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Comparisons

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COO in Print Advertising: Developed versus Developing Market Comparisons

Abstract

Country-of-origin (COO) research is criticized for its lack of practical relevance. Literature largely focuses on consumers' responses to COO, while relatively little is known about whether and when companies actively choose COO in their marketing mix. This research makes predictions about COO usage versus non-usage and the number and type of COO cues used in a developed versus developing country context. We test the hypotheses with a content analysis of ads published in three major magazines in France and India, respectively, involving 2,181 print ads published over a 12-month period. The results reveal surprising differences between a developed and an emerging country in terms of relevance and usage of COO, but also between theoretical predictions from the literature and actual applications by companies. This research provides companies with guidelines for the use of COO in marketing communication and contributes to the discussion on COO relevance by taking a novel perspective.

Keywords: Country of origin; Advertising; Content analysis; Ethnicity

1.   Introduction

The country-of-origin (COO) effect refers to the explicit or implicit impact of the name of a source country on product evaluations, risk perceptions, and buying intentions. Almost 600 peer-reviewed articles on this topic have been published in academic literature in the past 35 years (for a review, see Lu, Heslop, Thomas, & Kwan, 2016) in areas as diverse as global branding (e.g., Halkias, Davvetas, & Diamantopoulos, 2016), information processing (e.g., D'Antone & Merunka, 2015), consumer traits and orientations (e.g., Cleveland, Laroche, & Papadopoulos 2009; Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, & Diamantopoulos 2015), and global strategy (e.g., Cuervo-Cazurra, 2011; Suter, Borini, Floriani, da Silva, & Polo, 2018a). Notably, the overwhelming majority of studies focus on the consumer side; that is, they investigate whether and under what conditions *consumers* use COO as an informational cue to infer a product's true quality or reliability (Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 2000). By contrast, COO also has implications for *companies* (Johansson, 2014); it can act as a source of country-specific advantage (Suter et al., 2018a) and help build brand value (Suter et al., 2018b). Surprisingly, only scant research explores the use of COO from the company side.

A notable exception is Insch and Florek (2009), who investigate the labeling practices of brands in New Zealand in 26 categories. They find that more than 80% of all brands investigated directly or indirectly indicate their origin on the packaging. Notwithstanding the theoretical contribution of this article, several limitations exist. First, the authors conduct the study in New Zealand, which has a lower proportion of imported goods than other countries (e.g., the United States, countries in Europe). As domestic manufacturers are more likely to indicate their origin than foreign ones (Verlegh, 2007), this number (80%) might be inflated. Second, what manufacturers put on their products (or not) largely depends on legal requirements. Thus, depending on whether they are legally forced to or not, manufacturers

will (or will not) indicate the country of manufacture of their products. A different situation applies when the origin labeling is optional, as with advertising. In this case, the manufacturer can strategically choose to use COO as a cue to promote the products (or not), and its usage will depend purely on the competitive advantage potentially available.

This study aims at exploring the role of COO in advertising. Specifically, building on information and categorization theory (Mervis & Rosch, 1981; Olson & Jacoby, 1972), we make predictions on (1) COO usage versus non-usage and (2) the number of COO cues used in (3) a developed versus developing country context. To do so, we collect data by examining all print advertisements published in three major magazines in France and India over a one-year period, respectively. Overall, we collect a sample of 2,181 advertisements submitted to content analysis (Duriau, Reger, & Pfarrer, 2007). In addition, we explore the gaps between our theoretical expectations and actual advertising practices through a series of chi-square tests and mean difference tests. We also pose and analyze several research questions to discover additional effects otherwise potentially overlooked (for a similar approach, see Bartikowski, Laroche, & Richard, 2019).

Our contribution is twofold. First, by conducting a content analysis of print ads published in three major journals in two countries over a one-year period, our study addresses recent calls in the literature for more studies that combine qualitative and quantitative approaches (Magnusson & Westjohn, 2011), as well as studies analyzing COO from a company perspective (Samiee, 2010; Suter et al., 2018a, 2108b). This analyses allow us not only to make several observations about important differences between a developed and an emerging country context but also to better understand how theory informs practice, and vice versa (Reibstein, Day, & Wind, 2009). Our results also serve as a guideline for marketers for the strategic use of COO in print advertisements.

Second, by examining the supply side, we provide a novel perspective to the ongoing debate on the relevance of COO (Magnusson, Westjohn, & Zdravkovic, 2011a, 2011b; Samiee, 2010; Usunier, 2011; Zeugner-Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2010). Some opponents of COO research argue that COO is not a relevant cue, and if so, it is only used in specific situations related to context (domestic/foreign), ethnicity, and involvement (Samiee, 2010; Usunier, 2006). The perspective of advertisers complements extant findings on the relevance, magnitude, and managerial importance of COO effects.

2. Literature background and hypotheses

2.1. Role of COO in advertising

From an information theoretical perspective, individuals are often overwhelmed by the endless quantity of surrounding stimuli in their environments (Olson & Jacoby, 1972). To efficiently cope with this information overload, they simplify the processing of these stimuli by engaging in categorization (Mervis & Rosch, 1981; Rosch, 1999). One of the cues by which they can categorize products or brands is the COO (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011).

In contrast with intrinsic product cues inherent in the product itself (e.g., taste, color, design), similar to brand name or price, COO is an extrinsic cue that is not fundamental to the product itself but is externally attributed to the good or service and used by consumers as an indicator of quality and value (for comprehensive reviews, see Lu et al., 2016; Magnusson & Westjohn, 2011; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Wilcox, 2015). The COO effect is rooted in consumers' images of the quality of (specific) products or brands marketed by firms associated with a COO (Han, 1989; Knight & Calantone, 2000). Depending on the object, these images can be categorized into country images, product images, or a combination of the two (for a review, see Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009), and they may be based on actual product experience but also on information gathered through advertising and other sources of product information,

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including word of mouth and articles in the popular press (Verlegh, Steenkamp, & Meulenberg, 2005).

From a consumer behavior perspective, research has investigated the role of COO in advertising from various angles, including the role of COO in connection with other cues, such as claim favorability and ad involvement (Verlegh et al., 2005), or the effect of global versus foreign versus local positioning (e.g., Nijssen & Douglas, 2011; Zhou & Belk, 2004). In this study, we extend these findings by taking another point of view, namely the importance companies may give to COO in their advertising claims.

2.2. *Usage of COO cues in advertisements*

We aim to investigate whether and under what conditions advertisers use COO cues in advertisements in a developed versus developing country context. We do so by borrowing the concepts from frameworks and/or theories (i.e., origin, ethnicity, involvement, and product category) used in current consumer behavior research.

2.2.1. *Domestic context*

There is a common agreement in the literature that in developed countries, people generally prefer domestic to imported products (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004; Sharma, 2011; Verlegh, 2007), a phenomenon known as domestic-country bias. COO theory proposes three processes that can explain why this is the case (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Zeugner-Roth, 2017). First, this preference may be due to cognitive reasons such as high domestic production or quality standards ("If I buy domestic, I know what I have"). Second, it may be due to affective reasons, such as national pride and affection for the home country (Fischer & Zeugner-Roth, 2017; Verlegh, 2007). Third, normative reasons can be the cause, such as the fear that foreign products hurt the domestic economy, as is highlighted by consumer

ethnocentrism (Shimp & Sharma, 1987), or environmental concerns (Elliott & Cameron, 1994).

For developing countries, the opposite effect often occurs. In general, in a developing country context, people prefer products from developed countries to domestic products (for a literature review, see Sharma, 2011). Normative (e.g., consumer ethnocentrism) and affective (e.g., patriotism, nationalism) reasons might reduce this foreign country product preference, but overall, a general preference for foreign products exists also among these segments (Han & Guo, 2018, Sharma 2011). For advertisers, this implies that domestic brands are more likely to highlight their origin in a developed rather than emerging country context. In the latter case, foreign brands from developing markets will have a relative competitive advantage over domestic ones (Sharma, 2011). We thus propose the following:

H1a: Domestic brands are more likely than foreign brands to use COO in their advertisements in a developed market context.

H1b: Foreign brands are more likely than domestic brands to use COO in their advertisement in a developing market context.

2.2.2. Product ethnicity

Another characteristic that could determine whether firms use COO in advertising is the degree to which the COO is internationally known for producing products in that category. Prior research shows that countries significantly differ in their image for producing products in a certain product category, with some countries being more renowned than others (e.g., Switzerland for watches, France for wine). Also known as product ethnicity (Usunier & Cestre, 2007) or product–country match (Roth & Romeo, 1992), this concept refers to "the stereotypical association of a generic product with a particular country-of-origin" (Usunier & Cestre, 2007, p. 36) and is a form of typicality (Rosch & Mervis, 1975). Samiee (2010) argues

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that COO labeling is particularly important for products with high ethnicity. As the concept of ethnicity equally holds for developed and developing markets (e.g., German cars, Indian spices), we do not expect any differences based on the context at hand. Thus, we propose the following:

H2: Products with high product–country ethnicity are more likely to use COO in their advertisements than products with low product–country ethnicity.

2.2.3. Product-category involvement

Another potential criterion frequently mentioned in the literature is product-category involvement. Zaichkowsky (1985, p. 342) defines involvement as "a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interest." Contributors to the literature have consistently argued that the strength of the COO effect depends on consumers' ability and motivation to process information about a product or brand, which is again a function of consumers' degree of involvement (Bloemer, Brijs, & Kasper, 2009; Gürhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 2000). Dual-process models such as the elaboration likelihood model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) gave rise to two competing schools of thought on how familiarity and involvement affect COO usage. First, the halo perspective (Han, 1989) suggests that consumers use COO as a "halo" to form beliefs about products with which they are unfamiliar, and these then collectively influence behavior (Bloemer et al., 2009; Knight & Calantone, 2000). Product-category involvement is low, and thus information is peripherally processed (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Rather than being merely another piece of information, the COO image acts as a stand-in for other product information (Josiassen, Lukas, & Whitwell, 2008). The COO effect is likely to be substantial, as additional product information is no longer explicitly taken into consideration and is already summarized by the COO cue (Bloemer et al., 2009).

Second, a competing line of research suggests that COO is more important in high-familiarity and high-involvement circumstances. Here, COO acts as a summary construct (Han, 1989) that can only be activated if the consumer is familiar with the product category. To facilitate information processing, consumers consolidate previously acquired product information (e.g., about a Mercedes car) in memory. When later confronted with a product from the same country that possesses similar attributes to the one previously stored in memory (e.g., an Audi), they do not gather additional product information but directly infer its quality by accessing the stored information (Bloemer et al., 2009; Knight & Calantone, 2000). High-involvement product evaluations are centrally processed and will make use of available information as much as possible (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Thus, the impact of COO on consumers' evaluation of the product is direct and significant (Bloemer et al., 2009).

As both theories derive from the literature and have compelling arguments, we propose competing hypotheses with respect to the usage of COO in advertisements for high- and low-involvements products. We expect no differences, however, between developed and developing countries:

H3a: Low-involvement products are more likely to use COO in their advertisements than high-involvement products.

H3b: High-involvement products are more likely to use COO in their advertisements than low-involvement products.

2.2.4. Product category/positioning

Consumer choices are driven by three motives that can be classified into utilitarian, hedonic, and symbolic considerations. Research suggests that these considerations map onto independent components of product evaluations and attitudes and enable people to distinguish among goods according to their nature (Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Mano & Oliver, 1993).

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Broadly speaking, utilitarian goods are instrumental and functional (e.g., banks, insurance, personal computers); hedonic goods provide more experiential consumption, fun, pleasure, and excitement (e.g., clothes, food, cosmetics; Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000); and symbolic goods satisfy symbolic needs, such as self-expression and prestige (e.g., luxury goods; Bhat & Reddy, 1998). Although the consumption of goods may involve all three motives to varying degrees (Batra & Ahtola, 1991), there is little doubt that consumers characterize some products as primarily utilitarian and others as primarily hedonic or symbolic (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000).

Although COO research predominantly focuses on cognitive COO effects (i.e., COO as a cognitive cue to evaluate products from different countries), recent studies (e.g., Oberecker & Diamantopoulos, 2011; Zeugner-Roth & Žabkar, 2015) demonstrate that the effect is stronger for affective cues (i.e., country-related emotions). Emotional country associations can affect not only brand-origin recognition accuracy (i.e., people's ability to correctly classify products according to their origin; Samiee, Shimp, & Sharma, 2005) but also brand evaluations, purchase intentions, and ownership (Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2013a). Furthermore, and in contrast with utilitarian or symbolic products for which a country association primarily makes sense when the country has a positive image in the category (e.g., Spanish vs. German engineering), hedonic products can leverage affective associations with a country (e.g., Spanish Flamenco, German Oktoberfest) that are applicable across product contexts. They also strengthen consumers' emotional attachment to the brand (Fournier, 1998; Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2013b).

Therefore, we expect that, compared with utilitarian and symbolic product categories, hedonic product categories will use COO cues more often in their brand communication because exploiting a country's emotional connotations is (relatively) easier. This is particularly the case for Western economies. By contrast, in a developing market, symbolic connotations will

be relatively more important (Zhou & Hui, 2003). Foreign products such as Swiss watches or German cars are mainly bought because of their prestige (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). We therefore propose that in developing markets, symbolic products will use COO relatively more than both hedonic and utilitarian products. Thus:

H4a: Hedonic products are more likely to feature COO in their advertisements than utilitarian or symbolic products in a developed market context.

H4b: Symbolic products are more likely to feature COO in their advertisement than hedonic or utilitarian products in a developing market context.

2.3. Number of COO cues in advertisements

In the next set of hypotheses, we go a step further and analyze how much importance advertisers should give to the COO cue. That is, the more importance advertisers put on the COO cue, the more means they will use to highlight it in their ad. The literature mentions many ways brand managers can emphasize COO in their brand communication (Suter et al., 2018b). Textual elements include the association of a product or brand with a particular origin through speech, language, spelling, pronunciation, acronyms, name of the country, expressions, signs, graphics, or logo. Visual elements include flags, colors, national symbols, characters, maps, or typical scenarios that recall the COO of the brand.

In general, it is logical to assume that companies will highlight COO more when they consider it a positive element in the marketing mix and will give consumers a reason to buy. Based on the above, this will be the case for products that (1) benefit from high product–country ethnicity, (2) are of low or high involvement for consumers, and (3) are hedonic (in developed countries) or symbolic (in developing countries) in nature. We thus expect the same effects as described previously for the magnitude of COO to hold for the importance advertisers give to the COO cue, with one exception: in general, the home country will be

more known to consumers than a foreign country. Moreover, for the home country, it is enough to highlight the domestic origin to give consumers a reason to buy, for the reasons outlined previously (cognitive, affective, and normative). Foreign companies, however, will only highlight the COO if it is favorable for the product in question, such as in the case of high product–country ethnicity. In these situations, making more associations with the COO than with domestic companies is useful so that consumers will recognize the cue and form an association with the right origin (Samiee et al., 2005). We thus expect that if foreign companies want to highlight country-specific associations, they will use more COO cues than ads featuring a domestic origin. Thus:

H5: Foreign brands use more COO cues in their advertisements than domestic brands.

H6: Products with high product–country ethnicity use more COO cues in their advertisements than products with low product–country ethnicity.

H7a: Low-involvement products use more COO cues in their advertisements than high-involvement products.

H7b: High-involvement products use more COO cues in their advertisement than low-involvement products.

H8a: Hedonic products use more COO cues in their advertisements than cognitive or symbolic products do in a developed market context

H8b: Symbolic products use more COO cues in their advertisement than cognitive or utilitarian symbolic products do in a developing market context.

2.4 Nature of the COO message

We also analyze additional information with respect to the nature of the COO reference made in the ad (i.e., explicit vs. implicit; cognitive, affective, and mixed; type of COO referred to in

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the ad). Given the low number of observations for certain variables (e.g., number of utilitarian and symbolic products) and/or weak theoretical underpinnings for the concepts analyzed, we refrain from posing concrete hypotheses and propose several research questions (for a similar approach, see Bartikowski et al., 2019)

The COO literature indicates that country-specific associations can be made explicitly or implicitly (Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2013b). Explicit associations directly refer to the COO of a product or brand in an ad (e.g., country name, map, flag), while implicit associations refer to the COO indirectly through imagery (e.g., landscapes, famous landmarks, monuments, national characters). To our knowledge, no available theory specifies which type of association (explicit or implicit) is more effective for consumers or is more often used by companies. Thus, we propose the following research question:

RQ1: Is COO more often referenced explicitly or implicitly in print advertisements?

Apart from the way COO is referenced, most COO research assumes that COO effects are based on two independent processes, cognitive and affective (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1989, Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999).[1] In the cognitive process, COO serves as a "signal" for overall product quality and quality attributes, such as reliability and durability (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). In the affective process, COO acts as an image attribute that links the product to symbolic and emotional benefits, including social status and national pride (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). In addition, ads can mix the two and refer to cognitive and affective COO associations at the same time. As it is theoretically unclear which type of association (cognitive, affective, or mixed) will prevail in the usage of COO in print advertisements, we pose the following research question:

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[1] Both studies also mention a third, normative process, according to which consumers purchase products from a country out of moral obligations or ethical constraints (e.g., purchasing domestic products to support the home country economy). However, in this study, we excluded this process from analyses because of a lack of observations that could clearly be attributed to this process only.

RQ2: How is COO (cognitively, affectively, or mixed) most often referred to in print advertisements?

COO originally referred to the made-in country or the country of manufacture. However, increasing globalization has allowed manufacturers to spread their activities over more markets, giving rise to multinational production (Zeugner-Roth, 2017). The COO literature accounts for this effect and has expanded the COO construct to include different origins in the value chain, such as country of design, country of assembly, country of corporate headquarters, and the like. However, recent COO research has gradually moved away from the study of all potential origins of products, arguing that consumers do not evaluate or do not know all these origins (Samiee et al., 2005). That is, there is some consensus in the literature that the origin that matters the most is the country a consumer associates a product with, which is typically the country of brand (Magnusson et al., 2011a; Usunier, 2006). In this study, we analyze whether this also transcends to the COO used in print advertisements and whether the ads refer to a single or multiple COOs of the value chain. Thus, we pose the following research question:

RQ3: What COO (e.g., country of brand, country of manufacture) is most often referenced in print advertisements?

3.   Empirical study

3.1. Method

To test the hypotheses, we conducted a content analysis of print advertisements of six major monthly print magazines in France and in India over a 12-month period. France represents a good example of a Western developed market known for both technological (e.g., cars, trains) and non-technological (e.g., fashion) products. For advertisers, France is a desirable target

market due to its population size (21st in the world), its purchasing power (10th in the world), and its central location in Western Europe[2]. India represents a prime example of an emerging market with high market potential. It is known for its skilled labor, but also features a distinct consumer culture rooted in culture-specific (e.g., spices, traditional clothing) and non-specific (e.g., availability of and desire for major global brands) products. Furthermore, India continues to experience tremendous growth in terms of economic prosperity (i.e., GDP growth >7.0% for 2017) and population size (2nd in the world), making it a highly desirable target market for many brands around the world[3].

We selected the magazines using four criteria: (1) nationwide distribution, (2) popularity in terms of readership, (3) monthly publication cycle, and (4) diversity of target audience. In France, *Marie Claire*, *GQ France*, and *Management* all meet the set criteria (ACPM, 2018). *Marie Claire* is the most popular monthly women's interest magazine in France (and number four worldwide), with a monthly readership of 350k. *GQ France* is the most popular men's interest magazine in France (and number four worldwide), with a monthly readership of 75k. *Management* targets both sexes and has a monthly readership of 55k. In India, we chose *Cosmopolitan India*, which has a monthly readership of more than 400k (Media Ant, 2019a); *GQ India*, the most popular monthly men's magazine, with a readership of more than 120k;[4] and *Reader's Digest*, which has a monthly readership of 1.3 million (Media Ant, 2019b). Like *Management* in France, *Reader's Digest* targets both sexes.[5]

We collected all advertisements over a publishing period of 12 months, which allowed us to avoid potential seasonal bias (e.g., major holidays, season-specific fluctuations of advertising content). Overall, we counted 2,181 advertisements in France (N$_{France}$ = 1,146; *Marie Claire* =

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[2] https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/fr.html
[3] https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/in.html
[4] https://www.condenastinternational.com/brands-and-footprint/gq#India.
[5] India's patriarchal family structure makes it less likely that a management magazine would also target female readers; thus, we opted for *Reader's Digest* because it targets a general audience of both sexes.

647; *GQ France* = 331; *Management* = 168) and India (N_{India} = 1,035; *Cosmopolitan India* =
388; *GQ India* = 528; *Reader's Digest* = 119). To ensure sufficient visibility of COO cues, we
limited the minimum size of advertisements included in the analysis to half a page (with the
maximum up to a double page or "spread").

Four coders, two for each country, categorized data for our content analysis. All coders were
trained research assistants who were native to the respective countries, thus allowing for a
culturally appropriate interpretation of advertisements for each respective consumer culture.
To facilitate a reliable coding process of the advertisements, we provided coders with detailed
instructions about the coding process. These included definitions (see Table 1) of all elements
to be coded, including examples for each, and a standardized coding template to be filled out.
Overall, we achieved a high inter-coder agreement (93%) for France and India, respectively,
with an average Cohen's kappa of .850. Cohen's kappa ranges from .659 to .960 for the
French dataset. For India, Cohen's kappa ranges from 0.710 to 1.0. This range of values
suggests good to very good agreement between the coders (McHugh, 2012).

In classifying COO cues (for a detailed overview and examples, see Table 1), we included
any origin indication featured in the advertisement through textual or visual elements (e.g.,
Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2013a; Insch & Florek, 2009; Suter et al., 2018b). We further coded
domestic/foreign origin of the brand (i.e., based on the brand's headquarters), product
ethnicity (i.e., based a product's strength of country association; Usunier & Cestre, 2007),
product involvement (i.e., based on the Foote-Cone-Belding Planning Matrix; Vaughn, 1980),
the number of COO cues used, the nature of the product category (i.e., utilitarian, hedonic, or
symbolic), and the nature of the COO references (i.e., explicit vs. implicit and cognitive,
affective, or mixed appeal of the advertisement; see Appendices A-B for examples).
Furthermore, we coded the type of origin referred to in the ad (e.g., country of brand, country
of manufacture).

[Table 1 about here]

3.2. Hypotheses tests

Of the 2,181 advertisements, 1,099 included at least one COO cue, among which 596 featured domestic brands (54.2%) and 503 foreign brands (45.8%). In total, 834 advertisements (75.9%) used COO to advertise products from a high-ethnicity country, compared with 265 (24.1%) for a low-ethnicity country. We counted 723 advertisements (65.8%) using COO for high-involvement products, while 376 used COO for low-involvement products (34.2%). On average, advertisements using COO featured 1.45 (SD = .56) COO cues per ad. However, we find striking differences between the two countries. In France, the share of advertisements using COO (N = 413; 37.6%) is significantly smaller ($\chi^2(1) = 198.962$, $p < .001$) than that in India (N = 686; 62.4%). This provides a comparison for the subsequent analysis of our hypotheses. In what follows, we discuss the results from the pooled sample, while highlighting differences across studies using a series of chi-square tests for H1–H4 (see Tables 2–4)

[Tables 2, 3, and 4 about here]

Overall, our results provide support for most of the hypotheses. For H1a and H1b, comparing the use of COO in advertisements with the origin of brands, we find that domestic brands (55.5%) are more likely ($\chi^2(1) = 22.048$, $p < .001$) to use COO in the advertisements than foreign brands (45.4%). In both countries, this relationship is significant (France: $\chi^2(1) = 37.192$, $p < .001$; India: $\chi^2(1) = 6.848$, $p = .009$), but surprisingly, in India the proportion of domestic brands using COO advertisements is much higher (domestic = 70.6% vs. foreign = 62.8%) than that in France (domestic = 44.2% vs. foreign = 26.8%). Thus, we find support for H1a but fail to do so for H1b, for which we expected foreign brands to have a higher share of COO usage than domestic brands.

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For H2, comparing the use of COO in relation to product ethnicity, we find that products from high-ethnicity countries are more likely ($\chi^2(1)$ = 77.070, p < .001) to use COO in their advertisements (57.0%) than products from low-ethnicity countries (45.4%), in support of H2. In both countries, this relationship is significant (France: $\chi^2(1)$ = 59.583, p < .001; India: $\chi^2(1)$ = 90.961, p = .009), though the proportion of COO in advertisements for high-ethnicity countries is much higher in India (high ethnicity = 78.3% vs. low ethnicity = 49.9%) than in France (high ethnicity = 42.3% vs. low ethnicity = 16.8%).

We also examined the interrelationships between H1 and H2. Specifically, we assessed whether domestic brands are more or less likely to use COO for high-ethnicity products than foreign brands with notable ethnicity. Our results reveal that, overall, foreign brands are more likely to use COO in advertisements for high-ethnicity products than domestic brands (79.9% vs. 72.5%; $\chi^2(1)$ = 8.246, p = .004). Surprisingly, this finding only holds for the Indian sub-sample (foreign-high ethnicity = 80.3% vs. domestic-high ethnicity = 54.9%; $\chi^2(1)$ = 50.790, p < .001), while in France, the results are inverted. The results for India are in line with literature on consumers' reaction to foreign brands (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004). Considering consumers' home country bias, foreignness is often considered a liability, and thus marketers, in theory, should only emphasize the COO if it is favorable for them, such as in cases of high product ethnicity (Le Roux, Thébault, Roy, & Bobrie, 2016; Spielmann, 2016). By contrast, domestic brands can leverage COO in situations linked to cognitive, affective, and/or normative reasons (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). However, in France, we find the opposite relationship, such that ethnicity was leveraged more in ads with a domestic than foreign origin (domestic-high ethnicity = 79.0% vs. foreign-high ethnicity = 93.7%; $\chi^2(1)$ = 19.984, p < .001). This is somewhat surprising and indicates room for improvement in the advertising strategy of (foreign) brands in France.

For H3a and H3b, the expected use of COO for high- or low-involvement product categories, we reject H3a and find partial support for H3b. There is a significant relationship ($\chi^2(1)$ =6.240, p = .012) between the use of COO advertisement and high-involvement product categories (52.4%) compared with low-involvement product categories (46.9%). However, this result is only significant for India (India: $\chi^2(1)$ =21.823, p < .001; France: $\chi^2(1)$ =0.112, p = .738), with a proportionally higher share of COO for high-involvement products (high-involvement = 71.1% vs. low-involvement =57.5%) than in France (high-involvement = 35.7% vs low-involvement = 36.7%).

For H4a and H4b, comparing the use of COO in advertisements with the utilitarian, hedonic, and symbolic nature of the product category, we find support for both hypotheses. In both countries, we find a significant relationship between the use of COO in advertisements and the nature of the product category (Pooled: $\chi^2(1)$ = 9.143, p = .010; India: $\chi^2(1)$ = 20.628, p < .001; France: $\chi^2(1)$ = 34.842, p < .001). As hypothesized, in France, the share of hedonic products using COO is higher (40.5%) than that of utilitarian (15.9%) or symbolic (34.0%) products, confirming H4a. In India, the share of symbolic products using COO in advertisements is higher (77.2%) than that of hedonic (67.6%) or utilitarian (59.9%) products, confirming H4b.

To test H5–H8, we employed a series of analyses of variance to assess differences between the number of COO cues used in individual advertisements and origin, ethnicity, involvement, and product category. We find varying support for our hypotheses. The pooled dataset shows no support for the hypothesized differences (see Table 2) but some support for the expected differences on the country level (Tables 3 and 4). In France, the results of the independent sample t-tests indicate that foreign advertisements employ more COO cues than domestic advertisements on average ($M_{foreign}$ = 1.66, SD = .83; $M_{domestic}$ = 1.26, SD = .52; $t(411)$ = 5.949, p < .001), in support of H5. For H6, we find a significant difference between product

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ethnicity and the number of COO cues used in individual advertisements (M_{high_ethnic} = 1.36, SD = .66; M_{low_ethnic} = 1.70, SD = .66; $t(411)$ = 3.39, p = .001). However, in opposition to H6, we find that low-ethnicity products incorporate more COO cues in their advertisements than high-ethnicity products. In line with H7a, we find that low-involvement products employ more COO cues than high-involvement products ($M_{low\_involvement}$ = 1.48, SD = .78; $M_{high\_involvement}$ = 1.35, SD = .60; $t(411)$ = 1.895, p = .059). However, this difference is only marginally significant. For H8a, analysis of variance indicates no significant difference between the number of COO cues used in advertisements and product category, failing to support H8a ($F(2, 410)$ = .248, p = .781).

For India, domestic brands employ more COO cues than foreign advertisements on average ($M_{foreign}$ = 1.31, SD = 1.31; $M_{domestic}$ = 1.67, SD = .70; $t(586)$ = 7.816, p < .001); thus, we fail to find support for H5. In line with H6, we find that high-ethnicity products incorporate more COO cues in their advertisements than low-ethnicity products ($M_{high-ethnicity}$ = 1.53, SD = .59; $M_{low-ethnicity}$ = 1.37, SD = .56; $t(498)$ = 3.222, p =.001). For H7a and H7b, we find no significant differences in the use multiple COO cues for high- or low-involvement products (M_{low} = 1.44, SD = .67; M_{high} = 1.50, SD = .66; $t(684)$ = 1.033, p = .302). As in France, we find no significant differences between the number of COO cues used in advertisements and the product category, failing to support H8b ($F(2, 683)$ = 1.860, p = .156).

3.3. Research questions

Finally, we tested our research questions on the nature of the COO reference (explicit vs. implicit; cognitive, affective, and mixed; and type of COO mentioned in the ad). Given the exploratory nature of the analysis and the number of possible relationships, we refrain from providing a detailed discussion of all results for space reasons and only discuss key findings

and any surprising differences between the two countries. Appendices C–E contain all details of the tested relationships.

3.3.1. Type of COO reference

The majority of advertisements across both samples used explicit cues (66.9%) to communicate their COO (i.e., a COO-related cue appeared in the ad). Specifically, in France 86.4% of COO advertisements used explicit cues, while in India, only 54.5% of COO advertisements used explicit cues compared with implicit cues. A more detailed analysis involving the type of reference (explicit vs. implicit) and the origin of brands featured in the different advertisements reveals no significant relationship between the use of explicit or implicit COO cues and the domestic or foreign origin of brands in France ($\chi^2(1) = .622$, $p = .430$), while in India, we observe a significant relationship ($\chi^2(1) = 22.171$, $p < .001$) as well as a notable pattern in the use of explicit and implicit COO cues. In India, advertisements using explicit cues are more likely to be foreign (60.6%) than domestic (39.4%), while advertisements using implicit cues are more likely to be domestic (57.5%) than foreign (42.5%). This suggests that in India, marketers for domestic brands are more likely to use imagery-based communication strategies, while marketers for foreign brands offer more concrete indications of the COO as a competitive advantage in their communication strategy. This is further evidenced when we take product ethnicity into account. A high-ethnicity product is more likely ($\chi^2(1) = 18.546$, $p < .001$) to feature explicit cues than implicit cues (explicit = 75.1% vs. implicit = 59.7%). In France, marketers do not make this distinction; the share of advertisements using explicit (88.8%) or implicit (87.5%) cues is almost equal for high-ethnicity products ($\chi^2(1) = .081$, $p = .777$).

Regarding the cognitive, affective, or mixed reference to COO in the advertisements, we find that affective COO references clearly dominate our sample, with 753 (68.5%) purely affective

COO references, 118 (10.7%) purely cognitive COO references, and 228 (20.7%) ads featuring both affective and cognitive references. On a country level, similar to the use of implicit and explicit cues, in France we find only marginal differences between the type of appeals ($\chi^2(2) = 6.061$, $p = .048$) and the origin. In India, foreign brands are more likely ($\chi^2(2) = 51.294$, $p < .001$) to feature an affective approach to COO advertising (60.4%) than domestic brands that use either a cognitive (78.7%) or a mixed (62.2%) approach. Finally, comparing COO references with different types of product categories (utilitarian, hedonic, and symbolic), the analysis reveals that, in France, COO advertisements are predominantly used for hedonic product categories, with small variations ($\chi^2(2) = 57.628$, $p < .001$) in cognitive (79.1%), affective (72.7%), or mixed (88.0%) references to the COO. In India, affective COO references are used across all types of product categories (hedonic = 37.6%; utilitarian = 29.8%; symbolic = 32.6%), cognitive references are used only for utilitarian (76.0%) or hedonic (24.0%) product categories, and mixed references are predominantly used for utilitarian product categories (62.2%) rather than hedonic (28.8%) or symbolic (9.0%) categories.

3.3.2. Origin country referred to in the ad

A frequent criticism (e.g., Magnusson et al., 2011a; Samiee, 2011; Usunier, 2011) of COO research is the discrepancy among country of brand, country of manufacture, country of source (e.g., ingredients originating from a country), country of design, and other related associations. The majority of ads feature only one COO as reference: 728 ads (66.2%) feature only the country of brand, 113 (10.3%) the country of manufacture, 54 (4.9%) a different foreign origin, 10 (0.9%) the country of source, and 37 (3.4%) the country of design. Only 67 (6.1%) advertisements highlight both the country of brand and the country of manufacture (e.g., Made in Switzerland, but with reference to the French heritage of the brand). The

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remaining advertisements highlight multiple combinations of country of brand, country of

manufacturing, country of design, and country of source.

4. Discussion

4.1. Theoretical and managerial implications

The main purpose of this study is twofold. On the one hand, drawing on information and

categorization theory (Mervis & Rosch, 1981; Olson & Jacoby, 1972), we highlight gaps

between current advertising practices and theoretical recommendations from the literature

(see Table 5). On the other hand, our results contribute to the ongoing debate on the relevance

of COO effects by examining the supply side—that is, companies or brands using COO as a

cue in their advertisements.

[Table 5 about here]

Our findings indicate that COO is more relevant in a developing than developed market

context. While in the former, approximately two-thirds of all ads contain a COO cue, in the

latter, only one in three ads use COO information. This is in sharp contrast to Insch and

Florek (2009), who find that, on average, 84% of all products and brands analyzed indicated

their New Zealand or Australian origin on the product on the supermarket shelf. Our results

provide a realistic picture of the relative importance companies give to COO, while

highlighting some gaps between the theoretical implications and practical usage of COO.

When we take into account origin (domestic vs. foreign), ethnicity, and reference (explicit vs.

implicit), developing countries seem to use COO more strategically than developed countries,

for which we find no specific differences in terms of the combination of these variables. This

is in contrast with recent studies (e.g., Le Roux et al., 2016; Spielmann, 2016) that clearly

highlight the importance of COO information in situations in which it is favorable for

companies and reveals the need for improvement, especially for marketing campaigns launched in developed countries.

An in-depth analysis on the usage of COO in advertising largely confirms extant literature with respect to the importance of the construct for domestic brands, products with high ethnicity and involvement, and those of a hedonic (for developing countries) versus symbolic (for developing countries) nature (Table 5). At the same time, we find important differences between a developed and developing country context. That is, whereas for developed countries, research has always considered domestic country references a competitive advantage for firms (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004), more recent studies still claim that the opposite is the case for developing countries (Sharma, 2011). By contrast, our analyses show that companies from emerging markets use COO relatively more often than companies from (foreign) developed markets. This implies a shift in consumer preferences and also highlights the growing importance of domestic products in such markets (Han & Guo, 2018; Zhou & Hui, 2003). Furthermore, there is room for improvement with respect to the importance given to COO information (measured by the number of COO cues in this study). COO can act as a source of country-specific advantage (Suter et al., 2018a), and thus advertisers should emphasize it more when it is favorable for them (Table 5).

Our results also contribute to the ongoing discussion on the relative importance of cognitive versus affective country image processing. Whereas COO research has mainly focused on cognitive cues (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009), this is not the case for advertisements. Overall, our results show that companies more often use COO for hedonic and symbolic than utilitarian product categories (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999) and that affective image connotations prevail over cognitive ones. In this respect, current advertising practices match well with theoretical implications from the literature and further highlight the importance of extending the COO construct to also include affective connotations.

Regarding the debate on which type of country is actually associated with COO, we confirm current propositions that the majority of products on the market associate themselves with the country of brand (Magnusson et al., 2011a, 2011b; Usunier, 2011). Overall, more than 60% of brands in our sample emphasized the country of brand, while only approximately 10% of ads feature the country of manufacture as the COO cue. This further underscores the relevance of country of brand over country of manufacture as a key communication cue. We also identified ads that communicate a fake foreign origin (4.9%). For example, ads from Hugo Boss, a German fashion brand, refrain from using Germany as a COO cue. Instead, the product features the well-recognized skyline of Manhattan, thus suggesting a U.S. origin. Similarly, an ad from Michael Kors, a U.S. brand, uses the Union Jack to make a connection with the United Kingdom. While such strategies in general make sense if the product's origin country has low typicality (e.g., Le Roux et al., 2016; Spielmann, 2016), they can also create confusion in the origin of a particular product (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2011; Samiee et al., 2005), with all the positive or negative consequences this might have (Magnusson et al., 2011a). Last, only a small number of brands (6.1%) feature both the country of brand and a different country of manufacture in their ads. Thus, the era of using multiple origins to profit from COO perceptions seems to be over from a company perspective.

4.2. Future research directions

This study provides concrete guidelines for managers on how to use COO in print advertisements. First, despite the advancements of alternative forms of communication (e.g., online, social media, virtual reality), print advertising is far from obsolete and remains among the most important channels for marketing communications (Forbes Communication Council, 2018). However, other forms of communications such as television and/or online commercials (e.g., Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra, 1999) allow for more possibilities to visualize

a product (e.g., speech, story line, music) and thus carry the potential to further substantiate our findings by adding new elements to those analyzed in our study. In addition, the hypotheses and research questions we pose only serve as a starting point and could be extended with additional branding elements, such as brand name, slogan, design, and the like (e.g., the "Z" in the Zespri kiwi brand implicitly cueing New Zealand). Thus, we encourage future research to extend our findings by adding additional criteria and using other forms of media to explore the full potential of COO in marketing communication.

Second, our results largely confirm our propositions from the literature but also highlight important gaps between theoretical recommendations and current industry practices. In this way, this study contributes to the ongoing discussion on the relevance gap between theoretical studies and current industry practices (Reibstein et al., 2009). While the hypotheses and theoretical propositions aim to help companies improve the effectiveness of COO usage in their advertising campaigns, currently unclear is whether any deviations are due to (1) little knowledge of companies about these theoretical recommendations or (2) other reasons currently not known in the COO literature. We therefore encourage research to explore this further, possibly starting with interviews with advertisers in the field.

Finally, while our study derived propositions on the usage of COO in print advertisements from theoretical frameworks, we could not analyze the effectiveness of these propositions by linking them to outcomes such as attitudes, ad awareness, brand equity, and profitability or related variables such as brand trust and transparency (Buell & Norton, 2011). Our sample consisted of all brands advertising in two countries over a one-year period, involving both global and local brands. While for global brands secondary data for some outcome variables are readily available, the majority of brands analyzed are small to medium-sized (global and local) for which no such measures are available. We therefore encourage research to establish a link between our study propositions and the outcomes, to further explore the effectiveness

of COO campaigns. Such studies could also determine the ideal number of COO cues used in an ad. Is there a point at which consumers are confronted with too many cues, including COO, such that they suffer from feature fatigue (Thompson, Hamilton, & Rust, 2005)? This is a worthwhile area for future research.

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Table 1: Overview of coding.

Coding Category	Coding Schema	Definition	Example
Presence of COO cue	Yes/no	An explicit or implicit reference to a product or brand's COO.	*Gibson's Gin* features the U.K. flag in the background of an advertisement.
Origin	Domestic/foreign	A brand was classified as domestic if the brand's headquarters is in France; otherwise, it was classified as foreign.	*Louis Vuitton* was classified as domestic; *Swatch* was classified as foreign.
Product ethnicity	High/low	"Global product ethnicity reflects the extent to which a product–country association is (1) strong (i.e., most consumers make this association), (2) quasi-exclusive (i.e., the product is significantly associated with a single or few COOs), and (3) cross-national or global (i.e., there is a high degree of similarity for a particular country–product association across survey countries)" (Usunier & Cestre, 2007, p. 33).	A German car brand has high product ethnicity, as Germany is known for producing cars. A German clothing brand has low product ethnicity, as Germany is not associated with the production of clothes.
Product involvement	High/low	"A person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interest" (Zaichkowsky, 1985, p. 342); advertisements were classified on the basis of the Foote-Cone-Belding grid, allowing for a common classification (Vaughn, 1980).	A car brand is a high-involvement product; a soft drink brand is a low-involvement product.
Number of COO cues	Number of overall COO cues	Number of different COO cues used in an ad.	An advertisement for *Swatch* may feature a Swiss landscape, a Made in Switzerland logo, and a Swiss flag for three COO cues in total.
Product category	Hedonic/utilitarian/symbolic	*Hedonic:* a product "whose consumption is primarily characterized by an affective and sensory experience of aesthetic or sensual pleasure, fantasy, and fun" (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000, p. 61).	*Hedonic products:* Clothes, cosmetics, food, etc.
		Utilitarian: a product "whose consumption is more cognitively driven, instrumental, and goal-oriented and accomplishes a functional or practical task" (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000, p. 61).	*Utilitarian products:* Bank, cameras, cars, insurance, etc.
		Symbolic: "Symbolic brands satisfy symbolic needs such as those for self-expression and prestige, and their practical usage is only incidental" (Bhat & Reddy, 1998, p. 32 (i.e., luxury products).	*Symbolic products:* Luxury watches, luxury clothes, etc.
Nature of the COO reference	Explicit/implicit	*Explicit:* COO is communicated directly in the ad (Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2013b).	*Explicit:* Country or city name, map, flag.
		Implicit: COO is communicated indirectly in the ad (Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2013b).	*Implicit:* Monuments, landmarks, colors, language, animals, people, typical scenarios.
	Affective/cognitive /mixed	*Affective:* "Country of origin is an image attribute that links the product to symbolic and emotional benefits, including social status and national pride" (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999, p. 524).	*Affective:* The joy of using/owning/buying a product from a COO.
		Cognitive: "Country of origin is used as a 'signal' for overall product quality and quality attributes, such as reliability and durability" (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999, p. 524).	*Cognitive:* The superior nature of a product/brand from a COO.
		Mixed: The advertisement makes both an affective and cognitive reference to COO.	*Mixed:* The joy of owning a superior product.

Table 2: Results of the content analysis pooled data.

Hypotheses			Results			Test statistic	Results
			Presence of COO cue				
			Yes	*No*	*Total*		
H1a/b	**Origin**	*Domestic*	596 (55.5%)	478 (44.5%)	1074 (49.2%)	$\chi^2 = 22.048$ p< .001	Partial support
		Foreign	503 (45.4%)	604 (54.6%)	1107 (50.8%)		
H2	**Ethnicity**	*High*	834 (57.0%)	630 (43.0%)	1464 (67.1%)	$\chi^2 = 77.070$ $p < .001$	Supported
		Low	265 (37.0%)	452 (63.0%)	717 (32.9%)		
H3a/b	**Involvement**	*High*	723 (52.4%)	656 (47.6%)	1379 (63.2%)	$\chi^2 = 6.240$ $p = .012$	Support for H3b
		Low	376 (46.9%)	426 (53.1%)	802 (36.8%)		
H4a/b	**Product category**	*Hedonic*	559 (48.9%)	585 (51.1%)	1144 (52.5%)	$\chi^2 = 9.143$ p = .010	Supported
		Utilitarian	300 (48.7%)	316 (51.3%)	616 (28.2%)		
		Symbolic	240 (57.0%)	181 (53.0%)	421 (19.3%)		
			Number of COO cues				
			M (SD)				
H5	**Origin**	*Domestic*	1.37 (.62)			$t(1075) = 4.708$ $p <$ .001	Partial support
		Foreign	1.22 (.45)				
H6	**Ethnicity**	*High*	1.30 (.56)			$t(1097) = .279$ $p = .780$	Partial support
		Low	1.31 (.52)				
H7a/b	**Involvement**	*High*	1.32 (.55)			$t(738) = 1.509$ $p = .132$	Partial support
		Low	1.27 (.56)				
H8a/b	**Product category**	*Hedonic*	1.22 (.46)			$F(2, 1096) = 21.409$ $p =$ .000	Not supported
		Utilitarian	1.47 (.70)				
		Symbolic	1.29 (.50)				

Table 3: Results of the content analysis France.

Hypotheses			Results			Test statistic	Results
			Presence of COO cue				
			Yes	*No*	*Total*		
H1a	**Origin**	*Domestic*	270 (44.2%)	342 (55.9%)	612 (53.4%)	$\chi^2 = 37.192\ p < .001$	Supported
		Foreign	143 (26.8%)	391 (73.2%)	534 (46.6%)		
H2	**Ethnicity**	*High*	366 (42.3%)	500 (57.7%)	866 (75.6%)	$\chi^2 = 59.583\ p < .001$	Supported
		Low	47 (16.8%)	233 (83.2%)	280 (24.4%)		
H3a/b	**Involvement**	*High*	263 (35.7%)	474 (64.3%)	737 (64.3%)	$\chi^2 = 0.112\ p = .738$	Not supported
		Low	150 (36.7%)	259 (63.3%)	409 (35.7%)		
H4a	**Product category**	*Hedonic*	321 (40.5%)	471 (59.5%)	792 (69.1%)	$\chi^2 = 34.842\ p < .001$	Supported
		Utilitarian	25 (15.9%)	132 (84.1%)	157 (13.7%)		
		Symbolic	67 (34.0%)	130 (66.0%)	197 (17.2%)		
			Number of COO cues				
			M (SD)				
H5	**Origin**	*Domestic*	1.26 (.52)			$t(411) = 5.949\ p < .001$	Supported
		Foreign	1.66 (.83)				
H6	**Ethnicity**	*High*	1.36 (.66)			$t(411) = 3.339\ p = .001$	Not supported
		Low	1.70 (.66)				
H7a/b	**Involvement**	*High*	1.35 (.60)			$t(411) = 1.895\ p = .059$	Marginally supported
		Low	1.48 (.78)				
H8a	**Product category**	*Hedonic*	1.39 (.69)			$F(2;410) = .248\ p = .781$	Not supported
		Utilitarian	1.36 (.49)				
		Symbolic	1.45 (.66)				

Table 4: Results of the content analysis India.

Hypotheses			Results			Test statistic	Results
			Presence of COO cue				
			Yes	*No*	*Total*		
H1b	**Origin**	*Domestic*	326 (70.6%)	136 (29.4%)	462 (44.6%)	$\chi^2 = 6.848$ $p = .009$	Not supported
		Foreign	360 (62.8%)	213 (37.2)	573 (55.4%)		
H2	**Ethnicity**	*High*	468 (78.3%)	130 (21.7%)	598 (57.8%)	$\chi^2 = 90.961$ $p < .001$	Supported
		Low	218 (49.9%)	219 (50.1%)	437 (42.2%)		
H3a/b	**Involvement**	*High*	460 (71.7%)	182 (28.3%)	642 (62.0%)	$\chi^2 = 21.823$ $p < .001$	Support for H3b
		Low	226 (57.5%)	167 (42.5%)	393 (38.0%)		
H4b	**Product category**	*Hedonic*	238 (67.6%)	115 (32.4%)		$\chi^2 = 20.628$ p < .001	Supported
		Utilitarian	275 (59.9%)	184 (40.1%)			
		Symbolic	173 (77.2%)	50 (22.8%)			
			Number of COO cues				
			M (SD)				
H5	**Origin**	*Domestic*	1.67 (.70)			t(586) = 7.816 $p < .001$	Not supported
		Foreign	1.31 (1.31)				
H6	**Ethnicity**	*High*	1.53 (.66)			t(498) = 3.222 $p = .001$	Supported
		Low	1.37 (.56)				
H7a/b	**Involvement**	*High*	1.50 (.61)			t(684) = 1.033 $p = .302$	Not supported
		Low	1.44 (.67				
H8b	**Product category**	*Hedonic*	1.50 (.59)			F(2, 683) = 1.860 $p = .156$	Not supported
		Utilitarian	1.40 (.55)				
		Symbolic	1.51 (.72)				

Table 5: Summary of findings and managerial gaps.

Scope	Hypotheses	Context	Theoretical framework	Key references from consumer behavior	Findings of this study	Managerial gap and recommendations
Usage vs. non-usage **Number of COO**	*H1a: Domestic brands are more likely than foreign brands to use COO in their advertisements in a developed market context.* *H1b: Foreign brands are more likely than domestic brands to use COO in their advertisement in a developing market context.* *H5: Foreign brands use more COO cues in their advertisements than domestic brands.*	**Origin**	Information theory Categorization theory	Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, (2004), Olson & Jacoby (1972), Mervis & Rosch (1981), Sharma (2011), Verlegh (2007)	H1a supported H1b not supported H5 partial support	Marketers in the developed market setting follow theoretical recommendations from the literature, but foreign brand managers should consider leveraging product ethnicity to a greater extent. Marketers in developing market settings should consider promoting the COO of foreign brands with multiple cues to increase COO effectiveness.
Usage vs. non-usage **Number of COO**	*H2: Products with high product–country ethnicity are more likely to use COO in their advertisements than products with low product–country ethnicity.* *H6: Products with high product–country ethnicity use more COO cues in their advertisements than products with low product–country ethnicity.*	**Ethnicity**	Information theory Categorization theory	Olson & Jacoby (1972), Roth & Romeo (1993), Spielmann, (2016), Usunier & Cestre (2007), Mervis & Rosch (1981)	H2 supported H6 partial support	Marketers in both market settings follow theoretical recommendations from the literature. Foreign brand managers should consider highlighting product ethnicity in their advertisements to a greater extent. In a developed market setting, marketers should consider using more COO cues for high-ethnicity products.
Usage vs. non-usage **Number of COO**	*H3a: Low-involvement products are more likely to use COO in their advertisements than high-involvement products.* *H3b: High-involvement products are more likely to use COO in their advertisements than low-involvement products.* *H7a: Low-involvement products use more COO cues in their advertisements than high-involvement products.* *H7b: High-involvement products use more COO cues in their advertisement than low-involvement products.*	**Involvement**	Information theory Categorization theory Elaboration likelihood model	Bloemer et al. (2009), Han (1989), Knight & Calantone (2000), Mervis & Rosch (1981), Olson & Jacoby (1972), Petty & Cacioppo (1986)	H3a not supported H3b supported H7a/b not supported	Marketers in the developed market setting do not distinguish between high- and low-involvement products in their usage of COO-related advertisements but could consider using more COO cues in their advertisements. Markets in the developing market setting predominantly use COO-related advertisements for high-involvement products but could consider employing more COO cues in their advertisements.
Usage vs. non-usage **Number of COO**	*H4a: Hedonic products are more likely to feature COO in their advertisements than utilitarian or symbolic products in a developed market context.* *H4b: Symbolic products are more likely to feature COO in their advertisement than hedonic or utilitarian products in a developing market context.* *H8a: Hedonic products use more COO cues in their advertisements than cognitive or symbolic products do in a developed market context.* *H8b: Symbolic products use more COO cues in their advertisement than cognitive or utilitarian symbolic products do in a developing market context.*	**Product category**	Information theory Categorization theory	Dhar & Wertenbroch, (2000), Olson & Jacoby (1972), Mervis & Rosch (1981), Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999), Zhou & Hui (2003)	H4a/b supported H8a/b not supported	Marketers in both market settings follow theoretical recommendations from the literature. Marketers could consider increasing the number of COO cues to increase COO effectiveness.

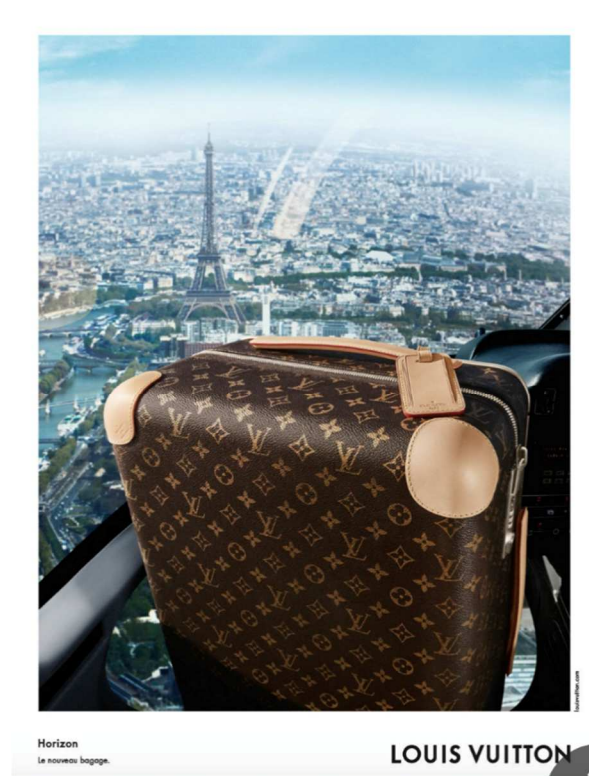**Appendix A:** Example ads featuring explicit COO cues.

Cosmopolitan India #10-2017

GQ France #116-2018

Appendix B: Example ads featuring implicit COO cues.

GQ France and GQ India #12-2018

Marie Claire France #785-2017

Appendix C: Additional analysis pooled data.

		Origin		Ethnicity		Involvement		Product Category			
		Domestic	Foreign	High	Low	High	Low	Hedonic	Utilitarian	Symbolic	
Type of COO reference	Explicit	385 (52.4%)	350 (47.6%)	601 (81.8%)	134 (18.2%)	477 (64.9%)	258 (35.1%)	412 (56.1%)	171 (23.3%)	152 (20.6%)	Origin: χ^2=3.060 p=.080 Ethnicity: χ^2=41.952 p<.001 Involvement: χ^2=.779 p=.377 Product category: χ^2=26.331 p<.001
	Implicit	211 (58.0%)	153 (42.0%)	233 (64.0%)	131 (36.0%)	246 (67.6%)	118 (32.4%)	147 (40.4%)	129 (35.4%)	88 (24.2%)	
	Affective	353 (46.9%)	400 (53.1%)	557 (74.0%)	196 (26.0%)	533 (70.8%)	220 (29.2%)	372 (49.4%)	165 (20.6%)	226 (30%)	Origin: χ^2=52.967 p<.001 Ethnicity: χ^2=5.646 p=.059 Involvement: χ^2=26.611 p<.001 Product category: χ^2=127.622 p<.001
	Cognitive	87 (73.7%)	31 (26.3%)	91 (77.1%)	27 (22.9%)	66 (55.9%)	52 (44.1%)	52 (44.1%)	64 (54.2%)	2 (1.7%)	
	Mixed	156 (68.4%)	72 (31.6%)	186 (81.6%)	42 (18.4%)	124 (54.4%)	104 (45.6%)	135 (59.2%)	81 (35.5%)	12 (5.3%)	
Product category	Hedonic	324 (58.0%	235 (42.0%)	428 (76.6%)	131 (23.4%)	310 (55.5%)	249 (44.5%)				Origin: χ^2=14.170 p<.001 Ethnicity: χ^2=157.798 p<.001 Involvement: χ^2=6.657 p=.010
	Utilitarian	195 (65.0%)	105 (35.0%)	195 (65.0%)	105 (35.0%)	174 (58.0%)	126 (42.0%)				Origin: χ^2=27.000 p<.001 Ethnicity: χ^2=27.000 p<.001 Involvement: χ^2=7.680 p=.006
	Symbolic	77 (32.1%)	163 (67.9%)	211 (87.9%)	29 (12.1%)	239 (99.6%)	1 (0.4%)				Origin: χ^2=30.817 p<.001 Ethnicity: χ^2=138.017 p<.001 Involvement: χ^2=236.017 p<.001
		χ^2=64.579 p<.001		χ^2=38.553 p<.001		χ^2=156.381 p<.001					

Appendix D: Additional analysis France.

		Origin		Ethnicity		Involvement		Product Category			
		Domestic	Foreign	High	Low	High	Low	Hedonic	Utilitarian	Symbolic	
Type of COO reference	Explicit	236 (66.1%)	121 (33.9%)	317 (88.8%)	40 (11.2%)	223 (62.5%)	134 (37.5%)	282 (79.0%)	19 (5.3%)	56 (15.7%)	Origin: χ^2=.622 p=.430 Ethnicity: χ^2=.081 p=.777 Involvement: χ^2=1.682 p=.195 Product category: χ^2=2.963 p=.227
	Implicit	34 (60.7%)	22 (39.3%)	49 (87.5%)	7 (12.5%)	40 (71.4%)	16 (28.6%)	39 (58.2%)	6 (9.0%)	22 (32.8%)	
	Affective	155 (61.3%)	98 (38.7%)	226 (89.3%)	27 (10.7%)	178 (70.4%)	75 (29.6%)	184 (72.7%)	6 (2.4%)	63 (24.9%)	Origin: χ^2=6.061 p=.048 Ethnicity: χ^2=.363 p=.834 Involvement: χ^2=13.221 p=.001 Product category: χ^2=57.628 p<.001
	Cognitive	28 (65.1%)	15 (34.9%)	38 (88.4%)	5 (11.6%)	25 (58.1%)	18 (41.9%)	34 (79.1%)	7 (16.3%)	2 (4.6%)	
	Mixed	87 (74.4%)	30 (25.6%)	102 (87.2%)	15 (12.8%)	60 (51.3%)	57 (48.7%)	103 (88.0%)	12 (10.3%)	2 (1.7%)	
Product category	Hedonic	222 (69.2%)	99 (20.8%)	290 (90.3%)	31 (9.7%)	172 (53.6%)	149 (46.4%)				Origin: χ^2=47.131 p<.001 Ethnicity: χ^2=208.975 p<.001 Involvement: χ^2=1.648 p=.199
	Utilitarian	12 (48.0%)	13 (52%)	23 (92.0%)	2 (8.0%)	24 (96.0%)	1 (4.0%)				Origin: χ^2=.040 p=.841 Ethnicity: χ^2=17.640 p<.001 Involvement: χ^2=21.160 p<.001
	Symbolic	36 (53.7%)	31 (46.7%)	53 (79.1%)	14 (20.9%)	67 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)				Origin: χ^2=.373 p=.541 Ethnicity: χ^2=22.701 p<.001
		χ^2=9.377 p=.009		χ^2=6.276 p=.043		χ^2=63.656 p<.001					

Appendix E: Additional analysis India.

		Origin		Ethnicity		Involvement		Product Category			Test statistic
		Domestic	Foreign	High	Low	High	Low	Hedonic	Utilitarian	Symbolic	
Type of COO reference	Explicit	149 (39.4%)	229 (60.6%)	284 (75.1%)	94 (24.9%)	254 (67.2%)	124 (32.8%)	130 (34.4%)	152 (40.2%)	96 (25.4%)	Origin: χ^2=22.171 p<.001 Ethnicity: χ^2=18.546 p<.001 Involvement: χ^2=.008 p=.931 Product category: χ^2=.036 p=.982
	Implicit	177 (57.5%)	133 (42.5%)	184 (59.7%)	124 (40.3%)	206 (66.9%)	102 (33.1%)	108 (35.1%)	123 (39.9%)	77 (25.0%)	
	Affective	198 (39.6%)	302 (60.4%)	331 (66.2%)	169 (33.88%)	355 (71.0%)	145 (29.0%)	188 (37.6%)	149 (29.8%)	163 (32.6%)	Origin: χ^2=51.294 p<.001 Ethnicity: χ^2=3.994 p=.136 Involvement: χ^2=13.170 p=.001 Product category: χ^2=96.894 p<.001
	Cognitive	59 (78.7%)	16 (21.3%)	53 (70.7%)	22 (29.3%)	41 (54.7%)	34 (45.3%)	18 (7.6%)	57 (76.0%)	0 (0.0%)	
	Mixed	69 (62.2%)	42 (37.8%)	84 (75.7%)	27 (24.3%)	64 (57.7%)	47 (42.3%)	32 (28.8%)	69 (62.2%)	10 (9.0%)	
Product category	Hedonic	102 (42.9%)	136 (57.1%)	138 (58.0%)	100 (42.0%)	138 (58.0%)	100 (42.0%)				Origin: χ^2=4.857 p=.028 Ethnicity: χ^2=6.067 p=.014 Involvement: χ^2=6.067 p=.014
	Utilitarian	183 (66.5%)	92 (33.5%)	172 (62.5%)	103 (37.5%)	150 (54.5%)	125 (45.5%)				Origin: χ^2=30.113 p<.001 Ethnicity: χ^2=17.313 p<.001 Involvement: χ^2=2.273 p=.132
	Symbolic	41 (23.7%)	132 (76.3%)	158 (91.3%)	15 (8.7%)	172 (99.4%)	1 (0.6%)				Origin: χ^2=47.867 p<.001 Ethnicity: χ^2=118.202 p<.001 Involvement: χ^2=169.023 p<.001
		χ^2=81.352 p<.001		χ^2=58.205 p<.001		χ^2=110.388 p<.001					