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WEB APPENDIX A

PUBLICATION OUTLETS

We examine 417 journal articles (551 studies) published from 1962 to 2022 to extract important granular characteristics of the literature and to summarize the findings of the most influential CO contributions.

The distribution of CO publication outlets over time appears in Web Appendix Table A1.

| Insert Table A1 |
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METHODOLOGY DETAILS OF THE COUNTRY-OF-ORIGIN LITERATURE

Research Scope. Table A2 presents the research scope of CO studies. In terms of focal country or geographic context, the majority (76.2%) of studies involve a developed country (particularly the US, Austria, and Canada), whereas developing and emerging countries were represented in 28.3% and 27.4% of the studies, respectively. However, we note a marked increase over time (to over one-third in the latest period) in the use of developing or emerging economies. This overemphasis on developed country context poses a potential problem because in contrast to consumers from developing or emerging nations, developed market consumers are more affluent and likely less cautious in their purchases and, therefore, CO may be less salient (or even absent) in their buying decisions (Peterson & Jolibert, 1995). Also, despite indications that CO effects vary by the nationality, ethnicity, or culture of the consumer (cf., Bilkey & Nes, 1982), few attempts were made to take these factors into consideration either within a single country or a cross-country setting.

Asian and European countries were more frequently used as reference countries (55.4% and 54.4% of studies, respectively). North America (and particularly the U.S.) was the object of 39.7% of the studies reviewed, while countries from other continents (e.g., Latin America, Africa, and Oceania) have received much less attention. In terms of economic development, the thrust of research was on developed countries (80.3%), whereas developing and emerging countries received much less attention (37.4% and 36.8%, respectively). The nature of the reference country provided an issue of concern by some researchers (e.g., Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004). This is due to the tendency in some studies (e.g., Kwak et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2004) to refer vaguely to products from foreign countries (as opposed to

focusing on a specific foreign country), which may include countries with completely different economic, political, technological, or other characteristics affecting consumer perceptions.

In the majority (65.2%) of CO studies the unit of analysis was the real consumer, while the remainder (31.9%) used students, which can very likely be attributed to probably convenience, accessibility, greater speed, and lower costs. Although more extensive use of students in samples was made during the earlier periods, researchers have increasingly relied on real consumer subjects (particularly derived from consumer panels) over time. The use of student samples has come under increasing criticism on the basis of its external validity (Raynolds, Simintiras, & Diamantopoulos, 2003). The CO literature highlights three main weaknesses in using student samples: (a) student subjects are a very special group of consumers in terms of age and education, which is not representative of the population; (b) have limited knowledge and/or experience of foreign countries to provide accurate assessments of their products; and (c) possess limited financial resources, which is responsible for giving lower priority to the product's CO in their purchasing decisions (Liefeld, 1993; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995).

A related issue has to do with the market focus of the studies conducted. Our review revealed that the vast majority (92.2%) of the studies adopted a general market approach, with only a small proportion focusing on a special segment, such as young adults (Han & Nam, 2020) or middle-class consumers (Wang & Yang, 2008). However, the implicit assumption that CO influences all consumers lacks external validity and, hence, erroneous because of indications that some individuals (e.g., cosmopolitan consumers) place greater importance on CO in their purchase decisions than others. In fact, ethnocentric consumers may reject non-domestic products whereas high animosity individuals may ignore products made in certain countries. In this regard, Samiee's (1994) framework explicitly recognizes CO's relevance for only a specific segment within each market, which makes a segment-based approach to CO research highly relevant. Notably, these CO-sensitive segments do not constitute an intermarket segment, which may necessitate a customized approach in each focal country for their study (Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 2000; Samiee, 1994).

Product Emphasis. Issues related to products used in CO research are shown in Table A3. Nearly half

(46.3%) of the studies use a single product in their investigations, while another 34.1% focused on two or more products. Studies using single products exhibit a gradual increase over time, and vice versa in for multiple products. Surprisingly, 17.1% of the studies provided no information as to the number of products used in their investigations. This was mostly the case of studies referring to CO perceptions regarding products manufactured in a certain country in general, as in the case of product country image studies (e.g., Diamantopoulos et al., 2020).

Insert Table A3

The majority of CO studies (43.9%) used real products, while 32.7% employed fictitious ones. This notable proportion of studies using fictitious products was prevalent in all time periods and was associated mainly with experimental designs aiming to isolate the effect of certain variables. However, this use of fictitious products by some studies has created doubts as to whether their findings truly reflect consumers' views regarding a product's CO. Approximately a quarter (23.8%) of the studies (especially those adopting a more general approach to consumer perceptions of products manufactured in a certain foreign country) did not disclose this information.

Product type designates whether an item (stimulus) is used in a study and, if so, whether its origin is attributed to a single (non-hybrid) or more (hybrid) locations. This has been a major concern in CO research because of shifting competitive advantage and/or comparative advantage of nations. Further, with the growing globalization and intra- and inter-firm offshoring of parts, components, and subassemblies, it is common knowledge that CO of some products could be attributed to two or more origins. A consequence of hybrid products is the likely consumer confusion as to the true origin of some products. Concurrently, given the dynamic nature of markets, firms modify their international sourcing strategies on an ongoing basis, which changes associated origins for both hybrid and non-hybrid products. Such concerns have led some scholars to argue that the CO phenomenon has essentially lost its relevance (e.g., Brodowski, Tan, & Meilich, 2004; Usunier, 2006). However, our review revealed that only 13.4% of the studies included hybrid products in their investigations, as opposed to the majority (60.4%) that focused on non-hybrid products.

A final dimension relating to the product is its demands on consumer resources during purchasing

process, that is, high- or low-involvement. The majority of studies reviewed used high involvement products (60.1%); low-involvement goods were used to a lesser extent (39.9%). However, CO appears to be more relevant for purchases of low-involvement products, for which limited or no information about products might be available for access during purchasing process, thus motivating greater reliance on extrinsic cues, such as a country's image. Examples of high-involvement products include cars, consumer electronics, and watches, and dairy products and apparel are representative of low-involvement goods. About 17.8% of the studies referred to foreign products in general and, thus, the degree of involvement was not a consideration.

Sampling and Data Collection Methods. Sampling and data collection methods used in CO studies are shown Table A4. With regard to sampling design, more than two-thirds (70.4%) of the studies employed non-probability samples (usually taking the form of quota samples or convenience samples), while another 19.1% used probability samples. Notably, while the use of non-probability samples showed a steady increase over time, the opposite was true with regard to probability samples. Excessive reliance on non-probability designs (due to frequent use of student samples) has been criticized on the ground that this may lead to biased results (Raynolds, Simintiras, & Diamantopoulos, 2003; Usunier, 2006). However, researchers have been increasingly relying on online consumer panels (e.g., Amazon Mechanical Turk) during the last decades. Online recruiting of respondents offers the added advantage to control demographic profiles. Still, disclosure of fine-grain information related to recruiting of respondents has been rare, thus raising questions regarding the appropriateness of samples used.

Insert Table A4

More than two-fifths (43.0%) of the studies did not provide any information about the representativeness of samples used, which raises questions regarding external validity of reported findings. Another 29.9% acknowledged their use of non-representative samples as a key limitation (with this being more frequent in studies conducted in the 1990s and 2000s, particularly those using student samples). A minority of studies (24.5%) reported using representative samples. Sample representativeness is always critical as it accommodates the generalization of study findings. For example, CO perceptions tend to become more favorable in the case of younger, more educated, and more affluent respondents

(e.g., Chaney & Gamble, 2008; Schaefer, 1997). In addition, female consumers have a higher tendency to correctly designate origins of products (Samiee et al., 2005). Thus, non-representative samples, as in the case of student samples which are overrepresented by young, educated, and less affluent consumers, are consequential as they mask the meaning of reported findings.

With regard to sample size, only about a quarter (25.2%) of the studies had samples exceeding the 500 mark. The prevalence of small sample sizes can be attributed to the fact that a notable number of researchers, especially those engaged in experimental designs, for control purposes opted to have several samples comprising a smaller number of respondents rather than a single sample with a larger number of respondents. However, the use of smaller sample sizes in this line of inquiry poses a potential problem in yielding reliable and representative results. Despite reliance on small samples, there was a tendency to use larger sample sizes over time. In fact, more than three-fifths (61.5%) of the studies had samples below 250 units during the early periods of CO research; however, this proportion declined to 38.7% during the last decade.

The most frequent data collection method was personal interviews (reported by 51.5% of the studies), owing it to the fact that a significant number of studies had a laboratory/experimental research designs, or used a mall-intercept method where data were mainly gathered from respondents on a face-to-face basis. Electronic questionnaires were ranked second (particularly in studies reporting larger samples), with nearly half (48%) of the studies conducted during the last decade using this approach. The use of drop-in questionnaires, mail questionnaires, and telephone interviews was rare (5.8%, 3.3%, and 1.6% of the studies, respectively).

Construct Measurement and Analytical Procedures. As shown in Table A5, less than two-fifths (37.0%) did not clearly specify their operationalizations of the CO construct. Of the remainder, 44.1% explained this as a 'halo' construct, that is, consumers use country image to infer quality, perhaps because of limited knowledge regarding a country's products (Han 1989). Another 17.2% considered CO a summary construct, that is, consumers using abstract information about a country's product, because products with identical CO have very similar attributes (Erickson et al., 1985). Chronologically, while the use of a halo construct experienced a downward trend over time, the opposite was true for the summary construct.

Insert Table A5

More than a fifth (22.1%) of the studies treated CO as a single cue, another 38.5% employed multiple cues for the focal product along with CO information, while the remainder (37.4%) did not report the use of any CO cues. Although treating CO as a single cue was mainly a characteristic of early studies (reported in more than half), subsequent studies employed multiple cues, incorporating general product attributes together with specific product dimensions (e.g., brand name, price, warranty) in addition to CO information. In relation to this, Peterson and Jolibert's (1995) meta-analysis revealed that single-cue studies tend to produce larger CO effects compared to multiple cue studies which provide more realistic settings. Notably, studies that did not specify CO cues adopted a foreign—domestic country dichotomy approach (rather than designating a specific foreign country) and/or focused on consumer perceptions of foreign products in general rather than referring to specific products.

With regard to origin dimensions examined, in the majority of cases (42.5%) this was the CO, defined as a specified foreign country toward which various consumer responses were sought. This was determined through various methods, such as taking into consideration major trading partners, neighbors, or regional trade agreement parties of the home country, to fulfill the specific study objectives (e.g., comparison between developed versus developing countries). Brand origin, that is, the country that a brand is associated with or the country of headquarters in which the brand owner belongs (Samiee et al., 2005), was the second most examined origin aspect, reported by 25.6% of studies. However, while the focus on CO has declined over time, the opposite was true with regard to brand origin. This increasing emphasis on brand origin can be attributed to researchers' growing interest in brand origin recognition, classification, or recall accuracy (e.g., Cakici & Shukla, 2017; Mandler et al., 2017), international brand extension (e.g., Sichtmann & Diamantopoulos, 2013), and cross-border brand alliance or acquisition (e.g., Fong et al., 2013). With intensifying globalization trends and the increasing prevalence of hybrid products, more recent studies embarked on a more fine-grained approach and decomposed origin dimensions in terms of country-of-manufacture (7.6%), country-of-assembly (2.5%), country-of-design (2.5%), and country-of-parts (1.1%) (e.g., Ahmed & d'Astous, 2008; Chao, 1998; Tse & Lee, 1993).

Data purification was relatively inadequate, especially during the early phases of CO research.

Reliability analysis for the constructs employed was reported in more than two-thirds (68.4%) of the studies, although during the initial decades of our investigation period this proportion was significantly lower. Validity analysis was reported in half (50.5%) of the studies, and again there was an upward trend of performing this analysis over time (from 25.6% in the first three decades to 61.3% in the last decade). Endogeneity analysis was reported by a small number of studies conducted during recent years, which was expected, not only because this type of analysis is a recent phenomenon, but also because a considerable proportion of the articles reviewed were based on experiments, which accommodate making causal inferences (Antonakis et al., 2010).

Finally, more than a third (34.7%) of the CO studies used bivariate (e.g., ANOVA) analytical methods, with this being more evident during the first decades of the review period. Another 33.2% of studies used multivariate analytical methods, with the most common being MANOVA, multiple regression, and confirmatory factor analysis. Modeling approaches, such as structural equation modeling, were employed by 23.2% of the studies, with their major application areas testing conceptual models with multiple relationships linking consumer responses associated with foreign products to their various antecedents (e.g., consumer psychographic characteristics). Other types of analyses included econometric modeling, associative network analysis, and fuzzy logic analysis.

THEMATIC CATEGORIES

We identified 76 thematic areas in the CO literature and classified these into 10 cohesive categories (Table A6). The first thematic category concerns *environmental effects* on consumers' CO perceptions, comprising economic, cultural, political, and related factors, which have been used in 12.9% of CO studies. Economic factors pertaining to both home and reference countries, such as a country's level of economic development, competitiveness, and perceived economic threat are the most frequently studied variables (7.8% of CO studies). These measures are used as predictors of consumer beliefs about products of foreign origin (e.g., Ahmed & D'Astous, 2008) or as moderators of links between other antecedents (e.g., cosmopolitanism) (e.g., Jin et al., 2015) and outcomes of CO perceptions (e.g., consumer preferences) (e.g., Evanschitzky et al., 2008). Cultural factors are examined in 4.0% of the studies, mainly with regard to their direct links to consumer responses to foreign products (e.g., Gürhan-Canli &

Maheswaran, 2000) or their moderating effects (e.g., Tran & Paparoidamis, 2020). Emphasis has been placed on the role of cultural distance between the home and reference countries in moderating the effect of various factors (e.g., ethnocentrism, animosity) on consumer responses (e.g., quality evaluation, willingness to buy) to foreign products (e.g., Balabanis, Stathopoulou, & Qiao, 2019). The role of political forces (e.g., political governance distance) has received much less attention, and the same is also true for technological differences between home and reference countries.

Insert Table A6

Product/brand influences—that is, general or specific characteristics of products and their interactions with countries—are researched in 38.7% of CO studies. The bulk of these studies use general product characteristics, such as product type, shape, and size (e.g., Ulgado & Lee, 1998), or specific product attributes, with the most frequent being price (e.g., Teas & Agarwal, 2000), brand name (e.g., Ozretic-Dosen, Skare, & Krupka, 2007; Ulgado & Lee, 1993), and warranty/service (Ahmed & d'Astous, 1995) in conjunction with or as an alternative to CO information in evaluating foreign products. The use of product characteristics in CO research is more common in earlier decades, notably during the 1990s. Brand-related factors have also received focal attention, with an emphasis on: (a) brand image, such as the influence of the brand image of foreign products on consumer responses (e.g., Vendrell-Herrero et al., 2018); (b) brand positioning, such as exploring the effects of local, foreign, and global culture on attitudes toward foreign brands (e.g., Bartikowski, Fastoso, & Gierl, 2019); (c) brand globalness/localness, such as examining brand origin as a moderator of the link between brand globalness and consumer responses (e.g., Winit et al., 2014); and (d) brand name congruency, such as exploring direct or moderating effects of brand name congruency on consumer responses (e.g., Häubl & Elrod, 1999; Melnyk et al., 2012). The role of product involvement has also received some attention, particularly in regard to the impact of CO information on consumers (e.g., Schaefer, 1997) and its influence on brand origin recognition (e.g., Martin & Cerviño, 2011). Finally, some studies focus on communication issues, such as the impact of advertising claims on foreign product evaluations (e.g., Verlegh, Steenkamp, & Meulenberg, 2005), the role of CO information versus advertising with respect to buying intentions toward foreign products (e.g., Klenosky, Benet, & Chadraba, 1996), and advertising influences on import buying behaviors (e.g.,

Herche, 1994).

The role of consumer demographics in shaping CO perceptions or responses associated with foreign products is explored in 5.3% of the studies; however, their use has exhibited a downward trend over time. With regard to gender, female consumers have been found to rate foreign products more favorably than men (e.g., Chaney & Gamble, 2008), while they were also more competent than men in identifying and recalling origins of foreign brands (Abdellah-Kilani & Zorai, 2019; Samiee et al., 2005). Age is revealed to produce mixed results regarding its effect on foreign product evaluations (e.g., Ahmed & d'Astous, 2008) and foreign brand awareness (Abdellah-Kilani & Zorai, 2019; Martin & Cerviño, 2011). Education level positively affects CO perceptions (e.g., Ahmed & d'Astous, 2007) and influences foreign brand recognition accuracy and recall (Abdellah-Kilani & Zorai, 2019). The role of income in shaping consumer evaluations of foreign products receives mixed results, depending on the reference CO (e.g., Chaney & Gamble, 2008; Herche, 1992). Nationality has mainly served as a link to consumer responses, particularly in cross-cultural studies (Ahmed & d'Astous, 2007; Johansson et al., 1985). Limited attention has been paid to regions, namely, whether consumers' within-country residence affects their CO perceptions of and responses to foreign products (e.g., Kim, Kim, & Lee 2018). Other less frequently examined demographic characteristics include marital status, occupation, and international experience.

Consumer psychographics (i.e., positive or negative predispositions of consumers toward home and foreign countries) have received significant attention in CO research, with 34.3% of all studies including such measures. Consumer ethnocentrism and its corresponding scale is the most used psychographic construct in CO studies (Shimp &Sharma, 1987), appearing in 16.5% of the studies we reviewed. A large proportion of researchers using the consumer ethnocentrism scale have adopted much shorter forms, with some comprising as few as four items, in contrast to Shimp and Sharma's (1987) original 17-item format. Consumer ethnocentrism has been used mainly in relation to various consumer reactions toward products from designated COs, such as product evaluations (e.g., Verlegh, 2007), attitudes (e.g., Brodowsky et al., 2004), and willingness to buy (e.g., Ettenson & Klein, 2005). Consumer animosity is included in fewer CO studies (8%), although attention to this issue has grown over time.

Animosity has been examined in relation to consumer responses to foreign products or brands, mainly in the form of product evaluations (e.g., Huang, Phau, & Lin, 2010) and intention/reluctance to buy (e.g., Khan, Daryanto, & Liu, 2019). Consumer identity has been used in a small proportion of CO studies (4.4%). This construct is conceptualized mostly along the global-local or global-national dichotomy and has been linked to attitudes, preferences, and intentions to buy foreign products (e.g., Micevski, Halkias, & Herz, 2019). Consumer patriotism, country affinity, cosmopolitanism, and xenocentrism are the focus of even fewer CO studies, most of which have been published more recently (e.g., Balabanis et al., 2019; Liu & Smeesters, 2010). Consumer nationalism exhibits declining use over time and has been used as an antecedent for purchase decision-making process for foreign products (Rawwas, Rajendran, & Wuehrer, 1996), foreign product reactions (Verlegh, 2007), and country image (Granzin, Brazell, & Painter, 1997).

Consumer familiarity with a country, product, or brand is used in 13.2% of the CO studies. Among these measures, product familiarity is used most often (8.0% of studies) and is considered influential when examining the effects of CO information on decision making (e.g., Eroglu & Machleit, 1989), brand origin recall accuracy (e.g., Abdellah-Kilani & Zorai, 2019), product country image (Zhang et al., 2019), and foreign product evaluation (Ahmed, d'Astous, & Eljabri, 2002), among others. Product familiarity has also been frequently used as a moderating variable between CO perceptions and consumer responses (e.g., Josiassen et al., 2008; Knight & Calantone, 2000), which capitalizes on its summary versus halo effect in evaluating the origin of foreign products (Han 1989). In contrast, brand familiarity (i.e., experience with and/or knowledge of a specific foreign brand) has been employed less extensively. Brand familiarity has been used as a driver of brand origin recognition (Martin & Cerviño, 2011), country image (e.g., Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, & Palihawadana, 2011; Lopez & Balabanis, 2020), and consumer responses to foreign products (Heslop et al., 2004; Zhuang et al., 2008). Finally, country familiarity is the least used among measures of consumer familiarity. Country familiarity has been used as a predictor of country image (Zhang et al., 2019), country-product associations (Usunier & Cestre, 2007), and brand origin classification performance (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2008).

Consumer decision-making in CO investigations is explored in 10.9% of the studies. Most studies focusing on consumer decision-making examine the salient aspects of CO, with an emphasis on using CO

as a cue in product/brand evaluation (e.g., Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2017), relative importance of the CO cue compared with other cues in evaluating/choosing products (e.g., DuPreez, Diamantopoulos, & Schlegelmilch, 1994; Ozretic-Dosen et al., 2007), and drivers and outcomes of using the CO cue in consumer decision-making (e.g., Eroglu & Machleit, 1989). The evaluation of alternatives, including foreign products, is used in several studies. Issues examined in this group include the use of assessment criteria to choose domestic versus foreign market offerings (Kaynak, Kucukemiroglu, & Kara, 1994), the evaluation of alternative products with and without CO labels (Berry et al., 2015), decision-making styles utilized when choosing between domestic and imported brands (Wang, Siu, & Hui, 2004), and the impact of evaluation mode on the CO-product evaluation link (Chu et al., 2010). Information search has also received scant attention. CO topics incorporating information search include information sources used by consumers in evaluating products from a certain CO (Leonidou et al., 1999), CO effects on information search for in decision-making (Chao & Gupta, 1995), and deliberate versus spontaneous choice conditions influencing country stereotype effects on consumer responses (Diamantopoulos et al., 2017). Finally, a limited number of studies (e.g., Levin & Jasper, 1996) have been conducted on the motivations underlying consumers' preferences for foreign goods.

Country image is one of the most common issues in the CO literature, having been used in 35.6% of the studies. The term "country image" can be traced to Nagashima (1970), an early contributor to the CO literature, who broadly defines it as an image held about a country. Since then, country image has been recognized as a complex construct, comprising cognitive, affective, conative, and normative elements, which can be conceptualized at different levels referring to a country and/or its products (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). Broadly, country image is viewed as having a direct effect on consumer responses (e.g., intention, evaluation) to foreign products (Heslop et al., 2008; Knight & Calantone, 2000; Laroche et al., 2005; Li et al., 2014). Product country image—that is, consumers' general perceptions of products from a certain country (Roth & Romeo, 1992)—is the most widely studied (18.5%) measure, closely followed by macro-country image—that is, cognitive and affective characteristics of a country and its people as perceived by consumers (16.7%) (Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 2002). A smaller number of studies (7.1%) focus on consumers' image perceptions of a specific product category originating from a

foreign country (Han, 1989), while few studies, conducted mainly during the last decade, employ human personality traits (e.g., agreeableness, introversion, warmth) to stereotype countries (e.g., d'Astous & Boujbel, 2007; Magnusson, Westjohn, & Sirianni, 2019; Zeugner-Roth & Zabkar, 2015). Finally, country ecological image has been used more recently as another country image dimension that may affect consumer responses (e.g., Dekhili et al., 2015).

Consumer responses to CO effects are the most widely studied thematic area (89.1%). This category, which has maintained its popularity across time period, refers to cognitive, behavioral, affective, and relational reactions of consumers to products from specified foreign origins. Consumer response forms most often studied include intention to buy and willingness to pay (34.7%), consumer evaluation (34.1%), consumer attitudes (19.1%), and consumer preferences (9.8%). Notably, while some studies treat them as single outcome variables of CO effects (e.g., Balabanis et al., 2019; Sharma, 2011), others examine interrelationships between them, with links among consumer evaluation, attitude, and intention to buy being the most common set (e.g., Nijssen & Douglas, 2004). Actual purchase, the most consequential aspect of CO research for firms, is used as an outcome variable in only 4.7% of the studies. Although limited attention to this important measure is likely due to measurement difficulties, it highlights the divide between the firm's interest and key outcomes sought in the vast majority of studies. Many other constructs have been used to measure consumer responses, albeit with a less frequency. Some consumer responses (e.g., CO-related thoughts, perceived risk, expectations) show no clear pattern of development, others (e.g., product beliefs, consumer perception, perceived value) follow a decreasing trend, and still others (e.g., brand origin recognition, brand image, word-of-mouth) show growing trends.

The *strategic marketing implications* of CO effects are the object of about 10% of the studies reviewed, with a longitudinal breakdown showing heightened interest in this area over the last decade. These include implications related to communication (3.6%), such as the interplay of product CO perceptions and message content (e.g., incorporating ethnocentric cues in advertisements) or execution strategies (e.g., endorser ethnicity–product CO congruence) (e.g., Roy et al., 2019; Tseng, Balabanis, & Liu, 2018). Implications for segmentation have received even less attention in CO studies (1.8%), with studies centering on the development of consumer profiles based on the role of consumer psychographics

(e.g., ethnocentrism or cosmopolitanism) in formulating consumer perceptions or certain behavioral aspects (e.g., salience of CO in decision-making) associated with foreign products (Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015). A small proportion of studies consider branding implications, particularly focusing on how a brand's CO could affect brand success or other branding-related decisions (e.g., brand extension) in international markets (Sichtmann & Diamantopoulos, 2013). Implication for distribution is the least studied issue, with an emphasis on how retail outlets in the home market can be used to favorably affect consumer reactions toward foreign products (Garrett, Lee, & Chu, 2017). The scant attention to distribution-related considerations is surprising given that consumer confidence in a retailer brand should impact consumer purchases of products and brands made available by the retailer. Going further, the retail brand itself may be of local or foreign origin (e.g., Zara, IKEA, Auchan), which may further influence choice behavior. Implications related to positioning (e.g., Johansson & Thorelli, 1985), labeling (e.g., Clarke, Owens, & Ford, 2000), and pricing (e.g., Chu, 2013) are sporadically considered.

Finally, *miscellaneous* topics (representing 8.5% of the total) used in CO research include (a) product harm crisis (when a specific foreign country's products or brands are involved in a crisis) and the subsequent impact on consumer CO perceptions (e.g., Crouch et al., 2021); (b) consumer reactions toward alliances between brands of different origin or toward the acquisition of one brand from a specific country by a brand from another country (Fang & Wang, 2018); (c) the interaction between corporate social responsibility strategy and country image and how this influences consumer responses to foreign brands (Magnusson et al., 2015; Matarazzo et al., 2020); (d) immigrant/ethnic consumers' CO-related behavior (e.g., Papadopoulos et al., 2017); and (e) consumer reactions to a brand shifting production to another country (Funk et al., 2010).

As we have noted and show in Table 4, only about one in 10 CO studies used one or more marketing strategy—related measures. Almost one-half of studies assess aspects of consumers' CO views and perceptions with respect to the communications message (e.g., Roy et al., 2019). It is noteworthy that, while a small proportion of CO studies used one or more marketing strategy measures, they were exclusively from the consumer perspective rather than considering firms' design and implementation of

marketing strategies that may incorporate consumers' CO perceptions. This significant divide provides ample opportunity for more advanced CO research designs that incorporate both consumer-level perceptions and outcomes along with firm-level marketing strategies and performance outcomes.

THE PROPOSED OVERARCHING FRAMEWORK TO CAPTURE THE CO ECO-SYSTEM

Paradox Theory. A "paradox" (Greek: *para* = beyond + *doxa* = belief) is defined as "contradictory yet interrelated elements that exist simultaneously and persist over time" (Smith & Lewis, 2011, p. 382). Paradox theory represents an approach for framing competing elements that sets forth "a dynamic equilibrium model of organizing, which depicts how cyclical responses to paradoxical tensions enable sustainability [and] peak performance in the present [and] enables success in the future" (Smith & Lewis, 2011, p. 381). Within firms, four paradoxes have been acknowledged: (1) learning (internal vs. external knowledge), (2) organizing (formalization vs. strategic flexibility), (3) belonging (clan vs. market culture), and (4) performing (customer- vs. technology-focused) (Smith & Lewis, 2011).

Within the CO ecosystem, we can apply the paradox theory to reconcile contradictory tensions that managers face. An advantage of the theory is its flexibility and ability to accommodate a range of designs, including more focused theories at each level, and reconcile competing and contradictory tensions. Several contradictions and subsequent tensions within the CO ecosystem are evident. For example, many studies demonstrate the influence of CO on consumer preferences and behavioral intentions, which contrasts starkly with marketplace surveys immediately following consumer purchases that reveal that very few consumers actually consider or use CO information during the buying process (e.g., Liefeld, 2004). Likewise, a growing number of studies demonstrate consumers' impoverished CO cognitive structures (e.g., Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2008), which creates further tension vis-à-vis an avalanche of research indicating CO's influence on consumers' purchase intentions. Such tension and contradiction are evident across the entities or levels within the CO ecosystem. Paradox theory can serve as foundational framing that accommodates more specific theories of researchers' preference for each entity (or level) included in the study to resolve such internal CO conflicts.

Another competing issue within the CO ecosystem is the challenge of formulating a cohesive IM

strategy, given that customer views regarding origins of brands and products are not universal. This condition requires local CO-related solutions that are managerially complex and more expensive if implemented on a global scale. Concurrently, world trade volume continues to grow and imported products from around the world are *sold* virtually everywhere. That is, global export sales continue to grow, and consumers everywhere buy imported products, seemingly irrespective of origin. These realities can represent additional contradictions of two imperatives in the CO ecosystem: an abundance of research indicating consumers' origin-based preferences and stated behavioral intentions versus the ever-growing volume of global sales of nonlocal products. We assert that such contradictions can be better framed, understood, and managed in the broad context of paradox theory.

Paradox theory can be used as the basis for investigating the concurrent presence of mutually exclusive but interrelated tensions (Cameron, 1986; Smith & Lewis, 2011). Importantly, research has shown that firms' responses to contradictions and tensions can be detrimental to their sales, growth, and financial performance (Håkansson & Ford, 2002). This issue is pivotal in effectively integrating CO effects in marketing strategy such that compromises across several tensions and contradictions result in optimum performance outcomes. A feature of paradox theory as an overarching theoretical framework in CO studies is that it can accommodate nested paradoxes with complementary perspectives (Cunha & Putnam, 2019; Smith & Lewis, 2011). This feature allows each section of a proposed model to be justified on pertinent theoretical grounds. For example, research may seek to manage the paradox of consumer reactions and preferences with respect to the CO content in marketing communications on the one hand and their limited use of CO information during purchases of the firm's brand on the other.

Table A1 Country-of-origin-related articles in academic journals

| | | Time Period | | | | | |
|---|---------|-------------|------------|-------------|-------------|--|--|
| | Total | <1990 | 1990s | 2000s | ≥2010s | | |
| | (n=417) | $(n_1=36)$ | $(n_2=84)$ | $(n_3=100)$ | $(n_4=197)$ | | |
| Journal | % | % | % | % | % | | |
| International Marketing Review | 24.2 | 13.9 | 26.2 | 26.0 | 24.4 | | |
| Journal of Business Research | 13.2 | - | 7.1 | 16.0 | 16.8 | | |
| European Journal of Marketing | 9.4 | - | 13.1 | 10.0 | 9.1 | | |
| Journal of International Marketing | 8.4 | ı | 8.3 | 5.0 | 11.7 | | |
| International Business Review | 7.9 | ı | 3.6 | 11.0 | 9.6 | | |
| Journal of International Business Studies | 7.0 | 16.7 | 7.1 | 5.0 | 6.1 | | |
| Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science | 4.6 | 8.3 | 8.3 | 4.0 | 2.5 | | |
| Psychology & Marketing | 4.3 | 1 | 8.3 | 5.0 | 3.0 | | |
| Journal of Marketing Research | 3.1 | 19.4 | 2.4 | 1.0 | 1.5 | | |
| Journal of Consumer Research | 2.4 | 8.3 | 2.4 | 4.0 | .5 | | |
| International Journal of Research in Marketing | 2.2 | ı | 3.6 | 3.0 | 1.5 | | |
| Marketing Letters | 1.9 | - | - | 2.0 | 3.0 | | |
| Management International Review | 1.7 | 2.8 | 3.6 | 3.0 | - | | |
| Journal of Advertising Research | 1.2 | 11.1 | 1.2 | ı | - | | |
| Journal of Retailing | 1.2 | 8.3 | - | 1.0 | .5 | | |
| Journal of Marketing | 1.0 | 5.6 | 1.2 | - | .5 | | |
| Journal of Consumer Psychology | 1.0 | - | - | 2.0 | 1.0 | | |
| Others | 5.3 | 5.6 | 3.6 | 2.0 | 8.3 | | |

Table A2
Research scope of country-of-origin studies

| Research sco | | Time period | | | | |
|-------------------|----------|-------------|------------|-------------|-------------|--|
| | Total | ≤1980s | 1990s | 2000s | 2010s | |
| | (n=551) | $(n_1=39)$ | $(n_2=90)$ | $(n_3=122)$ | $(n_4=300)$ | |
| Research Scope | % | % | % | % | % | |
| Focal country* | | | | | | |
| Developed | 76.2 | 87.2 | 80.0 | 79.5 | 72.3 | |
| Developing | 28.3 | 7.7 | 18.9 | 27.0 | 34.3 | |
| Emerging | 27.4 | 5.1 | 16.7 | 25.4 | 34.3 | |
| Reference region* | | | | | | |
| Asia | 55.4 69. | | 70.0 | 56.6 | 48.7 | |
| Europe | 54.4 | 61.5 | 56.7 | 57.4 | 51.7 | |
| North America | 39.7 | 46.2 | 52.2 | 42.6 | 34.0 | |
| Latin America | 15.2 | 20.5 | 25.6 | 17.2 | 10.7 | |
| Africa | 4.5 | 2.6 | 8.9 | 4.1 | 3.7 | |
| Oceania | 3.6 | 2.6 | 3.3 | 4.9 | 3.3 | |
| Unit of analysis | | | | | | |
| Real consumer | 65.2 | 48.7 | 55.6 | 51.6 | 75.7 | |
| Student | 31.9 | 41.0 | 34.4 | 45.9 | 24.3 | |
| Other | 2.7 | 5.1 | 5.6 | 3.3 | 1.3 | |
| Market focus | | | | | | |
| Special segment | 4.5 | 2.6 | 5.6 | 4.9 | 4.3 | |
| General | 92.2 | 92.3 | 88.9 | 91.0 | 93.7 | |

^{*}Multiple applications possible

Table A3
Product emphasis of country-of-origin studies

| | | Time period | | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------|-------------|------------|-------------|-------------|--|
| | Total | ≤1980s | 1990s | 2000s | 2010s | |
| | (n=551) | $(n_1=39)$ | $(n_2=90)$ | $(n_3=122)$ | $(n_4=300)$ | |
| Product-Related Issues | % | % | % | % | % | |
| Number of products | | | | | | |
| Single product | 46.3 | 25.6 | 36.7 | 40.2 | 54.3 | |
| Multiple products | 34.1 | 46.2 | 40.0 | 41.8 | 27.7 | |
| Not specified | 17.1 | 23.1 | 18.9 | 13.9 | 17.0 | |
| Non-empirical | 2.5 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 1.0 | |
| Nature of products | | | | | | |
| Real product | 43.9 | 38.5 | 42.2 | 47.5 | 43.7 | |
| Fictitious product | 32.7 | 28.2 | 33.3 | 24.6 | 36.3 | |
| Not specified | 23.8 | 28.2 | 24.4 | 25.4 | 22.3 | |
| Non-empirical | 2.5 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 1.0 | |
| Product type | | | | | | |
| Non-hybrid product | 60.4 | 76.9 | 62.2 | 57.4 | 59.0 | |
| Hybrid product | 13.4 | 5.1 | 20.0 | 12.3 | 13.0 | |
| Not specified | 26.0 | 12.8 | 17.8 | 27.9 | 29.3 | |
| Non-empirical | 2.5 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 1.0 | |
| Product involvement* | | | | | | |
| High involvement | 60.1 | 59.0 | 75.6 | 63.1 | 54.3 | |
| Low involvement | 39.9 | 38.5 | 26.7 | 36.1 | 45.7 | |
| Not specified | 17.8 | 20.5 | 15.6 | 15.6 | 19.0 | |
| Non-empirical | 2.5 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 1.0 | |

^{*}Multiple applications possible

Table A4
Sampling and data collection methods of country-of-origin studies

| Samping and data con- | | Time period | | | | |
|---------------------------|---------|-------------|------------|-------------|-------------|--|
| | Total | ≤1980s | 1990s | 2000s | 2010s | |
| Sampling and | (n=551) | $(n_1=39)$ | $(n_2=90)$ | $(n_3=122)$ | $(n_4=300)$ | |
| Data Collection Methods | % | % | % | % | % | |
| Sampling approach | | | | | | |
| Probability | 19.1 | 33.3 | 23.3 | 25.4 | 13.3 | |
| Non-probability | 70.4 | 48.7 | 60.0 | 64.8 | 78.7 | |
| Other | 1.8 | - | 5.6 | .8 | 1.3 | |
| Not specified | 6.2 | 12.8 | 6.7 | 4.9 | 5.7 | |
| Non-empirical | 2.5 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 1.0 | |
| Sample representativeness | | | | | | |
| Representative | 24.5 | 7.7 | 20.0 | 18.0 | 30.7 | |
| Non-representative | 29.9 | 25.6 | 34.4 | 37.7 | 26.0 | |
| Not specified | 43.0 | 61.5 | 41.1 | 40.2 | 42.3 | |
| Non-empirical | 2.5 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 1.0 | |
| Sample size | | | | | | |
| Up to 99 | 7.8 | 7.7 | 10.0 | 9.0 | 6.7 | |
| 100-249 | 33.6 | 53.8 | 37.8 | 27.9 | 32.0 | |
| 250-499 | 30.1 | 17.9 | 26.7 | 28.7 | 33.3 | |
| 500 or more | 25.2 | 12.8 | 20.0 | 30.3 | 26.3 | |
| Not specified | .7 | 2.6 | 1.1 | - | .7 | |
| Non-empirical | 2.5 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 1.0 | |
| Data collection | | | | | | |
| Mail questionnaire | 3.3 | 10.3 | 6.7 | 5.7 | .3 | |
| Electronic questionnaire | 27.6 | - | 2.2 | 4.9 | 48.0 | |
| Personal questionnaire | 51.5 | 53.8 | 63.3 | 66.4 | 41.7 | |
| Drop-in questionnaire | 5.8 | 5.1 | 11.1 | 11.5 | 2.0 | |
| Other | 6.6 | 7.7 | 11.1 | 4.9 | 5.6 | |
| Not specified | 2.7 | 17.9 | 1.1 | 2.5 | 1.3 | |
| Non-empirical | 2.5 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 1.0 | |

Table A5
Construct measurement and analytical procedures in country-of-origin studies

| Time Period | | | | | |
|----------------------------|---------|------------|------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Total | ≤1980s | 1990s | 2000s | 2010s |
| Measurement and Analytical | (n=551) | $(n_1=39)$ | $(n_2=90)$ | $(n_3=122)$ | $(n_4=300)$ |
| Dimensions | % | % | % | % | % |
| CO operationalization | | | _ | | |
| Halo | 44.1 | 76.9 | 55.6 | 37.7 | 39.0 |
| Summary | 17.2 | 7.7 | 10.0 | 18.9 | 20.0 |
| Not specified | 37.0 | 15.4 | 31.1 | 41.8 | 39.7 |
| Non-empirical | 2.5 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 1.0 |
| CO cues | | | | | |
| Single cue | 22.1 | 56.4 | 21.1 | 17.2 | 20.0 |
| Multiple cues | 38.5 | 25.6 | 43.3 | 38.5 | 38.7 |
| Not specified | 37.4 | 12.8 | 34.4 | 40.2 | 40.3 |
| Origin dimensions* | | | | | |
| Country of origin | 42.5 | 76.9 | 58.9 | 45.9 | 31.7 |
| Brand origin | 25.6 | 7.7 | 10.0 | 13.9 | 37.3 |
| Country of manufacture | 7.6 | 5.1 | 8.9 | 5.7 | 8.3 |
| Country of assembly | 2.5 | - | 8.9 | 4.9 | - |
| Country of design | 2.5 | - | 5.6 | 6.6 | .3 |
| Country of parts | 1.1 | - | 3.3 | 2.5 | - |
| Non-empirical | 2.5 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 1.0 |
| Data purification* | | • | | • | • |
| Reliability analysis | 68.4 | 25.6 | 47.8 | 69.7 | 79.7 |
| Validity analysis | 50.5 | 25.6 | 28.9 | 47.5 | 61.3 |
| Endogeneity analysis | 1.5 | - | - | - | 2.7 |
| Not applicable | 21.4 | 48.7 | 31.1 | 16.4 | 17.0 |
| Not specified | 6.2 | 17.9 | 13.3 | 6.6 | 2.3 |
| Non-empirical | 2.5 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 1.0 |
| Statistical method* | | • | | • | • |
| Descriptive statistics | 3.3 | 17.9 | 5.6 | 2.5 | 1.0 |
| Uni-/bivariate analysis | 34.7 | 43.6 | 44.4 | 32.0 | 31.7 |
| Multivariate analysis | 33.2 | 23.1 | 34.4 | 36.1 | 33.0 |
| Modeling | 23.2 | 7.7 | 8.9 | 21.3 | 30.3 |
| Other | 3.1 | 2.6 | 2.2 | 4.1 | 3.0 |
| Non-empirical | 2.5 | 5.1 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 1.0 |

Table A6
Thematic areas, antecedents, and outcomes of country-of-origin studies

| Thematic areas, anteced | | | Time F | | ,,, |
|--------------------------------|---------|------------|------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Total | <1990 | 1990s | 2000s | ≥2010s |
| | (n=551) | $(n_1=39)$ | $(n_2=90)$ | $(n_3=122)$ | $(n_4=300)$ |
| Categories | % | % | % | % | % |
| Environmental influences | 12.9 | 7.7 | 11.1 | 16.4 | 12.7 |
| Economic factors | 7.8 | 7.7 | 10.0 | 8.2 | 7.0 |
| Cultural factors | 4.0 | 2.6 | 2.2 | 7.4 | 3.3 |
| Political factors | 1.5 | 5.1 | 1.1 | - | 1.7 |
| Other | 2.2 | - | - | 2.5 | 3.0 |
| Product/Brand influences | 38.7 | 20.5 | 46.7 | 44.3 | 36.3 |
| Product characteristics | 9.1 | 7.7 | 16.7 | 8.2 | 7.3 |
| Brand name | | 2.6 | 12.2 | 4.9 | 3.0 |
| Price | 4.9 | 2.6 | 11.1 | 6.6 | 2.7 |
| Brand image | 3.4 | - | 7.8 | 1.6 | 3.3 |
| Product involvement | 3.6 | - | 4.4 | 5.7 | 3.0 |
| Product typicality/ congruence | 2.4 | - | 1.1 | 3.3 | 2.7 |
| Brand name - CO congruence | 2.2 | - | 4.4 | 2.5 | 1.7 |
| Product communication | 2.0 | - | 2.2 | 6.6 | .3 |
| Brand globalness | 1.8 | - | - | - | 3.3 |
| Brand positioning | 1.5 | - | - | - | 2.7 |
| Service /warranty | 1.3 | 5.1 | 2.2 | 2.5 | - |
| Product necessity | .9 | - | 2.2 | 1.6 | .3 |
| Brand-country association | .9 | - | 1.0 | - | 1.3 |
| Other | 12.9 | 5.1 | 5.6 | 15.6 | 15.0 |
| Consumer demographics | 5.3 | 12.8 | 10.0 | 4.9 | 3.0 |
| Age | 2.9 | 10.3 | 4.4 | 3.3 | 1.3 |
| Education level | 2.4 | 7.7 | 2.2 | 4.1 | 1.0 |
| Income group | 2.2 | 7.7 | 2.2 | 3.3 | 1.0 |
| Gender | 1.8 | 7.7 | 3.3 | 1.6 | .7 |
| Nationality | 2.6 | 2.6 | 3.3 | 2.5 | 1.0 |
| Province | .9 | 5.1 | 1.1 | .8 | .3 |
| Other | 1.3 | 7.7 | 1.1 | 1.6 | .3 |
| Consumer psychographics | 34.3 | 17.9 | 20.0 | 37.7 | 39.3 |
| Ethnocentrism | 16.5 | 10.3 | 17.8 | 22.1 | 14.7 |
| Animosity | 8.0 | - | 1.1 | 7.4 | 11.3 |
| Identity | 4.4 | - | - | 2.5 | 7.0 |
| Country affinity | 1.8 | - | - | 1.6 | 2.7 |
| Patriotism | 1.6 | 2.6 | 3.3 | - | 1.7 |
| Cosmopolitanism | 1.5 | - | - | .8 | 2.3 |
| Xenocentrism | 1.3 | - | - | - | 2.3 |
| Nationalism | 1.3 | 2.6 | 4.4 | 1.6 | - |
| Cultural values | 1.1 | - | - | 1.6 | 1.3 |
| Other | 9.6 | 2.6 | 6.7 | 9.8 | 11.3 |
| Consumer familiarity | 13.2 | 12.8 | 16.7 | 18.0 | 10.3 |
| Product familiarity | 8.0 | 12.8 | 12.2 | 13.9 | 3.7 |
| Brand familiarity | 3.8 | - | 6.7 | 2.5 | 4.0 |
| Country familiarity | 2.9 | - | 1.1 | 3.3 | 3.7 |

Table A6 (continued)
Thematic areas, antecedents, and outcomes of country-of-origin studies

| s, and out | | | | |
|------------|--|--|--|---|
| 10.9 | 10.3 | 17.8 | 11.5 | 8.7 |
| 7.1 | 10.3 | 12.2 | 8.2 | 4.7 |
| 2.7 | 2.6 | 1.1 | 4.1 | 2.7 |
| 1.1 | - | 2.2 | - | 1.3 |
| .9 | _ | 2.2 | 2.5 | _ |
| | 23.1 | | | 41.3 |
| | | | | 19.3 |
| | | 12.2 | | 21.7 |
| | | 7.8 | | 4.3 |
| 2.2 | = | - | | 3.7 |
| 1.3 | - | - | - | 2.3 |
| 89.1 | 87.2 | 87.8 | 87.7 | 90.3 |
| | | | | 42.0 |
| | | | | 28.0 |
| | | | | 16.0 |
| | | | | 8.7 |
| | | | | 3.0 |
| | | - | | 1.3 |
| | | | | 2.3 |
| | _ | | | 2.0 |
| | _ | | | 3.0 |
| | _ | _ | | 3.0 |
| | 2.6 | 2.2 | | 2.4 |
| | | 4.4 | | 1.0 |
| | - | - | - | 3.0 |
| 1.5 | = | - | .8 | 2.3 |
| 1.3 | = | 3.3 | .8 | 1.0 |
| 1.1 | - | - | 2.5 | 1.0 |
| 1.1 | - | 1.1 | 3.3 | .3 |
| 12.5 | - | 7.8 | 5.7 | 18.3 |
| 10.0 | 7.7 | 6.7 | 7.4 | 12.3 |
| 3.6 | 2.6 | 1.1 | 2.5 | 5.0 |
| 1.8 | - | 2.2 | 2.5 | 1.7 |
| 1.8 | - | 3.3 | .8 | 2.0 |
| 1.1 | 2.6 | - | - | 1.7 |
| 1.8 | 5.1 | 1.1 | 1.6 | 1.7 |
| 8.5 | 5.1 | 3.3 | 5.7 | 11.7 |
| 2.0 | = | - | .8 | 3.3 |
| 1.1 | - | - | - | 2.0 |
| | | | | |
| .9 | - | - | - | 1.7 |
| | | | | |
| | - | - | - | 1.0 |
| | | - | - | .3 |
| 3.8 | 2.6 | 3.3 | 4.9 | 3.7 |
| | 7.1 2.7 1.1 9 35.6 18.5 16.7 7.1 2.2 1.3 89.1 34.7 34.1 19.1 9.8 4.7 3.4 3.1 2.7 2.4 2.4 2.2 2.0 1.6 1.5 1.3 1.1 1.1 12.5 10.0 3.6 1.8 1.8 1.8 1.1 1.8 8.5 2.0 1.1 | 7.1 10.3 2.7 2.6 1.1 - 9 - 35.6 23.1 18.5 10.3 16.7 2.6 7.1 12.8 2.2 - 1.3 - 89.1 87.2 34.7 28.2 34.1 28.2 19.1 43.6 9.8 10.3 4.7 5.1 3.4 20.5 3.1 5.1 2.7 - 2.4 - 2.4 - 2.2 2.6 2.0 5.1 1.6 - 1.5 - 1.3 - 1.1 - 12.5 - 10.0 7.7 3.6 2.6 1.8 - 1.8 - 1.1 2.6 1.8 5.1 2.0 - 1.1 - 9 - 5 - 4 2.6 | 7.1 10.3 12.2 2.7 2.6 1.1 1.1 - 2.2 .9 - 2.2 .9 - 2.2 .9 - 2.2 .9 - 2.2 .1 18.5 10.3 15.6 16.7 2.6 12.2 7.1 12.8 7.8 2.2 - - 1.3 - - 2.2 - - 1.3 - - 2.2 - - 1.3 - - 34.7 28.2 21.1 34.1 28.2 47.8 19.1 43.6 15.6 9.8 10.3 12.2 4.7 5.1 6.7 3.4 20.5 - 3.1 5.1 5.6 2.7 - 2.2 2.4 - - | 7.1 10.3 12.2 8.2 2.7 2.6 1.1 4.1 1.1 - 2.2 - .9 - 2.2 2.5 35.6 23.1 24.4 33.6 18.5 10.3 15.6 21.3 16.7 2.6 12.2 12.3 7.1 12.8 7.8 11.5 2.2 - - .8 1.3 - - .8 1.3 - - .8 1.3 - - .8 1.3 - - .8 1.3 - - .8 1.3 - - .8 34.7 28.2 21.1 28.6 34.1 28.2 21.1 28.6 34.1 28.2 47.8 41.0 19.1 43.6 15.6 21.3 9.8 10.3 12.2 10.7 |

Table A7 Substantive contributions of the 50 most influential country-of-origin articles

| | AC ¹ | OR ² | Articles | Substantive Contributions Substantive Contributions | Managerial Relevance |
|-----------|-----------------|-----------------|--|--|---|
| | 71 | 1 | Han (1989), Country image: halo or summary construct?, <i>JMR</i> . ³ | Comparison of halo and summary construct models to study country image's role in product evaluations. While halo construct model exhibits better fit when consumer familiarity with a country's products is low, summary model shows better fit with high consumer familiarity. Country image for consumers unfamiliar with a country's products acts as a halo that affects brand attitudes indirectly through assessment of product attributes, while familiarity with a country's products form a country image summarizing product beliefs; country image directly affects attitudes toward foreign brand. | International marketers should feature high quality products from the same country to take advantage of positive country image. |
| 1980-1989 | 36 | 2 | Shimp & Sharma (1987), Consumer Ethnocentrism: Construction and Validation of the CETSCALE, <i>JMR</i> . | Develops a psychometrically rigorous scale for gauging ethnocentrism to identify consumer preference for domestic versus foreign products. A 17-item consumer ethnocentrism scale (CETSCALE) identifies ethnocentric consumers who exhibit negative evaluation of and attitudes towards foreign products, while showing positive intention to buy and ownership of domestic products. As ethnocentrism level increases, so does the importance of production origin as a salient attribute. Level of consumer ethnocentrism is higher for the lower social classes and older working-class. CETSCALE, including several shorter variants, is now staple tool in origin-related studies. Stimulated the incorporation of other consumer psychographics/dispositions with a potential to explain the consumer behavior related to foreign products and services. | As ethnocentrism level increases, importance of production origin in decision making increases. Ethnocentrism is a critical segmentation basis for international marketers. |
| | 11 | 43 | Han & Terpstra (1988), Country-of-origin effects for uninational and binational products, <i>JIBS</i> . | Consumers differ in their evaluation of domestic and foreign combinations of production location and brand (uni- vs. bi-national products); thus, attention to uninational vs. binational origin of products in terms of adjustments to production location changes rather than brand changes is important. Contributes to the CO topic by measuring perceived value of different combinations of uni- vs. bi-national products. Offers strategic implications of consumer evaluations and perceived value concerning uninational and binational product combinations. Acknowledges brand – manufacturing origin inconsistency, inspiring more realistic assessments in CO research, shift to brand origin from CO, and dimensional COO research (e.g., country of design, country of manufacture). | The implication for both buyers (importers) and sellers (exporters) of foreign-sourced products is to take into consideration country image (by either stressing or downplaying the origin) in their sourcing decisions, production relocation, and branding. |
| 1990-1999 | 30 | 3 | Klein et al. (1998), The animosity model of foreign product purchase: An empirical test in the People's Republic of China, <i>JM</i> . | How animosity towards a country could impact the willingness to buy that country's products. Animosity and ethnocentrism are two distinct constructs. Animosity is a higher-order construct of economic and war animosity. Animosity affects directly and negatively willingness to buy from a country that is the object of animosity even if product judgments and consumer ethnocentrism are held constant. Animosity towards a country is an important and powerful predictor of willingness to buy that country's products regardless of judgments of that country's product's quality. Inspired other research on consumer dispositions associated with foreign countries and their products. Conceptualizes a country attitude addressing a particular nation rather than all foreign countries. | Do market research in countries with animosity potential towards their country; identify sensitive segments. Importers from countries toward which consumers do not exhibit animosity. Consider animosity in marketing program, forming alliances. Engage in PR to improve CO perceptions. |

| | 18 | 10 | Roth & Romeo (1992), Matching product category and country image perceptions: A framework for managing country-of-origin effects, <i>JIBS</i> . | Stressing the role of product category in consumer intentions to buy products from a certain CO. Proposing a product-country fit, where there is a strong positive match when a country has a positive image concerning an important product feature. | Consumer willingness to buy goods from abroad needs to be determined by product-country matches. |
|-----------|----|----|--|--|--|
| 1990-1999 | 14 | 24 | Maheswaran (1994), Country of origin as a stereotype: Effects of consumer expertise and attribute strength on product evaluations, <i>JCR</i> . | Tests the moderating role of consumer expertise and the type of attribute information on the effect of country of origin on product evaluations. Experts and novices differ in the way they devote attention and process CO information, are influenced by CO information in their product evaluation, and recall CO information. Experts evaluate the product more positively and remember more strong attributes when attribute information is strong and CO information does not affect their assessment and recall. They engage in a detailed attribute information processing and produce more thoughts related to product attributes. They have more positive attribute-related thoughts when the product is described by in strong attributes. In case of ambiguous attribute information, experts recall more strong attributes when CO information is positive, while their assessment of attribute strength is not affected by CO favorableness. Novices evaluate a product more positively when its CO is favorable and their assessment is not affected by attribute strength. They engage in a detailed CO-information processing and generate more CO-related thoughts. They generate more positive CO-related thoughts when CO-information is positive. In case of ambiguous attribute information, novices do not differ in their recall of different types of attributes. When CO information is positive, novices evaluate strong and neutral attributes more positively. When the CO-information is positive, both experts and novices evaluate the product more favorably. | Experts and novices differ in the way they process CO information in their decision making. CO-based advertising strategies should be differentiated for novices and experts with regard to the emphasis on COO and product attribute information in messages. |
| | 11 | 42 | Leclerc et al. (1994), Foreign branding and its effects on product perceptions and attitudes, <i>JMR</i> . | Investigates whether foreign branding stimulates cultural stereotypes and has an effects of product perceptions and attitudes. French, as opposed to English, pronunciation of a brand name evokes perceptions of hedonism of a product. Brand names eliciting hedonism perceptions are preferred for hedonic products. Hedonic products with a French brand name are evaluated more favorably. Although congruence of CO information with the brand name does not increase hedonism perceptions, incongruence between these two reduces hedonism perceptions. Language and "made in" label evoke different associations in consumer memory about hedonism. Consumer hedonic product perceptions change due to foreign branding despite direct experience with the product. Brand names can be misleading and foreign brand positioning has a potential to influence consumer product perceptions, evaluations, and attitudes. | Foreign branding has a potential to influence consumer perceptions and attitudes. Companies can capitalize on associations of a foreign language in consumer memories to support their product positioning which is more instrumental on consumer responses than the "made in" label. |

| | 29 | 4 | Batra et al. (2000), Effects of brand local and nonlocal origin on consumer attitudes in developing countries, <i>JCP</i> | Examines how a brand's local or non-local origin impacts brand attitude in developing countries. The higher the extent of perceived foreignness of a brand, the more favorable consumer attitudes toward it, especially when consumers are highly susceptible to normative influence. This effect is more pronounced for products that signal social value and for consumers who highly appreciate lifestyles in economically developed countries. Familiarity with the product weakens the effect of perceived origin on brand attitude. | Brand's origin conveys information about its degree of foreignness leading to positive attitudes towards a brand. International companies from developed countries can capitalize on their foreignness in developing countries especially when they target customers with a high level of susceptibility to normative influence for products with a high social value. |
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| 600 | 23 | 5 | Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004), Domestic country bias, country-of-origin effects, and consumer ethnocentrism: A multidimensional unfolding approach, <i>JAMS</i> | Investigates integratively the links between consumer ethnocentrism, domestic country bias, and CO for different product categories and different COs. Consumer ethnocentrism positively affects preference for domestic products and negatively affects preference for foreign products and is a better predictor of the former. The effect of consumer ethnocentrism on preference for domestic and foreign products is contingent on product categories and the specific CO. The effect of ethnocentrism on consumer preferences is not contingent on the foreign country's economic competitiveness and cultural similarity to the domestic country. | International marketers should avoid generalizing performance of other product categories in foreign markets to their own as the CO effect on consumer preference is product-specific. International marketers should avoid assuming consumer ethnocentrism as a driver of resistance to foreign products as this effect is dependent on the product category. |
| 2000-2000 | 20 | 8 | Laroche et al. (2005), The influence of country image structure on consumer evaluations of foreign products, <i>IMR</i> | Aims to provide clarification on the cognitive processing and structure of the country image and explore its impact on product evaluations. Country image is the higher-order construct of country beliefs, people affect, and desired interaction, representing its cognitive, affective, and conative dimensions, respectively. Regardless of product familiarity, country image significantly influences product evaluation and product beliefs, while product beliefs are significantly associated with product evaluation. The model explaining the relationships between country image, product beliefs and product evaluation outperforms halo and summary construct models regardless the level of familiarity. When the affective dimension of a country image is greater than its cognitive dimension, country image has a higher impact on product evaluation than on product beliefs. When the cognitive dimension of a country image is greater than its affective dimension, country image has a lower impact on product evaluation than on product beliefs. | International marketers should stress CO information by capitalizing on positive stereotypes or tone down CO information when the product country image is not favorable. |
| | 19 | 9 | Teas and Agarwal (2000), The effects of extrinsic product cues on consumers' perceptions of quality, sacrifice, and value, <i>JAMS</i> | Tests the main effect of CO, as an extrinsic cue, on perceived quality and the moderating effect of CO on the link between other extrinsic cues and perceived quality. CO acts as an extrinsic cue affecting perceived quality together with other extrinsic cues, i.e., price, brand name, and store name. The effect of brand name, store name and price on perceived quality is not contingent on CO. | International marketers can capitalize on CO as an important indicator of perceived quality. Consumers seem to recognize that products can be produced in places other than the brand origin and their origin may not change the effect of other extrinsic cues (i.e., brand name, store name and price) on product evaluation. |

| 16 | 16 | Swaminathan et al. (2007), "My" brand or "our" brand: The effects of brand relationship dimensions and self-construal on brand evaluations, <i>JCR</i> | Examines when and how brand CO connection, as a dimension of consumer-brand relationship, is more salient on brand attitudes. When an interdependent self-construal is primed, consumers' attitude toward a foreign brand becomes less favorable when they receive a negative brand information, but consumers do not change their attitude toward a local brand under the same conditions. When an independent self-construal is primed, brand attitudes do not change based on the origin of the brand. | Brands can convey group identities through their CO connection. Communication strategies after a negative incident could direct consumers' attention to the CO of the brand to minimize negative effect on brand attitude. |
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| 15 | 21 | Miyazaki et al. (2005), The effect of multiple extrinsic cues on quality perceptions: A matter of consistency, JCR | Examines the relationship between price and quality when multiple extrinsic cues (including CO) is present. When price is paired with a consistent, as opposed to an inconsistent, CO cue (e.g., high price, strong CO), the effect of either cue is stronger on product quality. When there is inconsistency between price and CO cues, the more negative cue is influential on product quality. Constellations, rather than types, of extrinsic cues (i.e., price and CO) are influential on product quality. | International marketers should take a holistic approach to price setting and make sure that the product price and CO are consistent with each other. |
| 15 | 22 | Samiee et al. (2005), Brand origin recognition accuracy: Its antecedents and consumers' cognitive limitations, <i>JIBS</i> | Introduces, conceptualizes, measures, and tests the concept brand origin recognition accuracy. Consumers exhibited a modest level of brand origin recognition accuracy. Consumers who have higher socio-economic status and international experience, are male, and are less ethnocentric tend to have a higher origin recognition accuracy for foreign brands. Brand origin recognition accuracy is related to brand names that are linguistically linked to their origin. Shows that prior research inflated the effect of CO information on consumer behavior. | International marketing strategies should be based on non-geographic attributes of brands and involve brand origin only if market research indicates potential effectiveness of doing so. International marketing executives of new brands should ensure that their brand is not linked to undesirable origins. International marketing managers should avoid assuming that consumers accurately know a brand's origin. |
| 14 | 26 | Verlegh (2007), Home country bias in product evaluation: The complementary roles of economic and socio-psychological motives, <i>JIBS</i> | Examines the role of consumer ethnocentrism and national identification on consumer preferences for domestic and foreign products. Consumer ethnocentrism and national identification are positively related to willingness to buy and perceived quality of domestic products. Domestic country bias is stimulated by two distinct but related motives, i.e., ethnocentrism, which has an economic nature, and national identification, which has a socio-psychological nature. | "Buy domestic" campaigns should have both economic and socio-psychological arguments to correspond to ethnocentric consumers and to those with higher national identification. Companies can capitalize on national identification in their advertising or sponsoring strategies (e.g., competitions of national teams or athletes). |
| 13 | 30 | Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran (2000), Cultural variations in country of origin effects, <i>JCR</i> | Investigates the extent to which the effect of CO on product evaluations is contingent on cultural orientation. Consumers in individualist cultures evaluate home country products more favorably, as well as generate more and more favorable CO-related thoughts, when home products are superior to foreign products. Consumers in collectivist cultures evaluate home country products more favorably and generate more and more favorable CO-related thoughts regardless of the level of superiority of home country products. | CO-based marketing strategies should be adapted to countries (e.g., emphasizing home country origin of products in advertisements in collectivistic countries) |

| 13 | 33 | Pappu et al. (2006), Consumer-based brand equity and country-of- origin relationships: Some empirical evidence, EJM | Explores the role of CO of a brand on it consumer-based equity. Consumer-based brand equity (containing dimensions of brand associations, perceived quality, and brand loyalty) varies by the CO of the brand within a product category. This effect is particularly pronounced in product categories having a strong association with CO. | International marketers should identify sources of brand equity and integrate CO into brand equity measurement. They should assess the effect of CO when measuring brand equity in a host country. It is important to take into account image of a country where you intend to shift production in order not to distort brand equity. It is critical to form strong country-product category associations in the minds of target consumers. |
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| 17 | 11 | Pappu et al. (2007), Country image and consumer-based brand equity: Relationships and implications for international marketing, <i>JIBS</i> | Investigates the relationship between macro and micro country image and consumer-based brand equity. Both macro and micro country image is positively associated with consumer-based equity of a brand from that country. The contribution of each brand equity dimension to this relationship is product category specific. The impact of macro and micro country image on brand equity is product category specific. | International marketers should manage both macro and micro image of their country. They should take into account how macro and micro country image contribute to specific dimensions of the brand equity of their product. The emphasis on macro and micro country image in international marketing communication should be based on what marketing research suggests for their particular product category. |
| 13 | 35 | Klein (2002), Us versus them, or us versus everyone? Delineating consumer aversion to foreign goods, <i>JIBS</i> | Aims to differentiate between consumer animosity and ethnocentrism and to gain insight into their varying outcomes. The role of animosity and ethnocentrism on product preferences depends on the choice set available to consumers. Ethnocentrism is influential when a domestic product is under consideration in the choice set. Animosity is effective when products from different foreign countries are in the choice set in case consumer has animosity toward one of these countries. Animosity influences preferences independently of product judgments while ethnocentrism is a driver of product judgments. | International firms should take into consideration previous economic and political relationships of their country and their potential target markets. The origin of a company may serve as a competitive disadvantage in markets with a high level of animosity towards that origin, despite the quality of that company's products. |
| 12 | 36 | Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2008), Brand origin identification by consumers: A classification perspective, <i>JIM</i> | Investigates consumers' ability to identify brand origins and shows how brand and consumer characteristics are linked to CO classification performance. Consumers tend to misclassify a brand to its true origin, though they have a better classification performance for foreign brands, for brands from dominant COs, and for brands with congruent names with their CO. CO classification performance is higher for female, older, and less ethnocentric consumers, as well as for those with a higher country familiarity. Brand CO classification performance does not have an impact on brand evaluation. Further justifies the doubts about the significance of CO information in consumer decision making and the | International marketers should not differentiate and position their brands on CO but on other dimensions. |

| | | | | inflation of CO effects in prior research. | |
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| | 11 | 48 | Chryssochoidis et al. (2007), Ethnocentric beliefs and country-of-origin (COO) effect: Impact of country, product and product attributes on Greek consumers' evaluation of food products, <i>EJM</i> | Explores the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the evaluation of food products and investigates at which level (i.e., country, product, and attribute) CO effect is activated for ethnocentric and non-ethnocentric consumers. Ethnocentrism is positively related to age and negatively related to education. For ethnocentric consumers, CO effect is activated at the country level, with this group favoring domestic products over foreign ones independent of the type of product and specific product attribute. When this group compares different products from one foreign country, CO effect is activated at the product level. Non-ethnocentric consumers do not totally reject foreign products, but they activate CO effect to express ethnocentrism on specific product attribute level. | International marketers should emphasize domestic CO of the product for ethnocentric consumers. It is important to associate domestic CO with product attributes for non- ethnocentric consumers to stress product superiority. |
| - | 11 | 49 | Hsieh et al. (2004), Product-, corporate-, and country-image dimensions and purchase behavior: A multicountry analysis, <i>JAMS</i> | Tests the impact of country image, together with product image and corporate image, as a dimension of brand image on purchase behavior. Country image is a dimension of the overall brand image and involves country-related benefits associated with a brand. Attitude toward a brand's country image positively affects purchase behavior. | In order to enhance brand performance, international firms should design activities that will develop country equity. |
| 2010-2020 | 23 | 6 | Zeugner-Roth et al. (2015), Consumer ethnocentrism, national identity, and consumer cosmopolitanism as drivers of consumer behavior: A social identity theory perspective, <i>JIM</i> | Studies the relative impact of consumer ethnocentrism, national identity, and consumer cosmopolitanism on consumers' product judgments and intention to purchase domestic and foreign products. National identity has a stronger effect than ethnocentrism on domestic product judgments and intention to buy domestic products, while cosmopolitanism has the weakest effect. The effect of cosmopolitanism on foreign product judgments is greater than the effect of ethnocentrism on the latter National identity has no impact on intention to buy foreign products. Three consumer segments were identified based on their ethnocentrism, national identity, and cosmopolitanism profile – pure cosmopolitans, national cosmopolitans, and domestically oriented consumers. Contributes by revealing complementary and compensatory impact of alternative consumer sociopsychological traits on product judgement and intention to buy for domestic and foreign products. | Consumer ethnocentrism, national identity, and cosmopolitanism serve as effective segmentation bases predicting consumer evaluations and intentions to buy. A segment can have both national identification and cosmopolitan tendencies. Markets with larger segments of cosmopolitan consumers are more appealing to international marketers. |
| 201 | 23 | 7 | Sharma (2011), Country of origin effects in developed and emerging markets: Exploring the contrasting roles of materialism and value consciousness, <i>JIBS</i> | Contributes to the CO topic by explaining variations in CO effects on consumer responses in developed and emerging countries through the moderating effects of ethnocentrism, materialism, and value-consciousness. Compared to consumers in developed markets, consumers in emerging markets have more favorable evaluation and purchase intention for products from developed markets. This effect is negatively moderated by ethnocentrism and value-consciousness, but positively moderated by materialism. Compared to consumers in emerging markets, consumers in developed markets have less favorable evaluation and purchase intention for products from emerging markets. This effect is negatively moderated by ethnocentrism. Emerging market consumers' evaluation and buying intention for products from emerging markets is negatively moderated by materialism, and positively moderated by value consciousness. | Emerging markets offer high acceptance potential for products from developed markets. International marketers can segment (particularly emerging) markets based on ethnocentrism, materialism, and value-consciousness. |

| | 17 | 12 | Ma et al. (2020), The moderating role of personal cultural values on consumer ethnocentrism in developing countries: The case of Brazil and Russia, <i>JBR</i> | Studies the moderating role of personal cultural values on the link between ethnocentrism and consumer responses. The effect of ethnocentrism of developing country consumers on evaluation of and intention to purchase developed country products is moderated by personal cultural values of self-direction, stimulation, achievement, power, and hedonism. At high levels of each personal cultural value, the effect of ethnocentrism on quality evaluation and purchase intention is highly significant. Contributes by providing an alternative explanation to the ethnocentrism-consumer responses relationship through personal cultural values. | Global firms should analyze personal cultural values rather than country-level culture. Global marketers should target global-minded consumers to overcome the negative effects of ethnocentrism. It is important to present the foreign product as a means of expressing self-distinctiveness. |
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| | 17 | 13 | Magnusson et al. (2019), Beyond country image favorability: How brand positioning via country personality stereotypes enhances brand evaluations, <i>JIBS</i> | Examines how brand positioning – country personality congruence affects brand evaluations. Consumers evaluate brands more favorably when there is a congruence between brand positioning and country personality as opposed to when they are incongruent. The effect of brand positioning – country personality congruence on brand evaluation is mediated by cultural authenticity. In case of high animosity, incongruence between brand positioning and country personality results in more favorable evaluations. Contributes to the CO knowledge by explaining the role of brand positioning – country personality congruence on consumer responses and deepening this explanation through mediating role of cultural authenticity and moderating role of animosity. | The effect of country personality stereotypes and brand positioning on consumer responses should be analyzed holistically rather than individually. International companies should monitor consumer perceptions about their country personality and position their brand compatibly with the latter. |
| 2010-2020 | 17 | 14 | Mainolfi (2020), Exploring materialistic bandwagon behaviour in online fashion consumption: A survey of Chinese luxury consumers, JBR | Investigates factors with a potential impact on evaluation of and intention to buy foreign luxury products online. Brand consciousness and bandwagon luxury consumption behavior, driven by materialism, lead to intentions to buy foreign luxury fashion products online. For consumers with low levels of ethnocentrism, as materialism increases, intention to buy foreign luxury products online increases. Contributes by extending international luxury buying to an online and emerging market setting. | International luxury companies should use right endorsers and emphasize group membership in their marketing communication. International luxury companies could approach ethnocentric customers by featuring the contribution of the foreign company to the host country. |
| | 17 | 15 | Koschate-Fischer et al. (2012), Are consumers really willing to pay more for a favorable country image? A study of country-of-origin effects on willingness to pay, JIM | Examines the effect of a brand's CO on consumer's willingness to pay and the degree to which brand familiarity moderates this effect. The more favorable the country image of a brand, the higher the consumers' willingness to pay. Brand familiarity negatively moderates this relationship for high-involvement products, but does not have a significant moderating effect for low-involvement products. Contributes to the literature by showing that CO is instrumental on how much consumers are willing to pay for a brand from a specific CO, under high and low brand familiarity conditions. | Country image of the brand offers an opportunity for premium pricing. Firm should feature favorable country image CO in its communications and focus on non-CO attributes if negative CO is present. Stressing CO makes sense more for low-involvement products. |
| | 16 | 17 | Newman & Dhar (2014), Authenticity is contagious: Brand essence and the original source of production, <i>JMR</i> | Tests the role of contagion in forming perceptions of authenticity and value according to manufacturing location. Differences in manufacturing location (within the country) results in consumers attaching higher value to products produced in the company's original factory. Changing manufacturing location from the original factory to a foreign country only affects valuation through quality but not trough authenticity. Contributes to CO knowledge by showing that origin effects may arise from contagion, i.e., belief that | If CO is one of the sources of contagion, firms may leverage their communication on it by emphasizing the CO to instill perceptions of authenticity and value. |

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| | | | | products produced in the original factory have essence of the brand, in addition to beliefs about production quality. | |
| | 16 | 18 | Halkias et al. (2016), The interplay between country stereotypes and perceived brand globalness/localness as drivers of brand preference, JBR | Examines the mechanism in which country- and brand-specific factors affect consumer preferences. Both perceived brand globalness and localness have a positive impact on purchase intentions by improving brand attitudes, while judgments of competence, but not warmth, about a country positively affects purchase intentions through a positive impact on brand attitudes. Judgments of competence as a country stereotype affects consumer preferences above and beyond the positive impacts of brand globalness and localness. Warmth as a country stereotype interacts with brand globalness perceptions in predicting brand attitude. Contributes by integrating CO and global/local branding research to predict consumer preferences. | International brand managers should analyze the country stereotypes and associate them with relevant brand characteristics in their market positioning. Companies with brand origins having a weak country stereotype could consider capitalizing on brand localness. |
| | 16 | 19 | Foroudi et al. (2018), Perceptional components of brand equity: Configuring the symmetrical and asymmetrical Paths to brand loyalty and brand purchase intention, <i>JBR</i> | Product-country image, along with brand awareness, brand fondness, brand image, perceived quality, and brand association strongly contribute to brand perception and increases purchase intentions. | International brand managers should analyze and monitor how product country image contributes to the brand perception, and use product country image in their positioning to capitalize on a favorable product country image. |
| 2010-2020 | 16 | 20 | Siamagka & Balabanis (2015), Revisiting consumer ethnocentrism: Review, reconceptualization, and empirical testing, JIM | Contributes by reconceptualizing consumer ethnocentrism and developing and validating its measure as a multidimensional construct of prosociality, cognition, insecurity, reflexiveness, and habituation. Nomologically, the developed consumer ethnocentrism scale is positively related to ethical idealism and susceptibility to social influence and negatively related to cosmopolitanism. The new construct is also a predictor of preference for domestic products and reluctance to buy foreign products. | New dimensions of consumer ethnocentrism (i.e., prosociality, cognition, insecurity, reflexiveness, and habituation) provide more fine-grained segmentation bases. |
| | 14 | 23 | Magnusson et al. (2011), "What? I thought Samsung was Japanese": Accurate or not, perceived country of origin matters, <i>IMR</i> | Examines how product country image of perceived CO is linked to brand attitude and how this link is moderated by brand origin perception accuracy. Product country image of the perceived CO positively influences brand attitude, with this effect remaining significant regardless of brand origin perception accuracy. When consumers discover the true CO, product country image difference between the perceived and actual CO leads to changes in brand attitude. Conceptualizes the construct of product country image of perceived CO. Reveals that even if consumers lack the knowledge of the true origin of a brand, they may develop brand attitudes based on their perceptions about its origin. | International marketers should monitor the CO associations consumers form about their brand and correct them if their brand is associated with a CO that has a poorer image than the original. |
| | 14 | 25 | Kumar & Paul (2018), Mass prestige value and competition between American versus Asian laptop brands in an emerging market—Theory and evidence, <i>IBR</i> | Assesses the influence of brand CO, together with best-seller and first mover status, on mass prestige value. Mass prestige value is found to differ from one brand CO to the other. Shows that brand CO can be a source of prestige for the brand. | International brand managers should analyze the extent to which brand CO contributes to mass prestige value of the brand in international markets and when there is such a potential they should feature CO in their marketing communication. |

| | 13 | 27 | Winit et al. (2014), Global vs local brands: how home country bias and price differences impact brand evaluations, <i>IMR</i> | Studies the role of perceived brand globalness on consumer responses for foreign- and locally-owned global brands, as well as, the effect of price thresholds of global brands on purchase intention under the moderation of consumer ethnocentrism. The positive effect of perceived brand globalness on brand attitude and purchase intention is stronger for local global brands. As the price of foreign global brand gets higher, purchase intention for local global brand increases. As the price of local global brand gets higher, purchase intention for local global brand decreases. The effect of perceived price difference on purchase intention for local global brand is amplified at higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism. The effect of perceived price difference on purchase intentions for foreign global brands is attenuated at higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism. | Leveraging on the potential effect of perceived brand globalness on brand evaluations, firms can develop a global brand image based on global cues. Local origin offers global brands an opportunity to exert a price premium. |
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| 2010-2020 | 13 | 28 | Balabanis & Siamagka (2017), Inconsistencies in the behavioural effects of consumer ethnocentrism: The role of brand, product category and country of origin, <i>IMR</i> | Contributes to CO knowledge by explaining the inconsistencies between consumer ethnocentrism and actual purchase through the moderation effect of product category, CO, branding, product visibility, price, and cultural similarity. The effect of consumer ethnocentrism on actual purchase is contingent on the product category, price, as well as on the global/local nature of the brand but not by cultural similarity. | International firms should focus on product features other than CO (e.g., price) in order to avoid negative effects of ethnocentrism on consumer behavior. |
| 2010 | 13 | 29 | Godey et al. (2012), Brand and country-of- origin effect on consumers' decision to purchase luxury products, <i>JBR</i> | Attempts to examine the factors influencing consumer decision making, with a focus on brand and CO, for luxury goods. CO is more important for the consumer decision making process for luxury goods than for nonluxury goods, although it is ranked lower as a decision-making criterion for buying luxury goods. The relative importance of CO as a decision-making criterion for luxury goods varies across markets, without exhibiting a clear pattern regarding the maturity of the luxury market. Brand is more important than CO as a decision-making criterion. Contributes by assessing multiculturally the salience of CO for the consumer decision making associated with luxury goods. | Companies should differentiate along CO in markets where it is highly salient as a decision making criterion. |
| | 13 | 31 | Wang et al. (2012), Country image, product image and consumer purchase intention: Evidence from an emerging economy, <i>IBR</i> | Differentiates between cognitive and affective country image and proposes and tests the mechanisms through which they translate into purchase intention. Both cognitive and affective country image affect product country image. While cognitive country image influences purchase intention through the mediating role product image, affective country image has a direct effect on purchase intention. Contributes by emphasizing that cognitive and affective country image may be inconsistent for a particular country and the way they translate to purchase intention is not identical. | International firms should take into consideration cognitive and affective country image, in addition to corporate and product image, to make inferences about international consumer behavior. Firms should monitor consumer feelings about their brand's CO and take necessary actions before this converts to reluctance to buy. |

| 13 | 32 | Harmeling et al. (2015), Beyond anger: A deeper look at consumer animosity, <i>JIBS</i> | Contributes to the CO literature by revealing the mediation role of emotional reactions between animosity beliefs and consumer responses. Positive relationship between animosity beliefs and negative word-of-mouth and product avoidance is mediated by agonistic emotions. Positive relationship between animosity beliefs and product avoidance and negative relationship between animosity beliefs and product quality judgment is mediated by retreat emotions. | International brand managers should be sensitive to and manage responses to negative events. They should also monitor consumer emotions about the event and prevent these emotions from shifting from countries to their firms. |
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| 13 | 34 | Zhou et al. (2010), Non-local or local brands? A multi-level investigation into confidence in brand origin identification and its strategic implications, JAMS | Introduces the construct of confidence in brand origin identification and proposes and tests a theoretical model based on the contingency effect of confidence in brand origin identification on perceived brand foreignness – brand value relationship. Perceived and actual brand foreignness, as well as confidence in brand origin identification, enhance brand value. The effect of perceived brand foreignness is amplified at higher levels of confidence in brand origin identification, whereas this moderation effect is more pronounced for local brands. Contributes to CO knowledge by setting confidence in brand origin identification as the boundary condition for the signaling effects of perceived brand foreignness on is diagnostic value for brand evaluation. | In order to enhance brand value through reducing consumer uncertainty with the brand origin, international marketers could form consumer associations with the original geographic origin of the brand (e.g., through packaging, brand name). Local brands can choose a foreign positioning strategy to compete with competitors in their domestic markets. |
| 12 | 37 | Shukla (2011), Impact of interpersonal influences, brand origin and brand image on luxury purchase intentions: Measuring interfunctional interactions and a cross-national comparison, JWB | Examines cross-culturally the role of interpersonal influences (i.e., normative and informational) and branding cues (i.e., brand origin and brand image) as predictors of luxury purchase intentions. The effect of brand origin on luxury purchase intention is significant and positive in the UK market but not significant in Indian market. The moderating role of brand origin on the effects of normative and informational interpersonal influences on luxury purchase intentions is not significant. | International marketers of luxury products should feature their brand origin in their communication in developed markets. In developing markets, they should overcome consumers' limited awareness of luxury brands by using co-branding strategies or building joint ventures. |
| 12 | 38 | Sharma (2015), Consumer ethnocentrism: Reconceptualization and cross-cultural validation, <i>JIBS</i> | Contributes by developing and validating a reconceptualized consumer ethnocentrism scale containing three dimensions of affective reaction, cognitive bias, and behavioral preference. The revised attitude construct shows cross-cultural invariance and explains greater variance than the CETSCALE in customer evaluations and purchase intentions. The revised scale enables testing the influence of emotional, cognitive and behavioral aspects of ethnocentrism on consumer responses. | Affective, cognitive and behavioral dimensions offer more fine-grained segmentation bases. |
| 12 | 39 | Antonetti et al. (2019), Why consumer animosity reduces product quality perceptions: The role of extreme emotions in international crises, <i>IBR</i> | Studies how animosity elicits extreme emotions that influence product quality, word of mouth and product avoidance. Animosity beliefs evoke extreme emotions toward a target country, which in turn increase likelihood of consumers to spread negative word-of-mouth on and intention to avoid products from that particular country. Contributes by demonstrating that extreme emotions explain the impact of animosity beliefs on product quality, negative word of mouth, and product avoidance. | International marketers should closely observe extreme emotions driven by animosity in their target markets as well as the specific segments that feel extreme emotions. In markets with high consumer animosity, international marketers should break the link between a brand and its CO. |
| 12 | 40 | Guo (2013), Living in | • Investigates, within a developing country context, the role of global orientation on attitudes to global brand | Global marketers should analyze |

| | | a global world: Influence of consumer global orientation on attitudes toward global brands from developed versus emerging countries, JIM | from developed and emerging countries. Consumers with high global consumption orientation, high global identity, and low ethnocentrism have more positive attitudes to global brands from developed countries rather than to those from emerging countries. Consumers' local consumption orientation has no impact on their attitude to global brands from any CO. Global identity decreases the negative effect of ethnocentrism on attitudes to global brands from developed countries. Contributes to CO knowledge by revealing that consumers in emerging markets respond differently to global brand from emerging and developed countries and explains this relationship through moderating role of consumer dispositions toward and against globalization. | consumers' globalization-related dispositions and incorporate them in their segmentation and positioning strategies. • Global marketers from both developed and emerging countries should feature global themes in their marketing communication when they target more globally-oriented segments in emerging countries. • Emerging markets with high vertical collectivism could offer potential for global brands from emerging markets. |
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| 11 | 41 | Diamantopoulos et al. (2011), The relationship between country-of-origin image and brand image as drivers of purchase intentions: A test of alternative perspectives, <i>IMR</i> | Tests two alternative theoretical mechanisms, namely orthogonality and irradiation perspectives, related to the potential effect of CO image on purchase intentions. Controlling brand familiarity, reveals that the irradiation perspective, which predicts CO image to influence purchase intentions through brand image, is superior to the orthogonality perspective, that proposes CO image and brand image are independent antecedents of purchase intention. Contributes to CO topic by empirically comparing alternative explanations of whether and how CO image influences intention to buy foreign products. | CO is a driver of brand image. Companies with strong brand names could consider supporting less well-known brands in their product category by capitalizing on their established brand image. Develop brand familiarity to enhance brand image and increase purchase intention. |
| 11 | 44 | Herz & Diamantopoulos (2013), Activation of country stereotypes: automaticity, consonance, and impact, <i>JAMS</i> | Reveals that the mere exposure to a CO cue can automatically trigger country stereotypes with a potential impact on consumers' cognitive and affective brand evaluation. Exposure to CO cues from countries with functional and emotional country stereotypes have stronger effect on cognitive and emotional brand assessment, respectively. A functional fit (i.e., functional country stereotype and functional advertisement execution format with a CO cue) and an emotional fit (i.e., emotional country stereotype and emotional advertisement execution format with a CO cue) have a more positive effect on consumer responses as opposed to a mismatch. Contributes by assessing the effect of the nature of automatically activated country stereotypes on consumers' cognitive and emotional evaluations of brand and the impact of consonant/ dissonant manifestation of country stereotypes in brand communication affects brand-related behavior. | In brand communication containing CO cues, there should be a match between the nature of the country stereotype and the advertising execution format. |
| 11 | 45 | Sichtmann et al. (2019), The relational value of perceived brand globalness and localness, <i>JBR</i> | Contributes to the CO knowledge by conceptualizing and assessing how domestic versus foreign origin of brands sets the boundary condition for perceived brand globalness/localness – consumer brand identification relationship. Both perceived brand globalness and localness enhance consumer brand identification. Perceived brand globalness – consumer brand identification link is stronger for domestic rather than foreign brands, while perceived brand localness – consumer brand identification link is stronger for foreign brands. | Global strategies can be developed to form brand relationships with consumers for domestic brands. Foreign brands can benefit from localization strategies to enhance consumer brand relationships. |
| 11 | 46 | Diamantopoulos et al. (2020), Are consumers' minds or hearts guiding country of origin effects? | Contributes to the CO literature by conceptualizing and testing the contingency role of need for cognition and need for affect on (a) country image – product country image link and (b) country attitudes – product country image link. Need for cognition weakens the effect of attitude towards the country on product country image, while need for affect strengthens the same effect, though this finding does not hold across countries. | The potential of need for cognition and need for affect to serve as segmentation variables is country-specific. |

| | | Conditioning roles of need for cognition and need for affect, <i>JBR</i> | Need for affect weakens the influence of country image on product country image. | |
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| 11 | 47 | Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2016), Consumer xenocentrism as determinant of foreign product preference: A system justification perspective, JIM | Contributes by conceptualizing, developing a measure for and validating consumer xenocentrism construct. Consumer xenocentrism is a second order construct of perceived inferiority and social aggrandizement. Consumer xenocentrism is negatively related to ethnocentrism, collective self-esteem, and self-confidence, but positively associated with consumer xenophilia, materialism, vanity, susceptibility to interpersonal influence, and social dominance orientation. Consumer xenocentrism is negatively related to domestic country image and preference for domestic products but positively affects foreign country image perceptions and preference for foreign products. | Domestic companies can use foreign branding strategies if there is a substantial segment of xenocentric consumers in their markets, while they can also feature product's distinctive characteristics rather than its CO. Xenocentric consumers are an important segment for foreign firms that can be served with relevant positioning strategies. |
| 11 | 50 | Diamantopoulos et al. (2017), Explicit versus implicit country stereotypes as predictors of product preferences: Insights from the stereotype content model, <i>JIBS</i> | Contributes by developing and testing the mechanism linking country stereotypes (using both implicit and explicit measures) to brand affect and purchase intentions under deliberate and spontaneous choice conditions. Both explicit and implicit judgements of competence positively influence brand affect which drives purchase intentions. In case of deliberate choice conditions, explicit country stereotypes in terms of competence are better predictors of product choices, while in case of spontaneous choice conditions, implicit country stereotypes in terms of warmth are better predictors of product choice. | Explicit and implicit measures of country stereotypes may differ; explicit judgments may be misleading. Products with deliberate information processing, CO in brand communication is more suitable for high competence COs. Impulse products, CO is more effective with CO high warmth perception. |

¹AC: Average annual WOS citation frequency; ²OR: Overall rank among all articles reviewed based on average annual WOS citation frequencies.

³EJM: European Journal of Marketing; IBR: International Business Review; IMR: International Marketing Review; JBR: Journal of Business Research; JCP: Journal of Consumer Psychology; JCR: Journal of Consumer Research; JIBS: Journal of International Business Studies; JIM: Journal of Marketing; JM: Journal of Marketing; JMR: Journal of Marketing Research; JAMS: Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science; JWB: Journal of World Business.

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Web Appendix B Academics' and Managers' Views

IM experts' recommendations for future research are shown in Table B1. These topics can be categorized into one of three groups: supply-related, demand-related, or region-related. Export and import managers' views are detailed in Tables B2 and their research recommendations are shown in Table B3. Academics' research recommendations include (a) the potential impact of new developments (e.g., Covid-19 pandemic) in the external environment on consumer CO-related psychographics and CO perceptions; (b) exploration of how changes in brand ownership through mergers, acquisitions, or strategic alliances influence CO perceptions; (c) the relevance of certain key consumer psychographic aspects (e.g., personality, emotions, identity) for shaping foreign CO perceptions; (d) the way CO stimuli are processed in consumer decision-making process; (e) ways in which country images resulting from new initiatives, such as sustainability, ethicality, and social responsibility, might be used to position products/brands originating from these countries; (f) the relevance of CO and brand origin perceptions in adapting the firm's international marketing strategy to achieve superior performance; and (g) the unique behavior with regard to CO exhibited by consumers coming from immigrant/ethnic groups.

The majority of academics were very optimistic about the future potential of CO research as a sub-field of IB, mainly because of the ongoing globalization, digitalization, and political polarization (e.g., between the US and Russia or China). However, for this potential to come to fruition, respondents stressed the need to take into consideration the following: (a) develop strong, innovative contributions (e.g., examining the conditions under which CO cues pass consumer sensory threshold through neuromarketing methods) that will shed light to the indirect effect on foreign consumer decisions of the subconscious and subtle nature of CO; (b) depart from the traditional CO research that was conducted in the past, avoid previous methodological flaws (e.g., use of student samples), and adopt novel approaches that could help to better enhance our understanding of the CO phenomenon; and (c) expand the term CO to cover other 'origin' dimensions, such as region, province, or even neighborhood, since a country is no longer the only entity serving as the origin of products or services.

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Table B1

Country-of-origin research topic recommendations by academics

Supply-Related Topics

- The impact of CO decision-making on various strategic marketing decisions, such as product design, advertising, and personal selling.
- Investigating the impact of mergers, and acquisitions, and outsourcing on mixing of CO information relating to a single product.
- Connecting key aspects of CO effects with the firm's international marketing strategy and its performance outcomes.
- Examining the effect on brand origin on the firm's international pricing and distribution decisions and, to a lesser extent, on firms' product and promotion strategies).
- Making marketing mix strategy adjustments in foreign markets due to consumers' different CO perceptions.

Demand-Related Topics

- Examining confounding issues faced by consumers when shopping from national chain stores (e.g., Walmart) that sell goods produced from other countries (e.g., China).
- Research related to CO-related aspects of traditional and digital services.
- Possible interactions among CO, brand globalness/localness perceptions, self-brand congruence, and how CO manifests in cross-cultural settings.
- How issues pertaining to social responsibility, morality, and ethicality influence the formation of CO perceptions by foreign consumers.
- Examining the effect of country sustainability issues (e.g., health and well-being, planet protection, cost-effective solution to climate change, etc.) on shaping foreign consumers' CO perceptions.
- Analyzing the behavioral responses with regard to CO issues in different sub-cultures (which result from increased global mobility and intensifying migration waves) within a foreign country.
- The role of external political forces (e.g., protectionism, military actions, foreign country openness, etc.) in forming consumer perceptions about products from foreign countries.
- Managing the trade-off between a differentiated IM approach (distinguishing between consumers who are xenophobic, cosmopolitan, ethnocentric, etc.) and authenticity/consistency.
- Understanding the social psychology of CO, by focusing on the cognition, affect, values, emotions and volition mechanisms that undergird CO formation by consumers.
- The type of salience and importance of social identity in CO perceptions across different consumption contexts (e.g., private versus public).
- How consumers actually read/respond unconsciously to CO information in realistic settings.
- Shed more light on how consumers process CO cues, as well as stereotyping based on CO cues.
- Understanding the socio-psychological underpinnings (e.g., importance of cognition, affect, and behavioral intentions) of CO perceptions and how they interact with identity.
- Examining the role of consumer's cultural characteristics (e.g., long-term orientation) in the formation CO
 perceptions.
- Investigating the role of consumer's personality (e.g., extraversion, neuroticism, etc.) in influencing responses to the CO cue.
- Determining the level of consumer misattribution of COO of products under co-branding.
- The impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on consumer ethnocentrism and nationalism and their subsequent impact on CO perceptions.
- Examining the effect of producing different components of the same product in multiple countries on consumer quality perceptions.

Region-Related Topics

- Identifying value chain combinations for hybrid products (e.g., designed in Italy, engineered in Germany, produced of in China) that yield the most favorable effect on foreign consumer perceptions.
- Examining different 'layers' of regional origin, such as smaller regions (e.g., Bohemia) than country level (e.g., Czech Republic) or superordinate regions (e.g., Europe).
- Exploring different levels of product origin such as neighborhoods, blocks, and regions, within a country on foreign consumer perceptions.
- Assessing the synergistic effect of combining a country label within a regional integration's designation on creating favorable foreign consumer perceptions.

Table B2
Comparison of exporters' and importers' perceptions regarding country-of-origin issues

| Exporters' views | $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ (SD)* | Importers' views | <u>x</u> (SD)* |
|--|-------------------------------|---|----------------|
| End-users in foreign markets really care | 5.02 | Consumers in our domestic market really | 4.87 |
| about our products' 'country-of-origin'. | (1.59) | care about a product's 'country-of-origin' | (1.63) |
| accur car products to analy or origin. | (1.0) | when they buy products that we import. | (1.02) |
| End users in developed countries tend to | 5.20 | Consumers in our domestic market prefer | 5.15 |
| pay more attention to our products' | (1.71) | more products that we import from | (1.53) |
| 'country-of-origin' compared to end users | (11,1) | developed countries than developing ones. | (1.00) |
| in developing countries. | | according comments and according comments | |
| End-users in the foreign markets that we | 5.25 | Consumers in our domestic market usually | 4.72 |
| serve usually associate the 'made in' label | (1.82) | associate the 'made in' label of the products | (1.93) |
| of our products with their quality. | | that we import with the level of their quality. | |
| The role of "made in" label in influencing | 4.70 | The role of "made in" label in influencing | 4.38 |
| foreign consumer behavior is expected to | (1.83) | local consumer behavior for our imported | (1.83) |
| diminish in the future considering the | | products is expected to diminish in the | |
| growing globalization and regionalization | | future, in view of growing globalization and | |
| of markets. (R) | | regionalization of markets. (R) | |
| The role of "made in" label in influencing | 4.77 | The role of "made in" label in influencing | 4.05 |
| foreign consumer behavior is expected to | (1.96) | local consumer behavior for our imported | (1.99) |
| diminish in the future considering the | | products is expected to diminish in the | |
| increasing digitalization of the way | | future, considering the increasing | |
| international business is conducted. | | digitalization of the way international | |
| | | business is conducted. | |
| We particularly target segments of | 5.18 | We particularly target with our imported | 4.79 |
| consumers in foreign markets that are | (1.57) | products segments of consumers in the | (1.70) |
| sensitive to our products' 'country-of- | | domestic market who are sensitive to | |
| origin'. | | 'country-of-origin' issues. | |
| In positioning our products in foreign | 5.22 | In positioning our imported products in the | 4.85 |
| markets, we emphasize elements referring | (1.76) | domestic market, we emphasize elements | (1.80) |
| to their 'country-of-origin'. | | referring to their 'country-of-origin'. | |
| In our international marketing strategy, we | 5.18 | In our international sourcing strategy, we | 5.00 |
| take into consideration issues relating to | (1.76) | consider issues relating to the 'country-of- | (1.45) |
| the 'country-of-origin' of our products. | | origin' of the imported product(s). | |
| In designing our packaging/labeling for | 5.27 | In selling our imported products in the | 5.15 |
| foreign markets, we stress our products' | (1.74) | domestic market, we emphasize their | (1.80) |
| 'country-of-origin'. | | 'country-of-origin' on the packaging/ | |
| | | labeling. | |
| The setting of our prices in foreign markets | 5.14 | The setting of prices for our imported | 4.92 |
| is influenced by our products' 'country-of- | (1.71) | products in the domestic market is | (1.69) |
| origin'. | | influenced by their 'country-of-origin'. | |
| Our products' 'country-of-origin' | 5.11 | Our imported products' 'country-of-origin' | 4.77 |
| influences the willingness to represent and | (1.79) | influences the willingness of channel | (1.63) |
| distribute our products in foreign markets. |] | members to distribute them in the domestic | |
| | | market. | |
| In promoting our products abroad, we | 5.34 | In promoting our imported products in the | 4.85 |
| stress their 'country-of-origin' element in | (1.46) | domestic market, we stress their 'country-of- | (1.68) |
| our communication campaigns. | | origin' in our communication campaigns. | |
| | | | |

^{*} μ = mean scores (SD = standard deviations) based on 7-point scales ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

Table B3 Managers' recommendations for future country-of-origin research

Exporter's Recommendations

Supply-Related Topics

- The impact of hiding the 'made-in' label of a brand (to avoid poor quality impression) on the firm's export performance.
- Adjusting online export marketing strategies to take into consideration consumer sensitivities to CO issues.
- How do foreign consumer CO perceptions determine the firm's price setting in export markets?

Demand-Related Topics

- What specific consumer emotions are associated with various countries and their products/brands and how these emotions are related to consumer buying behavior?
- The process of consumers inferring the CO of a product from its brand names and how this affects brand origin recognition accuracy.
- The impact of cultural background of target country consumers on the value they attach to products/brands from a specific country.
- Examining consumers' expectations for foreign product labels to provide complete information about CO.
- Examining the link between CO-consumer quality perceptions among consumers in different countries across multiple products.
- How congruence between CO influences and brand name perceptions affects foreign consumer buying intentions?
- What specific information sources are used by consumers in a specific country to evaluate foreign products and what is their weight in forming CO perceptions?

Importers' Recommendations

Supply-Related Topics

- Comparative examination of the effect of CO of products imported from different countries on resellers' margins.
- What is the most effective design of a product label to provide accurate, complete, and useful CO information to end-users in the foreign market to yield higher sales?
- How product country image or product category image affect the importer's willingness to buy and distribute foreign products in the home country.
- Profiling consumers based on their CO biases toward foreign products in general or products from a specific foreign country in particular.

Demand-Related Topics

- Monitoring consumer reactions (e.g., buying intentions, repurchase intentions, WOM) toward changes in the manufacturing locations of a foreign product/brand.
- How consumers' accurate/inaccurate brand-country associations affect their attitudes and buying decisions toward foreign products?
- Under what conditions CO-related communication messages and/or endorsers from a particular country could be more effective in the import market?
- How connections among consumers through various internet platforms and social media influence their CO perceptions?
- How do various dimensions of macro country image (e.g., sustainability, ethicality, labor conditions) impact consumer quality perceptions for products from a specific foreign country?

¹A paradox "consists of two contrary or even contradictory propositions to which we are led by apparently sound arguments" (van Heigenoort, 1972, p. 45). Each proposition considered alone is incontestable, but collectively, they are inconsistent (Poole & Van De Ven, 1989).

²See, for example, Smith and Lewis (2011), Andriopoulos and Lewis (2009), and Lewis and Andriopoulos (2014) for several applications of paradox theory involving nested contradictions.