

Sony made in Japan, and consumers may still have doubts as to whether Sony can maintain its product quality in the developing countries.

Nebenzahl and Jaffe (1996) indicated that many studies that had been conducted about foreign sourcing provide conclusive evidence that the product value generated by global brand names may not outweigh the effect of country image when production takes place in less developed countries. Thus, a global manufacturer should concentrate production in developed countries or adopt countervailing strategies.

Johansson and Nebenzahl (1986) found that producing Japanese automobiles in the USA led to significant erosion in brand image, while producing US-branded automobiles in Japan resulted in a similar, but less significant effect. Other manufacturers create a new brand name, which has no country of origin. A good example of this is Geo automobile brand that is produced by GM.

It is important to notice that manufacturers who keep producing the original brand name in the original country with high production costs need to concentrate on this issue and emphasise the fact that they produce in a well-developed country for a better quality. A good example of this, cited by Ettenson and Gaeth (1991) is that "in a defensive move, BMW launched a bold print campaign with the headline 'Why Drive a Hybrid When You Can Drive a Purebred?'" The ad contends that if you 'trace the lineage' of today's automobiles, you will find some 'very odd crossbreeding'. The consumer is urged to find a tidy, well-established genealogy. The ad concludes by stating that there is a 'very real difference between an auto with a nameplate and one with a pedigree.' BMW, which manufactures all of its models in Germany, recognises the importance of both brand name and country of origin to potential buyers.

As a conclusion, the manufacturers should study the strengths and the weaknesses of their products related to brand and country of origin and other product attributes and develop a marketing strategy that could assist in forming a positive perception of their products in consumers' minds. The marketing strategy that marketers can apply for products that have been sourced from different countries is either standardised, the same strategy in all markets, or modified; using a different strategy for each market. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H3: The higher the consumers perceive a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.

5.2.4 Effect of ethnocentrism on consumers' buying intention

Ethnocentrism has been defined as *"the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality of purchasing foreign-made products instead of locally-made products, affects consumers' purchasing intentions"* (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1997; Bruning, 1997; Phau and Prendergast, 2000; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2000). Amine and Sang-Heun (2002) found that nationality was a significant source of variation in response.

Many studies revealed that consumers have a tendency to evaluate their own country's products more favourably than do foreigners (Gaedeke, 1973; Nagashima, 1970 and 1977; Lillis and Narayane 1974; Bannister and Saunders, 1978). Darling and Kraft (1977) found that Finnish consumers rated domestic products significantly higher than foreign goods from major trading nations, which hold dominant positions in the world markets. Bilkey and Nes (1982) mentioned that studies reporting US consumer attitudes towards domestic products usually place US products in the first place, while foreign studies, particularly European, have rated US products comparatively lower (e.g. Bruskin, 1962; Nagashima, 1977; Bannister and Saunders, 1978).

Ethnocentrism is a factor that affects COO effects, which have a strong influence on how a consumer perceives imported products compared to locally-produced products. It is a factor that should be considered in future studies of COO effects.

Kaynak and Cavusgil's (1983) research suggests that consumers tend to evaluate domestic products more favourably than do foreigners, and Shimp and Sharma (1987) have proved preference for domestic products. Wall and Heslop (1986) found that close to half of their respondents stated that they would buy Canadian goods that were higher in price but equal in quality to imported products. Papadopoulos et al. (1989) found, in their large-scale cross-national consumer survey carried out in the capital and another major city in the US, Canada, Great Britain, the Netherlands, France, West Germany, Greece and Hungary, that, with the exception of Hungary and Greece (LDCs), domestic products were rated quite highly overall but only three

of the eight respondent groups (French, German and Dutch) ranked them first. Consumers tend to prefer domestic products in countries where there is strong patriotism, national pride, or consumer ethnocentrism (Heslop and Papadopoulos, 1993). Substantial country of origin research has shown a tendency for consumers to prefer their own country's products (e.g. Han, 1988; Hong and Wyer, 1989; Papadopoulas et al., 1990). Wall and Heslop (1986) found that the Canadians said that advantages of buying home-made goods include: boosting Canadian employment, helping the economy, easier after-sales service, better Canadian prices and/or quality, and maintaining national pride. There is a tendency for consumers to evaluate their own country's products more favourably than do consumers from other countries (Eliott and Cameron, 1994). Ethnocentrism is perceived to impact on consumer choice both through product attribute evaluation and through direct affective factors regarding the purchase itself (Yaprak and Baughn, 1991).

Findings of research on the ethnocentrism issue are also consistent with the findings of previous research. Al-Sulaiti and Baker (1997) and Bruning (1997) found that country of origin affected people's intentions of flying with a domestic or foreign airline. Consumers who showed strong ethnocentric tendencies were less likely to prefer the foreign services to the national one. Phau and Prendergast (2000) and Kotler and Gertner (2002) indicated that substantial research on country of origin effect has shown a tendency for consumers to prefer their own country's products. Papadopoulos and Heslop (2000) found that consumers in advanced counties evaluate home products as being best while those in developing counties rank them from either third to fifth and then to acknowledge developed countries as having superior goods.

Miranda (2006) reported that, given that country of origin declarations on the labels can arouse national sentiments in consumer choice of products, countries seeking to direct patronage to home grown/produced items by overtly displaying country of origin on labels are vicariously attempting to subdue demand for imported products.

Ethnocentrism has a strong effects on how a consumer perceives the imported products compared to the locally-produced products (Orth and Firbasova, 2003; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004).

Previous research has revealed that consumers have a tendency to evaluate their own country's products more favourably than foreigners do, and in general, irrespective of nationality, place of residence and ethnic background, consumers prefer to purchase locally-produced products (Gaedeke, 1973; Nagashima, 1970 and 1977; Lillis and Narayane 1974; Bannister and Saunders, 1978; Kaynak and Kara, 2001).

Based on these literature generalisations, the following hypothesis is made:

H4: The higher the ethnocentrism level of the consumers, the lower their purchasing intention will be for the imported branded chicken.

5.2.5 The relation between brand parity and branded products

Brand parity is defined as *"the overall perception held by the consumer that the differences between the major brand alternatives in a product category are small"* (Muncy, 1996). This means that if consumers perceive that the brand parity is high, then the major brands are similar, while if they perceive that the brand parity is low, then the major brands are different. This will influence consumers' evaluation and perception of the individual brands. Knowing the perceived level of brand parity for a specific product category will determine the marketing activities that marketers should perform. For example, if the brand parity is high for a specific product category then the advertisement effort might be less effective in increasing sales than price reduction would be.

Brand differentiation is a marketing tool that is being used to give a specific brand an edge over other brands. In contrast to this, it is perceived brand parity. Muncy (1996) reported that it is important to note that, as defined, brand parity exists as a perception in the consumer's mind and not necessarily as an intrinsic characteristic of a product class. Thus, it is possible that a consumer would perceive no parity for a product category where the brands were basically alike; conversely, a consumer could have high parity perceptions for a product category where the brands were quite dissimilar.

Knowing the perceived brand parity level for a specific product category could affect the marketing activities that firms carry out. For example, if the brand parity was high for a specific product category then the advertisement effort might not be the right way to increase sales, and reducing the prices could be a better approach. Giges

(1988) argued that consumers are also less receptive to advertising when high parity perceptions exist.

The brand parity will be conceptualised in this research differently to how Muncy (1996) conceptualised it. Instead of comparing between the overall different brands, the comparison will be made by using the different variables that conceptualised the branded product construct to measure the level of the perceived brand parity for all the different variables.

Accordingly, the following hypothesis will be tested:

H5: The higher the similarity of the branded product of the major brands, the less positive an image the individual brands will have.

5.2.6 Effect of the consumers' demographic characteristics on their perception about COO of branded products

Previous studies have documented that consumers' demographic characteristics (age, education, occupation and income) affect their perception of the COO (Johansson et al. 1985; Wall and Heslop, 1985 and 1986; Dickerson, 1987). The demographic variables have been widely proven to be able to differentiate the effect of the COO (Johansson et al., 1985; Dickerson, 1987). Studying the demographic variables could help the decision makers to target their customers and direct their marketing activities to the right market segments.

 This is not only because demographic characteristics partially determine consumers' needs from different products, but also because the demographic variables influence their perceptions (Leonidou et al. 1999; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001). For example it has also been found that young and educated consumers tend to be globally-minded, display a lower level of prejudice towards foreign products and are less likely to be nationalistic (Tongberg, 1972; Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Hett, 1993; Rawwas et al. 1996; Ozretic-Dosen et al. 2007). Beaudoin et al (1998) found that young fashion leaders had more positive attitude towards imported apparel than local ones.

Schooler (1971) and Tongberg (1972) found that older persons tended to evaluate foreign products more highly than did younger persons, but this was not supported by Wang (1978). Schooler (1971), Shimp and Sharma (1987) also found that younger respondents were less likely to be nationalistic. Leonidou et al. (1999) found

that younger and upper-class consumers show a lower level of prejudice towards products originating from less-developed countries. Thus, one would expect that income, education and age are related to the evaluation of countries as producers of consumer goods.

Consumer perception about products from different countries also changes with the age factor. Ahmed and d'Astous (2001) found that younger and less-affluent respondents reacted more favourably towards products made in newly-industrialising East Asian countries. Ahmed and d'Astous (2001) found that the correlations between country of origin perceptions and age are consistent and strong. According to Insch and McBride (2004), age exhibited a strikingly different moderating effect in the two countries (Mexico and USA). Insch and McBride (2004) concluded that COO/ age interaction had significant findings in the Mexican sample only. The findings suggested that older consumers paid less attention to COO cues.

Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H6: The different age groups of the consumers will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin.

Another factor that has an effect on consumers' perceptions of COO and evaluation of products is the educational level of consumers. It has been argued that better-educated consumers tend to be globally-minded and display a lower level of prejudice towards foreign products (Hett, 1993; Rawwas et al. 1996), and that they tend to have unfavourable perception about products made in newly-industrialised countries (Samiee, 1994; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001).

Anderson and Cunningham (1972), Dornoff et al. (1974), and Wang (1978) found that people with more education tended to rate foreign products more highly than did those with limited education; however, this was not supported by Tongberg (1972). Hett (1993) found that globally-minded consumers tended to be younger, better educated, and more affluent.

Samiee (1994) emphasised the role of variables, such as age, income, education, familiarity with the country of origin, and involvement in the purchase of specific products, in explaining differences in the perception of country of origin. He found

that the higher the consumers' educational level, the more unfavourable is the perception of products made in newly-industrialised countries.

Ahmed and d'Astous (2001) followed the recommendation of Samiee (1994), that particular attention should be paid to the role of variables such as age, income, education, familiarity with the country of origins, and involvement in the purchase of specific products, in explaining differences in the perception of country of origin. They found that the higher the consumers' educational level, the more unfavourable was their perception of products made in newly-industrialised countries.

Kaynak et al. (2000) stated that, with advances in satellite communications, travel, television outreach and internet access, as well as increased education, consumers all over the world are becoming more aware of the products/services available globally. Wang and Heitmeyer (2006) found that demographic factors of age, gender, education, place of residence, travel abroad and COO preference had a significant relationship with consumer attitudes toward apparel. Wang and Heitmeyer (2008) concluded that consumers' education level was significantly related to Taiwanese consumers' attitudes towards Taiwan and US-made apparel over three educational levels.

Therefore, the following null hypothesis is postulated:

H7: Consumer groups with different educational levels will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin.

Another socio-economic characteristic of consumers that affects their perceptions and attitudes is occupation (Chao and Rajendran, 1993). Occupation is one of the consumer demographic characteristics that have an effect on how consumers perceive different product from different countries (Johansson et al. 1985; Wall and Heslop, 1985 and 1986; Dickerson, 1987). As mentioned earlier, it is possible to differentiate consumers' perception according to their occupations (Leonidou et al. 1999; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001). Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H8: Consumers with different occupations will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin.

Previous studies revealed that higher-income individuals, in general, tend to have more acceptance of foreign products than do lower-income ones (Niss, 1996; Wang,

1978). Furthermore, Leonidou et al. (1999) found that upper-class consumers showed a lower level of prejudice towards products originating from less-developed countries. Consumers' income affects their product perceptions (Leonidou et al. 1999; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001).

The consumer's income is another characteristic that will have an effect on his/her evaluation of the product label. Wang (1978) found that higher-income people tended to have more acceptance for foreign products in general than did lower-income people. One of the factors that have an effect on consumer perception towards country of origin is the income of consumers. Whether the consumer's income is high or low will have an effect on the evaluation of the product label. Niss (1996) stated that consumers with more income and education accept foreign products more readily.

Basu and Chau's (1998) study illustrated the role of income redistributive policies in shifting consumer's demand in favor of Southern high-quality products. Kaynak at al. (2000) posited that low income consumers with lower educational attainment generally consider physical attributes of the product (intrinsic as well as extrinsic), whereas their high income and high educational attainment counterparts place more impotence on augmented parts of the product. Moreover to the latter group of consumers, support services and/or packaging components are very important.

Therefore, the following hypothesis is made:

H9: Consumers with different incomes will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin.

5.3 The analytical model

Most of the previous studies have concentrated either on the COO effect or the brand effect on buying intention rather than considering their combined effects. Moreover, most of the COO effect studies have focused on the product level as opposed to the brand level (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Piron, 2000; Pecotich and Rosenthal, 2001; Chao, 2001).

Highlighting the importance of considering the effects of both the COO and brand, Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002) claimed that, although branding is a traditionally well-

known way to make one product or service different from another, in the international market, the image of country of origin is another potentially powerful variable to differentiate a product and a service. The brand of a product has proved to be one of the most important factors that affect buying intention, which may act similarly to the COO effect and this makes examining its effect jointly with the COO effect an original contribution to the literature. Thus, one of the most important contributions of this research is that the joint effect of the COO and Brand will be examined simultaneously. Another contribution of this study is the conceptualization of the perceived brand parity. As indicated previously, the perceived brand parity, which will be included in the study's analytical model, is conceptualised in a different way that was known in the previous literature.

Based on the literature review, the expected relationships between the study's different concepts are depicted in the following theoretical model.

Figure 5.1: Research theoretical model
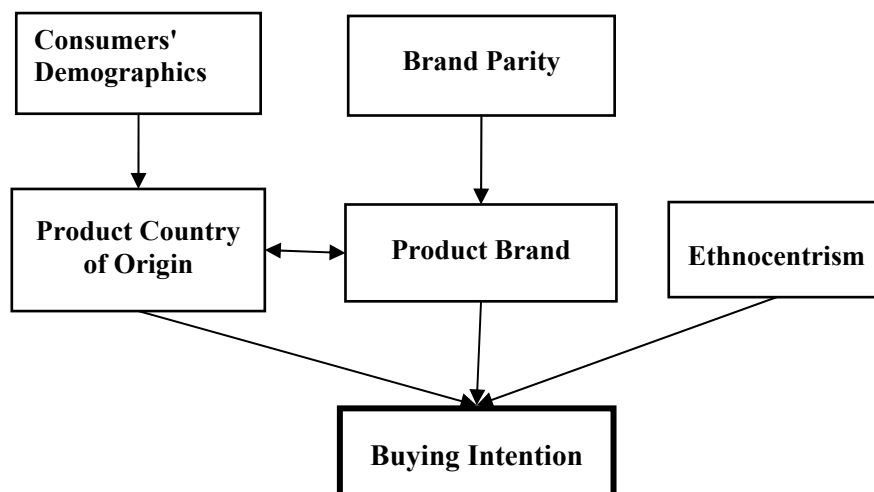
5.4 Conclusion

This chapter has been devoted to the study focus and the relationship of the study concepts that have been presented from the literature.

The hypotheses that will be examined in this research were presented after a thorough discussion of the literature.

The research analytical model has been built out of the construct relationships. This model will be examined and challenged in the next chapters.

Chapter Six

The Research Methodology

6.1 Introduction

Many country-of-origin studies have been conducted and almost all of them have proved that the country of origin affects consumer perception about any specific product from any specific country.

Bilkey and Nes (1982) indicated that there are four issues related to the country of origin effect on consumer perception that have not yet been finalised. The *first* one is how much influence that cue has. The *second* issue is whether, and to what extent, other cues, such as a well-known brand name, a product guarantee, or a prestigious retailer, can compensate for a negative country of origin cue. A *third* issue is the determinants of country of origin biases and whether they are a function of the source country considerations (such as degree of economical development or political climate), or of the considerations of the consumers' country (such as import experiences, nationalism, or cultural affinity with the source of country), or of something else. A *fourth* issue is the possible inter-correlations between the country of origin cue and other cues. Li (1995) mentioned some limitations of the previous COO research and urged that future research should further investigate individual, situational, and product differences in the magnitude of the effect. Although, Ahmed et al's (2002) article discussed some of the consumer personality variables that moderate country of origin effects, more attention should be focused on this issue.

In this study, special attention will be paid to these limitations. Thus, a multi-cue approach will be adopted to make sure that the effects of the country of origin are estimated and measured properly. The study will try to simulate the conditions of real life consumer perceptions about the branded products and their country of origin effects.

As mentioned above, brand name is a very important cue that can affect consumers' perceptions; thus, including brand as a cue in this study will increase its validity. The effect of both the country of origin and the brand name will be measured using multi-dimension scales that could cover most of the proper dimensions of each construct. Having both the country of origin and brand name in the same study is expected to enrich it.

The quantitative (positivist) approach and the qualitative (interpretivist) approach are the research methods used in this study. The qualitative (interpretivist) approach was used during the preliminary phase of the study (primary exploratory study and focus group) to facilitate and complement the use of the quantitative method. A section on the survey process is included to describe the difficulties faced in collecting the data from the participants. The conservative culture in Saudi Arabia, in which the study was conducted, led to these difficulties. An appropriate approach was taken to overcome the difficulties.

In addition to this introductory part, this chapter consists of ten sections. The methodology and approach used and the justification for their selection are presented in section *two*. Selection of the research product and countries to be used as COO is discussed in section *three*. Section *four* is devoted to description and discussion of the research instrument building process. The process of the study hypotheses development is presented in section *five* and the section is concluded by stating all the hypotheses that will be tested. How the research instrument is developed is described in section *six*. Section *seven* is devoted to the measurement of the study theoretical concepts. The methods of data collection together with the study population and sample selection are discussed in section *eight*. Section *nine* is devoted to discussion of factor analysis and scale reliability. The statistical analysis techniques used are presented in the *last* section.

6.2 The Research Methodology

One of the central issues for social scientists concerns the nature of social phenomena and how they can best be understood and researched. One of the most extreme positions was espoused by Wilhelm Dilthey, a nineteenth-century sociologist, who argued that humans have free will and thus no one can predict their actions and generalise about them (Bailey, 1992). This view would allow only for the study of unique events and not for explanation and prediction. In contrast, there was another school of thought which argued that social phenomena are orderly and can be generalized as they adhere to underlying social laws just as physical phenomena follow physical laws (Bailey, 1992). This strictly scientific view is often labeled positivism.

The mainstream and the majority of social scientists took an intermediate position between these two schools, believing that social phenomena were not merely determined by social laws but were the product of human volitional action. To them, the fact that humans have free will does not mean that their actions are random and entirely unpredictable. Rather, free will is exercised in a rational manner, and human action can be predicted by understanding rational action.

At present, the majority of social scientists adhere to one of two main research methods, which can be categorised as quantitative positivist methods and qualitative phenomenological (interpretivist) method (Saunders *et al*. 2003; Bryman, 2004; David and Sutton, 2004). The fundamental principle and objective of positivist research is the generation of scientific laws that are generalisable rather than description and explanation of unique events.

Positivist researchers look for correlations and tend to use quantitative techniques such as techniques of data reduction, scaling, and statistical analysis and they tend to formulate rather rigorous hypotheses that are amenable to test (Bailey, 1992). This is mainly because they are interested in generating social paradigms and laws that can be generalised and used to explained similar phenomena in similar settings. Since the overall objective of this study is to contribute towards identifying the different factors that influence Muslim consumers' buying decisions of food items of animal origin, it is judged that the positivist research method is appropriate. This decision is also partially based on the fact that most of the previous COO and brand studies used this method.

On the other hand, interpretivist research differs radically from positivist research in that it does not seek to formulate general scientific laws and it focuses instead on the unique situational nature of the meaning of social phenomena and the ways in which meaning is made of particular phenomena in specific setting.

Thus, interpretivist researchers tend to eschew rigorous hypotheses and quantification and instead they rely heavily on verbal analyses and are likely to be interested in a more subjective understanding of their research subjects.

Successful use of a quantitative research method requires collection of data from a relatively large number of respondents (sample) by reasonably well-trained data collectors, compared to the qualitative method which requires data collection from a

small number of respondents but by highly qualified data collectors with very special skills (McDaniel and Gates, 1999). Moreover, quantitative research methods require very limited contact with the people being studied compared to the qualitative techniques (Blaikie, 2000).

As mentioned previously, the quantitative (positivist) approach and the qualitative (interpretivist) approach are the research methods used in this study; the qualitative (interpretivist) approach was used during the preliminary phase of the study (primary exploratory study and focus group) to facilitate and complement the use of the quantitative method. The quantitative research method, which is associated with the deductive approach, is more appropriate for studies that are intended to test hypotheses, while the qualitative method, which is associated with the inductive approach, is more appropriate for exploratory studies intended to explore in greater depth the different dimensions of a particular phenomenon (Bryman, 2004; David and Sutton, 2004). Using both main methodologies in this study is essential in order to make it more appropriate and to assist in applying the different scales and constructs, which have been applied in Western culture, in a way that fits the conservative Saudi culture. Without using the qualitative approach, applying those scales and testing the research model may have been inappropriate.

The product category also has an effect on the different model construct scales which can be tested and varied using the qualitative method; without its use, the appropriate scale dimensions and the dimension items cannot be recognised and this could diminish the effectiveness of the scales and make the findings misleading.

By proving the existence of constant relationships between events and measuring the strength of the relationships between different variables (testing hypotheses), quantitative research assists in understanding phenomena and designing policies that direct it as desired (Patton, 1990; Robson, 2002; Easterby-Smith et al. 2002).

As mentioned previously, the qualitative research method was used during the exploratory phase of the study to give a guide to the use of the quantitative approach, i.e. to help determine the major issues that the study should cover and the specific research questions that should be addressed. Using the qualitative and quantitative research methods in a complementary manner is ideal, as the findings will have high validity and reliability. Patton (2002) indicated that studies that use only one method

are more vulnerable to errors linked to that particular method (e.g. loaded interview questions, biased or untrue responses) than studies that use more than one method in which different types of data provide cross-data validity checks. Using multiple methods allows inquiry into the research question with "an arsenal of methods that have non-overlapping weaknesses in addition to their complementary strengths" (Brewer and Hunter 1989).

6.2.1 Choosing the Research Approach

Based on the above discussion, the use of the quantitative positivist approach as the primary research approach, guided by the qualitative approach, is judged to be appropriate for this study for the following reasons:

1. The study aims at identifying factors influencing Saudi consumers' buying intentions and behavior. This necessitates testing hypotheses and determining the relationships between different variables such as the respondents' socioeconomic characteristics, respondents' perceptions about chicken branded products from different countries, respondents' ethnocentrism, buying intentions, and the quantitative approach renders itself as a quite relevant research method for such tasks (Creswell, 1994; Robson, 2002).

2. The quantitative research approach makes it possible to compare the different factors that influence Saudi consumers' buying intentions of poultry products from different countries (Saunders et al. 1997).

3. The qualitative research method is not appropriate for collecting the data needed for this research due to its shortcomings such as small sample, limited generalisability and comparability and lack of statistical representation (McDaniel and Gates, 1999; Proctor 2000). Moreover, since qualitative research techniques require special skills, it becomes important that the data be collected either by the researcher himself/herself or by highly qualified data collectors. However, in Saudi Arabia it is culturally unacceptable that a foreign male interview a female, thus the researcher cannot be involved directly in data collection and it is very difficult to find highly qualified female data collectors to collect the required data through qualitative techniques.

Using the two research methods, qualitative and quantitative, is ideal, as the findings will have high validity and reliability. Patton (2002) indicated that studies that use only one method are more vulnerable to errors linked to that particular method (e.g. loaded interview questions, biased or untrue responses) than studies that use multiple methods in which different types of data provide cross-data validity checks.

Calderon et al. (2000) mentioned that in the Drew University Center they combine qualitative (focus group) and quantitative (survey) research to guide the design of culturally appropriate research protocols. They added that by administering newly developed or previously validated surveys to a group of people who were representative of a population in which the survey would be conducted on a larger scale, and subsequently conducting focus groups based on these surveys with the same group, they were able to obtain information that ensured the survey's cultural appropriateness, readability and comprehensibility. By doing so, they found that qualitative and quantitative research methods could be highly complementary. In addition, this complementary methodology has applications beyond survey research.

On the other hand, generalisations of qualitative research results would be statistically invalid because the sample size and selection are limited. Nevertheless, qualitative research from focus groups can uncover attitudes and opinions prevailing among the general population (Churchill, 1991). The major disadvantage of the focus group research is that the results are usually not generalisable to the larger population (Barrows 2000). In addition, data from focus group can be difficult to analyse because participants can modify their opinions based on feedback from other group members (Nabors et al. 2001). To overcome this point it has been suggested that the focus group data can be used in conjunction with results of statistical analysis of survey data to humanize or "tell the story behind the numbers". Calderon et al. (2000) clarified that the use of qualitative research methods is not meant to replace, but should be considered complementary to, quantitative research methodology.

This makes the use of qualitative methods very appropriate in this research since the outcome will be used to validate the model and help to build the questionnaire which will be used in the survey. Therefore, both qualitative and quantitative approaches have been used, which will validate the outcome of the study, manipulate the cultural issues, and assist in obtaining a better understanding about issues of country of

origin, branded product, and consumer buying intention, which represent the main focus of the study.

6.3 Selection of the research product and countries to be used as COO

One of the most important decisions for any research is the selection of the product to be studied and the countries to be considered as COO of that product. Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2001) stated that country of origin perception is not completely independent of products. The product that has been chosen in this research is whole chicken. This selection is based on several important reasons:

1. Chicken has the highest rate of consumption of all types of meat in Saudi Arabia, as it has the lowest price compared to all other items in the meat category. According to the Ministry of Agriculture Annual Report (2004), the annual per capita chicken consumption in Saudi Arabia in 2003 was 40 kg, annual per capita consumption of lamb and fish was 15 kg, and 8 kg respectively. Saudi Arabia ranked third in chicken consumption in the world after Hong Kong with an annual per capita consumption of 44.7 kg and the USA with 40.9 kg per person (table 6.3).

2. Chicken is available almost in every outlet in Saudi Arabia (wholesalers, hypermarkets, supermarkets, small groceries, and convenience stores) and it has the lowest price of all other items in the meat category. Thus, it is consumed by the vast majority of Saudis. According to Al-Watania Company Study (2005), 97% of the study sample consumes chicken meat in their meals.

3. The *halal* issue, which is closely related to religion, which will be used to measure the country of origin construct, is very important in chicken and in this regard chicken represents all other types of meat products.

4. Moreover, there are more than 20 different well-established chicken brands from different origins, both local and imported in the Saudi market. Al-Watania, Fagih, Altanmiah, Akhwain and Hadco are some of the local brands. Sadia, Frangsoul, Doux, Borela and Sabico are some of the imported

brands. Therefore, the brand issue is also of relevance for chicken buying decisions in the Saudi market.

5. The country of origin of chicken in Saudi Arabia is not hybrid, so there is no complexity of the country of assembly and country of the company's (brand) name. This reduces the complexity of the country of origin assessment (Phau and Prendergast, 2000).

6. Local producers of chicken are very well developed and they use the latest technology, which allows a reasonable comparison between local and imported chicken. The majority of poultry enterprises in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia use very advanced technology, where full mechanisation and automation is adopted (*Stork Food System, Netherlands, Poultry International, vol. 44, No. 6-2005*).

In addition to its theoretical and methodological importance and implications, this study has an applied significance. Being involved in the poultry business sector, the author is interested in exploring the most important factors influencing the Saudi consumers' chicken buying decision.

With a population of 27,019,731 (2006 est.), and a per capita GDP of $13,800, Saudi Arabia is considered to be one of the most important markets in the Middle East and the Arab world. The actual GDP for the year 2005 was US$309.8 billion, along with a per capita GDP of US$12,594. Saudi Arabia has a robust economy that is experiencing rapid growth but remains largely dependent on the production and exportation of oil, and is well known as 'the largest oil exporting country in the world'.

Thus, the Saudi market is expected to be even more important in the future, as Saudi Arabia claimed to be in possession of around 260 billion barrels of oil reserves (about 24% of the world's proven total petroleum reserves) as of 2003. Moreover, according to the Saudi government, the proven reserves increase gradually as more oil fields are discovered, unlike most other oil-producing countries. Furthermore, the Saudi market is also expanding rapidly because of the high annual population growth rate of 2.18% compared to a world population growth rate of 1.14% in 2006 *(Saudi Arabia Population and Demographics, http://www.intute.ac.uk/sciences/worldguide/ html/1012_people.html)*.

Increasing demands for consumer goods in Saudi Arabia have driven up overall imports in the kingdom, a trend that is expected to continue for the foreseeable future. The total value of imported goods in 2005 was US$51 billion, and it is expected to reach US$ 64,159 billion in 2006. Tables 6.1 and 6.2 illustrate the value and distribution of KSA imports for the years 2002 – 2005.

(Country Profile: Saudi Arabia, Library of Congress – Federal Research Division, September 2006, http://lcweb2.loc.gov/frd/cs/profiles/Saudi_Arabia.pdf)

Table 6.1: Saudi Arabia's total imports by value[*]

	2002[(a)]	**2003**[(a)]	**2004**[(a)]	**2005**[(a)]	**2006**[(b)]
Imports of goods fob (US$ m)	29,624	33,868	41,050	51,327	64,159
[(a)] Actual [(b)] Economist Intelligence Unit estimates.					

* Saudi Arabia, Economist Intelligence Unit, http://www.economist.com/countries/SaudiArabia/

Table 6.2: Saudi Arabia's major imports as % of total import in 2005.

Imports	% of total
Machinery & transport equipment	45.3
Foodstuffs	14.8
Chemical & metal products	13.7

Saudi Arabia is the world's 19th largest agri-food importer, with an estimated $8 billion of agric-food imports in 2004. The country is a large consumer of bulk commodity imports, as well as ingredient inputs, for its growing food-processing sector. Saudi Arabia's agri-food imports in 2004 were estimated to be $8 billion, compared to $6.3 billion in 2003. Currently, food imports account for about 15% of Saudi Arabia's total imports. The country's top five agri-imports account for 40% of total agricultural imports.

Typically, the top five agricultural imports are barley, sheep/goats, rice, chicken and cigarettes. Chicken meat and eggs continue to be the cheapest sources of animal protein in KSA and in 2005 the kingdom ranked among the world's top ten countries in terms of per capita consumption of poultry products, with the per capita

consumption of poultry meat and products being estimated at 40 kg. Broiler meat consumption is projected to continue growing over the next few years.

1. Chicken is the most competitively-priced animal protein source in the country ($1.60 per kg compared to $5.33 for red meat). This means that it can be eaten by consumers in all social classes. Moreover, local producers and importers of poultry meat utilise an extensive infrastructure for poultry products distribution, achieving a high percentage of coverage through a wide network of wholesale and retail outlets. According to Al-Watania Company Study (2005), 97% of Saudis included in the study sample consume chicken meat in their meals.

2. There is a growing preference for chicken meat because of increasingly diet-conscious consumers.

3. There are increasing numbers of fast food restaurants serving fried chicken at attractive prices.

Table 6.3: The annual per capita chicken consumption in Saudi Arabia compared to some other countries (in kilos)*

Country	Hong Kong	USA	*Saudi Arabia*	Australia	Canada
Per Capita Chicken Consumption	44.7	40.9	40	28.4	27.3

*   *Source: Saudi Agriculture Ministry Year Book, 2003*

The total poultry meat demand in Saudi Arabia for 2007 reached an estimated 1.029 million tons. About 56% of the total market demand is met by domestic production and the remaining 44% is imported.

Table 6.4: Production, Supply and Demand of Poultry, Meat, Broiler (1000 MT)*

Commodity	2005	2006	2007 (Estimate)
Production	537	548	559
Imports	484	434	470
TOTAL SUPPLY	**1021**	**982**	**1029**

* Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006, http://www.fas.usda.gov/gainfiles/200609/146228941.doc

For the past several years, Brazil has been the leading frozen broiler meat supplier to the Kingdom, followed by France, Argentina and South Africa. In 2005, Saudi

Arabia imported 484,202 metric tons of broiler meat, an increase of 12 percent over the quantity imported in 2004. In 2005, Brazil exported 380,523 metric tons of poultry meat to Saudi Arabia (accounting for more than 78 percent of total imports), France 93,088 metric tons, Argentina 7,237 metric tons, South Africa 1,555 metric tons and other countries 1,799 metric tons. Brazil is expected to continue domination of the Saudi poultry import market for the next several years due to its price competitiveness and its reputation as a high-quality frozen broiler meat supplier.

Table 6.5: Major Broiler Meat Suppliers to Saudi Arabia, 2000-2005 (Metric Tons)*

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Brazil	207,809	255,990	251,387	288,555	333,223	380,523
France	112,683	106,693	101,684	113,147	83,032	93,088
China	18,490	33,534	34,913	42,008	4,799	0
Argentina	0	0	454	4,196	5,369	7,237
United States	6,952	2,109	941	230	192	706
South Africa	754	109	0	11	429	1,555
Other Countries	728	901	1,576	4,225	2,417	1,093
Total Imports	**347,416**	**399,336**	**390,955**	**452,372**	**429,461**	**484,202**

* Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006, http://www.fas.usda.gov/gainfiles/200609/146228941.doc

The above discussion clearly shows that poultry products are important food items in the Saudi market, which justifies their selection as the product for this study.

Thus, the prices of locally produced agricultural crops in general and chicken in particular, are relatively high. This is mainly due to:

1. High dependence on imported feed, which accounts for nearly 70% of the farming cost

2. Relatively high energy costs due to year round temperature control necessitated by the hot summer climate and cool winters

3. High water cost

4. Dependence on imported medication.

Thus, an increase in domestic broiler meat production is tied to generous financial, technical and other government assistance. This support is designed to compensate

for the higher local production costs, but as Saudi Arabia became the 149th member of the World Trade Organization (WTO) in December 2005, these subsidies and assistance will be curtailed in the future and local production is not expected to increase dramatically because of stiff competition from highly competitive imported poultry meat.

(See more details on country profile of the research product in Appendix A)

Therefore, Saudi Arabia is expected to continue to be an important market for chicken products from all over the world. However, for Saudi consumers to benefit from their country's ascension to the World Trade Organization in term of obtaining chicken products at competitive prices and for foreign chicken products to have easy access to the Saudi market, foreign chicken products have to meet the Saudi consumers' cultural and religious concerns.

Saudi society enjoys a high degree of cultural homogeneity that revolves almost entirely around the Islamic religion. The overwhelming majority of the Saudi Arabian population are Muslims who adhere to Islamic teachings. Islam, which governs every aspect of a Muslim's life, and also permeates every aspect of the Saudi state. Islam forbids eating unlawful (not *halal*) food such as pork, meat from animals or birds not slaughtered in the Islamic way and drinking alcohol. This law is enforced strictly throughout Saudi Arabia. *Halal* food means food permitted under Islamic Law and should fulfil the following conditions:

1. does not consist of or contain anything which is considered to be unlawful according to Islamic Law;

2. has not been prepared, processed, transported or stored using any appliance or facility that was not free from anything unlawful according to Islamic Law; and

3. has not in the course of preparation, processing, transportation or storage been in direct contact with any food that fails to satisfy the above two conditions.

4. all lawful land animals and birds should be slaughtered in compliance with the Islamic way of slaughtering.

(See Appendix B for more information on the Halal concept)

Accordingly, in addition to meeting all existing Saudi poultry meat quality standards and specifications, imported poultry meat and products must also meet *halal* slaughtering requirements. A recent study of Saudi consumer behaviour related to chicken meat indicated that more than 84% of the consumers interviewed preferred chicken for its quality, way of slaughtering (*halal*), cleanliness, packaging, price and type of feed given to the chicken. Thus, all poultry products sold in Saudi Arabia are *halal* products, which are in full compliance with the Islamic law and satisfy the lawful food conditions.

Another reason for conducting this research in Saudi Arabia is the high level of cultural homogeneity. According to Bhuian (1997), almost 100% of Saudis speak Arabic and all the inhabitants are Muslims. The combination of common language and religion has led to a common sense of heritage and cultural unity among Saudis.

In addition, there should be clear justified reasons for the choice of the countries to be considered as COO for the product being chosen. Selection of the countries in this study is based on the following criteria:

1. Wide geographical representation and coverage; minimum one country from each continent.

2. Countries with a majority Muslim population, as well as countries with a majority non-Muslim population, are included to make sure that the effect of religion is examined.

3. The countries that have been chosen are already trading with Saudi Arabia, which means that Saudi consumers have at least a minimum knowledge about the countries' products. In 2003, 44% of the total chicken consumption in Saudi Arabia was imported. The main sources of chicken for Saudi Arabia are Brazil with a share of 75.1% of the total imported chicken and France with 21%. Thus, Brazil and France provide 96.1% of the total imports. The other 4% is provided by many other countries.

4. The countries comprise less-developed countries as well as highly developed countries. This allows comparison of the economical and technological level of development dimensions of the COO.

5. The countries those which have Arabic and non-Arabic languages as the dominant language.

6. Countries with cultural dissimilarity are included. A table with Hofstede's four values that have been used to differentiate the cultures in different countries (Table 6.6) has been customized from Adsit et al. (1997).

7. France, USA, Brazil and Malaysia are culturally dissimilar to each other, as is clear from table 6.6.

8. France, USA and Brazil have different languages and religions from that of Saudi Arabia. Since the language and religion are important components of the culture, we can assume that these countries are culturally dissimilar to Saudi Arabia.

9. Malaysia has a different language but a similar religion to Saudi Arabia, which could also mean that it is somewhat culturally dissimilar to Saudi Arabia.

10. Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates and Egypt are not included in Hofstede's (1984) study. For the sake of this research and since religion and language are important components of the culture of any country, Egypt and the United Arab Emirates are considered culturally similar to Saudi Arabia. Bhuian (1997) stated that in all the 22 Arab League nations from Iraq to Morocco, such homogeneity in the characteristics of the population cannot be found in many developing countries.

Balabanis et al. (2002) concluded in their study that the relational context between two countries could override the effects of physical, cultural and economical proximity on country image. However, a larger sample of countries could allow better charting or quantification of the relative importance country relations on country image. That makes increasing the number of countries in this study is significant and adds to the study.

Table 6.6: Criteria of the countries for the research

	Middle East	Europe	South America	America	Asia	Gulf	Africa
Country Name	Saudi Arabia	France	Brazil	U.S.A	Malaysia	UAE	Egypt
Imported chicken (2004)[1]	N.A.	21.6	74.9	0%	0%	0%	0%
Religion	Muslim	Non	Non	Non	Muslim	Muslim	Muslim
2001 Trade with Saudi Arabia Million /Dollar[2]	N.A.	3182	1293	17933	1672		657
Level of economic development	LDC	HDC	LDC	HDC	LDC	LDC	LDC
Languages	Arabic	Non	Non	Non	Non	Arabic	Arabic
Cultures[3] A) Power Distance[5]	N.A.	H 15/16	H 14	L 38	H 1	N.A.	N.A.
B) Individualism[6]	N.A.	H 10/11	M 26/27	H 1	M 36	N.A.	N.A.
C) Masculinity	N.A.	M 33/36	M 27	H 15	M 25/26	N.A.	N.A.
D) Uncertainty Avoidance[6]	N.A.	H 10/15	M 21/22	L 43	L 46	N.A.	N.A.

Notes:

1- Source: The Agriculture Ministry Annual Report, 2005

2- Source of the trade exchange is General Authority of Investment, 2002

3- Derived from Hofstede (1991); based on 53 countries; ranks range from 1 = high to 53 = low; to help interpretation, ranks 1 – 15 are labelled H = high, ranks 16-37 are labelled M= medium, ranks 38-53 are labelled L = low (Hofstede did not provide these labels).

4- Saudi Arabia, United Arab of Emirates, and Egypt are not included in the Hofstede study.

5- High ranks equal high power distance.

6- High ranks equal high uncertainty avoidance.

Furthermore, the selected countries are divided into two groups to represent the COO for sub-sample one and sub-sample two. The division of the countries into two groups is done in such a way as to ensure that the two groups are to some extent identical with regard to certain criteria of interest to the study. However, any other order would not affect the outcome because we are not comparing countries but asking participants their feedback about a specific product that comes from a specific country. (Table 6.7)

Table 6.7: Criteria for country division

Sub-sample one	Sub-sample two	Criteria for division
France	USA	Comparable level of economical and technological development (industrial countries), similar culture (western) and religion, non-Arabic speaking countries.
Malaysia	Brazil	Comparable level of economical and technological development (developing countries), non-Arabic speaking countries
Egypt	United Arab Emirates (UAE)	Muslim and Arabic speaking countries, very similar culture, Comparable economical and technological level of development (developing countries).

6.4 The research instrument building process

Figure 6.1: Research instrument building process
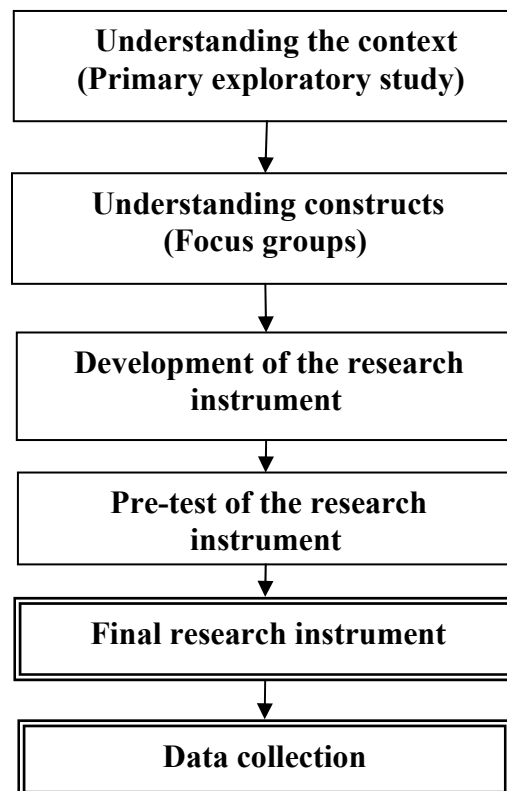
The research instrument has been built in several steps. First, a primary exploratory study using participatory learning and action (PLA) data collection methods was used as a guide to the main quantitative study. The qualitative study was conducted for three milk companies: two using local brand names and the third using an international brand name, and three poultry companies: a French company and two

Saudi companies. The purpose of the exploratory study was to give a guide to the quantitative study; i.e. to assist in determining the major issues that this research should cover and what specific research question or questions should be addressed.

6.4.1 The Qualitative Approach

The qualitative research approach was used to conduct an in-depth interview with executives of different local and foreign organisations that produce and/or distribute local and international brands. The interviews were one-to-one with open-ended questions that could provide a clear vision about consumers in Saudi Arabia. The in-depth face-to-face interview is a qualitative approach that seemed to be one of the most practical ways in which to explore the complexity and difficulty of different views in different companies and/or countries (Katsikeas et al. 1997, Gummesson, 2002).

The objective of using this approach was to benefit from the experience and knowledge of these executives to gain an in-depth understanding of consumer perceptions about country of origin and branded products. More specifically, the aim of the primary exploratory study was**:**

1- To find out to what extent executives think that the COO and brand are important to consumers in their respective product category.

2- To make sure that the variables that will be used to measure the COO construct are appropriate.

3- To find out if culture and religion are important factors affecting how consumers perceive a specific country.

4- To find out what the variables that could measure the branded product construct are.

5- To check if the ethnocentrism issue is a factor that could affect consumers' buying intentions.

Chicken and milk, which could be considered as belonging in the same product category, were dealt with during the interviews in order to find out if the executives would have the same evaluation for the COO and branded product as cues that influence consumers' buying intentions for these two products.

6.4.1.1 The process of the exploratory study (understanding of the context)

The exploratory study was conducted through one-to-one interviews with executives of three main milk producers and three main chicken producers. Chicken is the product that will be studied in this research and milk is a product from the same category (fast-moving items) that will help to check if the executives' opinions are similar for the two products that belong in the same category.

As indicated above, the exploratory study will help to verify some of the main issues considered in this research. Thus, the interviews that were conducted covered those main issues, which will assist in achieving the main purpose of the study. These issues included the executives' opinions about country of origin (COO), their marketing strategy with regard to the COO, the effects of any changes in the COO might have on their marketing strategy, their action or reaction to the COO strategies of their competitors, the extent to which consumers' evaluation of COO would affect their marketing strategy, the variables that could measure COO and branded products, to what extent culture and religion are important factors for Saudi consumers in evaluation of the different products that come from different countries, to what extent ethnocentrism is an issue for Saudi consumers, and the influence of the demographic variables on COO and branded product effects.

About 40 open-ended questions were used to cover these issues and the respondents were allowed and given time to say any thing they wanted about themselves or their competitors. The participants were told that they could skip any question/s that they thought it inappropriate to answer (although this did not occur when the interviews were conducted).

6.4.1.2 The indications of the exploratory study

The outcome of the primary exploratory study, as anticipated, assisted greatly in re-forming and specifying the variables that needed to be included in the survey instrument to measure the effects of COO and branded products on consumers' buying intentions in Saudi Arabia. The COO and brand have proven to be important factors that major manufacturers and traders consider when forming their marketing strategies. Ethnocentrism too, has proven to be a factor that could affect how consumers evaluate the different branded products in the market. Price, especially in

poultry industry, proved not to be an important factor that influences the buying decision and that is because:

1- the government subsidies to the local producers lower the high production cost.

2- the tax imposed on the imported chicken.

This makes the prices of the locally-produced and imported chicken products very comparable in the Saudi market. Thus, price is not a factor that has a significant effect on the buying decision.

(See Appendix C for outcome of Exploratory Study in detail)

6.4.1.3 Focus group discussion (understanding the constructs)

The focus group as a qualitative research instrument is widely used to understand better the population opinion about a specific topic and help to understand what is in their minds. Therefore, it is becoming more popular as a research technique in the social sciences (Charlesworth and Rodwell, 1997).

As a qualitative method for gathering data, focus groups bring together several participants to discuss a topic of mutual interest to themselves and the researcher (Morgan and Spanish, 1984). Barrows (2000) reported that focus groups are one type of qualitative method for collecting primary data. He added that they have been used successfully in exploring issues at a level that quantitative research methods cannot always accomplish.

Focus groups are appropriate when profound insights into a complex problem are needed, or when it is desirable to uncover factors related to complex behaviour (Krueger, 1998). Patton (2002) defined the focus group as *"an interview with a small group of people on a specific topic"*. In a conservative society like Saudi Arabia, the focus group would be an important research method to discover more about issues such as how people perceive country of origin and brands.

Like any research instrument, the focus group has advantages and disadvantages. While the advantages are cost-effectiveness, quality data, shared views or great diversity of participants, the fact that views can be quickly assessed, and the groups are enjoyable to participants, the disadvantages are the restricted number of questions, time limitation, requirement of a highly skilled moderator, the fact that a

minority in the group may not speak out, it is not suitable for personal issues, there is no confidentiality, it is not suitable for micro-analysis, and it takes place outside the natural settings where social interactions normally occur (Patton, 2000). Considering its advantages and disadvantages, the focus group is appropriate to show how consumers who buy chickens perceive the country of origin and brands since these issues are considered impersonal and can be discussed in public.

One of the primary strengths of using focus group research with a survey over using a survey alone is that it allows participants to explain the motivations for their attitudes, perceptions, and preferences (Teague and Anderson, 1995). Barrows (2000) reported that the primary advantage of the focus group is its ability to allow the researcher to probe a particular topic at greater depth than might otherwise be possible. He added that even though extensive planning and preparation is required, an incredible amount of rich information could be collected in a period of around one hour.

To discover what consumers in Saudi Arabia think about country of origin and brands in an atmosphere of open discussion, the focus group method can be used. Madriz (2000) argued that because the focus group is a collectivistic rather than an individualistic research method, focus groups have also emerged as a collaborative and empowering approach in feminist research. That makes it suitable for this research, since 85% of the decision-makers in the chicken market in Saudi Arabia are women, and as it is a conservative society, women may not have their full chance to speak up.

One of the most important factors in the focus group is the moderator; the person who manages the focus group. He/she should be knowledgeable and know how to manage the focus group in a proper manner. Focus group sessions are loosely structured, with the moderator introducing topics or following through on responses to ensure the group discussion centres around the main issues of interest (Teague and Anderson, 1995).

The moderator needs to be knowledgeable about follow-up and probing questions so that he or she will obtain information that will allow evaluators to understand the data on a deeper level (Nabors et al. 2001). The conservative nature of Saudi society makes it difficult, if not impossible, for a man to conduct a face-to-face interview

with women. This could be overcome by training a female to conduct the group discussion sessions, but this option would make it more difficult to control and handle the sessions properly.

Another option would be conducting the sessions in a public place (e.g. a hotel) with an open door, and that is what was done. The process of choosing the participants is an important activity because it affects the nature of the data obtained from the groups (Nabors et al. 2001).

In this research, the participants represent milk and chicken buyers in the Saudi market. The seating of the group is also an important issue to be considered. Khan et al. (1991) found that an informal and familiar setting promotes group discussion. Crimp and Wright (1995) suggested that members in the focus group should be introduced to each other prior to the discussion to create an informal and relaxed atmosphere; 15 to 20 minutes at the beginning of the session could give the participants a chance to be informal and relax.

The group discussion sessions should usually be videotaped/audiotaped, or notes should be taken. Rubin and Rubin (1995) suggested taking detailed notes during focus groups and recording quotes verbatim to improve the quality of the data. Videotaping of a group discussion with females could not be applied in Saudi Arabia as it is culturally not acceptable, but audiotaping is acceptable.

The data analysis is a complicated process in the focus group because of the difficulty involved in tracing participants' opinions through a discussion that involves different participants with different backgrounds. Careful analysis is needed to ensure that participants' comments are interpreted within the context of the group and to avoid inaccurate interpretations (Krueger, 1998). The results of focus group sessions are not intended to be generalised to a larger population (Fern, 1982).

The cultural factors in any specific country need to be considered when a focus group discussion is to be conducted. In Saudi Arabia it is culturally not possible to have a mixed gender group, and since 85% of the decision makers in chicken buying are women, the focus group sessions were held with women participants only. Another cultural issue is the language; since this research is being done in English and the research is about the Saudi market, the focus group guide was translated into

Arabic by an expert and then translated back to English and the two versions were then compared to make sure the translation did not change the meaning.

Patton (2002) stated that it is difficult enough to be sure what a person means when using a common language, but words can take on a very different meaning in other cultures, so the translator should be aware of the culture of the country that the research will take place in. Patton (2002) stated that special and very precise training of translators is critical; translators need to understand what, precisely, you want them to ask and that you will need full and complete translation of responses as verbatim as possible.

To comprehend the effects of the cultural issues in focus groups, a literature review was conducted, which unfortunately revealed that no thorough analysis of the effects of cultural issues on focus group discussion had been done, although some had mentioned the importance of the cultural issues for focus group methods. For instance, Calderon et al. (2000) indicated that focus group research has been successfully used to develop culturally-adapted surveys.

Qualitative research methods allow for the examination of cultural values through various open methods, such as interviews (focus group), which seek direct input from participants about their opinions. However, no cultural difference analysis has been carried out in the literature. Winslow et al. (2002) mentioned that focus groups have gained increasing acceptability as a data collection technique in qualitative research in recent years. They added that, although used extensively with Western populations, they have been used only in a limited way in cross-cultural research. That makes applying the focus group in Saudi Arabia in this study a contribution to the methodology literature.

It is important to mention that researchers should not think of changing those cultural issues, instead he/she should know how to deal with those issues and use the right tools to collect the data needed. Patton (2002) reported that interviewers are not in the field to judge or change values and norms. He added that researchers are there to understand the perspectives of others, and obtaining valid, reliable, meaningful, and usable information in cross-cultural environments requires special sensitivity to and respect for differences. Connor (1985) found that doing international evaluations made him more sensitive and effective in his domestic evaluation work.

This study was conducted in Saudi Arabia where there is a paucity of country of origin and brand research. Thus, the model of this research used the literature review mainly from research carried out in Western markets. This makes the validation of the constructs and variables that are used in this model an important process in order for this research to be valid. The focus group as a research method is suitable for such function. It will also help to build the questionnaire, which is intended to be used as a data collection instrument. Calderon et al. (2000) argued that data gained from qualitative research are particularly useful in designing quantitative research protocols for culturally different populations.

It is important to emphasise that there is no evidence that the focus group as a qualitative method has been applied before in Saudi Arabia in academic research, which makes applying it in this study an original contribution to the methodology literature.

Table 6.8: Focus group; aim, objectives and guidelines

The aim of the focus group:
- To investigate whether the theoretical model developed for the study makes sense in the Saudi context or if it needs to be adapted.   - To discover whether the suggested variables used to describe the constructs that will be used in the study really manifest these constructs.   - To discover whether the items intended to be used in the data collection instrument [questionnaire] are appropriate.
The process of the focus group:
- The time of the focus group ranged between one to two hours. The first 15 minutes were used for open discussion just to let the participants get to know each other and feel more comfortable. (Crimp and Wright, 1995, Barrows, 2000)   - The number of questions was kept to the minimum to make sure that we had enough time to cover all questions (Patton, 2002).   - The place that the focus group was held in was a kind of meeting room in a hotel with free seating arrangements at a round table that could make the interaction with the group more appropriate (Crimp and Wright, 1995).   - Tea/coffee, soft drinks and cookies were served.
The participants:
- Two groups of 8–10 Saudi women who regularly make buying decisions for milk and chicken were formed (Morgan and Spanish, 1984; Nabors et al. 2001)   - Participants in both groups had input on the buying decisions of milk and chicken.   - Although it would have been better to have a mixed group of men and women so that it will be more adequately representative of the society, this is culturally unacceptable in Saudi society.

The participants' demographic characteristics:

- The age of 23.6% of the participants ranged from 20 to 24 years old, the age of 19.3% ranged from 26 to 29 years old, the age of 15.4% ranged from 30 to 34 years old, and the age of 12.6% of the participants ranged from 35 to 39 years old.

Guidelines for the group discussions:

- **Prelude:**

  - How often do you buy food products?

  - What kind of food products do you buy?

  - Do you buy milk and chicken? How often do you buy these products?

- **The first objective: Does the model make sense in the Saudi context or does it need to be adapted?**

  - What do you consider when you buy milk? Why? How?

  - What do you think others may consider when they buy milk? Why? How?

  - What do you consider when you buy chicken? Why? How?

  - What do you think others may consider when they buy chicken? Why? How?

  - Show the participants two cards with 10 criteria to rank according to their importance when buying milk and chicken (COO, price, quality, promotion, brand, retailer name, product availability, advertised products, packaging, and product familiarity).

- **The second objective: Do the suggested variables used to describe the constructs really manifest these constructs?**

  - What does the term 'country of origin' mean to you?

  - How would you describe it?

  - Do you think that the product category has an effect on the consumer evaluation of the product COO?

  - Show the participants a card with criteria to discuss whether they think that they describe the term country of origin well or not. (Political background, media, cultural background, social pressure, technological background, ethnocentrism, economical development, national religion)

  - Show them a card with criteria to discuss whether they consider these factors when they buy milk. (Political background, media, cultural background, social pressure, technological background, ethnocentrism, economical development, national religion)

  - Show them a card with criteria to discuss whether they consider the following factors when they buy chicken. (Political background, media, cultural background, technological background, country reputation, ethnocentrism, economical development, national religion)

  - What does the term 'brand' really mean to you?

  - How would you describe it?

  - Do you think that the product category has an effect on the consumer evaluation of the product brand?

  - Show them a card with criteria to discuss whether they think that they describe the term `brand` well or not? (Quality, excitement, reliability, friendly, taste, packaging, sincerity, competence)

  - Do you think that consumers do not actively check the COO of milk, but use their perceptions instead?

  - Do you think that consumers do not actively check the COO of the chicken, but instead they

use their perceptions?

- Do you think consumers take their time when buying milk or do they just use the brand name as indicator to buy?

- Do you think consumers take their time when buying chicken or do they just use the brand name as indicator to buy?

- Show them a card with criteria to discuss whether they consider them when they buy milk (Quality, excitement, reliability, friendly, taste, packaging, sincerity, competence)

- Show them a card with criteria to discuss whether they consider them when they buy chicken (Quality, excitement, reliability, friendly, taste, packaging, sincerity, competence)

- **The third objective**: **Are the items intended to be used in the data collection instrument [questionnaire] appropriate?**

- Political background, cultural background, technological background, economical development, national religion

- How would you describe it? (They are presented one by one)

- How much do you feel that each of the following questions is relevant? (Show them the relevant questions from the suggested questionnaire)

- Quality, reliability, taste, packaging, sincerity, competence:

- How would you describe each of these items? (They were presented one by one)

- How much do you feel that each of the questions related to these concepts is relevant? (Show them the relevant question from the suggested questionnaire)

The focus group limitations:

- The main limitations were the inability to form a mixed (male and female) focus group, and that the researcher, being a male, could not have accessibility to the female group. Patton (2002) pointed out that in many cultures it is a breach of etiquette for an unknown man to ask to meet alone with a woman.

- The language was another limitation, since the main research is in English and the focus group process was in Arabic.

- **How were those limitations addressed?**

- An open-door arrangement in a hotel meeting room had been prepared with the participants to make the female participants feel more comfortable.

- The interview manual was translated into Arabic by an expert and then another expert translated it into English, then the two versions were compared to see if they matched or not. They were found to be well-matching and this ensured that the manual was well translated.

- **How were the notes taken?**

- Since it is not culturally acceptable to video record the focus group discussions for female participants, an audio tape was used, with the proviso that none of the participants' names would be mentioned in the discussion. In addition, a transcript of the discussion was made.

The data analysis:

- A full transcript was made of the focus group discussions and was analysed thoroughly, to realise the aims of the focus group.

(See Appendix D for analysis of focus groups)

(See Appendix E for sample notes of focus groups)

6.4.1.4 The focus group methodology

Two groups of women meeting the specified criteria, and who regularly purchase milk and chicken, were selected. One group was formed in Riyadh city and the other in Jeddah. These two cities are inhabited by 49% of the total population of Saudi Arabia (Saudi census, 2003). Using the contacts of some friends, the group's members were asked to come to the meeting place. Calderon et al. (2000) specified that focus groups are small groups that have as their objective the acquisition of information based on the perceptions, beliefs, traditions and values of their participants. Both groups accepted that the male researcher could be the moderator since the researcher was not alone there and they kept themselves totally covered according to the Islamic cultural rules. They also accepted that the discussion could be taped as long as it would be used only for the research and their identities would not be released.

6.5 Hypotheses Development

Most of the previous studies had treated the COO and branded product as aggregate constructs. One of the main contributions of this study is its attempt to develop scales for the different dimensions of these constructs that are of importance and relevance to Saudi culture.

6.5.1 Developed Hypotheses

According to the discussion of the focus group, the following main hypotheses and sub-hypotheses were developed. The qualitative research method was used to adapt them to Saudi setting, as discussed in *Chapter Five*.

(See Appendix F for details on development of sub-hypotheses)

H1: If a country has a positive image, its branded products will also have a positive image.

H2: The more positively consumers perceive COO, the higher their buying intentions of its products.

H3: The higher the consumers perceive a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.

H4: The higher the ethnocentrism level of the consumers, the lower their purchasing intention will be for the imported branded chicken.

H5: The higher the similarity of the branded product of the major brands, the less positive an image the individual brands will have.

H6: The different age groups of the consumers will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin.

H7: Consumer groups with different educational levels will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin.

H8: Consumers with different occupations will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin.

H9: Consumers with different incomes will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin.

6.5.2 The outcome of the exploratory study (key-informant interviews) and focus group discussions

Based on the focus group discussion and feedback of the exploratory study, the following research model is hypothesised (Fig. 6.2).

Figure 6.2: Hypothesised research model
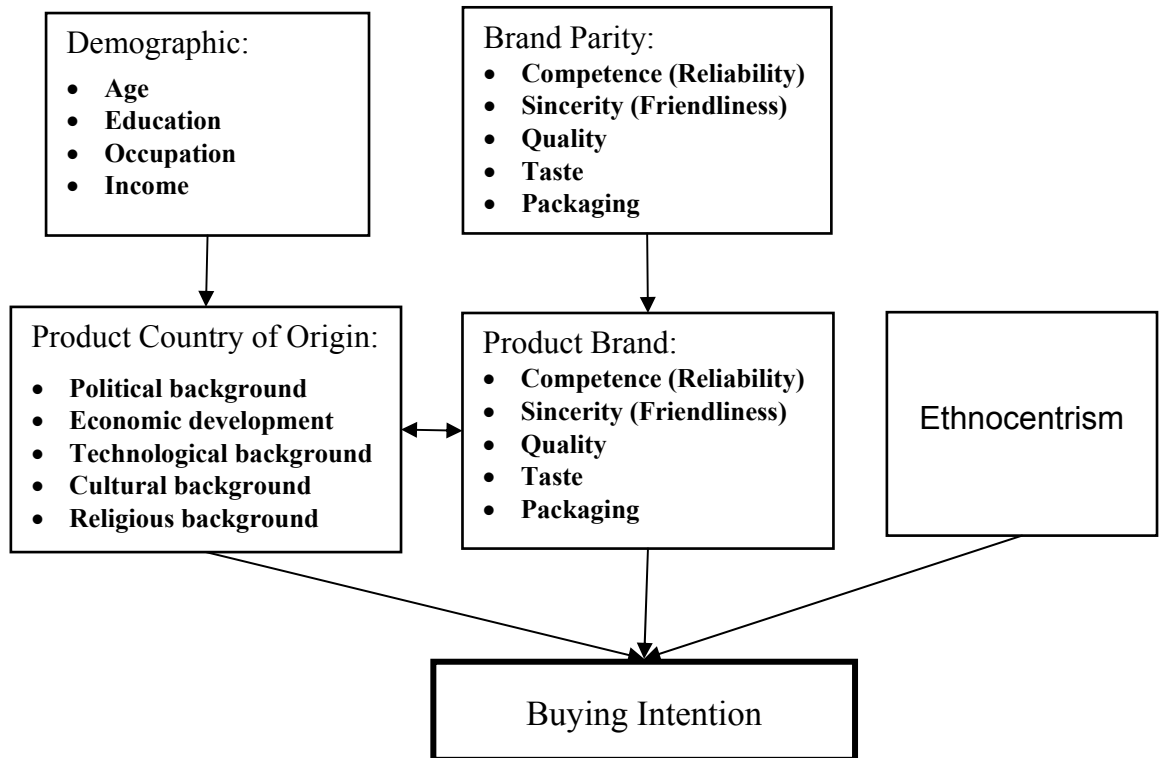
6.6 Development of the research instrument

After reviewing the literature to discover the best instrument for this study, the process of developing the research instrument, which is a questionnaire, will be presented:

6.6.1 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire is one of the most commonly used data collection instruments in social science research. Roberts (1999) reported that questionnaires are the most widely-used data collection technique in surveys and provide a very efficient way of creating the matrix of data required for analysis. Proctor (2000) defined the questionnaire as a data-collection instrument that formally sets out the way in which the research questions of interest should be asked. He added that when constructing a questionnaire, its aim should always be borne firmly in mind and each question should make a contribution to the research objectives. Even simple questions need proper wording and organisation to produce accurate information.

In this study, face-to-face interviewing was used, even though it is costly and time-consuming compared to mail or telephone interviews. This is mainly because it has a better response rate and quality of response. Kerlinger (1980) reported that mail questionnaires are criticised particularly on two grounds: poor response rates and poor quality of responses. Moreover, the face-to-face questionnaire has advantages over the mail questionnaire in that the interviewer will have control over the interviewing environment so that the respondent will not receive any outside help and his responses will reflect only his own opinion (Stover and Stone, 1974). Furthermore, the interviewer may exert all his efforts to make sure that the respondent answers all the questions. Mail and telephone questionnaires could be better if the sample was very large and scattered over a wide geographical area (Roberts, 1999).

Tuncalp (1988) mentioned that the mail questionnaire has two limitations in Saudi Arabia: one, the mail system is not very efficient or reliable and, two, the Saudis make bad correspondents. He also reported that using a phone questionnaire is not appropriate in the Saudi setting because the social norms prevent the housewife from responding to calls from strangers. He also mentioned that the face-to-face questionnaire has limitations for use in Saudi Arabia, as the Saudis consider their homes off-limits to strangers and that the very private and conservative nature of the Saudis is not conducive to conducting personal interviews.

The women who participated in the focus group discussion mentioned that they did not think that Saudi women would appreciate long questionnaires and did not think that they were prepared to spend a long time filling them in, and so they suggested that the questionnaire should be filled in in work places or waiting areas in hospitals or similar places.

Tuncalp (1988) reported that Saudis are not used to survey research in general and filling out questionnaires in particular, and they are usually reluctant to participate in lengthy questionnaire studies. He added that for these reasons, questionnaires should employ closed-end questions, as opposed to open-ended questions. Although Tuncalp carried out his study in 1988, most of the issues that he raised are still very much valid now. Consequently, the questionnaire in this study was kept as short as possible but without affecting its efficiency as a data collection instrument. Proctor

(2000) suggested keeping the questions short and to the point, and that is what has been done in this study.

It is clear that the three types of questionnaire have some limitations for use in Saudi society, but with the development and changes that are occurring in Saudi social life, particularly in the big cities and urban centres (like the study area), the situation is much better, particularly with regard to using personal interviews. On the other hand, the focus group discussion that was conducted in this study has proved that women are very open to discussing their opinions and their buying consideration factors.

An English/Arabic back-and-forth translation process similar to what was done for the focus group discussion guidelines has been applied to the questionnaire. The first version was developed in English and then it was translated by a professional office into Arabic, then back to English by a different office, and then the two versions were compared by a third party with the researcher to make sure that they had the same meaning. Yavas and Tuncalp (1984) and Tuncalp (1988), like many other researchers, asserted that this process is appropriate for application to studies to be conducted in Saudi Arabia.

The Likert scale and semantic differential scales are very commonly used in the researches that measure peoples' attitudes. Proctor (2000) mentioned that Likert and semantic differential are the most usable to measure peoples' attitudes. Tuncalp (1988) reported that in Saudi Arabia, dichotomous or multiple-choice questions, using simple and common wording in short sentences, are appropriate. He added that because of the ease with which they can be administered, other types of closed-end questions, using the Likert scale, the semantic differential scale and rating scale, are also appropriate. Only the Likert scale is used in this study, as it is the most commonly-used scale. This will make it easy for the respondents to fill in the questionnaire due to the consistency of using questions and items related to one scale; a five point scale was used.

Andrews (1984) in his questionnaire design characteristics and recommendations suggested having a 'don't know' or 'no opinion' option in the questionnaire to improve the quality of data collection. Goldsmith (1989), in his study about the causes of spurious responses found that providing a 'don't know' option reduced spurious responses.

On the hand, a scale with seven points or more will increase the non-response rate in Saudi Arabia since, as mentioned previously, Saudis are usually not willing to fill in lengthy questionnaires.

6.7 Pre-test of the Instrument

To make sure that the data collection instrument and the scales that have been adapted are appropriate.

As a pre-test process of the instruments, three steps were made:

1- A set of documents, which contains the research model, the variables scales and the drafter research instruments, was sent to all the academic research staff in Glasgow University and to other academic researchers who work in Saudi universities to have their feedback about the following issues:

* The questionnaire has two versions; one covers three countries USA, Brazil and UAE, and the other version covers Egypt, France and Malaysia. Any comment about having three countries in each version?

* The country of origin cultural background and religion background variables scale items have been adapted in a form of a comparison between the 6 different countries and Saudi Arabia. The assumption is the more similar those two variables in any country to Saudi Arabia are, the more positive effects of product originated from one of those countries will have. Other variables have followed the original scale format. Could you please look at that point specifically and let the researcher know if it is appropriate to do it this way or just follow the original scale format, which is in the scales document for all the variables.

* The branded product construct will be measured using the two dimensions, the brand as a product (quality, taste and packaging) and the brand as a person (competence and sincerity). Some of the scale items of competence and sincerity variables are not appropriate for use in this research that is why they have been cancelled.

* The brand parity construct will be measured using the variables that will be used to measure the branded product construct, instead of using only the original scale item. That could give a better comparison of the branded chicken that comes from different countries.

* Any comments regarding the order of the questions in the questionnaire, which is different from the order of the model?

   Some feedback was received, with a few useful comments taken into account where possible.

2- The questionnaire was distributed to about 15 Saudi women, who were temporarily living in Glasgow, to get their feedback about it. Their only concern was that it could be too long to be filled in in supermarkets; it should be filled in in a comfortable place.

3- A pilot study of the first version of the questionnaire was done by distributing 10% of the total sample after a back and forth translation. The feedback was acceptable and added to the sample of the study.

(See Appendices G, H, I and J for both versions of questionnaires in English and Arabic)

6.8 Measurement of the theoretical concepts

In this section, a review of the literature was carried out to find out the most suitable scales for measuring the constructs of the research model. Some adaptations were made to the selected scales so as to suit the study purpose. Those adaptations have been made as a result of the focus group discussion. Pappu et al. (2007) found that the relative importance of macro and micro country images on consumer product evaluations was also country specific.

6.8.1 Country of origin construct variables (political background, economic development and technological background)

Papadopoulos et al. (1989) used a 21-item scale in a cross-national consumer survey to measure the country stereotype. The items used were: poor/good workmanship, poor/good quality, technically not advanced/ advanced, unrecognisable/ recognisable brands, imitative/innovative, dishonest/honest promotion, poor/good service, unreliable/reliable, not proud/proud to own, overall dissatisfied/satisfied, know a little/a lot about, difficult/easy to find, buy few/a lot of, appearance/performance, more for older/younger people, more for lower/upper class, expensive/inexpensive,

unreasonably/reasonably priced, necessity/luxury items, narrow/wide choice, and little/much advertising.

Martin and Eroglu (1993) used a scale with three dimensions and composed of a five-item political factor, a five-item economic factor, and a four-item technological factor.

Agarwal and Sikri (1996) created a 24-item scale that was developed using the most frequent items used by previous researchers to measure the dimensions of the country image scales. Those 24 items were pre-tested, and as a result a 14-item scale was created, with an eight-item technology dimension, a three-item price dimension, and a three-item prestige dimension.

Many other researchers have used scales with different dimensions and different items. This shows the variety of scales that can be used to measure the country image. Mohamad et al. (2000) used a multidimensional country image, as defined and operationalised by Roth and Romeo (1992), which has four dimensions: innovativeness, design, prestige, and workmanship. Almost all the country image scales in the previous studies consist of multidimensional scales.

The country of origin will be measured using the country image scale used by Martin and Eroglu (1993), which has been found to be a valid and reliable scale (Pappu et el. 2007). The dimensions used in this scale were very appropriate to the factors used in this study. The three different factors that will be used to measure the country of origin construct can be measured using this scale.

Bearden and Netemeyer (1998) stated that item scores can be summed within dimension (factor) to form separate indices for the economical, political, and technological factors, or the scores of all the 14 items can be summed to form one overall country image composite. This makes this scale appropriate to be used for the economical, political, and technological factors, which are all factors considered in measuring the country of origin construct. In this scale, all items are scored on 7-point semantic differential scales.

Coefficient alpha was reported to be .950 for the whole scale, and for the economical, political and technological dimensions, it ranged from .56 to .71 for

sample size 200. The small amendment that was made to the scale in this study is that 5 points instead of 7 points were used.

The focus group participants checked the items and found them to be appropriate, and they did not suggest any deletion or addition for any item.

6.8.2 Cultural background and national religion

Ethnocentric consumers tend to reject people, symbols, values and products that are culturally dissimilar to their own, while those of their own culture may become objects of attachment and pride (Herche, 1994). The focus group participants showed a high consideration for the cultural background and religious effects in their buying consideration, which is very much to be expected in a conservative country like Saudi Arabia.

Reviewing the literature to find an appropriate scale that can measure the culture as a variable for the measurement of the COO construct revealed that not many scales were available, mainly because of the differences in the conceptualisation of the concept.

Parameswaran and Pisharodi (1994) created a scale that measures the COO effect with a large number of items measuring different dimensions of the COO, part of which was developed to measure a consumer's perception of the similarity of his/her country to other countries that a product comes from, and called "general country attribute". The scale has three items with a ten-point summated scale with reliability of standardised alpha of .849 for German products and .675 for Korean products.

In this study, Parameswaran and Pisharodi's (1994) scale will be used for the cultural background and national religion, with adaptation for the items to fit this research. The items were presented to the focus group participants and they adapted some of the items to fit the Saudi setting and the product of the research. Moreover, the items had been presented to the Glasgow university professors and three Saudi professors to check the items of the scale and they had judged the items to be appropriate. The scale was developed to find the similarity, while in this research a comparison between the different countries is intended, and with the adaptation of the items the scale could be applied.

6.8.3 Ethnocentrism

To measure ethnocentrism Nagashima (1970), Lillis and Narayana (1974) used a semantic differential method, which has 20 criteria on a 7-point scale valued from 1 to 7. Papadopoulos et al. (1986) and Papadopoulos et al. (1989) used a large cross-national consumer survey with 22 items. Shimp and Sharma (1987) created a scale with four-items, 7-point Likert-type scale measuring American consumers' attitudes to purchasing products, with alpha .81 as reliability. They also created the CETSCALE scale with 17 items scored on 7-point Likert-type scale, with reliability ranging from .94 to .96.

The CETSCALE has also been used by Netemeyer et al. (1991), Sharma et al. (1995), Kaynak and Kara (2001), Klein (2002) and Bawa (2004). Hong and Wyer (1989) gave 128 participants information about two products, and under comprehension conditions they were told simply to try to understand the information they received and evaluate its clarity, and under impression-formation conditions they were told to form impressions of what the products described were like.

It is clear that this method is appropriate for a small size sample and cannot be applied to large samples. Bruning (1996) employed conjoint analysis, with the questionnaire part of it having a section comprising 27 statements. Respondents were asked to evaluate on a 7-point 'strongly agree' (7), 'strongly disagree' (1) Likert scale. Seventeen items made up the CETSCALE (coefficient alpha = .97).

Ouellet (2007) indicated that the CETSCALE has been an important contribution to consumer research, as it enables the measurement of ethnocentrism across countries (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). He added that studies of consumer ethnocentrism have consistently shown scores on the scale to correlate inversely with willingness to buy imports, cultural openness, income, education, and perceptions of the quality of imported goods; the scale has demonstrated consistency across several countries.

Klein et al. (2006) argued that although the ethnocentrism construct was developed and initially validated in the USA, there is evidence that the psychometric properties of the scale extend beyond North America. However, these studies were conducted in developed, mostly Western nations, with advanced economies, where consumers generally take pride in their domestic products and judge them more favourably than foreign goods.

Klein et al. (2006) indicated that there are legitimate reasons for seeking greater parsimony, the CETSCALE measuring a relatively straightforward uni-dimensional construct - the belief that it is wrong to purchase foreign-made products - when measuring this construct, as the use of multiple items may result in question redundancy. They added that redundant questions may increase internal consistency (e.g. Cronbach's alpha); however, they also needlessly add to the length of the measurement instrument. In the international arena, where surveys must be translated, question redundancy increases the risk of translation and measurement error, as well as respondent fatigue. Klein et al. (2006) argued that the concept of consumer ethnocentrism is a relatively straightforward construct, which may be measured with fewer than ten items.

Klein et al. (2006) showed that a six-item version of the CETSCALE performs as well as (or better than) the ten-item version. They added that these findings, when coupled with Bearden and Netemeyer's (1998), call for more parsimonious marketing measures, and make a strong case for the employment of the six-item CETSCALE by both international marketing managers and academics interested in measuring consumer ethnocentrism.

 Ethnocentrism in this study was measured with a four-item, 5-point, Likert-type scale, *(strongly agree = 5, strongly disagree=1)* called Buy American-made Products, which was referred to as 'willingness to help' by Olsen et al. (1993). This scale had been used in America to measure what affects consumers' willingness to buy American-made products. Olsen et al. (1993) reported a LISREL construct reliability of .803 for the scale, but did not specifically examine the scale's validity.

The reason the Buy American-made Products scale is used is that the scale items emphasise the extra effort one tries to make to purchase domestically-produced product brands and it does not measure a person's willingness to buy local-made products in order to help local workers. The extra effort that a consumer makes will prove a stronger degree of ethnocentrism. Another reason is that it has only 4 items and that can be suitable for a larger questionnaire that covers other research variables, while most of the scales mentioned above have 17 to 22 items. The focus group participants insisted that a long questionnaire was not appropriate in Saudi culture.

This scale has been used for clothes in America but, with small amendments, it could be used in this study for chicken in Saudi Arabia. Olsen et al. (1993) used a 6-point Likert-type scale, while a 5-point scale is used in this study. That is because this scale is only a part of a large questionnaire including several 5-point scales.

6.8.4 Brand Construct Variables

The original scale of the brand personality has five main dimensions, with two of them having been adapted and included in this study as a result of the focus group discussion. Others have been considered from the participants' responses not to be relevant to the product category of this study. Davies et al. (2001) replicated Aaker's (1997) study in the UK and found that the scale items western, small town and feminine reliability are low. According to Azoulay and Kapferer (2003), human personality descriptions can be used to describe them but, in fact, the adjectives used to describe human personality may not all be relevant to brands; this is where an adaptation is required. Thus, adaptation is an essential process for using this scale, verifying the use of either all the scale dimensions or part of them.

Austin et al. (2003) and Aaker (1997) developed a scale to capture symbolic brand meanings. Davies et al. (2001) developed a Corporate Personality scale with seven dimensions to measure how a stakeholder measures the organization rather than the product/services. Five out of the seven have been valid and reliable. Rojas-Mendez et al. (2004) concluded that Aaker's (1997) and Davies et al's (2001) scales are to some extent similar, sharing 20 identical items, and they used the Aaker (1997) scale in their study in Chile.

6.8.4.1 Brand personality (competence)

To measure brand personality, researchers have relied for a long time on measurement scales that tend to be *ad hoc* or taken directly from personality psychology, but not validated in the context of brands (Kassarjian, 1971). Aaker (1997) systematically developed a reliable, valid, and generalisable scale to measure brand personality.

Many researchers have used Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale to measure brand personality (Ferrandi et al. 2000; Koebel and Ladwein, 1999; Aaker et al. 2001; Wee, 2003; Austin et al. 2003; Rojas-Mendez et al. 2004; Diamantopoulos et al. 2005).

Helgeson and Supphellen (2004) reported that they could have used the Aaker brand personality scale; however, as Aaker (1997) noted, additional research is needed to determine the extent to which these brand personality (BP) dimensions are stable across cultures. Helgeson and Supphellen (2004) mentioned that Aaker's scale had not been used previously in Scandinavian countries. Moreover, attempts to validate the scale mainly focused on product brands.

On the other hand, Venable et al. (2003) reported that the measurement of brand personality had been examined across various cultural contexts (Aaker, 2000; Ferrandi et al. 2000; Aaker et al. 2001). These studies established that there are consistencies in brand personality dimensions across different cultures (Aaker 1997).

This shows that the scale can be applied in different cultures, such as that of Saudi Arabia. Moreover, this study will be conducted considering product brands, which makes the use of the Aaker BP scale an appropriate choice.

Based on the previous discussion, the competence dimension will be measured using a scale that has nine items, each with 5-points (*Not at all descriptive = 1, extremely descriptive = 5*), which is a part of a larger scale constructed by Aaker (1997) which has 42 items measuring the brand personality dimensions. The scale items are: reliable, hard-working, secure, intelligent, technical, corporate, successful, leader and confident. The scale items have been presented to the focus group participants to validate them. The participants have accepted only five out of the nine scale items to be appropriate for the scale. The items were also presented to the academic professors from Glasgow University and Saudi university and both judged that the adapted items were reasonable to measure the relibality factor in a Saudi setting for the research product, i.e. whole chicken. The items that will be used for this research are reliable, secure, successful, leader and confident. An alpha of .93 has been reported by Aaker (1997) as reliability for the scale. The higher the score for the scale means the more the respondents perceive the brand as characterized by competence.

The brand personality variables are new for Saudi participants. This has been revealed by the many questions that the focus group participants asked which indicated that they did not give it high consideration in their buying decision, but that

they still considered it important. This study represents a good opportunity to study that.

6.8.4.2 Brand personality (sincerity)

Consistent with what has been reported in the brand personality (competence) variable, sincerity is measured using a scale that has eleven items, each item having 5-points *(Not at all descriptive = 1, Extremely descriptive = 5)* which is part of a larger scale constructed by Aaker (1997) with 42 items measuring the brand personality dimensions. The scale items are down-to-earth, family-oriented, small-town, honest, sincere, real, wholesome, original, cheerful, sentimental and friendly. Five out of the eleven original scale items were considered by the focus group participants as appropriate for the Saudi setting and for the research product. The same items were approved by the professers who were consulted for the same purpose. The accepted items are family-oriented, honest, sincere, wholesome and original. The scale reliability was reported by Aaker (1997) as an alpha of .93. The higher the score for the scale, the higher the perception of the brand being characterised by sincerity for the respondents.

6.8.4.3 Quality (brand)

This variable is measured by a three-item, 5-point semantic differential scale, which used by Keller and Aaker (1992). The items are low/high quality, likely/not likely to try, and inferior/superior quality. This scale measures consumers' attitudes towards some specific brand; a high score of the scale means that the respondent considers a brand to be of high quality. Keller and Aaker (1992) reported that their scale reliability is more than .70. No other scales for quality measurement have been found in the literature. The items were presented to the focus group participants and have been adapted to fit the Saudi setting. The items used are the ones that participants believe represent the quality of the research product in Saudi Arabia, i.e. high quality, colour of the meat, superior product, and the chicken is naturally fed. These adapted items were approved by the academic professors.

The original scale has 7 points, but in this study 5 points have been used, so as to be consistent with other parts of the large questionnaire which includes 5 point scales.

The brand name as a quality evidence has a strong effect on the focus group participants. They give it the highest priority of all other brand construct variables in both chicken and milk products.

6.8.4.4 Taste and Packaging

Taste and packaging are attributes that can be measured as factors for the branded product construct. Not many taste and packaging measuring scales are available in the literature. Sujan and Bettman (1989) used a 3-item, 7-point semantic differential summated rating scale that measures the importance of a specific product characteristic to a consumer. The scale reliability scored an alpha of .92 and .93 for the camera attributes which were used in the study. Bruner and Hensel (1993) reported that scores were calculated by averaging numerical responses to the items, with lower scores indicating that a product characteristic is not very important to the respondents, whereas high scores suggest that the attribute is quite salient.

Taste and packaging effects come second to the quality effects in affecting the participants' evaluation of the brand construct. The scale items have been adapted to fit the Saudi setting for chicken product. The taste items are; very tasty, smells pleasant, has a superior taste, and the meat is juicy. The packaging items are; packed in good packaging, hygienic pack, and superior packaging. The adapted items were approved by the academic professors and found to be appropriate.

6.8.5 Brand Parity Construct

Brand parity is one of the new terms in the brand literature and is defined by Muncy (1996) as *the overall perception held by the consumer that the differences between the major brand alternatives in a product category are small*. Only one scale for measuring brand parity is encountered in the literature and that is the one created by Muncy (1996). It is composed of 5-item Likert scale and each item has 5-points *(strongly agree to strongly disagree)*. Bearden and Netemeyer (1998) reported that item scores can be summed to form an overall brand parity score. Alpha estimates for the scale ranged from .86 to .91. High parity means that the major brand alternatives are perceived as similar.

The scale in this study will use the same scale item but with 5 different factors, those representing the conceptualisation of brand construct in this study which contains of the brand as a person dimension and the brand as a product dimension.

6.8.6 Buying Intention

Many scales have been used to measure buying intention. These scales have different sets of items depending on the type of research. Spears and Singh (2004) reported that anyone wishing to measure buying intention will be faced with bewildering array of choices, because no standard, psychometrically validated scales exist for measuring buying intention. Batra and Ray (1986) measured buying intention with a single-item, seven-point (definitely would buy/ definitely would not buy) scale. In contrast, MacKenzie et al. (1986) used a three-item seven-point scale (likely/unlikely, probable/improbable, and possible/ impossible) to measure the buying intention.

Jacoby (1978) criticised the available scales by saying that we should not indiscriminately accept measures that are only measures because someone says they are, but have not been subjected to careful psychometric examination. Spears and Singh (2004) developed a set of psychometrically sound measures for buying intention and examined the uni-dimensionality of the two constructs. They found that there were 15 items that measure the buying intention in the literature. Two of the items were excluded because they were time-specific items. In this study and after conducting the exploratory and factor analysis, five items of the scale were selected to form the buying intention. Those items are: never/definitely, definitely do not intend to buy/ definitely intend, very low/high purchase interest, definitely not buy it/definitely buy it, probably not/probably buy it. Each item is measured with a seven-point semantic deferential scale. The items had been presented to the focus group and no comments were made about the scale items. Moreover, the professors accepted them as appropriate items for the scale.

The composite reliability for the buying intention scale was 0.97 and when the study was replicated the composite reliability was again 0.97. Therefore the Spears and Singh (2004) scale is used in this study as a five-point semantic deferential scale.

(See Appendix K for details on scales used for this study)

6.9 Data Collection

The questionnaire contains questions to measure the study's six main constructs: country of origin, brand parity, branded product, ethnocentrism, demographic characteristics and buying intention. The last section is devoted to the respondents' personal information. The purposes of this section are (Proctor, 2000): *first*, where there are known and dependable statistics about the population from which the sample has been selected, such data provide a rough check on the representativeness of the sample. *Second*, through analysis of subgroups, it provides a method for identifying differences of key results in response by subgroups such as gender (only female in this research) and age. *Third*, there will be identification information such as the respondent's name, address and telephone number. Not all of what has been suggested will be applied in this study, since asking women about some of the information such as their name, address and telephone number is not acceptable in Saudi culture.

The questionnaire consists of different scales that have already been built and validated in different cultures and been used in previous studies. The different scales have been adapted to fit the country and product under consideration in the study. To improve the validity and reliability of this research, Roberts' (1999) suggestion that the reliability and validity of the measures could be further substantiated if a larger pilot study was carried out or if the sample size was increased, was followed and applied.

Thus, even though it was becoming difficult and costly to collect more data, the sample size was increased as much as possible to increase the validity and reliability of the scales being used. As mentioned previously, the pilot study was applied to 10% of the total sample, which is a large enough percentage to increase the validity of the research.

Tuncalp (1988) indicated that it is a formidable undertaking to conduct research in Saudi Arabia. At every step along the way, the research process is hampered by cultural hurdles. There are difficult barriers in languages, religion, customs, social

etiquette and laws that have to be carefully navigated. This was found to be true in this study.

6.9.1 The Study Population

The study population is defined as a set of people or collection of items which is under consideration (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Hoffmann (2000) concluded that females use country of origin as a quality cue more than males in evaluating food quality safety. Knight et al. (2007) attributed that result (Hoffmann, 2000; Nayga, 2000) to women predominantly acting as gatekeepers for the household, and tending to be more risk averse than men. As indicated in the focus group sessions, the main decision-makers for the purchasing of chickens in Saudi markets are women. According to the 2003 census, the total number of Saudi women in Saudi Arabia was 7,838,414 and the total population of Saudis was 15,588,805. The female population of the three main regions in Saudi Arabia, which are the Riyadh region (which includes the capital city Riyadh), the Makkah region (which includes Jeddah as the main city), and the Eastern region (which includes Dammam and Khober as the two main cities), is 4,503,565, which represents about 57% of the total Saudi female population. The non-Saudi residents were not considered in this study.

Yavas and Tuncalp (1984) found that access to females in Saudi homes is very difficult for strangers. Bhuian (1997) stated that although attitudes of female consumers in Saudi Arabia could not be included in his study, further studies should attempt to obtain responses from female consumers. This study sample will comply with his request and could thus be considered as a good methodological contribution.

Therefore, women in these three regions represent the study population. It worth mentioning that migration of people to these three regions from various cities and villages in the country for different reasons makes their population very representative of the Saudi population.

6.9.1.1 Sample Selection

There are two types of sampling techniques (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Probability sampling is used when every object in the population has an equal chance of being selected. The other one, which will be used in this research, is non-probability sampling, which is used when it is not possible to include all the population objects

in the sampling frame. Tuncalp (1988) reported that it is a formidable, if not impossible, task to draw a probabilistic sample in Saudi Arabia; the sampling difficulties are so acute that non-probabilistic sampling becomes a necessary evil. This is typified in this study, since it is impossible to develop a sampling frame of women as it is a very sensitive matter and completely unacceptable to ask about a woman's address or telephone number. Thus, a purposive quota sampling which is non-probabilistic will be the most appropriate technique for this research.

A purposive quota sample of 800 women was used for the two versions of the study; 400 for each. The sample was distributed among the three regions according to the percentage of the population of each region out of the total population of the three regions.

6.9.1.2 Survey Process

To reach women in Saudi culture is a difficult task, as mentioned by the researchers who have conducted their research in the Saudi setting (Tuncalp, 1988; Bhuian, 1997). In this study, a professional market research office was contacted to introduce the researcher to female interviewers who had carried out research with women in Saudi Arabia. These female interviewers were contacted and asked to help in collecting the data, for which they were paid. The researcher met the female interviewers and introduced the whole research concept, the study area and population and how those questionnaires were to be filled in. According to the focus group feedback, the data collection should be done in comfortable and suitable places such as clinics, schools, and women's clubs where women can be found and where they may have 30 minutes to fill in this lengthy questionnaire.

The meeting with the data collectors lasted for two hours and after a full description of the mission they were informed of all the questions that must be answered. The female interviewers had the researcher's contact number and they could call him for any further clarification needed. A similar process was carried out in the three cities; Riyadh, Jeddah, and Dammam and Khober, these last two being considered as one area.

The female interviewers were asked to distribute the questionnaire in different parts of the cities to make sure that the various standard of living categories had been

covered. A report of the different places that they visited was submitted with filled-in questionnaires to assure reasonable distribution. The experience of the researcher with the different areas in the different cities was used to make sure that the distribution was carried out reasonably. None of the previous studies classified the different areas in their findings, and this classification may be used to follow the distribution process in this study.

To make sure that the questionnaires were properly filled in, the female interviewers were asked to have the first name of the woman who filled in the questionnaire, and, if possible, her mobile number, with a view to ensuring the female interviewers felt responsible about the quality of the data. Some of the women who filled in the questionnaires were contacted to ensure that they had filled in the questionnaire and the outcomes were satisfactory. With such a strong follow up, a high response rate (75%) was achieved for each version of the questionnaire, which is considered high in any culture and within a conservative setting such as Saudi Arabia, particularly with women as participants, it can be considered an excellent achievement.

6.10 Statistical Usage

6.10.1 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a process to discover the nature of the relationship between measures and factors (Maruyama, 1988). According to the factor analysis theory, the number of factors on which each item will load, and the nature of any inter-correlations between factors must be specified in advance (Spector, 1992). Veloutsou et al. (2005) reported that Poortinga (1989) and Singh (1995) assumed that if the scale items load on the same factor in cross-cultural data and have similar factor loadings, then the content equivalence can be assumed. According to that assumption, and since the scales that have been used in this study were used in different cultures, factor analysis will be applied to ensure that the group of items that form a factor in a particular culture behave in the same way if the scale is applied in a different culture. Veloutsou et al. (2005) reported on their justification for using factor analysis to test if groups of items comprising a dimension in one culture also load in similar fashion on the same construct in another culture.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistics are applied to find out if it is appropriate to apply factor analysis or not. The KMO will clarify if the sample size is sufficient for the number of the variables being studied. If the KMO value is approaching 1, then it is appropriate to use factor analysis. Table 6.9 explains the interpretation of the KMO's values according to Kaiser (1974). The value of KMO ranges from 0 to 1. The principle component analysis is applied for all the study scales whether dimensional or not. For the dimensional scale, it should assure that the scale will have the same dimensions that have been used in the different cultures, and for the single dimension scale, it will assure that the scale items load to the same dimension. The OBLIQUE rotation, which is the most commonly used in the orthogonal rotation method, will be applied, as it generally provides easier interpretation, and the resulting factors are expected to be utilized in the subsequent multivariate analysis (Hair et al, 1998). "The OBLIQUE rotation method is more flexible because the factor axes need not be orthogonal. It is also more realistic because the theoretically important underlying dimensions are not assumed to be uncorrelated with each other" (Hair et al. 1998). This is important in this study as the main theoretically underlying dimensions of both COO and brand are expected to be correlated.

The other rotation is orthogonal, but there is a strong belief that it is not appropriate for studies related to humans. There are strong grounds to believe that orthogonal rotations are completely irrelevant to naturalistic data, and certainly for any data involving humans. As such, some argue that orthogonal rotations should never be used (Field, 2005 p 637).

In this study, Kaiser's (1974) criterion will be followed. The factors with Eigen values greater than 1 will be retained, and items with factor loadings of greater than 0.50 (Stevens, 1996) and not split-loaded on another factor above 0.35 (as suggested by Gorsuch, 1974; Leary, 1995) will be included in the components of one factor.

Table 6.9: KMO Statistics' Interpretation

SN	Interpretation	KMO Statistics
1	Marvellous	.90 - .99
2	Meritorious	.80 -.89
3	Middling	.70 - .79
4	Mediocre	.60 - .69
5	Miserable	.50 - .59
6	Unacceptable	.50 and less

(Resource: Kaiser, 1974)

6.10.2 Scale Reliability

The scales that have been used in the questionnaire were tested to make sure that they were reliable. For any multi-item scale to be valid, it must be reliable (Peterson, 1994). Reliability represents the degree of consistency between multiple measures of the same trait (Hair et al. 1998). Carmines and Zeller (1979) reported that assessments of internal consistency have the benefit of requiring only a single test and result in a unique estimate of reliability. Cronbach's alpha is the most widely used method for assessing internal consistency out of many different methods (Carmines and Zeller, 1979; Spector, 1992; Peterson, 1994).

Spector (1992) stated that Cronbach's coefficient alpha is a direct function of the number of items and the size of the inter-correlation between all the items in the scale and, consequently, can be increased by extending the number of items or raising their inter-correlation. The value of Cronbach's alpha ranges between 0 and 1 and the higher the value the higher the internal consistency between the scale items. Nunnally (1979) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) have recommended 0.7 as a satisfactory measure of internal consistency in social sciences researches. Thus, Cronbach's alpha is used to test the reliability of scales used in this study.

6.10.3 Methods of Analysis Used

Statistical analysis involves methods for describing collected data and making decisions, predictions or inferences about the phenomena represented by the data. The descriptive statistical methods consist of graphical and numerical techniques (e.g. means, standard deviation, range, frequency distribution) used to summarise certain characteristics of the sample.

Thus, the main purpose of descriptive statistics is to reduce the whole collection of data to simpler and more understandable terms without distorting or losing much of the available information. Means and frequency distribution are the descriptive statistics that are used in this study.

6.10.3.1 The Mean

The mean is the sum of the sample measurements divided by the sample size and it is probably the best-known and most frequently used measure of central tendency (David and Sutton, 2004).

In this study, the mean statistic is used to describe some of the respondents' socioeconomic and demographic characteristics as a first step towards determining how they affect the respondents' perceptions about different countries of origin and branded products.

6.10.3.2 Frequencies and Percentages

Frequency distribution is a listing of categories of possible values for a variable, together with a tabulation of the number and percentage of observations in each in each category (David and Sutton, 2004). In this study, frequencies and percentages are used with respondents' socioeconomic and demographic characteristics, such as age, education, income and occupation, to determine how different groups of respondents differ in their perception about different countries of origin and branded products.

On the other hand, statistical methods that are used to make decisions or inferences about relations between variables are known as inferential statistical methods and consist of procedures for making generalisations about characteristics of a population and correlates of social phenomena.

The statistical methods used in this study are:

6.10.3.3 Pearson Correlation

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient is used to measure the strength of association and relation between the variables and reflects its direction, and hence the possibility that one variable can be predicted if the other is known (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 2000). It ranges from +1 to -1. A correlation of +1 means that there is a perfect positive linear relationship between variables, a correlation of -1 means that there is a perfect negative linear relationship between variables, and a correlation of 0 means that there is no relationship between variables. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient is used when both variables are measured at interval level of

measurement and the relation in between were linear, and both of these assumptions were met in this study.

Moreover, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient is a symmetrical measure (i.e. its value depends on neither the variable that is considered a dependent variable nor the one that is considered an independent variable) and this feature is very appropriate for examining the relation between COO and branded product and the ongoing debate on which one affects the other. Thus, Pearson correlation is used in this study to find the relationship between the different dimensions of COO and branded product.

6.10.3.4 One-way ANOVA

Characteristics of groups are usually compared according to their means. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a procedure for simultaneously comparing and detecting evidence of any difference among means of several groups. If there is sufficient evidence that differences exist, then the sizes of the differences between various pairs of means can then be estimated. The F test statistic in the procedure involves two statistically independent estimates of the population variance of the measurements in the groups. The first of these is based on the variability of the observations within each group. This estimates is called the "within groups variation". The other estimate is based on the variability between each of the group means and the overall sample mean and it is called the "between groups variation".

Some of the assumptions that need to be met before using ANOVA include the population distributions, on the variable under consideration for the groups, being normal and independent random samples being selected from the populations (Hays, 1994).

In this study, it was judged that analysis of variance (ANOVA) was the appropriate analytical techniques to examine the effect of the respondents' socioeconomic characteristics on their perception about COO, as it would allow determination of the effect of each socioeconomic characteristic on the respondents' perceptions. If the results of ANOVA were significant ($p<0.05$), a post-hoc analysis with a Scheffe method was conducted to identify which group with a specific characteristic is different from the other groups. Scheffe multiple tests can be used to determine the

significant differences between group means in an analysis of variance setting. The Scheffe multiple range test is a more commonly used comparison than other multi-comparative procedures (Miller, 2002).

6.10.3.5 Multiple Regression

Multiple regression is used to examine three aspects of relationships between variables. First, it is used to investigate whether an association between variables by using a test of the hypothesis of statistical independence. The second aspect is to determine the strength of the relationships between variables. The third aspect of the relationship between variables that is examined by multiple regression involves specification of the form of the relationships so as to find a mathematical expression that enables us to predict the score of one variable (called dependent variable) from knowing the score of the other variables (called independent variables). The multiple regression model can be specified as follows:

$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \ldots + b_nX_n$

Where:

Y = the dependent variable

a = regression constant

$b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n$= the regression coefficients of the independent (explanatory) variables.

$X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$ = the independent (explanatory) variables

The use of multiple regression analysis is very appropriate in cases where it is of interest to discover the collective effect of several independent variables on a particular dependent variable (adjusted R square), as well as it being of interest to know the specific effect of each independent variable on the dependent variable in the presence of the other independent variables (i.e. determining the effect of each independent variable while controlling the effect of the other independent variables).

This is more or less the case in this study, whose ultimate goal is to examine the effect of several variables on the respondents' buying intention simultaneously. Moreover, the use of multiple regression analysis was decided after checking the validity of all its assumptions (normality, lack of multi-colinearity, linear relation).

There are a number of specialist software applications available to support quantitative data analysis. Some of the most commonly used packages are the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Statistical Analysis System (SAS). In this study the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used.

The table below shows, for each hypothesis, the possible analyses that could be used, the one selected and the justification for its selection. This was done after a thorough literature review to find the most appropriate statistical analytical techniques for each hypothesis.

Table 6.10: Statistical analysis techniques that could be used for testing the different hypotheses

Hypothesis	Possible Analysis	Analysis Used	Justification
H1: If a country has a positive image, its branded products will also have a positive image.	- Pearson Correlation Coefficient - Chi – Square	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	- Both variables are measured at interval level of measurement. To use chi-square we need to collapse them. - Pearson correlation directly provides the strength and direction of the association between the variables.
H2: The more positively consumers perceive COO, the higher their buying intentions of its products. (All the sub-hypotheses that indicate the relation between all the indicators of the COO concept to the consumers' buying intention)	- Pearson Correlation Coefficient - Multiple Regression Analysis	Multiple Regression Analysis	Multiple regression analysis allows us to examine the total effect of all the independent variables on dependent variables and the effect of each independent variable.
H3: The higher the consumers perceive a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention. (All the sub-hypotheses that indicate the relation between all the variables of the branded product construct to the consumers' purchase intention).	- Pearson Correlation Coefficient - Multiple Regression Analysis	Multiple Regression Analysis	Multiple regression analysis allows us to examine the total effect of all the independent variables on dependent variable and the effect of each independent variable.
H4: The higher the ethnocentrism level of the consumers, the lower their purchasing intention will be for the imported branded chicken.	- Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) - Chi – Square	Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)	There are too many groups for both variables, so Analysis of Variance is more appropriate.

Hypothesis	Possible Analysis	Analysis Used	Justification
H5: The higher the similarity of the branded product of the major brands, the less positive an image the individual brands will have. (All the sub-hypotheses that indicate the relation between all the variables of the brand parity construct to the branded product construct)	- Pearson Correlation Coefficient - Multiple Regression Analysis	Multiple Regression Analysis	Multiple regression analysis permits an examination of the total effect of all the independent variables on dependent variable and the effect of each independent variable.
H6: The different age groups of the consumers will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin.	- Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) - Chi – Square	Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)	There are too many groups for both variables, so Analysis of Variance is more appropriate.
H7: Consumer groups with different educational levels will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin.	- Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) - Chi – Square	Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)	There are too many groups for both variables, so Analysis of Variance is more appropriate.
H8: Consumers with different occupations will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin.	- Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) - Chi – Square	Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)	There are too many groups for both variables, so Analysis of Variance is more appropriate.
H9: Consumers with different incomes will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin.	- Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) - Chi – Square	Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)	There are too many groups for both variables, so Analysis of Variance is more appropriate.

6.11 Conclusion

In this chapter, the theoretical and philosophical grounds on which the two main research methods (the quantitative positivist method and the qualitative phenomenological method) to which the majority of the social scientists adhere, are discussed. The qualitative and quantitive approaches have been applied in a complementary manner in this research, which is considered an addition to the methodology of the research. A similar process is recommended in any further similar studies.

Moreover, selection of the research methods used is discussed and justified. The justification for the study product selection and the effort exerted to select

appropriate countries that are used as COO is also explained. An important section is devoted to description of the process of research instrument building and how the qualitative research approach was used to develop the research instrument.

Furthermore, the ground on which each of the hypotheses is based is discussed and the hypotheses that will be tested are stated. The great effort exerted to develop appropriate measures and indicators of the study theoretical concepts and how the reliability of the developed scale was checked is presented and discussed.

The data collection process, including description of the study population and sample selection, is discussed and explained. This is intended to reflect the degree to which the study sample represents the Saudi society and enhance generalisation of the study results. The survey process showed the cultural barriers in collecting data; an appropriate approach was applied to overcome those barriers, and this approach could be used in future research in a similar conservative culture.

Towards the end of the chapter, the study theoretical model reflecting the hypotheses that will be tested in the next chapter *(Chapter Seven: Results and Discussion)* is presented. The research model is accompanied by a discussion of the possible statistical analysis techniques that can be used to test the different study hypotheses and the ones that will actually be used and the justification for their choice.

Chapter Seven

Results and Discussion

7.1 Introduction

In addition to this introductory section, Chapter Seven consists of three main sections. The *first* section consists of a presentation of factor analysis and scale reliability results. The *second* section is devoted to the presentation of the results of the data collected from the sub-sample one, where *Egypt, France, Malaysia & Saudi Arabia* were considered as countries of origin of branded chicken.

The results of the data collected from the sub-sample two, where *USA*, *Brazil*, *United Arab Emirates (UAE) & Saudi Arabia* were considered as countries of origin of branded chicken, are presented and discussed in the *third* section.

7.2 Factor Analysis and Scale Reliability

The instrument scales were checked for their reliability, following the agreed rules (see Chapter Six) and the results of the reliability test for the different scales were as follows:

7.2.1 Brand Parity Scale

The KMO of the brand parity construct is .884 which, according to Kaiser (1974) and Hair et al. (1998), is described as 'Meritorious' and considered acceptable for factor analysis. Twenty-five items out of the 26 items included in the analysis have a factor loading of more than 0.50, and according to the study criterion, all these 25 items can be retained for further analysis. In addition, the 25 items do not split-load on another factor with over .35 loading factor.

The principle components analysis with OBLIQUE suggested six factors that could be extracted from the data with Eigen values of more than 1. 25 items out of 26 items have been retained under the six factors that explain 74.7 % of the variance in the data set. The six factors account for 44.3%, 9%, 6.4%, 5.8%, 5.3% and 4% of the variance. One item which is 'the major brands of chicken are equally naturally fed', had not been loaded to any factor, and will be checked in the Cronbach's alpha and thereafter a decision will be made as to whether to retain it or not.

Based on the literature, the six factors are labelled as brand parity, brand parity reliability, brand parity sincerity, brand parity quality, brand parity taste and brand

parity packaging. The brand parity scale, which consists of 5 items that were used by Muncy (1996), has a very high Cronbach's alpha reliability which is .843.

If we deleted the item *"To me, there are big differences between the various brands of chicken"* the Cronbach's alpha reliability will be .888. But, since this item is important for the scale and because the reliability of the scale is still high with the item included, there is no need to delete it. In previous studies, which used the same scale, the Alpha estimated for the scale ranged from .86 to .91. Field (2004) suggested that if the corrected item-total correlation was more than .3 that would be a support for the reliability, which is the case with all the items in the scale used in this study, indicating the reliability of the scale. *(See table L.1 in Appendix L)*

To facilitate comparison between the results of the two sub-samples of the study the same scales used in sub-sample one (version one) were used in sub-sample two (version two).

As a principle in this research, no item from any scale will be deleted if the scale reliability is around 0.7.

7.2.1.1 Brand Parity: Reliability

The Cronbach's alpha of the brand parity reliability is 0.905, which is very high, and deleting any item from the scale will not improve the reliability (table 7.1). The corrected item-total correlation supports the scale reliability because the reliability of all of the items is more than 0.3. *(See table L.2 in Appendix L)*

The Cronbach's alpha of the brand parity reliability in sub-sample two is 0.85 (table 7.2).

7.2.1.2 Brand Parity: Sincerity

The Cronbach's alpha of the brand parity sincerity is 0.819, which is very high, and deleting any of the scale items will not make a great improvement on the scale reliability (table 7.1). To support the scale reliability the corrected item-total correlation has been checked, and they are all more than 0.3. *(See table L.3 in Appendix L)*

The Cronbach's alpha of the brand parity sincerity in sub-sample two is 0.866. (Table 7.2)

7.2.1.3 Brand Parity: Quality

The brand parity quality has 0.904 as the Cronbach's alpha which is very high, as are the other brand parity scales (table 7.1). The corrected item-total correlation supports the scale reliability because all the items are more than 0.3. *(See table L.4 in Appendix L)*

The Cronbach's alpha of the brand parity quality in sub-sample two is 0.831 (table 7.2)

7.2.1.4 Brand Parity: Taste

The brand parity taste has a high Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.906 (table 7.1), making it an acceptable scale. To support the scale reliability the corrected item-total correlation has been checked and they are all more than 0.3. *(See table L.5 in Appendix L)*

The Cronbach's alpha of the brand parity taste in sub-sample two is 0.816 (table 7.2)

7.2.1.5 Brand Parity: Packaging

The brand parity packaging scale has a 0.799 Cronbach's alpha reliability, which is acceptable reliability (table 7.1). If we deleted the item *"The packaging of the major brands of chicken is the same"* the reliability would be 0.871. However, since this item is important and the scale has only 3 items, and the whole scale reliability is also acceptable, it has not been deleted. To support the scale reliability the corrected item-total correlation has been checked and they are all more than 0.3. *(See table L.6 in Appendix L)*

The Cronbach's alpha of the brand parity packaging in sub-sample two is 0.790 (table 7.2)**.**

The last 5 scales (reliability, sincerity, quality, taste and packaging) have not been used in any research before, and they have been adapted specifically for this research. This means that comparing their reliability level with other studies is not applicable. *(See tables L.2-L.7 in Appendix L)*

Table 7.1: Brand parity scales reliability analysis (Egypt, France, Malaysia & Saudi1)

Construct	No of items	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)
Brand parity: reliability	5	2.43	1.01	.905
Brand parity: sincerity	5	2.66	1.05	.819
Brand parity: quality	4	2.29	1.03	.904
Brand parity: taste	4	2.36	.99	.906
Brand parity: packaging	3	2.63	1.13	.799

Table 7.2: Brand parity scales reliability analysis (USA, UAE, Brazil & Saudi2)

Construct	No of items	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)
Brand parity: reliability	5	2.43	1.00	.850
Brand parity: sincerity	5	2.66	1.05	.866
Brand parity: quality	4	2.29	1.03	.831
Brand parity: taste	4	2.35	.99	.816
Brand parity: packaging	3	2.63	1.13	.790

7.2.2 Branded Product Scale

The factor analysis for the branded product construct for all the four countries, namely Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia, in the first version was applied to all the items for the two dimensions: branded product as a person and as a product. The outcome shows that the items have not loaded to the same scale variables, which leads to the application of every dimension separately. The outcome of the factor analysis for the branded product as a person for the four countries has KMO values of .942, .957, .945 and .943 for Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia respectively, which are described as *"Marvellous"* and considered high for factor analysis.

However, the items have loaded in a different manner for every country. Egypt has 6 items in one factor and 4 in another, France has 8 in one factor and two in another, Malaysia has 9 in one factor and 1 in another and Saudi Arabia has 7 in one factor and 3 in another. The outcome shows that the factor analysis does not work with the branded product scales. Thus, Cronbach's alpha is used to test the scale's reliability.

Factor analysis has been applied to the branded product as a product and the KMO values are .935, .955, .946 and .953 for the four countries, which is described as *"Marvellous"* and considered high for factor analysis. However, in the branded

product as a person, the loading of the items is not consistent in the four countries and does not match with the scale used in the literature, which again leads to testing the scales reliability using Cronbach's alpha.

The branded product scale consists of two main dimensions; one covers the brand as a person and the other is the brand as a product. The brand as a person consists of two variables (reliability and sincerity) and the brand as a product consists of three variables (quality, taste and packaging). The brand as a person is part of the brand personality scale created by Aaker (1997) and has a very high Cronbach's alpha reliability which is .874 for reliability and .860 for sincerity, as compared to the Aaker (1997), which has a reliability of .93 as per Cronbach's alpha (table 7.3). If we deleted any of the items in the two variables, the Cronbach's alpha would not improve, thus all the items are retained for further analysis.

To support the scale reliability, the corrected item-total correlation has been checked and they are all more than 0.3, as in the *table L.7 in Appendix L.*

In sub-sample two, the Cronbach's alpha reliability for reliability and sincerity are even higher than those obtained in sub-sample one (table 7.4).

The quality scale was created by Keller and Aaker (1992), and has a very high Cronbach's alpha value of 0.839 compared to the alpha of the original study which was more than 0.70 (table 7.3). Deletion of any of the items would not improve the value of the Cronbach's alpha. To support the scale reliability, the corrected item-total correlations were checked and all of them are more than 0.3. The quality Cronbach's alpha in sub-sample two is higher than 0.80 in all countries except in the UAE where it is 0.660 (table 7.4).

The taste has been measured using the scale created by Sujan and Bettman (1989), and it, also, has a high Cronbach's alpha value of 0.832 compared to the original scale reliability that scored an alpha of 0.92 and 0.93 (table 7.3). Deleting any of the scale items would not improve the reliability value. To support the scale reliability, the corrected item-total correlation has been checked and they are all more than 0.3. The taste Cronbach's alpha in sub-sample two is higher than 0.91 in all countries (table 7.4).

The packaging has been measured using Sujan and Bettman's (1989) scale, and it gives a high Cronbach's alpha value which is 0.803 compared to the original scale reliability which scored alpha of 0.92 and 0.93 (table 7.3). Similar to the other scales, if any item was deleted the scale reliability would not be improved. To support the scale reliability, the corrected item-total correlation has been checked and they are all more than 0.3. The reliability of these factors was confirmed by the Pearson correlation of the items in all factors, which were all significant at 0.01 level. The packaging Cronbach's alpha in sub-sample two is higher than 0.84 in all countries except in the UAE where it is 0.799 (table 7.4).

Even though the items of the different scales did not load on the scales, they have high reliability scores, and the item to total correlation, and the Pearson correlation all proved that the scale is reliable. *(See table L.7 in Appendix L)*

Table 7.3: Branded Product scale reliability analysis (Egypt, France, Malaysia & Saudi1)

Construct	No of Items	Egypt			France			Malaysia			Saudi Arabia		
		Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)
Reliability	5	3.05	.97	.874	3.22	1.12	.902	2.54	1.07	.861	4.68	.73	.897
Sincerity	5	3.14	.92	.860	3.26	1.12	.903	2.52	1.05	.892	4.69	.70	.868
Quality	4	3.13	.97	.839	3.29	1.15	.889	2.51	1.08	.875	4.62	.66	.861
Taste	4	3.13	.98	.832	3.31	1.19	.835	2.49	1.10	.882	4.66	.67	.854
Packaging	3	3.18	.99	.803	3.44	1.12	.829	2.61	1.09	.820	4.57	.69	.810

Table 7.4: Branded Product scale reliability analysis (USA, UAE, Brazil & Saudi2)

Construct	No of Items	USA			UAE			Brazil			Saudi Arabia		
		Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)
Reliability	5	2.79	1.07	.922	3.79	.87	.930	2.76	1.28	.962	4.68	.72	.962
Sincerity	5	2.73	1.05	.940	3.77	.86	.946	2.76	1.21	.970	4.70	.70	.952
Quality	4	3.11	1.15	.807	3.77	.87	.660	2.93	1.29	.957	4.62	.66	.893
Taste	4	3.07	1.16	.970	3.72	.80	.914	2.98	1.35	.972	4.66	.67	.922
Packaging	3	3.22	1.12	.912	3.69	.78	.799	3.00	1.22	.922	4.57	.69	.847

7.2.3 Buying Intention Scale

The factor analysis for buying intention was applied for the four countries, and the KMO values are 0.843, 0.850, 0.848 and 0.808, which are described as *"Meritorious"*

and considered acceptable for factor analysis. *The items have a factor loading of more than 0.50, with no split loading of more than 0.35*. The principle components analysis with OBLIQUE suggested one factor that could be extracted from the data with Eigen values of 3.523, 3.462, 3.390 and 3.120 for the four countries. The factor explained 70.4% of the variance in the data set for Egypt, 69.2% for France, 67.8% for Malaysia and 62.4% for Saudi Arabia.

The buying intention scale with 5 items, which was created and used by Spears and Singh (2004), has a very high Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.895, compared to the *composite reliability that was 0.97* in the original study (table 7.5). Deleting any of the scale items would not improve the scale reliability. To confirm the scale reliability, the corrected item-total correlation was checked and they are all more than 0.3. The reliability of these factors conformed to the Pearson correlation of the items in all factors, which were all significant at 0.01 level. *(See tables L.8 and L.9 in Appendix L)*

The buying intention scale Cronbach's alpha reliability in sub-sample two is .815, .764, .682 and .56 in the USA, the UAE, Brazil and Saudi Arabia respectively (table 7.6).

Table 7.5: Buying intention scale reliability analysis (Egypt, France, Malaysia & Saudi1)

Construct	No of Items	Egypt			France			Malaysia			Saudi Arabia		
		Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)
Buying Intention Scale	5	3.11	1.20	.895	2.95	1.28	.888	3.61	1.15	.881	1.77	.99	.844

Table 7.6: Buying intention scale reliability analysis (USA, UAE, Brazil & Saudi2)

Construct	No of Items	USA			UAE			Brazil			Saudi Arabia		
		Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)
Buying Intention Scale	5	3.84	1.06	.815	2.42	.82	.764	3.51	1.07	.682	1.54	.64	.560

7.2.4 Ethnocentrism Scale

The factor analysis for ethnocentrism was applied and the KMO value is .656, which is described as *"Mediocre"* and considered low for factor analysis. The items have a factor loading of more than .50, with no split loading of more than .35 except for one item, *"Foreign-made products are generally of higher quality than Saudi-made products",* which has been loaded with different factors, but will still be retained and tested with the Cronbach's alpha. The principle components analysis with OBLIQUE suggested one factor that could be extracted from the data with an Eigen value of 2.045. The factor explained 51.1 % of the variance in the data set for Egypt.

The ethnocentrism scale used has 4 items, and Shimp and Sharma (1987) created a CETSCALE scale that has a Cronbach's alpha reliability of .546 compared to the reliability ranging from .94 to.96 in previous studies, which is a low reliability. Deleting the *"Foreign-made products are generally of higher quality than Saudi-made products"* will improve the reliability of the scale to .766 which is acceptable, and the item to total correlation is.003, which is also very low, and deleting this item will improve the scale (table 7.7). However, since this item may represent more than one item in the original scale, which has 17 items, and deleting it could affect the validity of the scale, it will be retained for further analysis.

The four items will be retained for further analysis. The factor analysis loaded this item on different factors. The reliability of these factors conformed to the Pearson correlation of the items in all factors, which were all significant at .01 level except for the item *"Foreign-made products are generally of higher quality than Saudi-made products"* which is not significant to the other scale items. *(See tables L.10 and L.11 in Appendix L)*

In sub-sample two the Cronbach's alpha reliability of the ethnocentrism scale is 0,723 (table 7.8).

Table 7.7: Ethnocentrism scale reliability analysis (Egypt, France, Malaysia & Saudi1)

Construct	No of items	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)
Ethnocentrism scale	4	3.61	.811	.766

Table 7.8: Ethnocentrism scale reliability analysis (USA, UAE, Brazil & Saudi2)

Construct	No of items	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)
Ethnocentrism scale	3	2.87	.71	.723

7.2.5 Country of Origin Scale

The factor analysis for country of origin construct for all the four countries, namely *Egypt*, *France*, *Malaysia* and *Saudi Arabia* in the first version, was applied to all the items for the five dimensions: political background, economical development, technological background, cultural background and religion. The outcome shows that the items have not loaded to the same scale variables. The outcome of country of origin for the four countries has KMO values of .858, .912, .869 and .808 for Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia respectively, which are described as *"Meritorious"* and considered acceptable for factor analysis, but the items have been loaded in different manners for each country. The outcome shows that the factor analysis does not work with the branded product scales, which necessitates the application of the Cronbach's alpha to test if the scales are reliable or not.

The country of origin scale consists of five dimensions; political, economical, technological, cultural and religious. The first three dimensions are scales created by Martin and Eroglu (1993) and have a high Cronbach's alpha reliability which is .734 for political, .700 for economical, .644 for technological compared to Martin and Eroglu's (1993), which have a Cronbach's alpha reliability ranging from .56 to .71, which were lower than the reliability of this study. If we deleted any of the items in the two variables the Cronbach's alpha would not improve, and so all the items are retained for further analysis. To support the scale reliability, the corrected item-total correlation has been checked and they are all more than 0.3. In sub-sample two, the

Cronbach's alpha reliability ranges from .707 to .868 for the political background scale, from .637 to .827 for the economical development scale and from .561 to .758 for the technological development scale (table 7.10).

The cultural scale developed by Parameswaran and Pisharodi (1994) has a high Cronbach's alpha value of .746 compared to the alpha of the original study, which ranged between .675 and .849 alpha (table 7.9). Deleting the item "*Language creates distance from other countries* " would improve the value of the Cronbach's alpha to .763, but if we deleted the item the scale would have only two items, which is not recommended by many researchers, and the original Cronbach's value is acceptable, in addition to the fact that the item is important for the study.

To support the scale reliability, the corrected item-total correlation has been checked and they are all more than 0.3. In sub-sample two, there is some variation in the Cronbach's alpha reliability of the cultural background scale where it ranges from .579 in the USA to .844 in Brazil (table 7.10).

The religion scale developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987) has a high Cronbach's alpha value of .827, compared to the alpha of the original study, which ranged between .94 and .96 (table 7.9). Deleting the item "*Religion creates distance from other countries* " would improve the value of the Cronbach's alpha to .890, but if we deleted the item the scale would have only two items, which is not recommended by many researchers, and the original Cronbach's value is acceptable, in addition to the fact that the item is important for the study.

To support the scale reliability, the corrected item-total correlation was checked and they are all more than .3. The reliability of these factors conformed to the Pearson correlation of the items in all factors, which were all significant at .01 level.

Even though the items of the different scales did not load on the scales, they have high reliability scores. The item to total correlation, and the Pearson correlation all proved that the scales are reliable. *(See table L.12 in Appendix L)*

In sub-sample two, the religion scale, Cronbach's alpha reliability ranges from .786 in Saudi Arabia to .844 in Brazil (table 7.10).

Table 7.9: Country of Origin scale reliability analysis (Egypt, France, Malaysia & Saudi1)

Construct	No of Items	Egypt			France			Malaysia			Saudi Arabia		
		Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)
Political background	5	3.63	.76	.734	4.12	.87	.829	3.32	.88	.816	4.16	.70	.716
Economic development	5	3.57	.76	.692	3.69	.75	.587	3.25	.82	.728	4.10	.68	.651
Technological background	4	3.69	.74	.644	4.16	.83	.735	3.25	.83	.726	4.14	.72	.625
Cultural background	3	2.77	1.20	.746	4.04	.92	.696	3.85	.89	.609	2.93	1.24	.704
Religious background	3	3.00	1.59	.827	4.22	1.15	.400	3.71	1.06	.797	2.90	1.38	.797

Table 7.10: Country of Origin scale reliability analysis (USA, UAE, Brazil & Saudi2)

Construct	No of Items	USA			UAE			Brazil			Saudi Arabia		
		Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)	Mean	SD	Reliability Analysis (Cronbach's Alpha)
Political background	5	3.60	1.73	.810	2.69	.159	.707	1.84	1.93	.868	4.34	.19	.836
Economic development	5	4.18	.60	.637	4.09	.57	.693	3.59	.72	.827	4.19	.53	.647
Technological background	4	4.38	.96	.561	3.86	.69	.734	3.82	.68	.663	4.07	.75	.758
Cultural background	3	3.85	.96	.579	3.33	1.07	.547	3.79	.95	.649	3.41	1.18	.662
Religious background	3	4.10	1.05	.821	2.96	1.39	.794	3.98	1.09	.844	2.95	1.42	.786

7.3 Results of Sub-sample One (Egypt, France, Malaysia & Saudi Arabia as COO)

7.3.1 Some Socioeconomic Characteristics of the Respondents

As indicated in the methodology chapter, all the respondents were female. The decision to select females as the study population is based on the fact that they are the main decision-makers in purchasing food in Saudi Arabia. According to many business institutes, females make more than 85% of food purchasing decisions.

Reasonable age distribution was considered in this survey (table 7.11) to ensure participation of different age groups of society. About half (52%) of the respondents belong to the age group of 30 or under. This reflects the fact that women in Saudi society marry at an early age, so they are involved in food purchasing decisions at early stages of their life. Table (7.11) shows that the respondents have a very high level of education, with 44.7% of them having a high school education and about one third (33.6%) having university and postgraduate education. Regarding income, the majority (81%) of the respondents have a middle-class level of income (3000 – less than 9000 SR) while only 4% and 4.7% of them have an income of less than 3000 SR and 15000 SR or more respectively; this is typical of the income distribution in the Saudi society.

Table 7.11: Some socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents (sub-sample one)

	Frequency	%
Age Distribution:		
- 20	46	15.4
21-25	54	18.1
26-30	55	18.5
31-40	66	22.2
41-45	28	9.4
46-50	13	4.3
51-55	13	4.3
56-65	11	3.7
66+	11	3.7
Total	**297**	**100**
Level of Education:		
Primary or Less	16	5.3
Below High School	49	16.3
High School	134	44.7
College/University	85	28.3
Post Graduate	16	5.3
Total	**300**	**100**

Household Income:		
Below 3000 SR	12	4
3000-5999 SR	159	53
6000-8999 SR	84	28
9000-14999 SR	31	10.3
15000+ SR	14	4.7
Total	**300**	**100**

7.3.2 Respondents' Knowledge about Other Countries

Table 7.12 below describes the respondents' knowledge of the four countries (*Egypt, France, Malaysia & Saudi Arabia*) considered as chicken brand COO. The majority (69.0%) of the respondents strongly believe that they have sufficient knowledge about Saudi Arabia, whereas 50.3%, 47.0% and 45.7% of them believe that they have reasonable knowledge about Egypt, Malaysia & France respectively. This clearly reflects the cultural issue effect on the knowledge of other countries where the respondents have the highest level of knowledge about Egypt, which is considered as having a similar culture to Saudi Arabia (same religion and language), then Malaysia which has a different language but similar religion, and lastly comes France which has a different language and religion.

Table 7.12 also reveals that 62.3% of the respondents have friends in Egypt, and 17% in Malaysia, whereas only 11.3% of them have friends in France. Moreover, 63.7% of the sample wishes to travel to Egypt, compared to 55% and 37% who wish to travel to Malaysia and France respectively. Again the cultural issue is reflected and has its effect.

The majority (67%) of the sample prefers to read about Egypt, while only 42% and 36.7% want to read about France and Malaysia respectively. More than half (57%) of the respondents showed an interest in knowing more about the culture of Egypt, whereas 50.7% and 37.7% expressed their interest in knowing more about France and Malaysia respectively. Overall, these results indicate that Saudis are attached more to people of other countries that have similar cultures than to people from countries of different cultures.

Table 7.12: Respondents' knowledge about the four countries

	Egypt		France		Malaysia		Saudi Arabia	
	Freq.	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**
Knowledge of other countries:								
Strongly Agree	60	20	26	8.7	32	10.7	207	69.0
Somewhat Agree	151	50.3	137	45.7	141	47.0	53	17.7
Neither	7	2.3	33	11.0	43	14.3	20	6.7
Somewhat Disagree	44	14.7	92	30.7	63	21.0	13	4.3
Strongly Disagree	38	12.7	12	4.0	21	7.0	07	2.3
Relations with other countries:								
Friends in	187	62.3	34	11.3	51	17		--
Wish to Travel	191	63.7	111	37	165	55		--
Love to Read	201	67	126	42	110	36.7		--
Like to know Culture	171	57	152	50.7	107	35.7		--

Table 7.13 shows that the majority (92.9%) of the respondents use TV as a source of information to find out about international issues, then the Press (44.1%), whereas, the Internet is used by 34.4% of them to learn about International Issues. On the other hand, 24.41%, 2.6%, 0.33% and 0.33% of them depend on Friends, Travel, Magazines and Radio respectively as source of information about international issues.

In addition, it was noticed that the majority (84.7%) of the respondents use TV as a source of information about other countries, followed by the Press (47.7%), whereas, the Internet is used by 33.0% to learn about other countries. Furthermore, 27.3%, 10.7%, 10.7% and 4.7% of the respondents depend on Friends, Books, Travel and Radio respectively as source of information about other countries. Thus, the T.V. and Press are the main communication channels that should be used by other countries to communicate with the people of Saudi Arabia.

Table 7.13: Means of knowledge

Means of Knowledge	**Mean**	**SD**	**Int'l Issues**		**Other Countries**	
			Freq.	**%**	**Freq.**	**%**
TV	1.00	.000	278	92.6	254	84.7
Press	1.00	.000	132	44.1	143	47.7
Travel	1.00	.000	8	2.6	32	10.7
Internet	1.00	.000	103	34.4	99	33
Friends	1.00	.000	73	24	82	27.3

Means of Knowledge	Mean	SD	Int'l Issues		Other Countries	
			Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Magazines/Books	1.00	.000	1	0.33	32	10.7
Radio	1.00	.000	1	0.33	14	4.7
Not Interested	1.00	.000	2	0.66	--	--

7.3.3 The Correlation between Consumers' Perception about the Country of Origin (COO) and its chicken Branded Products

The first hypothesis made in this study is: *"H1: If a country has a positive image, its branded products will also have a positive image".*

This hypothesis is tested in two steps: *First*, Pearson correlation analysis has been used to examine the level of association between consumers' perception about the country of origin (as an aggregate construct) and their perception about its chicken branded products (as an aggregate construct) (table 7.14). *Second*, the correlation between the different indicators of the country of origin concept and the different dimensions of the branded product construct (table 7.15) is examined for four countries; Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia.

Table 7.14 below indicates that the relationship between the consumers' perception about the country of origin as an aggregate construct and its chicken branded products as an aggregate construct is positive and statistically significant in the case of Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia and positive but statistically not significant in the case of France. Thus, the hypothesis that *"H1: if the country has a positive image, its branded products will also have a positive image"* is supported in the cases of Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia but not in the case of France. This could be attributed to the fact that the dominant religion in Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia is Islam; therefore, the respondents will have no religious-based problems with the chicken produced in these countries. Consequently, those who have a positive perception about these countries, also have a positive image about their chicken products. On the other hand, the dominant religion in France is different from the respondents' religion and this will cause all of them, regardless of their perceptions about France, to have a similar perception about its food products, particularly those of animal origin.

These results reflect the unique nature of the factors that influence Muslim consumers' perception about food products of animal origin; while factors such as the product country of origin are important, yet factors related to religion may be more important and influential in determining the consumers' attitudes, perception and acceptance of food products of animal origin. This hypothesis is also examined by assessing the correlation between the different indicators of the country of origin concept and the different dimensions of the branded product construct (table 7.15).

Table 7.14: The Pearson Correlations between consumers' Perception about the COO & its chicken branded product
(Egypt, France, Malaysia & Saudi Arabia)

Consumers' perception about COO	Consumers' perception about chicken branded product	Level of Significance (2-tailed)
Egypt	0.208	0.000
France	0.098	0.092
Malaysia	0.133	0.023
Saudi Arabia	0.315	0.000

To examine the effect of the consumers' perception about the chicken branded products' country of origin on the image they will have about these branded products in more depth, Pearson correlation analysis was also used to examine the level of association between the different dimensions of the consumers' perception about the product country of origin and their perception about the chicken branded products for the four countries; Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia.

Table 7.15 below indicates that the relationship between the consumers' perception about the country of origin's political background, economic development and technological development and all the branded products construct variables; reliability, sincerity, quality, taste and packaging is positive and statistically significant in the case of Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia. All the Pearson correlation coefficients are significant at 0.05 level of significance.

These results further support the argument that if a country has positive image, its branded products will also have a positive image and confirm the result in table 7.14. In the case of France, the situation is different, as the consumers' perception about the political background of the country of origin has a significant relationship with the packaging dimension of the branded product.

However, the consumers' perceptions about the level of economic and technological development of the country of origin, in the case of France, are significantly related to both consumers' perceptions about the branded products' reliability and packaging. As expected, and similar to the cases of Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia, the relationship between the consumers' perception about the country of origin's political background, economic and technological development and all the variables of the branded product construct is positive.

On the other hand, the consumers' perception about the cultural background of the products' country of origin is significantly associated with their perception about the product quality, taste and packaging in the case of Egypt, while it is significantly associated with all the variables of the branded product construct in the cases of Malaysia and Saudi Arabia.

Moreover, the consumers' perception about the religious background of the products' country of origin is only significantly associated with their perception about the product packaging in the case of Egypt, while it is also significantly associated with all the variables of the branded product construct in the cases of Malaysia and Saudi Arabia. In the case of France, the consumers' perceptions about the country of origin's cultural and religious background are both significantly related to their perception about the branded product's packaging.

Unexpectedly, the cultural and religious aspects of the consumers' perception about the products' country of origin are negatively associated with all the branded products variables; reliability, sincerity, quality, taste and packaging in the cases of Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia and positively correlated to them in the case of France.

These results reveal the complexity and uniqueness of the factors that affect consumers' perception about branded product of food items in the Muslim world. Consumers' perception about food products in the Muslim world is basically determined by religious beliefs and values that make them critical about many practices related to food production and preparation, even in some Muslim countries.

Moreover, consumers have recently become very sensitive and concerned about the chemicals used to produce food products in form of fertilisers, pesticides, growth hormones, etc. This might lead consumers forming a negative attitude about food

products produced in a country that is not known for having the natural agricultural resources and environment to produce such products regardless of their perception about that country.

Table 7.15: The Correlations between the different indicators of the COO concept & the different dimensions of the Branded Product construct
(Egypt, France, Malaysia & Saudi Arabia)

Branded Products	Correlations				
	F1: Political	**F2:** Economic	**F3:** Technological	**F4:** Cultural	**F5:** Religious
Egypt					
F1: Reliability	.305*	.349*	.272*	-.087	-.002
F2: Sincerity	.256*	.260*	.241*	-.080	-.006
F3: Quality	.377*	.388*	.289*	-.166*	-.072
F4: Taste	.285*	.268*	.190*	-.117*	-.038
F5: Packaging	.281*	.349*	.169*	-.197*	-.136*
France					
F1: Reliability	.091	.145*	.138*	.011	.093
F2: Sincerity	.030	.089	.065	-.060	.015
F3: Quality	.071	.165*	.090	-.024	.051
F4: Taste	-.018	.069	.020	-.087	.016
F5: Packaging	.184*	.223*	.173*	.117*	.179*
Malaysia					
F1: Reliability	.361*	.320*	.169*	-.348*	-.385*
F2: Sincerity	.336*	.332*	.183*	-.412*	.380*
F3: Quality	.398*	.407*	.249*	-.439*	-.391*
F4: Taste	.350*	.353*	.236*	-.378*	-.358*
F5: Packaging	.340*	.331*	.177*	-.319*	-.376*
Saudi Arabia					
F1: Reliability	.498*	.431*	.505*	-.159*	-.141*
F2: Sincerity	.489*	.402*	.472*	-.167*	-.126*
F3: Quality	.467*	.392*	.463*	-.216*	-.192*
F4: Taste	.484*	.388*	.461*	-.194*	-.122*
F5: Packaging	.470*	.360*	.429*	-.200*	-.157

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

7.3.4 The Effects of Country of Origin, Branded Product and Ethnocentrism on the Consumers' Buying Intention

The regression model used to depict the effect of the consumers' perceptions about the product country of origin and branded product and their ethnocentrism on their buying intention explained a 51.6%, 68.4%, 53.1% and 70.9% of the total variation in the consumers' buying intention in the case of Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi

Arabia respectively. The highest explained segment of the total variation in the consumers' buying intention is in the case of Saudi Arabia while the lowest is in the case of Egypt and it is statistically significant for all of the four countries.

The consumers' perception about the political background of the country of origin of the branded product has a statistically significant effect on their buying intention of the branded product produced in all the four countries. However, this effect is positive in the cases of Egypt, France and Malaysia but negative in the case of Saudi Arabia. Therefore, the hypothesis that **"H2a: the more positively consumers perceive the political background of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products"** is supported in the cases of Egypt, France and Malaysia, but not in the case of Saudi Arabia where a negative relationship exists.

The effect of the consumers' perceptions about the economic development of the country of origin on their buying intention is statistically significant only in the case of France. Unexpectedly, this effect is negative. This is most likely due to the fact that although the respondents perceive France as an economically developed country, they are not enthusiastic about buying its chicken products because of the concern they have about the way the chicken is slaughtered and whether it is acceptable from the Islamic point of view. Therefore, the hypothesis that **"H2b: the more positively consumers perceive the economic development of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products"** is not supported in the case of chicken branded products.

The study also showed a statistically significant effect of the consumers' perception about the technological background of the country of origin on their buying intention of the products of that country in the cases of France and Malaysia. This effect is positive in the case of France and negative in the case of Malaysia. Thus, the hypothesis that **"H2c: the more positively consumers perceive the technological background of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products"** is supported only in the case of France.

The effect of the consumers' attitudes towards the cultural dimension of the country of origin construct on their buying intention is statistically significant only in the case of Egypt and, unexpectedly, this effect is negative. Thus, the hypothesis that **"H2d: the more positively consumers perceive the national culture of a specific country,**

*the higher will be their buying intentions of its products***"** is not supported in this study.

The consumers' perception about the religious background of the country of origin has a significant effect on their buying intention of the country's products in the case of Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia. As expected, this effect is positive in the cases of Egypt and Malaysia but unexpectedly negative in the case of Saudi Arabia. Therefore, the hypothesis that **"***H2e: the more positively consumers perceive the religion of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products***"** is supported only in the cases of Egypt and Malaysia.

The effect of the consumers' attitudes about the different dimensions of the branded product concept on their buying intention differs from one country to another. The consumers' perception about the reliability of the branded product has a significant effect on their buying intention in the case of France and Saudi Arabia. Unexpectedly, this effect is negative for both countries. Therefore the hypothesis that **"***H3a: the higher the consumers perceived competence (reliability) of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention***"** is not supported. Similarly, the consumers' perception about the branded product sincerity has a negative effect on their buying intention of the branded product and this effect is statistically significant in the case of Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia. Again, the hypothesis that **"***H3b: the higher the perceived sincerity (friendliness) of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intension***"** is not supported.

On the other hand, the quality variable of the branded product construct has a statistically significant negative effect on the consumers' buying intention of chicken products from Egypt and Saudi Arabia. Thus the hypothesis that **"***H3c: the higher the consumers perceive the quality of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention***"** is not supported.

Similarly, the consumers' attitude towards the branded product taste has significant negative effect on their buying intention only in the case of Egypt. Therefore, the hypothesis that **"***H3d: the higher the consumers perceive the taste of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention***"** is not supported either.

Moreover, the packaging dimension of the branded product concept has a statistically significant negative effect on the consumers' buying intention of the

branded product in the case France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia. Consequently the hypothesis that *"H3e: the higher the consumers perceive a branded product's packaging, the higher will be their purchase intention"* is not supported.

Therefore, all the hypotheses indicating the expected relationships between the consumers' perceptions about and attitudes towards the different dimensions of the branded product and their buying intention of the branded product are not supported in this study. The unexpected relations between the different dimensions of the branded product concept and the consumers' buying intention might be attributed to factors such as the spread of avian flu in Egypt, presence of religious beliefs and values in France that are different from the respondents' religious values and beliefs and the respondents' perceptions about the agricultural environment and production in Saudi Arabia.

The respondents' ethnocentrism has a statistically significant effect on their buying intention in the case of France and Malaysia. Unexpectedly, this effect is positive which is contrary to the hypothesis that the *"H4: the higher the ethnocentrism level of the consumers, the lower their purchasing intention decision will be for the imported branded chicken"*. Again, this may be attributed to the complicated nature of the factors and concerns that influence the Muslim consumers' buying decisions in the case of food products in general and those of animal origin in particular.

Table 7.16: The Effect of COO, Branded Products and Ethnocentrism on the Consumers' Buying Intention (Linear regression)

Means	Egypt		France		Malaysia		Saudi Arabia	
	β value	Sig.	β value	Sig.	β value	Sig.	β value	Sig.
COO EFFECT								
Political background	.311	.000	.122	.012	.155	.016	-.105	.047
Economic development	-.104	.137	-.137	.002	.049	.465	-.016	.753
Technological background	-.044	.476	.116	.021	-.241	.000	.081	.114
Cultural background	-.251	.000	-.078	.127	.060	.333	.075	.213
Religious background	.350	.000	.066	.202	.227	.000	-.138	.019
BRAND AS A PERSON								
Reliability	-.075	.407	-.364	.000	-.095	.286	-.403	.000
Sincerity	-.190	.032	-.072	.428	-.238	.020	-.205	.005
BRAND AS A PRODUCT								
Quality	-.205	.016	-.158	.062	.142	.179	-.171	.013
Taste	-.263	.001	-.035	.655	-.164	.084	.086	.233
Packaging	-.038	.632	-.209	.002	-.154	.048	-.172	.007
ETHNOCENTRISM	-.026	.611	.117	.007	.149	.006	-.017	.736
	$R^2=0.516$; Adjusted $R^2=0.498$ F=27.481 (P=0.000)		$R^2=0.684$; Adjusted $R^2=0.672$ F=55.712 (P=0.000)		$R^2=0.531$; Adjusted $R^2=0.513$ F=29.079 (P=0.000)		$R^2=0.709$; Adjusted $R^2=0.698$ F=62.646 (P=0.000)	

7.3.5 The Effect of the respondents' perception about Brand Parity on their perception about Branded Products

The regression models used to explore the effect of the respondents' perceptions about the different dimensions of brand parity on their perception about the reliability dimension of the chicken branded products from Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia explained 4.3%, 8.1%, 18% and 8.9% respectively of the total variation in the consumers' perception regarding the reliability dimension of the branded products from these countries. The smallest explained variation (adjusted R square) is in the case of Egypt, while the highest is in the case of Malaysia.

Although the model has explained a relatively small portion of the dependent variable total variation, yet it could be considered an appropriate model, particularly in the cases of France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia, as the five independent variables are actually indicators of one theoretical concept, that is brand parity, and the F value is statistically significant at 0.05 or higher level of significance in all the cases except Egypt.

By examining the effect of the individual dimensions of the consumers' perceptions about brand parity on the respondents' perception about the reliability dimension of the product brand, it has been found that perception about the reliability dimension of the brand parity construct has a significant effect in the cases of France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia.

The regression coefficient of the reliability indicator of brand parity is positive in the cases of France and Malaysia and negative in the case of Saudi Arabia. This means that the hypothesis that *"H5a: the higher the similarity of the competence (reliability) of the major brands, the less positive an image (reliability) the individual brands will have"* is only supported in the case of Saudi Arabia.

On the contrary, in the cases of France and Malaysia it was found that the higher the similarity of the reliability indicator of the major brands the more positive an image (reliability) the branded product from those countries will have.

On the other hand, the sincerity variable of the brand parity concept has a significant but negative effect on the consumers' perceptions about the reliability dimension of the branded product construct only in the case of Egypt.

Thus, the hypothesis that **"H5b: the higher the similarity of the sincerity (friendliness) of the major brands, the less positive an image (reliability) each brand will have"** is only supported in the case of Egypt.

The respondents' perception about the quality dimension of the brand parity concept has a significant effect on their perception about the reliability variable of the branded product in the cases of Egypt and France. This effect is negative in the case of former and positive in the case of the latter country. Therefore, the hypothesis that **"H5c: the higher the similarity of the quality of the major brands, the less positive an image (reliability) each brand will have"** is only supported in the case of Egypt.

The taste and packaging variables of the brand parity construct has no significant effect on the reliability variable of the branded product in any of the four countries, as none of their regression coefficients are statistically significant. Thus, the hypothesis that **"H5d: the higher the similarity of the taste of the major brands, the less positive an image (reliability) each brand will have"** and the hypothesis that **"H5e: the higher the similarity of the packaging of the major brands, the less positive an image(reliability) each brand will have"** are not supported in any of the countries under consideration.

On the other hand, the regression models used to explore the effect of the respondents' perception about the different dimensions of brand parity on their perception about the sincerity dimension of the chicken branded products from Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia explained 3.2%, 10.9%, 16.2% and 8.9% respectively of the total variation in the consumers' perception regarding the sincerity dimension of the branded products from these countries. Again, the smallest explained variation (adjusted R square) is in the case of Egypt, while the highest is in the case of Malaysia.

By examining the effect of the individual dimensions of the consumers' perceptions about brand parity on the respondents' perception about the sincerity dimension of the product brand, it has been found that none of them has a significant effect in the case of Egypt. The reliability dimension of the brand parity construct has a significant effect in the cases of France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia. The regression coefficient of the reliability indicator of brand parity is positive in the cases of France and Malaysia and negative in the case of Saudi Arabia.

This means that the hypothesis that **"H5a: the higher the similarity of the competence (reliability) of the major brands, the less positive an image (sincerity) the individual brands will have"** is only supported in the case of Saudi Arabia.

On the contrary, again in the cases of France and Malaysia it was found that the higher the similarity of the reliability indicator of the major brands the more positive an image (sincerity) the branded product from those countries will have.

On the other hand, the quality and sincerity variables of the brand parity concept have significant but positive effects on the consumers' perceptions about the sincerity dimension of the branded product construct in the case of France and Malaysia respectively. Furthermore, none of the consumers' perceptions about the other dimensions (taste and packaging) has a significant effect on their perception about the sincerity dimension of branded product. Therefore, none of the hypotheses that: **"H5b: the higher the similarity of the sincerity of the major brands, the less positive an image (sincerity) the individual brands will have"**, **"H5c: the higher the similarity of the quality of the major brands, the less positive an image (sincerity) the individual brands will have"**, **"H5d: the higher the similarity of the taste of the major brands, the less positive an image (sincerity) the individual brands will have"** and **"H5e: the higher the similarity of the packaging of the major brands, the less positive an image (sincerity) the individual brands will have"** is supported.

Moreover, the regression models used to explore the effect of the respondents' perception about the different dimensions of brand parity on their perception about the quality dimension of the chicken branded products from Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia explained 1.01%, 10.1%, 21.7% and 10.2% respectively of the total variation in the consumers' perception regarding the quality dimension of the branded products from these countries. Moreover, the smallest explained variation (adjusted R square) is in the case of Egypt, while the highest is in the case of Malaysia.

By examining the effect of the individual dimensions of the consumers' perceptions about brand parity on the respondents' perception about the quality dimension of the product brand, it has been found that the reliability dimension of the brand parity construct has a significant effect in the cases of France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia.

The regression coefficient of the reliability indicator of brand parity is positive in the cases of France and Malaysia and negative in the case of Saudi Arabia. This means that the hypothesis that **"H5a: the higher the similarity of the competence (reliability) of the major brands, the less positive an image (quality) the individual brands will have"** is only supported in the case of Saudi Arabia. On the contrary, in the cases of France and Malaysia it was found that the higher the similarity of the reliability indicator of the major brands the more positive an image (quality) the branded product from those countries will have.

On the other hand, the sincerity variable of the brand parity concept has a significant negative effect on the consumers' perceptions about the quality dimension of the branded product construct in the cases of Egypt and Saudi Arabia and a significant positive effect in the case of Malaysia.

Thus, the hypothesis that **"H5b: the higher the similarity of the sincerity (friendliness) of the major brands, the less positive an image (quality) each brand will have"** is supported in the cases of Egypt and Saudi Arabia. The respondents' perception about the quality dimension of the brand parity concept has a significant positive effect on their perception about the quality variable of the branded product in the case of France. This means the hypothesis that **"H5c: the higher the similarity of the quality of the major brands, the less positive an image (quality) each brand will have"** is not supported in either of the countries.

The respondent' perceptions about the packaging and taste indicators of the brand parity construct have no significant effect on their perception about the quality variable of the branded product in any of the four countries. Thus, the hypotheses that **"H5d: the higher the similarity of the taste of the major brands, the less positive an image (quality) each brand will have"** and **"H5e: the higher the similarity of the packaging of the major brands, the less positive an image (quality) each brand will have"** are not supported.

Furthermore, the regression models used to explore the effect of the respondents' perception about the different dimensions of brand parity on their perception about the taste dimension of the chicken branded products from Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia explained 1.6%, 10.9%, 18.8% and 8.2% respectively of the total variation in the consumers' perception regarding the taste dimension of the branded

products from these countries. Similarly, the smallest explained variation (adjusted R square) is in the case of Egypt, while the highest is in the case of Malaysia.

By examining the effect of the individual dimensions of the consumers' perceptions about brand parity on the respondents' perception about the taste dimension of the branded product, it has been found that the reliability dimension of the brand parity construct has a significant effect in the cases of France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia.

The regression coefficient of the reliability indicator of brand parity is positive in the cases of France and Malaysia and negative in the case of Saudi Arabia. This means that the hypothesis that **"H5a: the higher the similarity of the competence (reliability) of the major brands, the less positive an image (taste) the individual brands will have"** is only supported in the case of Saudi Arabia.

On the contrary, in the cases of France and Malaysia it was found that the higher the similarity of the reliability indicator of the major brands the more positive an image (taste) the branded product from those countries will have.

On the other hand, the sincerity variable of the brand parity concept has a significant but negative effect on the consumers' perceptions about the taste dimension of the branded product construct in the cases of Egypt and Saudi Arabia.

Thus, the hypothesis that **"H5b: the higher the similarity of the sincerity (friendliness) of the major brands, the less positive an image (taste) each brand will have"** is only supported in the case of Egypt and Saudi Arabia. The respondents' perception about the quality dimension of the brand parity concept has a significant positive effect on their perception about the taste variable of the branded product only in the case of France. Therefore, the hypothesis that **"H5c: the higher the similarity of the quality of the major brands, the less positive an image (taste) each brand will have"** is not supported in this study.

The respondent' perception about the taste and packaging dimensions of the brand parity construct has no significant effect on their perception about the taste variable of the branded product in any of the four countries, as none of it's regression coefficients is statistically significant. This means the hypothesis that **"H5d: the higher the similarity of the taste of the major brands, the less positive an image (taste) each brand will have"** and the hypothesis that **"H5e: the higher the**

*similarity of the packaging of the major brands, the less positive an image (taste) each brand will have***"** are not supported.

Lastly, the regression models used to explore the effect of the respondents' perception about the different dimensions of brand parity on their perception about the packaging dimension of the chicken branded products from Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia explained 0.6%, 6.0%, 17.6% and 7.1% respectively of the total variation in the consumers' perception regarding the packaging dimension of the branded products from these countries. Consistent with the previous models, the smallest explained variation (adjusted R square) is in the case of Egypt, while the highest is in the case of Malaysia.

By examining the effect of the individual dimensions of the consumers' perceptions about brand parity on the respondents' perception about the packaging dimension of the product brand, it has been found that the reliability dimension of the brand parity construct has a significant positive effect in the case Malaysia and a significant negative effect in the case of Saudi Arabia. This means that the hypothesis that **"*H5a: the higher the similarity of the competence (reliability) of the major brands, the less positive an image (packaging) the individual brands will have***"** is only supported in the case of Saudi Arabia.

On the contrary, in the case of Malaysia it has been found that the higher the similarity of the reliability indicator of the major brands the more positive an image (packaging) the branded product from those countries will have.

On the other hand, the sincerity variable of the brand parity concept has a significant but negative effect on the consumers' perceptions about the packaging dimension of the branded product construct only in the case of Egypt. Thus, the hypothesis that **"*H5b: the higher the similarity of the sincerity (friendliness) of the major brands, the less positive an image (packaging) each brand will have***"** is only supported in the case of Egypt.

The respondents' perception about the quality dimension of the brand parity concept has a significant positive effect on their perception about the packaging variable of the branded product only in the case of France. Therefore, the hypothesis that **"*H5c: the higher the similarity of the quality of the major brands, the less positive an image (packaging) each brand will have***"** is not supported.

The respondent' perception about the taste and packaging indicators of the brand parity construct have no significant effect on their perception about the packaging variable of the branded product in any of the four countries, as none of its regression coefficients is statistically significant. Thus, the hypothesis that **"*H5d: the higher the similarity of the taste of the major brands, the less positive an image (packaging) each brand will have*"** and the hypothesis that **"*H5e: the higher the similarity of the packaging of the major brands, the less positive an image (packaging) each brand will have*"** are not supported.

These results reflect the unique nature of the factors that influence Muslim consumers' perception about food products of animal origin; while factors related to product quality such as reliability, sincerity, taste and packaging are important, factors related to religion may be even more important and influential in determining the consumers' attitudes, perception and acceptance of food products of animal origin originating from different countries.

(See table 7.17; dimensions of Brand Parity vs. dimensions of Branded Products)

Table 7.17: The Effects of the respondents' Perception about Brand Parity (Reliability, Sincerity, Quality, Taste and Packaging) on their Perceptions about the different dimensions of Branded Products

Brand Parity	Branded Product																								
	Reliability					Sincerity					Quality					Taste					Packaging				
	β Value	Sig.	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	β Value	Sig.	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	β Value	Sig.	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	β Value	Sig.	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	β Value	Sig.	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F
Egypt																									
Reliability	.030	.671	.059	.043	3.964	-.07	.276	.048	.032	2.971	.014	.520	.027	.101	1.596	.063	.379	.032	.016	1.949	.102	.164	.023	.006	1.357
Sincerity	-.144	.048				-.131	.062				-.160	.032				-.148	.048				-.170	.026			
Quality	-.146	.022				-.074	.225				-.033	.615				-.057	.383				.012	.851			
Taste	.108	.096				.092	.139				.104	.115				.092	.168				.043	.527			
Packaging	-.065	.262				-.009	.876				-.042	.475				-.080	.177				-.041	.495			
France																									
Reliability	.251	.002	.096	.081	6.249	.223	.005	.124	.109	8.325	.191	.019	.116	.101	7.695	.213	.011	.124	.109	8.299	.048	.557	.076	.060	4.774
Sincerity	-.118	.154				-.104	.205				-.053	.528				-.022	.801				-.053	.527			
Quality	.139	.054				.162	.024				.202	.006				.213	.005				.250	.001			
Taste	.053	.471				.087	.232				.032	.668				.037	.636				.014	.854			
Packaging	-.047	.471				-.007	.909				.010	.876				-.054	.430				-.004	.952			
Malaysia																									
Reliability	.210	.004	.194	.180	14.085	.238	.001	.176	.162	12.454	.241	.001	.230	.217	17.533	.300	.000	.201	.188	14.778	.253	.001	.190	.176	13.724
Sincerity	.089	.188				.142	.056				.201	.007				.117	.126				.142	.062			
Quality	.089	.130				-.015	.811				-.001	.983				.004	.949				.045	.498			
Taste	.024	722				.065	.395				.071	.281				.089	.192				.021	.756			
Packaging	.100	.090				.053	.369				.059	.314				.004	.951				.062	.304			
Saudi Arabia																									
Reliability	-.230	.001	.104	.089	6.792	-.172	.007	.081	.065	5.108	-.205	.002	.11.1027	7.735		-.136	.033	.097	.082	6.320	-.177	.004	.087	.071	5.539
Sincerity	-.110	.113				-.095	.149				-.137	.042				-.133	.044				-.088	.165			
Quality	.068	.262				.054	.344				.107	.067				.069	.226				.047	.390			
Taste	.011	.861				.028	.633				.057	.334				-.055	.345				-.021	.704			
Packaging	-.029	.594				-.057	.270				-.100	.060				-.30	.568				-.004	.934			

7.3.6 The effects of the respondents' socioeconomic characteristics on their perception about the country of origin of chicken branded products

Tables 7.18, 7.19, 7.20 and 7.21 show the division of the total variation in the Saudi women's perceptions about the different dimensions of the country of origin (Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia) of chicken branded products into two parts; the part caused by differences between the respondents' groups regarding some socioeconomic characteristics (Between Group Variation) and the part due to differences between the members of each group with regards to these characteristics and others (Within Group Variation).

Age:

It is hypothesised that "*H6: The different age groups of the consumers will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin*".

Table 7.18 indicates that the respondents' age had no significant effect on their perceptions about the different dimensions (political, economic, technological, cultural and religion) of the country of origin construct in the cases of France and Malaysia.

On the other hand, the respondents' age explained a statistically significant portion of the total variation in their perception about the political, economic and technological dimensions of the COO in the case of Egypt, and the political and economical dimensions in the case of Saudi Arabia.

Hence, the hypothesis *that "H6: The different age groups of the consumers will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin"* is supported in the cases of Egypt and Saudi Arabia.

This is consistent with the lack of a statistically significant contribution of the respondents' age to the total variation in their perceptions about the chicken branded products from the different countries under consideration in this study. The explanation given there is expected to be applicable here.

Table 7.18: ANOVA: Perception about Country of Origin (COO) according to

Consumers' Age

Country of Origin (COO)	Age									Total	F	Sig.
	< 20	21-25	26-30	31-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56-65	66+			
Egypt												
Political	3.71	3.93	3.59	3.48	3.51	3.19	3.42	4.05	3.56	3.63	2.78	.006
Economic	3.54	3.88	3.58	3.43	3.43	3.17	3.49	4.00	3.40	3.57	2.64	.008
Technological	3.63	3.90	3.83	3.59	3.52	3.39	3.32	4.16	3.61	3.69	2.77	.006
Cultural	2.72	2.70	2.49	2.90	3.08	2.93	2.79	2.61	3.06	2.77	.89	.525
Religion	3.19	2.98	2.65	2.86	3.44	3.26	3.00	3.15	3.39	3.00	.90	.514
France												
Political	3.94	4.37	4.24	3.97	4.04	3.99	3.82	4.44	4.31	4.12	1.75	.088
Economic	3.80	4.10	4.04	3.99	3.84	3.98	3.68	4.05	4.05	3.96	.96	.471
Technological	4.07	4.39	4.25	4.04	4.07	3.96	3.73	4.55	4.32	4.16	1.82	.073
Cultural	3.88	4.38	4.16	3.90	3.83	3.95	3.97	4.06	3.91	4.04	1.63	.115
Religion	3.98	4.43	4.29	4.31	4.09	4.10	3.92	4.21	4.06	4.22	.75	.647
Malaysia												
Political	3.33	3.44	3.21	3.28	3.35	3.30	3.17	3.51	3.55	3.32	.46	.882
Economic	3.17	3.39	3.23	3.20	3.17	3.20	3.35	3.53	3.29	3.25	.52	.845
Technological	3.24	3.33	3.16	3.23	3.18	3.21	3.40	3.66	3.20	3.25	.57	.806
Cultural	3.84	4.14	3.88	3.70	3.56	3.60	3.64	4.15	4.12	3.85	1.90	.059
Religion	3.75	3.97	3.70	3.55	3.48	3.69	3.38	4.03	3.94	3.71	1.11	.357
Saudi Arabia												
Political	3.98	4.40	4.28	4.07	4.11	3.86	4.03	4.51	4.20	4.17	2.36	.018
Economic	3.98	4.39	4.12	3.94	4.06	3.95	3.86	4.29	4.05	4.09	2.28	.022
Technological	4.04	4.35	4.27	4.02	4.03	3.88	4.12	4.27	4.11	4.14	1.57	.133
Cultural	2.74	2.80	2.71	3.04	3.38	3.24	2.95	2.82	3.33	2.93	1.25	.268
Religion	3.05	2.91	2.57	2.86	3.06	3.17	2.95	2.88	3.36	2.90	.75	.645

Education:

The hypothesis related to education is "**H7: Consumer groups with different educational levels will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin**".

Table 7.19 shows that the difference in the educational level between the different respondents' groups contributed significantly to the total variation in their perceptions about all the dimensions of the COO construct in all the countries under consideration (Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia).

Therefore, generally, it could be argued that the hypothesis that consumers' groups with different educational levels will differ significantly in the way they perceive the country of origin is supported. Differences in the respondents' educational levels are expected to mean differential access to information about France and Malaysia, as

Saudi women's access to information about these countries is limited because of the language barrier. Educated women are expected to be more exposed to information from different sources such as newspapers, magazines, TV and radio news broadcast in foreign languages, etc.

Most likely, this is the reason behind the significant contribution of the respondents' education to the total variation in their perception about these two countries. In the case of Egypt, the situation is different as almost all Saudis have similar access to information, yet differences in the respondents' education contributed significantly to the total variation in their perception about the country. This may be attributed to the comprehensive nature of the respondents' perceptions of Egypt as country (cultural, political and religious background, economic and technological development) which differs according to their educational level.

Table 7.19: ANOVA: Perception about Country of Origin (COO) according to Consumers' Education

Country of Origin (COO)	Educational level					Total	F	Sig.
	Primary school or Less	Interme-diate school	High School	College/ university degree	Post-graduate degree			
Egypt								
Political	4.09	3.94	3.42	3.59	4.15	3.63	8.75	.000
Economic	3.85	4.03	3.43	3.40	3.90	3.57	8.89	.000
Technological	4.06	3.92	3.51	3.72	3.92	3.69	4.97	.001
Cultural	3.33	2.06	2.76	2.96	3.44	2.77	7.57	.000
Religion	4.35	2.32	2.91	3.04	4.35	3.00	9.05	.000
France								
Political	4.26	4.69	3.82	4.16	4.56	4.12	11.39	.000
Economic	4.03	4.02	3.77	4.19	4.15	3.96	4.77	.001
Technological	4.52	4.64	3.84	4.25	4.52	4.16	12.50	.000
Cultural	4.27	4.59	3.82	4.05	3.96	4.04	7.04	.000
Religion	4.19	4.60	3.96	4.38	4.31	4.22	3.57	.007
Malaysia								
Political	3.88	3.00	3.22	3.42	4.14	3.32	7.96	.000
Economic	3.64	3.05	3.14	3.36	3.86	3.25	5.02	.001
Technological	3.77	2.98	3.28	3.21	3.56	3.25	3.54	.008
Cultural	4.23	4.55	3.63	3.67	4.04	3.84	13.26	.000
Religion	4.17	4.56	3.46	3.45	4.10	3.71	14.47	.000
Saudi Arabia								
Political	4.44	4.63	3.96	4.19	4.16	4.17	10.08	.000
Economic	4.31	4.60	3.90	4.00	4.31	4.09	12.45	.000
Technological	4.41	4.63	3.96	4.11	4.05	4.14	9.40	.000
Cultural	3.48	2.13	2.94	3.16	3.48	2.93	8.13	.000
Religion	3.75	2.20	2.92	2.89	4.13	2.90	8.67	.000

Occupation:

It is hypothesised that "***H8: Consumers with different occupations will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin***".

Table 7.20 shows that the variation in the respondents' occupation explained a significant portion of the total variation in their perception about all the different dimensions of the COO construct in all the cases (Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia). This is very similar to the effect of the respondents' income on their perceptions about the different dimensions of these countries of origin of the chicken branded products (table 7.21).

Therefore, the hypothesis ***"H8: that consumers from different occupations will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin"*** is supported. The similarity and consistency of the two results (tables 7.20 and 7.21) is expected, as occupation is the source of income and each of the two variables can be used as an indicator of the other for most people.

Thus, the statistically significant contribution of the respondents' occupation to the total variation in their perceptions about the different dimensions of the countries of origin of chicken branded products could be explained on the same grounds used to explain the effect of the respondents' income on their perceptions about the countries of origin of chicken branded products.

Table 7.20: ANOVA: Perception about Country of Origin (COO)
according to Consumers' Occupations

Country of Origin (COO)	Occupation							Total	F	Sig.
	Profess-ional/ Manager	Emplo-yee	Home-maker	Clerk/ Secretary	Student	Teacher/ Professor	Retired/ Not employed			
Egypt										
Political	4.17	3.94	3.44	3.69	4.02	3.87	3.96	3.63	6.01	.000
Economic	3.83	3.79	3.40	3.64	3.40	3.87	4.23	3.57	6.37	.000
Technological	4.15	3.93	3.53	4.02	3.41	4.00	4.11	3.69	5.93	.000
Cultural	3.42	3.63	2.69	2.79	2.82	2.50	1.64	2.77	9.39	.000
Religion	3.42	4.17	2.83	2.91	4.18	3.08	1.54	3.00	10.23	.000
France										
Political	4.63	4.43	3.91	4.04	4.42	4.20	4.78	4.12	6.51	.000
Economic	4.40	4.31	3.86	4.16	4.02	3.90	3.87	3.96	3.20	.005
Technological	4.42	4.58	3.93	4.16	4.77	4.19	4.77	4.16	8.65	.000
Cultural	4.25	4.17	3.87	4.15	4.03	4.36	4.82	4.04	4.81	.000
Religion	4.39	4.58	4.04	4.21	4.39	4.06	4.85	4.22	2.82	.011

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Malaysia										
Political	3.88	3.91	3.16	3.69	3.64	3.57	2.91	3.32	7.30	.000
Economic	3.88	3.72	3.13	3.62	3.22	3.40	2.91	3.25	5.90	.000
Technological	3.60	3.60	3.18	3.39	2.98	3.42	3.02	3.25	2.51	.022
Cultural	4.00	4.11	3.66	3.64	4.12	3.94	4.71	3.85	6.86	.000
Religion	3.53	4.02	3.52	2.94	4.06	4.00	4.78	3.71	8.06	.000
Saudi Arabia										
Political	4.37	4.35	4.01	4.11	4.00	4.55	4.87	4.17	7.76	.000
Economic	4.10	4.38	3.92	3.87	3.96	4.45	4.80	4.09	9.69	.000
Technological	4.38	4.26	4.00	4.25	3.93	4.40	4.83	4.14	6.46	.000
Cultural	3.56	3.74	2.91	2.70	2.88	2.67	1.63	2.93	9.45	.000
Religion	3.22	3.88	2.79	2.61	3.73	2.72	1.74	2.90	8.61	.000

Income:

It has been proposed that "***H9: Consumers with different incomes will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin***".

Unlike the effect of the respondents' incomes on their perception about the chicken branded products from different countries (table 7.22), table 7.21 revealed that the respondents' income explained a significant portion of the total variation in their perception about the different dimensions of the COO construct in all the countries under consideration.

Thus, the hypothesis that "***H9: consumers with different incomes will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin"*** is validated. In the cases of France and Malaysia the effect of the respondents' income on their perception about the branded product's country of origin is consistent and analogous to the effect of the respondents' income on their perception about the branded products from these countries.

On the other hand, the significant contribution of the respondents' incomes to the total variation in their perception about the different dimensions of Egypt as a country of origin of chicken branded products compared to the insignificant effect it had on their perception about the different dimensions of the Egyptian chicken branded product may be attributed to the comprehensive and multidimensional nature of the perception one usually has about a particular country compared to the limited and one-dimensional perception about a single product from that country.

Thus, it is possible that people belonging to different income groups will have different perceptions and points of view about Egypt as a place for tourism and

origin of different commodities and services, but they have similar perceptions about the Egyptian chicken branded product.

Table 7.21: ANOVA: Perception about Country of Origin (COO) according to Respondents' Income

Country of Origin (COO)	Income					Total	F	Sig.
	Less than 3000	3000-5999	6000-8999	9000-14999	15000+			
Egypt								
Political	4.31	3.53	3.66	3.87	3.47	3.63	4.01	.003
Economic	4.23	3.44	3.68	3.75	3.28	3.57	5.07	.001
Technological	4.42	3.57	3.69	3.95	3.73	3.69	5.14	.001
Cultural	3.25	2.95	2.17	2.95	3.50	2.77	8.99	.000
Religion	4.17	3.22	2.38	2.75	3.79	3.00	7.22	.000
France								
Political	4.04	3.94	4.26	4.59	4.37	4.12	4.18	.000
Economic	4.33	3.86	3.85	4.56	4.28	3.36	8.37	.000
Technological	4.29	3.97	4.31	4.52	4.50	4.16	5.09	.001
Cultural	4.33	3.79	4.27	4.45	4.31	4.04	6.91	.000
Religion	4.14	4.03	4.46	4.46	4.48	4.22	2.60	.036
Malaysia								
Political	4.13	3.37	3.00	3.66	3.43	3.32	6.91	.000
Economic	4.00	3.25	2.99	3.66	3.35	3.25	7.17	.000
Technological	4.06	3.24	3.10	3.51	3.07	3.25	4.67	.001
Cultural	3.89	3.67	3.11	3.95	4.07	3.85	3.90	.004
Religion	3.72	3.52	4.12	3.60	3.60	3.71	4.84	.001
Saudi Arabia								
Political	4.45	4.00	4.35	4.41	4.16	4.17	5.46	.000
Economic	4.32	3.94	4.28	4.24	4.02	4.09	4.34	.002
Technological	4.35	3.94	4.33	4.46	4.34	4.14	7.07	.000
Cultural	3.50	3.16	2.28	3.02	3.52	2.93	9.53	.000
Religion	3.58	3.16	2.30	2.70	3.40	2.90	7.41	.000

7.4 Results of Sub-sample Two (USA, Brazil, UAE & Saudi Arabia as COO)

7.4.1 Some Socioeconomic Characteristics of Respondents

More than half (56.2%) of the respondents belong to the age group of 30 years old or under. This is very similar to the age composition of the first sub-sample, where 52% of the respondents belong to the age group of 30 years or less. This confirms the fact women in Saudi society marry at an early age and they are involved in food purchasing decisions at early stages of their life.

The educational level of the respondents in this sub-sample is very similar to that of their counterparts in sub-sample one, where 37.2% of them have secondary school education and 34.5% have university or postgraduate education compared to 44.7% with high school education and 33.6% with university or postgraduate education in sub-sample one.

Regarding income distribution, the situation is also very similar to sub-sample one where 71.3 of the respondents have a middle-class level of income (3000 – less than 9000 SR), compared to 81% of the respondents in sub-sample one. This confirms the argument that the income distribution among the respondents of the study is very typical of the income distribution in the Saudi society.

Table 7.22: Some socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents (sub-sample two)

	Frequency	**%**
Age Distribution:		
- 20	35	11.7
21-25	59	19.8
26-30	74	24.7
31-40	72	24.0
41-45	31	10.3
46-50	10	3.3
51-55	8	2.6
66+	10	3.3
Total	**299**	**100**
Level of Education:		
Primary or Less	21	7.0
Below High School	63	21.1
High School	111	37.2
College/University	94	31.5
Post Graduate	9	3.0
Total	**298**	**100**
Household Income:		
Below 3000 SR	32	10.8
3000-5999 SR	137	46.3
6000-8999 SR	74	25
9000-14999 SR	32	10.8
15000+ SR	21	7.1
Total	**296**	**100**

7.4.2 Respondents' Knowledge about Other Countries

Table 7.23 describes the knowledge of the respondents in sub-sample two about the four countries (*UAE, USA, Brazil & Saudi Arabia*) used as COO for chicken branded products. Similar to their counterparts in sub-sample one, the majority (87.7%) of the respondents show a strong belief of having sufficient knowledge about Saudi Arabia, whereas 60%, 46.3% and 31% of the respondents believe that they have a somewhat good knowledge about the UAE, the USA and Brazil respectively.

Similar to the case in sub-sample one, the cultural issue also has its effect here, as the respondents showed a high level of knowledge about UAE which has a culture almost identical to that of Saudi culture (same language and religion) compared to the USA and Brazil which have different religions and languages. The percentage of respondents who believe that they have knowledge about the USA is higher than those who believe they have knowledge about Brazil. This is a result of strong interaction of the Saudi and American cultures wherein many Saudis go to the USA for their higher education, in addition to the business relationship.

Regarding relations with other countries, it was revealed that 54.3% of the respondents have friends in UAE, whereas only 29% of them have friends in the USA and 22.7% in Brazil. Moreover, 68.3% of the respondents wish to travel to the UAE compared to 49.3% and 47.7% of them who would like to travel to USA and Brazil respectively.

The majority (60.3%) of the respondents prefer to read about the UAE, while 44.3% and 41.7% want to read about the USA and Brazil respectively. More than half (55.7%) of the respondents showed high interest to know more about the UAE culture, whereas 46.7% and 45% of them want to know more about the USA and Brazilian cultures respectively. Confirming the results obtained in sub-sample one, these results also proved that Saudis are willing to read and find out more about the countries have a similar culture, which reflects the important role of culture in affecting Saudis' decisions. Saudis are strongly attached to countries with a similar culture.

Table 7.23: Respondents' knowledge about the four countries

	UAE		USA		Brazil		Saudi Arabia	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Knowledge of other countries:								
Strongly Agree	59	19.7	40	13.3	33	11.0	263	87.7
Somewhat Agree	180	60.0	139	46.3	93	31.0	36	12.0
Neither	24	8.0	28	9.3	55	18.3	0	0
Somewhat Disagree	23	7.7	82	27.3	69	23.0	1	0.3
Strongly Disagree	14	4.7	11	3.7	50	16.7	0	0
Relations with other countries:								
Friends in	163	54.3	87	29.0	68	22.7	--	
Wish to travel to	205	68.3	148	49.3	143	47.7	--	
Love to read about	181	60.3	133	44.3	125	41.7	--	
Like to know culture	167	55.7	140	46.7	135	45.0	--	

As shown in table 7.24, the majority (90%) of the respondents use TV as a source of information about International Issues, followed by the Press (46.6%), whereas the Internet is used by 20.33%for the same purpose. On the other hand, 27.3%, 4.3% and 1.33% of the respondents depend on Friends, Travel, and Magazines respectively as a source for their information about international issues.

In addition, it was noticed that the majority (99.6%) of the respondents use TV to get information about other countries, followed by the Press (44.0%), whereas the Internet is used by 29.7% of the respondents to learn about other countries. As far as dependence on Friends, Books, Travel, Radio and Magazines as sources of information about international issues 30%, 13.3%, 7.0%, 4.3% and 0.7% of the respondents depend on them respectively. Again, the T.V. and Press are the main communication channels that other countries can use to communicate with the people of Saudi Arabia.

Table 7.24: Means of knowledge

Means of Knowledge	Int'l Issues				Other Countries			
	Mean	SD	Freq.	%	Mean	SD	Freq.	%
TV	1.00	.000	270	90	1.004	.061	271	99.6
Press	1.00	.000	140	46.6	1.000	.000	132	44
Travel	1.00	.000	13	4.33	1.000	.000	21	7
Internet	1.00	.000	61	20.3	1.000	.000	89	29.7

Means of Knowledge	Int'l Issues				Other Countries			
	Mean	SD	Freq.	%	Mean	SD	Freq.	%
Friends	1.00	.000	82	27.3	1.000	.000	90	30
Magazines/Books	1.00	.000	4	1.33	1.000	.000	40	13.3
Radio	1.00	.000	0	0	1.000	.000	13	2.3
Not Interested	1.00	.000	4	1.33	1.000	.000	--	--

7.4.3 The Correlation between Consumers' Perceptions about the Country of Origin (COO) and its chicken Branded Product

The Pearson correlation analysis was used to examine the level of association between consumers' perceptions about the country of origin and their perceptions about its chicken branded products (table 7.25) and the correlation between the different indicators of the country of origin concept with the different dimensions of the branded product construct (table 7.26) for the four countries; USA, Brazil, UAE and Saudi Arabia.

Table 7.25 below indicates that the relationship between consumers' perceptions about the country and the branded product is positive and statistically significant in all the countries under consideration in version two of the analysis (USA, Brazil, UAE and Saudi Arabia). This is consistent with the results obtained in version one of the analysis where a positive and statistically significant correlation was found between consumers' perceptions about the country of origin and its chicken branded products in three of the four countries under consideration (Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia), and positive but statistically not significant in the case of France.

Thus, the hypothesis that *"H1: if a country has a positive image, its branded products will also have a positive image"* is supported in both version one and two of the study, except in the case of France. This is consistent with the mainstream literature in this regard which has proven the effect and association between consumers' perceptions about COO and their perception about all different types of products: general, specific, specific brands, and specific type of products (Nagashima, 1970, 1977; Roth and Romeo, 1992; Paswan and Sharma, 2004; Chao, 2005).

However, it should be remembered that these studies have also argued that there are different levels of COO effects for the different types of products and the extent of

the country of origin effect is related to specific product attributes (Han and Terpstra, 1988; Baker and Ballington, 2002).

Thus, the relationship between the different dimensions of COO and those of the branded product are discussed in greater detail and depth in the following section.

Table 7.25: The Pearson correlations between Consumers' Perceptions about COO & its Branded Products (USA, Brazil, UAE & Saudi Arabia)

Consumers' perception about COO in case of:	Consumers' perception about branded product	Level of Significance (2-tailed)
USA	.252	.000
Brazil	.287	.000
UAE	.196	.001
Saudi Arabia	.599	.000

To examine the effect of the consumers' perceptions about the country of origin of chicken branded products on the image they will have about these branded products in more depth, a Pearson correlation analysis was also used to examine the level of association between the different dimensions of the consumers' perceptions about the products' country of origin and their perceptions about the branded products for four countries; the USA, Brazil, the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Saudi Arabia.

Table 7.26 below indicates that the relationship between the consumers' perceptions about the political background, economic development and technological development of the country of origin and all the branded products' construct variables; reliability, sincerity, quality, taste and packaging, is positive and statistically significant in the case of Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia. All the Pearson correlation coefficients are significant at a 0.01 level of significance. This is very consistent with the results obtained in version one of the analysis where a positive and statistically significant correlation was found between the consumers' perceptions about the country of origin's political background, economical development and technological development and all the branded products' construct variables (reliability, sincerity, quality, taste and packaging) in three countries (Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia) out of the four countries under consideration.

In the case of the USA, the consumers' perception about the country of origin's political background has a positive and significant relationship with the reliability and sincerity dimensions of the branded product. This is somewhat similar to the

case of France in version one of the analysis where the consumers' perception about the country of origin's political background has a significant relationship only with the packaging dimension of the branded product.

As expected, and similar to the cases of Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia, the relationship between the consumers' perceptions about the country of origin's political background, economical and technological development and all the variables of the branded product construct is positive. Thus, the argument that *" H1: if a country has a positive image, its branded products will also have a positive image"* is fully supported in six out of the eight countries considered in this study and partially support in the other two (France and the USA).

On the other hand, the consumers' perception about the cultural background of the product's country of origin is not significantly associated with any of the dimensions of the branded product construct in the case of the UAE and only significantly associated with the consumers' perception about the product packaging in the case of the USA and Brazil, and it is significantly associated with all the variables of the branded product construct in the case of Saudi Arabia.

Moreover, the consumers' perception about the religious background of the product's country of origin is significantly associated only with their perception about the product packaging in the case of USA, while it is significantly associated with the reliability and sincerity dimensions of the branded product construct in the cases of Brazil and the UAE. In the case of Saudi Arabia, the consumers' perceptions about the country of origin's religion are not significantly related to their perception about any of branded product's dimensions. Again, as was the case in version one of the analysis, the relationship between consumers' perceptions about the different dimensions of the COO and their perceptions about the different dimensions of its branded product is not conclusive and reflects the complexity and uniqueness of the factors that affect consumers' perceptions about branded products of food items in the Muslim world. This is consistent with the general conclusion that many researchers arrived at, and argues that although the research on country of origin has made significant theoretical and practical contributions, the country of origin literature has reported conflicting results regarding the importance of the country of origin cue in consumer product evaluations (Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2001; Chao,

2005). This is mainly because the country of origin effect is a complex phenomenon and various moderators can influence its magnitude, with different researchers focusing on particular COO dimensions (Amine et al. 2005; Phau and Suntornnond, 2006). In accordance with this, it has been argued that the findings of the country of origin effect research are only somewhat generalisable and that caution should be exercised in generalising the results of country of origin effect across all product categories, as the product category is a salient factor in product country of origin evaluations (Kaynak and Kara, 2001; Bandyopadhyay, 2001).

In the Muslim world the situation is more complicated, as consumers' perception about food products is basically determined by religious beliefs and values that make them critical about many practices related to food production and preparation even in some Muslim countries. Moreover, recently consumers have become very sensitive and concerned about the chemicals used to produce food products in the form of fertilizers, pesticides, growth hormones etc. This might lead consumers to form negative attitude about food products produced in a country that is not known for having the natural agricultural resources and environment to produce such products regardless of their perceptions about that country.

Table 7.26: The Correlations between the Different Indicators of the COO Concept & the Different Dimensions of the Branded Product Construct

(USA, Brazil, UAE & Saudi Arabia)

Branded Products	Correlations				
	F1: Political	F2: Economical	F3: Technological	F4: Cultural	F5: Religious
USA					
F1: Reliability	.203**	.228**	.216**	.066	-.031
F2: Sincerity	.193**	.229**	.164**	.103	-.007
F3: Quality	.051	.275**	.222**	.038	-.033
F4: Taste	.022	.306**	.183**	.083	-.022
F5: Packaging	.053	.217**	.142**	.197**	.121**
Brazil					
F1: Reliability	.350**	.297**	.380**	-.034	-.131*
F2: Sincerity	.383**	.325**	.374**	-.003	-.121*
F3: Quality	.336**	.327**	.419**	.026	-.064
F4: Taste	.314*	.320**	.411**	-.008	-.076
F5: Packaging	.271**	.271**	.373**	.160**	.007

UAE					
F1: Reliability	.192**	.377**	.375**	-.099	-.144**
F2: Sincerity	.257**	.359**	.431**	-.102	-.162**
F3: Quality	.195**	.304**	.360**	-.036	-.084
F4: Taste	.331**	.384**	.419**	-.004	-.078
F5: Packaging	.300**	.386**	.406**	-.014	-.053
Saudi Arabia					
F1: Reliability	.156**	.357**	.201**	-.155**	-.064
F2: Sincerity	.137**	.359**	.165**	-.165**	-.057
F3: Quality	.169**	.325**	.182**	-.171**	-.070
F4: Taste	.218**	.391**	.248**	-.206**	-.105
F5: Packaging	.200**	.292**	.214**	-.138**	-.041

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*   Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

7.4.4 The Effects of Country of Origin, Branded Products and Ethnocentrism on the Consumers' Buying Intention

The regression model used to depict the effect of the consumers' perception about the product country of origin and branded product and their ethnocentrism on their buying intention has explained 34.1%, 56.8%, 33.4% and 40.1% of the total variation in the consumers' buying intention in the case of the USA, Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia respectively. The highest adjusted R square is obtained in the case of Brazil, while the lowest is in the case of the USA and it is statistically significant in all four of the countries.

Although these models are considered appropriate as they have explained a statistically significant portion of the total variation in the respondents' buying intention (F is significant at < 0.000), the values of the adjusted R square are still considered low compared to those obtained in version one of the analysis (0.516, 0.684, 0.531 and 0.709 in the case of Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia respectively).

The consumers' perceptions about the political background of the country of origin of the branded product has a statistically significant effect on their buying intention of the branded product produced only in the case of Saudi Arabia, and its regression

coefficient is positive. This implies that the hypothesis that *"H2a: the more positively consumers perceive the political background of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products"* is supported only in the case of Saudi Arabia. However, in version one of the analysis it was supported in three cases (Egypt, France and Malaysia) but was negative in the case of Saudi Arabia. Therefore, the hypothesis that *"H2a: the more positively consumers perceive the political background of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intention of its products"* is supported in the cases of Egypt, France and Malaysia.

The effect of the consumers' perceptions about the economic development of the country of origin on their buying intention is statistically significant only in the case of the USA. As was the case with France, unexpectedly, this effect is negative. Again, this could be attributed to the fact that although the respondents perceive the USA as an economically developed country, they are not enthusiastic about buying its chicken products because of the concerns they have about the way the chicken is slaughtered and whether it is acceptable from the Islamic point of view. Therefore, the hypothesis that *"H2b: the more positively consumers perceive the economic development of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products "* is not supported in either version one nor in version two of the analysis.

The study showed no statistically significant effect of the consumers' perceptions about the technological background of the country of origin on their buying intention of the chicken branded products from any of the countries considered in version two of the analysis. Thus, the hypothesis that *"H2c: the more positively consumers perceive the technological background of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products"* is supported only in one case (France) in version one and not supported in any of the cases in version two of the analysis.

On the other hand, the effect of the consumers' attitudes towards the cultural dimension of the country of origin construct on their chicken branded product buying intention is positive and statistically significant in the cases of Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia. Thus, the hypothesis that *"H2d: the more positively consumers perceive the national culture of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products"* is supported in three cases (Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia) of the four countries considered in version two of the analysis.

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The consumers' perception about the religious background of the country of origin has a significant effect on their buying intention of the country's chicken branded products in the cases of the UAE and Saudi Arabia. As expected, this effect is positive in the case of the UAE but unexpectedly, as it was in version one of the analysis, it is negative in the case of Saudi Arabia.

Therefore, the hypothesis that states that ***"H2e: the more positively consumers perceive the religion of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products "*** is supported in the cases of Egypt and Malaysia in version one of the analysis and in the case of the UAE in version two of the analysis.

Generally, these results are consistent with the literature which proved the existence of the effect of consumers' perceptions about the different dimensions of the COO on their evaluation and buying intention of its products (Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2000; Cai et al. 2004) and that the nature and strength of this effect depends on the product category (Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983; Ettenson et al. 1988; Han and Terpstra, 1988; Hong and Wyer, 1989; Wall et al. 1991).

As was the case in version one of the analysis, the effect of the consumers' attitudes to the different dimensions of the branded product concept on their chicken branded product buying intention is not conclusive and differs from one country to another. The consumers' perception about the reliability of the branded product has a significant effect on their buying intention only in the case of the UAE and, as expected, it is positive.

On the other hand, the consumers' perception about the branded product's sincerity and packaging also has a significant effect on their buying intention of the chicken branded product only in the case of the UAE, but this effect is negative. The consumers' attitude towards the branded product's taste has a significant negative effect on their buying intention only in the case of the USA.

Surprisingly, the respondents' perception about the quality dimension of the branded product concept has no statistically significant effect on their buying intention of the chicken branded products from any of the countries under consideration in version two of the analysis.

Therefore, none of the hypotheses about the expected relationships between the consumers' perceptions about and attitudes towards the different dimensions of the chicken branded products and their buying intention of the chicken branded products;

> **H3a. The higher the consumers perceived competence (reliability) of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.**

> **H3b. The higher the consumers perceived sincerity (friendliness) of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.**

> **H3c. The higher the consumers perceived the quality of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.**

> **H3d. The higher the consumers perceived the taste of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.**

> **H3e. The higher the consumers perceived a branded product's packaging, the higher will be their purchase intention.**

are supported in both versions one and two of the analysis, apart from the relationship between reliability and buying intention in the case of the UAE where the hypothesis is supported. The unexpected relations between the different dimensions of the branded product concept and the consumers' buying intention might be attributed to the minor emphasis and limited use of the branded product as information cue in the consumers' buying decision in the case of the chicken as a fast-moving food product (Zinkhan and Martin, 1987; Tse and Gorn, 1993; Miranda and Konya, 2006).

The respondents' ethnocentrism has a statistically significant effect on their buying intention in the cases of the USA, Brazil and Saudi Arabia. As expected, this effect is positive in the case of Saudi Arabia and negative in the cases of the USA and Brazil. This supports the hypothesis that *"H4: the higher the ethnocentrism level of the consumers, the lower their purchasing intention will be for imported branded chicken"*. This is in line with previous research which has revealed that consumers have a tendency to evaluate their own country's products more favourably than do foreigners and in general, irrespective of nationality, place of residence and ethnic background, consumers prefer to purchase locally-produced products (Gaedeke, 1973; Nagashima, 1970 and 1977; Lillis and Narayane 1974; Bannister and

Saunders, 1978; Kaynak and Kara, 2001; Orth and Firbasova, 2003; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004).

Table 7.27: The Effect of COO, Branded Products and Ethnocentrism on the Consumers'
Buying Intention (Linear regression)

Means	**USA**		**Brazil**		**UAE**		**Saudi Arabia**	
	β value	Sig.	β value	Sig.	β value	Sig.	β value	Sig.
COO EFFECT								
Political background	-0.03	0.59	-0.08	0.11	-0.06	0.29	0.20	0.00
Economic development	-0.16	0.01	-0.02	0.70	0.11	0.14	-0.03	0.67
Technological background	-0.07	0.23	0.04	0.44	-0.14	0.06	-0.11	0.10
Cultural background	-0.01	0.80	0.16	0.00	0.21	0.00	0.17	0.01
Religious background	0.03	0.62	0.03	0.51	0.15	0.02	-0.26	0.00
BRAND AS A PERSON								
Reliability	-0.01	0.94	-0.11	0.40	0.25	0.05	-0.07	0.95
Sincerity	0.03	0.80	-0.11	0.40	-0.38	0.00	-0.13	0.30
BRAND AS A PRODUCT								
Quality	0.00	0.98	-0.25	0.12	0.09	0.26	-0.19	0.14
Taste	-0.53	0,00	-0.15	0.31	-0.16	0.13	-0.22	0.12
Packaging	0.09	0.39	-0.10	0.20	-0.23	0.02	-0.00	0.97
ETHNOCENTRISM	-0.15	0.01	-0.10	0.02	0.07	0.15	0.15	0.01
	Adjusted R²=0.341 *F=14.98 (P=0.00)*		*Adjusted R² =0.568* *F=36.17 (P=0.00)*		*Adjusted R²=0.334.* *F=14.329 (P=0.000*		*Adjusted R² =0.401* *F=18.89 (P=0.000)*	

7.4.5 The effect of the respondents' perception about brand parity on their perception about branded product

The regression models used to explore the effect of the respondents' perception about the different dimensions of brand parity on their perception about the reliability dimension of the chicken branded products from the USA, Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia explained 7.6%, 3.3, .7% and 2.1% respectively of the total variation in the consumers' perception regarding the reliability dimension of the branded products from these countries.

Generally, the portion of the total variation in the respondents' perceptions about the reliability of branded products explained (adjusted R square) by variation in their perception about the different dimensions of brand parity is low compared to its counterpart in three of the cases considered in version one of the analysis (France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia) where the adjusted R square in those cases was 8.1%, 18% and 8.9% respectively.

On the other hand, the adjusted R square values obtained in version two of the analysis are very similar to the adjusted R square value obtained in version one of the analysis when Egypt was considered as a country of origin of chicken branded products (adjusted R square = 4.3%).

By examining the effect of the individual dimensions of the consumers' perceptions about brand parity on the respondents' perception about the reliability dimension of the product brand, it has been found that the reliability dimension of the brand parity construct has a positive significant effect in the case of Brazil and a negative significant effect in the case of Saudi Arabia. This means that the hypothesis that *"H5a: the higher the similarity of the competence (reliability) of the major brands, the less positive an image (reliability) the individual brands will have"* is only supported in the case of Saudi Arabia in both versions of the analysis. On the contrary, in the case Brazil, as it was in the cases of France and Malaysia in version one, it was found that the higher the similarity of the reliability indicator of the major brands the more positive an image the branded product will have.

On the other hand, the sincerity variable of the brand parity concept has a positive significant effect on the consumers' perceptions about the reliability dimension of the branded product construct in the case of the USA and a negative significant effect in the case of the UAE. Thus, the hypothesis that *"H5b: the higher the similarity of the sincerity (friendliness) of the major brands, the less positive an image (reliability) each brand will have"* is only supported in the case of the UAE, in addition to the case of Egypt in version one.

The respondents' perception about the quality dimension of the brand parity concept has a positive significant effect on their perception about the reliability variable of the branded product only in the case of Saudi Arabia. Therefore, the hypothesis that

"H5c: the higher the similarity of the quality of the major brands, the less positive an image (reliability) each brand will have" is not supported.

Consistent with the results obtained in version one of the analysis, the taste variable of the brand parity construct has no significant effect on the reliability variable of the branded product in any of the four countries, as none of its regression coefficients is statistically significant. Consequently, the hypothesis that *"H5d: the higher the similarity of the taste of the major brands, the less positive an image (reliability) each brand will have"* is not supported.

The respondents' perception about the packaging indicator of the brand parity construct has a significant negative effect on their perception about the reliability variable of the branded product only in the case of Brazil. Thus, the hypothesis that *"H5e: the higher the similarity of the packaging of the major brands, the less positive an image (reliability) each brand will have"* is supported only in the case of Brazil.

On the other hand, the regression models used to explore the effect of the respondents' perception about the different dimensions of brand parity on their perception about the sincerity dimension of the chicken branded products from the USA, Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia explained 6.9%, 2.7%, 3.5% and .7% respectively of the total variation in the consumers' perception regarding the sincerity dimension of the branded products from these countries which are low percentages compared those in version one of the analysis in the cases of Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia (3.2%, 10.9%, 16.2% and 8.9% respectively).

By examining the effect of the individual dimensions of the consumers' perceptions about brand parity on the respondents' perception about the sincerity dimension of the product brand, it was found that none of them has a significant effect in the case of Saudi Arabia, as was the case of Egypt in version one of the analysis. The reliability dimension of the brand parity construct has a positive significant effect in the cases of Brazil and the UAE. This means that the hypothesis that **"H5a: the higher the similarity of the competence (reliability) of the major brands, the less positive an image (sincerity) the individual brands will have"** is not supported in any of the four countries under consideration.

On the contrary, again in the cases Brazil and the UAE, as in the cases of France and Malaysia, it was found that the higher the similarity of the reliability indicator of the major brands the more positive an image (sincerity) the branded product from those countries will have. The taste dimension of the brand parity construct has a positive significant effect only in the case the USA. On the other hand, the quality and packaging variables of the brand parity concept have no significant effect on the consumers' perceptions about the sincerity dimension of the branded product construct in any of the four countries. This means the hypothesis that **"H5b: the higher the similarity of the sincerity of the major brands, the less positive an image (sincerity) the individual brands will have"**, the hypothesis that **"H5c: the higher the similarity of the quality of the major brands, the less positive an image (sincerity) the individual brands will have"**, the hypothesis that **"H5d: the higher the similarity of the taste of the major brands, the less positive an image (sincerity) the individual brands will have"** and the hypothesis that **"H5e: the higher the similarity of the packaging of the major brands, the less positive an image (sincerity) the individual brands will have"**, are not supported in any of the four countries under consideration.

Moreover, the regression models used to explore the effect of the respondents' perception about the different dimensions of brand parity on their perception about the quality dimension of the chicken branded products from the USA, Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia explained 3.8%, 2.6%, 2.5% and 1.1% respectively of the total variation in the consumers' perception regarding the quality dimension of the branded products from these countries, which is relatively low percentages compared to those in the cases of Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia in version one (1.01%, 10.1%, 21.7% and 10.2% respectively)

By examining the effect of the individual dimensions of the consumers' perceptions about brand parity on the respondents' perception about the quality dimension of the product brand, it was found that the reliability dimension of the brand parity construct has a positive significant effect in the cases of the USA and Brazil. This means that the hypothesis that **"H5a: the higher the similarity of the competence (reliability) of the major brands, the less positive an image (quality) the individual brands will have"** is not supported in any of the four countries. On the contrary, in

the cases of the USA and Brazil, it was found that the higher the similarity of the reliability indicator of the major brands, the more positive an image (quality) the branded product from those countries will have.

On the other hand, the sincerity variable of the brand parity concept has a significant negative effect on the consumers' perceptions about the quality dimension of the branded product construct in the cases of Brazil and the UAE. Thus, the hypothesis that **"H5b: the higher the similarity of the sincerity (friendliness) of the major brands, the less positive an image (quality) each brand will have"** is supported in the cases of Brazil and the UAE. The respondents' perception about the quality, taste and packaging dimensions of the brand parity concept has no significant effect on their perception about the quality variable of the branded product in any of the four countries. Therefore, the hypotheses that **"H5c: the higher the similarity of the quality of the major brands, the less positive an image (quality) each brand will have"**, **"H5d: the higher the similarity of the taste of the major brands, the less positive an image (quality) each brand will have"** and that **"H5e: the higher the similarity of the packaging of the major brands, the less positive an image (quality) each brand will have"** are not supported.

Furthermore, the regression models used to explore the effect of the respondents' perception about the different dimensions of brand parity on their perception about the taste dimension of the chicken branded products from the USA, Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia explained 5.6%, 6.8%, 4.6% and 1.4% respectively of the total variation in the consumers' perception regarding the taste dimension of the branded products from these countries, which are again very low percentages compared to those obtained in version one in the cases of France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia (10.9%, 18.8% and 8.2% respectively).

By examining the effect of the individual dimensions of the consumers' perceptions about brand parity on the respondents' perception about the taste dimension of the branded product, it was found that the reliability dimension of the brand parity construct has a positive significant effect in the cases of the USA and Brazil. This means that the hypothesis that **"H5a: the higher the similarity of the competence (reliability) of the major brands, the less positive an image (taste) the individual brands will have"** is not supported in any of the four countries. On the contrary, as it

was in the cases of France and Malaysia, it was found that the higher the similarity of the reliability indicator of the major brands the more positive an image (taste) the branded product from the USA and Brazil will have.

On the other hand, the sincerity variable of the brand parity concept has a negative significant effect on the consumers' perceptions about the taste dimension of the branded product construct in the case of the UAE. Thus, the hypothesis that *"H5b: the higher the similarity of the sincerity (friendliness) of the major brands, the less positive an image (taste) each brand will have"* is only supported in the case of the UAE, in addition to Egypt and Saudi Arabia in version one of the analysis. The respondents' perception about the quality dimension of the brand parity concept has a negative significant effect on their perception about the taste variable of the branded product only in the case of Brazil and a positive significant effect in the case of the UAE. Therefore, the hypothesis that "*H5c: the higher the similarity of the quality of the major brands, the less positive an image (taste) each brand will have*" is only supported in the case of Brazil. The respondent' perception about the taste dimension of the brand parity concept has a positive significant effect on their perception about the taste variable of the branded product in the USA and Saudi Arabia.

On the other hand, the packaging dimension of the brand parity construct has no significant effect on the respondents' perception about the taste variable of the branded product in any of the four countries, as none of its regression coefficients is statistically significant. This means the hypotheses that *"H5d: the higher the similarity of the taste of the major brands, the less positive an image (taste) each brand will have"* and *"H5e: the higher the similarity of the packaging of the major brands, the less positive an image (taste) each brand will have"* are not supported.

Lastly, the regression models used to explore the effect of the respondents' perception about the different dimensions of brand parity on their perception about the packaging dimension of the chicken branded products from the USA, Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia explained 1.7%, 5.9%, 4.7% and .6% respectively of the total variation in the consumers' perception regarding the packaging dimension of the branded products from these countries which are again low percentages compared to those obtained in version one in the cases of France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia (6.0%, 17.6% and 7.1% respectively).

By examining the effect of the individual dimensions of the consumers' perceptions about brand parity on the respondents' perception about the packaging dimension of the product brand, it was found that the reliability dimension of the brand parity construct has a significant positive effect in the case the USA, Brazil and the UAE This means that the hypothesis **that "H5a: the higher the similarity of the competence (reliability) of the major brands, the less positive an image (packaging) the individual brands will have"** is not supported in any of the four countries under consideration. On the contrary, in the cases of the USA, Brazil and the UAE, as in the case of Malaysia in version one, it has been found that the higher the similarity of the reliability indicator of the major brands the more positive an image (packaging) the branded product from those countries will have.

On the other hand, the sincerity variable of the brand parity concept has a negative significant effect on the consumers' perceptions about the packaging dimension of the branded product construct in the cases of the USA, Brazil and the UAE. Thus, the hypothesis that **"H5b: the higher the similarity of the sincerity (friendliness) of the major brands, the less positive an image (packaging) each brand will have"** is supported in cases of the USA, Brazil and the UAE, in addition to Egypt and Saudi Arabia in version one of the analysis.

The respondents' perception about the quality, taste and packaging dimensions of the brand parity concept have no significant effect on their perception about the packaging variable of the branded product in any of the four countries, as none of their regression coefficients is statistically significant. Thus, the hypotheses that **"H5c: the higher the similarity of the quality of the major brands, the less positive an image (packaging) each brand will have"**, **"H5d: the higher the similarity of the taste of the major brands, the less positive an image (packaging) each brand will have"** and **"H5e: the higher the similarity of the packaging of the major brands, the less positive an image (packaging) each brand will have"** are not supported.

Despite the importance of brand parity, there has been surprisingly little research on product level brand parity and its effect on consumers' perceptions about brand (Iyer and Muncy, 2005) to be used as benchmark for this study.

(See table 7.28; dimensions of brand parity vs. dimensions of branded product)

Table 7.28: The Effects of Some of the Respondents' Socioeconomic Characteristics and Perceptions about Brand Parity (Reliability, Sincerity, Quality, Taste and Packaging) on their Perceptions about the Branded Products

Brand Parity	Branded Product																								
	Reliability					Sincerity					Quality					Taste					Packaging				
	β Value	Sig.	R²	Adjusted R²	F	β Value	Sig.	R²	Adjusted R²	F	β Value	Sig.	R²	Adjusted R²	F	β Value	Sig.	R²	Adjusted R²	F	β Value	Sig.	R²	Adjusted R²	F
USA																									
Reliability	-.014	.879				.015	.863				.220	.024				.259	.008				.212	.027			
Sincerity	.257	.003				.159	.059				-.101	.277				-.097	.298				-.201	.029			
Quality	-.024	.806	.083	.076	5.313	-.061	.517	.085	.069	5.443	-.050	.633	.055	.038	3.393	-.117	.268	.072	.056	4.547	-.064	.536	.033	.017	2.025
Taste	.139	.133				.218	.016				.158	.116				.210	.038				.155	.119			
Packaging	-.057	.363				.013	.837				.061	.373				.072	.294				.019	.779			
Brazil																									
Reliability	.241	.028				.270	.009				.498	.000				.546	.000				.480	.000			
Sincerity	.049	.634				-.018	.858				-.222	.031				-.207	.057				-.267	.007			
Quality	.046	.697	.049	.033	3.022	.026	.813	.043	.027	2.669	-.184	.112	.077	.062	4.923	-.259	.035	.084	.068	5.397	-.152	.167	.075	.059	4.737
Taste	.013	.905				.013	.906				.125	.257				.149	.201				.084	.424			
Packaging	-.157	.040				-.111	.128				-.035	.641				-.042	.600				-.039	.587			
UAE																									
Reliability	.069	.359				.181	.014				.052	.488				.094	.170				.158	.017			
Sincerity	-.150	.037				-.214	.003				-.137	.054				-.239	.000				-.192	.003			
Quality	.092	.256	.024	.007	1.420	.101	.204	.051	.035	3.172	.082	.311	.042	.025	2.544	.162	.027	.062	.046	3.878	.121	.091	.063	.047	3.972
Taste	.044	.567				.051	.504				.143	.064				.046	.514				.061	.372			
Packaging	-.058	.271				-.091	.080				-.090	.088				-.007	.878				-.022	.638			
Saudi Arabia2																									
Reliability	-.123	.047				-.046	.286				-.100	.079				-.064	.262				-.088	.141			
Sincerity	-.019	.744				-.010	.863				-.029	.599				-.026	.632				.066	.250			
Quality	.132	.049	.037	.021	2.253	.074	.259	.024	.007	1.435	.068	.269	.028	.011	1.694	.039	.531	.030	.014	1.825	-.018	.786	.023	.006	1.351
Taste	.056	.382				.080	.199				.053	.367				.118	.047				.113	.065			
Packaging	-.018	.684				-.022	.608				-.042	.292				-.053	.195				-.024	.566			

7.4.6 The effects of the respondents' socioeconomic characteristics on their perceptions about the country of origin of chicken branded products

Tables 7.29, 7.30, 7.31 and 7.32 show the division of the total variation in the Saudi women's perceptions about Brazil, the United Arab Emirates (UAE), the USA and Saudi Arabia as countries of origin of chicken branded products into two parts; the part caused by differences between the respondent groups regarding some of their socioeconomic characteristics (Between Group Variation), and the part due to differences between the members of each group with regards to these characteristics and others (Within Group Variation).

Table 7.29 indicates that there is no significant contribution of the variation in the respondents' age to the total variation in their perception about the different dimensions of the country of origin (political, economic, technological, cultural and religious) of chicken branded products except its significant effect on the political and economical dimensions in the case of the UAE. Hence, the hypothesis that ***"H6: the different age groups of the consumers will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin"*** is not supported to a great extent.

Although this result is not consistent with the mainstream literature which argues that consumers' perception about products from different countries depends on their age, as young consumers tend to be internationally-minded, display a lower level of prejudice towards foreign products and are less likely to be nationalistic (Tongberg, 1972; Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Hett, 1993; Rawwas et al. 1996; Leonidou et al., 1999; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001; Ozretic-Dosen et al. 2007), it emphasises the inconclusiveness of the literature in this regard since other studies have argued that the relationship between consumers' age and perceptions about COO other than their own country is positive and that older persons tended to evaluate foreign products more highly than did younger persons (Schooler, 1971; Tongberg, 1972).

Table 7.29: ANOVA: Perception about Country of Origin (COO) according to

Consumers' Age

Country of Origin (COO)	Age								Total	F	Sig.
	< 20	21-25	26-30	31-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	56+			
Brazil											
Political	1.85	1.88	1.82	1.84	1.82	1.90	1.83	1.84	1.84	0.55	0.80
Economic	3.44	3.80	3.53	3.61	3.59	3.62	3.28	3.54	3.60	1.20	0.30
Technological	3.84	3.83	3.75	3.92	3.90	3.70	3.34	3.95	3.83	1.07	0.38
Cultural	3.76	3.95	3.95	3.74	3.49	3.60	3.58	3.73	3.80	1.10	0.36
Religious	3.70	3.97	4.10	4.12	3.95	3.57	3.92	4.07	3.99	0.85	0.55
UAE											
Political	2.57	2.69	2.69	2.72	2.72	2.74	2.68	2.68	2.69	3.58	0.00
Economic	3.80	4.01	4.09	4.18	4.17	4.36	4.23	4.16	4.09	2.23	0.03
Technological	3.61	3.90	3.84	3.93	3.90	4.18	3.91	3.75	3.86	1.20	0.31
Cultural	3.15	3.42	3.25	3.28	3.63	3.33	3.38	3.37	3.33	0.64	0.73
Religious	3.18	3.14	2.88	2.68	3.15	3.07	3.13	2.63	2.95	0.91	0.50
USA											
Political	3.59	3.63	3.64	3.57	3.56	3.66	3.61	3.62	3.61	1.61	0.13
Economic	4.06	4.20	4.19	4.23	4.14	4.16	3.95	4.30	4.18	0.49	0.84
Technological	4.43	4.30	4.41	4.35	4.37	4.68	4.22	4.48	4.38	1.14	0.34
Cultural	3.87	3.95	4.04	3.73	3.49	3.70	3.92	3.83	3.85	1.32	0.24
Religious	3.95	4.07	4.19	4.21	4.00	3.53	4.04	4.27	4.10	0.81	0.58
Saudi Arabia											
Political	4.33	4.29	4.36	4.34	4.33	4.42	4.31	4.38	4.34	0.95	0.47
Economic	4.12	4.13	4.29	4.18	4.11	4.40	4.20	4.14	4.19	0.95	0.47
Technological	4.01	4.05	4.12	4.07	4.05	4.50	4.06	3.75	4.07	0.80	0.59
Cultural	3.32	3.60	3.21	3.39	3.85	3.40	3.38	2.90	3.41	1.47	0.18
Religious	3.25	3.16	2.86	2.64	3.15	3.07	3.04	2.50	2.94	1.20	0.30

Table 7.30 shows that the difference in the educational level between the different respondent groups has a significant effect on their perception about the cultural dimension of COO in all the four countries; Brazil, the UAE, the USA and Saudi Arabia.

On the other hand, it had significant effect on the religion dimension of COO in the case of the UAE, the economical dimension in the case of the USA and the political dimension in the case of Saudi Arabia. This result is inconsistent with the results obtained in version one of the analysis where the respondents' educational level was found to have a significant effect on their perception about all the dimensions of the COO for all the countries (Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia) that were considered as countries of origin of the chicken branded products.

Therefore, the results about the hypothesis that *"H7: consumer groups with different educational levels will significantly differ in the way that they perceive the country of origin"* is supported in all the countries considered in version one but to a less extent in version two of the analysis. This is generally consistent with previous literature, which recommended that particular attention should be paid to the role of education in explaining differences in consumers' perceptions about COO. (Samiee, 1994; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001)

Table 7.30: ANOVA: Perception about Country of Origin (COO) according to Consumers' Education

Country of Origin (COO)	Educational level					Total	F	Sig.
	Primary school or Less	Interme-diate school	High School	College/ university degree	Post-graduate degree			
Brazil								
Political	1.83	1.82	1.86	1.83	1.92	1.85	0.95	0.43
Economic	3.34	3.43	3.66	3.67	3.80	3.59	2.16	0.07
Technological	3.67	3.83	3.88	3.79	3.81	3.82	0.55	0.70
Cultural	3.32	4.14	3.72	3.74	3.78	3.79	3.80	0.01
Religious	3.71	4.11	3.96	3.96	4.04	3.98	0.95	0.43
UAE								
Political	2.61	2.66	2.70	2.70	2.75	2.69	2.05	0.09
Economic	3.90	3.99	4.11	4.12	4.40	4.08	1.80	0.13
Technological	3.73	3.76	3.90	3.90	4.00	3.86	0.82	0.51
Cultural	3.16	2.91	3.43	3.58	3.26	3.34	4.44	0.00
Religious	3.30	2.78	3.16	2.90	1.89	2.97	2.62	0.04
USA								
Political	3.63	3.61	3.62	3.59	3.57	3.61	0.66	0.62
Economic	4.13	3.93	4.29	4.23	4.16	4.18	3.82	0.00
Technological	4.42	4.38	4.38	4.36	4.53	4.38	0.28	0.89
Cultural	3.54	4.24	3.79	3.70	3.85	3.84	4.08	0.00
Religious	3.83	4.25	4.07	4.05	4.19	4.09	0.75	0.56
Saudi Arabia								
Political	4.38	4.39	4.33	4.30	4.37	4.34	2.61	0.04
Economic	4.10	4.30	4.15	4.17	4.33	4.19	1.14	0.34
Technological	4.17	4.24	4.03	3.98	4.14	4.07	1.28	0.28
Cultural	3.56	2.83	3.56	3.62	3.70	3.43	5.65	0.00
Religious	3.29	2.70	3.11	2.96	2.22	2.96	1.74	0.14

The respondents' occupation had a significant effect on their perceptions about all the dimensions of the COO only in the case of the UAE. On the other hand, it had a significant effect on the political, economic and technological dimensions in the case of Brazil, the economical and cultural dimensions in the case of the USA, and the political, technological, cultural and religion dimensions in the case of Saudi Arabia. Therefore, the hypothesis that *"H8: consumers with different occupations will*

significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin" is strongly supported when the UAE, Saudi Arabia and Brazil are considered as countries of origin and mildly supported when the USA is considered. This result is similar, and consistent with the results obtained in version one of the analysis. It is also consistent with previous research findings that indicated that occupation had been proven to be one of the most important consumers' socioeconomic characteristics affecting their perceptions and attitudes (Chao and Rajendran, 1993).

Table 7.31: ANOVA: Perception about Country of Origin (COO) according to Consumers' Occupations

Country of Origin (COO)	Occupation							Total	F	Sig.
	Home-maker	Teacher/ Professor	Profess-ional/ Manager	Retired/ Not employed	Clerk/ Secretary	Emplo-yee	Student			
Brazil										
Political	1.87	1.95	1.79	1.80	1.91	1.77	1.77	1.84	3.35	0.00
Economic	3.70	3.48	3.43	3.48	3.93	3.47	3.23	3.60	2.24	0.04
Technological	3.95	3.90	3.75	3.73	4.08	3.42	3.57	3.83	4.07	0.00
Cultural	3.88	4.06	3.72	3.77	4.11	3.51	3.43	3.79	1.57	0.16
Religious	4.08	4.31	4.03	3.80	4.17	3.87	3.40	3.98	1.69	0.12
UAE										
Political	2.71	2.71	2.70	2.61	2.78	2.70	2.55	2.69	5.52	0.00
Economic	4.10	4.13	4.09	3.99	4.07	4.40	3.57	4.09	5.11	0.00
Technological	3.95	3.69	3.87	3.77	3.71	3.90	3.40	3.87	2.39	0.03
Cultural	3.35	3.39	2.79	2.97	4.39	3.49	3.57	3.34	2.66	0.02
Religious	2.97	2.25	2.03	2.82	3.33	3.27	3.54	2.96	2.64	0.02
USA										
Political	3.61	3.65	3.59	3.57	3.51	3.61	3.59	3.61	0.69	0.66
Economic	4.24	4.17	4.17	3.96	4.60	4.22	3.82	4.18	2.92	0.01
Technological	4.38	4.54	4.42	4.40	4.54	4.30	4.35	4.38	0.57	0.76
Cultural	3.94	4.14	3.77	3.94	3.78	3.51	3.32	3.84	2.45	0.03
Religious	4.17	4.36	4.05	3.90	4.17	4.07	3.62	4.09	1.21	0.30
Saudi Arabia										
Political	4.36	4.35	4.31	4.32	4.21	4.25	4.34	4.34	2.18	0.04
Economic	4.20	4.17	4.18	4.20	3.93	4.22	4.06	4.19	0.46	0.83
Technological	4.19	4.06	3.94	3.99	3.54	3.78	4.01	4.07	2.28	0.04
Cultural	3.46	3.53	2.69	2.96	3.78	3.60	3.86	3.42	2.60	0.02
Religious	2.97	2.19	2.03	2.69	3.44	3.28	3.63	2.96	3.08	0.01

Unlike the effect of the respondents' income on their perception about the dimensions of chicken branded products from different countries (table 7.29), table 7.32 revealed that the differences in income between the different income groups explained a significant portion of the total variation in the respondents' perceptions about the religion dimension of COO in the case of Brazil, the political, economic, technological and religious dimensions in the case of the UAE, the cultural and

religion dimensions in the case of the USA and the economic, technological and religious dimensions in the case of Saudi Arabia. Variation in consumers' income was found to have a significant effect on their perceptions about the different dimensions of the COO in all the countries of origin considered in version one of the analysis (Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia).

Thus, the hypothesis that ***"H9: consumers with different incomes will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin"*** is validated to a great extent in three cases (USA, UAE and Saudi Arabia) and not validated in one case (Brazil). Although this study reveals only a moderate effect of the consumers' incomes on their perceptions about the dimensions of the COO of branded product, it is still consistent with previous research results that revealed the existence of such relations (Niss, 1996; Wang, 1978; Leonidou et al., 1999; Kaynak et al. 2000).

Table 7.32: ANOVA: Perception about Country of Origin (COO) according to Respondents' Income

Country of Origin (COO)	Income					Total	F	Sig.
	Less than 3000	3000-5999	6000-8999	9000-14999	15000+			
Brazil								
Political	1.82	1.83	1.85	1.83	1.96	1.85	2.10	0.08
Economic	3.61	3.57	3.64	3.56	3.76	3.61	0.40	0.81
Technological	3.82	3.83	3.83	3.65	4.14	3.83	1.67	0.16
Cultural	3.45	3.77	3.87	3.85	3.90	3.78	1.30	0.27
Religious	3.27	4.06	4.12	3.98	3.90	3.97	4.02	0.00
UAE								
Political	2.61	2.67	2.73	2.71	2.68	2.69	3.94	0.00
Economic	3.67	4.09	4.18	4.35	4.01	4.09	6.99	0.00
Technological	3.45	3.88	3.98	4.09	3.65	3.86	4.95	0.00
Cultural	3.35	3.47	3.15	3.25	3.54	3.36	1.44	0.22
Religious	3.31	3.23	2.55	2.89	2.60	2.98	4.00	0.00
USA								
Political	3.59	3.63	3.57	3.57	3.65	3.61	2.17	0.07
Economic	4.29	4.18	4.11	4.11	4.42	4.19	1.46	0.21
Technological	4.38	4.35	4.35	4.39	4.64	4.38	1.81	0.13
Cultural	3.38	3.87	3.87	3.88	4.10	3.83	2.37	0.05
Religious	3.47	4.18	4.15	4.08	4.08	4.08	3.18	0.01
Saudi Arabia								
Political	4.26	4.34	4.35	4.36	4.29	4.33	1.83	0.12
Economic	4.01	4.18	4.31	4.29	3.92	4.19	3.54	0.01
Technological	3.78	4.14	4.10	4.19	3.74	4.07	2.79	0.03
Cultural	3.59	3.58	3.14	3.34	3.56	3.44	2.11	0.08
Religious	3.43	3.19	2.53	2.98	2.43	2.98	4.44	0.00

7.5 Conclusion

In general, the study results revealed that consumers' perceptions about country of origin influence their perceptions about its branded products, but the effect of the different dimensions of the COO on the different dimensions of the branded product differs from one country to another.

While consumers' perceptions about the political background, economic development and technological development of the COO affected their perception about all the dimensions of the branded product from Egypt, Malaysia, Saudi Arabia, the UAE and Brazil, only their perception about the political background of the USA and France influenced their perceptions about some of the dimensions of the branded product from these two countries. This is consistent with the general conclusion that many researchers arrived at, and argues that the country of origin literature has reported conflicting results regarding the importance of the country of origin cue in consumer product evaluations (Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2001; Chao, 2005).

Regarding the overall objective of this study to explore the effects of the Saudi consumers' perception about brands and country of origin on their buying intention, the study results showed that the none of the respondents' perceptions about any of the dimensions of the branded product has an effect on their buying intention of those brands in the case of seven out of the eight countries under consideration.

The only exception was that the reliability, sincerity, packaging and taste dimensions of the branded product have a significant effect on the consumers' buying intention of chicken brand from the UAE. The weak effect of the different dimensions of the branded product concept on the consumers' buying intention of chicken branded product might be attributed to the minor emphasis and limited use of the branded product as information cue in the consumers' buying decision in the case of the chicken as a fast-moving food product (Zinkhan and Martin, 1987; Tse and Gorn, 1993; Miranda and Konya, 2006).

Regarding the effect of the consumers' perception of the different dimensions of the COO on their chicken buying intention, it was found that the political, cultural, and religious dimensions have significant effect on the consumers' chicken buying intention from most of the countries under consideration, whereas the economic and technological dimensions play a very minor role in influencing consumers' chicken

buying intention. This is exactly opposite to the situation of durable goods such as cars automobiles where the technological and economic dimensions play an important role in influencing consumers' buying intention. Thus, the importance of each of the COO dimensions as an information cue in influencing buying decision depends on the type of product.

More specifically, table 7.33 below summarises the results of hypotheses testing for both sub-samples; one and two. For each hypothesis, it indicates whether it is fully supported, partially supported or not supported. In the case where the hypothesis is partially supported, the country/countries in which it supported is/are indicated.

Table 7.33: Summary of HypothesesTesting

#	Objective	Hypothesis	Supported in all countries	Partially supported in	Not supported in all countries
1	**To study the effects of COO and to what extent it affects the chicken buying intention of Saudis, as Muslim consumers who put great emphasis on the religious factor**	H2a: The more positively consumers perceive the political background of a specific country; the higher will be their buying intentions of its products.		Egypt, France, Malaysia, Saudi Arabia (2)	
2		H2b: The more positively consumers perceive the economic development of a specific country; the higher will be their buying intentions of its products.			X
3		H2c: The more positively consumers perceive the technological background of a specific country; the higher will be their buying intentions of its products.		France	
4		H2d: The more positively consumers perceive the national culture of a specific country; the higher will be their buying intentions of its products.		Brazil, UAE and Saudi Arabia (2)	
5		H2e: The more positively consumers perceive the religion of a specific country; the higher will be their buying intentions of its products.		Egypt, Malaysia, UAE	
6	**To study the effects of branded product and to what extent it affects the chicken buying intention of Saudis, as Muslim consumers for whom the religion factor is of special importance.**	H3a: The higher the consumers perceived competence (reliability) of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.		UAE	
7		H3b: The higher the consumers perceive sincerity (friendliness) of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.			X
8		H3c: The higher the consumers perceive the quality of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.			X
9		H3d: The higher the consumers perceive the taste of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.			X

10		H3e: The higher the consumers perceive a branded product's packaging, the higher will be their purchase intention.			X
11	**To study the effects of ethnocentrism and to what extent it affects the Saudi consumers' chicken buying intention**	H4: The higher the ethnocentrism level of the consumers, the lower their purchasing intention decision will be for the imported branded chicken.		USA, Brazil and Saudi Arabia (2)	
12	**To study the relationship between chicken brand parity and chicken branded products**	H5a: The higher the similarity of the competence (reliability) of the major brands, the less positive an image the individual brands will have		Saudi Arabia	
13		H5b: The higher the similarity of the sincerity (friendliness) of the major brands, the less positive an image each brand will have		Egypt, Saudi Arabia (1), Brazil, USA, UAE	
14		H5c: The higher the similarity of the quality of the major brands, the less the positive image of each particular brand will be.		Egypt, Brazil	
15		H5d: The higher the similarity of the taste of the major brands, the less the positive image of each particular brand will be.			X
16		H5e: The higher the similarity of the packaging of the major brands, the less the positive image of each particular brand will be.		Brazil	
17	**To study the effects of the consumers' demographic factors on their perception about branded chicken 's country of origin**	H6: The different age groups of the consumers will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin		Egypt, Saudi Arabia (1), UAE	
18		H7: Consumer groups with different educational levels will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin	X		
19		H8: Consumers with different occupations will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin		All countries except USA	
20		H9: Consumers with different incomes will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin		Egypt, France, Malysia, USA, UAE, and Saudia Arabia,	

Chapter Eight

Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

Chapter Eight outlines the study's main findings and links them to the study objectives and theoretical arguments extracted from literature. In addition, it presents the theoretical, methodological and empirical implications and contributions of the study, the study limitations and recommendations for further research.

8.2 The Findings and Objectives of the Research

The general objective of this study is to examine how the Saudis as Muslim consumers use the Country of Origin (COO) and branded product cues in their chicken buying intention decisions and how their socioeconomic characteristics, ethnocentrism and perception of brand parity affect their perceptions about COO and chicken branded products. Moreover, the study explores the relationship between COO and branded product in the case of chicken in the Saudi setting. The following sections will discuss the study's specific objectives and the study findings, and to what extent they are consistent with previous studies' findings.

8.2.1 The Relationship between the Country of Origin (COO) and the Branded Product

The first objective of this study was to explore the relationship between COO and chicken branded products. The Pearson correlation analysis revealed that the relationship between the consumers' perception about the country and the branded product is positive and statistically significant for three countries (Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia) out of the four countries considered as chicken COO in version one of the analysis, and positive and statistically significant for all of the four countries under consideration in version two of the analysis (the USA, Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia).

Thus, the hypothesis that *"H1: if a country has a positive image, its branded products will also have positive image"* is strongly supported in this study. This is consistent with the mainstream literature in this regard, which has proven the association between consumers' perception about COO and their perception of all different types of products: general, specific, specific brands, and specific types of

products (Nagashima, 1970, 1977; Roth and Romeo, 1992; Paswan and Sharma, 2004; Chao, 2005).

The study examined the effect of the consumers' perceptions about the chicken branded products' country of origin on the image they will have of these branded products in more depth by further examining the level of association between the consumers' perceptions about the different dimensions of product country of origin and their perceptions about the different indicators of the branded product concept.

The results obtained in version one of the analysis indicated that the relationship between the consumers' perceptions about the country of origin's political background, economic development and technological development and all the branded products' construct variables (reliability, sincerity, quality, taste and packaging) is positive and statistically significant in the cases of Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia. Version two of the analysis also revealed the same result in the cases of Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia.

The consumers' perception about the country of origin's political background has a significant positive relationship with the packaging dimension of the branded product in the case of France and a positive and significant relationship with the reliability and sincerity dimensions of the branded product in the case of the USA.

However, while the consumers' perceptions about the country of origin's level of economic and technological development are significantly related to consumers' perception about both the branded product's reliability and packaging in the case of France, they are positively and significantly related to all the variables of the branded product in the case of USA.

Thus, this study showed a significant positive correlation between the consumers' perceptions about the political background, economic development and technological development dimensions of the COO construct and their perceptions of the different dimensions of the chicken branded product from that country.

On the other hand, version one of the analysis indicated that the consumers' perceptions of the cultural background of the product's country of origin is significantly associated with their perception of the product's quality, taste and

packaging in the case of Egypt, while it is significantly associated with all the variables of the branded product construct in the cases of Malaysia and Saudi Arabia.

In the case of France, the consumers' perceptions about the country of origin's cultural background are positively and significantly related to their perception about chicken branded product's packaging. Version two of the analysis showed that the consumers' perception about the product country of origin's cultural background is not significantly associated with any of the dimensions of the branded product construct in the case of the UAE and significantly associated only with the consumers' perception about the product packaging in the cases of the USA and Brazil, and that it is significantly associated with all the variables of the branded product construct in the case of Saudi Arabia.

Moreover, the consumers' perception about the religious background of the product's country of origin is only significantly associated with their perception about the product packaging in the case of Egypt, while it is significantly associated with all the variables of the branded product construct in the cases of Malaysia and Saudi Arabia. In the case of France, the consumers' perceptions about the country of origin's religious background are significantly related to their perception about the branded product's packaging. That may be because of the importance of the information on the package which could clarify whether the product has been produced according to Islamic law *(Halal issue, see Appendix B for details).*

Version two of the analysis revealed that the consumers' perception about the religious background of the product's country of origin is only significantly associated with their perceptions about the product packaging in the case of the USA, while it is significantly associated with the reliability and sincerity dimensions of the branded product construct in the cases of Brazil and the UAE. In the case of Saudi Arabia, the consumers' perceptions about the country of origin's religion are not significantly related to their perception about any of branded product's dimensions.

Thus, the relationship between consumers' perceptions of the cultural and religious background dimensions of the COO and their perceptions of the different dimensions of its branded product is not conclusive and reflects the complexity and uniqueness of the effect of cultural and religious factors on consumers' perceptions about branded product of food items in the Muslim world. This is consistent with certain

studies that argued that there are different levels of COO effects for the different types of products and the extent of the country of origin effect is related to specific product attributes (Han and Terpstra, 1988; Baker and Ballington, 2002) and with the general conclusion that although the research on country of origin has made significant theoretical and practical contributions, yet the country of origin literature has reported conflicting results regarding importance of the country of origin cue in consumer product evaluations (Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2001; Chao, 2005).

In accordance with this, it has been argued that the findings of the country of origin effect research are only somewhat generalisable, and caution should be exercised in generalising the results of country of origin effect across all product categories, as the product category is a salient factor in product country of origin evaluations (Kaynak and Kara, 2001; Bandyopadhyay, 2001).

In the Muslim world, the situation is more complicated, as consumers' perception about food products is determined by religious beliefs and values that make them critical about many practices related to food production and preparation, even in some Muslim countries. Moreover, consumers have recently become very sensitive to and concerned about the chemicals in the form of fertilisers, pesticides, and growth hormones etc. that are used to produce food products. This might lead consumers to form negative attitudes about food products that are produced in a country that is not known for having the natural agricultural resources and environment to produce such products regardless of their perception about that country.

8.2.2 Effect of COO on Buying Intention

The first objective of the study was to explore the effects of COO on the chicken buying intention of Saudis, as Muslim consumers. To gain a deep understanding of how the affects consumers' chicken buying intention, the effect of their perceptions about the different dimensions of the COO construct was examined separately and the results were as follows:

8.2.2.1 Political Background

The results of the analysis of the first data subset (version one of the analysis) where Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia were presented to the respondents as

countries of origin for chicken, revealed a statistically significant effect of their perceptions about the political background of the four countries on their buying intention of the chicken branded products produced in them. However, this effect was positive in the cases of Egypt, France and Malaysia, but negative in the case of Saudi Arabia.

On the other hand, results of version two of the analysis where Brazil, the USA, the UAE and Saudi Arabia were presented to the respondents as countries of origin of chicken revealed that consumers' perceptions about the political background of these countries had a statistically significant effect on their buying intention of the chicken branded products produced in them only in the case of Saudi Arabia, and its regression coefficient is positive.

Therefore, the hypothesis arguing that ***"H2a: the more positively consumers perceive the political background of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products"*** is supported in four cases (Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia) out of the seven countries included in the study. However, the effect of the consumers' perception about their own country's political background needs further investigation, as it is not conclusive in this study.

8.2.2.2 Economic Development

Version one of the analysis, where Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia were considered as COO of chicken branded product, indicated that the consumers' perception about the economic development of the country of origin had a statistically significant effect on their buying intention only in the case of France. Unexpectedly, this effect was negative.

Similarly, version two of the analysis showed no statistically significant effect of the consumers' perception about the economic development of the country of origin on their buying intention except in the case of the USA. As was the case with France, unexpectedly, this effect was negative. This could be attributed to the fact that although the respondents perceived France and USA as economically developed countries, they were not enthusiastic about buying their chicken products because of the concern they had about the way the chicken is slaughtered and whether it was acceptable from the Islamic point of view.

Therefore, the hypothesis that ***"H2b: the more positively consumers perceive the economic development of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products "*** is not supported in this study.

8.2.2.3 Technological Background

Analysis of the data obtained from the study's first sub-sample to whom Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia were presented as COO of chicken branded product, showed a statistically significant effect of the consumers' perception about the country of origin's technological background on their buying intention of the chicken branded products in the cases of France and Malaysia. This effect was positive in the case of France and negative in the case of Malaysia. Furthermore, no statistically significant effect of the consumers' perception about the country of origin's technological background on their buying intention of the chicken branded product was found for any of the countries considered in version two of the analysis (Brazil, USA, UAE and Saudi Arabia).

Thus, the thesis that ***"H2c: the more positively consumers perceive the technological background of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products"*** is supported only in one case (France) out of the seven countries under consideration in this study.

8.2.2.4 Cultural Background

Regarding the effect of the consumers' attitude towards the cultural dimension of the country of origin construct on their buying intention, version one of the analysis revealed that it is statistically significant only in the case of Egypt and, unexpectedly, this effect is negative.

On the other hand, it is found to be positive and statistically significant in the cases of Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia in version two of the analysis.

Thus, the hypothesis that ***"H2d: the more positively consumers perceive the national culture of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products"*** is supported in three cases (Brazil, the UAE and Saudi Arabia) of the seven countries considered in this study.

8.2.2.5 Religious Background

The results obtained in version one of the analysis reflected the fact that the consumers' perception about the religious background of the country of origin had a significant effect on their buying intention of the country's chicken products in the case of Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia. As expected, this effect was positive in the cases of Egypt and Malaysia, but it was unexpectedly negative in the case of Saudi Arabia.

On the other hand, version two of the analysis revealed a statistically significant effect of the consumers' perception about the religious background of the country of origin and their buying intention of the country's chicken branded products in the cases of the UAE and Saudi Arabia. As expected, this effect was positive in the case of UAE, but also and unexpectedly, as it was in version one of the analysis, it was negative in the case of Saudi Arabia.

Therefore, the hypothesis that states that *"H2e: the more positively consumers perceive the religion of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products"* is supported in the cases of Egypt, Malaysia and the UAE.

Generally speaking, the results regarding the relationship between consumers' perception about COO of chicken branded products and their chicken buying intentions were consistent with the literature which proved the existence of the effect of consumers' perception about the COO on their evaluation and buying intention of its products (Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2000; Cai et al. 2004).

Furthermore, these results supported the argument that the nature and strength of this effect depends on the product category (Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983; Ettenson et al, 1988; Han and Terpstra, 1988; Hong and Wyer, 1989; Wall et al, 1991) and suggested that in the case of food products of animal origin the political background, cultural background and religious background were the most important dimensions of the COO construct for Muslim consumers. The political actions of a specific country can be interpreted by a Muslim population as the country siding with or against it, which could consequently lead to either buying or not buying that country's products. A good example of this can be seen in the context of the cartoons

which were drawn in Denmark and published in several newspapers, leading to a sharp drop in the sales of imported products from Denmark in many Muslim countries. The religious factor, which is part of culture, has proven to be a very important factor reflecting the importance of the *Halal* issue in Muslim countries, as has been discussed in the previous chapters.

8.2.3 Effect of Branded Product on Buying Intention

The second objective of the study was to explore the effects of consumers' perception about branded product and to what extent it affects the Saudi consumers' chicken buying intention. Again, to gain a deeper understanding of how branded product affects consumers' chicken buying intention, the effect of their perception about the different dimensions of the branded product construct is examined separately and the results are as follows:

8.2.3.1 Branded Product Reliability

The results obtained in version one of the analysis revealed that consumers' perception about the reliability of the chicken branded product had a significant effect on their buying intention in the cases of France and Saudi Arabia. Unexpectedly, this effect was negative in both countries.

On the other hand, version two of the analysis indicated that the consumers' perception about the reliability of the chicken branded product had a significant effect on their buying intention only in the case of the UAE and as expected, it was positive.

Therefore, the hypothesis that *"H3a: the higher the consumers perceived competence (reliability) of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention"* is supported only in one case, that of the UAE, in this study.

8.2.3.2 Branded Product Sincerity

Version one of the analysis indicated that the consumers' perception about chicken branded product sincerity had a negative significant effect on their chicken buying intention in the cases of Egypt, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia. Similarly, version two of the analysis indicated a significant negative effect of the consumers' perception

about chicken branded product sincerity on their chicken buying intention in the case of the UAE.

Thus, the hypothesis that ***"H3b: The higher the consumers perceived sincerity (friendliness) of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention"*** is not supported in this study.

8.2.3.3 Branded Product Quality

The results of version one of the analysis indicated that the quality variable of the branded product construct had a statistically significant negative effect on the consumers' buying intention of chicken products from Egypt and Saudi Arabia. Moreover, the respondents' perception about the quality dimension of the branded product concept had, statistically, no significant effect on their buying intention of the chicken branded product from any of the countries under consideration in version two of the analysis (Brazil, the USA, the UAE and Saudi Arabia).

Therefore, the hypothesis that ***"H3c: The higher the consumers perceived the quality of branded products the higher will be their purchase intention"*** is not supported at all in this study.

8.2.3.4 Branded Product Taste

Analysis of the data obtained from the sub-sample to which Egypt, France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia were presented as COO of chicken branded products showed that the consumers' attitude towards the branded product taste had a significant negative effect on their chicken buying intention only in the case of Egypt.

Similarly, version two of the analysis revealed that the consumers' attitude towards the branded product taste had significant negative effect on their chicken buying intention only in the case of the USA.

Consequently, the hypothesis that ***"H3d: The higher the consumers perceived the taste of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention"*** is not supported.

8.2.3.5 Branded Product Packaging

The packaging dimension of the branded product concept had a statistically significant negative effect on the consumers' chicken buying intention of the branded product in three cases (France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia) of the four countries considered as chicken COO in the first version of the analysis.

On the other hand, consumers' perception about the branded product packaging had a significant negative effect on their chicken buying intention only in the case of the UAE in version two of the analysis.

Therefore, the hypothesis that *"H3e: The higher the consumers perceived a branded product packaging, the higher will be their purchase intention"* is not supported.

Therefore, none of the hypotheses indicating the expected relationships between the consumers' perceptions about and attitudes towards the different dimensions of the branded product and their buying intention of the branded product is supported in this study. This is consistent with the conclusion reached by some researchers that consumers put minor emphasis on and have limited use of the branded product as information cue in their buying decision in the case of fast-moving food products such as chicken (Zinkhan and Martin, 1987; Tse and Gorn, 1993; Miranda and Konya, 2006).

8.2.4 Effect of Ethnocentrism on Buying Intention

The fourth objective of this study was to explore the effects of ethnocentrism and to what extent it affects Saudi consumers' chicken buying intention. Version one of the analysis indicated that the respondents' ethnocentrism had a statistically significant effect on their buying intention in the cases of France and Malaysia. Unexpectedly, this effect was positive, which is contrary to the hypothesis that the higher the level of the consumers' ethnocentrism, the lower their buying intention of imported branded chicken. Again, this may be attributed to the complicated nature of the factors and concerns that influence Muslim consumers' buying decisions in the case of food products in general and those of animal origin in particular.

On the other hand, version two of the analysis indicated that the respondents' ethnocentrism had a statistically significant effect on their buying intention in the

cases of USA, Brazil and Saudi Arabia. As expected, this effect was positive in the case of Saudi Arabia and negative in the cases of the USA and Brazil. This supports the hypothesis that *"H4: the higher the ethnocentrism level of the consumers, the lower their buying intention will be for the imported branded chicken"*. This result is in line with previous research which has revealed that consumers have a tendency to evaluate their own country's products more favourably than do foreigners and in general, irrespective of nationality, place of residence and ethnic background, consumers prefer to purchase locally-produced products (Nagashima, 1970 and 1977; Gaedeke, 1973; Lillis and Narayane 1974; Bannister and Saunders, 1978; Kaynak and Kara, 2001; Orth and Firbasova, 2003; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004).

8.2.5 The Relationship between Brand Parity and Branded Product

The fifth objective of the study was to explore the relationship between chicken brand parity and chicken branded product. Version one of the analysis indicated that the reliability variable of the brand parity construct had a significant effect on the respondents' perception of the chicken branded product, in the cases of France, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia. This effect was positive in the cases of France and Malaysia and negative in the case of Saudi Arabia. In version two of the analysis it was found that the reliability variable of the brand parity construct had a significant effect on the respondents' perception of the branded product only in the case of Brazil, where it had a positive and significant regression coefficient.

Thus, in this study the hypothesis that *"H5a: the higher the similarity of the competence (reliability) of the major brands, the less positive an image the individual brands will have"* is only supported in the case of Saudi Arabia. On the contrary, in the cases of France and Malaysia, it was found that the higher the similarity of the reliability indicator of the major brands, the more positive an image the branded product from those countries had.

On the other hand, the sincerity variable of the brand parity concept had a significant but negative effect on the consumers' perception about the branded product in the cases of Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Brazil, USA and the UAE. Thus, the hypothesis that *"H5b: the higher the similarity of the sincerity (friendliness) of the major brands,*

the less positive an image each brand will have" is supported in five cases out of the eight cases considered in this study.

Moreover, the quality dimension of the brand parity concept had a significant negative effect on the consumers' perception about the branded product in the cases of Egypt and Brazil. Therefore, the hypothesis that *"H5c: The higher the similarity of the quality of the major brands, the less the positive image of each particular brand will be"* is supported in only two cases.

Furthermore, the hypothesis related to the relationship between the taste variable of the brand parity construct and the branded product is not supported in this study. This may assist in understanding the reason behind the surprisingly scarcity of research on the product level brand parity and its effect on consumers' perceptions about brand (Iyer and Muncy, 2005).

Finally, the packaging dimension of the brand parity concept had a significant negative effect on the consumers' perception about the branded product in the case of Brazil. Therefore, the hypothesis that *"H5e: The higher the similarity of the packaging of the major brands, the less the positive image of each particular brand will be"* is only supported in one case (Brazil) out of the eight cases under consideration.

8.2.6 The effects of the consumers' demographic characteristics on their perceptions about Country of Origin (COO)

Another objective of this study was to explore the effects of the consumers' demographic factors on their perceptions about chicken country of origin of branded products.

The results obtained in both versions one and two of this study indicated that the respondents' age had a significant effect on their perception about the country of origin of chicken branded products in three cases (Egypt, Saudi Arabia (1) and the UAE) out of the eight cases.

Hence, the hypothesis that *"H6: the different age groups of the consumers will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin"* is mildly supported. This result is not fully consistent with the mainstream literature which argues that consumers' perception about products from different countries depends

on their age, as young consumers tend to be internationally-minded, display a lower level of prejudice towards foreign products and are less likely to be nationalistic (Tongberg, 1972; Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Hett, 1993; Rawwas et al. 1996; Leonidou et al., 1999; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001; Ozretic-Dosen et al. 2007). However, it emphasizes the inconclusiveness of the literature in this regard, since other studies have argued that the relationship between consumers' age and perception about COO other than their own country is positive and that older people tended to evaluate foreign products more highly than did younger persons (Schooler, 1971; Tongberg, 1972).

This study suggests that consumers' age has a weak effect on their perception about the COO of food products of animal origin. This necessitates examining the relationship between consumers' age and attitude towards each of the COO dimensions (political, technological, cultural and religious).

As both income and occupation are to some extent related to education, the hypothesis that *"H7: consumer groups with different educational levels will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin"* is supported in all cases of the eight countries under consideration. This is generally consistent with previous literature which recommended that particular attention should be paid to the role of education in explaining differences in consumers' perceptions about COO (Samiee, 1994; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001)

A significant effect of the respondents' occupation on their perceptions about the country of origin of chicken branded products has been documented in both versions of the analysis. Therefore, the hypothesis that *"H8: consumers with different occupations will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin"* is supported. As occupation and income are somewhat related, this result is logical, as it is consistent with the depicted effect of the consumers' income on their perceptions about COO. Furthermore, it is consistent with previous research findings indicating that occupation has been proven to be one of the socioeconomic characteristics of consumers that have the greatest effect their perceptions and attitudes (Chao and Rajendran, 1993).

Unlike the effect of the respondents' income on their perception about the chicken branded product, this study revealed that the differences in income between the

different consumers' income groups explained a significant part of the total variation in their perceptions about COO in six countries out of the eight considered as chicken COO products from different countries. Thus, the hypothesis that *"H9: consumers with different incomes will significantly differ in the way they perceive the country of origin "* is validated. This is consistent with previous research results that revealed the existence of such a relation (Wang, 1978; Niss, 1996; Leonidou et al. 1999; Kaynak et al. 2000).

8.3 The study's theoretical and methodological implications

The study has several theoretical implications; *first* there have been different findings for the different countries in the study that affect the level of support of the different hypotheses:

1- The number of countries was increased with the intention of making the findings more generalizable.

2- According to focus group participants, there were a great many countries included in one questionnaire.

3- Two versions of the questionnaires were used, with 3 different countries in each and including Saudi Arabia as a fourth country in both.

4- The findings of the different countries varied from country to country, making generalization of the findings difficult.

It can therefore be assumed that the hypothesis may be supported with one country, but not with other/s. This means that it is not acceptable to generalize the findings, and further study for each country is necessary to find the real effect of each country. The different product categories also affect the level of the COO effect which again means that the findings of any study for a specific product cannot be applied to other product category.

Second, in addition to its confirmation of the effect of COO on buying intentions, the study has revealed that the different dimensions of the COO construct are not of equal importance and have different effects on Saudi consumers' buying intentions in the case of chicken products. The political and religious dimensions proved to be of paramount importance compared to the other dimensions of the COO construct. The relatively high importance of the political dimension is expected to hold for all types

of products and for all consumers. This dimension is not related to the product type, which makes it a very important dimension in any product category. Accordingly, it is recommended that the political factor be included in any future conceptualization for COO regardless of the product category.

On the other hand, it is to be expected that the relatively high importance of the religious dimension of the COO construct as an information cue influencing consumers' buying intention would be specific to Muslim consumers and food products of animal origin. This makes the religious dimension a very important factor to be considered in conceptualizing the COO in any Muslim country for products of animal origin product, although this dimension may have little or no importance in a non-Muslim country or for a different product category in a Muslim country.

The economical development dimension was not supported as factor that may affect the buying intention of the specific product chicken in Saudi Arabia. This may be related to the type of the product not being known as one that needs to be produced in a country that has a positive economic development. This implies that the consideration of this factor in any conceptualization very much dependent on the different countries included in the study. If all the countries are Muslim, then this factor may have an effect, but in countries with a different religious background, the importance of this factor is greatly diminished.

In the case of durable goods such as cars, it is most likely that the level of technological development would be the most important dimension of the COO construct to influence consumers' buying intention. This implies that future research on the COO effect on consumers' buying intention should consider each dimension separately, and that COO should not be treated as an aggregate construct so as to determine which dimensions are more important for what type of products and for whom.

The cultural dimension has an effect on buying intention which is again related to the product type and which may tie into the importance of the religious factor. This factor may require to be taken into consideration in any conceptualization of COO, and other product categories are required to test the importance of this factor for any specific product category.

In conclusion, the different dimensions which conceptualize COO need to be tested in a qualitative study before conducting a quantitative study in order to ensure that the specific dimensions really reflect the effect of COO on that specific product category for any specific culture.

Thirdly, although the study is consistent with previous literature in reflecting the minor importance of the branded product as an information cue influencing consumers' buying intention of chicken, which belongs to the fast-moving food category, focussed group discussion sessions revealed that the concept of "*Halal* Food" is important for the respondents. Therefore, the need for considering the "*Halal* Food" issue in the case of food products of animal origin is very apparent in this study and this suggests that the quality dimension of the branded product should be broadened to include the notion of "*Halal* Food" in the case of food products of animal origin and Muslim consumers.

In conclusion, the effect of the branded product on consumer buying intention for any product is very much affected by the product category; for instance, a study of the brand effect on buying intention could have a different level of effect on branded clothes than branded chicken. This again implies the importance of the product category in studying the different factors that may affect the consumer buying intention.

Fourthly, the study has suggested that the consumers' demographic characteristics have an effect on their perception about COO, which is highly consistent with many previous studies and again shows the importance of considering the participants' profiles for any future studies. Conducting a study with university students or professionals only could be misleading. A profile of the sample which really reflects the population of the study is an important consideration in attempting to discover the true effects of any factors in buying intention.

Fifth, the study has proven that most of the findings on COO and branded product can be generalized to the Muslim world and food products. Nonetheless, great caution should be taken in generalizing the findings. The *Halal* issue is not involved in all food products in Muslim countries; for example, fish may be eaten without any consideration of how it has been killed or processed.

Sixth, the study revealed that consumers' perception about brand parity in the case of chicken as a fast-moving food product had no influence on their purchasing intention. This implies that there is a need for further research and explains the scarcity of previous research in this area. While brand parity has been shown to be of no importance for chicken products in a Saudi context, in a different product category, it is possible that brand parity could have an effect on how consumers perceive the branded products.

Moreover, the study has the following methodological implications:

1. The study has proven the complementary nature and usefulness of using qualitative and quantitative research methods. Qualitative techniques such as interviews with key informants and focused group discussion can guide questionnaire design and provide more insight in quantitative data. The qualitative research proved to be very important in conceptualizing the COO and branded product construct, and it is therefore recommended that this mixed method be a standard process for any future studies. The study has adapted different scales that had been used in different cultures, and applied those scales to the chicken branded product and applied them in the Saudi setting, which will assist in using these adapted scales in similar settings. Taking the existing scales and adapting them to a different culture is strong contribution to the scales and will assist future researchers to apply well tested scales, which makes those scales more reliable for future studies.

8.4 The study's contributions

8.4.1 The Conceptual Contributions

The COO conceptualisation is adapted to include culture and the religion to fit this study's product and country. This is an original contribution of this study. As been discussed in the previous section, COO conceptualisation is a very important factor in the measurement of the effect of COO on buying intention. Different cultures and different product categories will require a different conceptualization approach. For a conservative Muslim culture such as Saudi Arabia and for products of animal origin, there are two very important dimensions in the conceptualisation of COO, i.e. religion and culture.

Thus, conceptualisation is a crucial process to ensure that measurement and analysis of the effects of the underconsideration concepts are carried out appropriately. Any error in this process could lead to a different effect, which in turn could give a misleading finding and conclusion. The process that has been followed to modify the conceptualisation of the COO in this research is a reasonably reliable process, which may be followed in future research.

The branded product conceptualisation being modified to include the brand as a person and the brand as a product is another contribution. Most previous studies used the tangible features of the product to conceptualize the branded product. To capture both dimensions of the brand it is necessary to conceptualise the branded product in both dimensions: the brand as a person, which covers the emotional aspect of the brand, and the brand as a product, to cover the tangible aspect of the product.

The emotional aspect will capture how consumers perceive the brand as a person that has personal features. The tangible aspect will capture the product's tangible features; both dimensions will vary from product category to product category and from culture to culture. On example of this is packaging, which is considered by the focus group as important for a product like chicken; however, it would not be considered at all for a car. Another example is taste, which can be used to conceptualise a food product, but not perfume.

This study has studied the joint effect of the COO and the branded product for a specific product category, rather than studying each of them separately. Most previous studies have studied the product COO effect as a single construct, rather than studying it together with the effect of the brand of the product, and this may not give the real effect of the construct. The brand of the product usually has an effect on the buying intention together with the effect of the COO. The level of this effect changes according to the product category and the country of the study. The origin of a T.V. is important, but its brand could well be more important, so studying the joint effect of the COO and brand of a food product is a genuine contribution of this study.

The effect of COO could be stronger if studied alone, but if it is studied with brand it is most likely that its effect will be weaker. Branded product could significantly affect the buying intention for chicken if it was the only construct studied in the

research. However, studying it together with COO has made it unaffected and it has been proven that studying both constructs jointly was an appropriate decision.

The brand parity has been conceptualised in a way that is different from the approach used traditionally. The conceptualisation of the brand parity used a combination of the factors that had previously been employed to conceptualise the branded product, i.e. those which cover both the product as a person and the product as a product. This means that a comparison of the branded products in the specific product category is not applied to the brands in general, but instead the comparison between the brands will use the different factors that conceptualise the brand.

Measuring the brand parity for every dimension separately will reveal if the all the brands are similar, or if only some of the factors that conceptualise it are so. This will be of great assistance for future studies of the same branded products.

8.4.2 The Methodological Contributions

The process of using focus groups and surveys in a complementary manner is a contribution that revealed the usefulness of the approach of using a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches, and it is one that could be followed in any future research.

The focus group is an important tool of the qualitative approach that is useful for exploring and understanding complicated issues in greater depth, and yet it had never, to the best of researcher's knowledge, been applied before in the conservative Saudi conservative society in any previous study. This approach has been applied in this study and can be considered as one of the study's contributions towards research methodology that can be used in the Saudi setting. Approaching women and obtaining their feedback is not something can be done easily in the Saudi setting. Moreover, having male respondents fill in the questionnaire (as has been done by previous researchers in Saudia) could be misleading, as some previous studies have shown that 85% of decision making on whole chicken buying is done by women and most of the remaining 15% is doen by various institutions rather than regular consumers.

In a conservative society like Saudi Arabia, meeting and talking to women is not acceptable except under very strict conditions. Setting up a focus group is therefore

no easy task, particularly if the participants should truly represent the population. The importance of a focus group in forming the factor that conceptualised the main construct of the research encouraged the researcher to conduct the focus group. That focus group in this research is therefore a true methodological contribution.

Based on the scales used in previous research, this study has constructed a modified scale for the COO construct that is appropriate for studies dealing with food products in Muslim counties. Developing scales is a very long and complicated process; in this research, the approach was to apply existing scales that had been developed and tested in different cultures.

Those scales could not be applied as such in different cultures and to different product categories, and therefore a very through process was undertaken to adapt the scales to fit this specific product and specific culture. The scales have been tested in this study and found to be reliable, and can therefore be used in the Saudi setting for food products.

The process of adapting the scales, as explained in the research methodology section, is a proven contribution that can be used by future studies as a justification for and logical approach to the adaptation of scales to suit different cultures. The process is lengthy and time-consuming, but it is nonetheless important for arriving at a reliable and valid scale that can be used in different cultures.

The branded product scale that includes both the brand as a product and the brand as a person is another contribution of this study. As part of the process of adapting the scales, the branded product scales were thoroughly adapted to cover both dimensions of the branded product conceptualisation, brand as a person and brand as a product. The scales were also tested and found to be sufficiently reliable to be used in future studies.

The approaches that have been used are, in principle, similar to those that have been used in Western settings, and their fundamentals originated mainly in such settings. However, using them in different cultures should be done with caution and modifications should be made in order for them to fit the culture in which they will be applied.

What has been done in this research could serve as a guideline for the application of different methodological approaches, including the scales, in different cultures; the success of applying Western methodology in a different culture is a contribution of this study.

8.5 The study's policy and empirical implications

Empirically, the study has the following implications:

The different findings for the different countries which were studied should be considered by policy makers in the government, importers, local producers, and foreign exporters. It has been found that any experience with a product category cannot be generalised and applied to a different product category unless it is studied before any decision is taken. In addition, any experience with a branded product that comes from a specific country cannot be applied in another country before it has been tested.

The significant effect of the consumers' perception about the political background of the COO on their buying intentions suggests that producers who are selling their products in international markets should closely observe and pay attention to their country's political relations with the countries that represent markets for their products, as these relations will have great bearing on their share in those markets. The policy makers of importing companies should consider the political background of any country from which they may import products and which may affect the consumers' buying intention. The quality, brand and other aspects could be excellent, but with a negative perception of the country's political background, the product could fail in the market.

Even though economical development has been widely found to be an important factor to consider when measuring the COO effect, this may not be the case with all product categories. Foreign exporters of meat to Saudi Arabia should consider other related factors such as religion rather than the economic development of their own country. Producers of food products of animal origin who are targeting Muslim countries in general and Saudi Arabia in particular, as markets for their products should pay close attention to what constitutes "*halal food*" for Muslim consumers. Making sure that the local consumers know that they follow the Islamic rules for

killing animals is much more important than the positive economic development of their countries.

On the other hand, technological background proved to be of minor importance in the chicken as branded product to be sold in Saudi market. This implies that an advertisement for a branded chicken emphasising that it is produced in a very technically advanced way is not likely to have a strong impact on consumers. The other related issues, such as the political background of the country where it is produced, are much more important. The marketing strategies and advertisements for such products could put more emphasis on their brands than on their COO. Those findings should be considered by all government policy makers, importers, local producers, and foreign producers who wish to sell their products in the Saudi market.

The policy makers should also consider the cultural background of any county with which they plan to have a business relationship. In this respect, local producers have an advantage, as they have a better knowledge of the cultural background of the country and know how it should be dealt with. In contrast, foreign companies who wish to export to the Saudi market have not only to acquire knowledge of the Saudi culture, but also find out how Saudi consumers perceive the cultural background of the company's country. Such knowledge will assist them in formulating their market penetration strategy.

International poultry producers who are intending to export their products to a Muslim country, specifically Saudi Arabia, should be aware that brand is not a very important issue in the Saudi market. Instead, they should be sure that they produce their chicken according to the *halal* concept and make sure that they communicate this well to the Saudi consumers. Here again, local producers may gain an advantage if they place strong emphasis in their market communications on the fact that they are local therefore are certain to apply Islamic law. Good market penetration for a foreign company may be gained through producing their products either in Saudi Arabia or in another Muslim country to make sure that Saudi consumers perceive their products as *halal*. Then other issues such as their brand name could be useful to them. A very strong brand name with good economic development and technological background may not be sufficient for foreign producers to capture a good market share.

Local poultry producers should take advantage of the relatively high level of ethnocentrism of Saudi consumers and their confidence in locally-produced chicken as a *Halal* product. On the other hand, international producers should not raise the issue of the product being imported for the same reasons. The Saudi government could also benefit form that by encouraging foreign companies to invest in the local market instead of producing abroad and exporting to the Saudi market.

The marketing policy makers for all local and foreign organisations should consider the various consumer profiles. As part of their marketing strategy, they should find out which of the demographic factors affect consumers most and the tailor the marketing strategy to fit those factors.

8.6 The Study Limitations

1. The scales used for COO have relatively low reliability and that is consistent with the reliability of scales in the literature. Scales with higher reliability could give more reliable data and a better study outcome. The ability of the scales to measure the construct is an essential factor in having highly reliable findings. It follows, then, that a lack of highly reliable COO scales could give misleading findings.

2. The conceptualisation of COO requires improvement. Papu's (2007) conceptualization approach which covers both the macro and micro factors of any country could be a good approach to take in order to improve the COO conceptualisation approach. Certain researchers have used the product characteristics approach to conceptualise the COO construct, while others have used the country characteristics approach. There is great debate as to which is more appropriate. A more reasonable approach could be to have both dimensions, i.e. product and country characteristics, to measure such an important construct. Papu (2007) developed a very reasonable approach to the conceptualisation of the COO construct in which he had a macro dimension and a micro dimension. If this research were to be conducted today, it would follow Papu's (2007) conceptualisation approach.

3. The scarcity of studies of COO effects on food as a product and in Saudi Arabia as a country is a major limitation in this study. Without such studies,

literature that could be used to support the arguments or to compare the findings with was a great lack in conducting this study.

4. The lack of studies on the effect of the religious factor as an important factor in a conservative Muslim country such as Saudi Arabia is another limitation of this study. The arguments concerning this factor relied mainly on the exploratory study and focus group findings, but insufficient literature on this issue was found to support these arguments.

5. One of the main limitations is the difficulty the researcher experienced in gaining access to the executives in the preliminary exploratory study. The conservative culture in Saudi Arabia renders the task of obtaining information from main producers a difficult one.

6. The focus group is also a limitation in such a conservative country, especially when the participants are women, as was the case in this research. Gaining access to women participants and making them feel at ease in order to elicit a good response from them is a serious limitation in this research.

8.7 Recommendations for further studies

This study clearly suggests the need for further research in the following areas:

1. The differential relevance and importance of the different dimensions of the COO and branded product constructs for different products and different consumers. The conclusions that the political dimension is important for all products and all consumers, the religion dimension is more important for Muslim consumers and food products of animal origin, and the technological dimension is more important in the case of durable goods, need further examination.

   The generalisation of the outcome of any COO effect study should be made with caution, and although there are a huge number of studies of COO effect, many more such studies are still required in order to help to generalise the findings of those studies.

2. Methodologically, the use of more comprehensive analytical models, such as path analysis and liseral models, that will trace the causal mechanisms and

relationships between the different cues and variables that affect consumers buying intention and behaviour is needed in order to be able to approach reality and provide sound recommendations for marketing policy and strategy.

The difference in findings concerning the COO effect of the various countries in this study shows the importance of conducting a further study for each county separately in order to find and trace the causal mechanisms and relationships.

3. A full re-modelling for the research model utilised in this study is suggested for future research to discover the most important factors affecting consumers' buying intention of chicken as branded product in Saudi Arabia.

   Such re-modelling will greatly assist in finding what factors truly affect consumers' buying intentions, and it is therefore highly recommended in the light of this study.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A : The Agriculture Industry & Poultry Industry Characteristics of Saudi Arabia (A Country Profile)

KSA: Country Profile

There will follow a full description about the country, its agricultural and industrial potency, and its tendencies for export and import, especially of poultry products. The shortage of information about Saudi Arabia in the academic literature is obvious and this makes it reasonable to present a comprehensive socio-cultural picture of the country in order to understand its consumer psychology and business propensities. The section also analyses in detail, the scope and requirement of the poultry industry and the related agriculture industry in the kingdom. The country imports agricultural products and is one of the twenty largest importers of agri-food. This specifies the growing needs of its people and the demands of a growing consumer market that predicts a healthy atmosphere for the establishment of agriculture based industries – in this case the poultry industry.

Although Saudi Arabia's land area contains less than 2% arable land, the country's government has substantial plans for the future of the agriculture sector, which comprises less than 4% of the country's GDP and employs 12% of the workforce.

The consumption of chicken meat and eggs continues to be the most competitive source of animal protein in KSA while the kingdom ranks among the world's top ten countries in terms of per capita consumption of poultry products, which reached nearly 38 KG/capita in 2005.

Estimates for the total poultry meat supply in Saudi Arabia for 2007 reached 1.029 million ton. Nearly 56% of the total market demand is met by domestic production and foreign producers supply the remaining 44%. Main suppliers include Brazil and France.

The Saudi government encourages the establishment of new poultry farms and the expansion of existing ones in order to attain the maximum possible self-sufficiency level in broiler meat production.

The domestic production of poultry is located in various regions around Saudi Arabia, with the highest concentration in Makkah region in the west and Riyadh and Qassim areas in the central part of the country.

Local producers and importers of poultry meat utilize an extensive infrastructure for poultry products distribution, achieving a high percentage of coverage through a wide network of wholesale and retail outlets.

All poultry products sold in Saudi Arabia are "halal" products, which are in full compliance with the Islamic law and satisfy the lawful food conditions.

The main categories of poultry products offered in the Saudi market include frozen, fresh and live chicken. These are sold in the form of whole chicken, chicken parts or value-added products.

Chicken has been chosen for this study for its highest consumption in Saudi Arabia according to the last study of Alwatania Poultry (2005). In addition, chicken has the lowest price in Saudi Arabia compared to other items. It is available in the market, almost, in every outlet. Saudi Arabia has well-developed local producers equipped with latest technology and systems for poultry business.

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the Need for the Poultry Industry:

Saudi Arabia's economy is petroleum-based; roughly 75% of budget revenues and 90% of export earnings come from the oil industry. The oil industry comprises about 45% of Saudi Arabia's gross domestic product, compared with 40% from the private sector. Saudi Arabia has claimed to be in possession of around 260 billion barrels of oil reserves (about 24% of the world's proven total petroleum reserves) as of 2003. Moreover, according to the Saudi government, the proven reserves increase gradually as more oil fields are discovered, unlike most other oil-producing countries. It must be noted, however, that, those figures have been contested and that Saudi Arabia's actual reserves may be notably lower. Saudi Arabia was a key player in the successful efforts of OPEC and other oil producing countries to raise the price of oil in 1999 to its highest level since the Gulf War by reducing production.

Saudi Arabia has a robust economy that experienced rapid growth from 2003 to 2005 but remains largely dependent on the production and exportation of oil. Saudi Arabia produces more oil and natural gas liquids than any other country in the world. The Saudi Arabia Oil Company (Saudi Aramco), which was fully nationalized in 1988, controls this vitally important resource. Even as the demand for oil, and consequently the price per barrel, remains at historic highs, Saudi Arabia faces the challenge of diversifying its economy. In 1999 a royal decree established the Supreme Economic Council under the leadership of the then crown prince and charged it with bringing Saudi Arabia's economy into the twenty-first century. Since the 1970s, the Saudi government has used five-year development plans to try to make its economy less susceptible to fluctuations in oil prices. Currently in its eighth five-year plan (2005–8), the government has goals of achieving modest but consistent gross domestic product (GDP) growth, increasing the role of the private sector in the economy, and creating significant numbers of new jobs for Saudi citizens. (*Country Profile: Saudi Arabia ,Library of Congress – Federal Research Division, September 2006*)

The government is attempting to promote growth in the private sector by privatizing industries such as power and telecom. Saudi Arabia announced plans to begin privatizing the electricity companies in 1999, which followed the ongoing privatization of the telecommunications company. Shortages of water and rapid population growth may constrain government efforts to increase self-sufficiency in agricultural products.

The technological environment in Saudi Arabia is depicted through the assessment of the level of technological advancement that varies according to different industries; where advanced technologies are widely adopted in some industries; such as oil, petrochemicals, cement, banking, among other industries, while other sectors are still under development and require further advancement; such as transportation, service sector and some other industries.

Moreover, one of the objectives of Saudi Arabia's national policy on science and technology; which is adopted by the Eighth Development Plan to set the broad outlines that determine the general future trends of the Kingdom's science, technology and innovation system, is to "enhance scientific and technological cooperation with the external world and develop such cooperation in line with new international trends and in a manner that would meet the needs of the Kingdom's expected scientific and technological advancement". This fact paves the way for the different industries in Saudi Arabia, including the poultry industry, to capitalize on

current achievements and seek further enhancement on different technological aspects (*Saudi Ministry of Planning*).

Saudi Arabia gained full membership of the World Trade Organization in December 2005. The country also maintains membership of the United Nations (UN), most UN specialized agencies, and numerous other international organizations. Regionally, Saudi Arabia has fostered close ties to other Arab and Islamic states through memberships in the Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States, Arab Monetary Fund, Arab Sports Federation, Gulf Cooperation Council, Islamic Corporation for the Development of the Private Sector, League of Arab States, Muslim World League, Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries, Organization of the Islamic Conference, and Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC). Saudi Arabia also holds membership of the International Monetary Fund. (*Country Profile: Saudi Arabia ,Library of Congress – Federal Research Division, September 2006*). And as a respectable partner in world trade and a developing economy Saudi Arabia is more challenged to shape and establish its own industrial power by bringing into existence industries which on the one hand can be able to compete in the world market and on the other fulfill the growing needs of its increasing population.

The poultry industry in Saudi Arabia is perceived as one of the fairly advanced industries, where the level of technology currently utilized is considered as above average in comparison to the international poultry industry as far as effectiveness, productivity, and quality are concerned. The key players in the poultry industry in Saudi Arabia are among the targeted customers whenever a new technology or a change to an existing technology emerges. However, international business shows concerned with such technologies are always visited to keep abreast of any new technological developments that would be appropriate considering the local environment and available resources.

On the other hand, aspects related to main raw materials used for the poultry industry and automation solutions are examples of other technological factors that need to be considered for their possible effect on the poultry business environment in KSA. For the main raw materials, the possibility of finding substitute and more economic materials is very low, which implies the need to optimize the consumption of currently used raw materials as much as possible. As for automation solutions, they are an example of a very dynamic aspect that affect various industries and offer many cost – saving and added monitoring and control benefits. ERP solutions are an example of automation packages that can be considered for their applicability and value – adding potential in poultry industry in KSA.

At present, nearly 56% of the total market demand in the KSA is met by domestic production and the remaining 44% is supplied by foreign producers, suggesting an ample room for the expansion of poultry industry in Saudi Arabia

The Saudi government encourages the establishment of new poultry farms and the expansion of existing ones in order to attain the maximum possible self-sufficiency level in broiler meat production. To help meet this goal, the government grants interest free loans to new viable poultry farms (*Al-Watania Poultry internal sources*).

The domestic sector has benefited greatly from neighbouring markets, as Saudi Arabia's involvement in a regional trade group has given easy access to many of its products.

- Saudi Arabia is home to the largest integrated herd of dairy livestock in the world, and on its way to becoming self-sufficient in the production of eggs and poultry, cereals, and select fruits and vegetables.
- In 2000/01, the Saudi Arabian Agricultural Bank lent US$555 million to the agriculture sector, which has greatly benefited in its expansion.
- Imports of key inputs for the sector will continue to grow along with sector development (i.e. barley imports) (*Agri-Food Past, Present & Future Report Saudi Arabia, Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, December 2006*).

Production, Supply and Demand Table
Broiler Meat Production

The Saudi Ministry of Agriculture (MOA) classifies poultry production farms as either specialized (commercial) or traditional. The PSD table in this report includes only commercial production. The vast majority of poultry meat produced in Saudi Arabia consists of broiler chicken (about 97 percent), the balance attributed mainly to culled hens and quail production (*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006*).

Table 01: Production, Supply and Demand Table
(*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006,*
Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006)

Commodity	Poultry, Meat, Broiler (1000 MT)		
	Revised Post Estimate (New)	Estimate Post Estimate (New)	Forecast Post Estimate (New)
Market Year Begin	01/2005	01/2006	01/2007
Inventory (Reference)	0	0	0
Slaughter (Reference)	0	0	0
Starting Stocks	0	0	0
Production	537	548	559
Whole, Imports	454	414	440
Parts, Imports	30	20	30
Other Imports	0	0	0
TOTAL Imports	484	434	470
TOTAL SUPPLY	**1021**	**982**	**1029**
Whole, Exports	10	10	10
Parts, Exports	0	0	0
TOTAL Exports	10	10	10
Human Consumption	**1006**	**967**	**1014**
Other Use, Losses	5	5	5
Total Dom. Consumption	**1011**	**972**	**1019**
TOTAL Use	1021	982	1029
Ending Stocks	0	0	0
TOTAL DISTRIBUTION	**1021**	**982**	**1029**
Calendar Yr. Imp. from U.S.	1	1	1

The MOA indicated that the country's total broiler meat production reached 537,000 metric tons in 2005. Based on the MOA data and local trade information, broiler meat production is forecast to reach 559,000 metric tons in 2007. Newly licensed farms are the main reason for the expected production increase (*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN),2006*). This table clearly shows the increasing graph of the production, supply and demand of the poultry industry in the country. Now, if the increasing demands are not met with the opening of new poultry industries with better equipped and advanced technological expertise then the imbalance created by the disproportionate relationship between demand and supply will create a chaotic business atmosphere where reliance on import will break the country's stride towards a developing industrial entity. It is, therefore, imperative and at the same time, the exigency of time that more poultry industries should be encouraged to open in order to create a harmonious economic existence.

Table 2: Local Production of Commercial Layers and Table Eggs
(*Ministry of Agriculture, Saudi Arabia,*)

	Actual				Expected				
Year	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**
Production Quantity (million eggs)	2516	2498	2642	3082	3107	3132	3157	3182	3207
Production Quantity (million chicks)	17.2	18.8	19.4	21.5	23.2	23.4	23.6	23.8	24

Figure 1: Local Production of commercial layers and Table Eggs
(*Ministry of Agriculture, Saudi Arabia*)

Key
Local production of commrecial Eggs
Local production of commercial layers
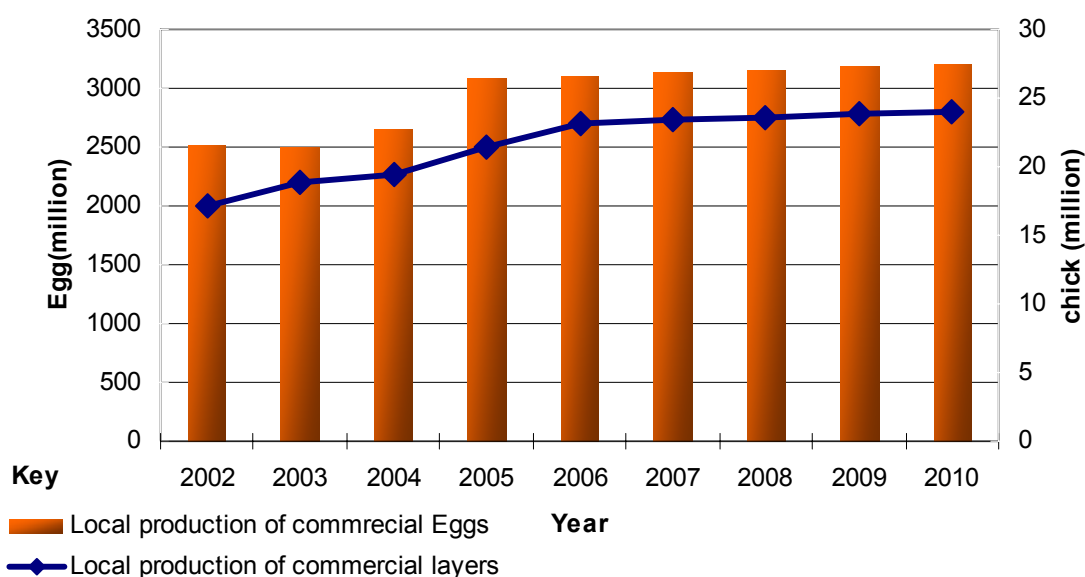
Year

The preceding figure showing the local production of commercial layers (egg laying hens) and table eggs clearly exhibits the increasing coordination between demand and supply between the years 2002 and 2007. In the year 2002, the production of eggs was 2500 millions a year which went up to more than 3000 million in the early months of 2007. The increase in the production of hens capable of laying eggs went along the same pace. The commercial layer production rose steeply from 2000 million in 2002 to around 2800 in the year 2007. The plan for the next three years is to increase the production of commercial eggs and layers with the increasing demands of a growing population. It has therefore become imperative to open more poultry industries in the country in order to create a balance between supply and demand for the maintenance of economic order and to instil a spirit of positive competition in business endeavours so as create a vibrant economy. This will also reduce the burden of import and provide a good scope for export of the poultry products giving the country a place in the world food market.

Production Cost

Saudi Arabia's production capacity is estimated to have increased to 650,000 metric tons. Local production, however, is not expected to increase dramatically because of continued stiff competition from highly competitive imported poultry meat. Increases in domestic broiler meat output are tied to generous financial, technical and other government assistance. This support is designed to compensate for the higher local production costs ranging from $1,090 to $1,380 per metric ton compared to a C&F price for imported Brazilian frozen broiler meat that fell to as low as $800 per metric ton earlier in 2006 (*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN),2006*).

Production Policy

The Saudi government encourages the establishment of new poultry farms and the expansion of existing ones in order to attain the maximum possible self-sufficiency level in broiler meat production. To help meet this goal, the government grants interest free loans to new viable poultry farms. It also maintains a subsidy program, started in the late 1970s, which pays 25 percent of the cost of selected poultry equipment. In September 2004, the government introduced a new subsidy scheme for local poultry meat producers to help them construct cold stores, buy refrigerated trucks, screeners, grading and farm packaging equipment. Poultry farms, particularly larger units, benefit from various government subsidy schemes to spur investment in the latest broiler production and management technologies.

Local poultry equipment manufacturers also are entitled to receive various government subsidies. The Saudi government provides a subsidy to importers of $42.67 per metric ton for imported corn and soybean meal. The corn subsidy is based on U.S. number 2 yellow corn, which provides a significant incentive for Saudi importers to buy U.S. corn. The government pays importers $66.67 per metric ton for imported feed barley (*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006*).

Grow-Out Period

The grow-out period for broilers in the Kingdom ranges between 35 and 42 days. Although there is no data available indicating the average weight gain per day, the average broiler live weight when marketed is 1.40 kg. It takes about 1.8 kg of feed to produce a marketable chicken (*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006*).

Consumption

Per capita consumption of poultry meat and products is estimated at 37.4 kg in 2005, based on the Kingdom's total population of 27 million. Broiler meat consumption is projected to continue growing over the next few years due to: (1) chicken is the most competitive animal protein source in the country ($1.60 per kg compared to $5.33 for red meat) and (2) a growing preference for chicken meat by increasingly diet conscious consumers.

Poultry meat consumption during January-April 2006 fell by 15 percent following the detection of AI in Egypt and Kuwait. However, consumer fear of AI has since abated.
This largely reflects measures taken by the Saudi Government to ban imports of poultry and poultry products from affected countries coupled with repeated announcements by the government that the Kingdom is free of AI (*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN),2006*)..

Poultry Diseases

Diseases

In order to reduce possible human infection with poultry related diseases, the MOA has ban new sales of live chickens within Saudi city limits, effecting August 2007. Currently, there are several thousand live chicken retail stores in the Kingdom. Customers buy live birds, which are slaughtered in the shops. After August 2007, poultry consumers will have access only to chilled and frozen poultry sold in supermarkets and other fresh/frozen meat retailers. The government had contemplated closing the live chicken retail stores for several years due to the inability of most stores to meet established hygiene standards. However, it delayed until August 2006, issuing a decree because of the significant adverse economic impact on both retailers and their suppliers, many of which are mostly small poultry farmers.

Common Poultry Diseases

The most common poultry diseases found in the Kingdom include Newcastle Disease Virus (NDV), Gumboro IBD (Infectious Bursul Disease), Infectious Bronchitis (IB), CRD (Complex Respiratory Diseases) and Coccidiosis. According to major poultry producers, no major disease outbreak was reported in 2006. NDV, however, continues to be a major problem for small-scale poultry farmers. The MOA's decision in December 2002 to ban the transportation of live poultry from one region to another helped minimize production problems related to poultry diseases such as NDV. The scheme reduced the possibility of the transfer of diseases from affected regions and reduced high chicken mortality rates incurred during transport (*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006*).

Imports
Overview

For the past several years, Brazil has been the leading frozen broiler meat supplier to the Kingdom, followed by France. Argentina and South Africa were a distant third and fourth respectively in 2005. In 2005, Saudi Arabia imported 484,202 metric tons of broiler meat, an increase of 12 percent compared to 2004. In 2005, Brazil exported 380,523 metric tons of poultry meat to Saudi Arabia (accounting for more than 78 percent of total imports), France 93,088 metric tons, Argentina 7,237 metric tons, South Africa 1,555 metric tons and other countries 1,799.

Brazil will continue to dominate the Saudi poultry import market for the next several years due largely to its price competitiveness and its reputation as a high-quality frozen broiler meat supplier.

The Kingdom's total broiler meat imports in 2006 are forecast to decline 10 percent to 434,000 metric tons due to decreased consumption January to April because of AI consumer concerns.

According to Brazilian Customs data for the first six months of 2006, total exports to Saudi Arabia declined 19 percent compared to the same period a year earlier (see trade matrix Below). In 2007, imports are expected to bounce back due to reduced consumer fears (*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006*).

Table 3: Major Broiler Meat Suppliers to Saudi Arabia, 2000-2005
(*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006,
Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006*)

Reporting Country	Year of Reporting (Metric Tons)					
	2000	**2001**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**
Brazil	207,809	255,990	251,387	288,555	333,223	380,523
France	112,683	106,693	101,684	113,147	83,032	93,088
China	18,490	33,534	34,913	42,008	4,799	0
Argentina	0	0	454	4,196	5,369	7,237
United States	6,952	2,109	941	230	192	706
South Africa	754	109	0	11	429	1,555
Other Countries	728	901	1,576	4,225	2,417	1,093
Total Imports	**347,416**	**399,336**	**390,955**	**452,372**	**429,461**	**484,202**

Recent C&F Prices

There was a considerable price (C&F Saudi ports) increase recorded in recent months for Brazilian frozen meat that is largely attributed to an increase in Brazilian exports to Egypt as a result of AI outbreak in Egypt in February 2006. Other factors accounting for the rise in C&F prices for Brazilian poultry delivered to the Kingdom include: (1) higher Brazilian production costs; (2) increased demand for Brazilian chicken in other markets; (3) stronger Brazilian Real exchange rate; (4) static poultry production in Brazil; (5) reduced exports from France; and (6) a ban on Chinese poultry meat imports imposed by the Saudi government. The C&F price of Brazilian

frozen meat reached $1,350 in August, 2006 (*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006*).

Tariffs

The customs duty on imported chicken is 20 percent or $0.267 per kilogram, whichever is higher. This rate has been in place for several years (*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006*).

Major Poultry Import Requirements:

Hormone Free Certification: The Saudi Ministry of Commerce (MOCI) requires that the responsible government agency of an exporting country include in a health certificate accompanying exported poultry meat a statement confirming that the poultry meat was tested and found to be totally hormone free. All imported poultry meat is randomly tested for Nutrofuran and Chlorophenical hormones periodically during the year.

Ban on Animal Ruminant Feeding: MOCI import requirements require the health certificate accompanying shipments conform to ministerial decree 123 issued in January 2001. This decree requires that health certificates issued by a government agency of the exporting country clearly indicate that the birds slaughtered had not been fed animal protein, animal fats, or animal by-products. MOCI, which implemented the requirement on April 25, 2001, maintains that the measure is necessary to prevent the entry of poultry meat considered unfit for human consumption if birds have been fed these animal ruminant products.

Quality Standards: Imported poultry meat and products must meet all existing Saudi poultry meat quality standards and specifications, including *halal* slaughtering requirements.

Laboratory Test: All poultry meat and products imported will be tested at Saudi ports of entry to ascertain that they meet the above requirements (*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006*).

Exports

Faced with stiff competition from imported poultry and low prices, some Saudi broiler producers have turned to exports. Saudi Arabia's broiler meat exports (whole and parts) are forecast to remain at 10,000 metric tons over 2007 and 2008. Saudi Arabia's exports are largely directed to nearby Arab countries such as Qatar, Bahrain, Kuwait, U.A.E., Oman and Yemen (*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006*).

Distribution Channels

The Kingdom has an extensive infrastructure for poultry meat distribution. Poultry producers and importers have generally adequate storage facilities, including refrigerated trucks and cold storage.

Poultry meat and products are available in both wholesale and retail outlets throughout the Kingdom. Major poultry farms and importers sell their products either directly to consumers through their own nationwide retail outlets or through poultry wholesalers. Consumers may purchase poultry meat in cardboard boxes containing ten chickens from wholesalers or on a piece basis from retailers and supermarkets.

Commercial customers buy their poultry supplies either from importers/distributors, poultry farms, or both. The Saudi government requires catering companies to use only locally-produced chicken when catering to government institutions such as the military or government-owned hospitals.

Many major poultry producers are vertically integrated with other poultry-related businesses.

They produce their own feed requirements and sell directly to customers through their own retail outlets or through wholesalers. Several poultry producers operate their own chicken fast food outlets (*Saudi Arabia Poultry and Products Annual 2006, Global Agriculture Information Network (GAIN), 2006*).

The production location

The total number of specialized broiler production farms in the kingdom reached 410 projects in 2005 with a total production of 521,127 ton of broilers.

The majority of those projects, i.e. 108 projects, are located in the Riyadh area, which captures a share of 26.3 % of the total number of broiler projects in the Kingdom. In spite of the relatively large number of projects in Riyadh, it produced 89,769 ton of broilers in 2005, which only accounted for 17.2 % of the total production of broilers in the Kingdom. The average production per farm in Riyadh was 831.2 ton in 2005.

Although the number of projects in Makkah is relatively low – namely 43 projects - Makkah ranked first as the region with the largest production of broilers in 2005 where it produced 164900 ton of broilers in 2005 with a share of 31.6 % of total production in the kingdom and an average production of 3,835 ton per farm. Qassim followed Makkah with a share of 25.6 % of the total broiler production in the kingdom and a number of projects of 36 projects with an average production of 3,703 ton per farm.

The following table and figures illustrate the broiler production in different regions of the kingdom:

Table 4 : Production of broilers from specialized projects by regions in the Kingdom (2002-2005)

(*Statistical Book, Saudi Ministry of Agriculture, 2005*)

REGIONS	2002		2003		2004		2005*	
	Production (Ton)	No. of Projects	Production (Ton)	No. of Projects	Production (Ton)	No. of Projects	Production (Ton)	No. of Projects
Riyadh	81134	73	70913	78	67951	85	89769	108
Makkah	110026	34	122734	36	168398	38	164900	43
Madinah	5970	13	6432	14	7186	15	8987	20
Qassim	151415	35	158261	36	147209	37	133300	36
Eastern	28004	46	24936	39	26525	39	36284	58
Aseer	48408	98	36636	93	52689	97	43321	96
Tabuk	4153	4	4376	5	3033	5	4908	8
Hail	12792	2	11317	2	15230	2	21778	6
Northern	690	1	633	1	990	1	900	1
Jazan	2611	3	2687	4	2821	4	2673	6
Najran	4477	10	3733	10	5899	14	6260	14
Baha	1856	7	9408	7	9375	7	5533	8
Jouf	1364	6	1524	5	1364	5	2514	6
Kingdom	452900	332	453590	330	508668	349	521127	410
Growth % of previous year	——	——	0.15%	-0.60%	12.14%	5.76%	2.45%	17.48%
* preliminary estimates								

The graph shows the accelerating pace of the production of broiler chicken in the Kingdom, though there is no significant increase in the number of projects. The growth percentage shows a steady rise in almost all the regions. The rise in production from 452900 in 2002 to 521127 in 2005 is evident of the fact that the consumer percentage is on the rise. This graph, therefore, is a clear indicator of the growing consumer needs in the country. It also shows a scope for the opening of more competitive poultry projects taken up by new entrepreneurs in order to keep the market growing and create a healthy business atmosphere. It is also a pointer to the fact that the poultry industry in Saudi Arabia is one of the fastest growing and carries a vast scope and potential for new business ventures.

Figure 2: Production of broilers from specialized projects by region along with corresponding number of Projects in each region (2005 est.)
(Statistical Book, Saudi Ministry of Agriculture, 2005)
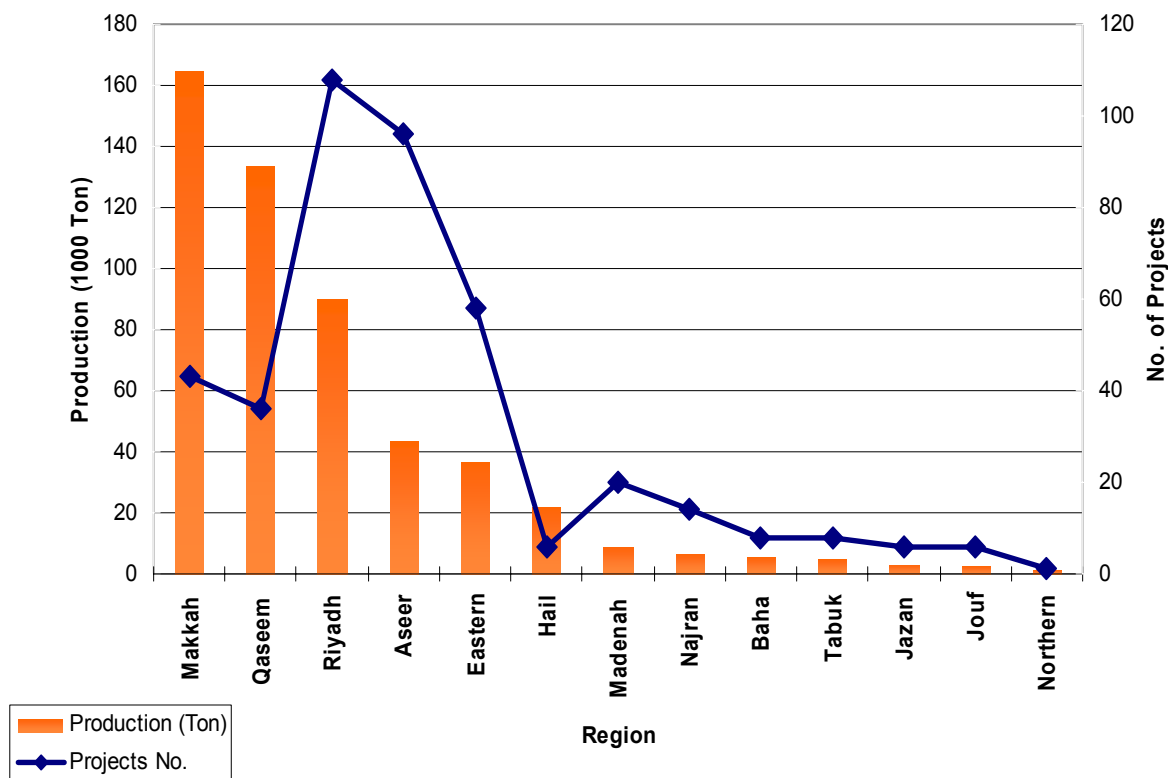
Figure 3: Broiler production distribution by Region (2005)
(*Statistical Book, Saudi Ministry of Agriculture, 2005*)
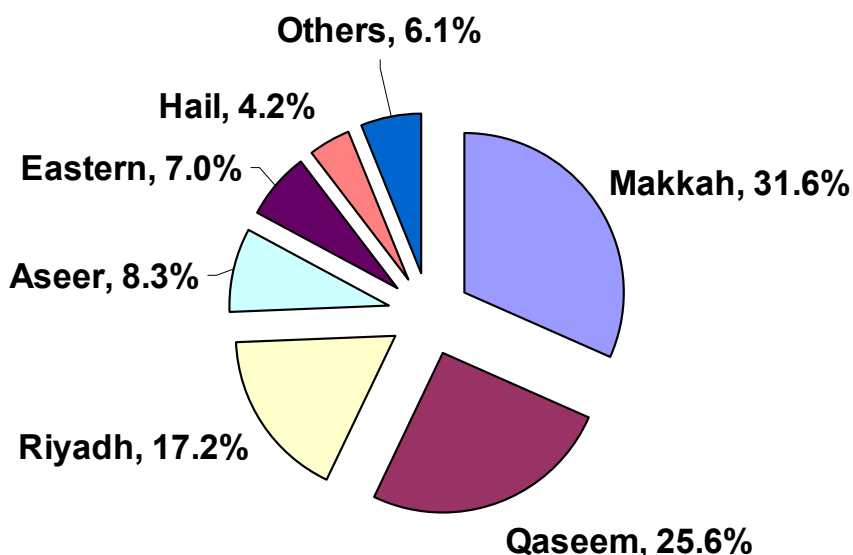
The broiler production distribution in Saudi Arabia is not evenly spread. This is for the obvious reason that much more people visit the Makkah region throughout a year than in any other region of the country. Makkah being the holiest city of Islam there

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is steady flow of pilgrims all round the year. The consumer population grows exceptionally large during the Haj season. This makes Makkah alone consume about 160,000 tons of broiler chicken in the year 2005, followed by Qassim, where slightly over 120, 000 tons of broiler chicken was distributed in 2005. The ever-increasing pilgrim population in the Kingdom, especially in Makkah, also demands more poultry industries to bring quality products for the pilgrims who also throng to Makkah from different parts of the world also.

Branding of Poultry Industry

Almost all poultry producers in the Kingdom have their own identities recognisable by their brands, since a strong and memorable brand could make the difference between getting lost in the crowd and standing out over and above it.

The most famous and popular brands in the Saudi poultry market are Al-Watania Poultry, Radhwa , Fakih, Sadia & Doux

Al-Watania Poultry is the Saudi poultry market leader in terms of market share, variety and quality of products. It enjoys a strong reputation as a premium and trusted brand. Al-Watania Poultry prices are on the high side in comparison to other local and imported brands.

Radhwa is known as a premium brand and is priced at significantly higher prices over all other available brands in the market by 25-30%.

Sadia and Doux are famous imported brands in the Saudi market as well as the Arabian Gulf countries. They come from Brazil and France and have been imported for a long time. They are reasonably priced, usually costing less than major local brands, which is a main factor of for their popularity.

Fakih is a very old established brand in the Saudi poultry market and is the leading supplier of fresh and live chicken in the market.

Akhwain is also a famous brand in the central region of Saudi Arabia and is specialized in chilled chicken (*Al-Watania Poultry internal sources*).

Apart from the above, there are many brands of local and foreign origins, available in the Saudi poultry market as mentioned below.

Table 5: a list of local and imported brands in KSA
(*Al-Watania Poultry internal sources*)

Local brands			
1	Tanmia	10	Khaleej
2	Intaj	11	Taawon
3	Golden Chicken	12	Faihaa
4	Alwasham	13	Kingdom
5	Asiah	14	Rumaiha
6	Wadi	15	Khamis
7	Hadco	16	Tuqa
8	Astra	17	Muharib
9	Sahbaa		

Imported brands (almost all brands are from Brazil or France)			
1	Top	7	Tyson (U.S)
2	Sabco	8	Kabeer
3	Frangosol	9	Sunburg
4	Halal	10	Rabea
5	Hilal	11	Perdex
6	Shabeeco		

Pricing of Poultry Products

Prices of locally produced frozen chicken are usually about 10% more expensive than imported products due mainly to the relatively high cost of production.

Production cost during the year 2003 was estimated at SR 4100- SR 5175 per ton of domestic chicken meat, whereas in Brazil the production cost was estimated at SR 2456 per ton during the same period. However, these figures have significantly increased due to the recent share increase in feed cost.

The high production cost of local products is mainly due to:

5. High dependence on imported feed which accounts for nearly 70% of the farming cost.

6. Relatively high energy costs due to year round temperature control necessitated by the hot summer climate and cool winters.

7. High water cost

8. Dependence on imported medication.

The following table indicates the current prices of some of the main chicken brands available:

Table 6: A list of current prices for some of the main chicken brands available in KSA

(*Al-Watania Poultry internal sources*)

Brand	Price (SR per KG of whole chicken)
Local	
Al-Watania	8.25
Radhwa	9.00
Golden Chicken	7.70
Imported	
Doux	8.00
Sadia	8.00
Borilla	8.00
Sabco	8.00

Poultry Products Profile

There are three main categories of poultry products available in the Saudi market; frozen, chilled and live products.

Chickens are typically consumed as whole chicken by consumers. Although value added chicken products are not yet established as an everyday food item, they are gaining ground in Saudi households, particularly as entertainment products, and they are often targeted at children as young as 5-6 years old. There are many other factors contributing to the continued growth of value added chicken products in the Saudi market; such as the increase in the population of working women and the increasing tendency to eat outside the house. Fast food restaurants are playing a key role in introducing and promoting a variety of value added products that are experiencing a growing demand by different categories of consumers. The other type of chicken product offered in the Saudi market is the chicken parts. The following is a description of each of the three types; whole, parts and value-added (*Al-Watania Poultry internal sources*).

Whole Chicken

Frozen, chilled and live whole chickens are widely available in the Saudi market and are usually offered in different sizes varied from 600-1500 gm. Although live chicken is still offered in the market, it is expected to be completely banned in August 2007. This new regulation which will be enforced by the Saudi government will force live chicken producers to establish or seek the services of processing plants in order to be able to sell their products. (*Al-Watania Poultry internal sources*).

Chicken Parts

Frozen and chilled chicken parts are available, as well as further-processed chicken parts that have undergone spicing, breading, marinating or other types of preparations, constituting a small but profitable business. Parts such as breasts, thighs, legs, drumsticks & wings are usually demanded in sizes of 450gm to 900 gm. Lower value parts such as giblets (hearts, gizzards and liver) and backs are also available at lower prices.

Chilled chicken parts tend to be mostly sold to households, while catering organizations are more likely to use frozen parts, which are significantly cheaper. (*Al-Watania Poultry internal sources*).

Value added chicken products

The value added chicken products that are usually available in the Saudi market include the products shown in the following table:

Table 7: A list of value-added chicken products in KSA
(*Al-Watania Poultry internal sources*)

Value added chicken products	
1. Chicken Burgers	2. Chicken Nuggets
3. Chicken Franks	4. Chicken Mince
5. Chicken Mortadella/cold cuts	6. Chicken Balls
7. Schniztel	8. Chicken Chips
9. Chicken Pop Corn	10. Chicken Croquet

11. Smoked Drumsticks	12. Chicken Wings
12. Smoked Breasts	13. Shish Taouk
14. Marinated Chicken	15. Chicken Kababs
15. Pre-Cooked Chicken Wings	

Chicken franks, burgers and mince are the most popular value added products; the others are also experiencing a growing demand while some minor products are still considered slow-moving items.

Nearly 75% of the value added products consumed in the Saudi market are produced locally, leaving less than 25% market share for imported products.

Production Criteria

A recent study of consumer behaviour related to chicken meat indicated that more than 84% of the consumers interviewed preferred the chicken for its quality, way of slaughtering (halal), cleanliness, packaging, and type of feed given to the chicken. This study among many other similar studies clearly shows the importance of the quality of chicken to consumers in deciding the brand of chicken for their consumption. One of the major attributes of quality as perceived by different categories of consumers is the taste of chicken and its consistency. Another important factor is the outside packaging and its ability to attract the attention of consumers and stand out from among many different brands usually offered in major outlets. Some of the leading brands in the Saudi market have witnessed a significant improvement in this aspect and have achieved tangible positive results accordingly (*Al-Watania Poultry internal sources*)..

Agriculture profile

Agriculture employs only about 6 percent of working citizens in Saudi Arabia. The scarcity of water and fertile soil limits the crops that can be grown. The principal crop in recent years has been wheat. In 2003 Saudi farmers produced more than twice as much wheat as any other agricultural commodity. Other significant crops include dates, potatoes, tomatoes, watermelons, and sorghum. Saudi Arabia is self-sufficient in the production of most dairy products. Saudi agriculturalists annually produce a surplus of eggs and broiler chickens. Nearly 75 percent of the country's land is still used for low-grade grazing of livestock rather than for cultivation. This has led the Ministry of Agriculture to establish a research centre dedicated to finding the most efficient and profitable means of utilizing and protecting pastureland. Poultry farming and the establishment of poultry industry, therefore, appears to be undoubtedly the most efficient and successful way of utilizing the grazing land and the meadows for creating domestic industry and affect the economic growth of the country..

Overall, Saudi Arabia is the world's 19th largest agri-food importer. The country is a large consumer of bulk commodity imports as well as ingredient inputs for its growing food processing sector. The Saudi government has announced a plan to strengthen the domestic agricultural sector with the aim of obtaining self-sufficiency in agricultural production. There has been success, particularly in dairy production, but the country is currently nowhere near self-sufficient agricultural production. Currently, food accounts for roughly 15% of Saudi Arabia's total imports. Imports of consumer goods comprise roughly 40% of total agricultural imports. The

establishment of the poultry industry and its diversification throughout the kingdom would thus help the country achieve self-sufficiency in some of the products related to agriculture that it had to import. For that matter, that there is a growing need to emphasize the importance of Saudi Arabia in becoming a partner in exporting poultry products of admirable quality to the outside world. It would also invigorate the Saudi economy and infuse a spirit of competition among Saudi entrepreneurs to compete in producing quality poultry products for consumption both inside the country and outside.

According to Saudi estimates, the country possesses nearly 6 million acres of forested land, but this area cannot sustain a forestry industry. The Saudi government has taken measures in recent years to conserve existing forests. It set up 20 nurseries across the country to cultivate seedlings and produce fertilizers and planted tree barriers along the edges of selected forests in order to guard against creeping sand and desertification. The fishing industry, through capture and aquaculture, produced an annual catch of 55,000 metric tons in 2002.

Saudi Arabia's agri-food imports in 2004 were estimated to be $8 billion, up from $6.3 billion in 2003. The country's top five imports traditionally account for 40% of total agricultural imports. Typically, the top five agricultural imports are comprised of barley, sheep/goats, rice, chicken and cigarettes. Barley alone represents 10% of total agricultural imports. For 2005-06, feed barley imports to Saudi Arabia are forecast to remain at 6 million tons.

It is to be emphasized here that Saudi Arabia is the world's largest feed barley importer, importing more than 50% of world trade. Barley imports should continue to rise as the government has recently shut down domestic production due to high water production demands, while the sheep and goat industry has been growing by 3% annually; a trend which should continue into the future.

The country's top suppliers of agricultural products include; Ukraine, Syria, Brazil, India and the United States. The EU and Australia continue to be top suppliers with a combined market share of over 40% in 2002-03, although their status has been challenged by Ukraine and Russia (*Agri-Food Past, Present & Future Report Saudi Arabia, Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, December 2006*).

Though Saudi Arabia's land area contains less than 2% arable land, the country's government has substantial plans for the future of the agriculture sector. The Saudi government has set the task of achieving near self-sufficiency in food, a daunting challenge as Saudi Arabia is one of the world's most arid countries. However, there have been successes, particularly in livestock and vegetable production.

Domestic agricultural growth depends on scarce water resources; therefore, recent development plans have sought to diversify products to crops grown with equipment using less water. The government has made key decisions to limit mass production of products like barley, in order to preserve the country's limited water resources.

Agriculture comprises less than 4% of the country's GDP, but employs 12% of the workforce. Agriculture, forestry & fishing sector accounted for 3.3 % of SA GDP in 2005 (*Saudi Arabia, Economist Intelligence Unit, 2007*) recording a decrease of 0.7% from 2004's share that was 4%.

Despite ambitious government plans for economic modernization and diversification, the development of the non-oil economy has proceeded slowly. There is a need for a

more enthusiastic approach towards diversifying and building up the economy through the introduction of private industries not only based on technology but also on agriculture which is a foothold for a healthy economic growth. Since agriculture is not well diversified in and around the country because of the presence of a large area of desert and non-arable land, it is therefore imperative to combine technology and agriculture to open new industries in the country. The poultry industry has a very positive scope in the Saudi Arabian context, in this regard, since chicken and eggs are the most consumed products and it is well suited to the climate of the country. With technological advancement and the introduction of new scientific procedures in hatching, rearing and preparing chicken meat and chicken related frozen products it is about time that Saudi Arabian entrepreneurs wake up to the occasion and take full advantage of the available resources making their country thereby not only self-sufficient in poultry products but also create more scope and avenues to export their products to the outside world. It would end the country's dependence on the import of poultry products and would create a competitive market that would bring about improvement and assurances in the private sector.

The consumption of chicken meat and eggs continue to be the most competitive source of animal protein in KSA while the kingdom ranks among the world's top ten countries in terms of per capita consumption of poultry products. Fast food restaurants serving fried chicken at attractive prices and higher prices of beef and mutton in comparison with the prices of live and frozen chickens are contributing to higher poultry consumption in the kingdom. Concern about diseases and contaminated imported meat products are also shifting consumer sentiment towards local poultry meat consumption. The Saudi poultry industry comprises around 500 specialized farms, which include around 410 farms engaged in the production of broilers chickens, while the remaining are specialized eggs producing farms, hatcheries for producing broilers and parents and hatcheries for producing layers parents. Besides these, there are various small – unorganized poultry farms raising broiler chickens for meeting demand within their operating regions. Also, there are a number of importers and distributors engaged in the trading of imported poultry meat and its products.

Vibrant market tendencies and different data and research collection have shown quite unequivocally that Saudi Arabia is a country with a vibrant economy with the needs and demands of its population rising with the advancing passage of time. An effort has been made in this chapter to show through meticulously collected data, graphs and readings that the country is growing and this growth has affected all the aspects of the life of the population of Saudi Arabia. In this atmosphere of growth if the opening of new ventures is hampered or discouraged it would then adversely affect the economic health and business viability of the country. It is important in this light, therefore, that encouragement should be given to new ventures in the poultry industry field.

APPENDIX B :

Halal Food Concept

in Islam

The Concept of "*Halal*" Food
in Islam

In Islam food is divided into two broad categories*: Halal* (lawful) food and *Haram* (unlawful) food. The term *halal* is used for foods that are considered lawful. *Halal* food, particularly which of animal origin, has two dimensions: the source of the food (type of animal) and the way it is slaughtered. *"He hath only forbidden you dead meat, and blood and the flesh of swine, and that on which any other name hath been invoked besides that of Allah, but if one is forced by necessity without wilful disobedience, nor transgressing due limit - then is he guiltless. For Allah is Oft-Forgiving Most Merciful".* (2:173) Chicken is considered "Halal food" as long as it is slaughtered according to the Islamic way. Under the Islamic Law, all sources of food are considered lawful except the following products and their derivatives which are considered unlawful:

Food of Animal Origin

a) Pigs and boars

b) Dogs, snakes and monkeys

c) Carnivorous animals with claws and fangs such as lions, tigers, bears and other similar animals

d) Birds of prey with claws such as eagles, vultures, and other similar birds

e) Pests such as rats, centipedes, scorpions and other similar animals

f) Animals forbidden to be killed in Islam i.e., ants, bees and woodpeckers

g) Animals which are considered repulsive generally like lice, flies, maggots and other similar animals.

h) Animals that live on land and in water such as frogs, crocodiles and other similar animals

i) Mules and domestic donkeys

j) All poisonous and hazardous aquatic animals

k) Any other animals not slaughtered according to Islamic law

l) Blood.

Food of Plant Origin

m) Intoxicating and hazardous plants except where the toxin or hazard can be eliminated during processing.

Drinks

n) Alcoholic drinks

o) All forms of intoxicating and hazardous drinks.

Food Additives

p) All food additives derived from items which are considered unlawful in Islam.

Slaughtering:

All lawful land animals should be slaughtered in compliance with the Islamic way of slaughtering. Moreover, the person who slaughters the animal should be a Muslim who is in good mental health and knowledgeable about the Islamic slaughtering procedures. It is the way of slaughtering that matters in this study since it determines whether the chicken product will be considered lawful or not and it is closely linked to the religious background of the COO. Balestrini et al. (2003) argued that country of manufacture may be much more important for food and beverage products than country of brand.

APPENDIX C :
OUTCOME OF
PRIMALERLY
EXPLORATORY
STUDY

THE PRIMARY EXPLORATORY STUDY OUTCOME

The outcomes of the interviews with the key informants (executives) were:

- They evaluated the COO differently. ASS: I do not think that consumers will choose a product because of its COO. ADP: We do not have any problem with the country of origin as an issue. (It is a plus to be a Saudi product) the sales manager said.

- They all agreed that the COO effects exist and have a strong impact on consumers' buying intentions and evaluation of the branded product. The COO effect is more important in the case of chicken than in the case of milk. On the other hand, the brand of a product is also important, but it is more important for milk than for chicken. This finding emphasises the importance of the different product categories and their effect on how consumers perceive the COO effects. Conducting as many studies as possible about the different product categories will help to generalize the findings of the COO effect and its level. ADP: They believe that they have to tighten their brand to the country of origin; it is one of the main advantages in their marketing strategy. SMP: I think that the country of origin is affecting the consumer's buying decision. ADP: The country of origin of a product has an effect on consumer buying decision.

- They had different opinions about the variables that may be used to measure the country of origin (COO) effects, while almost all of them agreed that culture and religion are factors that need to be considered in a country such as Saudi Arabia. ADP: Political issues, rules and regulations and religion are the main factors affecting country of origin in consumers' perceptions.

- However, the religion factor is again more important for the chicken than the milk which again emphasizes the different product effects. This finding means that a research about COO in Saudi Arabia, with its religion-dominated culture, is very important as it will give more insights as to which factors can measure the COO effects in areas that are different from the Western countries which have been the study area for most previous COO studies. KMS: They are trying to tighten the country of origin to the brand of the product, which is produced in Saudi Arabia, for some consumers perceive the products from Saudi Arabia are genuine *Halal*.

- They had different definitions for brand. PKM: Consumers perceived their brand as mature, respected, quality, trusted and local in K.S.A. They are not planning to enforce that their product is local, but they are concentrating more on quality and freshness. ASS: The consumer's perception about international brands changes with the product type. KMP: He defines the brand as a Logo associated with heritage.

- Respondents showed that COO and branded products are very important and affect their marketing strategies. Their marketing strategy could be changed according to the consumers' perception about COO.

- KMP: They believe that the country of origin has an effect on the consumers' perception in Saudi Arabia. SMP: The History of their brands and their country of origin (French) is what makes their brand different. ASS: Brand is very important and it is wrong to produce generic products. ASS: The brand strategy is part of their marketing strategy. PKM: They believe in branded product, which helps consumers discriminate between good and bad quality. While other executives believe that brand is not important in poultry sector. SMP: Brand is not important in the poultry market. SMP: added that the generic product could be a good idea in the poultry. While ADP: Believe that the brand is very important and they believe that the generic product is not fit for the poultry industry.

- They never referred to any research about COO or branding in their responses. This indicates that either that limited research has been conducted in Saudi Arabia about COO and branding or they do not use the research outcomes in their decisions. This reveals the need for more COO effect research in Saudi Arabia and reflects the importance of this study.

- Some of the executives believed that consumers do not check the COO of the product in the market, while others believe that they do. This shows to some extent the importance of the COO and brand name for the Saudi consumers' buying decisions. ASS: Minority of consumers really checks the country of origin, but majority does not, because they use their perceptions. SMP: Accept the argument that consumers are not really checking the COO of the product physically.

- The effect of COO changes with the different product categories and over time. ASS: The consumer's perception about the COO changes with the product type. ADP: They believe that the consumer's perception changes with the type of the products.

- Distributors of imported chicken prefer to isolate the brand name form the country of origin, while the distributors of local chicken prefer to link the brand name closely to the country of origin. This is most likely because Saudi consumers are very much concerned about eating only *Halal* food and they believe the Saudi chicken products are *Halal* Thus, one of the main contributions anticipated from this study is the clarification of when to link/isolate the brand name to/from the country of origin in Saudi Arabia. KMP: We are trying to tighten the country of origin to the brand for the product produced in Saudi Arabia, for some consumers perceive the product from Saudi Arabia are genuine *Halal*. At the same time, they try to isolate the country of origin for product produced in other countries for the same reason. ADP: What could distinguish their brand is the quality of the product; being *Halal*, fresh and produced locally.

- The exploratory study also revealed that ethnocentrism could affect how consumers perceive imported products. ADP: They believe that the producing locally has a strong effect on consumers' perception; it is positive in their case because they produce locally..

- The price of the chicken is not an important issue for consumers. KMP: He thinks that consumers are using brand name, packaging, and last experience as a cue to buy chicken. ADP: In poultry business, price is not an issue. ASS: The quality and brand are the issues that consumers are considering in the milk industry.

APPENDIX D :

Focus Group

Analysis

The Focus Group Analysis

Patton (2002) reported that data interpretation and analysis involve making sense out of what people have said, looking for patterns, putting together what is said in one place with what is said in another place, and integrating what different people have said.

The first group discussion was conducted in Jeddah with 13 participants; the session lasted for more than two hours and the discussion was very fruitful. The discussion was open and the members were very cooperative and discussed the issues in a comfortable way. The second group was in Riyadh with 11 members and the session lasted for about one and half hours. The group's behaviour was similar to that of the Jeddah group and the discussion was very fruitful. Detailed notes were taken during the whole discussion with both groups, which shows that the variables used in the model were almost identical, with little difference in the priority of those variables. *(See Appendix E for the detailed notes).* The focus group did not give direct answers for the issues in this research, but instead it gave indications that helped to modify the instrument used in the quantitative approach survey. Calderon et al. (2000) stated that, unlike other small groups, there are no immediate end products for the participants in focus groups, but rather there is a flow of information based on the opinions and interactions within the group, which is recorded and later transcribed and analysed. The examination of focus group data entails the use of analytical approaches similar to those applied to other qualitative research methods, which are based on content analysis (Sim, 1998). The outcome was then used to modify the research model and the survey questionnaire.

Discussion:

The first three questions were meant to warm up the discussion and break the ice between the participants. Those questions were: How often do you buy food products? What kind of food products do you buy? Do you buy milk and chicken? How often do you buy them? They really did let the participants act and start to show their interest in the discussion.

- **Discussion related to the first objective: Whether the model makes sense in the Saudi context or if it needs to be adapted.**

When the participants were asked about what they considered when buying milk they mentioned many factors such as (w9: quality[1], w7: taste, w5: expiry date (quality), w2: the type of the product (brand), w3: flavour (taste), w11: using preservatives (quality), etc. The factors are mainly related to the brand and variables that will be used to measure the branded products construct (w6: carton packing materials are better than plastic ones (packaging). One woman (w8) mentioned price as a factor that can be considered in the buying decision. Those factors changed when the participants were asked about what others consider when buying milk, although the changes were relatively minor (w5: the name of a well-known company (brand), (w2: brand name). There was a slight change in priorities, but the factors were almost the same. The price was not mentioned and instead brand was mentioned as a priority

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[1] W = Woman

factor (w5 and w2). Promotion (w9) and advertising (w13: advertising campaign featuring music and songs) were mentioned as important factors.

The same questions were put to the other group in Riyadh. They provided almost identical answers (w9: milk thickness (quality), w10: quality, w11: nutritious value (quality), w1: company name (brand) and packing (shape) etc. Quality, which is a variable that will be used to measure the branded products, still had the highest priority, brand name and price were mentioned (w7). When the same question about what others consider when buying milk was asked, they mentioned the price as the highest priority (w1 and w2: others may be more concerned about price). Other factors were quality and packaging.

Fig # 1 A
Criteria to rank for Milk
(In the city of Riyadh & Jeddah)
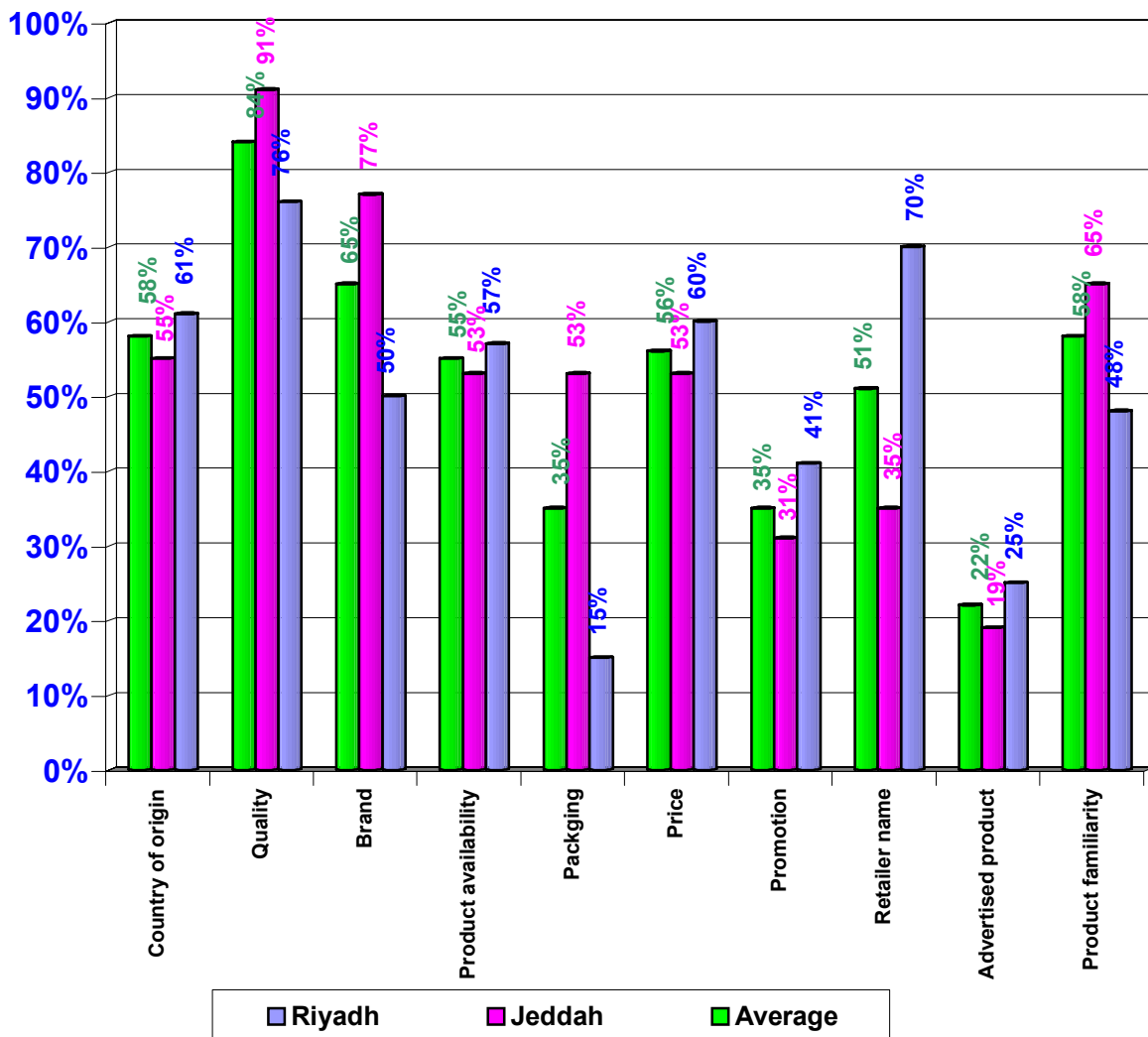
The same question was asked about when they buy chicken. The answers showed that the factors changed when the type of the product changed, but quality was still considered a very important factor when they bought chicken (w4: the colour of the chicken (quality), w3 and w8: natural feed with no use of hormones). The difference between the factors that respondents considered when buying chicken compared to milk is the country of origin (w6) and *halal* meat, which referred to the religion factor (w7: slaughtering in line with Islamic *Sharia* law) which will be used as a variable to measure the effects of country of origin on buying intention. One of the participants (w12) mentioned that price did not affect her buying decision. When the participants were asked why they considered the country of origin factor in chicken and not in milk, they answered that chicken is different from milk. Almost identical answers were provided by the Riyadh group (w9: chicken size or pack size, w7: product cleanliness (quality), w10: quality, etc. The country of origin was mentioned by two participants (w6: to be a national product and w8: country of origin). *Halal* meat (w1: slaughtering according to the Islamic law) was also found to be important. When the participants were asked about what others considered they mentioned quality and brand name (w1: quality and the brand). Price was also mentioned as an important factor that others considered.

Factors that consumers use when they buy products are indicated in the literature. Although those studies were conducted in different countries and considered different products, the factors mentioned could nonetheless be valid in this study and that makes it appropriate to check those factors and their priorities in the Saudi market, especially for milk and chicken *(See Appendix E for the participants' ranking of the 10 criteria that they consider when buying milk and chicken).*

Fig # 1 B
Criteria to rank for Chicken
(In the city of Riyadh & Jeddah)
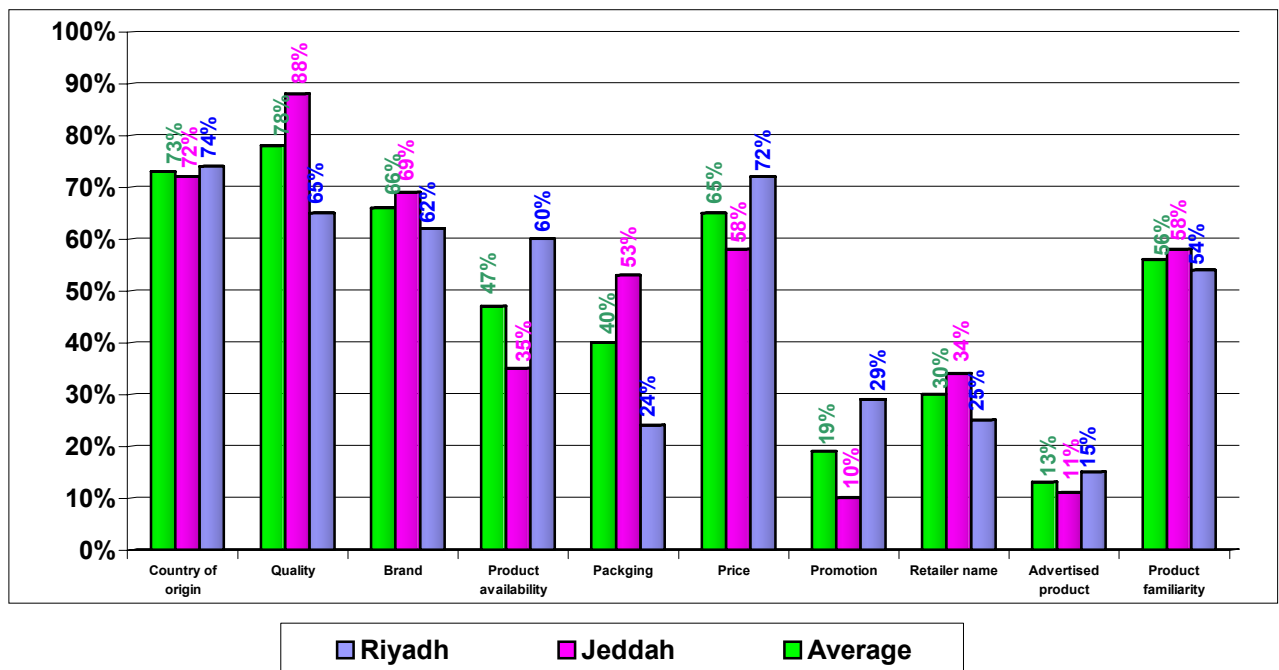
- **Discussion related to the second objective: Whether the suggested variables used to describe the constructs really manifest these constructs.**

The term country of origin is well known in the literature and has different definitions; the first question in this part was to see how the regular consumer defines COO. Therefore, the participants were asked what the term country of origin meant to them and how would they describe it and they gave different answers. In the Jeddah group the answers were as follows: (w1: it means whether the product is locally produced or imported, w9: national producer, w7 with others: being proud of one's own country (ethnocentrism), w6: trust, etc. As mentioned previously, the participants have different definitions for country of origin but they mainly look at it from a ethnocentric point of view; (w12) considered it a quality sign, (w4) consider it a brand name. All those definitions show to what extent the country of origin is an important construct used by consumers in their buying decisions. Moreover, some of the participants used COO as a proxy for the religion factor (w12: slaughtering an animal in accordance with Islamic *Sharia* law). The members of the Riyadh group described the country of origin as (w7: the country being free of any diseases (trust), w6: a means to choose between two products, w1 and w8: a means of choice, w1 and w11: natural feeding, w4: trust, and w9: quality). This indicates that the participants mainly consider COO as a quality sign which leads them to trust a product that come from a specific country and when a buying decision is taken it is used as a choice cue. Again, this shows that the country of origin is a very important construct.

Both groups' members agreed that their evaluation of the country of origin differed for different products; i.e. when considering milk they evaluated COO differently than when they considering chicken. As expected, the product category had a strong effect on the consumers' evaluation of the product country of origin.

To examine whether the suggested variables used to describe, the constructs really manifest these constructs or not the participants responses were analyzed and the results showed that the country religion got 71%, economic development 69%, ethnocentrism 60%, cultural background 42%, technological background 35%, and political background 32%.

Fig # 2
Criteria to discuss whether they think that describe well the term
country of origin or not ?(In the city of Riyadh & Jeddah)
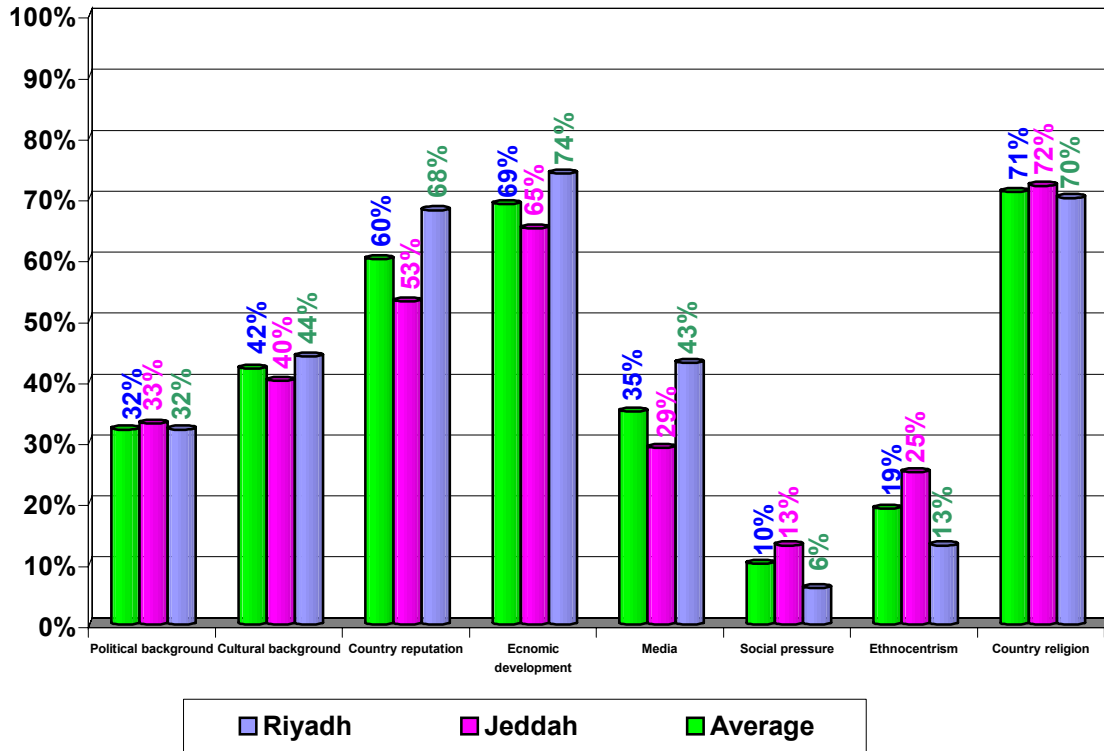
Fig # 3
Criteria to discuss whether they consider when they buy milk
(In the city of Riyadh & Jeddah)

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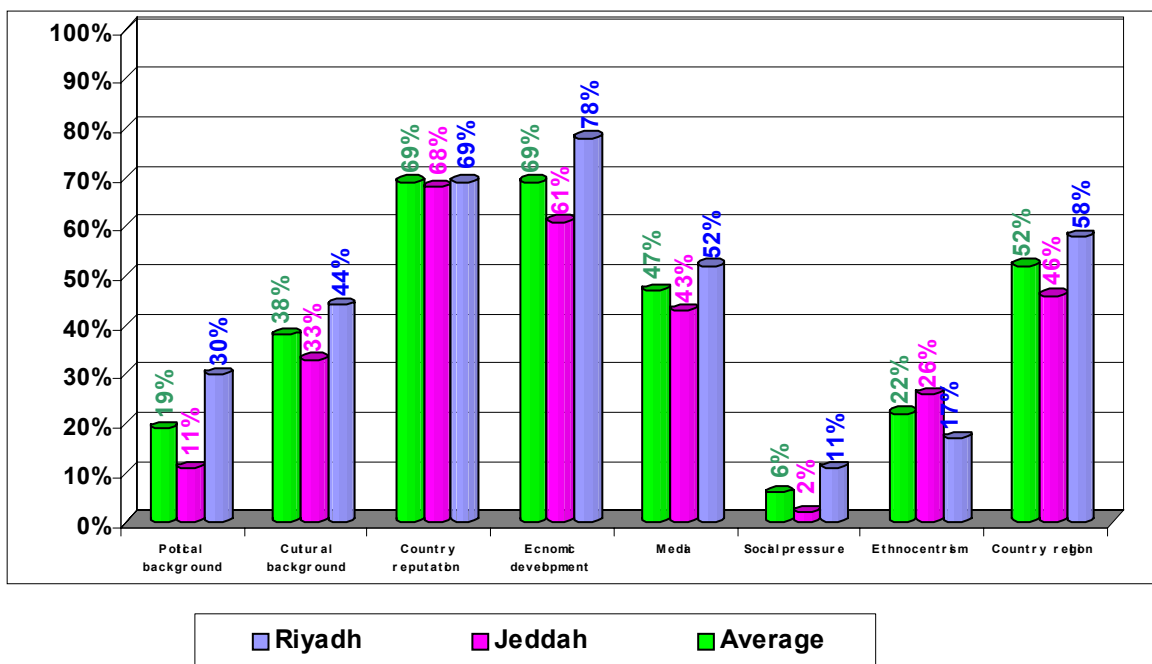
Fig # 4
Criteria to discuss whether they consider when they buy chicken
(In the city of Riyadh & Jeddah)
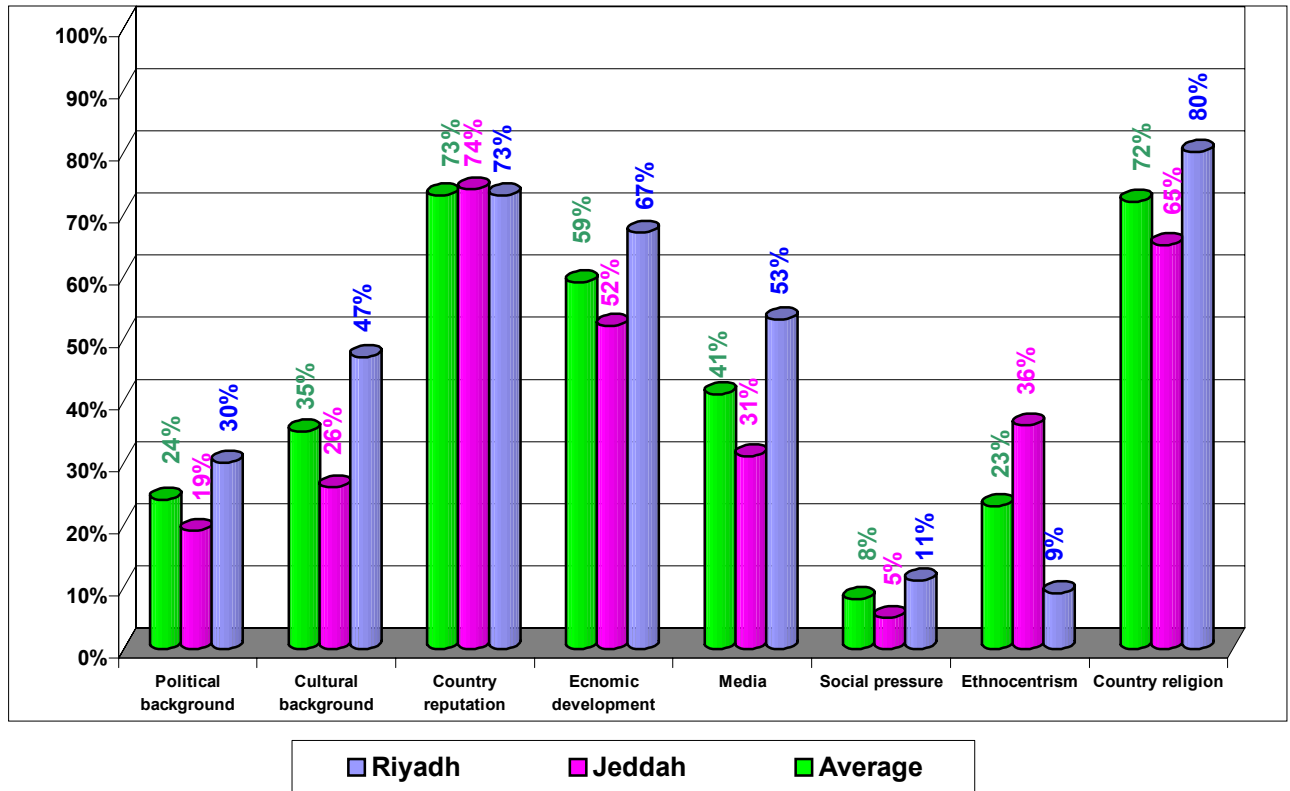
The Brand Constructs:

The second part of discussion of the same objective asked the same questions for the brand construct. These questions were: What does the term brand mean to you and how would you describe it? The Jeddah group answered the two questions as a sign of quality (w4), reliability (w7), the reputation of the company (w1), meeting specifications (quality) (w2), and expertise (w13). These different feedbacks show that brand means quality, trust, experience and reliability to the participants and they think that the media plays a strong role in building the brand name; (w9) and others agreed about that. The Riyadh group provided almost identical answers to those questions (w7: quality, w1: confidence, etc.). The way that the participants in the two groups defined the brand gives a clear indication of the importance of the brand as a buying cue.

All of the participants in the two groups agreed that the effects of the brand are different for different product categories. This means that the product category has a clear effect on the consumer evaluation of the product brand.

To determine whether the suggested variables used to describe the constructs really manifest these constructs or not, the participants' opinion were solicited and the results were: quality 86%, taste 70%, reliability 67%, competence 55%, packaging 38%, and friendliness 22%. This reflects the participants' ranking of the suggested variables according to their relevance as measures for the brand construct.

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When chicken was considered the outcome was: quality 87%, taste 75%, reliability 48%, packaging 47%, competence 47%, friendliness 22%, sincerity 10% and excitement 9%. Based on these results the variables that were considered as indicators for the brand construct are quality, taste, packaging, reliability and competence (included in one variable) and friendliness and sincerity (included in another variable). Excitement has a very low percentage which does not justify including it as a variable that could measure the branded product construct. The reason that reliability and competence form one scale and friendliness and sincerity form another scale is that they are conceptualised as such in most of the consulted literature (Aaker, 1997).

Fig # 5
Criteria to discuss whether they think that describe well the term
"Brand" or not ? (In the city of Riyadh & Jeddah)
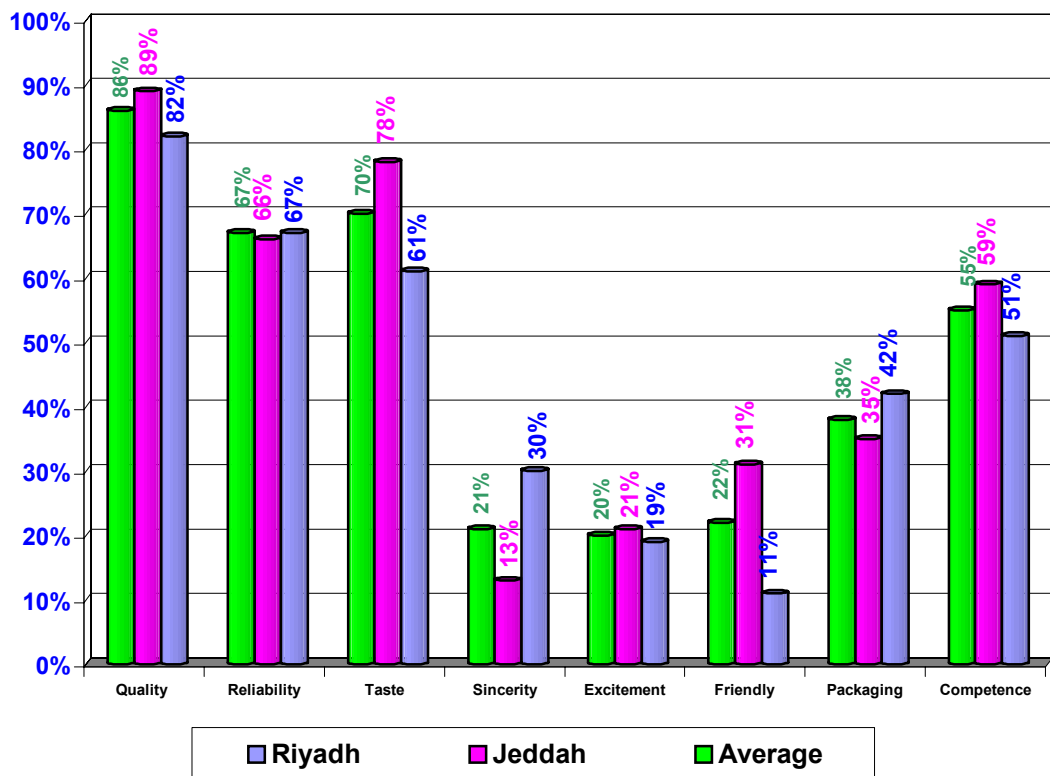
Fig # 6
Criteria to discuss what they consider when they buy milk
(In the city of Riyadh & Jeddah)
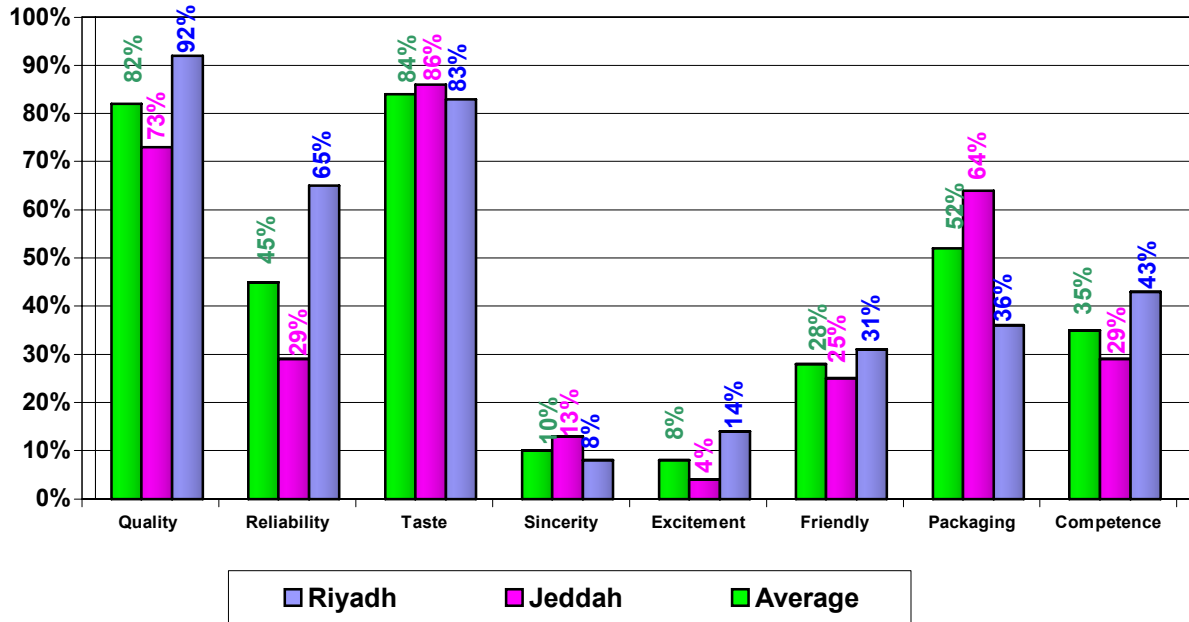
Fig # 7
Criteria to discuss what they consider when they buy chicken
(In the city of Riyadh & Jeddah)
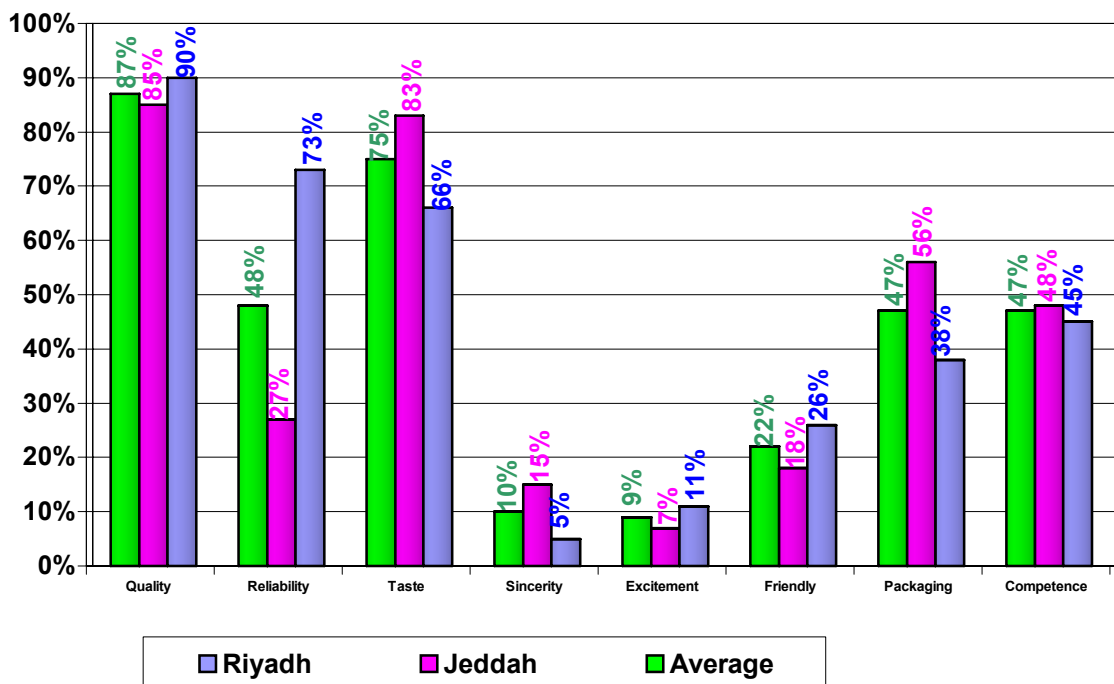
When the participants were asked if they really checked the country of origin when they bought milk and chicken, they gave different answers; some said that they checked if the product was new to them (w7, w4, and w6), and some said that they did not check and they used their perception (w1: we buy them as a result of what we see in the media and we do not read about the country of origin). Those who checked it did so for the first time only; if the same brand produced the same product in different country they may not know about it. The question was asked if they thought that other consumers really checked the country of origin before buying the products. They said that others did the same as they did. When the same questions were asked to the participants in the Riyadh group they gave the same feedback (w1 and w7: sometimes, w8: always, w5 and w9 along with other women: we use impression most of the time, w2, w3 and w7: if it is a new product). Their feedback varied widely form checking every time to not checking at all. This proves the importance of the COO (checking the product) and the brand (using perception) in the consumer's buying intention.

When the consumers were asked if they took their time when buying milk and chicken or if they practised impulse buying they revealed different opinions, but most of them thought that they bought without thinking if the brand was known to them; (w12: we rely on the brand if there is not enough time to read the leaflets, if we have time we read about the products). Others claimed that they took their time to read and make their buying decisions wisely (w7: I take my time to read because this is considered education for the consumer). But when they were asked if they thought that the Saudi women took their time or practised impulse buying, they thought that usually they practised impulse buying. Most of the Riyadh group participants believe that they practiced impulse buying (one of the women indicated that and most of others agreed with what she had said: if the product to which I am used is available in the market, I will buy it without reading about the country of origin. If my favourite product is not available, then I will buy its substitute, and in this case I will read about the country of origin and also the date of production and the validity of the product). Moreover, they indicated that when they found a new product in the market they read the label carefully (w7: every week I look for a new product and try it). The participants indicated that in this regard what applied in chicken also applied to milk. This could explain the importance of the perception which could be formed about the COO and branded product.

The main variables suggested for the country of origin constructs were not changed, as it was felt that the participants in the focus group felt positive about the products that came from local manufacturers. This study will help to verify to what extent that affects their buying intention. The brand construct variables were slightly changed, as the excitement variable was excluded from the variables that could measure the branded product construct.

Discussion related to the third question:

The third part of the focus group was devoted to establishing whether the items intended to be used in the data collection instrument were appropriate or not. Although at the time of the focus group discussion, the questionnaire was not developed in its final form, the draft was still distributed to the participants and their feedback about it was obtained. They indicated that the questionnaire covered all the issues that had been discussed in the focus group and that it was clear; (w9: the questionnaire is clear. The questions are clearer than those on the small cards) (w13:

the questionnaire is the same as the questions provided on cards. The difference here is that the questionnaire questions are presented in detail whereas the questions on the cards are in general and brief form). However, they thought it was still quite long (w11: there are repeated questions). Moreover, they did not think it was appropriate for distribution in the supermarket (w3 and w5: this should not be distributed in supermarkets because it is too long) and instead they suggested that it should be distributed in women's work places (w7: it should be filled in places of entertainment and in places where women get together in large numbers) and other places like schools or in clinics when they are in the waiting rooms or in places of entertainment places and similar places. The feed back of the Riyadh group was the same as that of the Jeddah group.

Many questions were asked about the nature and purpose of many of the questionnaire questions. This reflects the fact that the participants were not familiar with filling in questionnaires (w2: I do not like questionnaire); this is a part of the cultural difficulty in Saudi Arabia.

APPENDIX E :

Samples from Focus

Group Transcripts

(English)

Riyadh Focus Group

Welcome…every body. Please let me begin.

The dialogue bases on four pivots:

> Please, I want all of you to contribute freely to the discussion, although you may have contradicting opinions. There is nothing right or wrong.
> At very beginning, I have three points to start our discussion, and then I shall move to the major questions.

First: General Points (Introduction):

1st Question: How often do you go for marketing, once a month or every week? Or, normally, how often do you buy food products?

W1:   Twice a month.
Re: Twice a month.
W10: Every weekend.
Re: Every weekend
W2:   Four times in a month.
Re: Four times in a month.
W3:   Three times a month, for some products every day.
Re: Weekly for some things and daily for some things
W3:   For example chicken.
Re: Tell us about chicken in general.
W3:   There are things we buy daily.
Re: Daily.
W4:   Once a week.
Re: Is there any other opinion?
W5:   Every weekend.
Re: Once at every weekend.
W6:   On some occasions every day, e.g. bread.
Re: Do you go to the market every day?
W6:   no, not every day.
Re: Do you send the driver?
W6:   yes.
W7:   Sometimes we send the driver daily to buy some food stuffs like bread.
Re: Every day you go to the market?
W7:   No, we send the driver.

2nd Question: Generally, what kind of food products do you buy?

Re: The products, which you buy daily by yourself?
W7:   chicken, canned foods and vegetables.
W3:   fruits.

W8:   Milk products and juices.

W11: Cheese, beverages.

W1:   Bread.

W4:   Yogurt.

Re: Almost every thing, at the end of every week.

Re: Almost every thing, yes every thing.

Re: What food products you do not buy?

W1:   There are things we buy daily from grocery e.g. bread and yogurt. It is not logical to buy these things twice a month; we can buy them daily like dairy products.

Re: Now, the question is about chickens and milk products. Do you buy them by yourself - a question to everyone?

W2:   Yes.

Re: By yourself.

W5:   Sometimes.

Re: Sometimes.

Re: Could you please lower your voice, as it is better for recording.

Question: Who buys chicken and milk?

W5:   My brother.

Re: Who said her brother, your brother decides what type of chicken and milk to buy?

W5:   We do not agree with the family in buying.

Re: You say to him buy this type of milk or chicken.

W5:   Yes.

Re: Your brother does not choose any type.

W5:   No.

Re: Then, the decision is up to you.

W5:   Yes.

Re: Ok, is there anyone who has another opinion?

W3:   The wife (home maker).

W1:   We buy some types of chicken available in the market.

Re: What kind?

W7:   Any kind.

Re: You specify any type for him.

W7:   For milk, I specify the type.

Re: Be more precise, please, you say buy such a kind of chicken or not

W1:   No, I won't specify any type for him, he buys any type.

Re: He buys any type. If you go to the market, and there are six kinds of products, you consider them to be the same and buy any one available?

W7:   Yes.

Re: This is a very important point, it is called *"similarity of brands"*, and there are three or four branded companies. So, any one that is available, you buy. Correct?

W7:   Yes.

Re: Does anyone else agree with this?

W7: If you know about the hygiene of the product, we will buy it every time. Buying chicken depends on *smell, taste and cleanliness.* If we don't find it in one place, we look for it in another.

Re: Then, you are looking for a brand name.

W7: Yes.

Re: The opinion of the sister is different. She said I know five good companies. I buy the product of any of them. As for your opinion, it is different.

W7: Yes, it is different. I look for the best in kind and quality for each product.

Re: But, she did not say any product. She buys products of the five companies, because she is satisfied with them. While you said that you look for the brand, if it is not available in one place you go for another. Correct?

W7: Yes.

Re: Let us see, who agrees with buying five companies' products as available.

W9: I am with the 1st sister (this opinion).

Re: Ok, let us vote. Who agrees with the 1st op. and who agrees with the 2nd. (Five (5) women voted for the 1st op.) OK, now who agrees with the 2nd i.e. the best quality anywhere. (Five (5) women voted for this. One was biased.)

Re: Well, this is the prelude, which we have agreed upon. Now we will move to the point no. 1, as I said in the beginning to start with general questions then to go into detail.

Second: The First Part of the Study.

Question: What do you consider when you buy milk? Why? How?

Re: What elements do you consider, when you are going to buy milk products?

W9: Not heavy.

Re: Let us hear about "not heavy", you speak about *quality*?

W7: Expiry date.

Re: Expiry date.

W11: Nutritional value.

Re: What? Nutritional value. Again, you speak about *quality*. Almost every one of you speaks about *quality*. There are some other factors.

W4: No preservatives.

Re: You can say *taste.*

W1: Company name.

Re: Company name is *brand name.* Else?

W2: Brand name.

Re: Brand name is important to you. Then we said: *quality, taste, brand name* and other factors.

Re: There is something important you did not mention. I will not say it. When you go to the market, what is the most important thing attracting you?

W7:   The price.

Re: The price, ok. There is something else. I will not tell.

W1:   Sometimes, packaging.

Re: Packaging shape, excellent. Anything else important?

W2:   Name, some products are not always available, availability of the product e.g. Al-Marayee and Nadek.

Re: Excellent, *product availability* i.e. whenever I go to the market the product is there, because the family got used to the taste.

W10: *Taste* of the product.

Re: The family gets used to the taste. But there is something more.

W7:   Production date.

Re: Production date, anything more.

Re: Second point, now I will take you to question: what do you think of others? i.e. one says that I care for quality but people are concerned about price, as an example.

Question: What do you think that others may consider when they buy milk? Why? How?

Re: Some people consider quality while others price, in your opinion what do the people think of when they buy?

W1:   Some go for full fat milk, and some for fat-free. Many others look for price.

W2:   Mostly price.

Re: The price.

W7:   Women in particular are concerned about the quality of product like low fat milk.

Re: You mean quality/type. Are there other qualities?

W7:   children love milk with fruits, on what basis they prefer these, is different.

Re: You are talking about quality type.

W7:   Yes, I buy things on a quality basis.

Re: It is clear, that you consider quality. Ok, what else the buyers think other than price and quality? There is another thing people think over it!

W4:   Packaging shape.

Re: Packaging, people sometimes think about that. Else?

W5:   Production date.

Re: Production date, I think it has been said earlier. Any thing else other than packaging and production date. There are some things I will mention them later on.

Re: Now, again same questions for chicken.

Question: What are the latent reasons behind your choice of chicken products?

W9: weight (size of chicken).

Re: the weight, you can name it the *pack,* it is big or small. What else!

W4: free of fat.

Re: free of fat, you are talking about quality. Next?

W5: company name.

Re: company name i.e. *brand name.* Next.

W3: brand name.

Re: brand name, what else.

W7: cleanliness of product.

Re: cleanness of product i.e. quality. Next.

W11: free from diseases.

Re: quality, you are telling quality. Next.

W6: local product.

Re: excellent! local product; *origin country.*

W8: country of origin.

Re: country of origin, it has a rapport to Islamic slaughtering process, am I correct? What else?

Re: o.k. Now, the same question again, are these enough or there is more?

Question: What are the underlying reasons for others' decision to choose chicken products?

W1: Price.

Re: Price, some people think price. Next.

W7: Some people prefer price, and some quality, and some look for the product.

Re: *Brand name.*

Re: Now, we will distribute a piece of paper to all of you. On this paper, you will find some things said by you and others not. This is a study done before outside Saudi Arabia. Please read it carefully, and put (1) for most important and (2) for important. This study pertains to milk only. Later on, we come back to chicken.

W5: How do we order them?

Re: You will order them as per importance of the element. The element which is most important to you put (1) for it, then (2), and so on.

W3: We put every element in order?

Re: Yes, for example: country of origin is most important to you when you buy milk, order it (1), then you see production date is more important than other elements put (2), and so on. The element, which is not important, don't put any number on it.

* Categorizing Milk Products:

- country of origin
- quality
- trade mark
- product availability
- packaging
- price
- promotions
- retailer name
- advertised product
- familiar with one category

Re: Familiar with one product.
Re: When finished answering, please take a rest.
W7:   Retailer name, what does it mean?
Re: Market name e.g. Panda, Othaim, Giyant..etc.
Re: Take your time and rest.
W3:   The element, which is not important, we leave it blank.
Re: Yes.
W7:   There are two elements of same importance, what shall I do?
Re: No, please order them as (1) and (2), which is most and more.
Re: Now, if you have finished milk, the 2nd question is about chicken with same elements as milk. Remember what priorities do you have when you buy chicken?

* Categorizing Chicken Product:

- country of origin
- quality
- trade mark (brand)
- product availability
- packaging
- price
- promotions
- retailer name
- advertised product
- familiar with one category

Re: With that we will be finishing part 1 of a total of 3 parts; 2 parts are remaining. It seems we are moving smoothly.
Re: Now, tell me, how you differentiate between *country of product* and *country of origin.* One of you said ago, that country of origin is country of product in general, as this product is made in such a country. So what does this mean to you?

The Second Part of the Study:

Question: What does the term country of origin mean to you? How would you describe it?

W1: Special feeding of the chicken.
Re: You are talking about chicken. I would like you to talk in general about food stuff.
W4: Country is free from diseases.
Re: Disease-free country, perfect.
W7: Sometimes, we prefer to buy imported items. We choose this and that – the better of two.
Re: Let us say a tool for choice.
W7: Yes.
Re: Good, next. The term *country of origin*, what does it mean to you?
W1: A tool for choice.
Re: Yes, a tool for choice.
W8: Free from diseases, there is difference between one country and other.
Re: It means a tool for choice. Ok.
W8: Yes, a mean to choose.
Re: Same question in another way: how you describe country of make and country of origin? Think as an exam. Please describe.
W1: Country of product.
Re: Yes. How you define them.
W7: Country has natural feeding resources; vegs, rain, etc.
Re: Ok, but how do you know? Someone says that country of origin is confidence. What is the meaning of country of make? What meaning comes in your mind?
W11: Natural feeding.
Re: Ok then, again the same question: define country of origin or country of make?
W10: Quality.
Re: The quality. One defines country of origin as confidence, and other says quality.
Re: I have a very important question, please give your attention. The question is as follows:

Question: Do you think that the product category has effect on the consumer evaluation for the product COO?

Re: I will repeat, country of origin for chicken has effect different than country of origin for milk. Everybody agrees on this point. Does anyone have an objection?
W1: It affects to a great degree.
Re: Yes, it affects to a great extent. But does it affect from one product nature to another.
W2: The impact differs from country to country.

Re: No, not from country to country. For example, I have chicken and milk. Is it true that product country of chicken has its impact on my purchasing decision of milk in a different way? Please give your opinions.

W1+W7: We agree that it differs.

Re: I also agree with you on this.

Re: Now, I will display something again. It is related to how to define country of origin.

Re: How to define COO scientifically? I will help. There are 8 ways to define COO. Please have a look, and tell us which is more effective? Which elements have more impact on COO definition in general? Then we will ask for chicken and milk. You will be numbering each element according to its importance.

Re: Which variables are more descriptive for COO? Are these variables suitable to describe or measure COO?

W4:   For what product?

Re: For all kinds of products in general.

W4:   Yes.

Re: Please make sure that you order the variables as per their importance to you. Leave blank for a variable you see it not important.

W4:   Yes, it is clear.

Re: No. 1 will represent the most important variable. Leaving blank means it is not descriptive for COO, and this all for any product.

- political background
- cultural background (Re: means that country has similar culture as ours).
- country reputation
- economic development
- media
- social pressure
- ethnocentrism
- country religion

Re: All right now, the same variables for milk products. Which element describes more for COO? Please ask, if there is something not understood.

2nd Point: Milk buying criteria: You put in mind the criteria of the country of origin when you buy milk. In other words, effect of COO when you buy milk products.

Re: Please order the elements according to their importance to you; no. 1 for the most, no. 2 for the next important element...so on, and leave blank for the unimportant or irrelevant element.

- political background
- cultural background
- country reputation

- economic development
- media
- social pressure
- ethnocentrism
- country religion

W1: What is the meaning of social pressure?

Re: Yes, social pressure, sometimes you say that I will buy local products only for the pleasure of people. On the contrary, sometimes you buy imported products so you can say that I buy e.g. French products. These are social pressures that sometimes push you to buy product of a country to please people surrounding you.

W4: What is ethnocentrism? Is it religion? Or I will buy this product because it is from so-and-so country.

Re: Yes, it is correct, but not based on religion. Ethnocentrism is patriotism, e.g. I love and buy products of my country. Any product from outside I would not buy, even it is better in quality.

Re: Political background; I want to assure again the meanings. Political background; that I do not buy American products for such reasons. Cultural background; that this country has similar culture to my country, so I buy its products. Country reputation; the country has good reputation. Economic development; the country is economically developed. Media; the effect of media on purchasing decision. Social effects; mentioned above. Ethnocentrism; said above. Country religion: someone buys from GCC countries for they are Muslims as he is, and leaves Europe for they are not Muslims. This is religion background.

Re: All these questions for chickens too. Now think about chicken, and give your answers for which elements has its effect more on COO?

Chicken buying criteria: Put in your mind the criteria of the country of origin when you buy chicken. Or in other words, the influence of the country of origin when you buy chicken.

Re: Please order the elements according to their importance to you; no. 1 for the most, no. 2 for the next important element...so on, and leave blank for the unimportant or irrelevant element.

- political background
- cultural background
- country reputation
- economic development
- media
- social pressure
- ethnocentrism

- country religion

Re: Please keep in mind that you are answering about chicken only.

Re: Now we move to other points. We have discussed COO. Now think of *company brand.* The same questions will be asked about brand - in general.

Question: What is brand mark, in general?

W7: Quality.
Re: Quality.
W1: Confidence.
Re: Confidence.
W7: The confidence comes after a plenty of experience and study the product's manufacturing ways.
Re: The producing company does not use its name unless it assures for quality and specifications.
W7: Yes.
Re: Good, next.
W1: Distinct specifications.
Re: Yes, very near.
Re: OK, how do you specify trade mark (brand)?
W1+7: The same (after a laugh).
Re: The same, ok, anyhow I will move to the next.
Re: OK, now again we will distribute a card with criteria of describing trade brand. Make sure that variables describe brand in deed. I will explain now.

Question: In general, what are the variables (criteria) for describing the word; brand?

Re: Please order the elements according to their importance to you; no. 1 for the most, no. 2 for the next important element...so on, and leave blank for the unimportant or irrelevant element.

- Quality; Re: It describes the brand.
- Brand reliability; Re: this also describes the brand. How far do I trust the brand?
- Taste; Re: tasting a product is one way of assessing it to find out its weakness or strength.
- Sincerity for the brand; which is that I will look for this brand and buy it, wherever it is found. "I am sincere to this brand" quoting w7 who upheld this point.
- Brand excitement; Re: someone feels a kind of excitement toward buying the product of so-and-so brand. This is a kind of measuring.
- Friendly brand; Re: to feel that this brand is friendly or close to me. This is a kind of measurement.

- Packaging; Re: the shape/design of pack is sometimes a kind of measurement.
- Brand competence; Re: as W7 previously said that I have confidence in a company brand, so I believe it is competitive.

W1: The company might not grant a brand name until its product is competitive.

Re: These are eight measurement tools. I would like you to order them according to their importance. No.1 stands for most important then no.2 ..and so on. Zero or blank is for an unimportant element. We're moving on nicely.

Re: OK, now the question is: Does the consumer, when going to buy chicken or milk, consider for COO or made-in country?

Question: Do you think that consumers/yourself do not actively check the COO of milk, when deciding to buy?

W1: Sometimes.
Re: Sometimes.
Re: Whenever you go for marketing, you check for COO?
W7: Sometimes.
Re: Sometimes, not every time.
W8: Every time.
Re: Sometimes or every time you check for COO?
W8: Yes.
Re: Every time, even if you knew the brand, or you use your impression?
W5: We use impression more.
W9: We utilize impression more.
Re: You use impression more, so, you changed your opinion.
W9: (after a laugh) Yes, now I got the question.
W7: If there is a new product, we must see made-in country.
W4: I don't check.
W6+11: We rely on our confidence in the product.
Re: three opinions emerged; a) the impression, e.g. this is a Saudi product I will buy it, or French product I'll buy it. b) Sometimes, I check once or twice. c) Only once, if I know this is a Saudi product, that's all, I don't check it again.
W7: If it is a new product, I must read all data and trade brand.
W1: Sometimes when I am busy or in hurry, I utilize my impression.
Re: you use your impression.
W1: Yes.
W7: If a product is new, it is must to read COO info.
W4: I don't read it.
Re: Any body else, who does not read product info?
W8: I don't read it.
Re: You don't read data, then what shall you do? You look for name and pack.
W8: I check product name, brand and packaging.

Re: Probably it happens that there is a local known product, and another imported product enters the market with the same name.

W8: It is normal.

Re: Some companies do change, sometimes, their factories to another country then start producing locally. Therefore, do you read made-in country or use always your impression.

W7: Yes, sometimes it happens that it is same product but in a different pack.

Re: But your impression would be that it is from that country.

W7: Yes.

Re: Ok, we come to the most agreed point, which is impression. Is there any different view? However, it is versatile. Some people do read product data every time.

W3: I must read data, if the product is new. For the old products, I use my impression.

Re: You read data for new products, while old products you buy by impression.

Re: Same thing for chicken, is chicken different from milk? Every time you read data or use your impression?

W11: I use my impression.

Re: you use your impression.

W1: I check packaging.

Re: No, we are discussing COO.

Re: This in regard with milk, the same for chicken. Every time you check or use impression?

W10: Chicken, it is not necessary to read the data, if it is produced locally.

Re: How do you know that it is a Saudi product?

W10: I read.

Re: Then, you read the product info.

W10: Yes.

Re: First time or every time?

W10: Almost first time. When you buy a product you recognize its name and pack.

Re: Sure, it is available as per system, but the question is: does the consumer read the data every time or he uses his impression?

W8: He reads production date.

Re: No, I am talking about COO.

W10: Chickens are different from other products. I must read the data each time.

Re: About COO.

W10: Certainly.

Re: Each time.

W10: Certainly.

W7: Not every time. I don't read the data again, if I know the product.

Re: That is, you already know the product and you use your impression.

W7:   Yes.

Re: However, both views are present.

Re: Second question, it is very important.

Important question: Do you think, generally, that the consumers take enough time when they buy <u>milk products</u>? or they rely on the brand?

W7:   He takes his time in purchasing.

Re: He takes his time. Let us talk about milk; I will not mention any companies. Does he take his time or just he looks for a brand, buy it and go away. Do you think him compares specs or checks for new every time?

W4:   As I said before, I buy the used-to products without any check relying on the brand. If that is unavailable, I buy other but I check for COO, production and validity dates.

Re: You mentioned two different views.

W4:   Yes.

Re: All of you, do you agree with the point? That is, you buy used-to products, but relying on name or brand.

W4:   Relying on brand.

Re: Does every body agree on this point of view?

W1:   Every week, I look for new products. I might buy a new product and try it.

Re: Yes.

Re: Does this happen daily?

W1:   No, not daily.

Re: Or it happens when there is a new product in the market.

W1:   Maybe monthly.

W11:   I change the product from time to time, if I feel it better.

Re: Do you agree with this opinion?

W1:   I read the data.

Re: do you agree? 1st sister says that she reads data every week, looks for new products and takes her time, even though she knows COO. This is, totally, a different thinking. But the sister says "I don't see the brand continuously, I may purchase some other product".

W7:   We try other products from time to time, but when we come to a known product we buy it without reading any data.

Re: So, it is clear that you stand with the 1st woman.

W7:   Yes, I am with her.

Re: The previous quiz was about milk, and now the same thing for chicken. What do you see?

W7:   Same opinion.

Re: Please think and take your time. Do you follow same procedures when you buy chickens? You buy the brand and

walk away or you think? Do you change as the sister mentioned.

W3:   I send my husband to buy. If he does not find the required brand, he buys another available product.

Re: But you specify the brand.

Re: Let us talk about women. This is an exceptional case. Our study focuses on women's purchasing decisions. Do you find chickens different from milk products? Are they same?

W1+7: They are same.

Re: They are same.

Question: With regard to <u>chicken</u>, do you think that the consumers generally take enough time when they buy chicken? or they rely on the brand?

W11: As per availability.

W1+all women: Milk products and chicken products are same.

Re: Previously, I asked you about brand name in general. Now let us discuss milk, on how to measure brand name? What are the criteria of measuring the brand for milk?

Criteria for buying <u>milk</u> (brand measuring tools):

- Quality
- Reliability
- Taste
- Sincerity
- Excitement
- Friendly
- Packaging
- Competence

W7:   What is the meaning of "friendly"?

Re: It is a matter of satisfaction. Up to what level you are satisfied with the brand? It is like your friend.

W6:   How do you interpret "reliability"?

Re: It is that you trust a brand, e.g. this is Nokia, I trust in it. Though it is put in a glass, I will buy it. This is called brand reliability.

Re: We are just about to finish. We have 10 to 15 minutes. The same questions now will be asked for chickens. Again, I should remind you of ordering the points according to their importance, and leave blank for unimportant item.

Criteria for buying <u>chicken</u> (brand measuring tools):

Please order the elements according to their importance to you; no. 1 for the most, no. 2 for the next important element...so on, and leave blank for an unimportant or irrelevant element.

- Quality
- Reliability
- Taste
- Sincerity
- Excitement
- Friendly
- Packaging
- Competence

Re: Did you finish ordering the elements?

Re: By this, we have completed the 2nd point. 3rd point is very concise. 3rd point is to fill in the questionnaire, which represents our recent dialogue.   This questionnaire will be distributed to women in the market. Please read it and fill it in thoroughly. Also make sure that it covers the points we discussed in our dialogue, i.e. country of origin, brand name and measuring tools/elements. While answering the questionnaire, remember the dialogue we had run. We have used same questionnaire for milk and chicken.

W9:   Do we fill in this questionnaire?

Re: Yes, please.

Re: All women, please answer this questionnaire assuring that it covers all we had discussed before.

W7:   Please explain numbers put in front of each question.

Re: for example, 1st question: milk of high quality is produced from known branded companies. The explanation is as follows:

> 1- strongly disagree
> 2- somewhat disagree
> 3- neither
> 4- somewhat agree
> 5- strongly agree

Re: Now, the questions and numbers are clear.

W1:   Yes.

W6:   Shall I put a circle or tick mark on my answer?

Re: Either.

W7:   No. 3 is "neither or has no opinion".

Re: Yes, it means "I don't know".

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W2:   what is "sincerity" in brand?

Re: Yes, it shows degree of your loyalty to the brand you buy. It is same as you show to a person. You might say that I will not buy except so-and-so brand. This is sincerity in a brand.

W5:   COO has no relation with my selection for milk?

Re: It means: no. 1 "I don't care about COO", whilst no. 5 "it is my core concentration". One says: COO is very important for me, e.g. it must be Saudi, but other is looking for brand name ignoring COO.

W5:   yes.

W3:   Milk is milk; all major brands are basically same.

Re: Milk is milk; there is not any difference. All brands are same. Someone may say: I have four or five brands, they are all similar. But others will say that the brand is most important. Thus, he says: milk is milk, this product is similar to that. For example, rice is packed from one origin with different brand names.

W6:   Purchasing decision! When I go for purchasing milk, I assume it as decision. Is it important or unimportant?

Re: On which page?

W6:   4th page.

Re: When I go for purchasing milk, I assume it as decision. Is it important or unimportant? Generally, it means; is the purchasing of milk considered important or unimportant decision? Is it easy or difficult? Either it requires consideration or not? Someone says: it is not necessary to think over purchase of milk.

W6:   I see, but is this for my known milk or for any milk?

Re: For milk in general. Many people have different views towards purchasing milk. Someone says: it is important to ponder on, and other says: no, it is not important to do that, and so on. The following question: do you lose more if you did wrong choice of country of origin? will reveal importance of your decision to buy milk products.

Re: It is important to indicate vague questions, for it will be very helpful in re-considering the questionnaire.

W7:   Q: "I buy the thing once I see it" does it describe me?

Re: Which page? P.6, I buy the thing once I see it. Some people buy without any checking. "I don't read or check any data" does it describe me? Some will disagree strongly, and others will agree strongly. As for you, disagree strongly.

W4:   Q: on page 6, sometimes I feel that I buy instantly?

Re: Sometimes, I feel that I buy instantly. This is same question as before. Some people buy once they see the thing, without any pre-intention. I admired that thing and bought it. The aim here is to decide if the decision to buy is sudden or premeditated. This, of course, varies from one person to another.

Re: Did you finish filling in the questionnaire? The group, which has finished now, will exchange me opinions.

Question: Does the questionnaire on milk or chicken in this context make sense or not? Does it cover all the questions slated for discussion?

W1:   Yes, it covers the discussion.

Re: It covers, ok. Is there any remark on the questionnaire?

W3:   Repeated questions.

W5:   Repeating questions.

Re: The purpose of repeating questions is to take answers from the respondent in a precise way. This is a scientific method to cross-check the answer.

Re: Other remarks?

W1:   The last question.

Re: It differs from person to other. Someone does purchase products, and then he considers that unnecessary. Many have this problem. Through theses questions, we can know others purchasing manners.

Re: Any other comment?

W8:   A few questions are repeated but in different styles.

Re: Yes, this is done intentionally to verify input data.

W7:   the importance of the question must be manifested. If I did not grasp one the other is explained better.

Re: The question is explained in a better way.

Re: How do you find the questionnaire? Lengthy or short?

W8:   It is lengthy.

W9:   Yes, it is lengthy.

W5:   The questions must be brief.

Re: Indeed, making questions brief is not recommended scientifically.

W6:   Some questions are not easily understood.

Re: It is important to elaborate those questions.

Question: Is it advisable to fill this questionnaire in supermarkets?

Re: I.e. is it appropriate to deliver this questionnaire to ladies coming out from supermarkets?

W7+11: No, it is not appropriate, since the questionnaire is lengthy. It requires time to fill in. Questions should be revised and made brief.

Re: Brief questions!

W11: Yes.

Re: Making questions brief is not the right option scientifically, do we have other options?

Re: Except supermarkets, which place is most suitable to ask women to fill in the questionnaire properly?

W7:   In houses and places of entertainment.

Re: Ok, could you suggest more options.

W11: Women's gathering places.

W1:   Hospitals.

Re: It is good suggestion, so she may find time to fill in.

W6:   Schools.

Re: Do you have other remarks or any addition?

All women: No.

Re: Thank you very much. Well done!

Jeddah Focus Group

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Re: What elements do Saudi consumer considers when he buys chicken or milk, especially effect of brand name and country of origin on his purchasing decision?

W8: May we get introduced to you?

Re: I am Khalid S. Al-Rajhi, general manager of Al-Watania Poultry.

W8: What is your specialization?

Re: my specialization is business administration. I am BBA and MBA. I am doing my PhD in Int'l Business Administration.

W9: What is the subject of your PhD thesis?

Re: It is "What elements do Saudi consumer considers when he buys chicken or milk, especially effect of brand name and country of origin on his purchasing decision?"

W10: You chose chicken because of your business field.

Re: Yes, I did it because of my business field.

W10: Repeated the same above question.

Re: the same above answer.

W10: Otherwise, you may have chosen meat and milk.

Re: Yes.

W10: Because it is your field.

Re: Exactly.

W10: Alright, because it was possible to say meat instead of chicken.

Re: Yes, 500,000 chickens daily.

W10: Very good, what Allah desired.

Re: Thanks to God.

W9: We buy Al-Watania chicken from any shop, it tastes good and cooling is appropriate.

Re: God bless you, this witness is a pride for me.

W4: There are so many kinds of chickens I do not buy, because I am not sure that they are naturally fed or if they contain a lot of hormones. Is Al-Watania chicken naturally fed or contains hormones?

W9: Al-Watania chicken has superior taste.

Re: (laughingly) It is enough that I swear by God.

W4: Don't feel angry with me.

Re: I assure you that Al-Watania name emerged from nationalism, and built its projects upon that basis. Therefore, it assures you that all chickens are natural fed – 100% - and no hormones used at all.

W3: But, I feel that the shape of the chicken is strange, not natural.

W9: It is the healthiest chicken.

Re: We do not use any hormones or additives.

W6:   You feel that it is natural.
Re: This pertains chickens of Al-Watania.
W9:   (with a laugh) It is a good publicity for Al-Watania.
Re: (laughing) Ok, now we should move to the point no.1 for discussion, so we don't waste your time.
Re: Now, let us move to point no.1 – main discussion.

Second: First Part of the Study:

Re: When you do visit to the supermarket, what do you consider when you buy milk?

W9:   Smell of the milk.
Re: You mean the quality.
W7:   The taste.
Re: The taste.
W7:   Preservatives.
Re: Preservatives have relation to quality.
W3:   Acidity % must not be high.
Re: It is again taste.
W9:   100% natural.
Re: 100% natural.
Re: The quality.
W12: Thinness of yoghurt (leben); like water.
Re: Everybody is telling about two elements only; quality or taste. What are other criteria?
W9:   Packaging, for example.
W5:   Production and expiry dates; if it is today's or two days before, it is excellent. Otherwise, I don't buy.
Re: Production date.
W5:   I select a well-cooled supermarket because some markets do not preserve the required temperature, which affect product taste.
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The Second Part of the Study:

Question: What does the term country of origin mean to you? How would you describe it?

W1:   Special feeding the chicken.
Re: You are talking about chicken. I would like you to talk in general-food stuffs.
W4:   Country is free from diseases.
Re: Disease-free country, perfect.
W7:   Sometimes, we prefer buy imported items. We choose this and that – the better of two.

Re: Let us say a tool for choice.

W7:   Yes.

Re: Good, next. The term *country of origin*, what does it mean to you?

W1:   A tool for choice.

Re: Yes, a tool for choice.

W8:   Free from diseases, there is difference between one country and other.

Re: It means a tool for choice. Ok.

W8:   Yes, a means to choose.

Re: Same question in another way: how you describe country of make and country of origin? Think as an exam. Please describe.

W1:   Country of product.

Re: Yes. How you define them.

W7:   Country has natural feeding resources; vegs, raining, etc.

Re: Ok, but how do you know? Someone says that country of origin is confidence. What is the meaning of country of make? What meaning comes in your mind?

W11: Natural feeding.

Re: Ok then, again the same question: define country of origin or country of make?

W10: Quality.

Re: The quality. One defines country of origin as confidence, and other says quality.

Re: I have a very important question, please give your attention. The question is as follows:

Question: Do you think that the product category has effect on the consumer evaluation for the product COO?

Re: I will repeat, country of origin for chicken has another effect than country of origin for milk. Everybody agrees on this point. Does anyone have an objection?

W1:   It affects it to a great degree.

Re: Yes, it affects to a great extent. But does it affect from one product nature to another?

W2:   The impact differs from country to country.

Re: No, not from country to country. For example, I have chicken and milk. Is it true that product country of chicken has its impact on my purchasing decision of milk in a different way? Please give your opinions.

W1+W7: We agree that it differs.

Re: I also agree with you on this.

Re: Now, I will display something again. It is related to how to define country of origin.

Re: How to define COO scientifically? I will help. There are 8 ways to define COO. Please have a look, and tell us which is more effective? Which elements have more impact on COO definition

in general? Then we will ask for chicken and milk. You will be numbering each element according to its importance.

Re: Which variables are more descriptive for COO? Are these variables suitable to describe or measure COO?

W4:   For what product?

Re: For all kinds of products in general.

W4:   Yes.

Re: Please make sure that you order the variables as per their importance to you. Leave blank for a variable you see it not important.

W4:   Yes, it is clear.

Re: No. 1 will represent the most important variable. Leaving blank means it is not descriptive for COO, and this all for any product.

-   political background
-   cultural background (Re: means that country has similar culture as ours).
-   country reputation
-   economic development
-   media
-   social pressure
-   ethnocentrism
-   country religion

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APPENDIX F :

Sub-Hypotheses

Development (as per

Saudi Settings)

Sub-Hypotheses Development

The followings are the research sub-hypotheses as per the discussion in chapters five and six and how the qualitative research method is used to adapt them to the Saudi setting:

1. COO Construct Hypotheses:

H1: If a country has a positive image, its branded products will also have a positive image.

H2: The more positively consumers perceive COO, the higher their buying intentions of its products.

After the focus group discussion the following sub-hypotheses have been developed:

The composite of the 'made in' image intrinsically addresses related variables such as representative products, national and cultural characteristics, and the economic and political circumstances associated with each nation which influence consumers' preferences for a country's products (Nagashima, 1977; Roth and Romeo, 1992). Accordingly, this study, in addition to examining the effect of consumers' general perceptions of the COO construct on their perception of its products, will also examine the effect of consumers' perceptions of the dimensions of the political background, economical development, technological background, cultural background, and religious background of COO on their perceptions about the country's products.

Consumers' perception of the political background of a specific country has been proven to be one of the factors that consumers usually use to evaluate that country, and consequently it affects consumers' perception of the products that come from that country (Lewis, 2002). For example, when consumers in Saudi Arabia felt that the United States of America was unfair in its attempts to find a solution for the Middle East crisis, Americans products were boycotted and imports of American products to Saudi Arabia dropped by 40% (Abeidoh, 2002). *The Economist* (2005) reported that the anti-American sentiments and consumers' boycotting of the American products have been increased as of the war on Iraq. Participant of the focus group have emphasized the importance of the political background as a variable that should conceptualize the COO construct in this study. Eight out of the 24 participants of the two focus groups consider the political background of any country has effect on the product that comes from that specific country.

This might partly help in explaining some British companies' reluctance to associate themselves with the UK – brands and their effort to keep themselves separate from agents that they cannot control. Lewis (2002) mentioned that at the Walpole seminal Andrew Gower, editor of the *Financial Times*, pointed out that post-September 11th has proven that it is impossible to ignore the effect of politics on the commercial sector regarding brands: 'Politics is back. The role of the Government is increasing and this has an impact on business, for example McDonald's has become a target for anti-globalisation. I'm convinced American brands have yet come to terms with this.

Thus, the following hypothesis is made:

H2a: The more positively consumers perceive the political background of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products.

The country's level of economic development has been demonstrated as being one of the factors that consumers habitually use to evaluate a particular country and its products. Bhuian (1997), who carried out his study in Saudi Arabia, found that consumers has more positive evaluations of products from the USA, Japan, Germany, Italy, the UK and France.

Thus, there is a general consensus in the literature that the higher the level of the economic development, the more favourably the consumers will perceive the products that come from that country (Wang and Lamb, 1983; Roth and Romeo, 1992; Manrai et al. 1997; Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001).

Focus group participants have given the economic development factor as the highest priority after the religion factor to conceptualize the COO construct. Sixteen out of the 24 participants have considered the economical development as an important factor to affect the COO perception.

Also, studies conducted during this period have supported most if not all the different issues that had been proved in the previous studies. Research has established that COO images are related to perceptions of the level of economic development of countries (Roth and Romeo, 1992). The highly-developed countries have a very strong positive consumer perception on their products; USA, Japan and Germany are good example of such countries. A review suggested that product evaluations tend to be highest for products sourced in highly-developed countries, followed by newly-industrialising countries, and are lowest for Eastern European/socialist countries and developing countries (Manrai et al., 1997).

The economic development as a factor that can affect how consumers evaluate the COO effects has been confirmed widely by the studies conducted during this period. Laroche et al. (2005) have reported that products from the less developed countries are perceived to be more risky and of lower quality than products made in more developed counties. Based on this, it is hypothesized that:

H2b: The more positively consumers perceive the economic development of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products.

The technological background of a country is perceived in the same way as its level of economical development, i.e. the more advanced the technological background, the better the ability of the country to produce high quality products (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 2000; Story, 2005). Focus group participants had assured the importance of the technological background to conceptualize the COO construct. Sixteen out of the 24 participants of the two focus groups have suggested technological background as an important factor to evaluate the COO.

The effect of COO also applies industrial products (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001). This is because the technological, economic, social and cultural systems of countries and their relative stage of economic development are possible cognitive indicators that may affect the representation of countries in consumers' minds (Lin and Kao (2004). Products bearing the label 'Made in Germany', 'Made in Switzerland' or

'Made in Japan' are commonly regarded as high quality because of the reputation of these countries as top world manufacturers and exporters (Lewis, 2002). Lewis (2002) said that Columbia has deliberately used its name to promote its coffee product – Café de Colombia. The image of the country is a cue that consumers are using to evaluate a product that originated from a country. Consumers continuously summarise product information into a country 'image' (Han, 1989).
Therefore, it is assumed that:

H2c: The more positively consumers perceive the technological background of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products.

Consumers' perception of the cultural background of a country is another factor that affects their evaluation of its products (Nagashima, 1977; Krishnakumar, 1974; Balabanis et al. 2002; Dwyer et al. 2005). Laroche et al. (2005), Insch and McBride (2004) have found that culture can explain differences in country of origin evaluations. Briley and Wyer (2002) have argued that calling people's attention to cultural identity is likely to affect how consumers respond to domestic or foreign products.

With Pharr (2005) it appears that the intersection of culture and values has proven especially rewarding for explaining the origins of country of origin evaluations as evidenced by the number of studies focusing on endogenous sources. That culture is a very important factor in Saudi Arabia has been strongly proved in focus group discussion.

Russell and Russell (2006) have found that the pattern of results is evidence of cultural resistance; the interaction of high animosity conditions and U.S. movie synopsis exposure significantly increased French consumers' preference for domestic movies.

Ozretic-Dosen et al. (2007) have argued that people sharing similar cultural values tend to be similar in their evolutions of country of origin. Knight et al. (2007) deduced perceptions that consumers have of products from a country, as well as their feelings towards the people of that country and the desired level of interaction with those people, contribute to a country stereotype.

the importance of the culture has been recognised as a part of the COO conceptualisation. Diamantopoulos et al.'s (1995) findings demonstrate that, even in two European Union countries which are more similar in terms of their economic development and living standards, for example, Greece and Denmark, important differences in consumer preferences still exist. They added, to some extent, this could reflect cultural differences between the two countries. Diamantopoulos et al. (1995) findings highlight the potential difficulties in approaching the entire EU market with a single marketing strategy. Hannerz (1990) pointed out that the desire to display competence with regard to alien cultures is an important motive behind the growth of 'cosmopolitan' elites in many developing countries.

The focus groups participants have considered the culture of a country as an important factor to evaluate any product that comes from that specific county. This was assumed by ten out of the 24 participants. Consequently, it is hypothesized that:

H2d: The more positively consumers perceive the national culture of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products.

Religion is a very important aspect of people's lives and it has a very strong effect on their perceptions (Delener, 1994; Pettinger et al. 2004). Consumers in a society with strong religious beliefs, such as Saudi Arabia, will esteem products from countries with the same religious background. As *halal* food is crucial for Muslims, they will perceive positively food products that come from a Muslim country. Moreover, the stronger and more committed the believers (e.g. Saudis) the more important is this factor.

Anderson and Cunningham (1972) demonstrated the desirability of using personality attributes associated with attitudes (such as religion) as the basis for segmenting domestic markets for foreign products.

Pettinger et al. (2004) reported that there is evidence to prove that religion can influence consumers' attitude and behaviour in general and that it may affect food consumption in particular (Mullen et al.2000; Blackwell et al. 2001). Dindyal (2003) stated that religion is very influential in food choices. Bonne et al. (2007) stated that the religious associations attached to *halal* meat probably make this decision more important for Muslim consumers, which could lead to a different decision making process, including a specific set of predictors.

Many researchers have proved the importance of religion for the purchasing of food products (Mennell et al., 1992; Shatenstein and Ghadirian, 1997; Asp, 1999) but none of them conceptualised the COO using religion as a dimension, which is a very important process and can help to measure the level of the effect of religion as part of the COO construct.

Another issue that was highlighted by the multiple cues studies is recognition of different levels of the COO effects. Hooley et al. (1988) suggested that country image occurs at two levels. At a macro level, mentioning a particular country may convey a general image, while at a micro, or product-class level, a more specific image will be created. Macro level factors comprise political background, cultural background, country reputation, etc ... Micro level factors comprise customer personal experience, customer religion, product complexity, etc

The factor of religion has been rated as the most important factor that should conceptualize the COO construct from the focus group participants. Some of the participants used COO as a proxy for the religion factor *(w12: slaughtering an animal in accordance with Islamic Sharia law)*. The difference between the factors that respondents considered when buying chicken compared to milk is the country of origin (w6) and *halal* meat, which referred to the religion factor *(w7: slaughtering in line with Islamic Sharia law)* which will be used as a variable to measure the effects of country of origin on buying intention. In Riyadh group, they mentioned the religion factor, *Halal* meat *(w1: slaughtering according to the Islamic law)* was also found to be important. Seventeen participants out of the total 24 have assumed that religion factor is very important in evaluating any specific country, which is very much expected in Saudi conservative society. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H2e: The more positively consumers perceive the religion of a specific country, the higher will be their buying intentions of its products.

2. Branded Product Construct Hypotheses:

The followings are the main research hypotheses as per the discussion in the chapter five:

H3: The higher the consumers perceive a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.

From the focus group discussion the following sub-hypotheses have been developed:

From the different definitions of brand, it is clear that the brand has values which can affect how consumers perceive the specific brand. Levitt (1983) reported that according to the globalization paradigm, as long as a product is of high quality, reliable, and at a reasonable price, it will sell well in all markets. Piron (2000) findings confirming that a product's extrinsic cues, such as its COO, are less important than intrinsic cues, such as reliability and performance. Freling and Forbes (2005) stated that reliability as one of the brand personality and other factor (sincerity) is effecting the consumer perception about the branded product. Brand personality (reliability, sincerity, ..etc) can be used as a central driver to consumer preference and a common denominator that can be used to market a brand across cultures (Levitt, 1983; Plummer, 1985; Loken et al, 1986; Biel, 1993, Fournier, 1998).

Rojas-Mendez et al. (2004) have recognized that the brand personality concept possesses a stronger cultural component as a moderator than initially thought. Freling and Forbes (2005) stated that because of a natural human tendency to anthropomorphize non-human objects, consumers embrace brands with strong and positive personalities.

Based on the above discussion, and verifying which of the variables can conceptualize the branded product construct that is suitable to the research product category from the exploratory study and focus groups. ADP: Exploratory study revealed that the brand has a personality that you can rely on it. (*W3J: I can rely on brand like a friend. W7R: the relationship with a brand can be built as a friendship*).

H3a. The higher the consumers perceive competence (reliability) of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.

H3b. The higher the consumers perceive sincerity (friendliness) of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.

Increasing globalisation and the need of consumers for reassurance about product quality and reliability are resulting in a shift towards corporate endorsement of product brands (Douglas et al. 2001). Chinen et al. (2000) found that two variables, product quality and market presence, positively influence the U.S. consumers' "intention to buy" with product quality being more influential than market presence.

Park and Winter (1979) found that, empirically, brand names are important sources of information for evaluating the quality of products. According to Ettenson and Gaeth (1991), it is well established that marketers use brand names as distinctive labels to identify a product with a firm. They added that, in turn, this linking enhanced the product's attractiveness and provided the consumer with some assurance of the product's overall quality. Sternthal and Craig (1982) found that consumers use a brand name as a surrogate for product quality, especially if other cues are not known.

On the other hand, according to the globalisation paradigm, as long as a product is of high quality, reliable and at a reasonable price, it will sell well in all markets (Levitt, 1983). But that does not mean a good brand name will have no effect; the brand name, as mentioned above, will act as a cue for good quality and reliability. Loken et al. (1986) reported that trademarks serve to identify the product or services so that consumer can be assured that goods marked with the same name, symbol or other design characteristics indeed come from the same source and therefore the marks can be relied upon to signify certain standards of quality.

Miranda and Konya (2006) indicated that shoppers who are disposed to examine the country of manufacture are inclined to take particular note of the item's brand name. For example, even if a product is identified as "Australian made", unless it is a brand that consumers can recognise and whose dimension of quality they are comfortable with, there is no guarantee that they will buy it.

In focus group, when the participants were asked about what they considered when buying chicken, quality was considered a very important factor *(w4: the colour of the chicken (quality), w3 and w8: natural feed (with no use of hormones).* Moreover, the quality has been rated as the most important factor that can conceptualize the brand in both sectors; poultry and milk. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H3c. The higher the consumers perceive the quality of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.

Another factor that consumers consider in evaluating food products is taste. Consumers use taste to judge the product quality (Cox, 1967). Olson (1972) considered taste as one of the important intrinsic cues that represent indigenous produce-related attributes.

In India, it has been found that intrinsic cues such as taste and freshness are more important than extrinsic cues (price, packaging, and brand name) in determining consumers' overall quality perceptions of processed food products (Chung et al. 2006). The focus group participants have reported the importance of taste when they were asked about the factors that they consider to buy chicken, *(w7J: taste, w3J: flavour (taste)),* Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H3d. The higher the consumers perceive the taste of a branded product, the higher will be their purchase intention.

Many studies have proven that packaging has strong effects on consumer perception about branded products and product evaluation (Monroe, 2003). Emphasizing this, some researchers have claimed that 'the first taste is almost always with the eye', suggesting that visual cues, such as packaging, greatly influence a consumer's initial acceptance of a food product (Holbrook et al. 1986; Imran, 1999; Knight et al. 2007). The focus group participants mentioned the importance of packaging as a factor they consider it in the branded product, carton packing materials are better than plastic ones (packaging). Based on this, the following hypothesis is made:

H3e. The higher the consumers perceive a branded product's packaging, the higher will be their purchase intention.

3. The Branded Product and the Perceived Parity:

The main hypotheses which have been developed in the chapter five:

H4: The higher the similarity of the branded product of the major brands, the less positive an image the individual brands will have.

According to the discussion of the focus group, the following sub-hypotheses have been developed:

H4a. The higher the similarity of the competence (reliability) of the major brands, the less positive an image the individual brands will have.

H4b. The higher the similarity of the sincerity (friendliness) of the major brands, the less positive an image each brand will have.

H4c. The higher the similarity of the quality of the major brands, the less the positive image of each particular brand will be.

H4d. The higher the similarity of the taste of the major brands, the less the positive image of each particular brand will be.

H4e. The higher the similarity of the packaging of the major brands, the less the positive image of each particular brand will be.

APPENDIX G :

Questionnaire Ver. 1

(English)

Questionnaire on Country of Origin & Branded Frozen Chicken

This questionnaire is for <u>academic purposes only</u>. The details you provide are for an academic piece of research, carried out in the *University of Glasgow*. The University of Glasgow operates according to Principles of Ethical Research which can be viewed on http://www.gla.ac.uk/departments/businessandmanagement/ethics/index.html. None of the information collected will be for commercial use. Your support and co-operation is much appreciated.

A. On average, how many pieces of chicken do you buy a month?

1-10		11-20		21-30	
31-40		41-50		50+	

B. What size of chicken do you usually buy?

Small (600-900g) [ ]   Medium (1000-1200g) [ ]   Large (1300-1500g) [ ]

C. Please tick the appropriate boxes or state your level of agreement with the following statements:

		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I can't think of any difference between the major brands of chicken.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	To me, there are big differences between the various brands of chicken.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	The only difference between the major brands of chicken is price.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Chicken is chicken; most brands are basically the same.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	The major brands of chicken are the same.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	The reliability of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	The level of safety of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	The level of success of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	The leadership of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	The level of confidence in the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	The major brands of chicken are all equally family-oriented.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	The level of honesty of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	The level of sincerity of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	The major brands of chicken are all equally wholesome.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	The major brands of chicken are all equally original.	1	2	3	4	5

D. Please tick the appropriate boxes or state your level of agreement with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The quality of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The colour of the meat and bone of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The chicken of the major brands are all of equally high quality.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The major brands of chicken are equally naturally fed.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The taste of the major brand of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The smell of the major brand of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The chickens of major brands have an equally good taste.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The chickens of all major brands are equally juicy.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The packaging of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The chickens of major brands are equally well-protected in hygienic packs.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The major brands of chicken are all equally well-packaged.	1	2	3	4	5

(Assume that you are in the supermarket where there are four different new brands of chicken, each brand produced in one of the following countries: Egypt, France, Malaysia, and Saudi Arabia)

PS: Please indicate the most appropriate number (from 1 to 5) to show your level of agreement with the following statement for each brand, where 1= strongly disagree, 2= somewhat disagree, 3=neither, 4=somewhat agree and 5=strongly agree:

E. I feel that branded chicken produced in *Egypt*, *France*, *Malaysia* and *Saudi* is as follows:

	Egypt	France	Malaysia	Saudi
1. Reliable				
2. Safe				
3. Successful				
4. Leader				
5. Inspire confidence				
6. Family-oriented				
7. Honest				
8. Sincere				
9. Wholesome				
10. Original				

PS: Please indicate the most appropriate number (from 1 to 5) to show your degree of agreement with the following statement for each brand, where 1= strongly disagree, 2= somewhat disagree, 3=neither, 4=somewhat agree and 5=strongly agree:

F. I would describe branded chicken of *Malaysia*, *Egypt*, *France* and *Saudi,* as follows:

	Malaysia	Egypt	France	Saudi

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1.	High quality				
2.	Having white meat and bone colours				
3.	Superior product				
4.	Naturally- fed				
5.	Very tasty				
6.	Smells pleasant				
7.	A superior taste				
8.	As juicy as I want it to be				
9.	Packed in good packaging				
10.	Packed in hygienic packs to protect the meat				
11.	Has superior packaging.				

PS: Please indicate the most appropriate number (from 1 to 5) to show your degree of agreement with the following statement for each brand, where 1= strongly disagree, 2= somewhat disagree, 3=neither, 4=somewhat agree and 5=strongly agree:

G.

	France	Malaysia	Egypt	Saudi
1. I would never buy branded chicken produced in				
2. I definitely do not intend to buy branded chicken produced in				
3. I have low purchase interest for branded chicken produced in				
4. I would definitely be willing to buy branded chicken produced in				
5. I would possibly buy the branded chicken produced in				

H.

		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I personally favour buying Saudi-produced rather than foreign- produced chicken.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Generally, I prefer purchasing Saudi products (any products, not just chicken) over foreign products.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Foreign-made products are generally of higher quality than Saudi-made products.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	It is important that I purchase Saudi-made products so that jobs are not lost to foreign countries.	1	2	3	4	5

PS: Please indicate the most appropriate number (from 1 to 5) to show your degree of agreement with the following statement for each brand, where 1= strongly disagree, 2= somewhat disagree, 3=neither, 4=somewhat agree and 5=strongly agree:

I. I feel that *Malaysia*, *Egypt*, *France* and *Saudi Arabia*:

		Malaysia	Egypt	France	Saudi Arabia
1.	Are economically well-developed.				
2.	Have a democratic system of government				
3.	Have mass-produced products.				
4.	Have a civilian government.				

5. Are predominantly industrialised.

J. I feel that *France, Malaysia*, *Egypt* and *Saudi Arabia*:

	France	Malaysia	Egypt	Saudi Arabia
1. Have high labour costs.				
2. Have high literacy rates.				
3. Have a free market system.				
4. Have a welfare system.				
5. Have a stable economic environment.				

K. I feel that *Egypt, France*, *Malaysia* and *Saudi Arabia*:

	Egypt	France	Malaysia	Saudi Arabia
1. Export agricultural products.				
2. Have high quality products.				
3. Have a high standard of living.				
4. Have a high level of technological research.				
5. Have distinct customs and values.				
6. Language creates distance from other countries.				
7. Culturally different than other countries.				
8. Their religion is distinct.				
9. Religion creates distance from other countries.				
10. Religion is different than other countries.				

L. How do you find out about international issues?   T.V. ☐   press ☐   travel ☐
internet ☐   friends ☐   not interested ☐

Other (specify) …………………………………..……………………………………….…………. (You can tick more than one)

M. How can people learn about other countries?   T.V. ☐   press ☐   travel ☐
internet ☐   friends ☐   Books ☐

Other (specify) …………………………………..……………………………………….…………. (You can tick more than one)

N. In view of my knowledge of many different countries in the world:

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I feel that I have sufficient knowledge about Egypt	1	2	3	4	5
2. I feel that I have sufficient knowledge about France	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel that I have sufficient knowledge about Malaysia	1	2	3	4	5
4. I feel that I have sufficient knowledge about Saudi Arabia.	1	2	3	4	5

O. Comparing the following three countries with many other countries in the world:
(You can tick more than one)

	Malaysia	Egypt	France
1. I have friends in			
2. I wish to travel to			
3. I love to read about			
4. I would like to know more about the culture of			

P. Your Age:

- 20 ☐   21 - 25 ☐   26 - 30 ☐   31 - 40 ☐   41 - 45 ☐
46 - 50 ☐   51 - 55 ☐   56 - 65 ☐   66+ ☐

Q. Your Education:

Primary school or less ☐   Below High School ☐   High School ☐
College/university degree ☐   Post-graduate degree ☐

R. Your Occupation:

homemaker ☐   teacher/professor ☐   professional/manager ☐
retired/not employed ☐   clerical/secretarial ☐   other:_____

S. Your total household income:

Less than 3000 SR ☐   3000 – 5999 SR ☐   6000–8999 SR ☐
9000 – 14999 SR ☐   15000 SR or more ☐

T. Number of people in your household (including yourself):

1 person ☐   2 people ☐   3 people ☐
4 people ☐   5 people ☐   6 people ☐   7 people + ☐

APPENDIX H :

Questionnaire Ver. 2

(English)

Questionnaire on Country of Origin & Branded Frozen Chicken

This questionnaire is for <u>academic purposes only</u>. The details you provide are for an academic piece of research, carried out in the *University of Glasgow*. The University of Glasgow operates according to Principles of Ethical Research which can be viewed on http://www.gla.ac.uk/departments/businessandmanagement/ethics/index.html. None of the information collected will be for commercial use. Your support and co-operation is much appreciated.

A. On average, how many pieces of chicken do you buy a month?

1-10	☐	11-20	☐	21-30	☐
31-40	☐	41-50	☐	50+	☐

B. What size of chicken do you usually buy?

Small (600-900g) ☐   Medium (1000-1200g) ☐   Large (1300-1500g) ☐

C. Please tick the appropriate boxes or state your level of agreement with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I can't think of any difference between the major brands of chicken.	1	2	3	4	5
2. To me, there are big differences between the various brands of chicken.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The only difference between the major brands of chicken is price.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Chicken is chicken; most brands are basically the same.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The major brands of chicken are the same.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The reliability of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The level of safety of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The level of success of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The leadership of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The level of confidence in the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The major brands of chicken are all equally family-oriented.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The level of honesty of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The level of sincerity of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
14. The major brands of chicken are all equally wholesome.	1	2	3	4	5
15. The major brands of chicken are all equally original.	1	2	3	4	5

D. Please tick the appropriate boxes or state your level of agreement with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The quality of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The colour of the meat and bone of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The chicken of the major brands are all of equally high quality.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The major brands of chicken are equally naturally fed.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The taste of the major brand of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The smell of the major brand of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The chickens of major brands have an equally good taste.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The chickens of all major brands are equally juicy.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The packaging of the major brands of chicken is the same.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The chickens of major brands are equally well-protected in hygienic packs.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The major brands of chicken are all equally well-packaged.	1	2	3	4	5

(Assume that you are in the supermarket where there are four different new brands of chicken, each brand produced in one of the following countries: UAE, USA, Brazil, and Saudi Arabia)

PS: Please indicate the most appropriate number (from 1 to 5) to show your level of agreement with the following statement for each brand, where 1= strongly disagree, 2= somewhat disagree, 3=neither, 4=somewhat agree and 5=strongly agree:

E. I feel that branded chicken produced in *UAE*, *USA*, *Brazil* and *Saudi* is as follows:

	UAE	USA	Brazil	Saudi
1. Reliable				
2. Safe				
3. Successful				
4. Leader				
5. Inspires confidence				
6. Family-oriented				
7. Honest				
8. Sincere				
9. Wholesome				
10. Original				

PS: Please indicate the most appropriate number (from 1 to 5) to show your degree of agreement with the following statement for each brand, where 1= strongly disagree, 2= somewhat disagree, 3=neither, 4=somewhat agree and 5=strongly agree:

F. I would describe branded chicken of **Brazil**, **UAE**, **USA** and **Saudi,** as follows:

	Brazil	UAE	USA	Saudi
1. High quality				
2. Having white meat and bone colours				
3. Superior product				
4. Naturally- fed				
5. Very tasty				
6. Smells pleasant				
7. A superior taste				
8. As juicy as I want it to be				
9. Packed in good packaging				
10. Packed in hygienic packs to protect the meat				
11. Has superior packaging.				

PS: Please indicate the most appropriate number (from 1 to 5) to show your degree of agreement with the following statement for each brand, where 1= strongly disagree, 2= somewhat disagree, 3=neither, 4=somewhat agree and 5=strongly agree:

G.

	USA	Brazil	UAE	Saudi
1. I would never buy branded chicken produced in				
2. I definitely do not intend to buy branded chicken produced in				
3. I have low purchase interest for branded chicken produced in				
4. I would definitely be willing to buy branded chicken produced in				
5. I would possibly buy the branded chicken produced in				

H.

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I personally favour buying Saudi-produced rather than foreign- produced chicken.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Generally, I prefer purchasing Saudi products (any products, not just chicken) over foreign products.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Foreign-made products are generally of higher quality than Saudi-made products.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It is important that I purchase Saudi-made products so that jobs are not lost to foreign countries.	1	2	3	4	5

PS: Please indicate the most appropriate number (from 1 to 5) to show your degree of agreement with the following statement for each brand, where 1= strongly disagree, 2= somewhat disagree, 3=neither, 4=somewhat agree and 5=strongly agree:

I. I feel that **Brazil**, **UAE**, **USA** and **Saudi Arabia**:

	Brazil	UAE	USA	Saudi Arabia
1. Are economically well-developed.				
2. Have a democratic system of government				

	USA	Brazil	UAE	Saudi Arabia
3. Have mass-produced products.				
4. Have a civilian government.				
5. Are predominantly industrialized.				

J. I feel that *USA, Brazil*, *UAE* and *Saudi Arabia*:

	USA	Brazil	UAE	Saudi Arabia
1. Have high labour costs.				
2. Have high literacy rates.				
3. Have a free market system.				
4. Have a welfare system.				
5. Have a stable economic environment.				

K. I feel that *UAE, USA*, *Brazil* and *Saudi Arabia*:

	UAE	USA	Brazil	Saudi Arabia
1. Export agricultural products.				
2. Have high quality products.				
3. Have a high standard of living.				
4. Have a high level of technological research.				
5. Have distinct customs and values.				
6. Language creates distance from other countries.				
7. Culturally different than other countries.				
8. Their religion is distinct.				
9. Religion creates distance from other countries.				
10. Religion is different than other countries.				

L. How do you find out about international issues?   T.V. ☐   press ☐   travel ☐
internet ☐   friends ☐   not interested ☐

Other (specify) ………………………………..……………………………….…………. (You can tick more than one)

M. How can people learn about other countries?   T.V. ☐   press ☐   travel ☐
internet ☐   friends ☐   books ☐

Other (specify) ………………………………..……………………………….…………. (You can tick more than one)

N. In view of my knowledge of many different countries in the world:

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I feel that I have sufficient knowledge about UAE	1	2	3	4	5
2. I feel that I have sufficient knowledge about USA	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel that I have sufficient knowledge about Brazil	1	2	3	4	5
4. I feel that I have sufficient knowledge about Saudi Arabia.	1	2	3	4	5

O. Comparing the following three countries with many other countries in the world:
(You can tick more than one)

	Brazil	UAE	USA
1. I have friends in			
2. I wish to travel to			
3. I love to read about			
4. I would like to know more about the culture of			

P. Your Age:

- 20	21 - 25	26 - 30	31 - 40	41 - 45
46 - 50	51 - 55	56 - 65	66+	

Q. Your Education:

Primary school or less ☐   Below High School ☐   High School ☐
College/university degree ☐   Post-graduate degree ☐

R. Your Occupation:

homemaker ☐   teacher/professor ☐   professional/manager ☐
retired/not employed ☐   clerical/secretarial ☐   other:_____

S. Your total household income:

Less than 3000 SR ☐   3000 – 5999 SR ☐   6000–8999 SR ☐
9000 – 14999 SR ☐   15000 SR or more ☐

T. Number of people in your household (including yourself):

1 person ☐   2 people ☐   3 people ☐
4 people ☐   5 people ☐   6 people ☐   7 people + ☐

APPENDIX I :

Questionnaire Ver. 1

(Arabic)

استبانة
حول بلد المنشأ والعلامات التجارية للدجاج المحمد

هذه الاستبانة وجميع البيانات المطلوبة فيها لن تستخدم إلا لأغراض علمية فقط. إن جامعة "جلاسجو" تلتزم بالأسس الأخلاقية لأعمال البحث، ويمكن مشاهدة ذلك على الرابط التالي:

http://www.gla.ac.uk/departments/businessandmanagement/ethics/index.html

إن دعمك لهذا العمل البحثي محط شكر وتقدير لنا.

(ا) كم حبة من الدجاج تشترينها في الشهر (كمتوسط)؟

| 10-1 | 20-11 | 30-21 |
| 40-31 | 50-41 | 50 فأكثر |

(ب) ما حجم الدجاج الذي تشترينه في العادة؟
صغير (600-900جم) □   وسط (1000-1200 جم) □   كبير (1300-1500جم) □

(ج) يرجى التكرم بوضع علامة حول الاختيار الذي يعبر عن رأيكِ أمام العبارات التالية:

اوافق بشدة	اوافق إلى حد ما	ليس لى رأي	لا اوافق إلى حد ما	لا اوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	1. انا لا اجد اية فروق بين العلامات التجارية الرئيسة للدجاج.
5	4	3	2	1	2. بالنسبة لي، فإن هناك فروقاً كبيرة بين العلامات التجارية المختلفة للدجاج.
5	4	3	2	1	3. السعر؛ هو الفرق الوحيد بين العلامات التجارية الرئيسة للدجاج.
5	4	3	2	1	4. الدجاج هو الدجاج؛ اغلب العلامات التجارية متماثلة.
5	4	3	2	1	5. جميع العلامات التجارية الرئيسة للدجاج متماثلة.
5	4	3	2	1	6. الموثوقية؛ فى جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج هى نفسها.
5	4	3	2	1	7. مستوى الامان؛ في جميع العلامات التجارية للدجاج واحد.
5	4	3	2	1	8. مستوى النجاح؛ لجميع العلامات التجارية للدجاج واحد.
5	4	3	2	1	9. ريادة العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج في السوق تبلغ مستوى واحد.
5	4	3	2	1	10. الاعتمادية؛ فى جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج واحدة.
5	4	3	2	1	11. جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج موجهة بشكل متساو نحو رغبات العائلات.
5	4	3	2	1	12. مستوى الامانة؛ لجميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج واحد.
5	4	3	2	1	13. مستوى الإخلاص؛ لجميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج هو نفسه.
5	4	3	2	1	14. جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج محببة بشكل متساو.
5	4	3	2	1	15. جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج اصيلة مثل بعضها.

(د) يرجى التكرم بوضع علامة حول الاختيار الذي يعبر عن رأيكِ أمام العبارات التالية:

اوافق بشدة	اوافق إلى حد ما	ليس لى رأي	لا اوافق إلى حد ما	لا اوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	1. جودة منتجات جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج واحدة.
5	4	3	2	1	2. لون اللحم والعظم لجميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج هو نفسه.
5	4	3	2	1	3. منتجات الدجاج لجميع العلامات الرئيسة على مستوى واحد من الجودة العالية.

اوافق بشدة	اوافق إلى حد ما	ليس لي رأي	لا اوافق إلى حد ما	لا اوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	4. جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج تطبق نظام التغذية الطبيعية.
5	4	3	2	1	5. مذاق/طعم الدجاج لجميع العلامات الرئيسة هو واحد.
5	4	3	2	1	6. رائحة منتجات جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج مثل بعضها.
5	4	3	2	1	7. دجاج العلامات التجارية الرئيسة لها نفس الطعم اللذيذ.
5	4	3	2	1	8. إن جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج طرية بشكل متساوٍ.
5	4	3	2	1	9. العبوة المستخدمة في جميع العلامات الرئيسة هي نفسها.
5	4	3	2	1	10. جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج تستخدم نفس اصول التعبئة الصحية المؤمنة جيداً .
5	4	3	2	1	11. جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج تستخدم عبوة محكمة بنفس الطريقة.

(تخيلي نفسكِ أنكِ موجودة في السوق، وهناك أربعة أنواع جديدة من الدجاج ذي العلامات التجارية المختلفة من إحدى الدول التالية:
مصر، فرنسا، ماليزيا، والسعودية)

ملحوظة: ضعي رقما (من 1 إلى 5) تحت اسم كل دولة ليعبر عن درجة موافقتكِ،
حيث 1=لاأوافق بشدة، 2=لاأوافق إلى حدما، 3=ليس لي رأي، 4=أوافق إلى حدما، 5=أوافق بشدة.

(هـ) أشعر بأن الدجاج ذي العلامات التجارية المنتجة في: <u>مصر، فرنسا، ماليزيا، والسعودية</u>، هو :

السعودية	ماليزيا	فرنسا	مصر	
				1. موثوق
				2. امن
				3. ناجح
				4. ريادي
				5. يوحي بالثقة
				6. موجه لرغبات العائلات
				7. مامون
				8. يوحي بالإخلاص
				9. محبّب
				10. اصيل

ملحوظة: ضعي رقما (من 1 إلى 5) تحت اسم كل دولة ليعبر عن درجة موافقتكِ،
حيث 1=لاأوافق بشدة، 2=لاأوافق إلى حدما، 3=ليس لي رأي، 4=أوافق إلى حدما، 5=أوافق بشدة.

(و) قد أصف الدجاج ذي العلامات التجارية المنتج في: <u>ماليزيا، مصر، فرنسا، والسعودية</u>، كما يلي:

السعودية	فرنسا	مصر	ماليزيا	
				1. ذو جودة عالية
				2. ذو لون ابيض للحم والعظم
				3. منتج عالي الجودة
				4. مغذى طبيعيًا
				5. لذيذ جدًا
				6. ذو رائحة زكية
				7. ذو طعم رائع
				8. طري كما اتمناه
				9. معبا بشكل جيد
				10. تعبئة صحية وامنة للحم
				11. ذو عبوة مميزة

ملحوظة: ضعي رقما (من 1 إلى 5) تحت اسم كل دولة ليعبر عن درجة موافقتكِ،
حيث 1=لاأوافق بشدة، 2=لاأوافق إلى حدما، 3=ليس لي رأي، 4=أوافق إلى حدما، 5=أوافق بشدة.

(ز)

السعودية	مصر	ماليزيا	فرنسا	
				1. انا لن اشتري الدجاج ذي العلامة التجارية المنتج في ...
				2. انا –بالتاكيد- لا ارغب فى شراء الدجاج ذي العلامة التجارية من..

السعودية	مصر	ماليزيا	فرنسا	
				3. لدي رغبة قليلة فى شراء الدجاج ذي العلامة التجارية من ..
				4. انا –بالتاكيد- ارغب فى شراء الدجاج ذي العلامة التجارية المنتج فى...
				5. من المحتمل ان اشتري الدجاج ذي العلامة التجارية المنتج فى..

(ح)

أوافق بشدة	أوافق إلى حد ما	ليس لي رأي	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	لا أوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	1. انا شخصياً افضل شراء الدجاج المنتج فى السعودية على ذلك المنتج فى الدول الأجنبية
5	4	3	2	1	2. بالعموم، انا افضل شراء المنتجات السعودية (اي منتج غيرالدجاج) على المنتجات الأجنبية.
5	4	3	2	1	3. المنتجات الاجنبية ذات جودة اعلى عموماً من المنتجات السعودية.
5	4	3	2	1	4. بالنسبة لى مهم ان اشتري منتج سعودي بحيث إن الوظائف لاتفقد لصالح الدول الأجنبية.

ملحوظة: ضعي رقما (من 1 إلى 5) تحت اسم كل دولة ليعبر عن درجة موافقتك،
حيث 1=لاأوافق بشدة، 2=لاأوافق إلى حدما، 3=ليس لي رأي، 4=أوافق إلى حدما، 5=أوافق بشدة.

(ط)   أعتقد أن <u>ماليزيا، مصر، فرنسا، والسعودية:</u>

السعودية	مصر	فرنسا	ماليزيا	
				1. متطورة اقتصادياً
				2. لديها نظام ديموقراطي للحكومة
				3. لديها منتجات ذات كميات كبيرة
				4. تديرها حكومة مدنية
				5. دولة راسخة صناعياً

(ي)   أعتقد أن <u>فرنسا، ماليزيا، مصر، والسعودية:</u>

السعودية	مصر	ماليزيا	فرنسا	
				1. فيها اجرة العمالة عالية
				2. فيها نسبة عالية للمتعلمين
				3. تطبق النظام الحر للتجارة
				4. لديها نظام رعاية اجتماعية
				5. تملك بيئة اقتصادية مستقرة

(ك)   أعتقد أن <u>مصر، فرنسا، ماليزيا، والسعودية:</u>

السعودية	ماليزيا	فرنسا	مصر	
				1. تصدر منتجات زراعية
				2. تملك منتجات ذات جودة عالية
				3. المستوى المعيشي لديها عالي
				4. لديها مستوى عالي من البحث التكنولوجي
				5. تتباين في العادات والقيم عن الغير
				6. لغتها تخلق فروقاً مع الدول الاخرى
				7. تختلف ثقافياً عن الدول الاخرى
				8. تختلف في ديانتها
				9. ديانتها تخلق فروقاً مع الدول الاخرى
				10. ديانتها مختلفة عن الدول الاخرى

(ل)   كيف تتطلعين على القضايا   القنوات   الصحافة   السياحة

العالمية؟

| | | المرئية الإنترنت | الأصدقاء | ليست لدي رغبة في الاطلاع |

وسيلة أخرى

(م) كيف يمكن للناس أن يعلموا عن الدول الأخرى؟ (يمكن الاختيار لأكثر من واحد)

| الإنترنت | القنوات المرئية | الصحافة | السياحة |
| الأصدقاء | | | الكتب |

وسيلة أخرى _____ (يمكن الاختيار لأكثر من واحد)

(ن) في ضوء معلوماتي عن دول كثيرة مختلفة، أستطيع أن أقول:

أوافق بشدة	أوافق إلى حد ما	ليس لي رأي	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	لا أوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	1. ان لدي معرفة كافية عن دولة مصر
5	4	3	2	1	2. ان لدي معرفة كافية عن دولة فرنسا
5	4	3	2	1	3. ان لدي معرفة كافية عن دولة ماليزيا
5	4	3	2	1	4. ان لدي معرفة كافية عن دولة السعودية

(س) بمقارنة الدول الثلاث التالية بدول كثيرة في العالم، أستطيع القول: (بمكن الاختيار أكثر من واحد)

فرنسا	مصر	ماليزيا	
			1. ان لى اصدقاء في...
			2. انى ارغب في السفر إلى ...
			3. انى احب القراءة عن ..
			4. انى اود الاستزادة عن ثقافة ...

(ع) العمــــــــــر :

| 45-41 | 40-31 | 30-26 | 25-21 | اقل من 20 |
| | +66 | 65-56 | 55-51 | 50-46 |

(ف) المستوى التعليمي:

| الثانوية | المتوسطة | ابتدائي او اقل |
| | ماجستير/دكتوراه | جامعي |

(ص) المـــهـــنـــة :

| أخصائية/مديرة | أستاذة جامعية | ربة منزل |
| أخر _____ | كاتبة/سكرتيرة | متقاعدة/غير موظفة |

(ق) الدخل الإجمالي لأفراد المنزل:

| 8999-6000 | 5999-3000 | اقل من 3000 |
| | 15000أوأكثر | 14999-9000 |

(ر) عدد افراد المنزل (يشمل نفسك):

| | 3 اشخاص | شخصين | شخص واحد |
| 7 فاكثر | 6 اشخاص | 5 اشخاص | 4 اشخاص |

APPENDIX J :

Questionnaire Ver. 2

(Arabic)

استبانة
حول بلد المنشأ و العلامات التجارية للدجاج المجمد

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http://www.gla.ac.uk/departments/businessandmanagement/ethics/index.html

إن دعمك لهذا العمل البحثي محط شكر وتقدير لنا.

(ا) كم حبة من الدجاج تشترينها في الشهر (كمتوسط)؟

10-1	20-11	30-21
40-31	50-41	50 فأكثر

(ب) ما حجم الدجاج الذي تشترينه في العادة؟

صغير (600-900جم) [ ]   وسط (1000-1200 جم) [ ]   كبير (1300-1500جم) [ ]

(ج) يرجى التكرم بوضع علامة حول الاختيار الذي يعبر عن رأيكِ أمام العبارات التالية:

اوافق بشدة	اوافق إلى حد ما	ليس لى رأي	لا اوافق إلى حد ما	لا اوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	1. انا لا اجد اية فروق بين العلامات التجارية الرئيسة للدجاج.
5	4	3	2	1	2. بالنسبة لى، فإن هناك فروقاً كبيرة بين العلامات التجارية المختلفة للدجاج.
5	4	3	2	1	3. السعر؛ هو الفرق الوحيد بين العلامات التجارية الرئيسة للدجاج.
5	4	3	2	1	4. الدجاج هو الدجاج؛ اغلب العلامات التجارية متماثلة.
5	4	3	2	1	5. جميع العلامات التجارية الرئيسة للدجاج متماثلة.
5	4	3	2	1	6. الموثوقية؛ فى جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج هى نفسها.
5	4	3	2	1	7. مستوى الامان؛ في جميع العلامات التجارية للدجاج واحد.
5	4	3	2	1	8. مستوى النجاح؛ لجميع العلامات التجارية للدجاج واحد.
5	4	3	2	1	9. ريادة العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج في السوق تبلغ مستوى واحد.
5	4	3	2	1	10. الاعتمادية؛ فى جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج واحدة.
5	4	3	2	1	11. جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج موجهة بشكل متساو نحو رغبات العائلات.
5	4	3	2	1	12. مستوى الامانة؛ لجميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج واحد.
5	4	3	2	1	13. مستوى الإخلاص؛ لجميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج هو نفسه.
5	4	3	2	1	14. جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج محببة بشكل متساو.
5	4	3	2	1	15. جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج اصيلة مثل بعضها.

(د) يرجى التكرم بوضع علامة حول الاختيار الذي يعبر عن رأيكِ أمام العبارات التالية:

اوافق بشدة	اوافق إلى حد ما	ليس لى رأي	لا اوافق إلى حد ما	لا اوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	1. جودة منتجات جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج واحدة.
5	4	3	2	1	2. لون اللحم والعظم لجميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج هو نفسه.
5	4	3	2	1	3. منتجات الدجاج لجميع العلامات الرئيسة على مستوى واحد من الجودة العالية.

اوافق بشدة	اوافق إلى حد ما	ليس لدي رأي	لا اوافق إلى حد ما	لا اوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	4. جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج تطبق نظام التغذية الطبيعية.
5	4	3	2	1	5. مذاق/طعم الدجاج لجميع العلامات الرئيسة هو واحد.
5	4	3	2	1	6. رائحة منتجات جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج مثل بعضها.
5	4	3	2	1	7. دجاج العلامات التجارية الرئيسة لها نفس الطعم اللذيذ.
5	4	3	2	1	8. إن جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج طرية بشكل متساو.
5	4	3	2	1	9. العبوة المستخدمة في جميع العلامات الرئيسة هي نفسها.
5	4	3	2	1	10. جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج تستخدم نفس اصول التعبئة الصحية المؤمنة جيداً .
5	4	3	2	1	11. جميع العلامات الرئيسة للدجاج تستخدم عبوة محكمة بنفس الطريقة.

(تخيلي نفسكِ أنكِ موجودة في السوق، وهناك أربعة أنواع جديدة من الدجاج ذي العلامات التجارية المختلفة من إحدى الدول التالية:
الإمارات، أمريكا، البرازيل، والسعودية)

ملحوظة: ضعي رقما (من 1 إلى 5) تحت اسم كل دولة ليعبر عن درجة موافقتكِ،
حيث 1=لاأوافق بشدة، 2=لاأوافق إلى حدما، 3=ليس لي رأي، 4=أوافق إلى حدما، 5=أوافق بشدة.

(هـ)   أشعر بأن الدجاج ذي العلامات التجارية المنتجة في: <u>الإمارات، أمريكا، البرازيل، والسعودية</u>،
هو :

السعودية	البرازيل	أمريكا	الإمارات	
				1. موثوق
				2. امن
				3. ناجح
				4. ريادي
				5. يوحي بالثقة
				6. موجه لرغبات العائلات
				7. مامون
				8. يوحي بالإخلاص
				9. محبّب
				10. اصيل

ملحوظة: ضعي رقما (من 1 إلى 5) تحت اسم كل دولة ليعبر عن درجة موافقتكِ،
حيث 1=لاأوافق بشدة، 2=لاأوافق إلى حدما، 3=ليس لي رأي، 4=أوافق إلى حدما، 5=أوافق بشدة.

(و)   قد أصف الدجاج ذي العلامات التجارية المنتج في: <u>البرازيل، الإمارات، أمريكا، والسعودية</u>،
كما يلي:

السعودية	أمريكا	الإمارات	البرازيل	
				1. ذو جودة عالية
				2. ذو لون ابيض للحم والعظم
				3. منتج عالي الجودة
				4. مغذى طبيعياً
				5. لذيذ جداً
				6. ذو رائحة زكية
				7. ذو طعم رائع
				8. طري كما اتمناه
				9. معبا بشكل جيد
				10. تعبئة صحية وامنة للحم
				11. ذو عبوة مميزة

ملحوظة: ضعي رقما (من 1 إلى 5) تحت اسم كل دولة ليعبر عن درجة موافقتكِ،
حيث 1=لاأوافق بشدة، 2=لاأوافق إلى حدما، 3=ليس لي رأي، 4=أوافق إلى حدما، 5=أوافق بشدة.

(ز)

السعودية	الإمارات	البرازيل	أمريكا	
				1. انا لن اشتري الدجاج ذي العلامة التجارية المنتج فى ...

السعودية	الإمارات	البرازيل	أمريكا	
				2. انا ـبالتاكيد- لا ارغب فى شراء الدجاج ذي العلامة التجارية من..
				3. لدي رغبة قليلة فى شراء الدجاج ذي العلامة التجارية من ..
				4. انا ـبالتاكيد- ارغب فى شراء الدجاج ذي العلامة التجارية المنتج فى...
				5. من المحتمل ان اشتري الدجاج ذي العلامة التجارية المنتج في..

(ح)

أوافق بشدة	أوافق إلى حد ما	ليس لي رأي	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	لا أوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	1. انا شخصياً افضل شراء الدجاج المنتج فى السعودية على ذلك المنتج فى الدول الأجنبية
5	4	3	2	1	2. بالعموم، انا افضل شراء المنتجات السعودية (اي منتج غير الدجاج) على المنتجات الأجنبية.
5	4	3	2	1	3. المنتجات الاجنبية ذات جودة اعلى عموماً من المنتجات السعودية.
5	4	3	2	1	4. بالنسبة لى مهم ان اشتري منتج سعودي بحيث إن الوظائف لا تفقد لصالح الدول الأجنبية.

ملحوظة: ضعي رقما (من 1 إلى 5) تحت اسم كل دولة ليعبر عن درجة موافقتكِ،
حيث 1=لاأوافق بشدة، 2=لاأوافق إلى حدما، 3=ليس لي رأي، 4=أوافق إلى حدما، 5=أوافق بشدة.

(ط) أعتقد أن البرازيل، الإمارات، أمريكا، والسعودية:

السعودية	أمريكا	الإمارات	البرازيل	
				1. متطورة اقتصاديا
				2. لديها نظام ديموقراطي للحكومة
				3. لديها منتجات ذات كميات كبيرة
				4. تديرها حكومة مدنية
				5. دولة راسخة صناعيا

(ي) أعتقد أن أمريكا، البرازيل، الإمارات، والسعودية:

السعودية	الإمارات	البرازيل	أمريكا	
				1. فيها اجرة العمالة عالية
				2. فيها نسبة عالية للمتعلمين
				3. تطبق النظام الحر للتجارة
				4. لديها نظام رعاية اجتماعية
				5. تملك بيئة اقتصادية مستقرة

(ك) أعتقد أن الإمارات، أمريكا، البرازيل، والسعودية:

السعودية	البرازيل	أمريكا	الإمارات	
				1. تصدر منتجات زراعية
				2. تملك منتجات ذات جودة عالية
				3. المستوى المعيشي لديها عالي
				4. لديها مستوى عالى من البحث التكنولوجي
				5. تتباين في العادات والقيم عن الغير
				6. لغتها تخلق فروقاً مع الدول الاخرى
				7. تختلف ثقافياً عن الدول الاخرى
				8. تختلف في ديانتها
				9. ديانتها تخلق فروقاً مع الدول الاخرى
				10. ديانتها مختلفة عن الدول الاخرى

(ل) كيف تتطلعين على القضايا العالمية؟

السياحة	الصحافة	القنوات المرئية
ليست لدي رغبة في الاطلاع	الأصدقاء	الإنترنت

وسيلة أخرى

(م) كيف يمكن للناس ان يعلموا عن الدول الأخرى؟ (يمكن الاختيار لأكثر من واحد)

القنوات المرئية   الصحافة   السياحة

الإنترنت   الأصدقاء   الكتب

وسيلة أخرى _____ (يمكن الاختيار لأكثر من واحد)

(ن) في ضوء معلوماتي عن دول كثيرة مختلفة، أستطيع أن أقول:

	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق إلى حد ما	ليس لي رأي	أوافق إلى حد ما	أوافق بشدة
1. ان لدي معرفة كافية عن دولة الإمارات	1	2	3	4	5
2. ان لدي معرفة كافية عن دولة امريكا	1	2	3	4	5
3. ان لدي معرفة كافية عن دولة البرازيل	1	2	3	4	5
4. ان لدي معرفة كافية عن دولة السعودية	1	2	3	4	5

(س) بمقارنة الدول الثلاث التالية بدول كثيرة في العالم، أستطيع القول: (يمكن الاختيار أكثر من واحد)

	البرازيل	الإمارات	أمريكا
1. ان لى اصدقاء فى...			
2. انى ارغب فى السفر إلى ...			
3. انى احب القراءة عن ..			
4. انى اود الاستزادة عن ثقافة ...			

(ع) العمــــر : أقل من 20   25-21   30-26   40-31   45-41

50-46   55-51   65-56   66+

(ف) المستوى التعليمي: ابتدائي او اقل   المتوسطة   الثانوية

جامعي   ماجستير/دكتوراه

(ص) المـــهـــنـــة : ربة منزل متقاعدة/غير موظفة   استاذ ة جامعية كاتبة/سكرتيرة   اخصائية/مديرة

اخر _____

(ق) الدخل الإجمالي لأفراد المنزل: أقل من 3000   5999-3000   8999-6000

14999-9000   15000اواكثر

(ر) عدد افراد المنزل (يشمل نفسك): شخص واحد   شخصين   3 اشخاص

4 اشخاص   5 اشخاص   6 اشخاص   7 فاكثر

APPENDIX K :

Research Scales

RESEARCH SCALES

Product Country of Origin

1. Political background

Economically developed
Democratic system
Mass-produced products
Civilian government
Predominantly industrialized

Martin, Ingrid M. and Sevgin Eroglu (1993),"Measuring a Multi-Dimensional Construct: Country Image," Journal of Business Research, vol. 28 Issue 3, P191-210

2. Economical development

High labour cost
High literacy rates
Free market system
Existence of welfare system
Stable economic environment

Martin, Ingrid M. and Sevgin Eroglu (1993),"Measuring a Multi-Dimensional Construct: Country Image," Journal of Business Research, vol. 28 Issue 3, P191-210

3. Technilogical background

Exporter of agricultural products
Production of high quality products
High standard of living
High level of technological research

Martin, Ingrid M. and Sevgin Eroglu (1993),"Measuring a Multi-Dimensional Construct: Country Image," Journal of Business Research, vol. 28 Issue 3, P191-210

4. Cultural background

Similar customs and values *(adapted)*
Language is creating distance with Saudi people *(developed)*
Culturally different

Parameswaran, Ravi and R. Mohan Pisharodi (1994), "Facets of Country of Origin Image: An Empirical Assessment," JA, 23 (March), 43-56.

5. Religious background

Similar religion *(adapted)*
Religion is creating distance with Saudi people *(developed)*
Religion is different *(developed)*

Parameswaran, Ravi and R. Mohan Pisharodi (1994), "Facets of Country of Origin Image: An Empirical Assessment," JA, 23 (March), 43-56.

Brand Parity

1. **Brand parity**

I can't think of any differences between the major brands of chicken. *(The whole scale has been adapted for the chicken product)*

To me, there are big differences between the various brands of chicken.

The only difference between the major brands of chicken is price.

Chicken is chicken; most brands are basically the same.

All major brands of chicken are the same.

Muncy, James A. (1996). "Measuring Perceived Brand Parity." Advance in consumer Research (Vol. 23, PP. 411-417).

2. Competence (Reliability)

Reliable	*(Adapted from the brand as a person scale: Aaker, Jennifer, 1997)*
Secure	*(Adapted from the brand as a person scale: Aaker, Jennifer, 1997)*
Successful	*(Adapted from the brand as a person scale: Aaker, Jennifer, 1997)*
Leader	*(Adapted from the brand as a person scale: Aaker, Jennifer, 1997)*
Confident	*(Adapted from the brand as a person scale: Aaker, Jennifer, 1997)*

3. Sincerity (Friendliness)

Family-oriented	*(Adapted from the brand as a person scale: Aaker, Jennifer, 1997)*
Honest	*(Adapted from the brand as a person scale: Aaker, Jennifer, 1997)*
Sincere	*(Adapted from the brand as a person scale: Aaker, Jennifer, 1997)*
Original	*(Adapted from the brand as a person scale: Aaker, Jennifer, 1997)*
Friendly	*(Adapted from the brand as a person scale: Aaker, Jennifer, 1997)*

4. Quality

High quality	*(Adapted from the Keller, Kevin Lane and David A. Aaker scale, 1992)*
White meat and bone colures	*(developed for the research)*
Superior product	*(Adapted from the Keller, Kevin Lane and David A. Aaker scale, 1992)*
Natural fed	*(developed for the research)*

5. Taste

Very tasty	*(Adapted from the Keller, Kevin Lane and David A. Aaker scale, 1992)*
Smelly	*(developed for the research)*
Superior taste	*(Adapted from the Keller, Kevin Lane and David A. Aaker scale, 1992)*
As juicy as I want it to be	*(developed for the research)*

6. Packaging

Good packaging	*(Adapted from the Keller, Kevin Lane and David A. Aaker scale, 1992)*
Resistible pack to protect the meat	*(developed for the research)*
Superior packaging	*(Adapted from the Keller, Kevin Lane and David A. Aaker scale, 1992)*

Branded Product

1. Competence (Reliability)

Reliable
Secure
Successful
Leader
Confident

Aaker, Jennifer L. (1997), "Dimensions of Brand Personality, " Journal of Marketing research, 34 (August), 347-56

2. Sincerity (Friendliness)

Family-oriented
Honest
Sincere
Original
Friendly

Aaker, Jennifer L. (1997), "Dimensions of Brand Personality, " Journal of Marketing research, 34 (August), 347-56

3. Quality

High quality
White meat and bone colures *(developed for the research)*
Superior product
Natural fed   *(developed for the research)*

Keller, Kevin Lane and David A. Aaker (1992), "The Effect of Sequential Introduction of Brand Extensions, " JMR, 29 (February), 35-50

4. Taste

Very tasty   *(adapted)*
Smelly   *(developed)*
Superior taste *(adapted)*
As juicy as I want it to be *(developed)*

Keller, Kevin Lane and David A. Aaker (1992), "The Effect of Sequential Introduction of Brand Extensions, " JMR, 29 (February), 35-50

5. Packaging

Good packaging *(adapted)*
Resistible pack to protect the meat *(developed)*
Superior packaging *(adapted)*

Keller, Kevin Lane and David A. Aaker (1992), "The Effect of Sequential Introduction of Brand Extensions, " JMR, 29 (February), 35-50

Buying Intention

1. Purchase intention

Never buy
Definitely do not intend to buy
High purchase interest   *(adapted)*
Definitely willing to buy   *(adapted)*
Probably buy it

Spears, Nancy and Surendra N. Singh, (2004),"Measuring Attitude Toward the Brand and Purchase Intentions" Journal of Current Issues and Research in Advertising, Vol. 26, (Nov.) P. 53-66.

Ethnocentrism

I personally favour buying Saudi-produced rather than foreign-produced chicken. *(The whole scale has been adapted for the chicken produced in Saudi Arabia)*

In general, I prefer purchasing Saudi-products (any products, not just chicken) over foreign-products.

Foreign-made products are generally higher quality than Saudi-made products.

It is important that I purchase Saudi-made products so that jobs are not lost to foreign countries.

Shimp, Terence A. and Subhash Sharma (1987), "Consumer Ethnocentrism: Construction and Validation of the CETSCALE, " JMR, 24 (August), 280-289.

Demography

1. Age
    (1) Below 20
    (2) 21 – 25
    (3) 26 – 30
    (4) 31 – 40
    (5) 41 – 45
    (6) 46 – 50
    (7) 51 – 55
    (8) 56 – 65
    (9) 66 and over   *(adapted to reach the age of 66+)*

Saudi censes (2003)

2. Education

(1) Low education
(2) Below high school
(3) High school
(4) College/university degree
(5) Post-graduate degree

Knight, Gary A. and Roger J. Calantone (2000),"A Flexible model of consumer country of origin perceptions." International Marketing Review, Vol. 17 issue 2/3, P 127

3. Occupation

    (1) homemaker
    (2) teacher/professor
    (3) professional/manager
    (4) retired/not employed
    (5) clerical/secretarial
    (6) other -----------------

Knight, Gary A. and Roger J. Calantone (2000),"A Flexible model of consumer country of origin perceptions." International Marketing Review, Vol. 17 issue 2/3, P 127

4. Family income

(1) Less than 3000 SR
(2) 3000 – 5999 SR
(3) 6000 – 8999 SR
(4) 9000 – 14999 SR
(5) 15000 SR or more

Bogari, N. B. Crowther, C., and Mrr, N., (2003),"Motivation for Domestic Tourism: A Case Study of The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia." Tourism Analysis, 8: 137-141.

5. Number of people in your household:

    (1) 1 person
    (2) 2 persons
    (3) 3 persons
    (4) 4 persons
    (5) 5 persons
    (6) 6 persons
    (7) 7 persons or more

Saudi Censes (2003)

APPENDIX L :

Data Analysis

(Tables)

Analysis tables of Version One (Egypt, France, Malaysia, Saudi Arabia)

Table L.1: Brand parity scale

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Corrected Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
I can't think of any difference between the major brands of chicken.	.84					.55	.84
To me, there are big differences between the various brands of chicken		.30				.38	.89
The only difference between the major brands of chicken is price.		.59	.57			.69	.80
Chicken is chicken; most brands are basically the same.		.78	.54	.75		.87	.75
The major brands of chicken are the same.		.74	.49	.71	.73	.83	.76

Table L.2: Brand parity scale – Reliability

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Corrected Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
The reliability of the major brands of chicken is the same	.91					.74	.89
The level of safety of the major brands of chicken is the same		.72				.81	.87
The level of success of the major brands of chicken is the same		.69	.71			.79	.88
The leadership of the major brands of chicken is the same		.72	.70	.71		.80	.88
The level of confidence in the major brands of chicken is the same		.58	.56	.56	.57	.67	.90

Table L.3: Brand parity scale - Sincerity

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Corrected Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
The major brands of chicken are all equally family-oriented	.82					.33	.86
The level of honesty of the major brands of chicken is the same		.54				.68	.76
The level of sincerity of the major brands of chicken is the same		.67	.72			.80	.73
The major brands of chicken are all equally wholesome		.55	.61	.59		.69	.76
The major brands of chicken are all equally original		.45	.49	.47	.48	.58	.79

Table L.4: Brand parity scale - Quality

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Corrected Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
The quality of the major brands of chicken is the same	.90					.83	.86
The colour of the meat and bone of the major brands of chicken is the same		.78				.87	.84
The chickens of the major brands are all of equally high quality		.76	.77			.87	.85
The major brands of chicken are equally naturally fed		.49	.45	.48		.59	.94

Table L.5: Brand parity scale - Taste

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Corrected Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
The taste of the major brands of chicken is the same	.91					.80	.87
The smell of the major brands of chicken is the same		.75				.85	.85
The chickens of major brands have an equally good taste		.76	.74			.86	.85
The chickens of all major brands are equally juicy		.53	.55	.56		.65	.92

Table L.6: Brand parity scale - Packaging

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Corrected Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
The packaging of the major brands of chicken is the same	.87					.49	.87
The chickens of major brands are equally well-protected in hygienic packs.		.64				.78	.57
The major brands of chicken are all equally well-packaged		.55	.59			.68	.69

Table L.7: Pearson Correlations (Egypt)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Reliability:							
Reliable	.87					.72	.84
Safe		.65				.74	.84
Successful		.62	.60			.71	.85
Leader		.61	.64	.55		.72	.84
Inspire confidence		.45	.59	.56	.56	.63	.86

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Sincerity:							
Family-oriented	.86					.70	.82
Honest		.66				.74	.82
Sincere		.56	.58			.68	.83
Wholesome		.52	.58	.52		.64	.84
Original		.50	.56	.52	.49	.63	.84
Quality:							
High quality	.84					.73	.77
Having white meat and bone colours		.58				.66	.80
Superior product		.71	.62			.73	.77
Naturally- fed		.54	.48	.48		.58	.84
Taste:							
Very tasty	.83					.64	.80
Smells pleasant		.45				.61	.81
A superior taste		.60	.54			.71	.77
As juicy as I want it to be		.57	.56	.60		.70	.78
Packaging:							
Packed in good packaging	.80					.66	.72
Packed in hygienic packs to protect the meat		.61				.67	.71
Has superior packaging.		.55	.57			.62	.76

Table L.7.1: Pearson Correlations (France)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Reliability:							
Reliable	.90					.81	.87
Safe		.67				.73	.89
Successful		.72	.60			.78	.88
Leader		.65	.63	.64		.72	.89
Inspire confidence		.71	.61	.70	.57	.75	.88

-------continued------

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**		
Sincerity:							
Family-oriented	.90					.75	.88
Honest		.65				.79	.88
Sincere		.64	.63			.75	.89
Wholesome		.63	.68	.64		.74	.89
Original		.66	.71	.66	.60	.77	.90
Quality:							
High quality	.89					.75	.86
Having white meat and bone colours		.64				.74	.86
Superior product		.73	.69			.81	.84
Naturally- fed		.63	.64	.68		.73	.87
Taste:							
Very tasty	.85					.54	.87
Smells pleasant		.46				.73	.77
A superior taste		.50	.76			.75	.75
As juicy as I want it to be		.49	.63	.66		.69	.78
Packaging:							
Packed in good packaging	.83					.72	.74
Packed in hygienic packs to protect the meat		.68				.71	.74
Has superior packaging.		.57	.58			.64	.81

Table L.7.2: Pearson Correlations (Malaysia)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**		
Reliability:							
Reliable	.87					.77	.81
Safe		.67				.71	.83
Successful		.55	.44			.57	.88
Leader		.66	.66	.49		.71	.83
Inspire confidence		.70	.62	.46	.54	.69	.83

----- continued----

| Items | Cron-bach's Alpha | Pearson Correlations | | | | Item-to-total correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted |
		1	2	3	4		
Sincerity:							
Family-oriented	.89					.74	.87
Honest		.65				.77	.86
Sincere		.62	.61			.70	.88
Wholesome		.61	.60	.55		.69	.88
Original		.62	.73	.63	.62	.78	.86
Quality:							
High quality	.88					.77	.83
Having white meat and bone colours		.62				.70	.85
Superior product		.76	.61			.77	.83
Naturally- fed		.61	.62	.61		.70	.85
Taste:							
Very tasty	.88					.77	.84
Smells pleasant		.64				.73	.86
A superior taste		.69	.66			.75	.84
As juicy as I want it to be		.67	.63	.62		.73	.85
Packaging:							
Packed in good packaging	.82					.71	.71
Packed in hygienic packs to protect the meat		.69				.71	.71
Has superior packaging.		.56	.56			.61	.82

Table L.7.3: Pearson Correlations (Saudi Arabia1)

| Items | Cron-bach's Alpha | Pearson Correlations | | | | Item-to-total correlation | Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted |
		1	2	3	4		
Reliability:							
Reliable	.90					.77	.87
Safe		.68				.77	.87
Successful		.69	.65			.73	.88
Leader		.66	.70	.59		.76	.87
Inspire confidence		.61	.60	.58	.64	.70	.88
-----continued-----							

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Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Sincerity:							
Family-oriented	.87					.66	.85
Honest		.59				.73	.83
Sincere		.56	.59			.70	.84
Wholesome		.51	.62	.62		.71	.84
Original		.51	.56	.53	.59	.66	.85
Quality:							
High quality	.86					.72	.82
Having white meat and bone colours		.67				.75	.81
Superior product		.61	.62			.69	.83
Naturally- fed		.57	.62	.57		.68	.84
Taste:							
Very tasty	.86					.70	.81
Smells pleasant		.58				.70	.81
A superior taste		.61	.55			.67	.83
As juicy as I want it to be		.60	.66	.58		.72	.80
Packaging:							
Packed in good packaging	.82					.67	.73
Packed in hygienic packs to protect the meat		.60				.67	.74
Has superior packaging.		.59	.59			.66	.75

Table L.8 : Elaborates the Factors of Buying Intention

Pattern Matrix(a)

DESCRIPTION	Component			
	Egypt	**France**	**Malaysia**	**Saudi1**
I would never buy branded chicken produced in	.90	.89	.88	.87
I definitely do not intend to buy branded chicken produced in	.89	.87	.87	.87
I have low purchase interest for branded chicken produced in	.77	.75	.76	.75
I would definitely be willing to buy branded chicken produced in	.83	.85	.84	.81
I would possibly buy the branded chicken produced in	.80	.80	.75	.62
% of Variance	**70.4**	**69.2**	**67.8**	**62.4**
Eigen value	**3.523**	**3.462**	**3.390**	**3.120**

Table L.9 : Shows Pearson Correlations (Egypt)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
I would never buy branded chicken produced in	.90					.83	.85
I definitely do not intend to buy branded chicken produced in		.81				.81	.86
I have low purchase interest for branded chicken produced in		.68	.62			.65	.89
I would definitely be willing to buy branded chicken produced in		.67	.65	.50		.73	.87
I would possibly buy the branded chicken produced in		.59	.64	.46	.67	.69	.88

Table L.9.1 : Shows Pearson Correlations (France)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
I would never buy branded chicken produced in	.87					.81	.85
I definitely do not intend to buy branded chicken produced in		.76				.78	.85
I have low purchase interest for branded chicken produced in		.62	.62			.63	.89
I would definitely be willing to buy branded chicken produced in		.67	.64	.50		.75	.86
I would possibly buy the branded chicken produced in	.61	.58	.43	.70		.53	.87

Table L.9.2 : Shows Pearson Correlations (Malaysia)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
I would never buy branded chicken produced in	.88					.79	.84
I definitely do not intend to buy branded chicken produced in		.75				.78	.84
I have low purchase interest for branded chicken produced in		.65	.59			.64	.87
I would definitely be willing to buy branded chicken produced in		.65	.64	.54		.74	.85
I would possibly buy the branded chicken produced in		.53	.58	.39	.63	.63	.88

Table L.9.3 : Shows Pearson Correlations (Saudi Arabia1)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
I would never buy branded chicken produced in	.85					.77	.78
I definitely do not intend to buy branded chicken produced in		.78				.76	.78
I have low purchase interest for branded chicken produced in		.61	.58			.62	.82
I would definitely be willing to buy branded chicken produced in		.58	.62	.45		.68	.81
I would possibly buy the branded chicken produced in		.38	.37	.31	.53	.45	.86

Table L.10: Elaborates the Factors of Buying Ethnocentrism

Pattern Matrix(a)

DESCRIPTION	Component	
	1	2
I personally favour buying Saudi-produced rather than foreign-produced chicken.	.862	.049
Generally, I prefer purchasing Saudi products (any products, not just chicken) over foreign products.	**.860**	-.074
Foreign-made products are generally of higher quality than Saudi-made products.	-.007	.998
It is important that I purchase Saudi-made products so that jobs are not lost to foreign countries.	.750	.038
% of Variance	51.131	25.141
Eigen value	2.045	1.006

Table L.11: Shows Pearson Correlations

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
I personally favour buying Saudi-produced rather than foreign-produced chicken.	.55					.55	.28
Generally, I prefer purchasing Saudi products (any Products, not just chicken) over foreign products.		.65				.49	.34
Foreign-made products are generally of higher quality than Saudi-made products.		.03	-.05			.00	.77
It is important that I purchase Saudi-made products so that jobs are not lost to foreign countries.		.46	.45	.01		.43	.41

Table L.12: Pearson Correlations (Egypt)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Political Background:							
Are economically well-developed.	.73					.55	.67
Have a democratic system of government		.32				.51	.68
Have mass-produced products.		.41	.42			.50	.69
Have a civilian government.		.42	.44	.38		.53	.68
Are predominantly industrialized.		.40	.29	.20	.24	.39	.73
Economical Development:							
Have high labour costs.	.69					.45	.64
Have high literacy rates.		.17				.31	.70
Have a free market system.		.26	.23			.44	.65
Have a welfare system.		.36	.25	.38		.52	.61
Have a stable economic environment.		.45	.23	.35	.41	.53	.60
Technological Background:							
Export agricultural products.	.64					.37	.61
Have high quality products.		.29				.43	.57
Have a high standard of living.		.23	.33			.47	.55
Have a high level of technological research.		.25	.31	.40		.44	.57
Cultural Background:							
Have distinct customs and values.	.75					.60	.63
Language creates distance from other countries.			.40			.48	.76
Culturally different than other countries.			.62	.46		.64	.58
Religious Background:							
Their religion is distinct.	.83					.79	.65
Religion creates distance from other countries.			.54			.54	.89
Religion is different than other countries.			.80	.49		.75	.69

Table L.12.1: Pearson Correlations (France)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Political Background:							
Are economically well-developed.	.83					.61	.80
Have a democratic system of government		.46				.64	.79
Have mass-produced products.		.46	.56			.61	.80
Have a civilian government.		.48	.47	.43		.60	.80
Are predominantly industrialized.		.53	.53	.48	.54	.67	.78
Economical Development:							
Have high labour costs.	.61					.34	.53
Have high literacy rates.		.52				.47	.47
Have a free market system.		.35	.37			.41	.50
Have a welfare system.		.09	.07	.08		.14	.67
Have a stable economic environment.		.21	.27	.30	.31	.43	.48
Technological Background:							
Export agricultural products.	.74					.56	.66
Have high quality products.		.52				.57	.66
Have a high standard of living.		.41	.39			.50	.69
Have a high level of technological research.		.34	.34	.34		.48	.70
Cultural Background:							
Have distinct customs and values.	.70					.47	.65
Language creates distance from other countries.		.37				.50	.62
Culturally different than other countries.		.45	.49			.56	.54
Religious Background:							
Their religion is distinct.	.51					.23	.55
Religion creates distance from other countries.		.12				.24	.33
Religion is different than other countries.		.27	.38			.39	.18

Table L.12.2: Pearson Correlations (Malaysia)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Political Background:							
Are economically well-developed.	.82					.59	.79
Have a democratic system of government		.41				.66	.77
Have mass-produced products.		.43	.54			.62	.78
Have a civilian government.		.48	.58	.46		.59	.79
Are predominantly industrialized.		.51	.48	.50	.32	.58	.79
Economical Development:							
Have high labour costs.	.73					.56	.65
Have high literacy rates.		.38				.44	.70
Have a free market system.		.37	.32			.50	.68
Have a welfare system.		.34	.26	.34		.46	.70
Have a stable economic environment.		.49	.23	.40	.31	.49	.68
Technological Background:							
Export agricultural products.	.73					.52	.66
Have high quality products.		.46				.58	.63
Have a high standard of living.		.35	.45			.49	.68
Have a high level of technological research.		.40	.39	.33		.48	.69
Cultural Background:							
Have distinct customs and values.	.61					.46	.45
Language creates distance from other countries.		.42				.44	.48
Culturally different than other countries.		.32	.29			.36	.59
Religious Background:							
Their religion is distinct.	.80					.67	.69
Religion creates distance from other countries.		.52				.58	.78
Religion is different than other countries.		.64	.53			.68	.69

Table L.12.3: Pearson Correlations (Saudi Arabia1)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Political Background:							
Are economically well-developed.	.72					.50	.66
Have a democratic system of government		.39				.52	.65
Have mass-produced products.		.39	.34			.51	.65
Have a civilian government.		.26	.40	.27		.39	.70
Are predominantly industrialized.		.36	.33	.44	.19	.46	.67
Economical Development:							
Have high labour costs.	.70					.40	.60
Have high literacy rates.		.34				.40	.60
Have a free market system.		.29	.24			.44	.58
Have a welfare system.		.35	.30	.27		.44	.58
Have a stable economic environment.		.09	.20	.38	.26	.34	.63
Technological Background:							
Export agricultural products.	.63					.48	.51
Have high quality products.		.44				.45	.52
Have a high standard of living.		.26	.17			.29	.63
Have a high level of technological research.		.31	.37	.24		.42	.54
Cultural Background:							
Have distinct customs and values.	.71					.59	.53
Language creates distance from other countries.		.32				.38	.79
Culturally different than other countries.		.65	.36			.62	.49
Religious Background:							
Their religion is distinct.	.79					.65	.69
Religion creates distance from other countries.		.35				.47	.87
Religion is different than other countries.		.77	.53			.80	.51

Analysis tables of Version Two (UAE, USA, Brazil, Saudi Arabia)

Table L.1: Brand parity scale (Ver.2)

Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Corrected Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
I can't think of any difference between the major brands of chicken.	.82					.81	.74
To me, there are big differences between the various brands of chicken		.79				.65	.79
The only difference between the major brands of chicken is price.		.26	.12			.24	.89
Chicken is chicken; most brands are basically the same.		.65	.53	.18		.71	.77
The major brands of chicken are the same.		.68	.55	.29	.79	.76	.76

Table L.2: Brand parity scale – Reliability (Ver.2)

Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Corrected Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
The reliability of the major brands of chicken is the same	.85					.65	.82
The level of safety of the major brands of chicken is the same		.69				.76	.79
The level of success of the major brands of chicken is the same		.57	.71			.71	.81
The leadership of the major brands of chicken is the same		.36	.44	.51		.57	.84
The level of confidence in the major brands of chicken is the same		.46	.53	.46	.58	.62	.83

Table L.3: Brand parity scale – Sincerity (Ver.2)

Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Corrected Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
The major brands of chicken are all equally family-oriented	.87					.55	.87
The level of honesty of the major brands of chicken is the same		.47				.76	.82
The level of sincerity of the major brands of chicken is the same		.44	.82			.73	.83
The major brands of chicken are all equally wholesome		.47	.49	.50		.66	.84
The major brands of chicken are all equally original		.48	.65	.61	.72	.76	.82

Table L.4: Brand parity scale – Quality (Ver.2)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Corrected Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
The quality of the major brands of chicken is the same	.83					.80	.72
The colour of the meat and bone of the major brands of chicken is the same		.70				.67	.78
The chickens of the major brands are all of equally high quality		.79	.62			.75	.74
The major brands of chicken are equally naturally fed		.42	.35	.40		.44	.88

Table L.5: Brand parity scale – Taste (Ver.2)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Corrected Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
The taste of the major brands of chicken is the same	.82					.60	.79
The smell of the major brands of chicken is the same		.50				.64	.77
The chickens of major brands have an equally good taste		.59	.61			.74	.72
The chickens of all major brands are equally juicy		.41	.47	.57		.57	.80

Table L.6: Brand parity scale – Packaging (Ver.2)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Corrected Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
The packaging of the major brands of chicken is the same	.79					.28	.82
The chickens of major brands are equally well-protected in hygienic packs.		.51				.54	.62
The major brands of chicken are all equally well-packaged		.45	.70			.50	.68

Table L.7: Pearson Correlations (UAE)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Reliability:							
Reliable	.93					.84	.91
Safe		.90				.85	.91
Successful		.76	.77			.87	.90
Leader		.60	.63	.75		.73	.93
Inspire confidence		.71	.70	.77	.67	.80	.92
Sincerity:							
Family-oriented	.95					.85	.93
Honest		.79				.86	.93
Sincere		.80	.78			.86	.93
Wholesome		.78	.79	.75		.85	.94
Original		.75	.78	.80	.78	.85	.93
Quality:							
High quality	.78					.33	.84
Having white meat and bone colours		.23				.52	.57
Superior product		.30	.61			.64	.53
Naturally- fed		.32	.56	.77		.62	.52
Taste:							
Very tasty	.91					.75	.91
Smells pleasant		.67				.81	.89
A superior taste		.73	.75			.85	.87
As juicy as I want it to be		.66	.77	.79		.82	.88
Packaging:							
Packed in good packaging	.80					.70	.67
Packed in hygienic packs to protect the meat		.69				.70	.66
Has superior packaging.		.51	.51			.55	.80

Table L.7.1: Pearson Correlations (USA)

Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Reliability:							
Reliable	.92					.84	.89
Safe		.89				.83	.90
Successful		.64	.60			.74	.91
Leader		.61	.61	.83		.75	.91
Inspire confidence		.80	.80	.62	.63	.81	.90
Sincerity:							
Family-oriented	.94					.87	.92
Honest		.72				.77	.94
Sincere		.80	.78			.87	.92
Wholesome		.85	.70	.80		.88	.92
Original		.75	.64	.74	.79	.80	.93
Quality:							
High quality	.87					.78	.70
Having white meat and bone colours		.85				.78	.71
Superior product		.88	.82			.77	.71
Naturally- fed		.40	.44	.41		.44	.94
Taste:							
Very tasty	.97					.94	.95
Smells pleasant		.91				.93	.96
A superior taste		.92	.89			.93	.96
As juicy as I want it to be		.87	.87	.87		.90	.97
Packaging:							
Packed in good packaging	.91					.89	.81
Packed in hygienic packs to protect the meat		.90				.86	.84
Has superior packaging.		.73	.69			.73	.95

Table L.7.2: Pearson Correlations (Brazil)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Reliability:							
Reliable	.96					.88	.95
Safe		.88				.89	.95
Successful		.80	.83			.90	.95
Leader		.79	.80	.90		.89	.95
Inspire confidence		.83	.82	.85	.86	.90	.95
Sincerity:							
Family-oriented	.97					.91	.96
Honest		.85				.91	.96
Sincere		.88	.90			.93	.96
Wholesome		.86	.84	.87		.91	.96
Original		.85	.85	.88	.89	.92	.96
Quality:							
High quality	.96					.91	.94
Having white meat and bone colours		.89				.89	.94
Superior product		.90	.85			.92	.94
Naturally- fed		.81	.82	.84		.86	.95
Taste:							
Very tasty	.97					.93	.96
Smells pleasant		.89				.93	.96
A superior taste		.93	.90			.94	.96
As juicy as I want it to be		.87	.90	.88		.91	.97
Packaging:							
Packed in good packaging	.92					.89	.85
Packed in hygienic packs to protect the meat		.89				.87	.86
Has superior packaging.		.76	.74			.78	.92

Table L.7.3: Pearson Correlations (Saudi Arabia2)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Reliability:							
Reliable	.96					.88	.96
Safe		.88				.92	.95
Successful		.83	.89			.92	.95
Leader		.79	.83	.84		.86	.95
Inspire confidence		.81	.82	.88	.79	.88	.96
Sincerity:							
Family-oriented	.95					.82	.95
Honest		.76				.88	.94
Sincere		.75	.87			.89	.94
Wholesome		.76	.85	.87		.91	.93
Original		.78	.77	.77	.83	.85	.94
Quality:							
High quality	.90					.81	.85
Having white meat and bone colours		.66				.73	.88
Superior product		.81	.64			.80	.86
Naturally- fed		.68	.66	.68		.75	.87
Taste:							
Very tasty	.92					.86	.88
Smells pleasant		.78				.82	.90
A superior taste		.78	.75			.81	.90
As juicy as I want it to be		.77	.73	.69		.79	.91
Packaging:							
Packed in good packaging	.85					.76	.74
Packed in hygienic packs to protect the meat		.79				.77	.73
Has superior packaging.		.58	.59			.62	.88

Table L.8 : Elaborates the Factors of Buying Intention

Pattern Matrix(a)

DESCRIPTION	Component			
	UAE	USA	Brazil	Saudi
I would never buy branded chicken produced in	.884	.918	.892	*.841*
I definitely do not intend to buy branded chicken produced in	*.887*	.923	.912	.867
I have low purchase interest for branded chicken produced in	.850	.700	.953	.774
I would definitely be willing to buy branded chicken produced in	.833	.871	.889	.756
I would possibly buy the branded chicken produced in	.558	.793	.811	.591
% of Variance	51.5	63.5	61.5	48.2
Eigen value	3.40	3.17	3.10	2.40

Table L.9 : Shows Pearson Correlations (UAE)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
I would never buy branded chicken produced in	.89					.72	.89
I definitely do not intend to buy branded chicken produced in		.85				.74	.88
I have low purchase interest for branded chicken produced in		.68	.66			.64	.81
I would definitely be willing to buy branded chicken produced in		.68	.59	.58		.58	.88
I would possibly buy the branded chicken produced in		.87	.56	.56	.50	.68	.89

Table L.9.1 : Shows Pearson Correlations (USA)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
I would never buy branded chicken produced in	.83					.81	.81
I definitely do not intend to buy branded chicken produced in		.94				.82	.81
I have low purchase interest for branded chicken produced in		.57	.57			.81	.80
I would definitely be willing to buy branded chicken produced in		.69	.69	.62		.71	.83
I would possibly buy the branded chicken produced in		.57	.58	.57	.74	.61	.78

Table L.9.2 : Shows Pearson Correlations (Brazil)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
I would never buy branded chicken produced in	.78					.79	.83
I definitely do not intend to buy branded chicken produced in		.91				.81	.82
I have low purchase interest for branded chicken produced in		.69	.66			.73	.89
I would definitely be willing to buy branded chicken produced in		.66	.70	.60		.71	.85
I would possibly buy the branded chicken produced in		.54	.57	.68	.76	.57	.81

Table L.9.3 : Shows Pearson Correlations (Saudi Arabia2)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
I would never buy branded chicken produced in	.88					.75	.80
I definitely do not intend to buy branded chicken produced in		.78				.60	.89
I have low purchase interest for branded chicken produced in		.75	.66			.78	.85
I would definitely be willing to buy branded chicken produced in		.53	.68	.63		.75	.86
I would possibly buy the branded chicken produced in		.57	.69	.64	.48	.77	.83

Table L.10: Elaborates the Factors of Buying Ethnocentrism

Pattern Matrix(a)

DESCRIPTION	Component	
	1	2
I personally favour buying Saudi-produced rather than foreign-produced chicken.	.906	.094
Generally, I prefer purchasing Saudi products (any products, not just chicken) over foreign products.	**.893**	.192
Foreign-made products are generally of higher quality than Saudi-made products.	.125	.929
It is important that I purchase Saudi-made products so that jobs are not lost to foreign countries.	.673	.472
% of Variance	52.2	28.1
Eigen value	2.08	1.12

Table L.11: Shows Pearson Correlations

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
I personally favour buying Saudi-produced rather than foreign-produced chicken.	.61					.59	.23
Generally, I prefer purchasing Saudi products (any Products, not just chicken) over foreign products.		.76				.66	.21
Foreign-made products are generally of higher quality than Saudi-made products.		.07	.19			.02	.75
It is important that I purchase Saudi-made products so that jobs are not lost to foreign countries.		.45	.39	.16		.23	.52

Table L.12: Pearson Correlations (UAE)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Political Background:							
Are economically well-developed.	.81					.60	.77
Have a democratic system of government		.54				.62	.76
Have mass-produced products.		.49	.45			.64	.76
Have a civilian government.		.36	.47	.38		.51	.80
Are predominantly industrialized.		.47	.46	.63	.39	.63	.76
Economical Development:							
Have high labour costs.	.70					.50	.62
Have high literacy rates.		.63				.59	.58
Have a free market system.		.22	.37			.34	.69
Have a welfare system.		.22	.24	.12		.34	.69
Have a stable economic environment.		.31	.36	.27	.40	.49	.62
Technological Background:							
Export agricultural products.	.73					.49	.69
Have high quality products.		.51				.59	.63
Have a high standard of living.		.30	.40			.48	.70
Have a high level of technological research.		.36	.44	.44		.53	.67

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Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**		
Cultural Background:							
Have distinct customs and values.	.55					.44	.33
Language creates distance from other countries.		.19				.23	.65
Culturally different than other countries.		.49	.20			.43	.32
Religious Background:							
Their religion is distinct.	.79					.69	.66
Religion creates distance from other countries.		.43				.50	.85
Religion is different than other countries.		.75	.49			.59	.60

Table L.12.1: Pearson Correlations (USA)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**		
Political Background:							
Are economically well-developed.	.71					.59	.61
Have a democratic system of government		.32				.43	.67
Have mass-produced products.		.44	.36			.51	.64
Have a civilian government.		.35	.38	.28		.41	.68
Are predominantly industrialized.		.51	.18	.34		.41	.68
Economical Development:							
Have high labour costs.	.65					.40	.58
Have high literacy rates.		.43				.42	.58
Have a free market system.		.31	.30			.42	.57
Have a welfare system.		.26	.22	.33		.45	.57
Have a stable economic environment.		.13	.23	.18	.34	.34	.61
Technological Background:							
Export agricultural products.	.58					.20	.63
Have high quality products.		.26				.50	.35
Have a high standard of living.		.17	.45			.45	.40
Have a high level of technological research.		.01	.30	.33		.28	.54
Cultural Background:							
Have distinct customs and values.	.59					.34	.57
Language creates distance from other countries.		.23				.37	.50
Culturally different than other countries.		.34	.40			.47	.37

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Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Religious Background:							
Their religion is distinct.	.83					.74	.70
Religion creates distance from other countries.		.54				.58	.87
Religion is different than other countries.		.78	.55			.74	.69

Table L.12.2: Pearson Correlations (Brazil)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Political Background:							
Are economically well-developed.	.87					.72	.83
Have a democratic system of government		.68				.74	.83
Have mass-produced products.		.57	.59			.71	.84
Have a civilian government.		.43	.47	.42		.52	.88
Are predominantly industrialized.		.67	.65	.73	.45	.78	.82
Economical Development:							
Have high labour costs.	.84					.71	.77
Have high literacy rates.		.78				.68	.78
Have a free market system.		.51	.47			.56	.81
Have a welfare system.		.44	.39	.45		.58	.82
Have a stable economic environment.		.54	.54	.38	.56	.64	.79
Technological Background:							
Export agricultural products.	.67					.25	.73
Have high quality products.		.36				.59	.51
Have a high standard of living.		.16	.43			.50	.55
Have a high level of technological research.		.09	.46	.54		.48	.57
Cultural Background:							
Have distinct customs and values.	.65					.44	.59
Language creates distance from other countries.		.31				.43	.59
Culturally different than other countries.		.34	.42			.52	.48

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Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Religious Background:							
Their religion is distinct.	.85					.77	.73
Religion creates distance from other countries.		.57				.61	.89
Religion is different than other countries.		.82	.60			.78	.72

Table L.12.3: Pearson Correlations (Saudi Arabia2)

Items	Cron-bach's Alpha	Pearson Correlations				Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted
		1	2	3	4		
Political Background:							
Are economically well-developed.	.83					.66	.80
Have a democratic system of government		.42				.62	.81
Have mass-produced products.		.41	.48			.56	.83
Have a civilian government.		.56	.60	.53		.72	.78
Are predominantly industrialized.		.68	.49	.39	.54	.67	.80
Economic Development:							
Have high labour costs.	.64					.45	.57
Have high literacy rates.		.43				.45	.59
Have a free market system.		.35	.36			.45	.57
Have a welfare system.		.05	.11	.12		.19	.68
Have a stable economic environment.		.36	.29	.34	.25	.47	.56
Technological Background:							
Export agricultural products.	.75					.30	.82
Have high quality products.		.25				.70	.61
Have a high standard of living.		.28	.64			.64	.66
Have a high level of technological research.		.23	.65	.53		.63	.66
Cultural Background:							
Have distinct customs and values.	.67					.51	.53
Language creates distance from other countries.		.35				.41	.65
Culturally different than other countries.		.49	.36			.51	.51
Religious Background:							
Their religion is distinct.	.78					.70	.62
Religion creates distance from other countries.		.41				.46	.86
Religion is different than other countries.		.77	.45			.73	.58