COO Advertising of Export Products:

Effects on perceptions of product-origin typicality and product evaluation.

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To my children Lorentz and Pernille

Abstract

COO labels increasingly appear on food products as a response to the growing consumer demand for safety, traceability and authenticity. However, little research has been done to examine the effect of these labels. Even though country-of- origin effects are among the most widely studied phenomena in marketing, these effects are still not fully understood. This dissertation's goal is to add to the recent developments in COO research, by combining the theories of categorisation, typicality and visual elements with a COO perspective. COO research has often focused on the effects of country image on product evaluation. In this thesis it is argued that product-origin typicality perceptions are a prerequisite for COO effects. In other words, if a product is not considered as typical of its origin, the origin attribute will not be relevant, and the product evaluation will be done on the basis of other attributes, even when the country has a positive image.

Thus, the questions asked in this study are: how can COO advertising affect product-origin typicality, how are product-origin typicality and product evaluation related, and how should new (atypical) products be introduced in an export market? The focus is on how the use of COO labels and the advertisement of new versus established export products have different impacts on these processes.

The data was collected in France from an Internet panel: two pre-tests (N = 153 and N = 204) were carried out to find suitable products and to test the stimuli. Then, hypotheses were tested across two studies (N = 469 and N = 1008). The findings from the pre-tests confirmed previous findings that there are substantial differences to the degree products are associated with countries and countries are associated with products. The first study found that COO advertisements do have an impact on product-origin typicality perception, but that the use of COO labels and the product advertised (established vs. new export product) moderate the effect of the observed variables differently. In addition, it was shown that the effect of COO ads on typicality perceptions also spill over onto other (non-advertised) products within the same category. The findings also supported the hypothesis that the effect of product typicality perceptions on product evaluations is mediated by origin attitude. In the second study, the focus was on whether a new export product should be linked to an

established product in order to facilitate the transfer of origin associations (spillover effects). However, the findings indicated that direct exposure to a new product could be an advantage because it increased the processing of origin information. The findings in both studies indicated that origin labels had an impact as heuristic cues and reduced recall of additional information, but increased the importance of the origin attribute. No direct effects of the COO labels on typicality perceptions or product evaluations were found in these studies.

This thesis contributes to the COO literature by extending the knowledge of how product-origin perceptions of typicality can be affected and how they are related to product evaluation. The findings also extend the knowledge of how COO labels affect attitude formation. From a managerial point of view, the findings provide valuable insights into how such COO labels should be introduced and applied, how COO advertisements could impact consumer attitude, and how new export products could be introduced with regard to product information and COO labelling.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Signs and labels indicating origin or quality increasingly appear on food products as a response to the growing consumer demand for safety, traceability and authenticity. In the special issue of country-of-origin topics in the International Marketing Review 2008, the editors stated that "in light of the recent developments including food scares and product safety issues, COO cues have become a more salient issue for more consumers throughout the world. Whereas COO cues may have remained peripheral for the vast majority of consumers in the past, these recent events have certainly heightened their sensitivities to this particular variable". The objective of this thesis is to study how COO cues can have an impact on the perceived typicality and evaluation of export products. Of particular interest is whether COO advertising and labelling have a different impact on perceptions of new and established export products.

1.1 Background

The growing interest in food origin is reflected in public policy, for instance in the EU regulations. In 1992, two European quality signs were created: the PDO (Protected Designation of Origin) and the PGI (Protected Geographical Indication). The aim was to point out the link between the production process of an agricultural product and its territorial origin as well as to give the producers a guarantee against misleading use of the geographical indication. Since the establishment of these signs, more than 800 food products have been registered with these protected labels, ranging from niche commodities with small-scale production in limited areas to large-scale productions. Among them we find products such as ham and cheese from Parma, Scottish farmed salmon, Roquefort cheese, Feta cheese etc. In a market where consumer attitudes towards food origin and quality are becoming more demanding, product differentiation, for instance through the use of COO labels, offers a potential for producers both with regard to marketing and access to export markets. The increased interest and demand for protected origin labels from both the consumer and producer side indicate that origin is considered an important product attribute and has a valuable impact. The growing use of origin labels increases the importance of research that address consumer attitudes towards and the effect of different types of COO advertisement and labelling of food products.

The above discussion reveals that origin labels are increasingly being used as an advertising tool for commodity products and to communicate the origin attribute to consumers. Previous research (Ahmed et al. 2002; Eroglu and Machleit 1989; Hooley, Shipley, and Krieger 1988; Roth and Romeo 1992; Usunier and Cestre 2007) has found that the effects of COO advertising are product specific and that products are associated with countries to various degrees, but few studies have examined the effect of COO advertisement and the use of origin labels on different kinds of products.

More knowledge in this area would be valuable to exporters of food products. Imagine the following situation: a Norwegian seafood exporter has been exporting Norwegian salmon to France for years. In France, salmon is highly associated with Norway and Norwegian salmon is very positively evaluated. This exporter would like to export other seafood products to France, such as cod, scallops and halibut. These products are not associated with Norwegian origin. How should these products be introduced in order to capitalise on the positive associations to Norwegian origin? The exporter could use a generic origin label that has been developed for Norwegian seafood export products. The use of this label would require some investment, but the question is whether it would be a profitable investment. Would an origin label be more valuable for new products than for the established product (salmon)? Would the effect be better if the label was applied to all products (spillover effects)? The strategy that is chosen could have strong implications for exporters of food products.

Origin advertising is based on the assumption that origin has an impact on consumer product evaluation, and that consumers evaluate products differently according to their origin. In order for this to happen, consumers must have some kind of perception of the relation between the product and the origin. Some product-origin combinations are perceived as more typical than others, and perceived typicality is probably a prerequisite for COO advertising to have a positive effect. For instance, French consumers frequently associate salmon with Norway, but have probably never heard of beef from Norway. Thus, for beef, the Norwegian origin would have little value, but for salmon it is an important product attribute. In order to understand and exploit origin effects, it is essential to understand the concept of typicality in the context of product-country relations.

Typicality is often defined as "the degree to which an instance is a good example of a category" (Yi and Gray, 1996). Loken and Ward (1990; 111) stated "the typicality of a brand or a product should be related to the probability of its inclusion in the consumer's evoked set, to the likelihood of its classification into a target category, to its choice as a standard of comparison, and to its evaluation".

Previous research (Ahmed et al. 2004; Bilkey and Nes 1982; Gürhan-Canli and Maheswaran 2000; Li and Wyer 1994; Liefeld 1993; Papadopoulos and Heslop 2002; Peterson and Jolibert 1995; Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999: Verlegh, Steenkamp, and Meulenberg 2005; Zeugner-Roth, Diamantopouols, and Montesinos 2008) has examined the effect of country of origin on product evaluations, but little research has addressed the question of how origin typicality perceptions are established and whether they can be transferred across products. The objective of this study is to answer some of these questions by combining the theory of typicality, categorisation and visual stimuli with the COO perspective. More specifically, the aim is to look at how categorisation and evaluation of new and established export products can be affected by COO advertising and labelling and how the order of product exposure impacts these processes.

1.2 Research questions

A great deal of money and effort is spent on the increasing use of origin labels and logos. However, little research has documented the actual effect of these efforts. In order to improve the impact of export marketing of food products it is essential to know if and when these labelling efforts can be efficient marketing tools. More knowledge about the effects of origin advertising and labelling could lead to more efficient spending of marketing budgets and increased opportunities to exploit the positive origin associations that consumers possess. This could increase the value of established export products and guide the introduction of new products into foreign markets.

Typicality perceptions and labelling
Research of country-of-origin effects has usually studied the effect of country images on product evaluation and the focus has been on already established country-product

perceptions (Usunier 2006). An interesting question is whether origin preferences can be exploited further than promoting already established products from specific areas. How can a region or country take advantage of an already established product association in order to extend this typicality perception to other products? Is it possible to transfer positive associations to a particular origin to other products from the same category? How can the relation between origin and products be affected and are origin labels an efficient tool in this process?

An underlying assumption of COO advertising is that consumers believe that products differ according to their origin, and that some products are more typically associated with a country and therefore more highly evaluated than others when origin associations are positive. In this study, it is argued that product-origin typicality is a prerequisite for COO effects. Meta analyses of COO research concluded that most of the findings in this field are product specific (Liefeld 1993; Peterson and Jolibert 1995;Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999). Little COO research has examined whether product-country associations can be affected, and it is not known whether such changes would be product specific or if they would affect other category members. An important question for export countries is whether typicality perceptions can be transferred from one product to other products within the category or to the category as such. If origin typicality perceptions can be influenced by advertising and labelling, will this impact on typicality perceptions be product specific, or could it transfer to other products within the same category? That is, if origin advertising increases the perceived typicality of Norwegian cod, for instance, will this change affect other products within the seafood category such as Norwegian mussels or halibut, or will the change be limited to the advertised product? Countries are not always associated with their export products, and exporters might want to capitalise on the existing positive associations to their origin by introducing new export products. Therefore, it is of crucial importance to understand if and how perceived typicality can be influenced by COO advertising and labelling. What are the determinants of typicality perceptions, and are they different for established and new products? The first research question is simply:

RQ1: How can COO advertisement affect typicality perceptions of export products?

Typicality and evaluation

In this study, it is claimed that product-origin typicality perception is a prerequisite for origin effects. This implies that a product must be perceived as typical for its origin in order for the origin attribute to have an impact. Most studies of COO effects have assumed that products will be evaluated positively when the country has a positive image. In this study, the relation between product evaluation and origin attitude is perceived to be somewhat different. Since product-origin typicality is assumed to be a prerequisite for origin effects, it follows that a product must be perceived as typical of its origin before the origin attribute will have an effect. In other words, if the product is perceived as atypical of its origin, the origin attribute will not be considered, and the product will be evaluated on the basis of other attributes – even when the country has a positive image. However, it is likely to assume that the attitude towards the origin also has an impact on the evaluation of the product. It is important to understand how typicality perceptions, origin attitude and product evaluation are related. These processes have implications for how exporters should communicate and market their products in foreign markets. The next question is:

RQ2: How are typicality perceptions and product evaluation related?

Introduction of new export products

Assuming that product-origin typicality is a prerequisite for origin effects, typicality perceptions are of particular importance when new export products are introduced in a market. It is intuitive to assume that a well established export product, with strong associations to its origin country (e.g. Norwegian salmon) could have the role as a core brand, and that associations from the core brand could be transferred to the new brand (e.g. Norwegian halibut). These processes have been widely studied in the branding literature, for instance in the context of brand extensions and categorisation. However, in the country of origin literature, products are usually studied in terms of how they are evaluated with regard to different country images. Transfer of associations across products has not been studied in this context, and it is not known whether COO associations can be transferred in the same way as brand associations. Some studies within brand extensions have also found that it is more efficient to focus on attributes of the new product (Aaker and Keller 1990; Klink and Smith 2001). It

can also be assumed that when the introduction of a new product is linked to a well-known product, the comparison between the two products can produce a contrast effect (Herr 1989). It is likely to assume that the strategy of introducing a new product will impact the categorisation process and the evaluation of the new product (Aaker and Keller 1990). According to Lajos et al. (2009), consumer categorisation processes can have striking implications for firms. The manner in which consumers categorise products affects their thoughts about, attitudes toward, and overall evaluations of these products. The ability to influence the manner in which consumers categorise products can have strong implications for the successful introduction of new products. In order for exporters to be able to capitalise as much as possible on the existing associations to their origin, it is important to obtain a better understanding of how new products should be introduced in the market place. Thus, the next question is:

RQ3: Should COO advertising of new export products be linked to well known (typical) products?

In the following, an outline of how these questions will be approached is provided.

1.3 Outline of the thesis

Two studies are carried out to answer these research questions. The first study focuses on RQ1 and RQ2 whereas RQ3 is addressed in the second study.

The purpose of chapter 2 is to provide a brief overview of the COO research and the purpose of this study in this context. The aim is to emphasise how the focal interest of this research has changed from describing country of origin effects on product evaluation to a more managerial perspective, where the focus is on how origin can be used as a marketing tool. Even though it has been concluded that country of origin effects are product specific, previous studies have usually focused on country image and few studies have addressed the impact of product perceptions. This thesis focuses on the product level of origin effects, and in line with the recent research, the objective is to integrate the traditional country of origin perspectives with the theory of categorisation, labelling and order effects.

Chapters 3, 4 and 5 provide a conceptual review of the theoretical framework that constitutes the basis for the model and the hypotheses outlined in chapter 6. In order to understand the concept of typicality in the country of origin context, the theory of categorisation and brand extension, determinants of typicality and the relation between typicality and evaluation are outlined in chapter 3. The impact of labelling (use of a logo) is explored in light of dual coding and dual processing theory, as well as previous research in this field (chapter 4). The focus is on whether new and unknown labels have any direct or indirect effects on typicality perceptions and product evaluation. The theoretical framework for the second study (chapter 5) builds on the accessibility-diagnosticity framework and assimilation and contrast theory.

In chapter 6, the overall model of the study is presented, and the hypotheses are developed. The hypotheses reflect the model of the study and predict: 1) the determinants of typicality perceptions, 2) the relation between typicality perceptions, origin attitude and product evaluation, and 3) how the use of logos and order of information exposure affect these attitude formation processes. Furthermore, whether the ads include a COO label or not, and whether the advertised product is a new or established export product is predicted to affect these processes.

Study 1 is reported in chapter 7 and Study 2 in chapter 8. Chapter 9 summarises the findings and discusses contributions, limitations and directions for future research.

2. COO RESEARCH

Country of origin is one of the most widely studied phenomena in marketing literature. In the following, the aim is to give a brief overview of how countries and products have been perceived in this literature.

2.1 From country image to country equity?

Even though country-of-origin effects have been one of the most widely studied phenomena in marketing during the last decades, these effects are still poorly understood and meta-analyses have been able to draw few general conclusions. Country-of-origin effects are described as a complex phenomenon, specific to both the context and the product category (Liefeld 1993; Peterson and Jolibert 1995; Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999). Heslop, Lu and Cray (2008, 356) state "there is considerable evidence that country images can and do impact consumers acting both directly and indirectly on product beliefs and purchase intentions under a variety of circumstances: at the level of individual products, at the product category level, and across a wide range of product categories". However, Phau and Chao (2008) argue that even though previous research has generated a great deal of knowledge of the country-of-origin effects, it is still possible that at least some of the reported COO effects may be over-inflated or even spurious and that theoretical explanations are necessary for understanding why the effects should or should not exist and under which conditions.

2.1.1 Conceptualisation of country image

Previous research has concluded that products are associated with countries in varying degrees and that country of origin effects are product-specific, and are not transferred across categories (Ahmed et al. 2002; Eroglu and Machleit 1989; Hooley, Shipley, and Krieger 1988; Roth and Romeo 1992; Usunier and Cestre 2007). Most often, country of origin effects have been studied in terms of country image effect on product evaluation. However, country image has been defined and measured in different ways. In the following, we will present some of the common views of what this concept implies.

Heslop et al. (2008) noted that while product attitudes have been the main focus of most country image models, there have only been a few attempts to include the modelling of exogenous concepts associated with broader country images in order to explain product-related constructs. These more complicated models have usually included measures of the political and social character of the country, the competencies (technical, economic, etc), the character of the people and evaluations of this and the desired interaction with the country. One example is Papadopoulos, Heslop and Bamossy 1990, and Papadopoulos, Marshall and Heslop 1988, who proposed that perceptions of the country of origin comprise: 1) a cognitive component, including beliefs about the country's industrial and technological development, 2) an affective component, describing the affective response to the country's people and 3) a conative component, reflecting the desired level of interaction with the country.

Pappu, Quester, and Cooksey (2007) argued that there have been two different conceptualizations of country image in the marketing literature. Whereas some studies have focused on the macro (country) level, others have conceptualized country image at the micro (product) level. Studies at the macro level use economic, technological and political variables to define country equity and image perceptions (Martin and Eroglu 1993). Studies at the micro level define country image as "the total of beliefs one has about the products of a given country" (Darling and Wood 1990; Han and Terpstra 1988; Nagashima 1970; Roth and Romeo 1992). Pappu et al. (2007) argued that the macro and micro level should not be seen as two separate dimensions of country images, but should be considered interrelated. They found that the relationship between macro and micro country image is positive and category-specific, but also that the two dimensions have different impacts on product evaluations according to the product category.

2.1.2 Classifications of countries

Other attempts have been made to categorise and generalise results of country image research. For instance, Liefeld (1993) found that there seems to be a hierarchy of countries with respect to consumer product quality perceptions. He argued that this

hierarchy appears to be closely linked to the level of economic development. On the top, we find the US, followed by Germany and Japan, the rest of Northern Europe, Southern Europe, and then the rest of the world with Africa on the bottom of the list. Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999), in a meta-analysis of country of origin research also found that differences in economic development are an important factor underlying the country-of-origin effect.

The majority of COO research has studied the effect of COO on the evaluation of technological or electronic products (Usunier 2006). Most of these studies have found that consumers prefer products from developed countries, and that perceived quality increases with the degree of positive country image. However, the conclusions sometimes seem to be based on research on similar empirical cases, and also imply that country image is a static concept (either positive or negative) that can be measured and applied across categories.

This pattern of empirical focus has been described by Usunier (2006) as "the besieged fortress scenario". In a content analysis of 115 COO articles over the past 40 years, he found that there is a consistent pattern of choice of products (more than 3/4 of the studies used cars, consumer electronics or clothing) and COOs (researcher's home country and Asian countries) that directly reflect the scenario of international trade during the period. US and European products (cars, electronics and clothing) were challenged by Asian-made products. Usunier (2006, 69) claimed that these findings describe, rather than explain, changes in the competitiveness of nations, as they seem to be perceived by marketing researchers. Further, he pointed out the fact that this scenario has changed, and the relevance of this type of findings is decreasing.

Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2006) argued that country image has often been treated as an overly simplistic matter, whereas it is a complex phenomenon. This simplistic view has led to some misconceptions, such as that country image is dependent of products. Their example is that even though Afghanistan is considered an underdeveloped country, and most people would rate Afghan products at the bottom of the scale, Afghan rugs are highly valued in world markets. Further, they claimed that country image must be viewed as a changing, and not static phenomenon. Country image changes over time. The same arguments were proposed by Papadopoulos and Heslop

(2003) who stated that country images of individual product classes may differ from one another but all are likely to be congruent with the country's overall image as a producer. They argue that some countries have stronger and more focused images than others, and different people have different images of the same countries, and that these images are strongly held stereotypes even though they can be influenced and change over time (see also Darling and Kraft 1996, Papadopoulos and Heslop 2003).

2.1.3 Country equity

According to Papadopoulos and Heslop (2003), the growing interest in promoting exports, defending imports, marketing for tourism and investment has brought forth the concepts of "countries as brands" and "country equity" in this field.

The country equity concept was introduced by Shimp, Samiee, and Madden (1993) as "a way of thinking about country image in its role either as a halo construct or as a summary construct". Shimp et al. argued that country equity, like the traditional brand equity concept, can help products from countries with positive country equity to gain entry to new markets. Further, they argued that the notion of brand extensions is "consistent with the notion of country equity and extensions of products either associated or not typically associated with a country. However, country equity is more complicated than brand equity because brands are produced within countries and the brands themselves may have positive equity but the country may have negative equity or vice versa".

In the same way, Maheswaran and Chen (2006) introduced the concept of nation equity. They argue that countries, like brands, have an equity associated with them that goes beyond product perceptions and may have an emotional component. They showed that incidental emotions that are unrelated to product performance may lead to a focus on the nation and may arise from events (political or other) that are unrelated to the product or company.

Papadopoulos and Heslop (2003) described country equity as the net sum of a country's real or perceived strengths and weaknesses, and broader than the notion of country image that has been the subject of most of the COO research until recently. They argued that the emergence of the country equity concept represents a call for

integration of several research streams that focus on the various manifestations where the image of a country may have an effect.

It seems that the focus of country of origin research has changed during the recent years. From studying the effect of country image on evaluation of products in a more descriptive and observational manner, the perspective is becoming more dynamic and proactive. The literature is integrating brand theory and transferring the brand management concepts to the country of origin research through studying country equity and branding of nations. Still, findings often suggest that country of origin effects are product-specific, something that indicates that the focus should not only be on the countries, but also on the perceptions of products.

2.2 Product origin typicality and product ethnicity

2.2.1 Product-country match

Even though research on country image has concluded that COO effects vary by product categories, there have been few attempts to explore the relation between image dimensions and individual products. One of the first studies of why certain product categories are preferred from one country and not another was done by Roth and Romeo in 1992. They investigated product-country matches and found that a positive product-country match occurs when the country was perceived as being very strong in an area that was also an important feature for the product category. Their model suggests four dimensions of matches and mismatches: favourable match (when countries had high image perceptions and these same image dimensions were important to the category), unfavourable match (when image perceptions were important to the category but the country image was low on these dimensions), favourable mismatch (when benefits were not important to a category but were part of the country image), unfavourable mismatch (when benefits were not important to the category and not associated with the country). However, they found that not all products or countries could be clearly placed in this model: some countries were rated with average evaluations, and image dimensions were perceived as only moderate important for some products. Further, this study was not able to explain why beer, for instance, would obtain a favourable mismatch with Germany and Japan, and an unfavourable mismatch with Hungary, whereas the willingness to buy was high for

German beer and low for Hungarian and Japanese beer. The problem seemed to be the four dimensions used to measure country image (innovativeness, design, prestige and workmanship), which did not capture all dimensions of relevant product attributes.

2.2.2 Product categories and origin

Other studies that have tried to categorize products according to the COO effects observed have encountered similar problems. For instance, Liefeld (1993) suggested that country-of-origin effects are higher for products with high technical complexity than for products with low technical complexity. However, Liefeld (1993, 128) noted that an exception to this generalisation was found by Obermiller and Spangenberg (1988), who found an origin effect for coffee beans but not for the technically more complex product, backpacking stoves. A similar observation was done by Ahmed et al. (2004), who found that coffee from Columbia was considered high quality in spite of Columbia's negative country image. A corresponding finding was done in a study by Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983), where Japanese electronic products were perceived as high quality products, whereas Japanese food products were perceived as low ones. The dimensions most often used to measure country image (workmanship, reliability, technicality, inventiveness, design etc.) reflect that the dimensions have been applied primarily to manufactured products (Agarwal and Sikri 1996; Roth and Romeo 1992). Agrawal and Sikri (1996) noted that the dimensions most often used are not suited for agricultural products (for instance coffee) or processed products (such as beer), even though these are products that are often associated with their origin countries, and that it would be useful to identify measures for these products.

Some general conclusions appear to have resulted from previous research; country image varies across product categories (Ahmed et al. 2004; Kaynak and Cavusgil 1983). For instance, Pappu et al. (2007) found that some product categories (cars) are more sensitive to country images than others (televisions) and products are associated with countries to various degrees (Roth and Romeo, 1992).

2.2.3 Typicality and origin

Several COO studies have investigated the importance of typicality in country-product and product-country associations (Agarwal and Sikri 1996; Roth and Romeo 1992; Usunier and Cestre 2007). In most of these studies, respondents have been asked to rate products from specific countries, and the researchers have used measures

with pre-defined country image dimensions that cannot account for all of the findings. Few studies have used products (instead of countries) as the object of the study, and looked at how products are associated with countries in order to understand the relation between countries and products.

Product ethnicity

Usunier and Cestre (2007) introduced the concept of product ethnicity in their study of congruency between country and product images. They argued that product image and country image are partly separated concepts, and that the concept of product ethnicity "refers to the stereotypical association of a generic product with a particular COO" (Usunier and Cestre, 2007, 36). As opposed to much of the COO literature, where most often the effect of COO on product evaluations is studied, in their study they looked at product-country and country-product associations without any evaluative dimension. Whereas some products are more "ethnic" than others (that is, they are more easily associated with a particular origin), the aim of this categorical approach was to study the typicality of various products. Since familiarity with a country leads to more cognitions, it is likely to assume that consumers will associate more products with countries with which they are familiar, even though this does not necessarily lead to more favourable evaluations. In fact, Usunier and Cestre (2007) found that both product-country and country-product associations are positively related to familiarity, and that product-country associations are positively related to product involvement. This is also reflected in another finding, that respondents showed significantly higher home-country associations, supporting the home-country bias theory. Further, this bias was found to be stronger for more neutral products, something that might indicate that when no particular origin is associated with a product, people tend to associate it with their own country.

Product ethnicity structure

In their country-product and product-country study, Usunier and Cestre (2007), found that some associations are multiple (several countries are associated with the same product category), whereas other associations are more exclusive. They also found that these associations differ from country to country, but that some of them are global associations (shared cross-nationally). In addition, they detected several submodels for these multiethnic products: the regional model where several countries

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from the same area share product ethnicity (for instance cheese from Europe), the triad model where countries from different parts of the world share product ethnicity (cars) and the duopoly model in which two countries share product ethnicity and the dual model where two countries share ethnicity by production or consumption (e.g. tea from India and GB). One of the most frequent cases is that of neutral products, with low (global) product ethnicity, for instance for yogurt and vacuum cleaners.

2.2.4 Brands and origin

Another common finding in COO research is that brand is a strong driver of country-product associations (Usunier and Cestre, 2007). Within the categories most often studied, such as cars and stereos, brand is an important attribute. However, it is likely that the effect of COO on product evaluations is different for commodity products, and in particular for food products. Many food products are more closely associated with origin than with a brand. Commodity products are often not associated with any brand at all. Further, macro country image might have less impact on the evaluation of food products, as some previous results suggest. Often, food products are associated with their origin not because of the technological development in the origin country, but because of the climatic conditions that are necessary or optimal for the production of that particular product or because the product is linked to the culture and traditions in a particular country. Unlike most technological products, the production of many food products cannot be moved to any other geographical area. For instance, most countries producing coffee have typically "poor" (low) country images, whereas wine and salmon cannot be produced in a too warm climate. When food products are perceived as very typical from specific origins, it is often a result of long traditions of export and consumption.

However, there are strong associations between brands and countries. Consumers associate countries with brands and brands with countries. Even though research increasingly sees country equity as a parallel to brand equity, there are some differences that cannot be ignored. Even though a brand is usually owned and managed by a company, a country's image is the sum of history, culture and a number of actors that cannot be managed or controlled in the same way. In this study, the focus is on introducing new export products, something that is similar to brand extensions in many ways. However, brand extensions are often planned and designed

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from a brand management point of view. That is, new products are developed in order to fit the company's profile, or to meet consumer needs. In the case of introducing new export products, the focus is on how exporters can exploit existing origin associations in order to market products that already exist, but that are not typically associated with their origin. Generic marketing is also more complex than brand marketing because many companies are involved, often with conflicting interests and resources, and it is more difficult to agree upon a common strategy. It is therefore important to focus on taking advantage of the existing associations to an origin, rather than building brand image. However, to a large extent, this process can build on the same theoretical framework as traditional brand building.

2.2.5 Generic origin advertising

The economic effectiveness of an origin or quality label depends on its informative value to consumers and its cost for producers. Many food producers operate on a small scale and have limited possibilities to invest in cost demanding certification processes. This is why producers often organize in collectives for both the marketing and the standardization processes required for certifications. For agricultural commodities, generic advertising has taken an increasingly important role, and is of major importance to the agricultural sector (Forker and Ward 1993). Origin promotion is one type of generic advertising. Product origin labelling can be an important alternative to individual branding for many producers, as a tool to communicate product characteristics and place of origin to consumers in export markets. Many food products are considered commodity products, and unless the product characteristics are efficiently communicated, consumers are likely to opt for the cheapest alternative. A definition of generic advertising was proposed by Forker and Ward (1993, 6): "generic advertising is the cooperative effort among producers of a nearly homogenous product to disseminate information about the underlying attributes of the product to existing and potential consumers for the purpose of strengthening demand for the commodity". This definition contains four key terms. *Cooperation* implies that there is a joint commitment and effort with clearly defined requirements for participation, *homogenous product* defines the limits of who can participate and the degree of commonality, *disseminate information* entails a range of activities, but with the aim of controlling or impact on the content or flow of information about the commodity. *Strengthening demand* through efforts of increasing usage and

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attractiveness of the commodity is the ultimate purpose. In the case of generic origin advertising, the limit that defines the product is the country or region of the cooperation in question. For instance, even though Norwegian and Scottish salmon are quite homogeneous products, generic marketing campaigns aim to distinguish these products on the bases of consumer preference for one origin over the other.

2.3 Summary

Previous research (Liefeld 1993; Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999) has often attempted to classify countries and products along various macro and micro variables. The findings show that it is difficult to find general classification rules that can apply across product categories, and the results have most often been product-specific. The degree to which products and countries are associated with each other is often a result of history and culture. In this study, it is argued that products could be studied in relation to the origin attribute per se. In line with the notion of product ethnicity, products can be defined according to the degree that they are associated with origin in general and with specific countries. That is, to what extent is origin perceived to be an important product attribute, and to what degree is a product associated with a particular origin? Most studies within the field of COO research have studied country image and product-origin evaluation as a static variable. In this study, the focus is on how the associations between a product and its origin can be changed, and how this typicality perception is related to the attitude towards the origin and product evaluation. In order to understand how origin perceptions can be affected it is essential to look at how the concept of typicality can be understood in the COO context.

3. TYPICALITY AND CATEGORISATION

The objective of this chapter is to provide a theoretical framework that can contribute to answering the first two research questions, which factors determine perceived typicality of advertised export products? And how are typicality perceptions and product evaluation related? The focus is on the categorisation process, the determinants of typicality and its relation to product evaluation.

3.1 Categorisation

In the marketing literature the concept of typicality is most often studied in the context of brand extensions and categorisation. The questions of whether or not a new product is perceived as a typical member of an established category, and of how positive associations are transferred from the core product to a new product, have been addressed in past research. The concept of typicality is closely linked to theory of categorisation, similarity perception and brand extension. In addition, brand extension literature is closely related to the categorisation theory. "Theoretically, the impact of the brand on evaluations of brand extensions can be conceived of as the impact of category membership on the evaluation of an exemplar," (Wänke, Bless, and Schwarz 1998, 300).

3.1.1 The flexibility of category structures
Loken, Barsalou and Joiner (2008), stated that even though categories studied in consumer psychology have both stable and flexible structures, research increasingly views categories as flexible representations. Past research has demonstrated this flexibility through studies of goal-derived categories, contextual influences on category structure, different self-views, and different cultural categories. Studies of contextual factors and category flexibility have found that the salience/accessibility and relevance of category information influences the evaluation of category members. People use prior knowledge when making judgements about new products, but can only attend to a subset of knowledge available. The selective focus is influenced by the accessibility of information (either retrieved from memory or in the environment) and the relevance of the information to the context. Another factor influencing the degree to which inferences from one category are extended to a new category member

is the elaboration of information. When elaboration increases the perception of a relation between the category and the extension, similarity-based inferences are more likely to be made.

The similarity or match between the brand category and a new brand extension determines whether category inference is extended. Consumers use prior knowledge about the category and the new category member to judge the relationship between them. When similarity is high, inference is likely to be drawn between the category and the new member, and when similarity is low, the category information is perceived as irrelevant and transfer of affect decreases (Loken et al. 2008). Similarity judgements can vary greatly, depending on what type of information is accessible. Changing the focus of the similarity comparison can change the perception of similarity between the brand and the brand extension (Loken et al. 2008). Increasing the salience of specific attributes can have a very strong effect on category membership judgments and processing of new brands (Hutchinson and Alba 1991). When accessible information about the category and accessible information about the new product is similar, inference is likely to occur.

Products vary to the degree that they are associated with categories. Viswanathan and Childers (1999) argue that understanding how attributes influence product categorisation is important, but that past research has used attribute level measures of product attitude that emphasise evaluation rather than categorisation. Whereas categorisation precedes evaluation it is important to conceptualise product categorisation at the attribute level. They argued that natural categories are fuzzy sets with no clear boundaries, and that previous research has shown that even though instances of a category that were very typical or atypical were categorised consistently, there were inconsistencies both among subjects and over time for instances with intermediate typicality. They stated: "For the continuous attributes that often characterise products in marketing, gradedness in category membership at the attribute level may arise out of the degree to which a product possesses an attribute". Fuzzy set theory suggests that research of category membership should study continuous attributes rather than feature-based attributes at the global product level. In other words, instead of studying the overall evaluation of a product's category

membership, the emphasis should be on how the different attributes contribute to its categorisation.

Several studies have looked at how different variables can have an impact on consumers' categorisation processes. For instance, Wänke et al. (1998) found that when consumers' task instructions encouraged them to place two disparate concepts in the same versus a different category, the evaluations of these category members varied. They argued that whereas categorisation theory generally assumes that a positive evaluation of the core brand is transferred to the extension as a function of the similarity between the core brand and extension, similarity is only one of many variables that may affect categorisation decisions. They showed that categorisation decisions could be influenced by other factors, for instance peripheral cues, such as the name assigned to the extension. The notion of flexible categorisation suggests that categorisation decisions can be driven by variables that are unrelated to the products' features.

In another study, Moreau, Markman, and Lehman (2001) found that changing the salience of multiple category information influenced the extent to which this was used to make inferences about a new product. The information about the category that was encountered first, or cued by an ad, influenced consumer categorisation and perception more than the subsequently encountered information did. The study built on categorisation-based knowledge transfer, suggesting that consumers who are given a plausible category label are likely to transfer information from the existing category to the new product in order to maximize the perceived similarity of the new product to the existing category. Whereas category labels have been shown to override feature similarity as a factor predicting the type of inferences made about missing information, the product category cued by an ad will significantly influence consumers' categorisation of the new product in the direction of the cue and away from other plausible categorisations. Expectations of a new product's performance will be inferred from the performance of products in the category into which the new product is categorised. They showed that this effect is different from simple priming, in that people are exposed to multiple category cues. They also argued that the mutual exclusivity constraint, which suggests that people resist giving a second category label to an object after they have acquired a first label for it, encourages people to use the

category designated by the new label as a basis for structuring the target representation. The first plausible category label consequently induces extensive knowledge transfer.

3.1.2 Category structure and categorisation process

In addition to the product attributes, the category's structure has been proved to have an important impact on the evaluation and elaboration of brand extensions. Boush and Loken (1991) found that two aspects of brand knowledge structure might influence judgements about a brand extension: *graded structure* and *brand breadth*. Graded structure refers to the varying degree to which members of a category are perceived as typical or representative of the category and brand breadth is the variability among product types represented by a brand name.

Graded structure

Theories of categorisation often assume a two-stage evaluation process. For instance, Fiske and Pavelchak (1986) suggested that when people first compare a new object to a category, and find that there is a clear match, they rapidly assign it to the category and infer that the object has other features that characterise category members. If there is a clear mismatch, and the object can easily be assigned to another category, the evaluation may be just as rapid as in the case of the clear match. Herr (1986, 1989) suggested that when the object is perceived as extremely atypical of the category, a contrast effect might occur. But when the object's category membership is unclear, people may engage in piecemeal processing and evaluate the object on the basis of its individual attributes. This second-stage process involves more cognitive effort and involves using the core brand as a standard of comparison when evaluating the individual attributes of the new object. Kim (2006) suggested that if an object is evaluated as an atypical category member in this second stage of the process, a contrast effect would occur, but that it will be a different contrast effect than the one that can be found in the first stage of the process. At this stage, it will be based on a more extensive elaboration of the individual attributes of the object, rather than on a rapid categorisation process of an object that is evaluated as extremely atypical in the first stage. Accordingly, Boush and Loken (1991) stated that brand extension research has found that extremely atypical or typical members of a brand will be evaluated rapidly because a clear mismatch/match between brand and brand extensions only

involves the first stage of evaluation whereas the question of membership to the category or not is perceived as obvious. Moderately typical members of a category/brand will require a slower response time and more cognitive effort to evaluate.

Brand and category breadth

Furthermore, Boush and Loken (1991) suggested that extensions of narrow brands would be more rapidly evaluated and elicit fewer cognitive responses than the extension of a broad brand. Narrow brands have stronger category associations, because they more often have accessible associations - including brand category information. Broader brands have weaker and more diffuse associations. The narrow brand focus is more likely to include product category information that can be used as a basis for similarity perception when assessing new brand extensions. This leads to greater acceptance of close category extensions and lower acceptance of far category extensions. In contrast, broad brands, for which product category associations are weaker and brand attribute associations are stronger, lead consumers to show less extreme responses to close and far extensions, and more acceptance as a function of whether the brand attributes transfer easily to the new extension (Loken et al. 2008). Brand breadth and extension typicality are interrelated in the sense that perceptions of typicality should be more extreme for narrow brands than for broad brands. Lajos et al. (2009) found that the probability that an individual will position a new category subordinate to a category i is proportional to the relative number of categories that are already subordinate to i. Their findings indicated that perceived category breadth is less important for the positioning of a new subcategory than subcategory numerosity. The effect of subcategory numerosity on the positioning of new categories is due to differences in accessibility between categories to which more or fewer subcategories are connected. If a category has one subcategory, then the probability that an individual will position a new subcategory in this category is smaller than when a category is made up of several subcategories.

3.2 Determinants of typicality

Instances that are intuitively perceived as typical either appear frequently as instances of the category or they possess attributes that occur frequently within the category

(Nedungadi and Hutchinson 1985). As the above discussion has emphasised, the evaluation of new category members can be influenced by a number of factors, and extremely typical or atypical members are evaluated more rapidly and with a lower levels of elaboration than moderately typical members. This similarity-based research holds that the lower the similarity between a new product and a category, the less likely it is that category-based inferences will take place. In other words, when there is no perception of similarity, inference is not predicted.

However, previous research has shown that categories are flexible structures (Loken et al. 2008), and that typicality perceptions can be influenced by the salience and accessibility of relevant product attribute information. Relevant information about a category that is cued by an ad is likely to influence consumers' perceptions about a category (Moreau et al. 2001). Similarity is often viewed as a determinant for category membership, but similarity can be influenced by accessible and salient information. Moderately typical members of a category will require more elaboration than extremely typical members, and when the product information is found relevant to the category evaluation this is likely to increase typicality perceptions.

Similarity and relevance of product attributes can be influenced by accessibility and contextual cues. For instance, Meyvis and Janiszewski (2004) found that accessibility (in addition to diagnosticity and similarity) is the most important determinant for successful brand extensions. Similarity is decisive when benefit associations are equally accessible and diagnostic, but accessible benefit associations are more important than similarity and diagnosticity. When brands have equally diagnostic, but differentially accessible benefits, the brand with the more accessible benefit associations is preferred even when less similar. However, accessibility of benefit associations decreases with memory interference from competing category associations. When consumers have strong and accessible associations in memory, they may evaluate product category membership differently.

In country-of-origin research there is a noted bias that may prevent atypical export products to be perceived as similar to products with an established and typical foreign origin. This is referred to as the domestic country bias, and might be of relevance in the process of introducing new export products in the market.

3.3 Familiarity and domestic country bias

A number of studies have documented that a bias in favour of domestic products exists. Several studies have documented that consumers generally prefer products from own country unless the quality of foreign products is expected to be superior (Liefeld 1993; Verlegh 2007). In a meta-analysis of country of origin effects, Peterson and Jolibert (1995) found that if country of origin of the stimulus product was the same as the respondent's country, the effect size for the quality/reliability perception variable was larger than if the product was from another country. However, this finding did not apply for the purchase intention variable. Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) found that consumer ethnocentrism is more capable of explaining consumers' bias towards home products than bias against foreign products.

Different theoretical explanations have been proposed for this phenomenon. Shimp and Sharma (1987) introduced the concept of consumer ethnocentrism, which is defined as a belief that it is inappropriate to buy foreign products and that consumers should support domestic companies through buying domestic products. In other words, consumer ethnocentrism represents a conscious and economically motivated unwillingness to buy foreign products in order to protect domestic production. Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) found that variability in preferences for domestic goods was linked to consumer ethnocentrism, but that the strength of this link varied both across product categories and countries. Thus, the ability of consumer ethnocentrism to explain consumer bias in favour of domestic products was dependent on the specific country and the particular product category.

Another explanation was proposed by Verleigh (2007), who argued that whereas ethnocentrism implies an economic element of protectionism in favour of domestic production, his notion of a home country bias is conceptually different from this view but represents a complementary explanation to why people prefer domestic products. The notion of home country bias builds on social identity theory, and explains the phenomenon on the basis of a need for self-enhancement and national identity. The arguments are that it is unlikely that economic concerns are the only motivator of consumer preferences, and that consumers' attachment to their home country is based on national identity as well as the social and emotional significance consumers attach

to their country that goes well beyond economic concern. The theoretical foundation for this notion is built on social identity theory and research of ingroups and outgroups, where the ingroup bias is attributed to the need for maintaining a positive evaluation of the self and the social groups to which one belongs. The strength of this bias increases with the level of identification that varies across individuals and situations. This explanation of the home country bias does not imply that consumers will always prefer domestic products to foreign products, whereas members of a group will acknowledge "objectively" higher ratings of alternatives, and the bias may not be strong enough to compensate for products with better qualities from foreign countries.

In line with this theory, Usunier and Cestre (2007) found that people associate more products with their own country than with foreign countries, and suggest that whereas people tend to associate more products with countries they are familiar with, there will be a tendency to associate more products with own country, because people are most familiar with their own country. Further, this bias was more salient for products that are more neutral and less ethnic than for products that are viewed as typical of a particular foreign country. Even though the number of products associated with home country is not the expression of a preference, the finding suggests, as the notion of the home country bias, that unless a product is clearly associated with a foreign country, consumers tend to associate or prefer products from their home country.

These different theories suggest that the explanation of the home country bias might be as simple as familiarity, or the more emotional social identity, but it can also be based on more explicit economic motivations to support domestic production. Further, research of ingroup bias concluded that favouring of the ingroup does not systematically correlate with negativity towards the outgroup (Verleigh, 2007). This was supported by the findings from the research of ethnocentrism, and indicates that domestic country is more an expression of a positive attitude toward home country than of a negative attitude toward foreign countries. Thus, it seems likely that this bias is stronger for products that are not strongly associated with foreign origins.

Categorisation theory assumes that there will either be an inference of associations from typical products in the category to the less typical products, or there will be no

change in category perceptions. The inclusion of a new member in an established category is also referred to as an assimilation effect, as opposed to a contrast effect, where the new member is considered an extremely atypical member, and is excluded from the category, often with the consequence of a negative evaluation of it. Whereas the similarity-based categorisation theory predicts absence of category-based inference in situations with low similarity, several models predict contrast effects when the context and target are not assigned to the same category. Since the domestic country bias can be thought to reduce the perception of category membership between an atypical export product and its origin, it is important to consider the alternative outcomes of the categorisation process.

It has previously been argued that categorisation and typicality perceptions precede evaluation. In particular for COO effects, it is assumed that typicality is a prerequisite for a positive evaluation. In other words, it is likely to believe that typicality is a necessary, but not sufficient condition for a positive evaluation. In the following, the relation between these concepts will be addressed.

3.4 Typicality and evaluation

Research shows that more typical examples tend to be better liked. An item's typicality is positively related to consumer attitude or overall evaluation of the item (Carpenter and Nakamoto 1996; Folkes and Patrick 2003; Loken and Ward 1990; Nedungadi and Hutchinson 1985; Simonin and Ruth 1998; Veryzer and Hutchinson 1998). Several explanations have been proposed for this relationship. For instance in the context of brand extensions, a number of studies have found that new category members are better liked when they are typical of the parent brand (Aaker and Keller 1990; Boush and Loken 1991; Broniarczyk and Alba 1994 etc). In COO research, typicality has also been found to have a positive effect on evaluation. For instance, Häubl and Elrod (1999) argued that a high degree of congruity between a brand and its country of production makes a product less difficult for the consumer to evaluate, and leads to a more favourable evaluation.

A general conclusion is that similarity, typicality or fit lead to a greater acceptance of the new category member and a higher evaluation of it.

However, some studies have found no relation between typicality and attitude (Rosch 1973), or that evaluation is dependent on whether the category is positively or negatively evaluated in the first place (Ward and Loken, 1988). When a category has valued attributes, and a new member is perceived as a typical instance of the category, it is perceived to share some of the category's positive attributes, and therefore it is positively evaluated. However, if the category does not have any favourable attributes, and is negatively evaluated, the evaluation of the new member will also be negative. The relation between typicality and attitude will thus depend on the nature of categories included in the study.

Further, several studies have found that moderately typical instances of a category are better liked than extremely typical or atypical ones (Mandler 1982). As a parallel to the categorisation process, they require more elaboration to evaluate (categorise) than very typical or atypical members, and for instance, Meyers-Levy and Tybout (1989) argued that the process of resolving incongruity is pleasing and leads to higher evaluation.

In summary, these previous findings suggest that the attitude towards the category determines the direction of product evaluation. Research of brand extensions has found that successful extensions have a high level of fit or similarity between the core brand and the extension, but several studies have also found that attitudes toward the category, company or overall brand evaluations are important for how brand extensions are evaluated. For instance, Park, Milberg, and Lawson (1991) found that successful brand extensions depend on both feature similarity with existing products and brand concept similarity. When consumers judge a new brand extension, they compare it to both the existing product and the brand concept. Similarly, Keller and Aaker (1992) argued that consumers consider both core products and company related attributes when they evaluate a brand extension. Consumers combine their knowledge and evaluation of the company with their perception of how well the proposed extension fits with the company's present products. In this study, it is argued that typicality is a prerequisite for origin effects. When consumers perceive a product as typical of its origin, their attitude to the origin will determine the direction of their evaluation.

3.5 Summary

Research increasingly views categories as flexible representations, and finds that when contextual factors, such as accessibility and relevance increase the perception of similarity between the category and the extension, similarity-based inferences are more likely to be made. It has been argued that categorisation processes should be studied at the attribute level in order to understand how different attributes contribute to the categorisation process. In addition to product attributes, category structure can also influence the evaluation of new category members. Previous findings suggest that accessibility, similarity and relevance are the most important determinants of typicality. Accessibility decreases when consumers have competing category associations in memory, in the case of origin associations: the notion of domestic country bias is one such category. However, when an instance is seen as a typical member of a favourable category, most studies conclude that there is a strong relation between typicality and evaluation.

It has previously been argued that typicality is a prerequisite for origin effects. Most studies support a strong relationship between typicality and positive attitudes when the category has positively valued attributes. Research has shown that evaluations of extensions result from both feature similarity with existing products and brand concept similarity. According to the categorisation theory, typicality perceptions can be affected by contextual factors, such as accessibility. In the next chapter, theories of labelling effects will be used in order to understand how visual elements can increase accessibility of category attributes such as origin.

4. TYPICALITY AND ADVERTISING

Origin labels are increasingly being used as an advertising tool to communicate the origin attribute to consumers. Such labels could have a strong impact on product-origin typicality perceptions. The objective of this chapter is to describe the concept of generic origin labelling and the effect of visual elements in general. Afterwards, a theoretical framework for studying the effect of such labels is provided. The focus is on the notion of multiple retrieval paths, dual processing theory and the theory of advertising complexity and familiarity.

4.1 Origin labels and visual elements

Even though an increasing number of food products are obtaining protected labels of origin and the use of origin in marketing of food products is growing, little research has focused on when and how such labels have any effect on consumer attitudes and choice. Research on the effect of logos and labels has been limited and the findings have shown conflicting results. Some findings have even suggested that the growing numbers of such labels are confusing and have little effect (Davidson, Schröder, and Bower 2003; McEachern and Warnaby 2005; Vannoppen, Verbeke, and Huylenbroeck 2001; Verbeke and Viaene 1999). The question is whether and how the use of a collective label can influence consumer attitudes and increase the actual importance of origin in purchase situations. From a marketing perspective it is also important to examine whether a collective label can increase the effect of already established preferences and associations with regard to origin, and whether it can affect the perception of typicality when new products are introduced in a market.

4.1.1 Origin labels
An origin or quality label can be defined as "a concise, credible indication of one or more characteristics of a product, which are not visible at the time of purchase and sometimes not even after consumption, but which can be controlled at a certain stage" (Vannoppen et al. 2001:5). This indication can be a logo, a name or a reference. It differs from a brand or trademark that is owned and used by a company with the aim to differentiate their product from competitors in the market place. Examples of origin labels are numerous, among the most established we find: Parma ham, chicken from

Bresse, Bordeaux wine, Champagne, Norwegian Salmon, California raisins, Florida orange juice and New Zeeland lamb to mention just a few.

From the consumer viewpoint, it is important that the labels and signs are meaningful and comprehensible. Typically, these labelling efforts try to establish a link between the product characteristic and the characteristics of the location and/or method of production. This effort only makes sense if the specific quality can be recognized and substantiated by consumers (Vannoppen et al. 2001). Research of food labelling has expressed concern about the growing number of labels and logos, even claiming that few consumers know the meaning of the numerous labels, and that they create confusion rather than clarity (McEachern and Warnaby 2005; Vannoppen et al. 2001).

Two of the main problems with the current practice in this domain are: 1) Consumers often do not know the meaning of the labels/logos and 2) The labels/logos are not applied consistently. Even when consumers know the labels, they are inconsistently applied in the market place. Hence, producers do not fully profit from the possibilities the labels represent in terms of recognition aids, and their efficiency is probably reduced. There are several reasons as to why this is happening. Many of the producers of generic food products have limited budgets and the labelling on products is not accompanied by marketing communication informing consumers about the meaning and value of the labels. Even the cost of applying the labels can be considerable and requires motivation, knowledge and priority. Producers of generic products often lack knowledge and resources in the field of marketing. Another factor is that generic products often have to be labelled in the market place, something that requires collaboration from parties other than the producers, for instance importers and supermarkets. It can be difficult to convince third parties of the importance of labelling of products that are traditionally not thought of as "branded" products. In some cases, the main interest of cooperatives in developing collective labels is not to market own products, but to prevent other producers from using their "name". As previous studies have revealed, consumers often lack knowledge about the meaning of the labels, and this is likely to reduce the value of their usage. But once an origin label has a positive meaning for consumers, the product has a competitive advantage compared to non-differentiated generic products.

4.1.2 Visual elements

Brand elements such as logos, symbols, characters, slogans and packages, serve to identify and differentiate a brand. Brand elements can enhance brand awareness and facilitate the formation of strong, favourable and unique brand associations. One of the most important functions of logos is that they are easy to recognize and can contribute to fast identification of products by consumers (Keller, 2003). Another advantage is that logos are often easy to transfer across products, for instance in the case of brand extensions. Logos are one of the elements that make up the brand equity or brand identity. Logos are useful for brand recognition and can reinforce (directly or indirectly) almost any type of association (Keller 2003).

Visual stimuli may be effective because they are learned faster and remembered significantly longer than verbal stimuli and because they can create quality perceptions (Henderson et al. 2003). The literature states that a well-designed brand symbol should evoke positive feelings, communicate clear meanings and be recognizable. Logos are considered a critical in-store recognition aid, speeding selection of the product. In many cases, brand choices are made with little processing (low involvement) and the affect attached to the image may be one of the few cues consumers use to differentiate the product (Henderson and Cote, 1998, Henderson et al 2003). Logos help consumers to cut search costs and provide them with a sense of security, this is especially important for low-involvement, frequently purchased products (Kohli, Suri and Thakor, 2002). Furthermore, research shows that logos with clear meanings are better liked and recognized than logos with ambiguous meanings.

Visual elements might also increase the speed with which associations come to mind, i.e. the accessibility of the attitudes. Many studies reveal that attitude accessibility influences attitude change (Fazio, Powell and Williams 1989). Especially when choice is memory based, anything that influences the ease with which information is retrieved from memory has important implications for subsequent decision outcomes (Haugtvedt, Leavitt, and Schneier 1993).

In spite of numerous descriptions of logos as efficient visual stimuli in advertisements, few studies have actually investigated the efficiency of logos in

advertisements. Of those who have, mixed results have been obtained. Most of the assumptions about the efficiency of logos are based on studies of visual elements in general, even though these theories may include any kind of visual element, such as pictures and photos that might serve a different role at the level of informative content. In the following, some of the theoretical foundation of why visual stimuli are an efficient marketing tool is presented, before some previous findings from research of advertising complexity and familiarity are discussed.

4.2 The notion of multiple retrieval paths

Different conceptual explanations have been offered for the effectiveness of imagery as a learning mediator. One of them is the notion of multiple retrieval paths, which focus on the richness of the image in providing multiple cues that could serve as aids to memory retrieval (Childers and Houston 1984). Paivio's (1971) dual coding model and the availability-valence explanation (Kisielius 1982) are specific examples of this notion. The general argument is that imagery involves a form of elaboration that yields stored semantic information beyond that contained in the original stimulus (Childers and Houston 1984).

4.2.1 The availability-valence explanation

The availability-valence explanation holds that multiple retrieval paths increase the availability of material in memory. The hypothesis is an attempt to explain evaluative judgements, and suggests that the learning and evaluation of a communication depend on the availability of information associated with the communication. The degree to which the information is available depends on the cognitive elaboration of the information and the recency of the information processed. A communication characterised by a high degree of imagery is expected to elicit a higher availability of information about the communication than a low imagery communication is. Highly imaginal communication is assumed to stimulate greater cognitive elaboration and development of more storage locations and sensory pathways in response to the information. As a result, highly imaginal communication, such as pictorial information, should be more accessible to being retrieved and should exhibit a higher degree of learning than communication presenting only verbal information. In addition to this, information generated in response to highly imaginal communication should be more strongly valenced, i.e. the higher degree of cognitive elaboration

should lead to the formation of a more extreme evaluation than what would be formed by the less imaginal communication (Kisielius 1982).

4.2.2 The dual coding model

According to the dual coding model, pictures are encoded as imaginal codes in memory and words are represented as verbal codes. The most general assumption in dual coding theory is that there are two classes of phenomena handled cognitively by separate subsystems, one specialised for the processing of nonverbal information and the other for dealing with language. The two systems are assumed to be structurally and functionally distinct. They are both independent and can be active without the other or in parallel, but they are interconnected so that activity in one system can initiate activity in the other (Paivio 1986). However, pictures are also labelled more spontaneously than words are imaged. Therefore, the formation of two codes, verbal and imaginal is more likely for pictures than for words. This is referred to as the "picture superiority effect", because the greater number of memory codes for pictures act as multiple retrieval routes to those pictures. Research has shown that the likelihood of retrieval is directly related to the number of alternative routes in memory (Unnava and Burnkrant 1991). In their study, Unnava and Burnkrant (1991) found that when subjects are exposed to low imagery information, the addition of pictures exemplifying that information should increase the likelihood that dual codes are formed, and the subjects' ability to recall the information should increase. When subjects are exposed to high imagery verbal information, dual codes should form spontaneously, and addition of pictures to this information should not increase the ability to recall the information. In other words, internally generated visual imagery can be a substitute for externally provided pictures.

Both of these theories suggest that pictures can facilitate memory retrieval and that evaluation can be enhanced by imagery information. These theories suggest that everything else being equal, there will be a "picture superiority" effect when visual elements are present in addition to verbal stimuli. However, it seems likely to assume that the extent of information processing will have an impact on the associative strength and the effect of the visual elements. This can be further accounted for by the dual processing theory.

4.3 Dual processing and attitude strength

Much of the research on the effect of logos is based on persuasion and information processing theory, where different levels of elaboration distinguish information processing by a subject about an object. The higher the degree of information stored in memory, the more complex the network of meanings will be attributed to an object (Petty and Cacioppo 1996).

Dual process theory was developed to account for previously conflicting findings in attitude change research. The two models most applied are the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) and the Heuristic-Systematic Model (HSM). These two models focus on the moderation and mediation of attitude change and explain how the same variable can have different effects on attitude change in different situations, and how a variable can produce the same persuasion outcome by different processes in different contexts (Petty and Wegener 1998). The ELM model postulates that there are two ways to persuasion: the central and the peripheral route, where the central route requires more elaboration and the peripheral route is based on the presence of positive or negative cues. The model corresponds to the HSM concepts of heuristic versus systematic information processing. The two models have more similarities than differences and can generally accommodate the same empirical results (Petty and Wegener 1998).

The goal of advertising is often to change the attitudes of consumers of a particular product in a more favourable direction, and a great deal of the research on advertising has been focused on how advertising appeals can influence attitudes. Whereas the use of visual elements is likely to increase the number of associations related to the origin, it is assumed that these elements facilitate the learning of arguments relevant to the evaluation of the product, and that this might lead to a strengthening of attitudes towards the product. One of the ELM ideas is that cues can sometimes be as effective as argument processing in inducing attitude change. It is assumed that cosmetic variation strategies can lead to the formation of positive attitudes, but that these attitudes are based on less elaboration (formed via the peripheral route), with the result that individuals know less about the product, but may have more cues available in memory from the advertisements (Haugtvedt et al. 1994). According to Haugtvedt

et al. (1994) the ELM model does not predict that attitudes formed via the central route will always be more persistent than attitudes formed via the peripheral route, but it predicts that any strategy that increases the number or strength of associations underlying a positive attitude should result in increased persistence.

Haugtvedt et al. (1994) argue that the success of persuasive appeals should be measured on more than simply the extremity of attitudes. They argued that even though attitudes can appear equally extreme on some measures, the underlying strength of the attitudes can vary, and this difference can cause attitudes to be unequally resistant over time or to counter-persuasive influences. The concept of attitude strength in the ELM model holds that attitudes that possess equivalent extremity can differ as to their underlying strength because they have been established under different levels of elaboration (Haugtvedt et al. 1993; Petty and Cacioppo 1986a). "The critical feature of the central route is that an attitude change is based on a diligent consideration of information that a person feels is central to the merits of an issue or product. The information may be conveyed visually, verbally, or through the source of the message's characteristics. In the peripheral route, attitudes change because of the presence of simple positive or negative cues, or because of the invocation of simple decision rules, which obviate the need for thinking about issue-relevant arguments" (Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann 1983). These differences in attitude strength have been found to moderate the extent to which attitude influence behaviour, whereas stronger attitudes are more likely to influence thought and behaviour than weak attitudes are. Both the consumer behaviour and social psychology literature have found that strong attitudes: 1) come to mind faster, 2) persist over time, 3) resist counter persuasive attempts, and 4) guide behaviour more than weak attitudes (Fazio 1995; Haugtvedt et al. 1994; Petty and Cacioppo 1986a; Petty, Haugtvedt, and Smith 1995; Priester et al. 2004).

A good deal of the existing research from the ELM perspective has included situational manipulation designed to increase or decrease participant motivation, for instance through high or low relevance conditions (Petty et al. 1983; Schumann, Petty, and Clemons 1990). But the relative influence of different advertising features may also be influenced by individual differences (Haugtvedt, Petty, and Cacioppo 1992). For instance, Maheswaran, Sternthal, and Gürhan (1996) in a study of how

consumer expertise moderates message learning and product evaluation, found that evaluations tasks prompt people to use information that is more accessible as a basis for response. The number of message exposures and message format are factors that affect this process by influencing elaboration, and thereby the extent of information accessibility. In this study, message organisation enhanced novices' learning of it, and repeated exposures to the message prompted elaboration of the content and more favourable product evaluations. Both experts and novices engaged in message elaboration under conditions that facilitated association with prior knowledge. They also found that devices that facilitate learning of a message, for instance by making it easier to see the connections among the various bits of a message, and a familiarity with the arguments supporting the message are likely to enhance the persuasive impact of the message for novices.

Research has shown (Henderson et al. 2003; Keller 2003; Kohli et al. 2002) that logos can have a direct effect by the fact that they speed recognition of brands and already established preferences and associations. Logos are considered aids in the selection of products, especially when motivation is low. Food labels provide a sense of safety and quality even when consumer knowledge about the label is low. The indirect effect is that logos can influence associations and attitude strength. As the above discussion has revealed, it seems likely to assume that the visual elements of an origin logo will increase the accessibility of the COO message. Whereas it is likely to enhance retrieval of already stored origin information, it seems intuitive to assume that its effect in an initial exposure will be most pronounced in the case of a typical product. However, increased product knowledge and associations to product attributes might also facilitate the transfer of associations between products within a category. As we have seen, it is possible that the use of a logo will increase the accessibility and memory of arguments and associations, something that is likely to facilitate the transfer of attributes across products.

4.4 Advertisement complexity and familiarity

Whereas the theory outlined above describes the effect of visual elements per se, other studies have looked at contextual factors, such as product familiarity and complexity of advertisement. In the following, some of the findings are presented.

4.4.1 Complexity of advertisement

The logo in a print advertisement is one of several elements competing about the attention of the consumer. There has been little theory developed to suggest how and when logos are efficient components in an advertisement. The existing literature reports mixed results. Advertising literature has suggested that because consumers have a limited amount of attentional resources, increased attention to one ad element may reduce attention to other ad elements. On the other hand, it has also been argued that attention to one element can transfer to other elements.

Pieters and Wedel (2004) found that brand familiarity reduced the attention to the brand element, but increased the attention to the text element. In general, the pictorial elements were found to have an intrinsic tendency to capture much of the attention, whereas the brand and text element were less capable of doing so. The finding that brand familiarity increased attention to the text element suggests that new brand elements or logos would capture more of the attention than familiar elements. Similar findings have been found in other studies. For instance, consumers' product knowledge and need for cognition has been found to influence the effect of complex advertisements (Putrevu, Tan, and Lord 2004). In a study of the influence of message format on the influence of print advertisements, Decrop (2007) found that picture and text are the prevailing elements, while logo and headline are of marginal importance. The four components were compared with regard to information, liking and behavioural intention in a conjoint experiment. They found that the presence of a logo had no effect on information, attractiveness or behavioural intention. Whether these were new or familiar logos was not specified.

In a study of logo complexity in the context of repeated exposures, Janiszewski and Meyvis (2001) found support for previous findings that logos that have significant meaning are less likely to wear out, and that more complex and elaborate logos are better at maintaining viewer interest and liking over time. However, they also point to the fact that these effects are different at a first exposure, and that research has found that more salient and meaningful stimuli are preferred at the initial presentation of a stimulus. These findings indicate that not only the complexity of the advertisement, but also the logo itself will produce different effects depending on the level of familiarity.

It is likely to assume that the logo will have a different effect as a component of a print advertisement and as a component of a product package in store. As a component in a print advertisement, the logo is usually accompanied by a picture, and is only one of the visual elements. In addition, there is usually textual information as well as a headline or similar. On the other hand, when the logo is used as a label on the package in the store, it is possible that it more easily serves as a recognition aid if it has a meaning to the consumer.

4.4.2 Familiarity and repetition

It seems logical to assume that the effect of a logo will vary depending on whether it is a well known or an unknown logo. It is possible that a logo that is not already familiar to consumers can draw the attention away from the rest of the information in an advertisement and reduce the accessibility of the information instead of enhancing it. Familiar ads require less attention than unfamiliar ads, because they are easier to process and contain less new information. Previous research has found that familiarity increases brand memory (Pieters, Warlop, and Wedel 2002) whereas novel and complex ad executions require more exposures for consumers to comprehend the communication (Pechmann and Stewart 1990). A new and unfamiliar logo will thus help to render the ad more visually complex. In the case of an initial exposure, the logo will certainly not be a recognition aid, and the question is if it will actually decrease the learning and memory of the information.

Pieters et al. (2002) in a study of brand attention and memory effects for familiar and original ads, found that in general consumers fixated less on the brand element (reference to the brand including name, logo symbols or packshot) than on the text and pictorial element of the ad, and the identification of the advertised brands in a memory task was low. Brand elements received most attention in ads that were both familiar and original, and least attention in ads that were familiar but not original. Ad originality increased the total attention to the advertisement, and even though this effect was relatively larger for the pictorial and text elements, the increased attention to the brand element had the largest impact on the brand memory task. However, familiar ads were more accurately identified in the memory task, independently of the

amount of attention paid to the three elements, indicating that consumers had stored memory of these ads, which is in line with previous findings in memory research.

Pechmann and Stewart (1989), in a review of advertising repetition effects, concluded that when consumers are motivated they learn the message faster. Highly motivated consumers meet one of the following criteria: they already purchase the brand, are knowledgeable, care about the decision, had sufficient time to process the ad and were not exposed to competing brands. People who do not buy the brand are far less responsive to the advertisement. This indicates that product involvement and knowledge will influence the number of exposures necessary to store information about the advertised brand.

4.4.3 Ad credibility and involvement

In addition to product involvement and knowledge, it is likely that the source of the advertisement has an impact on message elaboration. In marketing, it has been found that source credibility affects consumer reaction to persuasive communication (Aaker and Keller 1992). Previous research has found that message sources and expectations of source trustworthiness can take on different roles in the persuasion process (Kang and Herr 2006; Priester and Petty 2003). Kang and Herr (2006) argued that source effects could occur through both heuristic processing of source as a cue and the systematic processing of source as an argument. Priester and Petty (2003) argued that information from a source of high trustworthiness would lead to more elaboration than information from a source with low trustworthiness would. These findings suggest that advertisement credibility is an important attribute, but can impact the elaboration process differently. In line with motivation and product involvement, ad involvement and ad credibility are factors that are therefore likely to have an impact on message elaboration.

4.5 Summary

As previously argued, little research has been done in the field of logo effects. The findings are mixed, something that might be due to the lack of specifications of what types of logos are studied. Visual elements can be difficult to classify and compare because they are evaluated differently across individuals. Further, previous research does not differ between well-known and unknown logos or between contextual

factors. It seems plausible to believe that the effects on memory and recognition will vary according to the level of familiarity and the context in which the logo is placed, for instance as an element in an advertisement or as a label on a product.

The notion of multiple retrieval paths predicts that a logo representing a picture of a product and/or associations to that product will facilitate the availability of information about the product. These theories predict that when everything else is equal, a visual element will increase memory and accessibility of information. However, research has shown that logos are not always efficient aids in increasing memory for advertisements where they are part of a complex communication. The effect of logos is likely to depend on the level of elaboration and familiarity. According to the attitude strength theory, different processes of elaboration can lead to equally strong attitudes on some measures, even though the underlying strength of these attitudes differs. The persuasive impact of a message is also dependent on the organisation of the message and the number of exposures. These findings are also supported by research on advertising complexity and familiarity. When a new logo is presented for an established/familiar product, it is possible that it can have an immediate effect on activation of stored information. However, when a new logo is presented for a new (atypical) product, the level of information complexity increases, and it is likely that less information is processed and stored during the initial exposure and most probably repeated exposures will be necessary before consumers capture the information. Only when the information has been stored in memory, will the logo serve as a recognition aid in later evaluations. Motivational factors such as product and ad involvement and ad source trustworthiness/ad credibility are also expected to affect message elaboration. However, whereas the presence of a logo has been shown to affect the attention to other elements of an ad, it is possible that it will have an effect on what attributes are being elaborated during the initial exposure. It is therefore important to study the process of attitude formation and not only the overall attitude measures of product evaluation.

In the second study, the order of information will be the focal interest. Theories of accessibility and diagnosticity, as well as assimilation and contrast predict that message elaboration is also affected by the order of information exposure.

5. INTRODUCING NEW EXPORT PRODUCTS

The objective of this chapter is to provide a theoretical framework for answering the third research question: should COO advertising of new export products be linked to well known (typical) products? The positive relationship between perceived fit and customer evaluations of brand extensions is one of the most supported findings in brand extension research (Klink and Smith 2001). In the brand extension literature, it is often argued that associations can be transferred from the core brand to new products. This would suggest that the introduction of a new product would benefit from the link to the established product in order to facilitate transfer of associations.

However, there has been little research of brand extensions that has studied the effects of alternative introduction strategies. Some previous findings suggest that focusing on the extension attributes can be more favourable in some cases. For instance, Aaker and Keller (1990) found that cueing subjects about positive qualities of the original brand did not affect evaluations for extensions that had low evaluations (low fit extensions), whereas providing a brief elaboration of an extension attribute (about which subjects may have been uncertain) led to more favourable evaluations. In addition, Klink and Smith (2001) found that both increased product-related information and repeated exposure to extensions decrease the importance of fit on extensions. In fact, their study showed that the effects of exposure on extension evaluation are mediated by perceived fit. They also found that presentation of the brand name before the extension information does not have an impact on perceived fit, arguing that heuristic cues, such as brand name, reduce the processing of subsequent information. When impressions are formed on the basis of attribute information, the need to use heuristic cues diminishes.

To sum up, previous findings revealed that positive product evaluation could result from both linking the brand extension to the original brand, and focusing on extension information (Aaker and Keller 1990). However, different strategies are likely to have different impacts on how information is processed and which attributes are considered. In this chapter, the accessibility-diagnosticity framework and theory of assimilation

and contrast are presented in order to understand the processes underlying these different strategies.

5.1 The accessibility-diagnosticity framework

The accessibility-diagnosticity framework was presented by Feldman and Lynch (1988). The theory describes how both retrieved and computed responses can be influenced by the elicitation context, and proposes that the likelihood that an input will be used as a basis for judgement or choice depends on: 1) the accessibility of the input in memory, 2) the accessibility of alternative inputs, and 3) the perceived diagnosticity or relevance of the input and of alternative inputs.

Thus, pre-existing attitudes or beliefs will be used in determining a related judgement as a positive function of its own accessibility and diagnosticity, and as a negative function of accessibility and diagnosticity of alternative inputs. Any factor that increases the accessibility of an input, should also increase the likelihood with which that input will be used, and decrease the accessibility and use of alternative inputs. The increased accessibility of an input produced by its elaboration causes an output interference effect and reduces the likelihood that other inputs will be retrieved from memory. Accessibility of alternative inputs increases when they are perceived as more diagnostic as compared to more recent, but only moderately diagnostic inputs (Lynch 2006).

5.1.1 Accessibility

Most theories agree on four determinants of knowledge accessibility: 1) the strength of associations between the knowledge to be accessed and the contextual information, 2) the recency with which knowledge has been acquired and used, 3) the frequency with which it has been applied, and 4) the amount of processing in which it has been involved (Wyer 2008). In addition, Feldman and Lynch (1988) argued that characteristics of the information itself (for instance vividness) and retrieval cues would enhance memory accessibility of potential inputs to judgements. Lynch, Marmorstein, and Weigold (1988), argued that whereas specific information has been shown to be less memorable than overall judgements, it is likely to expect that when both attribute information and prior evaluations are available, overall evaluations will be more accessible.

5.1.2 Accessibility of alternative inputs

When there is more than one potential input in memory, any factor that increases the accessibility of one will decrease the use of the other. Based on the notion of consumers as cognitive misers, it is expected that judgements will be made using the most salient information. Other relevant inputs are retrieved from memory only when the salient information is not sufficiently diagnostic to make the judgement. Feldman and Lynch developed three main arguments for the likelihood that alternative inputs would be used. 1) The increased accessibility of an input produced by its elaboration reduces the likelihood that other inputs will be retrieved from memory because of output interference. 2) Inputs that are perceived as only moderately diagnostic may be ignored when more diagnostic ones can be retrieved, but used when they cannot. 3) Individual differences, such as expertise, goals and involvement, affect respondents' ability to retrieve alternative inputs. Whereas overall evaluations are more easily retrieved than details, previously formed overall attitudes are more likely to be retrieved. When respondents have not previously formed an opinion about an issue, contextual information is more likely to be used. In addition, individual differences can affect respondents' ability to generate alternative inputs (for instance expertise, values, affective polarisation and involvement) (Lynch 2006).

5.1.3 Diagnosticity

Lynch et al. (1988) stated, "an input is diagnostic for a judgement or decision to the degree that consumers believe that the decision implied by that input alone would accomplish their decision goals". Feldman and Lynch (1988) assumed that inputs are considered sequentially, so that increasing the diagnosticity of an input increases the likelihood that memory search will terminate with the most accessible input. Search is presumed to terminate when the accumulated diagnosticity of the information considered has reached a sufficient threshold, even if other diagnostic inputs could have been retrieved from memory. Diagnosticity is defined with respect to consumers' goals, and individual factors, such as knowledge and involvement, can determine whether an input is perceived as relevant for judgement. Motivational intensity will also influence the threshold level of diagnosticity that consumers perceive as sufficient for making a judgement. The model emphasises that perceived (not objective) diagnosticity determines the likelihood of information utilisation. Whereas consumers may overestimate the diagnostic value of information, inferential

biases are possible. Prior research has found that consumers often overestimate the validity of prior impressions. Prior impressions are resistant to change because: 1) ambiguous information is interpreted as consistent with previous impressions, 2) impression-consistent, nonambiguous information increases consumer confidence in previous impressions, and 3) impression-inconsistent, nonambiguous information is discounted and ignored. Hence, exposure to any kind of information will increase confidence in previous impressions (Herr, Kardes, and Kim 1991).

5.1.4 Measurement effects

Feldmann and Lynch (1988) presented the accessibility-diagnosticity framework within the context of consumer surveys. In this context, the framework refers to how an answer to one question will have an impact on another. "The perceived diagnosticity of the first judgement or decision for a second (later) one is the degree to which the respondent perceives that the answer to the first question correctly identifies how the second should be answered" (Feldmann and Lynch 1988, 424). The probability that a respondent will base the answer to the second question on the answer to the first is a positive function of the perceived diagnosticity of the first for the second. When the answer to the first question is diagnostic for what the answer to the second might be, it is unnecessary to engage in any retrieval strategy to compute an alternative answer to the second question. This suggests that there is a likelihood for measurement effects on responses to the second question. According to Feldmann and Lynch (1988), the measurement effect is most likely to occur for questions that are asymmetrically diagnostic, and the correlation should be greater when the first question is more diagnostic to the second than when the opposite is the case.

5.1.5 Summary

The accessibility-diagnosticity framework describes the probability of an input being used in evaluations of products. It predicts that the most accessible information will be used if it is perceived as diagnostic for the evaluation task. In the case where the information is not perceived as diagnostic, the theory predicts that the information will be ignored, and more diagnostic information will be retrieved from memory. It also predicts that even moderately diagnostic information will be used when more diagnostic information is not available. However, there is no predicted effect of the impact this will have on the evaluation. In order to explore the consequences of non-diagnostic information on product evaluation, additional theories must be applied. In

the following, the theory of assimilation and contrast is presented in order to develop a better understanding of the consequences of the information being perceived as diagnostic or not.

5.2 Assimilation and contrast effects

Research of assimilation and contrast effects builds on social judgement theory and the seminal work of Sherif and Hovland (1961), which suggested that judgements of objects could be affected by contextual factors. A number of studies have explored the processes behind the assimilation and contrast effects (Bickart and Schwarz 2001; Damisch, Mussweiler, and Plessner 2006; Häfner 2004; Levin and Levin 2000; Lockwood and Kunda 1997; Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1997; Moskowitz and Skurnik 1999; Mussweiler and Damisch 2008; Mussweiler, Rüter, and Epstude 2004; Wänke et al. 1998, 1999; Wegener and Petty 1995). Several alternative explanations have been proposed to account for assimilation and contrast effects. The two dominant approaches, the comparison-based and the correction-based models, differ in that the first focuses on changes in the representation of the standard of comparison, whereas the other focuses on changes in the representation of the target. The comparison-based model suggests that assimilation or contrast is determined by the extent of feature overlap between a context and a target object: this is also referred to as the standard-of-comparison model (Herr 1989), whereas the correlation-based approach suggests that the outcome is a result of the cognitive resources devoted to the evaluation task, as in, for instance, the set-reset model (Martin; Seta, and Crelia 1990). In the correction-based models, it is assumed that consumers are aware of the contextual influences on their reactions, and that the contrast effect is the result of the effort to correct for this bias. Some other explanations attempt to integrate both of these views: the two-factor theory (Meyers-Levy and Sternthal 1993) and the inclusion-exclusion model (Schwarz and Bless 1992).

Assimilation is the process in which people perceive a new target object as an instance of a category by using contextual information as an interpretation frame. Assimilation theory expects that associations from the category will be inferred to the new object so that evaluations of the category would impact evaluations of the object. Assimilation effects are often viewed as the default because they occur more often

and require less cognitive effort than contrast effects. Contrast is the opposite of assimilation and implies that contextual information is used as an interpretive frame to judge a new object as a non-member of a category. The cognitive processing underlying these contrastive judgements are explained theoretically by the various models described in the following.

5.2.1 The standard-of-comparison model

Research of priming-induced categorisation has found that unobtrusive exposure to exemplars of a cognitive category can increase the accessibility of that category, and that this accessibility and subsequent use can result in two different judgemental effects. Ambiguous stimuli are likely to be categorised as instances of the accessible category when the category is moderately extreme, whereas when the category is extreme, stimuli are judged in the opposite direction from the primed category. Herr (1989) suggested that the extent of feature overlap between a context and a target object determines whether assimilation or contrast will be found. Herr, Sherman and Fazio (1983) noted that the primed category seemed to serve as a standard of comparison. Herr et al. (1983) described how an individual categorizes an unfamiliar object by using the category that is most accessible because of the contextual activation. The findings of this research are that when the features of an unfamiliar target object and the contextual cues share considerable or moderate overlap, the object will be categorized as a member of the same category, and assimilation will take place. If the object has no overlapping features with the contextual cues, it will not be considered a member of the category, and a contrast effect will occur. The primed category serves as a standard of comparison for judgement, and the priming effects have been shown to be a function of the level of prior knowledge held by respondents. In fact, Herr (1989) found that lack of category knowledge resulted in no priming effect. Whereas priming effects depend upon the existence of stored categories in memory, the priming effects are more pronounced for subjects with high category knowledge than for subjects with lower levels of category knowledge. This is because they are more likely to have relevant, stored and accessible categories that serve as primed standards of comparison. The existence and activation of a cognitive category facilitate the categorization of novel products, and provides a context for product judgements. Whether assimilation or contrast is produced depends on the ambiguity of the target being judged and the extremity of the cognitive category that

has been primed. Moreover, Herr (1989) found that this priming only activated the specific attribute of the category embodied by the exemplars, while other attributes were not influenced.

The net contextual priming effect

Levin and Levin (2000) also presented a model focusing on the feature overlap between the context and the target. Their model expanded previous models by focusing on assimilation and contrast as continuous, co-acting processes and by emphasising the ambiguity of the target description as a key factor determining the balance between assimilation and contrast. In this model, assimilation is also perceived to be the default, however contrast and assimilation are perceived to be operating in the same context, in that the target and the contextual cue can be viewed to have some shared attributes and some unique attributes. "The net context effect" resulting from this process would be a balance of competitive assimilation and contrast and would depend on: a) the degree of ambiguity of the description of the target brand, b) the degree of linkage between the target and the context and c) the level of stimulus congruity (relative number of shared and unshared attributes of the target and the context.

5.2.2 The correction model

Several bias correction models have been developed to explain assimilation and contrast effects. Martin's (1986) set-reset model and Wegener and Petty's (1995) flexible correction model are some examples. As opposed to the comparison-based models, these models predict that contexts have assimilative effects when the cognitive efforts of evaluation are low, and that the more strenuous correction processes lead to target judgements less like the context than in no-correction settings. The models also explain contrast effects by the presence of awareness of the context effects (the primed information), in other words, correction models imply that subjects are aware that their reactions are being influenced by contextual information, and the contrast effect is a result of their effort in trying to correct for this biased judgements. The models differ in their explanations as to exactly how these processes occur.

The set-reset model

Martin's (1986) set-reset model interprets context effects in terms of the cognitive resources devoted to the judgement task. In a study where the level of processing was manipulated in two experiments, and which also used people's need for cognition as an indicator of effort in a third experiment, Martin et al. (1990) found that assimilation to the context occurred when the level of processing was low, and concluded that the processes involved in contrast demands more cognitive effort than do the process of assimilation. According to this model, assimilation is caused by the overlap between reactions to the context and reactions to the target. Assimilation implies that the target is perceived more like the context than what would normally be the case, and this effect is referred to as the "setting" in the model. "Resetting", on the other hand, takes place when the subject becomes aware of the influence of the contextual information on the reaction to the target, and parcels out reactions towards the context from reactions toward the target. This "resetting" might cause the subject to overcorrect reactions by subtracting even true reactions toward the target, and the process leads to contrast of the target judgements away from the context.

Flexible correction processes

Petty and Wegener (1993, 1995) introduced a model of theory-based flexible corrections. It suggests that when people evaluate a target, they can come to believe that they have been influenced by some contextual factors both when they have and when they have not actually been influenced. When people are motivated and able to correct for their assessment of the target in light of the potentially biasing factor(s), they adjust their judgement in the opposite direction of the perceived bias. In this model, the same correction processes operate whether the bias is perceived or actual. This model also differs from the set-reset model mainly in that it assumes that both assimilation and contrast can be the effect of a context, and that both outcomes can be subject to correction processes. An implication of this is that either outcome can be due to effortful correction processes or to low-effort lack of correction processes, and that people can hold theories of contrast as the "natural" influence of some contexts.

5.2.3 Models that integrate both perspectives

Meyers-Levi and Sternthal (1993) incorporated both the comparison-based and the correction based models in a *two-factor theory of assimilation-contrast*. Their theory

suggests that contrast will occur when two conditions are met: 1) the cognitive resources available at judgement are substantial. And 2) there is little overlap between the contextual cue(s) and the target object. In the absence of any of these conditions, assimilation is expected.

The inclusion-exclusion model

The inclusion-exclusion model, presented by Schwarz and Bless (1992) also builds on both comparison-based and correction-based models. It emphasises the importance of the categorisation process, specifically whether the contextual information is subordinate or superordinate to the category. It is based on the assumption that people need to retrieve a cognitive representation of a target in order to form a judgement about it, and that a standard of comparison must be determined. The temporary representation of both the target and the standard of comparison will be based on information that is accessible due to contextual influences. The outcome of the judgement depends on the categorisation process, and whether the information that comes to mind is subordinate or superordinate to the target category.

The model assumes that the default process is to include accessible information in the representation of the target category (assimilation), and that exclusion (contrast) needs to be triggered by salient contextual features.

When contextual information is subordinate to the target category, it will produce an assimilation effect if it is included in the temporary representation of the category. Schwarz and Bless (1992) used the example that thinking of a well-respected member of a political party will result in a more favourable evaluation of the party as a whole, because the evaluation of the target is based on information included in the temporary representation that is constructed of it.

Contrast effects can be caused in two ways: if individuals exclude positive information from their representation of the target category, the evaluation will be based on less positive information and the judgement will be less positive. This is referred to as the subtraction effect, and can be compared to the reset assumption in Martin's (1986) model. The subtraction effect does not require any changes in the standard of comparison. The second possibility is that information that is excluded from the target stimulus comes to mind when a relevant standard of comparison is

constructed and is used for that purpose. This can result in a more extreme standard and a stronger contrast effect. It is assumed that the use of the information in the representation of the target category and the standard are mutually exclusive. Whereas subtraction of information would only affect the target category (from which it was excluded), the use of excluded information in the construction of a standard of comparison would also affect the evaluation of related stimuli. The example of this difference is that if information about the respected politician is subtracted from the representation formed of his party, the evaluation of the party will be less favourable. However, using the politician to construct a standard of comparison, might affect the evaluation of other parties or politicians to which this standard would be relevant.

Context information referring to a superordinate category will result in assimilation effects of the evaluation of a subordinate target when the target is included in the category. In this example, evaluation of a politician who is a member of a favourable party will be favourable if his party membership is included in the cognitive representation of the politician. The inclusion in the superordinate category can further induce inference of other features or attributes of that category, consistent with category inference theory previously discussed. Contrast will occur when the target is excluded from the superordinate category, this can happen again through a subtraction effect (information is excluded from the temporary representation of the target), or a comparison effect (the information is used to construct a relevant standard of comparison). In this case, subtraction effects would also be limited to the target, whereas comparison effects could be generalised to other targets relevant to the standard.

In a different study, Schwarz and Bless found that the same piece of information given for related judgements, can produce both assimilation or contrast effects, depending on whether the information is excluded or included in the temporary category representation, i.e. the width of the category constructed. The wider a category is, the more likely it is that a given piece of information will be included. Information about a specific group member is likely to result in assimilation effects on the evaluation of the group in general, unless the individual member is so distinct from the group that he/she is excluded from the category, assigned to a different category, or even perceived to comprise a category on their own. When thinking

about a distinct member and evaluating other individual objects, assimilations effects are only predicted if a superordinate category is identified to which both individuals can be assigned, and if this superordinate category serves as a basis for judgement. The perception of categories and category width can be influenced by individual difference variables such as expertise and mood, and the resulting emergence of contrast or assimilation effects will depend on individual factors and whether a given piece of information is included or excluded in the perceived category.

Shwarz and Bless (1992) further argued that the mere accessibility of a stimulus would not elicit comparison processes unless it is linked to the dimension of judgement. In another study, they found that comparison or anchoring effects only emerged when highly accessible context-dependent information was linked to the dimension of judgement. In this study, subjects were asked to estimate either the caloric content of vodka or beer or how frequently Germans drink these beverages. Then, they were asked to rate how typically German the beverages wine, coffee and milk were. Whereas only the frequency of consumption question was related to the typicality dimension, the prediction was that contrast effects would only emerge in this case, something that proved to be correct. Subjects who had estimated frequency of consumption rated all beverages more typical after thinking about vodka than after thinking of beer. In the caloric content group, there were no effects. This means that contrast effects that generalise across target categories only emerge when the excluded information is thought about with regard to the respective dimension of judgement.

As in the other models, the inclusion/exclusion model assumes that assimilation is the default process. However, similarly to the correction models it is claimed that when people exclude the easily accessible information deliberately, i.e. they are aware of the potential influence of the stimuli, contrast effects will occur. In contrast, in the inclusion/exclusion model, it is assumed that the information can still be included in the construction of a standard of comparison.

Contrast as default
A different perspective was presented by Raghunathan and Irwin (2001) who found that contrast effects can occur by default and are driven by a process of comparison

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rather than subtraction. They suggested that consumers often have pre-defined norms or standards that are product-category specific and can provide accessible information which helps them to evaluate and categorise novel objects in an efficient manner. When such pre-defined standards are activated, they can induce involuntary (spontaneous) comparison of the target with the context, resulting in a default contrast effect. In their study, they found that set size (category width) influenced assimilation significantly more than it influenced contrast.

5.2.4 Summary

Whereas the accessibility-diagnosticity framework provides insight into the probability of an input being used for a judgement, the assimilation and contrast theory provides a further understanding of whether the input will be used to include or exclude a new object as a member of a category. In the context of presenting established and new export products sequentially, information about the first product that is accessible and diagnostic will produce an assimilations effect. Assimilation theory predicts that people will use the COO advertisement as an interpretation frame to interpret a product as an instance of the category (advertised origin). In this case, associations from the category will be inferred to the new object so that evaluations of the category will impact the new object. If assimilation takes place, and people have positive associations to the category, evaluations of the product will be positive. When, on the other hand, information about the first product is not accessible (alternative information is more accessible), and/or not perceived as diagnostic, judgement will be based on alternative information. In this case, a contrast effect might occur.

According to the comparison-based models, priming effects will only occur when consumers have relevant (diagnostic) and accessible categories stored in memory that can serve as a standard of comparison. Contrast effects will occur when there is little feature overlap between the contextual information and the target. The net-contextual priming effect predicts that assimilation and contrast is a continuous co-acting process, and that the degree of linkage or shared attributes will determine whether the outcome is assimilation or contrast. According to the accessibility-diagnosticity framework, accessibility of attributes can be increased by communication characteristics, for instance vividness, or retrieval cues. Based on this argument, it is

possible for instance, that the use of a logo could increase the perception of shared attributes, and determine whether the input would be used to make a judgement (assimilation) or not (contrast).

Accessibility-diagnosticity theory assumes that when an alternative input is not accessible, even moderately diagnostic information can be used to make a judgement. The set-reset model predicts that assimilation happens when a target is perceived as more like the context than what would normally be the case, this is referred to as the "setting", whereas "resetting" is when the respondent becomes aware of this contextual bias and corrects for it. This process often leads to overcorrection and contrast, and is assumed to imply effortful elaboration. On the other hand, the flexible correction process model suggests that both processes (assimilation and contrast) can be corrected for and that both outcomes can occur under conditions of both high and low elaboration.

6. MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

The objective of this chapter is to present the overall model that is the basis for both Study 1 and Study 2, although the studies will focus on different parts of the model. Based on the theoretical framework, the hypotheses for both studies will be presented subsequently. Study 1 addresses RQ1: *How can COO advertisement affect typicality perceptions of export products,* and RQ2: *How are typicality perceptions and product evaluations related?* In Study 1, the focus is on the first part of the model and the determinants of perceived typicality, but also on the relation between typicality, evaluation and origin attitude. In Study 1, the effects of unknown logos will be addressed, whereas the second study focuses on the effect of logos when their meaning is known to consumers. The second study addresses RQ3: *Should COO advertising of new export products be linked to well known (typical) products?* In Study 2, the objective is to examine the relation between typicality, evaluation and origin attitude when information about new and established products is presented in a different order.

6.1 Model

The hypotheses outlined below predict a pattern of relationships illustrated in the following model:

Figure 1: Conceptual model of the effect of COO advertisement on typicality perception and product evaluation
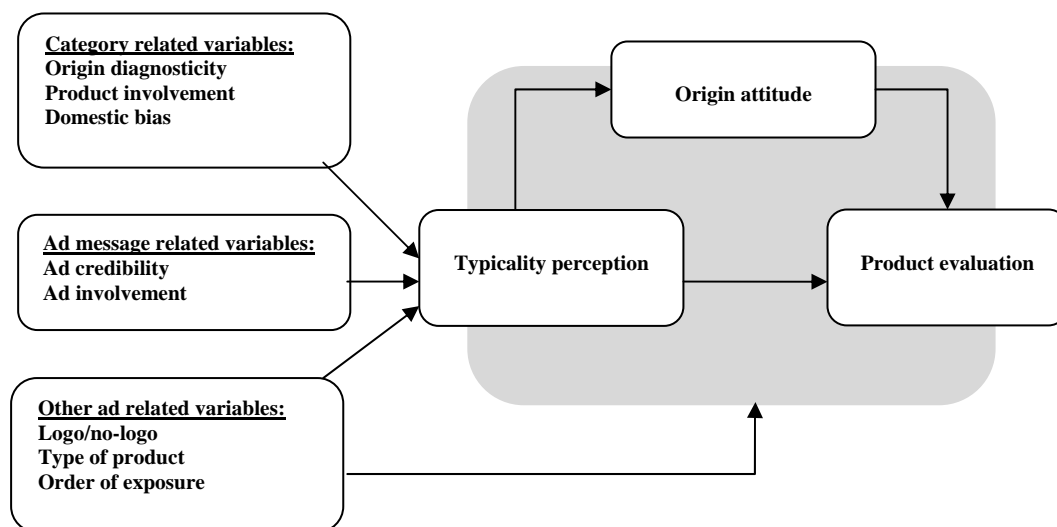
In this study, perceived typicality refers to product-origin typicality, that is, to what degree the product is associated with the advertised origin. The model predicts that three types of variables will affect perceived typicality: category related variables, variables related to the advertisement message, and other advertisement related variables. The category related variables are: 1) origin diagnosticity (the degree to which origin generally is perceived as an important product attribute), 2) product involvement (elaboration is assumed to influence the over-all effect of the other variables and product involvement is included as a measure of elaboration) and 3) domestic bias (number of associations respondents have to their own country as an alternative to the advertised origin). The advertisement message related variables are: 1) ad credibility and 2) ad involvement (measure of elaboration of the advertisement). Other advertisement related variables are: 1) the presence or absence of an origin logo and 2) product advertised (new or established export product), and 3) order of exposure to information about the new or the established export product.

Typicality is expected to affect product evaluation, but the direction of the evaluation (positive or negative) is assumed to be mediated by the origin (category) attitude. Typicality is expected to have a positive impact on origin attitude; when respondents increase their perceptions of product typicality, their attitude towards the origin will be positively influenced. Origin attitude is expected to affect product evaluation; a positive origin attitude will lead to more positive product evaluation.

Although it is argued that the relation between typicality and product evaluation is mediated by origin attitude, the strength of these relationships is expected to be moderated by three factors: the presence or absence of a logo, the advertised product, and the order of product exposure. First, it is expected that origin attitude will have a stronger impact on product evaluation for established products than for new products. Second, it is likely that the presence of an origin logo will increase the accessibility of the origin attribute and increase its impact on product evaluation for new products. Third, in the second study, respondents will be exposed to both new and established products sequentially, and the order of product exposure is expected to affect the strength of the mediation differently between groups who are exposed to new (established) products before established (new) products.

6.2 Hypotheses

The hypotheses are presented in three sections, the first section is related to the left part of the model: what are the determinants of typicality (RQ1). The second section is related to the evaluation process and RQ2 (right part of the model), whereas the third section is related to the effects of the order of exposure (second study) on the evaluation process (RQ3).

6.2.1 Determinants of typicality

When introducing new export products not previously associated with a particular origin, the aim is to increase the perception that the product is representative of the category (in this case the origin) in order to obtain a positive product evaluation. As argued by Viswanathan and Childers (1999), it is important to understand the process of categorisation because it precedes evaluation. Previous research of product-country relations have studied the effect of country image on product evaluation and attempted to categorise products with regard to origin (Liefeld 1993; Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999), but little research has studied how product-country perceptions can be influenced and changed. Categorisation theory increasingly sees categories as flexible structures that can be influenced by contextual factors. Category membership can be influenced by accessibility and relevance of category information. The degree of similarity-based category inference is also influenced by elaboration of the information. Increasing the salience of specific attributes can therefore change the perception of similarity and category membership judgements (Hutchinson and Alba 1991; Loken et al. 2008). Previous studies have found that a product category, which is cued by an ad, influences categorisation of a new product in the direction of the cue and away from alternative categories (Moreau et al. 2001). Brand extension research has found that information about very typical or atypical members of a category is evaluated rapidly, whereas moderately typical members require a higher level of elaboration (Fiske and Pavelchak 1986; Loken et al. 2008). For the introduction of new export products, this theory predicts that advertising highlighting origin information will increase the accessibility, salience and processing of the origin attribute, and that if this information is found to be relevant, it will in turn increase the perception of typicality. The first hypothesis is quite self-explanatory, but it is an important assumption that must be met in order to answer the research questions. This

effect has not yet been studied in COO research, whereas origin has not been studied as a flexible category.

> **H1a:** An advertisement highlighting origin attributes will increase the perceptions of product-origin typicality of new export products.

Categorisation theory does not clearly specify whether changes in category membership will have an impact on perceptions of the category, or if they are product specific. When exporters want to introduce new products in the market place, it is important to know if the introduction of new products will have an impact on changes in the perception of the category and on typicality perceptions of other products that have not been advertised. Previous research has shown that categories are flexible structures (Loken et al. 2008), and that typicality perceptions can be influenced by the salience and accessibility of relevant product attribute information. Relevant information about a category that is cued by an ad is likely to influence consumers' perceptions about a category (Moreau et al. 2001). It seems plausible to believe that when consumers have been exposed to an ad that highlights origin attributes, the origin attribute will be more accessible and other products will more easily be assigned to the category.

> **H1b**: COO advertisement for export products will increase product-origin typicality perceptions of non-advertised products within the category.

Previous research on the effect of logos indicates that different outcomes can be predicted for the use of a new logo in an advertisement. The alternative outcomes are based on different theoretical frameworks:

The notion of dual coding predicts a positive effect of visual elements. Visual elements have been shown to increase the speed with which information comes to mind, and logos can help consumers cut search costs and provide a sense of security (Kohli et al. 2002). According to the notion of multiple retrieval paths, a visual element (the logo) will increase the accessibility of the advertised information and involve elaboration of stored information beyond the information contained in the stimulus (advertisement). Moreover, compared to verbal information, visual elements

should increase elaboration and lead to more extreme evaluation (Kiselius 1982). The dual coding model and the "picture superiority effect" suggest that visual elements are stored with a greater number of memory codes, acting as multiple retrieval routes to those elements and enhancing the memory of the information. This notion suggests that the use of a logo will increase the effect of the advertised attributes compared to a no-logo condition.

However, previous studies of the effect of logos have also revealed that logos as an element in an advertisement can have a negative effect in that they draw attention away from the information that is communicated, and decrease the elaboration of the advertised attributes (Pieters and Wedel 2004). Research has found that familiarity increases brand memory, whereas new and complex information requires more exposures for consumers to comprehend the communication (Pieters et al. 2002; Pechmann and Stewart 1990). These findings indicate that new logos can have a negative effect and decrease the outcome of the communication. Similar arguments can be found, for instance, in the dual processing theory, where it has been argued that attitudes can be formed in different ways, and the success of persuasive appeals should be measured for more than simply the extremity of attitudes (Haugtvedt et al. 1994). Attitudes that possess equivalent extremity can differ as to their underlying strength because they have been established under different levels of elaboration (Petty and Cacioppo 1986a; Haugtvedt et al. 1993). Haugtvedt et al. (1994) argued that cues can be as effective as argument processing in inducing attitude change, but that these attitudes will be based on less elaboration, which causes people to know less about the product, but perhaps have more cues available in memory from the advertisement. The notion of flexible category structures also suggests that categorisation can be driven by variables that are unrelated to the products' features. Wänke et al. (1998) argued that similarity is only one of many variables that might affect categorisation. They showed that categorisation could be influenced by peripheral cues, such as brand name: another such cue can be a logo.

Since theory predicts two different outcomes of the use of logos, that is the positive effect predicted by the dual coding theory, and the negative effect predicted by Pieters and Wedel (2004), the following rival hypotheses are proposed:

H2a: The use of a COO logo in an advertisement will increase the perceived typicality of export products compared to advertisements with no logo.

H2b: The use of a COO logo in an advertisement will decrease the perceived typicality of export products compared to advertisements with no logo.

As outlined above, one of the focal interests of this study is the underlying process of changes in typicality perceptions. According to the attitude strength theory, equal attitudes can be formed by different elaboration processes. Viswanathan and Childers (1999) emphasised the importance of understanding how attributes influence product categorisation, however past research has mostly used attributes emphasising evaluation. Whereas categorisation precedes evaluation, it is important to study product categorisation at the attribute level. Categorisation theory suggests that the most decisive determinants of typicality are similarity and relevance of product attributes. These attributes can be influenced by accessibility and contextual cues. When attribute information is accessible and is found to be relevant to the category typicality perceptions are likely to increase.

Relevance of the product attribute is the first critical determinant. COO research has revealed that products are associated with countries to various degrees and that the importance of the origin attribute is product specific. An initial assumption of this study is that typicality is a prerequisite for origin effects. This also implies that origin must be perceived as a relevant product attribute in order for a product to be perceived as typical. It is likely to believe that origin diagnosticity (to what extent origin is perceived as an important product attribute) is an important determinant for typicality in this context. However, origin could be perceived as an important attribute for a product that is not perceived as typical of a specific origin. It is likely to believe that origin diagnosticity will have a more positive effect on typicality perceptions when products are perceived as typical, than when they are not.

H3a: Origin diagnosticity will have a more positive impact on perceived typicality for established export products than for new export products.

Origin diagnosticity refers to the relevance of the origin attribute in general (not a particular origin). For established export products that are already associated with the

origin, this might be a sufficient measure of relevance. For new export products, the advertisement must also convince consumers that the particular origin is a relevant product attribute. If the advertisement increases the accessibility of the attributes, and if the attributes are perceived as relevant and credible, the perceived typicality is likely to increase. Previous research has found that message sources and expectations of source trustworthiness can take on different roles in the persuasion process (Priester and Petty 2003; Kang and Herr 2006). For instance, Kang and Herr (2006) found that source can be both a simple cue and can be processed as an argument. Priester and Petty (2003) argued that information that is perceived as credible would lead to more elaboration than information from a less trustworthy source. In an advertisement for new products, it is likely to assume that credibility is necessary for information elaboration. Thus, for new products, ad credibility is likely to be of importance in addition to the origin diagnosticity.

> **H3b:** In the case of new export products, ad credibility will have a positive impact on perceptions of product-origin typicality.

When the origin attribute for export products is advertised, the accessibility of the attribute is increased. However, accessibility can be reduced by memory interference from competing categories. In the case of new export products, one such competing category is the domestic country bias (Liefeld 1993; Usunier and Cestre 2007, Verlegh 2007). An important question is whether the new export product will be assigned to the contextual category (origin), or whether memory interference from competing category associations (domestic bias) will decrease the accessibility of benefit associations and category assignment. The domestic country bias is likely to have a negative impact on typicality perception of a new export product because consumers generally prefer products from their own country unless the quality of foreign products is expected to be superior (Liefeld 1993; Verleigh 2007). If people have strong associations to the product as originating from their own country, then they might perceive the new origin information as irrelevant and assign the product to the already established category (home country).

> **H3c:** Domestic bias will have a negative effect on perceived typicality of new export products.

It seems intuitive to believe that the process of categorisation varies with product involvement and familiarity. Research of advertising repetition effects has shown that involvement and knowledge are factors influencing how quickly consumers learn the message of an advertisement (Pechmann and Stewart 1990). As specified in the initially presented model (figure 1), involvement will be included as a measure of elaboration, since elaboration is a determinant of categorisation and is assumed to impact the overall typicality perception.

As expressed by H2a and b, theory predicts different outcomes for the use of logos. It has also been argued that it is essential to study the process of attitude formation, and not only the overall attitude measures. Thus, it is important to examine the effect of the logo on the impact of the other variables in the formation of typicality perception. Research of advertisement complexity and familiarity has found that logos influence the attention to other elements of the advertisement; thus it is natural to assume that the presence or absence of a logo will affect the process of elaboration and categorisation. It is likely that the different variables will have a different impact on typicality perceptions in conditions with or without a logo. For instance, previous research has shown that logos can draw attention away from other elements (Pieters and Wedel 2004), and that they can affect categorisation as a peripheral cue (Haugtvedt et al. 1994).

6.2.2 Typicality and evaluation

As specified in the conceptual model (Figure 1), the effect of typicality on product evaluation is expected to be mediated by origin attitude. Most studies find a strong relationship between typicality and positive product evaluation when the category has positively valued attributes. The direction of the evaluation depends on the attitude towards the category. If the new instance is judged as a typical member of the category and the category attitude is positive, then the evaluation of the new instance is positive. If the category attitude is negative, the evaluation is negative. If the new instance is not judged as a category member, it will not be evaluated as a category member and information will be ignored (Aaker and Keller 1990; Boush and Loken 1991; Broniarczyk and Alba 1994; Carpenter and Nakamoto 1996; Folkes and Patrick 2003; Häubl and Elrod 1999; Loken and Ward 1990; Nedungadi and Hutchinson 1985;

Simonin and Ruth 1998; Veryzer and Hutchinson 1998). Therefore, typicality is a necessary condition for relevance and the impact of the category attitude.

It has previously been argued that product-origin typicality is a prerequisite for origin effects. In the case of origin advertising of export products, one may expect that when consumers judge a product as typical of its origin and have a positive attitude towards the origin (category), then product evaluation will be positive. It is also likely to assume that (changes in) typicality perceptions will have an impact on origin (category) attitude. Exposure to an established (typical) product from a country will increase the salience of the product related characteristics of the country. Subsequent evaluations will be influenced by these associations. For instance, seeing an ad for Norwegian salmon will increase the salience of associations to the cold and clear sea, pure nature and fishery. When consumers are exposed to a new product from a country they will engage in more processing of how this product relates to the associations they have to the country. If the new product is judged as a typical product from that country, consumer perception of the origin is likely to be influenced. In other words, origin attitude will mediate the effect of product typicality on product evaluation.

> **H4a:** Typicality will have a positive impact on export product evaluations.

> **H4b:** Origin attitude will mediate the effect of typicality on product evaluation. Typicality will have a positive effect on origin attitude, which in turn will have a positive impact on product evaluation.

Although the relation between typicality and product evaluation is expected to be mediated by origin attitude, the strength of these relationships is expected to be moderated by both the advertised product and the presence or absence of a logo. Established export products are most often strongly associated with their origin (category). In some cases categories are dominated by a single product (Lajos et al. 2009), and the attitude towards the category would then be based on the perception of the dominant product. New export products, on the other hand, will be perceived as less typical, and if they are not judged as a category member, category information will be ignored, and the products will be evaluated on the bases of other product

attributes (Aaker and Keller 1990; Boush and Loken 1991; Broniarczyk and Alba 1994; Carpenter and Nakamoto 1996; Folkes and Patrick 2003; Häubl and Elrod 1999; Loken and Ward 1990; Nedungadi and Hutchinson 1985; Simonin and Ruth 1998; Veryzer and Hutchinson 1998). Since established export products will be more strongly associated with the origin than new export products, origin attitude would be more accessible in memory and it is likely to assume that the mediating effect of origin attitude on product evaluation will be stronger for established export products than for new export products. However, since the logo would increase the accessibility of the origin attribute, it is likely to believe that the mediating effect of origin attitude would be stronger when a logo is present than when it is not. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

> **H5:** The mediating effect of origin attitude (H4b) will be stronger for established products than for new products.

> **H6:** For new products, the use of a logo will increase the mediating effect of origin attitude (H4b).

6.2.3 Introducing new export products

As previously argued, the theory of brand extension suggests that associations can be transferred from core products to new extension products. However, order effects have not been studied a good deal in the brand extension literature. The focal interest of the second study is to examine the effect of order of information and product exposure on typicality perception and product evaluation. How will the exposure to an ad and evaluation of an established (new) product affect the following evaluation of a new (established) product? In Study 2, contrast and assimilation effects are important both with respect to whether changes in typicality perceptions can influence other targets in the category and with respect to the order of presentation of established and new products (RQ 3).

According to the accessibility-diagnosticity framework, consumers are cognitive misers, and tend to use the most accessible information when making a judgement, as long as alternative information is not more diagnostic. Accessibility is determined by: the strength of associations between the knowledge to access and the context, the

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recency and frequency for which the knowledge has been applied, and the amount of processing that has been involved and characteristics of the information, for instance retrieval cues. In addition, overall evaluations are predicted to be more accessible than specific information. Unless consumers have stored opinions about issues that are easily accessible, contextual information is likely to be used. In line with assimilation theory, previous findings on research of information diagnosticity has found that consumers tend to overestimate the validity of prior impressions and that perceived and not objective diagnosticity determines information utilisation (Herr, Kardes, and Kim 1991).

In the context of introducing established and new export products sequentially, it is likely to assume that the degree of perceived accessibility and diagnosticity will be different according to which product is exposed first. Theory predicts that there is a high probability that the input from the evaluation of the first product is perceived as accessible, but that the perceived diagnosticity is more likely to vary according to the order of exposure to established and new products.

The assimilation and contrast theory predicts that assimilation is the default process. However, assimilation will not result if respondents have alternative and more diagnostic information stored in memory, or if the evaluation of the first product is not perceived as diagnostic for the second. Both the accessibility-diagnosticity framework and the assimilation and contrast theory suggest that respondents are likely to base their evaluation of the second product on the evaluation of the first product; however, alternative outcomes can be several:

Where consumers who have seen an advertisement for an established product, and elaborated less on the contextual information, might have less accessible and also less diagnostic information in memory, alternative inputs (such as home country favourableness) would be more accessible, and their judgement of the new product would be less favourable. Although if an alternative input is not easily accessible, even moderately diagnostic information can be used to make a judgement.

In the case of established products, it is intuitive to believe that COO advertising would be easily accepted and the products would be assimilated as a typical product

of its origin since this categorisation has been already well established and would require less effort and elaboration. If, on the other hand, the (new) product is not perceived as an instance of the category, and the information is excluded, or ignored, a contrast effect might emerge. According to the comparison based theories, the strength of the contrast effect will depend on how ambiguous the new product is perceived to be with regard to its category membership, and of to which degree people have stored categories in memory that can serve as standards of comparison (Herr 1989; Levin and Levin 2000). As argued by Lajos et al. (2009), it is less likely that a new product will be perceived as a category member when the category is dominated by a single product (subcategory). As suggested by Raghunathan and Irwin (2001), the origin attribute can activate other pre-defined categories (origins), which can serve as standards of comparison in low elaboration situations also, so this could explain possible domestic country bias effects.

> **H7:** When consumers are exposed to an established product first, the new product will be evaluated lower than when it is encountered first. (contrast effect)

It seems plausible to assume that consumers who have seen an advertisement for a new product have elaborated on the information in the ad more than consumers who have seen an advertisement for established products have. When the information has caused a higher level of processing, resulting in a positive evaluation of the product, respondents will have highly accessible and diagnostic information in memory that will be used later in judgement of the established product.

The comparison-based model is opposed to the correction models, where it is argued that assimilation will take place when the cognitive efforts are low, and only when people have the ability to elaborate on the contextual information is contrast likely to occur (Martin et al. 1990). According to the inclusion/exclusion model, contrast can result from two different processes: subtraction or comparison. Which of these processes emerges is decisive for whether the effect will generalise to the category as a whole, or whether it will be limited to the target. These processes are important to understand in the context of transferring positive category attitudes from an established to a new product. The first hypothesis (H1a) predicts that perceived

typicality of new products will be affected by the COO advertisement. The set-reset model predicts a possible reduction of this effect when products are presented sequentially. When consumers are exposed to an established product after they evaluated the new product, they might reconsider their increased typicality perception of the new product and this could lead them to evaluate the established product even higher.

> **H8:** When consumers are exposed to a new product first, the established product will be evaluated higher than when it is encountered first. (contrast effect)

In the second study, the focus is on the use of logos for which consumers know the meaning, and on sequential product exposure. Several theories suggest that the use of a logo will increase similarity perceptions between the products. First, according to the notion of multiple retrieval paths (Childers and Houston 1984), visual elements will enhance the recall of information. Second, previous findings on research of advertising and complexity also support the assumption that repeated exposure increases memory and recognition and decreases the complexity of the information (Pechmann and Stewart 1990; Pieters et al. 2002). Third, research of categorisation has also found that cues can increase similarity perceptions. For instance, Moreau et al. (2001) found that category labels can override feature similarity and that product categories cued by an ad significantly influence consumer categorisation of new products in the direction of the cue and away from alternative categories. In the case of sequential product exposures, this suggests that the presence of a logo will increase recognition and similarity perceptions.

The theoretical framework indicates that the use of known logos, combined with repeated exposures, will help to increase similarity perceptions between new and established products.

> **H9:** The use of a logo will reduce contrast effects (H7 and H8) compared to the no logo condition.

Hypotheses H4a and H4b predict that the effect of typicality on product evaluation will be mediated by origin attitude. When a second product is being evaluated, it is likely that the evaluation of the first product will facilitate the evaluation of the second along with typicality and origin attitude. As previously argued, consumers are likely to base their evaluation of a product on easily accessible information when the information is found diagnostic and relevant. When consumers have seen a new product first, and judged it as a typical member of the category, they are likely to have elaborated the origin associations they had, and origin information would be easily accessible in memory. When they are exposed to an established product, it is very likely that this information is both accessible and perceived as diagnostic, and would be used in the evaluation of the established product. It seems plausible to believe that the first product evaluation and the origin attitude would have a strong impact on the evaluation of the second product in this case.

When consumers have been exposed to an established product first, they have probably reflected less upon the origin information and this information is therefore less accessible, and less likely to be perceived as diagnostic for the new product. In this case, it is possible that the new product would not be perceived as a member of the category, origin information would be ignored, and a contrast effect would occur. In this case, evaluation of the first (established) product will have a stronger impact on origin attitude than typicality perceptions of the second (new) product would, and origin attitude will have less impact on evaluation of the second product.

> **H10:** Origin attitude will mediate the effect of typicality on the second product evaluation more for the consumers who were exposed to the new products first, than for the consumers who were exposed to the established products first.

It has been argued that repeated exposure of logos will increase similarity perceptions between new and established products (Childers and Houston 1984; Moreau et al. 2001; Pechmann and Stewart 1990; Pieters et al. 2002). It is likely to believe that the use of logos would reduce the differences between new and established products predicted by H10.

H11: The use of a logo will reduce the effect of order of product exposure (H10) compared to the no logo condition.

7. STUDY 1

The research questions addressed in the first study are RQ1 and RQ2. The issues of interest are how origin advertisement and labelling can have an impact on typicality perceptions of export products and how typicality is related to product evaluation.

Study 1 consists of two pre-tests and a main study. The first pre-test was carried out in order to choose the stimulus products. The objective was to find two product categories that had products with different levels of perceived typicality with respect to their origin countries. Two different export countries should be represented in order to be able to generalise the results to a greater extent. After the choice of stimulus products, the advertising stimuli were developed and then tested in a second pre-test, before the main study 1 was carried out. The chapter starts with a description of the research design, sample and method. Then, procedure and results for the two pre-tests are reported, before the Main Study 1 is presented.

7.1 Research design, sample and methods

The major objective of this study is to test the causal relation between COO advertising, use of a logo, typicality perceptions and product evaluation. As pointed out above, few studies have looked at products with different degrees of origin typicality, even though several studies have concluded that origin effects are product specific. Thus, the study is exploratory in that it is looking for different effects for different types of products. Since the focal interest is to explain the causal relations between COO advertising, typicality and product evaluation, an experimental design is the most suitable choice. Furthermore, the use of an experimental design facilitates comparison with previous studies of effects of advertising and labelling on product evaluation.

In this study, an experimental design has been chosen because the objective is to test the causal relation. However, the design of the study includes survey elements, and the analyses combine causal and correlational methods. The experiment offers the ability to control variation, to specify cause and effect as well as the random assignment of subjects. When conducted in a laboratory, the experiment allows the control of external variables, but at the same time it is less realistic than research

conducted in the field. The experiment in this study has been conducted on the Internet, this allows some of the same advantages as the laboratory experiment, but gives the researcher less control of external variables because the subjects are free to choose at what time and in what situation they participate in the experiment. They can also be interrupted or experience other distractions, which would not be the case in a laboratory. Another difference is that the sample is less homogenous than what is normally the case in a laboratory, which might use students as respondents for instance. In an Internet survey, the respondents' background and educational level would be much more varied, leading to more variation in the responses. In order to compensate for this heterogeneity, the number of respondents must be increased compared to what would be necessary with a more homogenous sample. The advantage is that this method allows for the use of subjects that are "real consumers," who cannot easily be assembled in a laboratory. A larger number of respondents also allows the further analysis of the data; for instance, the use of regressions that can examine relations between variables in ways that a small sample would not allow. Since this study has both problem- and process-oriented elements, in that it aims to contribute to applied research as well as explain the underlying processes, the Internet experiment is a suitable solution for this study. Another important reason for this choice is the nature of the products being studied; it is necessary that respondents have experience with choosing and buying food products, a condition that would be difficult to achieve using students. In order to increase the psychological realism, it is an advantage that subjects have experienced similar situations in everyday life and that they are familiar with the type of evaluations they are requested to perform. In this study (both pre-tests and experiments), all subjects are women 25-55 years old, randomly assigned from TNS's Internet panel. This group is considered to be experienced in selecting, evaluating and buying food products in every-day life. One of the disadvantages when choosing "real consumers" is that they are a more heterogeneous group than what a group of students would be. As a consequence, it is necessary to increase the number of respondents compared to what would have been the case in a laboratory experiment with a group of students.

The data was collected in France because it is the most important market for Norwegian seafood in Europe, and an important European market in general. Located in central Europe, with influences from both southern and northern cultures and

traditions and with rich and varied climatic conditions, France is an important producer of different food products, as well as an important importer of food products. In France, food is an important part of everyday life, and French people have a strong sense of national identity. These conditions make it a suitable country for this study.

7.2 Pre-test 1

The first pre-test was carried out to identify two suitable categories of food products. The hypothesis was that products (countries) are associated with countries (products) to different extents. The objective was to find two food categories, each with three products that were associated with a particular origin to different extents. Respondents answered questionnaires on the Internet. Respondents were 153 women, ages 25-55 (M = 39.8), randomly assigned from the TNS Internet panel in France.

7.2.1 Procedure and measures

Respondents answered questionnaires on the Internet; the questions were posed in the order described below. The listings of countries and products within each question were randomised. The measures used for country-product and product-country associations were similar to the ones used in the Usunier and Cestres (2007) study.

Country-product associations

For country-product measurements, the question was "What food products do you associate with the following countries?" The list of countries included mostly European countries (13) and two Mediterranean countries.

Product-country associations

For product-country measurements, the question was, "What countries, other than France, do you associate with the following products?" The list of food products (19 in all) included different meats, seafood, fruits, vegetables, cheese, chocolate etc. France was omitted because of the study's focus on export products and –countries.

Origin diagnosticity

The perceived diagnosticity of an attribute refers to the consumers' assessment of the usefulness of the attribute information in making evaluative judgements and choice

(Aboulnasr 2006). In this study, subjects were asked to rate on a seven-point scale (1 = not at all important, 7 = very important) how important the origin attribute was for the evaluation of quality of the same 19 products as in the product-country measure.

Typicality

Based on a common procedure of measuring typicality (Loken and Ward 1990), respondents were asked to rate product-country combinations on a seven-point scale (1 = very atypical, 7 = very typical). Each product (13 on this list) was combined with 3-5 countries and the list was randomised.

7.2.2 Results

The results confirmed many of the findings of the Usunier and Cestre (2007) study. Some scores were exclusive, in that only one country was associated with a product, and some associations were stronger in one direction than in the other (product-country or country-product). More specifically, country-product associations were weaker (fewer) than the product-country associations, confirming that respondents find it easier to associate products with countries than vice versa. In line with Usunier and Cestre (2007), the findings indicated that some products were neutral (they have no origin associated with them), but also that some countries had no food products associated with them.

Country-product associations

There are large differences among countries concerning the extent to which consumers associate any food products with them. For some countries, 60-70% of the respondents had no food product associations (Israel, Iceland, Denmark, Austria) and to other countries only 2-5% of the respondents had no associations (Italy, Belgium, Switzerland, Spain and Morocco). Whereas some countries tended to be associated with many different food products, other countries had fewer products associated with them. The most frequently mentioned products from specific countries were: pizza and pasta from Italy, paella from Spain, chocolate from Switzerland, French fries from Belgium and salmon from Norway. The findings supported the argument that familiarity increases associations; most of the countries that respondents associate many products with are neighbour countries, or for instance Morocco, which was previously a part of French territory.

Product-country associations

The same pattern was found when subjects were asked which countries they associated with the various products. As many as 60-80% of the respondents had no origin associations for beef, scallops, apples, halibut and flour. These are what Usunier and Cestre (2007) called neutral products. At the other end of the scale, were the most "ethnic" products, where only 2-12% of the subjects had no origin associations (chocolate, salmon, oranges, cheese, ham and sausages).

The most exclusive associations (one single country) were: chocolate - Switzerland (90%), followed by sausages - Germany (82%) and salmon - Norway (65%).

There were important differences with regard to the direction of the associations (product-country or country-product). When asked about food associations to Spain, 2.8% mentioned oranges, but when asked about origin associations to oranges, 48% mentioned Spain. For Norwegian salmon, the corresponding results were 43% and 65%. Salmon is one of few food associations to Norway, whereas people tended to associate many food products with Spain. Usunier and Cestre (2007) referred to this as the product ethnicity direction (product-country or country-product or bidirectional) and underlined the importance of the association intensity and exclusiveness. They observed that often, country-product association scores are weaker than the corresponding product-country association scores, whereas respondents find it easier to associate COOs with product stimuli than to associate products with country stimuli.

Origin diagnosticity

When asked about the importance of origin for various food products, (scale 1-7, not important-very important), there were significant variations across products. The perceived importance of origin (average score) was highest for cheese (5.23), mussels (5.1) and salmon (5.1). For oranges and apples, the average score was 4.5, whereas for chocolate it was 4.6. The lowest average score of origin importance was for sugar, flour and beef (3.2-3.4).

Typicality

 Results from the question "how typical do you consider the following combinations of products-countries" (scale 1-7, very untypical, very typical), reveal that salmon

from Norway (6.3), ham from Italy (6.1), oranges from Spain (6.1) and salmon from Scotland (6.0) - were perceived as the most typical combinations on this list (chocolate was omitted from the list). Other typical combinations (average score 5-6) were lemons and tomatoes from Spain, oranges from Italy, sausages from Germany, mussels from Belgium and salmon from Ireland. Mussels from Norway were not perceived as a typical combination (2.6), and apples were not considered as typical from Italy (3), Spain (2.9) or Germany (2.5).

7.2.3 Summary

The results confirm the findings from the Usunier and Cestre (2007) study. There were large variations in terms of how many associations the respondents had to the various countries. Some countries had few but strong associations, whereas other countries had many associations, for instance Italy was associated with a sizeable amount of products, and even products that are not frequently associated with Italy in the open-ended question, were perceived to be very typical when the combinations were listed (i.e. ham). There was no direct relationship between how frequently products were associated with an origin and the perceived importance of the origin attribute. For instance chocolate from Belgium was one of the strongest associations, but origin was not perceived to be very important for chocolate.

The objective was to find two categories of food products, each with products that represented both established export products and new export products (not previously associated with that origin). Based on the pre-test results, six products, representing two different food categories and origins were identified:

Table 1: Results from the first pre-test

Country	Product	Country-product	Product-country	Origin importance	Typicality	Level of typicality
Norway	Salmon	43.4%	65.1%	5.08	6.3	High
	Cod	0%	11%	4.13	4.52	Moderate
	Mussels	0%	0.7%	5.09	2.63	Low
Spain	Oranges	2.8%	47.6%	4.53	6.07	High
	Grapes	0%	13.3%	4.56	4.91	Moderate
	Apples	0%	5.6%	4.48	2.86	Low

Summary of product associations (percentages or average scores on a 7-point scale). N = 153.

Comments on the choice of products:

Salmon from Norway and oranges from Spain represent the established export products in this study. Salmon is one of few products associated with Norway, and the association is bidirectional. It is perceived as one of the most typical combinations in this study, and origin is viewed as an important attribute for salmon. Oranges from Spain had strong associations in the product-country direction, but a weaker country-product direction. However, it is viewed as a highly typical combination, although origin was not perceived as more than a moderately important attribute for oranges. The products that represented the new export products in this study, mussels and apples, are similar with respect to the lack of associations to the respective origins. However, apples are more "neutral" products in that apples are not associated with any particular foreign origin, whereas mussels are associated with Belgium (59%) and Spain (18%), but not with Norway. Further, origin is regarded as a more important attribute for mussels than for apples. Neither the combination Norway-mussels or Spain-apples was perceived as typical. The medium typical products (cod and grapes) were not a part of the study, but perceived typicality was measured. These products have quite similar medium score profiles with respect to the two origins. However, origin was perceived as a more important attribute for seafood products than for fruit, and it is likely to assume that the effect of COO advertising will be stronger when COO is perceived as an important attribute. In addition to this, in terms of narrow and broad categories, the results indicated that Spanish origin is a broader category than Norwegian origin, because a greater variety of products are associated with Spain than with Norway. This might lead to more extreme evaluations of new products with Norwegian origin as opposed to new products with Spanish origin (Boush and Loken 1991).

The pre-defined products are labelled established, new, and non-advertised products in this study. The products represent three different levels of product-country typicality (all means were tested and differed significantly from each other).

7.3 Pre-test 2

Based on the product category choice from the first pre-test, a logo and communication concept for Spanish fruit was developed. The objective of the second

pre-test was to test and compare the Norwegian seafood logo with the logo that was developed for Spanish fruit. The Norwegian Seafood logo used in this study was developed by Landor (a leading international design company) on behalf of the Norwegian Seafood Export Council. The logo and consumers' response to it was thoroughly tested throughout the development in several key markets, including France. In this pre-test, the objective was to replicate previous results of what associations consumers had to the logo, and also to compare the results of this logo with the results of the logo for Spanish fruit that was designed for the purpose of this study by an advertisement firm in Paris. The Spanish fruit logo and communication concept was developed so as to correspond to the Norwegian concept. The Spanish logo was designed to equal the Norwegian logo in terms of complexity, layout etc. The sea and the mountains were replaced by a field and the sun, and the blue colours were replaced by warm yellow and orange colours (Appendix A).

A total of 204 respondents (2x102), women ages 25-55, consumers of both fish and fruit, randomly recruited from the TNS Internet panel in France, answered questions about either Norwegian or Spanish origin.

7.3.1 Procedure and measures
The first question was an open-ended question: "Please write down the thoughts that first come to your mind when you think about Norway (Spain)". Then, respondents saw the logo corresponding to the group they were assigned to, and were asked whether they hade seen it before (alternative answers were: yes, no or don't know). Then, there was another open-ended question: "Please write down the associations you had when you saw this logo". The next question was "What kind of product do you think the logo is meant for?" (open answers). In the end, there were two multi-item scales developed to measure logo and category attitude.

Logo attitude
The respondents answered four items about their attitude towards the logo on seven-point scales: 1) The logo expresses important product attributes for fish and seafood (fruit), 2) The logo gives me ideas that facilitate my evaluation of fish and seafood products (fruit), 3) How well do you think the logo fits fish and seafood products

(fruit), and 4) In your opinion, how easy will it be for people to understand that this logo is a symbol of Norwegian seafood (Spanish fruit)? The items were averaged to form an category attitude index (α = .818).

Origin attitude

The last question was a seven-item scale developed to measure the category attitude. Based on the communication concepts of the advertisements, the respondents answered a seven-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) on seven-items about category-relevant attributes (including the climatic conditions and capabilities of the people who contribute to the product quality of the respective categories). The items were: 1) Norwegian fish come from cold and clear waters/Spanish fruit grow in a sunny and warm climate. 2) Norway has a harsh, beautiful and unique nature/Spain has a rich, beautiful and unique nature. 3) Norwegian fish and seafood are fresh products from pure sea/Spanish fruits are fresh products from pure nature. 4) Norwegian/Spanish people take care of nature. 5) Norwegians have lengthy traditions and knowledge in fishing/Spanish farmers have lengthy traditions and knowledge of agriculture. 6) Norwegian fishermen/Spanish farmers combine craftsmanship with modern technology. 7) Norwegian fishery/Spanish agriculture is a sustainable and environmentally friendly activity. The items were averaged to form a category attitude index (α = .869).

7.3.2 Results

The Norwegian logo had already been in use for a few years, although to a very modest extent, and it was assumed that most people had not seen it before. In fact, only 13% of the respondents said they had seen the Norwegian logo before, compared to 34% who claimed to have seen the Spanish logo (which had been designed for this purpose).

The associations to the logos were close to the intended communication. The most frequent associations to the Norwegian logo were fish, fishery, sea and cold, and to the Spanish logo it was sun, warm, soil and agriculture. The answers were quite similar (63% fish/fisheries versus 52% fruit/agriculture and 40% oranges versus 27% salmon). The general attitudes towards the logos were also quite similar for the two logos. A univariate analysis of variance with the factor product category on the

dependent variable logo attitude showed that there was no significant difference between the groups (M_{fruit} = 4.87, $M_{seafood}$ = 4.71; $F_{1,202}$ = .745, p = .357).

Another univariate analysis of variance with the factor product category on the dependent variable origin attitude showed that there was a significant difference between the groups (M_{fruit} = 4.96, $M_{seafood}$ = 5.60; $F_{1,202}$ = 24.85, p < .001). The respondents had a more positive attitude towards the Norwegian origin than the Spanish origin (the difference was equally distributed across all of the seven items on the scale).

7.4 Main study 1

The purpose of Study 1 is to answer the first two research questions: *How can COO advertisement affect the perceived typicality of export products*, and *how are typicality perceptions and product evaluation related?* The objective of the study is to test the relationships depicted in the model and formulated in hypotheses H1-H6. Only the variable 'order of exposure' is excluded from Study 1.

Figure 2: Conceptual model of the effect of COO advertisement on typicality perception and product evaluation, Study 1
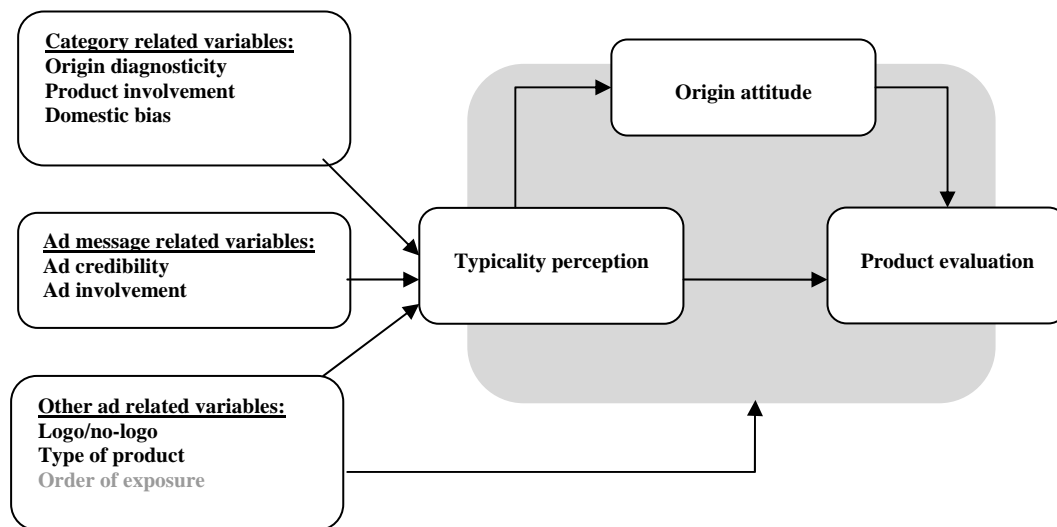
In the first study, the focus is on the effect of new and unknown logos. The experiment has a 2 (established versus new export products) x2 (with or without logo) x2 (product categories) between subjects design, with a total of eight groups of

approximately 55 respondents (a total of 469 respondents). The respondents were women 25-55 years old, consumers of both fish and fruit, randomly assigned from the TNS Internet panel in France.

Table 2: Dimensions of the study

Type of product in advertisement		Type of labelling	
Type of product	Product category	Logo	No logo
Established export product	Seafood		
	Fruit		
New export product	Seafood		
	Fruit		

7.4.1 Stimuli development

Four print ads were created, one for each product (established and new products of both the seafood and fruit category). The print ads contain information about the climate's influence on product quality (origin) and a few lines about the production method and the nutritional content of the products. There are photos of the products on the top half of the ads, and text on the bottom half. The advertisements were identical for the groups with or without logos, except that for the with logo groups the generic origin logo of the category was placed in the lower right corner of the ad (Appendix B).

7.4.2 Procedure

The respondents were members of the TNS Internet panel and had agreed to answer questionnaires on the web. They received a link to the survey with a request to participate. Respondents who did not answer within a week received a reminder, and all responses were collected within a time period of 10 days. Respondents were randomly assigned to one of the eight groups. When opening the survey link, respondents first had to answer a question about products they never consumed. Respondents who were not consumers of fish/seafood or fruit were excluded from the survey. Next, they read the cover story and instructions. They were told that they were one of few people who were invited to respond to a study of people's associations to various products and countries. This would suggest that they would expect questions for more than one country and product.

After reading the instructions, the respondents saw the ad, and were asked to examine it carefully. Then they were asked to write down the thoughts they had when they saw the ad. In the next question they were asked to write down the information (both verbal and visual) they remembered from the ad. Both of these questions were designed according to the thought-listing procedure, and there were a total of eight boxes on the screen where people could write down the thoughts they had. Then, they completed a number of general ratings (of both the ad and the product), individual differences scales, and a seven-item category attitude scale. After, participants saw a picture of the logo corresponding to the product category of their group, and were asked to write down the thoughts they had when they saw the logo, before they answered some general rating scales about the logo. Next, they were asked to rate the importance of origin with respect to the quality of a list of products (7-point scale from not at all important to very important) and then they were asked to evaluate the origin typicality combinations (identical to the pre-test question) with a list of 27 product-country combinations to be rated on a 7-point scale (not at all typical - very typical). At the end, they answered questions about consumption frequency of either seafood or fruit according to the group they were assigned to (Appendix B).

7.4.3 Measures

Typicality

The measure was the same as the one used in the first pre-test, respondents were asked to rate product-country combinations on a seven-point scale (1 = very atypical, 7 = very typical). All groups rated the same list of product-country combinations, allowing for between groups comparisons of typicality perceptions of all products.

Origin diagnosticity

The measure was the same as the one used in the first pre test, subjects were asked to rate on a seven-point scale (1 = not at all important, 7 = very important) how important the origin attribute was for the evaluation of quality for the twelve products listed.

Ad credibility

Three items adopted from Beltramini (1988; Beltramini and Stafford 1993), were used to measure ad credibility. Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on

a seven-point scale (strongly disagree - strongly agree) on the following statements: 1) I believe the information contained in the advertisement was very believable, 2) I found the information in the advertisement very trustworthy, and 3) The information in the advertisement seemed very credible. The three items were averaged to form an advertisement believability index (α = .953).

Thought-listing

Different techniques have been used to measure cognitive responses in social psychology. Spontaneous cognitive responses have been ascertainable most easily by listing, reporting, and recalling procedures. Among these, one of the most helpful measures in testing hypotheses regarding cognitive response is the thought-listing technique, developed by Brock and Greenwald in the late 60s (Cacioppo and Petty 1981). Listed-thought measures have become a commonly employed technique for tapping individuals' reactions to advertising messages (Shavitt and Brock 1990). In this procedure, subjects list their thoughts either in anticipation of, during, or after message exposure, and the thoughts are subsequently categorized into theoretically meaningful dimensions such as polarity (favourable, neutral or unfavourable) and origin of thought (issue-relevant, message-relevant, internally or externally generated etc.) (Petty and Cacioppo 1986b). In this study, several variables were constructed on the basis of the coding of the open answers, using the thought-listing technique. Coding instructions with categories were developed for each of the open-ended questions in both studies and the responses were coded by two independent judges. The agreement-rates between the coders were 96.4 percent (first study) and 98.3 percent (second study); disagreements were solved by negotiation.

Domestic country association

Open answers from the question of what associations respondents had when they saw the advertisement were coded in the following categories: 1) product related, 2) export country origin related, 3) other products 4) domestic origin, 5) food related thoughts, 6) other message related thoughts, 7) execution related and 8) other. The variable, domestic country associations, was constructed as a function of the number of answers in category 4.

Argument recall

A procedure stemming from the work on depth of processing and cognitive effort is to ask the subjects to list all of the arguments from the communication that they can recall. An argument is counted as recalled if it correctly summarizes one of the arguments in the persuasive message. Different versions of the same argument are scored in a single argument correctly recalled (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986b). In this study, the arguments were both counted and coded according to the following categories: 1) message related to origin, 2) message related to other thoughts, 3) execution and 4) logo elements. In this way, it would be possible to analyse if there was variation in recall according to the different arguments in the communication.

Product involvement

Based on Mittal's (1995) comparison of four scales of consumer involvement, where he argued that overall involvement is most efficiently measured by the importance dimension, the scale that was used in this study was slightly modified from the Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) product-class involvement scale. Subjects were asked to rate their level of agreement on seven point scales (strongly disagree - strongly agree) for three statements: 1) product x is very important to me, 2) product x does not matter to me, and 3) I have a strong interest in product x. The items were averaged to form a product involvement index (α = .844).

Ad involvement

Based on previously used scales for measuring ad involvement (Lord, Lee, and Sauer 1995; Ahluwalia, Unnava, and Burnkrant 2001), a two-item scale was developed. Subjects were asked to rate their level of agreement on seven-point scales (strongly disagree-strongly agree) for two statements: 1) While reading the ad I was concentrating very hard and 2) I carefully considered the advertising claims about product x. The items were averaged to form a product involvement index (α = .878).

Origin attitude

The measure was the same as the one used in the second pre-test. Based on the communication concepts of the advertisements, the respondents answered a seven-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) on seven items about category relevant attributes (including the climatic conditions and capabilities of the people to

contribute to the product quality of the respective categories). The items were averaged to form an origin attitude index (α = .936).

Product evaluation

Based on previously used scales (Bruner, James, and Hensel 2001), an overall evaluation scale was developed with three items: x is a good product, I like x, and I have a positive attitude towards x. The items were averaged to form an evaluation index (α = .933).

7.5 Test of hypotheses

Prior to conducting the detailed analyses, some tests of assumptions were used. To test for normality of distributions, all variables were tested for skewness and kurtosis. Some of the variables showed high values of skewness and kurtosis, indicating that the distribution was not normal. Results are reported in Appendix B. However, statistical experimentation has demonstrated that violating the normality assumptions of tests has less severe effects than was previously thought. Although there is little theoretical justification for ignoring the normality assumptions, in practice it does not seem to have a severe effect on the results. The central limit theorem implies that even if the distribution of the variable in question is not normal and the sample size is large enough (e.g. 100 or more), it is reasonable to use statistics that assume a normal distribution (de Vaus 2002). According to Hair et al. (2006), nonnormal variables are of less concern when sample sizes are large and when other assumptions, as homoscedasticity, are not violated. In all of the univariate analyses in this study, Levene's F test of Equality of Error Variance was used to test for the assumption of homogeneity of variance across the experimental groups (Appendix B, Table 18). When the test shows significant calculations, this is a sign of violations of the assumption of equality. None of the Levene's tests showed significant calculations in this study. Furthermore, correlations between all variables in the study are reported in (Appendix B, Table 19).

As a manipulation check for the perceived typicality of the pre-defined established and new export products, a univariate analysis of variance was run to check the difference in typicality perception. The result corresponded to the findings in the pre-

test: the perceived typicality of the established products ($M_{established}$ = 6.49) was significantly higher than for the new products (M_{new} = 4.33). In other words, established products were perceived as more typical than new products ($F_{1,464}$ = 237.83, p < .001).

7.5.1 Determinants of typicality

The first hypothesis predicts that COO advertisement will increase the typicality perceptions of new export products:

H1a: An advertisement highlighting origin attributes will increase the perceptions of product-origin typicality of new export products.

Support for the first hypothesis will be found if the typicality perception of new export products is higher in the groups who saw the advertisement for new export products than in the groups who saw the advertisement for the established export products.

In addition, the following hypotheses were proposed for the effect of the logo:

H2a: The use of a COO logo in an advertisement will increase the perceived typicality of export products compared to advertisements with no logo.

H2b: The use of a COO logo in an advertisement will decrease the perceived typicality of export products compared to advertisements with no logo.

Hypotheses 2a and 2b predict that the use of a logo in an advertisement will increase (decrease) the perceived typicality more than an advertisement without a logo. Support for this hypothesis will be found if the perceived typicality perception for the advertised product is higher (lower) in the logo condition than in the no logo condition.

In order to test these hypotheses, a 2(advertised product) x 2(logo/no logo) ANOVA was performed on typicality perception of new products. The results showed a main effect of product type ($F_{1,463}$ = 39.53, p < .001; $M_{new\ products}$ = 4.33, $M_{established\ products}$ = 3.21). The typicality perception of the new product was significantly higher in the

groups who saw the advertisement for the new products than in the groups who saw the advertisement of the established products. The result supported the hypothesis H1a that the advertisement of new products would significantly increase perceived typicality of new products compared to the advertisement for established products. There was no main effect of the logo ($F_{1,463} = .077$, $p = .782$; $M_{logo} = 3.79$, $M_{no\ logo} = 3.75$). Neither of the hypotheses H2a or H2b was supported (Table 3 and Figure 2).

Figure 3: Typicality perception of new products x advertised product and labelling
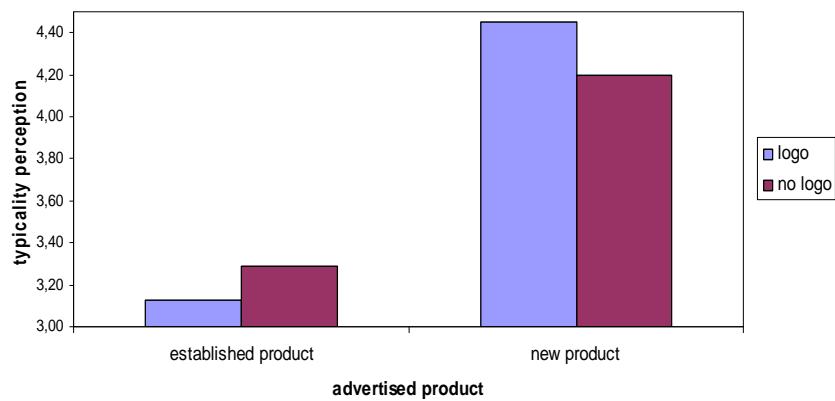
If the results are compared to the results from the pre-test (no treatment condition), the results suggest that the typicality perception of new products also increased in the groups who saw the advertisement for established products ($M_{pre-test} = 2.75$, $M_{study1} = 3.21$). Even though these results cannot be directly compared, they indicate that the advertisement had an effect at the category level.

H1a only predicted that the advertisement would have an effect on typicality perceptions of new products. Since established products are already perceived as very typical of their origin, it was not predicted that the advertisement of established products would increase the typicality perception further. In order to test that this assumption is correct, a univariate analysis of variance was run for the perceived typicality of established products. The result showed that there was no main effect either of the logo ($F_{1,463} = .270$, $p = .603$; $M_{logo} = 6.44$, $M_{no\ logo} = 6.48$) or of the product type ($F_{1,463} = .534$, $p = .465$; $M_{established}$ products $= 6.49$, $M_{new\ products} = 6.43$) (Table 3).

Table 3: Typicality perceptions of new and established products (Study 1)

	Advertised product			
	New products		Established products	
Typicality perception measured	Logo (n = 121)	No logo (n = 112)	Logo (n =113)	No logo (n =119)
Perceived typicality of new products	4.45 (1.99)	4.20 (1.92)	3.13 (1.77)	3.29 (1.91)
Perceived typicality of established products	6.46 (1.13)	6.39 (1.14)	6.41 (.98)	6.58 (.74)

Means and Standard Deviations by Advertised product and Labelling

H1b predicts that COO advertisement will affect typicality perceptions of non-advertised products within the category:

> **H1b**: COO advertisement for export products will increase typicality perceptions of non-advertised products within the category.

In order to test if typicality perception also changes for non-advertised products within the category, two univariate analyses of variance with the factors product category (seafood vs. fruit) and logo (logo vs. no logo) on the dependent variables typicality perception of non-advertised seafood and fruit products were carried out. In order to test the difference across categories, the analysis was run first for seafood products, then for fruit products.

The result showed that the typicality perception of other seafood and fruit products than the ones advertised was significantly affected. The typicality perception of the non-advertised seafood product was significantly higher in the seafood category than in the fruit category ($F_{1,465} = 24.91$, $p < .001$; $M_{seafood} = 5.12$, $M_{fruit} = 4.30$). The result for the fruit category was similar. There was a significant difference between the fruit category and the seafood category ($F_{1,462} = 5.84$, $p = .016$; $M_{fruit} = 4.50$, $M_{seafood} = 4.09$). The results supported H1b predicting that COO advertisements increase typicality perceptions of non-advertised products within the advertised category (Table 4). The logo had no effect in any of the categories (all $p > .10$).

Table 4: Typicality perceptions of non-advertised seafood and fruit products (Study 1)

	Advertised product category			
	Seafood Category		Fruit Category	
Typicality perception measured	Logo (n = 119)	No logo (n = 119)	Logo (n =115)	No logo (n =113)
Non-advertised seafood product	5.03 (1.73)	5.18 (1.62)	4.33 (1.69)	4.27 (1.93)
Non-advertised fruit product	3.99 (1.87)	4.18 (1.80)	4.48 (1.80)	4.52 (1.93)

Means and Standard Deviations by Product Category and Labelling

Another possible assumption can be made for the effects on non-advertised products. It can be assumed that advertisement for new versus established products can affect the typicality perception of non-advertised products to different degrees. That is, advertisement of either established or new products could have greater impact at the category level than the other. This assumption was tested with a univariate analysis of variance with the factors type of product (new versus established) and logo (logo/no logo) on the dependent variable typicality perception of non-advertised product.

The result of showed no main effect of the advertised product ($F_{1,463}$ = .878, p = .349; $M_{established\ product}$ = 4.73, $M_{new\ product}$ = 4.89) or the logo ($F_{1,463}$ = .432, p = .511; M_{logo} = 4.76, $M_{no\ logo}$ = 4.86). Planned comparison was run to test the difference between the means for both the logo/no logo conditions within the established product condition, and the logo condition between the advertised products. None of the means differed significantly from each other (p = .645 and p = .129) (Table 5).

Table 5: Typicality perceptions of non-advertised products (Study 1)

	Advertised product			
	New products		Established products	
Measure	Logo (n = 122)	No logo (n = 113)	Logo (n =113)	No logo (n =116)
Perceived typicality of non-advertised products	4.93 (1.75)	4.84 (1.78)	4.58 (1.80)	4.89 (1.84)

Means and Standard Deviations by Advertised product and Labelling

The logo effect (H2a and H2b) was also tested by a univariate analysis of variance with the factors type of product (new vs. established) and logo (logo vs. no logo) on

typicality perception of the product in the advertisement. The results showed that there was no main effect of logo ($F_{1,464}$ = .090, p = .762, M_{logo} = 5.43, $M_{no\ logo}$ = 5.39). Neither of the hypotheses H2a or H2b was supported.

Summary of test of H1 and H2

The results supported hypotheses H1a and H1b. The advertisement for new products significantly increased typicality perceptions of new products compared to the advertisement for established products. COO advertisement for both new and established products also increased typicality perceptions of non-advertised products within the category. However, H2a and H2b were not supported. The logo had no effect, neither positive nor negative on typicality perceptions of export products.

Ad recall

In order to examine why the logo had no direct effect on typicality perception, further analyses were carried out. Previous research of advertisement effects predicting negative effects of logos have found that logos can have a negative impact on elaboration of information, because they draw attention away from the other elements in the advertisement. If this is correct, it is likely to expect that consumers remember less of the information communicated in the advertisement in the logo condition as compared to the no logo condition. Support for this assumption would be obtained if the ad recall (average number of arguments recalled from the advertisement) was significantly lower in the logo group as compared to the no logo group. A univariate analysis of variance was run with the factors type of product (established versus new) and logo (logo and no logo).

The results showed that there was a significant main effect of logo exposure ($F_{1,468}$ = 5.12, p = .024; M_{logo} = 2.63, $M_{no\ logo}$ = 2.95). There was no main effect for the advertised product ($F_{1,468}$ = .290, p = .591; $M_{established}$ = 2.75, M_{new} = 2.83) (Figure 4, Table 6).

Figure 4: Number of elements recalled from ad x advertised product and labelling
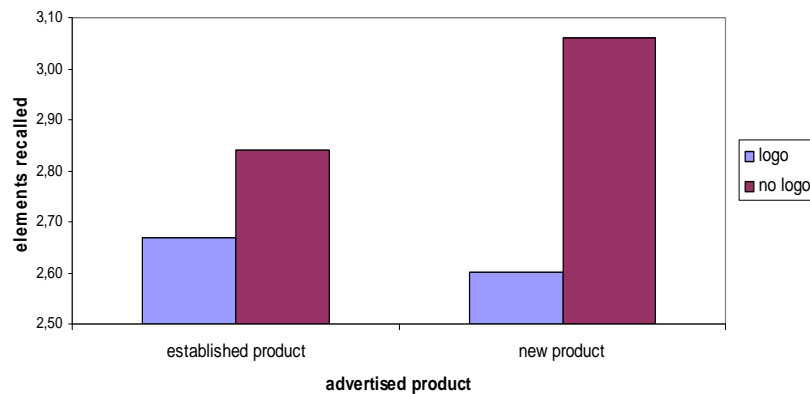
The difference between the means of the logo conditions for the new products and the established products were compared using planned comparison. There was a significant difference between the logo and no logo condition for new products ($F_{1,465}$ = 5.34, p = .021) but no significant difference between the logo conditions for established products (p = .387). In other words, respondents who saw the advertisement for new products with a logo recalled significantly less attributes than the groups who saw the advertisement without the logo. This indicates that the logo drew attention away from other elements of the ad. This effect was not significant for the groups who saw the advertisement for established products. This is probably due to the fact that respondents are confronted with more unfamiliar information in the advertisement for new products compared to the advertisement for established products. This supported previous findings (Pieters and Wedel 2004) about advertisement complexity and familiarity. Further analyses were carried out to examine whether there were any elements of the ad that were less recalled than others, but the differences were equally distributed across the coded categories, indicating that the decreased recall was an overall effect and not attribute specific.

Table 6: Ad recall (number of arguments recalled)

	Advertised product			
	New products		Established products	
Measure	Logo (n = 122)	No logo (n = 113)	Logo (n =114)	No logo (n =120)
Ad recall (average number of arguments recalled)	2.60 (1.49)	3.06 (1.55)	2.67 (1.61)	2.84 (1.46)

Means and Standard Deviations by Advertised product and Labelling

Hypotheses H3-H4 predict how different attributes will impact typicality perceptions of new and established products.

H3a: Origin diagnosticity will have a more positive impact on perceived typicality for established export products than for new export products.

H3b: In the case of new export products, ad credibility will have a positive impact on perceptions of product-origin typicality.

H3c: Domestic bias will have a negative effect on perceived typicality of new export products.

Hypotheses H3a-H3c predict that origin diagnosticity, ad credibility and domestic country bias will affect perceived typicality of export products. In addition to these variables, the level of elaboration is likely to impact perceived typicality. As specified in the model presented in the beginning of the chapter, product involvement and ad involvement have been included as measures of involvement and elaboration. Two linear regressions were performed to test hypotheses H3-4. Typicality perceptions of established and new products were the dependent variables. The results showed that the impact of the various variables on typicality perceptions differed between established and new products (table 7).

Table 7: Determinants of typicality

	Typicality perception		
	All	**With logo**	**No logo**
New products			
Domestic bias	-.118**	-.080	-.143*
Origin diagnosticity	.141**	.107	.159*
Ad credibility	.599***	.521***	.713***
Product involvement	.044	.043	.055
Ad involvement	-.155**	-.084	-.241**
R^2	.341***	.264***	.418***
N	227	119	108
Established products			
Origin diagnosticity	.276***	.310***	.242**
Ad credibility	.132	-.032	.324***
Product involvement	.189***	.207**	.180*
Ad involvement	-.004	.118	-.148
R^2	.217***	.213***	.239***
N	225	110	115

* $p < .10$
** $p < .05$
*** $p < .01$
standardised coefficients and adjusted R^2

For new products, significant effects were found for ad credibility ($p < .001$), origin diagnosticity ($p < .05$) and domestic bias ($p < .05$). Product involvement had no significant effect on typicality perception, whereas ad involvement had a significant negative effect ($p < 0.5$).

In the case of established products, significant effects were found for origin diagnosticity ($p < .001$) and product involvement ($p < .01$), but not for ad credibility or ad involvement. Results are reported in table 7.

The results reveal that the variables had a different impact on perceived typicality for new and established products. Origin diagnosticity is had a significant impact on typicality perception for both new and established products. Origin diagnosticity is a measure of the relevance of the attribute for the product, and according to the categorisation theory, attribute relevance is one of the most decisive determinants for category assignment.

For new products, ad credibility is the most important variable. In this case, the advertisement must convince consumers that the particular origin is relevant to the product. Hence, credibility of the ad is an important determinant. Because new products are sometimes associated with alternative categories (domestic country), domestic bias has a negative impact on perceived typicality. Ad involvement also has a significant negative impact on perceived typicality for new products. This suggests that when respondents reflect upon the content of the ad, they are less convinced that the product is typical of this origin. Product involvement does not have a significant impact on perceived typicality for new products, but it does for established products.

For established products, origin diagnosticity is the most important determinant, whereas ad credibility has no significant impact for established products. For established products, this means that when respondents are involved with the product and believe that origin is an important product attribute, their perception of product typicality increases. For new products, typicality perception increases when respondents perceive the ad as credible and believe that origin is an important product attribute, but decreases when they elaborate upon the content of the ad, and when they have an alternative category (domestic origin) accessible.

The regression analyses show that H3a and H3b were supported. Origin diagnosticity does have a positive impact on typicality perceptions for export products and ad credibility significantly increases typicality perceptions for new export products. In line with the predicted effect of H3c, that domestic bias reduces typicality perception of new export products, H3c was also supported.

It is also important to observe that the variables that impact typicality perception of new products are more contextual than the determinants for the established products. Whereas origin diagnosticity and product involvement are likely to be based on prior attitudes, ad credibility and ad involvement are part of the contextual information. This suggests that respondents who saw the advertisement for new products processed the contextual information to a higher extent than the respondents who saw the advertisement for established products did. This is in line with theory of categorisation and graded structure, arguing that consumers base judgements on previous knowledge, but when category membership is unclear they engage in more piecemeal processing and evaluate the product attributes based on contextual information.

Effects of logo/no logo

In order to test the impact of the logo, the same regressions were run for the conditions with or without logos (Table 7). A different pattern emerged. For respondents who saw the ad for new products with a logo, only ad credibility had a significant impact on typicality perception ($p < .001$). For the no logo condition, ad credibility was even more important, but origin diagnosticity ($p < .1$) also had a significant positive impact, and both domestic bias ($p < .1$) and ad involvement ($p < .05$) significantly decreased typicality perceptions of new products in the no logo condition.

For respondents who saw the ad for established products with a logo, origin diagnosticity ($p < .01$) and product involvement ($p < .05$) significantly impacted typicality perception, whereas in the no logo condition, ad credibility had a significant effect ($p < .01$), and the effect of product involvement was reduced ($p < .1$).

The results suggest that the presence of the logo reduced the effect of other attributes in the new product condition. This is in line with the previous finding that the logo reduced the number of elements recalled from the ad, suggesting that it took attention away from the other elements (Pieters and Wedel 2004). It is also possible to believe that the logo was perceived as a quality sign and reduced the elaboration of other attributes of the ad. For the established products, the logo reduced the effect of ad credibility; this is also an indication that the logo contributed with some credibility by itself.

The difference between the effects in the logo/no logo groups was tested using a dummy variable (logo). The results showed that the differences between the logo/no logo groups were not significant for new products, but that for established products, there was a marginally significant difference of the effect of ad credibility ($t = -1.838$, $p = .067$).

7.5.2 Typicality and evaluation

Hypotheses 4a and 4b predict that the relation between typicality and product evaluation is mediated by origin attitude. It has previously been argued that product-origin typicality is a prerequisite for a positive product evaluation. Further, typicality is expected to have a positive effect on origin attitude, for instance when consumers include a new product in the category, their perception of the category is likely to change. The attitude towards the origin (category) is also likely to affect product evaluation. The prediction is based on previous findings of a strong relationship between typicality and attitude when the category has positively valued attributes (Aaker and Keller 1990; Boush and Loken 1991; Broniarczyk and Alba 1994; Carpenter and Nakamoto 1996; Folkes and Patrick 2003; Häubl and Elrod 1999; Loken and Ward 1990; Nedungadi and Hutchinson 1985; Simonin and Ruth 1998; Veryzer and Hutchinson 1998). Thus, the following hypotheses were proposed in order to predict the relationship between product typicality and product evaluation:

H4a: Typicality will have a positive impact on export product evaluations.

H4b: Origin attitude will mediate the effect of typicality on product evaluation. Typicality will have a positive effect on origin attitude, which in turn will have a positive impact on product evaluation.

The predicted mediation is further assumed to be moderated by two factors: the advertised product (established/new) and the use of a logo. The moderating effects on the mediation were predicted by the following hypotheses:

H5: The mediating effect of origin attitude (H4b) will be stronger for established products than for new products.

H6: For new products, the use of a logo will increase the mediating effect of origin attitude (H4b).

In order to test these hypotheses, regression analyses according to the Baron and Kenny (1986) procedure were carried out for each of the four conditions (Figure 5).

Figure 5: A mediation model depicting the relations among variables typicality perception (X), origin attitude (M) and product evaluation (Y).
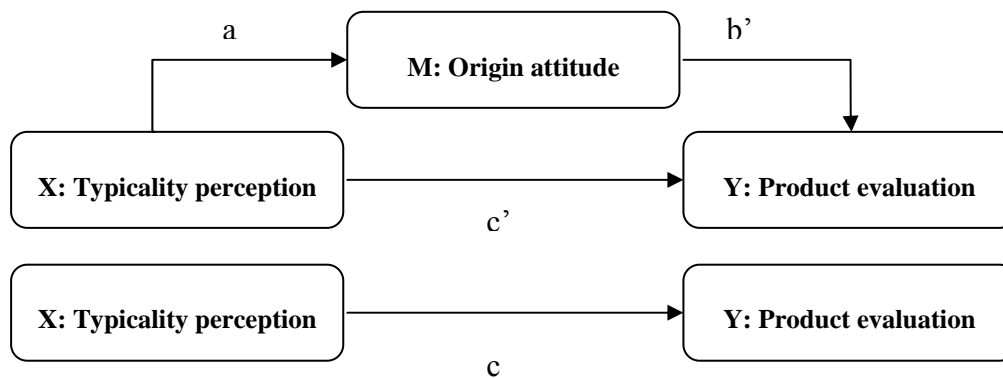
According to this procedure, the following conditions must hold to establish mediation:

1. c is significant
2. a is significant
3. b' is significant
4a. c' is smaller than c

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4b. if c' is significant data are consistent with partial mediation, if c' is not significant data are consistent with complete mediation.

The results (Table 8) show that origin attitude significantly mediated the effect of typicality on product evaluation in all four conditions. The mediation was complete in the established product without logo condition, and partial in the other three conditions. The weakest mediation was found in the new product and no logo condition. In order to test the significance of the independent variable (X) on the dependent variable (Y) via the mediator (M), the Sobel's test (Baron and Kenny 1986) was used, and the results are reported in table 8. The mediation effect was significant in all four conditions. Thus, hypotheses H4a and 4b were supported.

The results reveal some variations among the groups. First, typicality had a positive impact on product evaluation in all groups, but this effect was strongest in the new product conditions. Typicality also had a positive impact on origin attitude in all groups, but was stronger in the new product conditions. The mediating effect of origin attitude on product evaluation was complete in the established product no logo condition. Thus, H5 was supported. The effect of origin attitude on product evaluation was stronger in the established product condition than in the new product condition. This difference in the effect of origin attitude was as expected; respondents can have a positive attitude towards the category, but still believe that new products are less typical and evaluate them lower than they would with established products. However, the effect of origin attitude on product evaluation was stronger in the new products with logo condition than in the new products no logo condition. This suggests that the logo reduced the expected difference between the established and new product condition and that it increased the impact of origin attitude on evaluation of new products as expected, and H6 was supported.

Table 8: Mediation analysis (study 1)
(X=typicality perception, Y=product evaluation, M=origin attitude)

Condition	Total effect c = a*b'+c'	a	b'	c'	Sobel's test
	ß (B/ SE B)	ß (B/ SE B)	ß (B/ SE B)	ß (B/ SE B)	$z = a*b/ \sqrt{b^2 s_a^2 + a^2 s_b^2}$
New product with logo	**.527***** (.384/.057)	**.478***** (.292/.049)	**.345***** (.413/.100)	**.362***** (.264/.061)	z = 3.39 p < 0.001
R^2 (N)	**.272***** (120)	**.228***** (120)		**.358***** (119)	
New product no logo	**.627***** (.451/.053)	**.524***** (.298/.046)	**.234**** (.296/.107)	**.504***** (.363/.061)	z = 2.54 p < 0.01
R^2 (N)	**.387***** (112)	**.268***** (112)		**.422***** (112)	
Established product with logo	**.384***** (427/.097)	**.410***** (.384/.082)	**.522***** (.613/.097)	**.191*** (.210/.091)	z = 3.76 p < 0.001
R^2 (N)	**.140***** (113)	**.160***** (111)		**.379***** (111)	
Established product No logo	**.389***** (.581/.127)	**.466***** (.716/.126)	**.651***** (.664/.078)	**.076** (.120/.120)	z = 4.72 p < 0.001
R^2 (N)	**.144***** (119)	**.210***** (118)		**.467***** (118)	

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$
a = typicality perception on origin attitude
b' = origin attitude on first product evaluation (partial coefficient)
c' = typicality perception on first product evaluation (partial coefficient)
z = Sobel's test of mediating effect
Standardised coefficients in bold, unstandardised coefficients and standard error in parentheses.

7.6 Summary of Study 1

In the first study, the objective was to answer the first two research questions, RQ1: *How can COO advertisement affect the perceived typicality of export products*, and RQ2: *how are typicality perceptions and product evaluation related?* An important element in the first study is the use of new and unknown logos in COO ads and whether they will increase or decrease typicality perceptions of export products compared to advertisements with no logos. The findings revealed that typicality perceptions of new and established products were affected in different ways. For established products, the information in the advertisement was less important, typicality perceptions being mainly based on previously formed attitudes. The presence of a logo seemed to contribute a certain level of credibility and security and reduced the effect of the other advertisement attributes. (There were no mean differences in ad credibility scores between groups.) For new products, advertisement credibility was the dominant determinant of typicality, and ad credibility was also

significant for the established products without logo group. But for established products, the most important determinants of typicality were previously formed attitudes (product involvement and origin diagnosticity).

The results from the first pre-test confirmed previous findings in the COO literature; there were substantial differences to the degree products are associated with countries and countries are associated with products (Agarwal and Sikri 1996; Roth and Romeo 1992; Usunier and Cestre 2007). Some products were perceived as very typical of a particular origin, whereas other products, even within the same category, were perceived as very atypical.

The results from the main study showed no main effect of the logo on typicality perceptions. However, the COO advertisement had significant effects on the perceived typicality of new products, as well as on other products within the category. The fact that typicality perceptions changed for other products within the category than the ones in the advertisement is of relevance to the research question in the second study, where order effects will be further examined. The results also showed that the logo had a negative impact on the number of attributes recalled from the advertisement, in particular for the group who saw the advertisement for new products with logo. This result indicates that the information in the ad was elaborated differently across the logo and no logo conditions. Even if the logo did not have a direct effect on typicality perceptions, the effect can be indirect and result in different processes of attitude formation.

The regression analyses showed that there were, in fact, differences in how the variables impacted attitudes when the groups were compared across the logo/no logo and advertised products conditions.

For established products, origin diagnosticity and product involvement were the most important determinants for typicality perception. The same result was found when the regression was done for the logo condition. However, in the no logo condition, the impact of product involvement decreased, whereas ad credibility was a significant determinant. This indicates that the logo contributed some credibility by itself for

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established products. The result is in line with previous findings that logos can provide a sense of safety and quality for food products.

For new products, product involvement did not significantly impact typicality perception. The most important determinants in this condition were ad credibility and origin diagnosticity together with ad involvement and domestic bias, which both had a negative impact on typicality perceptions. When the regression was done for the logo/no logo conditions, ad credibility was the only significant variable for the logo condition. In other words, the presence of the logo reduced the impact of the other variables that were significant in the no logo condition (domestic bias, origin diagnosticity and ad involvement). The model had a better ability to explain attitude formation in the no logo condition ($R^2 = 0.42$) than in the logo condition ($R^2 = 0.26$). The results supported the dual processing theory, predicting that cues can be as sufficient as argument in causing attitude change, but that the change will be caused by different processes, and that attitude change caused by cues will be based on less elaboration.

The mediation analyses supported the hypotheses that the impact of typicality perceptions on product evaluation was mediated by origin attitude. The direct effect of typicality perception on product evaluation was stronger for new products than for established products, but the mediating effect of origin attitude was stronger for established products. One of the assumptions of this study is that typicality is a prerequisite for origin effects. This implies that typicality is a necessary but not sufficient condition for positive product evaluation. The results of the mediation analyses suggest that category attitude, in this case origin attitude, was more important for established products than for new products. Established export products were often associated very strongly with origin, even when consumers evaluate them highly or when they do not. New export products, on the other hand, were not initially associated with the origin used in this study, and the results indicate that when respondents increased their typicality perceptions of these products they also evaluated them positively. This process seemed to depend less on the general attitude towards the category than it did for established products. However, the impact of origin attitude seemed to be more important in the logo condition than in the no logo

condition. This might be an indication that the logo contributes to strengthen the (accessibility of) origin associations.

The processes of the impact of category attitude and typicality perception on product evaluation will be further examined in the second study, where order of product exposure is the main focus.

8. STUDY 2: REPLICATION AND EXTENSION

Results from study 1 showed that advertisements for new products affected respondents' perceptions of typicality. New products were perceived as significantly more typical after exposure to an ad. This effect (increased typicality perception of new products), although much smaller, was also found for respondents who saw an ad for an established product within the same category, and for typicality perceptions of non-advertised products within the category for all groups, suggesting that attribute information about a category member affects category perceptions.

Study 2 addresses the third research question: *Should COO advertising of new export products be linked to well known (typical) products?* The objective of the second study is to replicate some of the findings from the first study, and to examine the effect of the order of information exposure to established and new export products on product evaluations. The focus on the use of logos is different from the first study. In the second study, the focus is on whether the use of a logo for which consumers know the meaning (or the absence of such a logo) on the products has an effect on product evaluation. Modified replications from Study 1 will be done of the effects of COO ads on typicality perceptions, the tests will be the same as in Study 1, but this time the logo is known to consumers, and they will be exposed to both new and established products. In this study, the focus is on the right part of the model (Figure 6).

Figure 6: Conceptual model of the effect of COO advertisement on typicality perception and product evaluation, Study 2
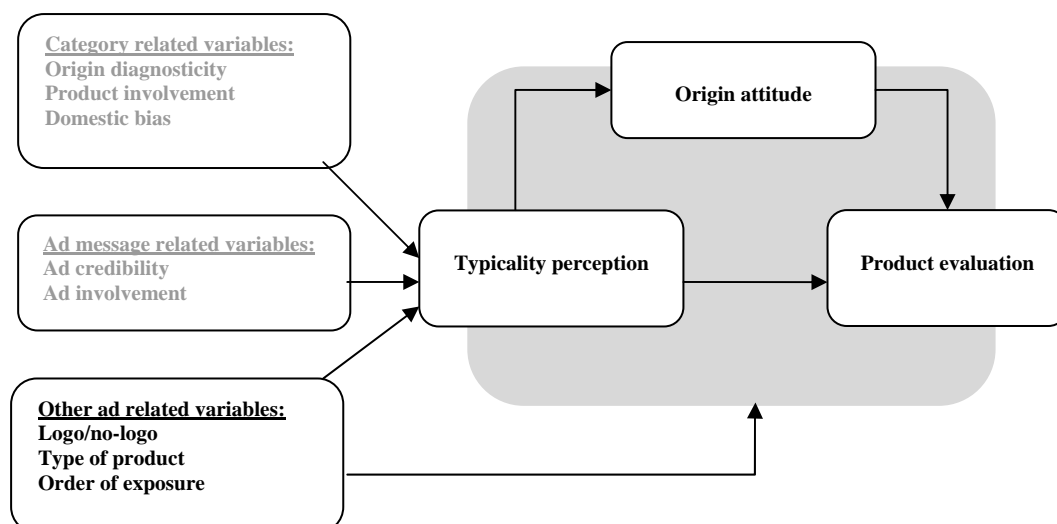
8.1 Research design and methods

In the second study, the aim is to replicate the procedure of the first study (advertisement for new or established), and then to introduce a second product (established or new) to examine the effect of the order of presentation on the perceived product-origin typicality, product evaluation and effect of labelling. In experiment 2, the goal is to examine the effect of the order of exposure of established and new products on perceived typicality and product evaluation. With regard to labelling effects, the aim is to study whether the presence or absence of a known logo has an effect on the transfer of origin associations from one product to another, and to study whether the order of exposure would have an impact on the evaluations of the products.

8.1.1 Description of experiment

The experiment has a 2 (new/established product) x 2 (logo/no logo) x 2 (product category) design, which is a total of eight groups, each with approximately 125 respondents (total 1008 respondents). Each group was exposed to two products (first/second) in the same category (either fruit or seafood). The respondents were women 25-55 years old, consumers of both fish and fruit, from the TNS Internet panel in France.

Table 9: Dimensions of study 2

		Type of labelling	
Type of product	**Order of exposure**	**Logo**	**No logo**
Established product	First		
(seafood or fruit)	Second		
New product	First		
(seafood or fruit)	Second		

8.1.2 Stimuli development

The focus of the second study was to explore the effects of the logo on the products, assuming that the logo was known to consumers. Four print ads were created, one for each product (established and new products from both the seafood and fruit categories). The ads were based on the ones from the first study, but in order to

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increase the effect of the logo, they were modified to render the logo more salient. The print ads contained information about the climate's influence on product quality (origin) and a few lines about the production method and the nutritional aspects of the products. There were photos of the products on the top half of the ads, and text in the bottom half. The generic origin logo of the category was placed in the lower right corner of the ad. The size of the logo was increased and the text also referred to the logo ("the best from nature, guaranteed by the official logo"). The previous headlines (Norwegian salmon/mussels or Spanish oranges/apples) were replaced by more neutral statements (freshness and taste from the clear waters of the fjords/ sweetness and taste from the sun of their country) so that it was necessary to study the text or the logo in order to understand where the origin was. After having seen the advertisement, respondents were shown a photo of the actual product in-store, either with a logo or not. The second product was also exposed as an in-store photo with or without the logo. All products on these photos, either with or without logo, had a neutral sign on them indicating the origin. The aim was to reduce the complexity of information and highlight the logo, and to increase the number of exposures to the logo (Appendix C).

8.1.3 Manipulation check

In order to check whether respondents actually remembered and noticed the logo, the number of times the logo was mentioned in the open answers to the question, "what elements do you recall from the advertisement" was used. The intention in Study 2 was to increase the level of knowledge of the logo as compared to Study 1. The results showed a clear increase of the recall of the logo compared to Study 1 (Table 10).

Table 10: Logo recall Study 1 and Study 2

	N (respondents who saw the logo)	Mean	Sum	% of total elements mentioned
Study 1	236	0.12	29	4.67% (total = 621)
Study 2	827	1.03	856	40.72% (total = 2102)

8.1.4 Instructional Manipulation Check

Respondents do not always read and follow instructions as intended, something that can cause noise and decreased validity of the data. In order to reduce this problem, a

new tool for detecting participants who do not follow instructions was used in this study. The inclusion of this tool, the Instructional Manipulation Check (IMC), has been shown to increase the statistical power and reliability of datasets (Oppenheimer, Meyvis, and Davidenko 2007). The IMC measures whether or not respondents read the instructions. It consists of a question that is similar to the other questions in length and response format (for instance a Likert scale). Unlike the other questions, the IMC asks people to ignore the standard response format and instead provide a confirmation that they have read the instruction. In this study, the blue dot task was used in the middle of the study as the last of an 8-item scale. The blue dot IMC takes the form of a Likert scale, but the text was "Instead of clicking on the scale items from 1 to 7, please click on the little blue circle at the bottom of the screen". In this study, 18% of the respondents failed this task. In one of the studies by Oppenheimer et al. (2007), 7% of a sample of more than 1000 students failed the same task, whereas 14-46% of the participants failed on similar ICM tasks in other studies. The exclusion of respondents who failed the task increased the statistical power of the data. When collecting data on the web, the risk of careless responding is higher than in a laboratory and this type of check represents an important tool for increasing the quality of the data. In this study, the exclusion of the 18% that failed the task also increased the statistical power of the data.

8.1.5 Procedure:

The respondents were members of the TNS Internet panel and had agreed to answer questionnaires on the web. They received a link to the survey with a request to participate. Respondents who did not answer within a week received a reminder, and all responses were collected within a time period of 10 days. Respondents were randomly assigned to one of the eight groups. When opening the survey link, respondents first had to answer a question about products they never consumed. Respondents who were not consumers of fish/seafood or fruit were excluded from the survey. Then, they read the cover story and instructions. They were told that they were one of few people who were invited to respond to a study of associations to various products and countries, but that each respondent would be presented with only one or two products for evaluation.

After reading the instructions, respondents saw the ad and were asked to examine it carefully. Next, they were asked to answer a 3-item general rating of the advertisement. Then they were asked to imagine they were in the store to buy seafood/fruit and that they would see the product in the photo presented next (established/new). A photo of the product as presented in store was shown, either with logo or without logo. The respondents were asked to write down the thoughts they had when they saw the product. There was a total of eight boxes on the screen where people could write down the thoughts they had. Then they completed a number of general ratings (of the product) and individual differences scales.

In the next question they were asked to write down the information (both verbal and visual) they remembered from the ad. After that, they completed some additional general ratings (of the ad and the product). Then, respondents answered a 7-item category (origin) attitude scale. This scale had an additional item, designed according to the instructional manipulation check (Oppenheimer et al. 2007).

Then, the second product was introduced. Respondents were again told to imagine they were in the store to buy seafood/fruit and that they would see the product in the photo presented next (established/new). A photo of the product as presented in store was shown, either with logo or without logo. The respondents were asked to write down the thoughts they had when they saw the product. There was a total of eight boxes on the screen where people could write down the thoughts they had. Then they completed a number of general ratings. After this participants saw a picture of the logo corresponding to the product category of their group, and were asked to write down the thoughts they had when they saw the logo, before they answered some general rating scales about the logo. Subsequently, they were asked to rate the importance of origin with respect to the quality of a list of products (7-point scale from not at all important to very important). Next, they were asked to evaluate the origin typicality combinations (identical to the pre-test question) with a list of 27 product-country combinations to be rated on a 7-point scale (not at all typical-very typical). In the end, they answered a question about consumption frequency of either seafood or fruit according to the group to which they were assigned. (Questionnaires are provided in Appendix C).

8.1.6 Measures

The measures used in Study 2 were the same as in Study 1, but some measures were omitted in order to decrease the length of the survey. Since respondents were exposed to two products, some measures were repeated.

Typicality

In the second study, the measure was placed at the end of the survey, which means that respondents answered to this question after having seen and evaluated both products. This would give them the opportunity to adjust their typicality perception according to the set-reset model.

Origin diagnosticity

The measure was the same as the one used in the first pre-test and Study 1.

Domestic country associations:

Respondents answered this question sequentially after exposure to each of the two products.

Argument recall

The measure was the same as in Study 1.

Origin attitude

The measure was the same as the one used in the second pre-test and the first study. The items were averaged to form an origin attitude index ($\alpha = .914$). This scale was placed after exposure to the first product.

Product evaluation

Respondents answered the scale sequentially, after exposure to each product. The items were averaged to form an evaluation index (first product evaluation: $\alpha = .911$, second product evaluation: $\alpha = .894$).

Ad evaluation

Based on previously used scales, ad attitude was measured with a similar three-item scale as was used for product evaluation: I like this advertisement very much, I have a

positive attitude towards this advertisement, and I think this was a good advertisement. The items were averaged to form an evaluation index ($\alpha = .943$).

8.2. Test of hypotheses

Prior to conducting the analyses, some tests of assumptions were used. The results were similar to the ones in Study 1, and are reported in Appendix C, Table 21-23. The results of the analyses from the second study are reported in three sections: In the first section, the analyses of typicality perceptions from the first study are replicated. In the second section, the hypotheses H7-H9 are tested. In the third section, the mediation analyses from the first study are replicated, and the hypotheses H9 and H10 are tested.

8.2.1 Replications from the first study (H1 and H2)

In the second study, product evaluation was measured sequentially after exposure to each product and product typicality was measured in the end of the questionnaire. It is possible that respondents could have adjusted their typicality perceptions after exposure to the second product whereas typicality perceptions were measured after exposure to both products. Another difference is that the level of knowledge of the logos in the second study is increased compared to the first study. Thus, the results are not directly comparable to the results from the first study, but this section will replicate the analyses in order to test if the same effects of COO ads on perceptions of product-origin typicality are found when order of exposure is added as an additional factor.

H1a predicted that an advertisement highlighting origin attributes would increase perceptions of product-origin typicality of new export products. H2a and b predicted the use of a COO logo in an advertisement could either increase or decrease the perceived typicality of export products compared to advertisements with no logo.

A 2 (established/new product exposed first) x 2 (logo/no logo) ANCOVA with the covariate ad evaluation was performed on typicality perception of established, new and non-advertised products. Results are reported in Table 11. Initial analyses of the variable ad evaluation showed some minor differences in responses across groups that were not possible to explain since the question was posed before the manipulation of

group differences. To account for these differences, the variable was included as a covariate in the analyses of variance in this study.

For typicality perceptions of new products, there was a main effect of product exposure ($F_{1,814}$ = 45.48, p <.001). The typicality perception of new products was significantly higher in the groups who saw the new products first (M_{new} = 4.02) than in the groups who saw the established product first ($M_{established}$ = 3.13). There was no main effect of logo ($F_{1,814}$ = .00, p = .991; M_{logo} = 3.58, $M_{no\ logo}$ = 3.58).

As an additional interpretation, it is of interest to observe that this result is similar to the results in the first study, but the typicality perception of the group exposed to the new products (first) decreased from M_{new} = 4.33 in the first study to M_{new} = 3.94 in the second study. The results for the groups who were exposed to the established products (first) were more similar ($M_{established\ first\ study}$ = 3.21; $M_{established\ second\ study}$ = 3.13). This can be an indication that respondents who saw the new product first reset their typicality perception after exposure to the second and more established product.

In the first study, it was assumed that an advertisement for established export products would not increase the perception of product-origin typicality further. In order to test that this assumption is correct in the second study as well, a univariate analysis was run for the perceived typicality of established products. The results (Table 11) showed that there was no main effect of either the product exposure ($F_{1,818}$ = .15, p =.703; $M_{established\ first}$ = 6.29, $M_{new\ first}$ = 6.26) or the logo ($F_{1,818}$ = .38, p =.537; M_{logo} = 6.30, $M_{no\ logo}$ = 6.25).

H1b predicted that COO advertisements for export products would increase perceptions of product-origin typicality of non-advertised products within the category.

This prediction was tested by a univariate analysis with the factors type of product exposed first (new or established) and logo (logo/no logo) on the dependent variable typicality perception of non-advertised product. For typicality perceptions of non-advertised products, there was no main effect either of the product exposure ($F_{1,814}$ = .28, p = .598; $M_{established\ first}$ = 4.40, $M_{new\ first}$ = 4.47) or the logo ($F_{1,814}$ = 1.79, p = .182;

$M_{logo} = 4.35$, $M_{no\ logo} = 4.52$). Planned comparison was run to test the difference between the logo and no logo condition for the groups exposed to new products first, and the results showed that this difference was nearly significant ($p = 0.063$). The group who saw the products with a logo had a lower perception of typicality than the groups who saw the products without logos (Table 11). This can be an indication of the fact that the groups who saw the logos elaborated less on the information and were less able to transfer the information to other targets within the category.

Table 11: Typicality perceptions of new, established and non-advertised products (Study 2)

	Advertised product			
	New products first		Established products first	
Typicality perception measured	Logo (n = 204)	No logo (n = 200)	Logo (n =216)	No logo (n =199)
Perceived typicality of established products	6.33 (1.07)	6.20 (1.23)	6.27 (1.21)	6.31 (1.00)
Perceived typicality of new products	4.00 (1.91)	4.04 (1.93)	3.15 (1.89)	3.11 (1.89)
Perceived typicality of non-advertised products	4.30 (1.93)	4.63 (1.71)	4.40 (1.79)	4.40 (1.81)

Means and Standard Deviations by product exposure and Labelling

In order to test if typicality perception also changes for non-advertised products within the category, two univariate analyses of variance with the factors product category (seafood vs. fruit) and logo (logo vs. no logo) on the dependent variables typicality perception of non-advertised seafood and fruit products were carried out. In order to test the difference across categories, the analysis was run first for seafood products, then for fruit products.

The result showed that the typicality perception of other seafood and fruit products than the ones advertised was significantly affected. The typicality perception of the non-advertised seafood product was significantly higher in the seafood category than in the fruit category ($F_{1,817} = 15.09$, $p < .05$; $M_{seafood} = 4.5$, $M_{fruit} = 3.99$). The result for the fruit category was similar. There was a significant difference between the fruit category and the seafood category ($F_{1,815} = 9.43$, $p = .05$; $M_{fruit} = 4.37$, $M_{seafood} = 3.97$). The results supported the prediction that COO advertisements increase typicality perceptions of non-advertised products within the advertised category (Table 12).

Table 12: Typicality perceptions of non-advertised seafood and fruit products (Study 2)

	Advertised product category			
	Seafood Category		Fruit Category	
Typicality perception measured	Logo (n = 214)	No logo (n = 197)	Logo (n =206)	No logo (n =201)
Non-advertised seafood product	4.36 (1.83)	4.64 (1.73)	4.02 (2.03)	3.97 (1.86)
Non-advertised fruit product	3.77 (1.85)	4.18 (1.82)	4.34 (1.89)	4.39 (1.75)

Means and Standard Deviations by Product Category and Labelling

8.2.2 Product evaluation and order effects

The following hypothesis was proposed for the order effect on product evaluation of new products:

H7: When consumers are exposed to an established product first, the new product will be evaluated lower than when it is encountered first.

In addition, the following hypothesis was proposed for the effect of the logo when products were exposed sequentially:

H9: The use of a logo will reduce contrast effects (H7 and H8) compared to the no logo condition.

In order to test the hypotheses, a 2(established/new product exposed first) x 2 (logo/no logo) ANCOVA with the covariate ad evaluation was performed on product evaluation of new products.

The result showed that for product evaluation of new products, there was no main effect of logo ($F_{1,815} = .412$, $p = .521$; $M_{logo} = 4.61$, $M_{no\ logo} = 4.67$), but there was a main effect of product exposure ($F_{1,815} = 17.32$, $p < .001$). The groups who were exposed to the new products first evaluated them significantly higher ($M_{new\ first} = 4.83$) than the groups who were exposed to them last ($M_{established\ first} = 4.45$). The results provided support for H7. H9 was not supported; the logo did not reduce the difference between the new and established products (figure 7 and Table 13).

Figure 7: Evaluations of new products x advertised product and labelling Study 2

The following hypothesis was proposed for the order effect on product evaluation of established products:

> **H8:** When consumers are exposed to a new product first, the established product will be evaluated higher than when it is encountered first.
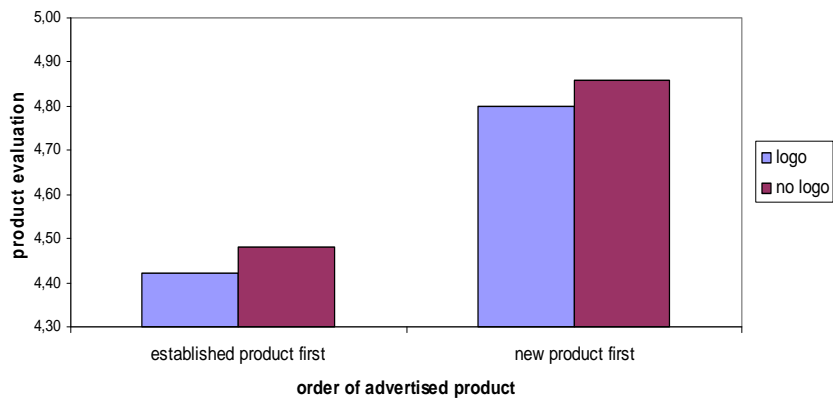
In addition, the following hypothesis was proposed for the effect of the logo when products were exposed sequentially:

> **H9:** The use of a logo will reduce contrast effects (H7 and H8) compared to the no logo condition.

For product evaluations of established products, there was no main effect of the logo ($F_{1,812} = 1.39$, p = .238; $M_{logo} = 4.99$, $M_{no\ logo} = 5.09$) but there was a main effect of product exposure ($F_{1,812} = 9.61$, p < .01; $M_{established\ first} = 4.90$, $M_{new\ first} = 5.18$), and a two-way interaction effect of logo and product exposure ($F_{1,812} = 4.38$, p < .05) (Figure 8 and Table 13). The results showed that H8 was supported: when respondents are exposed to a new product first, the established product will be evaluated higher than when it is encountered first.

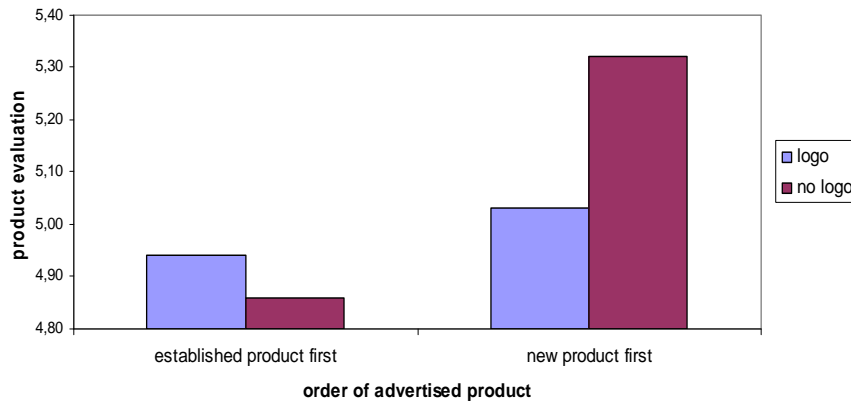**Figure 8: Evaluations of established products x advertised product and labelling Study 2**

Planned comparisons were run to test the difference between the means. Between the logo and no logo condition for the groups exposed to new products first, the results showed that this difference was significant (p < .05). Within the no logo condition the means for the new and established products exposed first were also significantly different (p < .001). The mean between the two logo conditions for the groups exposed to the established products first did not differ significantly (p = .567), neither did the mean between the groups who saw products with logos (p = .434). This means that the groups who were exposed to the new products without logos first, evaluated established products significantly higher than the other groups. This result suggests that the logo reduced the contrast effect that was found in the no logo condition. This result provided support for H9; the logo reduced the contrast effect of H8.

Table 13: Product evaluation of new and established products (Study 2)

	Advertised product			
	New products first		Established products first	
Product evaluation measured	Logo (n = 204)	No logo (n = 200)	Logo (n =216)	No logo (n =199)
Product evaluation of established products	5.03 (1.43)	5.32 (1.34)	4.94 (1.28)	4.86 (1.42)
Product evaluation of new products	4.80 (1.53)	4.86 (1.47)	4.42 (1.38)	4.48 (1.43)

Means and standard deviations by product exposure and labelling

8.2.3 The evaluation process

Results from the first study showed that attitude towards the category (origin) mediated the effect of typicality on product evaluation. The mediating effect was strongest for established products, suggesting that the impact of origin attitude was stronger when there was an established association between the product and the origin. In the logo condition, the difference between established and new products

was reduced, indicating that the logo increased the impact of origin attitude for new products.

In the second study, the mediation analysis was carried out for both the first and the second product. The first was a replication of the mediation analysis of the first study, and the findings were assumed to be similar. The results are reported in Appendix C (Figure 10, Table 21), and show that the variation among the groups followed a similar pattern, but the explained variance was weaker than in the first study, something that could be due to the fact that respondents adjusted their typicality perception after the exposure to the second product. However, the results show that origin attitude significantly mediated the effect of typicality on product evaluation in all four conditions. The mediation was complete in the established product without logo condition, and partial in the other three conditions. The same result was found in the first study. In order to test the significance of the independent variable (X) on the dependent variable (Y) via the mediator (M), the Sobel's test was used, and the results are reported in Appendix C. The result was significant in all four conditions. Thus, hypotheses H4-H6 were supported for this analysis as well.

In the second analysis, evaluation of the first product was expected to have an impact on the second product. However, this effect was assumed to be mediated by origin attitude. That is, the effect of the perception of product-origin typicality on product evaluation was assumed to be mediated by origin attitude, but it was also expected that the evaluation of the first product would affect this mediation. The following hypothesis was proposed:

H10: Origin attitude will mediate the effect of typicality on product evaluation more for the consumers who were exposed to the new products first, than for the consumers who were exposed to the established products first.

In order to test this hypothesis, evaluation of the first product was added as a second independent variable to the mediation analysis that was run for the first product evaluation. A model of this extended mediation analysis is presented in figure 9.

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Figure 9: A mediation model depicting the relations among variables typicality perception (X), 1st product evaluation (x'), origin attitude (M) and product evaluation (Y).
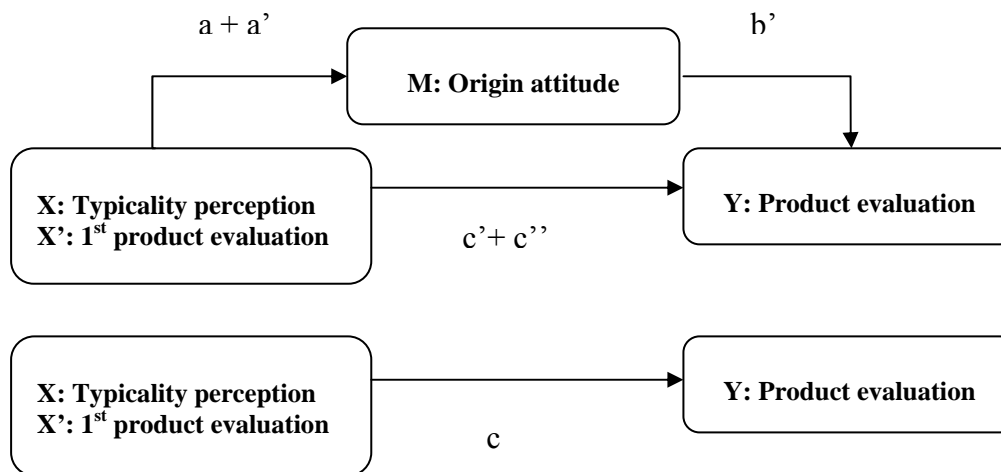
The results (Table 14) show that origin attitude mediated the effect of typicality and first product evaluation on the second product evaluation in three of the four conditions according to the Baron and Kenny (1986) procedure. In the group that was exposed to the established products without logo first, there was no mediation effect. The mediation was complete in the group who saw the new product without logo first, and partial in the other two conditions. A similar result was found in the first study (complete mediation in the group evaluating established product without logo, and the weakest mediation in the group evaluating new products without a logo).

In order to test the significance of the independent variables (X and X') on the dependent variable (Y) via the mediator (M), the Sobel's test was used. The result was significant in three of the groups (Table 14). The mediation was not significant in the group who saw the established product without logo first.

The direct effect of the independent variables (typicality perception of second product and evaluation of first product) had a positive effect in all four groups. The effect of evaluation of the first product was stronger than typicality perception of the second product in all groups. The result was stronger in the no logo conditions. It is important to be aware that the strong impact of the variable evaluation of first product in all of the regression analyses, could be a result of the measurement effect (Feldman and Lynch 1988), resulting in a somewhat stronger impact than what would normally be the case.

The effect of the independent variables on the mediator (origin attitude) was also stronger for first product evaluation than for typicality, in particular in the logo conditions. Origin attitude had a stronger impact on second product evaluation in the groups who were exposed to the new products first, so H10 was supported. Hypothesis H11 predicted that the use of a logo would reduce this order effect:

H11: The use of a logo will reduce the effect of order of product exposure (H10) compared to the no logo condition.

In fact, the results (Table 14) showed that the differences between the groups who were exposed to the new and established products were smaller in the logo condition (partial mediation in both groups) than in the no logo condition (no mediation and complete mediation), and H11 was supported. This indicates that the logo reduced the contrast effects (or increased assimilation). In the logo conditions, typicality had a stronger impact on product evaluation and a weaker impact on origin attitude than in the no logo conditions. This can be an indication that the logo helped to increase the origin awareness/attitude and that it increased typicality perception.

Table 14: Mediation analysis (evaluations of second product, Study 2)
(X=typicality perception, X'=first product evaluation, Y=product evaluation, M=origin attitude)

Condition (first exposure)	Total effect c = a*b'+c' a'*b+c''	a a'	b'	c' c''	Sobel's test z z'
	ß (B/ SE B)	ß (B/ SE B)	ß (B/ SE B)	ß (B/ SE B)	z = a*b/ SQRT $(b^2*s_a^2 + a^2*s_b^2)$
New product with logo	**.276***** (.374/.086) **.353***** (.330/.086)	**.260***** (.304/.037) **.441***** (.282/.066)	**.323***** (.398/.089)	**.194**** (.260/.086) **.204**** (.191/.065)	z = 3.09 p < 0.01 z' = 3.81 p < 0.01
R^2 (N)	**.220***** (198)	**.283***** (199)		**.284***** (194)	
New product no logo	**.176***** (.191/.072) **.326***** (.294/.060)	**.306***** (.294/.058) **.435***** (.346/.048)	**.480**** (.545/.081)	**.029** (.031/.069) **.119** (.108/.061)	z = 4.05 p < 0.001 z' = 4.92 p < 0.001
R^2 (N)	**.132***** (197)	**.285***** (200)		**.294***** (197)	
Established product with logo	**.319***** (229/.042) **.402***** (.427/.062)	**.149*** (.079/.031) **.529***** (.415/.045)	**.266***** (.358/.094)	**.273***** (.196/.042) **.262***** (.277/.072)	z = 2.12 p < 0.05 z' = 3.52 p < 0.01
R^2 (N)	**.292***** (210)	**.316***** (209)		**.331***** (206)	
Established product no logo	**.256***** (.192/.046) **.444***** (.445/.062)	**.280***** (.156/.034) **.446***** (.331/.045)	**.137** (.182/.097)	**.219***** (.161/.048) **.396***** (.388/.068)	z = 1.74 p = 0.08 z'= 1.82 p = 0.07
R^2 (N)	**.303***** (193)	**.318***** (190)		**.322***** (188)	

* p < .05
** p < .01
*** p < .001
a = typicality perception on origin attitude
a' = first product evaluation on origin attitude
b = origin attitude on second product evaluation (partial coefficient)
c' = typicality perception on product evaluation (partial coefficient)
c''= first product evaluation on second product evaluation (partial coefficient
z = Sobel's test of mediating effect on typicality perception
z'= Sobel's test of mediating effect on first product evaluation
standardised coefficients in bold, unstandardised coefficients and standard error in parentheses.

8.3 Summary of Study 2

The main objective of the second study was to answer research question 3: should advertising of new export products be linked to established products? The results suggested that this is not necessarily the most efficient strategy. The results showed that respondents who were exposed to the new product first, had higher perceptions of typicality and higher evaluations of new products than respondents who were exposed to the established products first. The results indicated that exposure to a new product first led to higher elaboration of the origin attribute and that it could be an advantage to expose consumers directly to the information about the new product. This is in line

with some previous findings that found focusing on the extension attributes could be more favourable than providing information about the original brand (Aaker and Keller 1990; Klink and Smith 2001).

The analyses also showed that there were few direct effects of the logo on product evaluation or typicality perceptions. The groups in the no logo condition who were exposed to the new products first evaluated the established products higher than the other groups. The same result was found for typicality perception of the non-advertised products. Based on the findings from the first study, this could be explained by the fact that the no logo condition had a higher level of elaboration than the logo condition did. Another interpretation is that the logo had an assimilative effect, and that it contributes to a certain level of credibility and origin attention on its own, at least for established products. This interpretation would be in line with the results from the mediation analyses: typicality perception had a stronger impact on product evaluation and a weaker impact on origin attitude in the logo condition than in the no logo condition. The results from the mediation analyses suggested that the logo had an assimilative effect: in the groups who were exposed to established products first and then evaluated new products, origin attitude had a stronger impact on product evaluation in the logo condition than in the no logo condition (no mediation at all). For the groups who saw the new products first and then evaluated the established ones, the mediation was strongest in the no logo condition (complete mediation) and weaker in the logo condition. This indicates that the origin attitude did not spill over from the evaluation of the established product to the evaluation of the new product in the no logo condition, but that it did in the logo condition. In the case of spillover effects from new to established products, the effect seemed to be higher for the no logo condition, probably due to a higher level of elaboration, whereas the presence of a logo seemed to affect attitudes as a heuristic cue and reduce the level of elaboration.

To sum up, it seems that information about new export products first activated more processing and product knowledge, but that the logo reduced this processing to a certain extent. However, the logo had an impact as a heuristic cue and reduced contrast effects (or increased assimilation).

9. Discussion

In this chapter, the findings from Studies 1 and 2 are discussed with regard to the research questions of the thesis and the hypotheses presented in chapter 6. Afterwards, the theoretical and managerial implications of the findings are discussed in addition to the limitations of the studies and suggestions for future research.

9.1 Summary of main findings

The objective of this thesis is to study how exporters of generic products can exploit origin effects in a more efficient manner. The focus is on how COO advertising can have an impact on perceptions of product-origin typicality and product evaluation as well as on the use of origin advertisement and labelling with regard to how existing origin associations can be reinforced and transferred from established to new export products. The hypotheses and the results of the empirical tests are reported in Table 14. The specific objective of this study was to answer the three major research questions posed in the introductory chapter. The first research question was:

RQ1: How can COO advertisement affect the perceived typicality of export products?

In this thesis it is argued that product-origin typicality is a prerequisite for origin effects. Therefore, when new export products are introduced it is essential that they are associated with and perceived as typical of their origin. In order to study the determinants of typicality, the theory of categorisation and typicality perceptions were examined to develop the hypotheses to be tested. Hypotheses H1-H3 addressed the first research question. The result showed that determinants of perceived typicality are different for new and established products. First, COO advertisement was found to increase typicality perceptions of new products, but the use of origin logos had no direct effect on typicality perceptions for new or for established products. In the first study, the logos that were used were new and unknown to consumers. Even though respondents were exposed to the logos only once, they proved to have an indirect effect and were shown to contribute to a certain level of credibility for established export products. The analyses revealed that whereas typicality perceptions of established products were based on previously formed attitudes, typicality perceptions

of new products were based on ad related variables, with ad credibility as the dominant determinant. The results indicated that established typicality perceptions are determined by product involvement and origin diagnosticity. When products are already associated with an origin typicality perceptions are determined by the extent to which consumers are involved with the product and believe that origin is an important product attribute. When a new product is introduced, consumers elaborate on the information in the advertisement in order to judge whether the product should be perceived as typical or not for its origin. Ad credibility is by far the most important variable for typicality perceptions of new products, as well as for established products when the logo is not present. The fact that ad credibility has no effect when the logo is present indicates that the logo provides some credibility by itself. The results also indicated that the logo has an impact as a heuristic cue, and that respondents who were exposed to advertising without logos processed the information to a higher extent and were able to recall more elements from the ads. The extent to which consumers have other available categories (origins) in memory that they find more typical was also decisive. In particular, home country bias influenced the typicality perceptions of new products in a negative direction. The results also suggested that a higher degree of involvement with the advertisement could have a negative impact on typicality perceptions. This effect was stronger for new products and in the no logo conditions (where respondents seemed to have processed the information to a higher extent).

The analyses showed that typicality perceptions increased for products that were not advertised but that belonged to the same category. In other words, advertising for both salmon and mussels from Norway increased typicality perceptions of Norwegian cod, and advertising for Spanish oranges and apples increased typicality perceptions of Spanish raisins. This means that the COO advertisements have a spillover effect at the category level and that the impact is not only product specific.

The next research question was posed to examine the relation between typicality perceptions and product evaluation:

RQ2: How are typicality perceptions and product evaluation related?

Three hypotheses (H4-H6) were proposed to account for these relations. A mediation analysis was carried out to test the predicted relations and the findings supported the assumption that the effect of typicality on product evaluation is mediated by origin attitude. The mediating effect of origin attitude was strongest for established products where the associations between the product and the origin had already been formed.

The mediation analysis carried out in the first study was replicated in the second study with very similar results. In the second study, where respondents were exposed to both established and new products, the mediation analysis was also run with a second independent variable (evaluation of first product). This analysis supported the previous results, but indicated that the first product evaluation also had a strong impact on the second product evaluation. However, the mediating effect of origin attitude on product evaluation showed the same pattern in the various conditions of the study.

The last research question is related to the introduction strategies of new products in an export market:

RQ3: Should COO advertising of new export products be linked to well known (typical) products?

The theory of assimilation and contrast and the accessibility-diagnosticity framework provided several possible predictions of the effects of order of exposure to new and established products on subsequent evaluations of the products. Hypotheses H7 and H8 were proposed to test the effects of the order of information and product exposure. The results supported the prediction that respondents who were exposed to an established product first would evaluate the new product lower than when it was encountered first (H7). The results also showed that being exposed to a new product first resulted in higher evaluation of established products, and H8 was also supported. These findings indicated that exposure to a new product first leads to higher levels of elaboration of the origin attribute. However, the logo did prove to have an assimilative effect for both new and established products, suggesting that it increases perceptions of similarity across products. Based on the findings of this study, the attempt to answer RQ3 would be that information about new products seemed to

increase processing of category attributes and improve product evaluation, but that the use of a logo was an efficient tool to increase the link to the well-known products and categories as such.

Table 15: Summary of test of hypotheses

	Hypothesis	Result
H1a	An advertisement highlighting origin attributes will increase the perceptions of product-origin typicality of new export products.	**Supported**
H1b	COO advertisement for export products will increase product-origin typicality perceptions of non-advertised products within the category.	**Supported**
H2a	The use of a COO logo in an advertisement will increase the perceived typicality of export products compared to advertisements with no logo.	**Not supported**
H2b	The use of a COO logo in an advertisement will decrease the perceived typicality of export products compared to advertisements with no logo.	**Not supported**
H3a	Origin diagnosticity will have a more positive impact on perceived typicality for established export products than for new export products.	**Supported**
H3b	In the case of new export products, ad credibility will have a positive impact on perceptions of product-origin typicality.	**Supported**
H3c	Domestic bias will have a negative effect on perceived typicality of new export products.	**Supported**
H4a	Typicality will have a positive impact on export product evaluations.	**Supported**
H4b	Origin attitude will mediate the effect of typicality on product evaluation. Typicality will have a positive effect on origin attitude, which in turn will have a positive impact on product evaluation.	**Supported**
H5	The mediating effect of origin attitude (H4b) will be stronger for established products than for new products.	**Supported**
H6	For new products, the use of a logo will increase the mediating effect of origin attitude (H4b).	**Supported**
H7	When consumers are exposed to an established product first, the new product will be evaluated lower than when it is encountered first	**Supported**
H8	When consumers are exposed to a new product first, the established product will be evaluated higher than when it is encountered first	**Supported**
H9	The use of a logo will reduce contrast effects (H7 and H8) compared to the no logo condition	**Partially supported**
H10	Origin attitude will mediate the effect of typicality on product evaluation more for the consumers who were exposed to the new products first, than for the consumers who were exposed to the established products first.	**Supported**
H11	The use of a logo will reduce the effect of order of product exposure (H10) compared to the no logo condition.	**Supported**

9.2 Theoretical implications

Previous research on country of origin effects has most often studied the effect of origin or country image on product evaluation. Even though some studies have addressed the importance of match between countries and products (Roth and Romeo 1992; Agarwal and Sikri 1996; Usunier and Cestre 2007) as far as we know, no studies have looked at: 1) how product-origin typicality perceptions can be affected and 2) how product-origin typicality, origin attitude and product evaluation are related. The finding that perceptions of product-origin typicality of new products can be affected by COO advertisement is an important contribution to the COO literature. The support for the prediction that the effect of typicality on product evaluation is mediated by origin attitude adds to previous studies and the theory of typicality and categorisation, but has not previously been tested in the context of country of origin

effects. The findings of this study also contribute to the brand management perspective that has increasingly influenced COO research over the last years.

Only a small amount of empirical research has been studied the effects of logos and their contributions to the transfer of attitudes. Theories of the impact of visual elements and logo effects point in different directions and predictions can be difficult to make. Most often in the existing research, it is not specified whether the logos used are well known or unknown to respondents. This study contributes to the research of logo effects and finds that even when new logos do not prove to have any direct effect on overall attitudes, they have an impact on the process of attitude formation. This impact is found even when the logos are new and their meaning is not known to respondents.

Brand extension research has been widely studied, and the positive relationship between perceived fit and positive evaluations of brand extensions has been well supported. Most studies in this field have examined how associations to the core brand can transfer to new products, but few studies have examined alternative strategies for introducing new products. In this study, respondents were exposed to established and new products sequentially, and the findings suggest that information about the new product can have a more positive impact on evaluation of new products than the focus on the original product. This finding supports the results of a few studies that have found similar effects in previous research (Aaker and Keller 1990; Klink and Smith 2001).

Whereas this study uses large and more heterogeneous samples than what is often being used in marketing research, there is also the general contribution that previous findings and theory have been supported by the findings.

9.3 Managerial implications

The growing interest in food origin has resulted in an increase in the use of labels and signs that indicate origin or quality on food products. The objective of these labelling efforts is most often to create a link between the characteristics of the product and the characteristics of its origin. Vanoppen et al. (2001) claimed that these efforts only make sense if the specific quality can be recognized and substantiated by consumers.

Two of the main problems with the current practice in this domain are that consumers often do not know the meaning of the labels and that they are not consistently applied. In this thesis, two studies were carried out to examine the effect of such labels for both established and new products.

In the first study, logos that were unknown to consumers were used in COO advertisements for established and new products. Half of the respondents saw advertisements without logos. The results showed that the logos did not have any direct effect on consumer perception of product-origin typicality. However, the logos did have an indirect effect on the processing of the information. The analyses indicate that the logos have an impact as heuristic cues in that they lead to less processing of the information, but contribute a certain level of credibility and an increased awareness of the origin attribute. The first study also showed that typicality perceptions of new products are influenced by COO advertisements, and that these effects spill over onto other products within the category.

In the second study, the use of logos for which respondents knew the meaning reduced the contrasting judgment of product evaluations of new and established products. In this study, the respondents were exposed to the logos several times and the advertisements were designed to highlight the meanings of the logos more clearly, something that increased the recognition and awareness of the origin attribute. In the second study, respondents were exposed to both new and established products sequentially. Respondents who were exposed to the new products first, had a higher typicality perception and evaluation of new products than respondents who were exposed to established products first. This finding indicates that it can be an advantage to focus on the attributes of the new products rather than focusing on the original product when introducing new export products. In addition, the logo contributed to creating a link to the origin associations when respondents were exposed to the established products first.

Some of the major concerns for marketers of export products are to know when and how origin labels have any effect, and how to capitalise on established origin associations in order to increase preference for established products as well as to introduce new products. The findings in these studies give some directions for the

marketing of export products. 1) Logos should be thoroughly introduced and their meaning should be communicated to consumers. 2) Logos should be applied consistently in order to maximise their effect as heuristic cues and recognition aids. 3) COO advertisements do affect typicality perceptions and product evaluations. This effect is not only found for the advertised products but also for other products within the category. 4) When introducing new products, it can be more efficient to focus on the new product than on established products, but the use of COO logos will increase the transfer of the established origin associations.

9.4 Limitations and future research

The findings of this study have several limitations. First of all, only two product categories were used in this study. The surveys were carried out in one single market, and the results could be different with additional product categories and in different markets. It would also be an advantage to use several products with different degrees of initial product-origin typicality perceptions to decrease the impact of single products, and the possibility of product-specific effects. Even though the findings suggest that information about the new product is more important than focusing on the established products, it would be interesting to study the possibility of extending established origin associations to other categories.

In this study, the focus was on how ad related variables could affect perceptions of product-origin typicality. It is likely that other variables could have an impact on these perceptions, and changes in typicality perceptions should be further studied.

Empirical studies of logo effects are very likely to be affected by the stimuli used in the particular studies. In this study only two different logos were used to test the effects, and the results must be interpreted with caution. Future research should also consider examining to a closer extent the effect of different levels of exposure and familiarity of the logos.

Several of the most important measures of this study were developed for the purpose of this study (for instance origin attitude), and equivalent measures should be tested in additional studies in order to increase the validity of the findings.

With regard to COO effects, this study is limited in that it has only focused on export products. An issue that could be further explored is how domestic bias could be exploited by national producers. In the first pre-test of this study, respondents were asked to write down the countries they associated with a range of products. When asked about mussels, as many as 59% of the respondents mentioned Belgium. However, when respondents were asked what they thought of when they saw the ad for Norwegian mussels, nobody mentioned Belgium, but a great deal mentioned France as their preferred producer/origin country of mussels. This tendency was found for all products, except for products that are not produced in France (such as salmon and oranges). When respondents reacted to the advertisements by mentioning another origin, it was only their own country and not other origins they mentioned. These findings supported previous findings and indicate that people have a strong tendency to protect or defend their home country, something that could probably be exploited to a greater extent by local producers for instance by using COO labels highlighting the local origin.

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APPENDIX A

Correlation matrixes Pre-test 1 and Pre-test 2

Table 16: Correlation matrix for variables in Pre-test 1

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Diagnosticity											
1. salmon											
2. mussels	.674**										
3. cod	.607**	.698**									
4. oranges	.580**	.550**	.540**								
5. apples	.530**	.528**	.500**	.773**							
6. grapes	.542**	.546**	.520**	.853**	.813**						
Typicality											
7. salmon-N	.195*	.135	.040	.061	.040	-.025					
8. mussels-N	.254**	.269**	.312**	.204*	.127	.153	.161*				
9. cod-N	.231**	.270**	.338**	.204*	.186*	.158	.432**	.317**			
10. oranges-S	.207*	.271**	.153	.269**	.156	.139	.429**	.139	.292**		
11. apples-S	.235**	.222**	.232**	.250**	.224**	.194*	.043	.270**	.257**	.212**	
12. grapes-S	.272**	.306**	.282**	.258**	.157	.220**	.323**	.311**	.448**	.420**	.316**

** p > .01

* p > .05

N = Norway, S = Spain

Table 17 Correlation matrix for variables in Pre-test 2

Variable	Logo evaluation
Origin attitude	.346**

** p > .01

Logos used in the studies

Logo for Spanish Fruit

Logo for Norwegian Seafood

APPENDIX B

Examples of the advertisement stimuli used in Study 1
(All four ads were made in two versions, with and without logo).

Oranges d'Espagne

La douceur et la saveur du soleil de leur pays

C'est parce qu'elles grandissent et mûrissent sous le soleil généreux d'Andalousie, bénéficiant de tout le savoir-faire des producteurs espagnols, que les *Oranges d'Espagne* offrent cette chair juteuse et savoureuse, si appréciée des amateurs de fruits.

Cueillies juste avant leur maturité, les *Oranges d'Espagne* offrent en outre l'avantage d'être riches en vitamine C, pour des petits-déjeuners toniques et ensoleillés.

Oranges d'Espagne, quand la nature vous donne ce qu'elle a de meilleur....

Pommes d'Espagne

La douceur et la saveur du soleil de leur pays

C'est parce qu'elles grandissent et mûrissent sous le soleil généreux d'Andalousie, bénéficiant de tout le savoir-faire des producteurs espagnols, que les *Pommes d'Espagne* offrent cette chair juteuse et savoureuse, si appréciée des amateurs de fruits.

Cueillies juste avant leur maturité, les *Pommes d'Espagne* s'apprécient aussi bien crues, comme fruit de table, que dans de nombreuses recettes, tartes ou desserts, où elles expriment toute leur saveur.

Pommes d'Espagne, quand la nature vous donne ce qu'elle a de meilleur....

Questionnaire, Study 1 (English version and French version)

Norwegian salmon is used here as an example for the questions referring to the

specific product of the group to which respondents were assigned.

<u>English version:</u>

Selection criteria (only people who eat fish and fruit should be included)

Are there any of the following food products you do not eat?
Meat
Fish
Seafood
Fruit
Vegetables
Bread
Pasta
Rice

Instructions:
We are conducting a study where we would like to know what associations people
have to various countries and products. Because few people have been invited to
participate, your opinion is of great importance, and we highly appreciate your
participation. Please fill in the questionnaire without taking any break, it will take
approximately ten minutes. Remember that there are no right or wrong answers, we
only want to know *your* thoughts and opinions about different issues. The answers are
anonymous. If you cannot answer the questions, please quit the questionnaire instead
of writing "don't know" or something similar. Please notice that you will not be able
to go back once you have clicked "next" at the bottom of each page.

**1. You will now be shown an advertisement that you will be asked to evaluate in
different ways. Please examine it carefully.**
(ad for product according to group assigned to)

**2. Advertisements provide different associations to people. We are interested in
what *you* thought of when you saw this advertisement. Please write down the
thoughts you had when you read this ad. Please write down as many as you can.**
Open answers (8-9 boxes)

**3. The advertisement contained both verbal and visual information. Please
describe the information you recall from the advertising.**
Open answers (8-9 boxes)

**4. Please give us your opinion of Norwegian salmon. On a scale from 1 to 7,
where 1 means strongly disagree and 7 means strongly agree, to what extent do
you agree with the following statements?**

Norwegian salmon is a good product
        Strongly disagree-strongly agree

I like Norwegian salmon
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree
I have a positive attitude towards Norwegian salmon
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

5. We would like you to evaluate the advertisement itself, not the product. Please click the number that best describes your evaluation of the advertisement.

Bad	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**good**
Dislike	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**like**
Unpleasant	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**pleasant**

6. Please give us your opinion about different aspects of the advertisement. On a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means strongly disagree and 7 means strongly agree, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

While examining the advertising I was concentrating very hard
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

While examining the advertising I carefully considered the advertising claims about salmon
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

I believe the information contained in the advertising was very believable
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

I found the information contained in the advertising very trustworthy
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

The information contained in the advertising seemed very credible
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

7. **We are now interested in your attitude towards** salmon **in general. On a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means strongly disagree and 7 means strongly agree, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?**

Salmon is very important to me
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

For me, salmon does not matter
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

I have a strong interest in salmon
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

8. **We would now like to know what impressions you have of Norway (Spain) and Norwegians (Spanish people). On a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means strongly disagree and 7 means strongly agree, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?**

Norwegian fish come from cold and clear waters
(Spanish fruit grows in a sunny and warm climate)
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

Norway has a harsh, beautiful and unique nature
(Spain has a rich, beautiful and unique nature)
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

Norwegian fish and seafood are fresh products from pure sea
(Spanish fruits are fresh products from pure nature)
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

Norwegians take care of nature
(Spanish people take care of nature)
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

Norwegians have long traditions and knowledge of fishing
(Spanish farmers have long traditions and knowledge of agriculture)
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

Norwegian fishermen combine craftsmanship with modern technology
(Spanish farmers combine craftsmanship with modern technology)
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

Norwegian fisheries are sustainable and environmentally friendly
(Spanish agriculture is sustainable and environmentally friendly)
    Strongly disagree-strongly agree

9. We will now show you a logo that we would like you to evaluate:
(show logo according to the group assigned)

10. Logos often give people different associations and thoughts. We are interested in the thoughts *you* had when you saw this logo. Please write down as many associations as you can.
Open answers 8-9 boxes

11. What kind of products do you think this logo is used for?
Open answers same 8-9 boxes

12. We would now like you to consider the logo itself, not the products. Please click the number that best describes your evaluation of the logo.

Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	good
Dislike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	like
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	pleasant

13. The logo was developed for the Norwegian Seafood (Spanish Fruit) industry. Please give us your evaluation of it. On a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means strongly disagree and 7 means strongly agree, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

The logo expresses important product attributes for fish and seafood (fruit)
> Strongly disagree-strongly agree

The logo gives me ideas that facilitate my evaluation of fish and seafood products (fruit).
> Strongly disagree-strongly agree

The logo is well suited for the fish and seafood (fruit) products
> Strongly disagree-strongly agree

It will be easy for people to understand that this logo is a symbol of Norwegian fish and seafood (Spanish fruit)?
> Strongly disagree-strongly agree

14. On a scale from 1 to 7, how important do you consider origin to be with respect to the quality of the following products: (1 means not important at all, 7 means very important)

Salmon
Cod
Mussels
Ham
Sausages
Beef
Oranges
Apples
Grapes
Rice
Flour
Sugar

15. How typical would you say the following product-origins are? Please give a value on a scale where 1 means not at all typical and 7 means very typical

Salmon-Norway
Salmon-Scotland
Salmon- Belgium
Cod-Norway
Cod-Iceland
Cod-Spain
Mussels-Belgium
Mussels-Norway
Mussels-Netherlands
Ham-Italy
Ham-Scotland
Ham-.Norway
Sausages-Italy
Sausages-Spain
Sausages-Germany
Beef-Belgium

Beef-Scotland
Beef-Spain
Oranges-Spain
Oranges-Greece
Oranges-Italy
Apples-Italy
Apples-Spain
Apples-Germany
Grapes-Spain
Grapes-Italy
Grapes-Germany

16. How often would you say you eat **FISH/SALMON/COD/MUSSELS**?

Answer	Code
Twice a week or more often	1
Approx. once a week	2
2-3 times a month	3
Approx. once a month	4
Approx. every second month	5
Approx. every third month	6
2-3 times a year	7
More seldom	8
I never eat fish/salmon/cod/mussels	9
Don't know / no answer	10

or

16. How often would you say you eat **FRUIT/ORANGES/GRAPES/APPLES**?

Answer	Code
3 or more every day	1
1-2 every day	2
Every second day	3
Two times a week	4
Once a week	5
2-3 times a month	6
	7
More seldom	8
I never eat fruit/oranges/grapes/apples	9
Don't know / no answer	10

French version:

Y-a-t'il dans la liste ci-dessous des aliments que vous ne consommez pas ? Si oui, merci de les cocher.

[] Viande
[] Poisson
[] Fruits de mer
[] Fruits
[] Légumes

[] Pain
[] Pâtes
[] Riz

Bonjour,
Nous réalisons une enquête afin de savoir quelles associations les gens établissent entre différents pays et produits. Cette étude étant menée auprès d'un nombre restreint de personnes, votre opinion est de la plus grande importance et nous vous sommes très reconnaissants d'y participer.
Veuillez remplir le questionnaire suivant d'une traite, sans faire de pause; cela devrait vous prendre 10 minutes environ. Il n'y a pas de bonne ou mauvaise réponse, nous souhaitons simplement connaître votre avis sur différents sujets.
Si vous ne pouvez pas répondre aux questions, merci de quitter simplement le questionnaire plutôt que répondre "je ne sais pas" ou une réponse similaire.
Nous vous informons que les questionnaires sont traités de façon totalement anonyme.

1. Voici une publicité pour laquelle nous souhaiterions avoir votre avis sur différents points. Veuillez l'examiner attentivement.
(ad for Norwegian salmon)

2. Les publicités inspirent souvent aux gens différentes idées et associations. Veuillez noter les idées qui vous sont directement venues à l'esprit lorsque vous avez observé cette publicité. Vous pouvez inscrire autant d'idées et d'associations que vous le désirez.
Open answers (8-9 boxes)

3. Cette publicité contenait à la fois des informations textuelles et visuelles. Veuillez noter les informations dont vous souvenez.
Open answers (8-9 boxes)

4. Nous souhaiterions connaître votre opinion sur le saumon de Norvège.
Sur une échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à " pas du tout d'accord et 7 à "Tout à fait d'accord", veuillez donner votre avis sur les déclarations suivantes :

Le saumon de Norvège un bon produit.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

J'aime le saumon de Norvège.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Le saumon de Norvège m'inspire une bonne image.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

5+6. Nous souhaiterions à présent connaître votre opinion sur cette publicité elle-même et non sur le produit. Sur une échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à "Pas du tout d'accord" et 7 à "Tout à fait d'accord", veuillez donner votre avis sur les déclarations suivantes :

Je pense que c'est une bonne publicité.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

J'aime beaucoup cette publicité.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Cette publicité m'inspire une bonne image.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

J'étais très concentré(e) en observant la publicité.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Lors de l'observation de la publicité, j'ai soigneusement pris en compte les arguments concernant le saumon.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Je trouve que les informations présentées par cette publicité sont très crédibles.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Je trouve que les informations présentées par cette publicité sont très dignes de confiance.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Les informations présentées par cette publicité semblent très vraies.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

7. Nous souhaiterions à présent connaître votre position vis-à-vis du saumon en général.
Sur une échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à "Pas du tout d'accord" et 7 à "Tout à fait d'accord", veuillez donner votre avis sur les déclarations suivantes :

Le saumon est très important pour moi.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Le saumon n'a pas d'importance pour moi.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Je suis très intéressé par le saumon.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

8. Nous souhaiterions connaître l'opinion que vous avez de la Norvège (l'Espagne) et des norvégiens (espagnols).
Sur une échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à "Pas du tout d'accord" et 7 à "Tout à fait d'accord", veuillez donner votre avis sur les déclarations suivantes :

Le poisson de Norvège est issu des eaux froides et pures.
(Les fruits d'Espagne poussent sous un climat chaud et ensoleillé.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

La Norvège a une nature rude, magnifique et unique.
(L'Espagne a une nature riche, magnifique et unique.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Les poissons et les fruits de mer de Norvège sont des produits frais issus d'eaux pures.
(Les fruits d'Espagne sont des produits frais issus d'une nature pure.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Les Norvégiens prennent soin de la nature.
(Les Espagnols prennent soin de la nature.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Les Norvégiens ont de longues traditions et de grandes connaissances en matière de pêche.
(Les cultivateurs espagnols ont de longues traditions et de grandes connaissances en matière d'agriculture.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Les pêcheurs norvégiens associent leur expérience du métier aux technologies modernes.
(Les cultivateurs espagnols associent leur expérience du métier aux technologies modernes.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

La pêche en Norvège est une activité durable et respectueuse de l'environnement.
(L'agriculture en Espagne est une activité durable et respectueuse de l'environnement.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

9. Voici un logo pour lequel nous souhaiterions avoir votre avis. Veuillez l'examiner attentivement.
(show logo)

10. Les logos inspirent souvent aux gens différentes idées et associations. Veuillez noter les idées qui vous sont directement venues à l'esprit lorsque vous avez observé ce logo. Vous pouvez inscrire autant d'idées et d'associations que vous le désirez.
Open answers 8-9 boxes

11. Pour quelle sorte de produit ce logo est-il utilisé selon vous ?
Open answers 8-9 boxes

12. Nous souhaiterions à présent connaître votre opinion sur ce logo lui-même et non sur le produit. Veuillez cliquer sur les chiffres qui qualifient le mieux votre évaluation du logo.

Mauvais   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Bon
Je n'aime pas [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] J'aime
Désagréable   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Agréable

13. Ce logo a été créé pour l'industrie des produits de la mer de Norvège (des fruits d'Espagne). Nous souhaiterions avoir votre avis à son sujet. Sur une

échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à "Pas du tout d'accord" et 7 à "Tout à fait d'accord", veuillez donner votre avis sur les déclarations suivantes :

Ce logo reflète les caractéristiques importantes des poissons et des produits de la mer (des fruits).
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Ce logo m'inspire des idées qui m'aident à me faire une opinion des poissons et des produits de la mer (des fruits).
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Ce logo convient bien au poisson et aux produits de la mer (aux fruits).
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Il est facile de comprendre que ce logo représente les poissons et produits de la mer de Norvège (les fruits d'Espagne).
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

14. Sur une échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à "Pas important du tout" et 7 à "Très important", veuillez indiquer l'importance que vous accordez à l'origine des produits suivants en termes de qualité :

Saumon   Pas important du tout [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Très important
Cabillaud   Pas important du tout [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Très important
Moules   Pas important du tout [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Très important
Jambon   Pas important du tout [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Très important
Saucisses   Pas important du tout [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Très important
Bœuf   Pas important du tout [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Très important
Oranges   Pas important du tout [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Très important
Pommes   Pas important du tout [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Très important
Raisin   Pas important du tout [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Très important
Riz   Pas important du tout [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Très important
Farine   Pas important du tout [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Très important
Sucre   Pas important du tout [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Très important

15. Sur une échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à "Pas du tout typique" et 7 à "Tout à fait typique", veuillez indiquer votre avis sur les associations "Produit - Origine" suivantes :

Saumon - Norvège   Pas du tout Typique [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait typique
Saumon - Ecosse
Saumon - Belgique
Cabillaud - Norvège
Cabillaud - Islande
Cabillaud - Espagne
Moules - Belgique
Moules - Norvège
Moules - Pays-Bas

Jambon - Italie
Jambon - Ecosse
Jambon - Norvège
Saucisses - Italie
Saucisses - Espagne
Saucisses - Allemagne
Bœuf - Belgique
Bœuf - Ecosse
Bœuf - Espagne
Oranges - Espagne
Oranges - Grèce
Oranges - Italie
Pommes - Italie
Pommes - Espagne
Pommes - Allemagne
Raisin - Espagne
Raisin - Italie
Raisin - Allemagne

16. À quelle fréquence diriez-vous que vous consommez du poisson/saumon/cabillaud/moules?
[] Deux fois par semaine ou plus
[] Environ 1 fois par semaine
[] 2 à 3 fois par mois
[] Environ 1 fois par mois
[] Environ 1 fois tous les 2 mois
[] Environ 1 fois tous les 3 mois
[] 2 à 3 fois par an
[] Moins souvent encore
[] Je ne mange jamais de poisson/saumon/cabillaud/moules
[] Je ne sais pas

Ou :
À quelle fréquence diriez-vous que vous consommez des fruits/oranges/raisin/pommes
[] Trois fois par jour ou plus
[] Environ 1-2 fois par jour
[] Tous les jours
[] Environ deux fois par semaine
[] Environ 1 fois par semaine
 [] 2 à 3 fois par mois
[] Moins souvent encore
[] Je ne mange jamais des fruit/oranges/raisin/pommes
[] Je ne sais pas

Statistics Study 1

Table 18: Descriptive statistics Study 1

Variable	Kurtosis	Skewness	Min	Max	N
Typicality established	7.406	-2.493	1	7	460
Typicality new	-1.172	-.080	1	7	460
Domestic bias	4.387	2.272	0	2	235
Recall logo	6.071	2.630	0	2	236
Diagnosticity	1.981	-1.266	1	7	439
Ad involvement	-.277	-.404	1	7	439
Ad credibility	-.012	-.450	1	7	439
Product involvement	-.439	-.427	1	7	439
Product evaluation	-.437	-.465	1	7	439
Origin attitude	.097	-.432	1	7	439
Typicality non-advertised	-.643	-.527	1	7	439

Table 19: Test of assumptions of univariate homogeneity, Study 1

Variables	Levene's test of equality of error variances	
Dependent variables		
Typicality perceptions new products	F = .70	p = .55
Typicality perceptions established products	F = 2.40	p = .07
Typicality perceptions non-advertised products	F = .16	p = .93
Typicality perceptions non-advertised seafood products	F = 1.52	p = .21
Typicality perceptions non-advertised fruit products	F = .67	p = .57
Ad recall	F = .364	p = .78

Table 20: Correlation matrix for regressions in Study 1

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1. Domestic Bias									
2. Diagnosticity	.023								
3. Ad credibility	-.149**	.276**							
4. Product involvement	-.079	.466**	.303**						
5. Ad involvement	.023	.236**	.643**	.315**					
6. Typicality established	.000	.255**	.312**	.170**	.248**				
7. Typicality new	-.066	.125**	.285**	.047	.119*	.128**			
8. Origin attitude	-.101*	.357**	.622**	.297**	.427**	.372**	.208**		
9. Product evaluation	-.273**	.206**	.620**	.355**	.313**	.228**	.144**	.565**	
10. Typicality non-advertised	-.041	.194*	.231**	.111*	.162*	.266**	.359**	.285**	.164**

** $p > .01$

* $p > .05$

APPENDIX C

Advertisement stimuli used in Study 2

La fraîcheur et la saveur des eaux pures des fjords

C'est parce qu'elles sont élevées dans les eaux pures et froides des fjords, bénéficiant de tout le savoir-faire des mytiliculteurs norvégiens, que les *Moules de Norvège* offrent cette chair ferme et savoureuse, si appréciée des amateurs de fruits de mer.

Élevées en suspension sur des cordes, les *Moules de Norvège* sont exemptes de sable et offrent en outre l'avantage d'être riches en minéraux et très pauvres en matières grasses, pour le plaisir et la santé de toute la famille.

Moules de Norvège, le meilleur de la nature garanti par son logo officiel

NORGE — PRODUITS DE LA MER DE NORVÈGE

La fraîcheur et la saveur des eaux pures des fjords

C'est parce qu'il est élevé dans les eaux pures et froides des fjords, bénéficiant de tout le savoir-faire des salmoniculteurs norvégiens, que le *Saumon de Norvège* offre cette chair ferme et savoureuse, si appréciée des amateurs de poisson.

Élevé dans des conditions naturelles idéales, le *Saumon de Norvège* offre en outre l'avantage d'être riche en acides gras Omega 3, pour le plaisir et la santé de toute la famille.

Saumon de Norvège, le meilleur de la nature garanti par son logo officiel

NORGE — PRODUITS DE LA MER DE NORVÈGE

Examples of product photo stimuli used in Study 2

(All four photos were made in two versions, with and without logo).

Questionnaire, Study 2 (English version and French version)

Norwegian salmon is used here as an example in the questions referring to the specific

product of the group to which respondents were assigned.

English version:

Selection criteria (only people who eat fish, seafood and fruit should be included)
Are there any of the following food products you do not eat?

Meat
Fish
Seafood
Fruit
Vegetables
Bread
Pasta
Rice

Instructions:
We are conducting a scientific study where we would like to know what associations
people have to various countries and products. The results will be used to develop the
communication of nutritional information about food products. Each respondent will
only be presented with one or two examples of products for evaluation, so it will not
take more than approximately ten minutes. Because few people have been invited to
participate, your opinion will be of great importance, and we highly appreciate your
participation. Please fill in the questionnaire without taking any break. Remember that
there are no right or wrong answers, we only want to know *your* thoughts and
opinions about different issues. The answers are anonymous. If you cannot answer the
questions, please quit the questionnaire instead of writing "don't know" or similar.
Please notice that you will not be able to go back once you have clicked next at the
bottom of each page.

**1. You will now be shown an advertisement that you will be asked to evaluate in
different ways. Please examine it carefully.**
(ad for Norwegian salmon)

**2. We are interested in *your* opinion about different aspects of the advertisement.
On a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means strongly disagree and 7 means strongly
agree, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?**

I like this advertisement very much.
　　　Strongly disagree-strongly agree

I have a positive attitude towards this advertisement.
　　　Strongly disagree-strongly agree

I think this was s a good advertisement.
　　　Strongly disagree-strongly agree

3. Imagine that you are in the store to buy fish and you see the product in the photo below. Look at the photo.
(show photo of product)

4. Please write down the thoughts you had when you saw the product. Please write down as many as you can.
Open answers (8-9 boxes)

5. We would now like you to give us your opinion of the product in the photo. On a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means strongly disagree and 7 means strongly agree, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

The product in the photo is a good product
      Strongly disagree-strongly agree

I like the product in the photo
      Strongly disagree-strongly agree

I have a positive attitude towards the product in the photo
      Strongly disagree-strongly agree

6. The advertisement contained both verbal and visual information. Please describe the information and other elements you recall from the advertising.
Open answers (8-9 boxes)

7. We are now interested in your attitude towards salmon in general. On a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means strongly disagree and 7 means strongly agree, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

Salmon is very important to me
      Strongly disagree-strongly agree

I have a strong interest in salmon
      Strongly disagree-strongly agree

8. **We would now like to know what impressions you have of Norway (Spain) and Norwegians (Spanish people). On a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means strongly disagree and 7 means strongly agree, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?**

Norwegian fish come from cold and clear waters
(Spanish fruit grows in a sunny and warm climate)
      Strongly disagree-strongly agree

Norway has a harsh, beautiful and unique nature
(Spain has a rich, beautiful and unique nature)
      Strongly disagree-strongly agree

Norwegian fish and seafood are fresh products from pure sea
(Spanish fruits are fresh products from pure nature)

Strongly disagree-strongly agree

Norwegians take care of nature
(Spanish people take care of nature)
Strongly disagree-strongly agree

Norwegians have long traditions and knowledge of fishing
(Spanish farmers have long traditions and knowledge of agriculture)
Strongly disagree-strongly agree

Norwegian fishermen combine craftsmanship with modern technology
(Spanish farmers combine craftsmanship with modern technology)
Strongly disagree-strongly agree

Norwegian fisheries are sustainable and environmentally friendly
(Spanish agriculture is sustainable and environmentally friendly)
Strongly disagree-strongly agree

Instead of clicking on this scale, please click the blue dot on the bottom of the page
Strongly disagree-strongly agree

9. Imagine that you are in the store to buy seafood and you see the product in the photo below. Look at the photo.
(show photo of product – Norwegian mussels, with/without logo)

10. Please write down the thoughts you had when you saw the product. Please write down as many as you can.
Open answers (8-9 boxes)

11. We would now like you to give us your opinion of the product in the photo. On a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means strongly disagree and 7 means strongly agree, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

the product in the photo is a good product
Strongly disagree-strongly agree

I like the product in the photo
Strongly disagree-strongly agree

I have a positive attitude towards the product in the photo
Strongly disagree-strongly agree

12. We will now show you a logo that we would like you to evaluate: *(show logo)*

13. We would now like you to consider the logo itself, not the products. Please click the number that best describes your evaluation of the logo.

Bad	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**good**
Dislike	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**like**

Unpleasant   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   pleasant

14. The logo was developed for the Norwegian Seafood industry. Please give us your evaluation of it. On a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means strongly disagree and 7 means strongly agree, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

The logo expresses important product attributes for fish and seafood
Strongly disagree-strongly agree

The logo gives me ideas that facilitate my evaluation of fish and seafood products.
Strongly disagree-strongly agree

The logo is well suited for the fish and seafood products?
Strongly disagree-strongly agree

It will be easy for people to understand that this logo is a symbol of Norwegian fish and seafood?
Strongly disagree-strongly agree

15. On a scale from 1 to 7, how important do you consider origin to be with respect to the quality of the following products: (1 means not important at all, 7 means very important)

Salmon
Cod
Mussels
Ham
Sausages
Beef
Oranges
Apples
Grapes
Rice
Flour
Sugar

16. How typical would you say the following product-origins are? Please give a value on a scale where 1 means not at all typical and 7 means very typical

Salmon-Norway
Salmon-Scotland
Salmon- Belgium
Cod-Norway
Cod-Iceland
Cod-Spain
Mussels-Belgium
Mussels-Norway
Mussels-Netherlands
Ham-Italy

Ham-Scotland
Ham-.Norway
Sausages-Italy
Sausages-Spain
Sausages-Germany
Beef-Belgium
Beef-Scotland
Beef-Spain
Oranges-Spain
Oranges-Greece
Oranges-Italy
Apples-Italy
Apples-Spain
Apples-Germany
Grapes-Spain
Grapes-Italy
Grapes-Germany

17. How often would you say you eat **FISH/SALMON/COD/MUSSELS**?

Answer	Code
Twice a week or more often	1
Approx. once a week	2
2-3 times a month	3
Approx. once a month	4
Approx. every second month	5
Approx. every third month	6
2-3 times a year	7
More seldom	8
I never eat fish/salmon/cod/mussels	9
Don't know / no answer	10

or

17. How often would you say you eat **FRUIT/ORANGES/GRAPES/APPLES**?

Answer	Code
3 or more every day	1
1-2 every day	2
Every second day	3
Two times a week	4
Once a week	5
2-3 times a month	6
	7
More seldom	8
I never eat fruit/oranges/grapes/apples	9
Don't know / no answer	10

French version

Y-a-t'il dans la liste ci-dessous des aliments que vous ne consommez jamais ?
Si oui, merci de les cocher.

[] Viande
[] Poisson
[] Fruits de mer
[] Fruits
[] Légumes
[] Pain
[] Pâtes
[] Riz

Bonjour,
Nous réalisons une étude scientifique afin de savoir quelles associations les gens établissent entre différents pays et produits. Les résultats permettront d'établir une meilleure communication sur l'aspect nutritionnel des produits alimentaires.
Ce questionnaire porte sur un ou deux exemples de produits, il ne devrait donc pas vous prendre plus de 10 minutes. Cette étude étant menée auprès d'un nombre restreint de personnes, votre opinion est de la plus grande importance et nous vous sommes très reconnaissants d'y participer.
Veuillez remplir le questionnaire suivant d'une traite, sans faire de pause. Il n'y a pas de bonne ou mauvaise réponse. Nous souhaitons simplement connaître votre avis sur différents sujets.
Les réponses sont traitées de façon anonyme. Si vous ne pouvez pas répondre aux questions, merci de quitter simplement le questionnaire plutôt que répondre "je ne sais pas" ou une réponse similaire.
Notez que vous ne pouvez pas retourner en arrière une fois que vous avez cliqué sur le bouton en bas de page.

1. Voici une publicité que nous allons vous demander d'évaluer selon différents critères. Veuillez l'examiner attentivement.
(ad for Norwegian salmon)

2. Nous souhaiterions connaître votre avis sur différents aspects de cette publicité. Sur une échelle allant de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à " pas du tout d'accord et 7 à "Tout à fait d'accord", dans quelle mesure êtes-vous d'accord avec les déclarations suivantes ?

J'aime beaucoup cette publicité.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Cette publicité m'inspire une bonne image.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Je pense que c'est une bonne publicité.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

3. Imaginez que vous êtes dans le magasin pour acheter du poisson et que vous voyez le produit de la photo ci-dessous. Regardez la photo.
(show photo of product)

4. Veuillez noter les idées qui vous sont venues spontanément à l'esprit lorsque vous avez vu le produit. Vous pouvez noter autant d'idées et d'associations que vous le désirez.
Open answers (8-9 boxes)

5. Nous souhaiterions connaître votre opinion sur le produit présenté sur la photo.
Sur une échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à " pas du tout d'accord et 7 à "Tout à fait d'accord", veuillez donner votre avis sur les déclarations suivantes :

Le produit sur la photo est un bon produit.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Le produit sur la photo me plaît.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Le produit sur la photo m'inspire une bonne image.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

6. La publicité présentée au début de ce questionnaire contenait à la fois des informations textuelles et visuelles.
Veuillez noter les informations et autres détails dont vous souvenez.
(open answers 8-9 boxes)

7. Nous souhaiterions à présent connaître votre position vis-à-vis du saumon en général.
Sur une échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à "Pas du tout d'accord" et 7 à "Tout à fait d'accord", veuillez donner votre avis sur les déclarations suivantes :

Le saumon est très important pour moi.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Je suis très intéressé(e) par le saumon.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

8. Nous souhaiterions connaître l'opinion que vous avez de la Norvège (L'Espagne) et des norvégiens (des espagnols).
Sur une échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à "Pas du tout d'accord" et 7 à "Tout à fait d'accord", veuillez donner votre avis sur les déclarations suivantes :
Le poisson de Norvège est issu des eaux froides et pures.
(Les fruits d'Espagne poussent sous un climat chaud et ensoleillé.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

La Norvège a une nature rude, magnifique et unique.
(L'Espagne a une nature riche, magnifique et unique.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Les poissons et les fruits de mer de Norvège sont des produits frais issus d'eaux pures.
(Les fruits d'Espagne sont des produits frais issus d'une nature pure.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Les Norvégiens prennent soin de la nature.
(Les Espagnols prennent soin de la nature.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Les Norvégiens ont de longues traditions et de grandes connaissances en matière de pêche.
(Les cultivateurs espagnols ont de longues traditions et de grandes connaissances en matière d'agriculture.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Les pêcheurs norvégiens associent leur expérience du métier aux technologies modernes.
(Les cultivateurs espagnols associent leur expérience du métier aux technologies modernes.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

La pêche en Norvège est une activité durable et respectueuse de l'environnement.
(L'agriculture en Espagne est une activité durable et respectueuse de l'environnement.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Veuillez ici ne pas cliquer sur l'échelle de notation, mais sur le bouton bleu situé en bas de page
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

9. Imaginez que vous êtes dans le magasin pour acheter des coquillages et que vous voyez le produit de la photo ci-dessous. Regardez la photo.
(show photo of product)

10. Veuillez noter les idées qui vous sont venues spontanément à l'esprit lorsque vous avez vu le produit. Vous pouvez noter autant d'idées et d'associations que vous le désirez.
Open answers (8-9 boxes)

11. Nous souhaiterions connaître votre opinion sur le produit présenté sur la photo.
Sur une échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à " pas du tout d'accord et 7 à "Tout à fait d'accord", veuillez donner votre avis sur les déclarations suivantes :

Le produit sur la photo est un bon produit.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Le produit sur la photo me plaît.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Le produit sur la photo m'inspire une bonne image.
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

12. Nous allons à présent vous montrer un logo pour lequel nous souhaiterions avoir votre avis. Veuillez l'examiner attentivement. *(show logo)*

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13. Nous souhaiterions à présent connaître votre opinion sur ce logo lui-même et non sur le produit. Veuillez cliquer sur les chiffres qui qualifient le mieux votre évaluation du logo.

Mauvais   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Bon
Je n'aime pas [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] J'aime
Désagréable   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Agréable

14. Ce logo a été créé pour la collective des produits de la mer de Norvège. Nous souhaiterions avoir votre avis à son sujet.
Sur une échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à "Pas du tout d'accord" et 7 à "Tout à fait d'accord", veuillez donner votre avis sur les déclarations suivantes :

Ce logo reflète bien les caractéristiques importantes des poissons et des produits de la mer de Norvège.
(Ce logo reflète bien les caractéristiques importantes des fruits d'Espagne).
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Ce logo m'inspire des idées qui m'aident à évaluer les poissons et produits de la mer de Norvège.
(Ce logo m'inspire des idées qui m'aident à évaluer les fruits d'Espagne).
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Ce logo convient bien aux poissons et produits de la mer de Norvège.
(Ce logo convient bien aux fruits d'Espagne.)
Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

Il est facile de comprendre que ce logo symbolise les poissons et produits de la mer de Norvège.
(Il est facile de comprendre que ce logo symbolise les fruits d'Espagne.)

Pas du tout d'accord [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait d'accord

15. Nous aimerions à présent savoir l'importance que vous accordez au pays d'origine en termes de qualité. Sur une échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à "Aucune importance" et 7 à "Beaucoup d'importance", quelle importance attachez-vous au pays d'origine pour la qualité des produits suivants :

Saumon   Aucune importance [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Beaucoup
d'importance
Cabillaud   Aucune importance [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Beaucoup
d'importance
Moules   Aucune importance [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Beaucoup
d'importance
Jambon   Aucune importance [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Beaucoup
d'importance
Saucisses   Aucune importance [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Beaucoup
d'importance

Bœuf d'importance	Aucune importance [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Beaucoup
Oranges d'importance	Aucune importance [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Beaucoup
Pommes d'importance	Aucune importance [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Beaucoup
Raisin d'importance	Aucune importance [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Beaucoup
Riz d'importance	Aucune importance [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Beaucoup
Farine d'importance	Aucune importance [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Beaucoup
Sucre d'importance	Aucune importance [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Beaucoup

16. Certaines associations "Produit - Pays d'origine" nous semblent parfois typiques ou évidentes. Sur une échelle de 1 à 7, 1 correspondant à "Pas du tout typique" et 7 à "Tout à fait typique", veuillez indiquer votre avis sur les associations suivantes :

Saumon - Norvège   Pas du tout Typique [1] [2] [3] [4] [5] [6] [7] Tout à fait typique
Saumon - Ecosse
Saumon - Belgique
Cabillaud - Norvège
Cabillaud - Islande
Cabillaud - Espagne
Moules - Belgique
Moules - Norvège
Moules - Pays-Bas
Jambon - Italie
Jambon - Ecosse
Jambon - Norvège
Saucisses - Italie
Saucisses - Espagne
Saucisses - Allemagne
Bœuf - Belgique
Bœuf - Ecosse
Bœuf - Espagne
Oranges - Espagne
Oranges - Grèce
Oranges - Italie
Pommes - Italie
Pommes - Espagne
Pommes - Allemagne
Raisin - Espagne
Raisin - Italie
Raisin - Allemagne

17. **À quelle fréquence diriez-vous que vous consommez du poisson/saumon/cabillaud/moules?**
[] Deux fois par semaine ou plus
[] Environ 1 fois par semaine
[] 2 à 3 fois par mois
[] Environ 1 fois par mois
[] Environ 1 fois tous les 2 mois
[] Environ 1 fois tous les 3 mois
[] 2 à 3 fois par an
[] Moins souvent encore
[] Je ne mange jamais de poisson/saumon/cabillaud/moules
[] Je ne sais pas

Ou :
À quelle fréquence diriez-vous que vous consommez des fruits/oranges/raisin/pommes
[] Trois fois par jour ou plus
[] Environ 1-2 fois par jour
[] Tous les jours
[] Environ deux fois par semaine
[] Environ 1 fois par semaine
 [] 2 à 3 fois par mois
[] Moins souvent encore
[] Je ne mange jamais des fruit/oranges/raisin/pommes
[] Je ne sais pas

Replication of mediation analysis (from Study 1) in Study 2.

Figure 10: A mediation model depicting the relations among variables typicality perception (X), origin attitude (M) and product evaluation (Y).
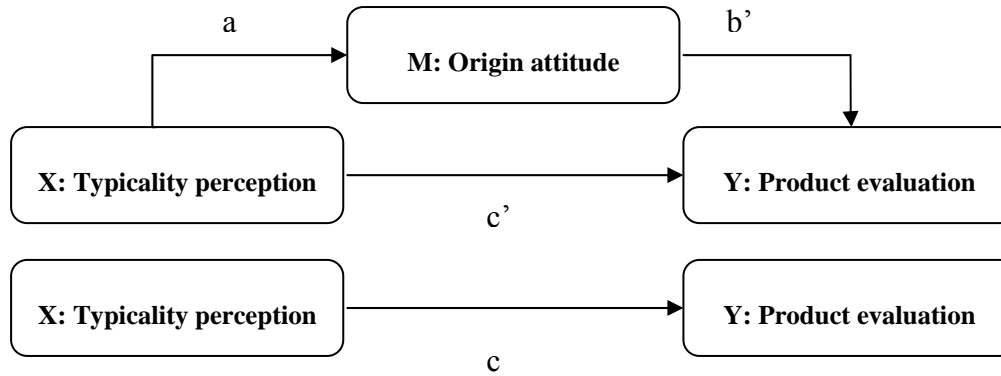
Table 21: Mediation analysis first product, Study 2
(X=typicality perception, Y=product evaluation, M=origin attitude)

Condition	Total effect c = a*b'+c'	a	b'	c'	Sobel's test
	ß (B/ SE B)	ß (B/ SE B)	ß (B/ SE B)	ß (B/ SE B)	$z = a*b/ \text{SQRT} (b^2*s_a^2 + a^2*s_b^2)$
New product with logo	**.478***** (.380/.049)	**.503***** (.304/.037)	**.311***** (.411/.092)	**.315***** (.252/.055)	z = 3.92 p < 0.001
R² **(N)**	**.225***** (203)	**.249***** (200)		**.287***** (199)	
New product no logo	**.344***** (.264/.051)	**.360***** (.221/.041)	**.370**** (.463/.083)	**.211**** (.162/.051)	z = 3.88 p < 0.001
R² **(N)**	**.114***** (200)	**.125***** (201)		**.230***** (200)	
Established product with logo	**.322***** (340/.068)	**.223***** (.185/.056)	**.504***** (.638/.073)	**.211***** (.221/.073)	z = 3.09 p < 0.01
R² **(N)**	**.099***** (215)	**.045***** (212)		**.339***** (211)	
Established product no logo	**.144*** (.203/.100)	**.415***** (.435/.069)	**.540***** (.725/.092)	**-.080** (-.112/.096)	z = 4.92 p < 0.001
R² **(N)**	**.016*** (197)	**.168***** (195)		**.254***** (192)	

* p < .05
** p < .01
*** p < .001
a = typicality perception on origin attitude
b = origin attitude on first product evaluation (partial coefficient)
c' = typicality perception on first product evaluation (partial coefficient)
z = Sobel's test of mediating effect
standardised coefficients in bold, unstandardised coefficients and standard error in parentheses.

Statistics, Study 2

Table 22: Descriptive statistics Study 2

Variable	Kurtosis	Skewness	Min	Max	N
Typicality established	6.449	-2.283	1	7	805
Typicality new	-1.168	.162	1	7	805
Product evaluation first product	.159	-.678	1	7	805
Product evaluation second product	-.087	-.429	1	7	805
Origin attitude	-.096	-.196	1	7	805
Typicality non-advertised	-.738	-.354	1	7	805
Evaluation established products	.362	-.687	1	7	805
Evaluation new products	-.168	-.439	1	7	805

Table 23: Test of assumptions of univariate homogeneity, Study 2

Variables	Levene's test of equality of error variances	
Dependent variables		
Typicality perceptions new products	F = .99	p = .398
Typicality perceptions established products	F = 1.41	p = .237
Typicality perceptions non-advertised products	F = 2.04	p = .107
Product evaluation new products	F = 1.92	p = .125
Product evaluation established products	F = 3.68	p = .012

Table 24: Correlation matrix for regressions in Study 2

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Typicality established							
2. Typicality new	.115**						
3. Origin attitude	.314**	.340**					
4. First product evaluation	.158**	.271**	.496**				
5. Second product evaluation	.192**	.344**	.451**	.389**			
6. Typicality non-advertised	.239**	.415**	.265**	.151**	.163**		
7. Evaluation established prod.	.241**	.222**	.512**	.659**	.730**	.129**	
8. Evaluation new product	.117**	.392**	.447**	.750**	.675**	.187**	.418**

** $p > .01$